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PLANNING AND DESIGN

Environmental Sustainability in Sport Facilities in East Tennessee

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Abstract

Considering the recent emphasis on sustainability in the sport industry, this study focused on the environmental management of sport facilities. More specifically, we explored small-scale sport facilities and examined their environmental practices. We sought to identify challenges (e.g., financial and human resources) associated with the adoption of these programs. We collected data through semistructured interviews with various individuals responsible for the management of the sport facilities and the environmental initiatives. Results indicated that all sport facilities have a recycling program with larger facilities having additional programs focusing on energy saving equipment and stations for recharging electrical cars. Findings also revealed that multiple challenges prevent sport facility managers from adopting environmentally sustainable initiatives: lack of education, the age of the facility, limited funding, and insufficient human power. We also discussed suggestions for future research and the practical implications of the study.

Keywords: *sustainability; sport facilities; environmental programs*

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In recent years, sport entities have begun to place the environment as a corporate agenda priority. For example, the 2011 Major League Baseball (MLB) All-Star game was executed with consideration of its environmental impact (Hershkowitz, 2011). In 2010, the Winter Olympics created a “green roof” on the Olympic village designed to manage stormwater drainage and reduce the heat island effect of urbanization. Strong messages discouraging the use of toxic materials such as polystyrene and plastic were communicated during the 2010 FIFA World Cup. In March 2010, more than 25 sport teams and venues from across North America joined the Green Sports Alliance, an entity created to address environmental sustainability in sport. Scholarly work has indicated that professional sport organizations adopt environmental business practices due to strategic and institutional pressures (Babiak & Trendafilova, 2011). This is further reinforced by the notion that sport business entities are perceived to be in a unique position to impact society (Godfrey, 2009; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007).

Considering the recent emphasis on sustainability in sport, the purpose of this study was twofold: (1) to examine environmental practices within sport facilities in eastern Tennessee and (2) to identify barriers (e.g., financial and human resources) for achieving sustainability objectives.

Review of Literature

Sport arenas, ballparks, and stadiums consume massive amounts of nonrenewable energy, a challenge that more cities are attempting to address by investing in environmentally friendly sport facilities (Kellison & Mondello, 2012). Recent scholarship in urban planning and sport management has critically analyzed the increasingly popular choice to outfit new sport facilities with environmentally conscious features, a choice motivated by factors including the belief that such facilities will be more cost-effective long term given their decreased reliance on public utility consumption. The majority of research related to pro-environmentalism and sport has focused on facilities that house major professional teams or international competitions such as the Olympic Games or FIFA World Cup (e.g., Ansari, Bin Azad, Azeemi, & Tabassum, 2013; Cilletti, Lanasa, Ramos, Luchs, & Lou, 2010; Mallen, Adams, Stevens, & Thompson, 2010; Ponsford, 2011; Samuel & Stubbs, 2012; Trendafilova, Babiak, & Heinze, 2013).

Less is known about the environmental strategies of sport facility managers in smaller minor league markets. Although professional sport leagues and mega events attract the most interest from the media and consumers, we are somewhat surprised that public assembly facilities in smaller communities and cities have not received much attention in the sport management literature. Given the finite number of professional sport venues and their locations in large urban environments, ordinary citizens are more likely to use other public spaces such as city pools, fitness and recreation centers, and multipurpose arenas or performance halls. Below, we highlight the existing literature related to regional sustainable initiatives occurring in local communities and outline the unique challenges sport managers in minor league markets face when implementing pro-environmental strategies.

Sustainability in Local Communities

Previous research has suggested that a number of actors can initiate communitywide pro-environmental policies. Increasingly, elected officials and business owners are confronting the challenges of reducing the environmental impacts associated with local industry and development. Given the potential environmental, economic, and social benefits of environmental stewardship, these decision makers have a vested interest in adopting green business practices (Kellison & Kim, in press). In light of these expected benefits, some policy makers have initiated eco-friendly initiatives without provocation from the general public. Calls for environmental stewardship from local citizens are also becoming more pronounced in communities ranging from rural villages to urban metropolises (Stoddart, Tindall, & Greenfield, 2012; Turcu, 2013).

Based on the premise that local environmental initiatives may elicit positive behavioral changes among community members, some scholars have investigated factors that have led local citizens to adopt conservation behaviors. For example, Hallin (1995) observed the conservation habits of citizens in Foley, Minnesota (population 2,000), and noted that the majority of individuals who engaged in pro-environmental behaviors were influenced by personal experiences rather than the specter of future ecological harm. These personal experiences included living through significant historical events (e.g., Great Depression, Vietnam War), which influenced individuals' "worldviews, value systems, and behavior" (Hallin, 1995, p. 574). Additionally, other Foley citizens engaged in conservation activities after they were identified as role models in the community; as Hallin noted, "to behave in environmentally responsible ways became more of their identities as teachers or other professionals" (p. 574). Based on these findings, individuals who recognize their effect on the larger community are more likely to promote pro-environmental initiatives. This notion is further supported by Evans et al. (2012), who found that citizens were more likely to engage in pro-environmental behaviors for self-transcendent causes (e.g., caring for the ecosystem) than out of self-interest (e.g., receiving cash deposits for recycling cans).

Scholarly work has explored the impact of pro-environmental initiatives from myriad scopes and perspectives. Most of the existing work within the sport management literature has centered on individual arenas, ballparks, and stadiums. Such scholarship is commonsensical considering that the mega sport facility is often one of its city's most recognized and symbolic physical structures (Horne, 2011). However, researchers who have investigated the pro-environmental strategies of smaller communities have largely looked beyond particular businesses and facilities and instead have focused on townwide and citywide initiatives. For example, Paul and Che (2011) examined the pro-environmental strategies of Greenburg, Kansas (population 1,400), a town being rebuilt after it was nearly destroyed by a tornado in 2007. One of the challenges for civic leaders in Greenburg was to remain committed to reconstructing in an environmentally sensitive manner despite the town's limited financial resources. In other places, sustainable initiatives have arisen out of city officials' desire to reduce public utility costs. For example, policy makers in Catoosa County, Georgia, were inspired to adopt and enforce new environmental regulatory restrictions, in part, after the closure of a local landfill revealed that they could be "both a good environmental citizen and a cost-effective provider of services to county residents" (Irvin, Appel, McEntire, & Rabon, 2008, p. 592).

Case study analyses such as those by Paul and Che (2011) and Irvin et al. (2008) have been useful in identifying the ways in which pro-environmental strategies have been implemented at local and regional levels. The case study approach was similarly employed by Climate Solutions, whose 2012 report identified the best sustainability practices in several small U.S. communities. For example, residents in Hailey, Idaho (population 8,075), were offered materials and labor rebates that significantly offset the cost to retrofit existing buildings with eco-friendly technologies. Additionally, policy makers in Bedford, New York (population 18,457), unanimously approved a strategic plan to reduce greenhouse gas emissions by 20% by 2020. Furthermore, officials in Oberlin, Ohio (population 8,268), partnered with the local electric company to develop a plan for more efficient energy consumption; as a result of the partnership, over 90% of the town's electrical power is generated from renewable resources such as landfill gas, solar, and wind. As shown by the examples, the Climate Solutions report demonstrates the feasibility of large-scale environmentally sustainable projects in small- and moderate-sized communities.

Despite the promising developments in the cities outlined by Climate Solutions (2012), environmental advocates still face several barriers when convincing local citizens to embrace sustainable initiatives. Trier and Maiboroda (2009) researched Belstone, England's (population 260) "Green Village" initiative, a series of pro-environmental strategies initially implemented by a small number of citizens with the hope that all villagers would eventually adopt sustainable behaviors. They noted the group of early adopters quickly became acclimated to more sustainable

lifestyles, but the desired “snowball effect” failed to materialize. Similar research has highlighted the influence of local citizens and business leaders in smaller communities. For instance, Dabrowska, Bates, and Murphy’s (2012) investigated Elmira, Ontario (population 9,931), and identified a number of individual characteristics influencing citizens’ levels of concern toward a water contamination crisis, including personal religious beliefs and the perceived trustworthiness of local industry. Thus, with fewer residents and businesses in communities such as Elmira, these actors may have more influence on policy decisions.

Within the sport management literature, several scholars have proposed strategies to encourage pro-environmental development in sport facility design and operations. Pfahl (2010) suggested that strategic planning and the development of cross-functional organizational teams were vital to effectively responding to an organization’s environmental issues. Larger organizations such as major professional sport teams may be better equipped to assemble such work teams than the minor league teams that exist in smaller communities. As discussed further in the next section, a small-market team is typically made up of a bare-bones staff and has limited resources, thereby complicating possible environmental initiatives.

Elsewhere, Mallen and Chard (2012) provided a strategic vision in which environmental sustainability (ES) could be realized in Canada’s more than 2,400 sport facilities. Additionally, they provided an agenda for future research:

It is now up to both the sport practitioners and the...academy to engage in debate to further understandings concerning sport facilities and ES. ...In addition, research is needed to expose the specific challenges, barriers, best practices and the elements that aid in congruence between the goals and the implementation of sport facility ES. (pp. 241–242)

In this study, we endeavor to answer Mallen and Chard’s call to identify the specific challenges and barriers that sport facility managers face. Given their expansive open-air designs, sport venues in general have historically placed significant burdens on local natural resources. Although much smaller in scale than their major league counterparts, small town sport facilities still face many of the same challenges. Additionally, fewer human and financial resources may present minor league facility managers with unique challenges, as we discuss below.

Barriers to Sustainable Design

Policy makers, business owners, and local citizens may face barriers when attempting to implement pro-environmental strategies. In some cases, these barriers are organizational: the absence of leadership with expertise on green design, too few staff members to implement a plan, and a lack of financial resources. In other cases, psychological barriers may be present, such as citizens’ mistrust in local decision makers or their lack of attachment to the surrounding natural environment (Scannell & Gifford, 2010). In this section, we chronicle the organizational and psychological barriers to sustainable design.

Apathetic and negative attitudes toward the effectiveness of eco-friendly initiatives are big challenges that environmental advocates face. According to Quimby and Angelique (2011), feelings of apathy and hopelessness can emerge when individuals feel that their actions will fail to produce positive benefits to the environment. These feelings may be especially pronounced in small communities where citizens are likely to recognize that their pro-environmental efforts will be radically offset by the huge carbon footprints of growing domestic economies and developing nations abroad (Irvin et al., 2008). Thus, local communities may be less inclined to support pro-environmental strategies if they understand the purpose of focusing on large-scale problems such as climate change—a problem unlikely to be solved by small town initiatives.

Local communities may also be resistant to pro-environmental initiatives if the plans are perceived as threatening to local industry. For example, in small industrial towns in which one or several factories are the main centers of employment and commercial activity, new environ-

mental regulations may restrict business operations: “Local communities in pursuing their own self-interest may not pursue the wider interest. For example, they may fail to take account of the external effects of their actions” (Tisdell, 1997, p. 1368). Additionally, the potential for greater personal wealth or local economic development may lead communities to exploit their natural resources. Exactly who should have authority over processing and exporting these natural resources has been the subject of much debate; most recently, this controversy has centered on the economic and environmental impacts of hydraulic fracturing (cf. Finewood & Stroup, 2012).

Certain internal barriers may also hinder an organization’s ability to adopt eco-friendly strategies, including insufficient economic resources, low levels of employee involvement, the absence of environmental experts, and a lack of time (Quimby & Angelique, 2011; Saha, 2009; Sennes, Breillat, Ribeyre, & Gombert, 2008). The presence of these institutional barriers seems especially possible in the organizations of minor professional sport teams. That is, the likelihood that a front office of a double-A baseball team has the capability to staff a dedicated sustainability work team (as recommended by Pfahl, 2010) is low given their typically limited capital and human resources.

In addition to identifying the obstacles to pro-environmental initiatives, researchers have explored the consequences of socially responsible initiatives for local business leaders. In examining small town businesses, Besser (2002) identified several negative outcomes of socially responsible business initiatives, including time drain, public scrutiny, and discourtesy from others. She noted that in extreme cases, decision makers were even physically threatened after pledging support to certain community programs. In light of the possible burdens environmental regulations may place on local industries, policy makers who propose pro-environmental initiatives might expect similar negative consequences. Although many examples of corporate social responsibility would likely generate goodwill among the community (e.g., donating to a charitable cause, donating tickets to underprivileged youth), other initiatives may face resistance. For example, teams that champion a pro-environmental agenda may be accused of “greenwashing,” or embellishing, the ecological benefits of their sustainability programs (Peattie & Crane, 2005).

Considering the factors that may aid or hinder the adoption of sustainable business practices in small communities, further research is needed to identify the particular factors that contribute to pro-environmental sport strategies in those settings. Acknowledging that business owners and managers hold the ultimate authority to adopt socially responsible business practices, Besser (2012) advocated that researchers focus on the perspectives of primary decision makers:

...Insight into the owner’s motivations for contributing to community betterment and the consequences of that behavior for the business and the owner will add to this literature. Equally important, this knowledge can inform policies aimed at increasing good citizenship for all sizes of businesses regardless of location. (p. 129)

Based on this recommendation, in this study, we focus on the individuals involved in key sustainable programming decisions. This focus allows us to identify the unique challenges sport organizations in small communities face when attempting to implement environmental initiatives.

Great urban metropolises such as London, Sydney, and Tokyo have been hailed as centers for creativity, the arts, culture, and economics. Moreover, following Tokyo’s unveiling of its Olympic stadium for 2020, all these facilities will be recognized for their pro-environmental sport facilities. Vallance, Perkins, Bowring, and Dixon (2012) argued these cities represent unique laboratories in which scholars can study the varying forces supporting and opposing sustainable initiatives: “The city, long characterized by diversity and difference, perhaps holds the greatest promise of accommodating the multiple and unfolding interpretations and applications of this alluring yet highly problematic idea” (p. 1708). Certainly, the towns and cities

highlighted in our study differ from the cities Vallance et al. discussed. Nevertheless, although less demographically diverse and economically robust than major cities, the eastern Tennessee communities profiled in this study have their own distinctive characteristics. As we discuss further in the following section, the unique features of these small towns and cities present facility managers with a number of opportunities and challenges unlike those experienced in typical major league cities.

Method

Facilities

We focused our research on seven sport facilities in the eastern Tennessee geographical area. Facilities varied from baseball fields, to an ice hockey arena, to a motor racing track. The largest facility was constructed in 1960 and could accommodate up to 165,000 spectators. It is managed by an organization responsible for managing similar sport facilities. Although this facility could be classified as a large-scale sport facility, we decided to include it due to its location in eastern Tennessee. The remaining facilities were built between 1956 and 2000, and the seating capacity varied between 1,500 and 7,655. The management structure of the facilities varies as well. Some are individually owned and managed, and others are owned and operated by the city or the city's sport foundation. The exception is one facility and team that are owned and operated by a Major League Baseball team. All baseball facilities and teams included in this study are affiliates of a Major League Baseball team.

Participants

The participants in this study were the facility manager of each sport facility or other individuals (e.g., director of operations, general manager) with primary responsibilities for the decisions related to implementing environmentally sustainable programs. These individuals were interviewed either in person or over the phone. Eight interviews were conducted. The interviews were semistructured in nature and were recorded digitally for later transcription and analysis. The interview guide was developed based on the literature in this area of research. Interview questions revolved around general attitudes toward the environment and the specific sustainability initiatives the facility and team had in that regard.

Data Analysis

A traditional constant comparative method was used for data analysis of the interview transcripts, as it is a systematic method for recording, coding, and analyzing data (Henderson, 2006). Using this technique permitted the researchers to review the data for occurrences of similarities and differences (Schram, 2006). Two researchers individually analyzed the data and compared results.

Results

The results are organized in three groups based on the magnitude of the environmental programs and the financial and human resources necessary to implement them. We would like to acknowledge that this classification is rather arbitrary and not founded on solid financial data since such data were difficult to acquire. Table 1 presents a summary of the findings and also includes challenges our participants identified and their long-term goals in relation to sustainability initiatives.

Table 1*Existing Environmental Programs, Challenges, and Long-Term Goals*

Tier III	Tier II	Tier I	Challenges	Long-term goals
Plastic bottles recycling	Fluorescent lighting	Car-charging stations	Insufficient staff	Car-charging stations
Cardboard and aluminum cans recycling	Irrigation systems	Landfills (catch methane gas)	Limited funding	More landfills
Self-separation of solid waste	HVAC	Alternative fuels for fleet vehicles	Lack of knowledge about novel technologies	Solar panels
			Age of facility	Water-free urinals

In relation to the first objective of this study, data analysis revealed that all sport facilities had a recycling program, with some facilities solely focusing on recycling plastic bottles and other facilities (in addition to plastic bottles) on recycling cardboard and aluminum cans. Larger facilities had additional programs focusing on energy saving equipment and stations for recharging electrical cars. In relation to the second objective of the study, participants shared that multiple challenges prevent them from adopting more environmentally sustainable initiatives: lack of education (among facility operations personnel and members of the local community), the age of the facility, limited funding, and insufficient human power. Results also indicated that no system is in place to track down the outcome of some of these programs since most numbers are cumulative for the entire city and do not provide specifics for the facility itself. In relation to future plans, teams indicated that despite the limited financial and human resources, they plan to build more recharging stations for electrical cars and to explore the possibility for installing solar panels. In addition, facilities have considered implementing water-free urinals. Data also revealed that despite the existing barriers, sport facility personnel are optimistic about the future and constantly on the lookout for new opportunities to collaborate and implement additional programs to minimize the environmental impact.

Discussion and Conclusions

We are encouraged to see that each facility is implementing recycling programs and is continuing to explore more opportunities for expanding the scope of environmentally sustainable programs. Unfortunately, no system is in place to track the benefits of implementing green programs, making it difficult for prospective investors to see their return on investment. Some environmental initiatives such as solar panels involve a substantial initial cost. Additionally, the lack of expertise on sustainability programs among facility operations personnel and members of the general community complicates matters further.

The findings of this study have applications for sport facility operations personnel and local communities. Achieving sustainability requires a collective effort and the collaboration of multiple stakeholders. Although teams and operations personnel realized the importance of collaboration and were interested in establishing new relationships in the local community with environmental groups and other businesses, the lack of staff members made this task challenging. In most cases, the city was in charge of operations with a handful of employees assigned to multiple responsibilities on a daily basis. A possible solution to this could be a better system of

communication between the team and the local community. Having the word out there not only about the environmental programs in place but also about the specific needs of the facility could initiate interest in potential partners for creating additional environmental initiatives. In other words, marketing efforts need to focus not only on the game and attracting more spectators but also on marketing the green programs. Additionally, marketing green initiatives could trigger environmental behaviors at home, thus expanding the scope of these efforts from the facility to the spectators' homes.

The link between the factors presenting challenges for implementing environmentally sustainable programs is important. For example, funding is difficult to acquire partially due to the numbers related to facility environmental practices not being tracked. This is connected to the lack of sufficient human power to allow for such data collection, which in turn impacts the possibility for obtaining funding because potential sponsors would like to see evidence for return on investment. Furthermore, public pressure to address the environment forces teams and facility operations personnel to take actions, but at the same time, other social issues take precedence, such as facility compliance with the Americans With Disabilities Act.

The challenges facing facility operations personnel identified in this research concur with previously published scholarly work, pointing at economic resources, lack of time, and absence of environmental expertise as the main internal barriers for adopting sustainability practices (Quimby & Angeliq, 2011; Saha, 2009; Sennes et al., 2008). Although limited financial and human resources might present challenges and prevent the sport organization and the facility manager from forming a dedicated sustainability team (Pfahl, 2010), finding creative ways to partner with local organizations and businesses could be the solution. We acknowledge that challenges associated with the infrastructure of the community may not be possible to overcome (e.g., the lack of a local solid waste distribution center). Therefore, future research should focus in depth on the unique and various factors influencing the operations of a sport team and its facility housed in a small community and the local community's culture, values, and beliefs.

Although small communities have fewer resources than major cities, research has indicated that sport organizations play an important role in the structure and functioning of small communities (Wild, 1974). In other words, sport could be used as tool for fostering interactions and social networks (Kemp, 1999; Walter, 1981), therefore helping the local team and facility manager to form partnerships with local organizations to initiate environmentally sustainable programs. Sport often plays an integrative function in rural communities, and collaboration is critical among partners for mobilizing community resources (Dempsey, 1990; Dredge, 2006; Provan, Veazie, Staten, & Teufel-Shone, 2005). Small town sport teams have a special connection with the local community (Hoffmann, Kraus, & Manning, 2012), and strong ties between the team and the community have the potential to not only promote but also strengthen community integration (Reding, Grieve, Derryberry, & Paquin, 2011). We believe that our findings provide a new direction to explore gaps and practical needs in the areas of facility/venue management, stakeholder engagement, and sustainability strategies in small cities and towns in particular.

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PLANNING AND DESIGN

When Fans Rush the Court: Safety Perceptions of Intercollegiate Basketball Venue Managers

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Abstract

Rushing the court is a way for spectators to celebrate their team after an important win. However, the potential for spectator injury may exist in the commotion. The purpose of this study was to determine how university basketball arena personnel are managing the risks that may occur when fans rush the court. Results indicated that more than 50% of the respondents perceived rushing the court as a threat as nearly 80% of the respondents reported spectator injuries had occurred due to rushing the court. Although 79% possessed an emergency action plan that was developed for spectators rushing the court, only 60% required their event safety personnel to attend safety training sessions prior to working a game and only 55% reviewed crowd control issues after the contest.

Keywords: *risk management; safety*

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College men's basketball is often one of the leading components of campus life in which students identify with and form emotional bonds with teams. This is particularly true when the institution does not sponsor a football team (e.g., Marquette University, St. John's University, Gonzaga) or the accomplishments of the basketball team overshadow the football team (e.g., University of Connecticut, Duke University, Indiana University). When students become emotionally attached to a team, disruptive behavior may result after an important win or disheartening loss (Bernache-Assolant & Chantal, 2009). In fact, former associate commissioner of the Southeastern Conference Brad Davis once stated, "What's become acceptable is to do your best to create an intimidating (home field) atmosphere" (Weiberg, 2002, para. 4). To compound the issue, historically many institutions have attempted to "... create difficult and intimidating environments (with rowdy student sections as the primary vehicle) for opposing teams and fans. Institutions invest time and promotional resources to encourage rabid fanaticism" (*Report on the Sportsmanship and Fan Behavior Summit*, 2003, p. 6).

Spectators rushing the court after an upset win over a highly ranked opponent or defeating a traditional rival with a last second shot is not new to men's intercollegiate basketball. Generally, a court rush will begin when little time is left on the clock and a victory is most likely in hand. Recently, rushing the court has become more noteworthy. For example, Robert Morris University defeated the University of Kentucky in one of the opening games of the National Invitational Tournament and the University of Virginia upset Duke University in February 2013 (Boren, 2013).

Injuries happen while spectators rush the basketball courts. In 2004, Gerry Plunkett attended a Stanford home basketball game against the University of Arizona. After a Stanford player made a last second basket to win the game, Plunkett was knocked to the floor with her face forced down under her chair (Weinbaum, 2013). To add to the predicament her husband was not able to help her as he had been shoved into an adjacent table as a torrent of people streamed onto the court. According to Plunkett, "I'm fortunate my injuries were severe bruises to my leg. But I consider myself one of the victims..." (Weinbaum, 2013, para. 26). In 2004, Joe Kay, an outstanding high school volleyball and basketball player, was paralyzed on his right side after he suffered a torn carotid artery and a stroke after being thrown to the floor by individuals rushing the court (Weinbaum, 2013). Although Stanford University upheld his volleyball scholarship, by 2007, Kay had undergone 8 months of rehab, had changed from using his right hand to his left, and relearned how to walk, talk, and think, as well as dealing with aphasia.

In a more recent rushing the court incident, a North Carolina State student who used a wheelchair joined in the celebration after North Carolina State defeated Duke University in January 2013. As the end of the game approached, the student body president ask the student if he wanted to be pushed onto the floor (Mushnick, 2013). As the student entered the floor, he was almost instantly thrown from his wheelchair. While lying on the floor, he covered himself to protect against being trampled by other students. Spectators are not the only ones at risk. Former Ohio State basketball player Jared Sullinger accused University of Wisconsin fans of spitting on him during an on-court storming incident (Gardner, 2011).

Although court rushing may be perceived as occurring intermittently, Auerbach (2013) estimated that intercollegiate men's basketball fans storm their courts three times per week. Although coaches, players, and fans should feel the euphoria of a big win, to what extent does rushing the court cross the boundaries between safety and celebration? Duke University basketball coach Mike Krzyzewski raised concerns about his players' safety during a recent incident:

Look, do you know how close you are to — just put yourself in the position of one of our players or coaches. I'm not saying any fan did this, but the potential is there all the time for a fan to just go up to you and say, "Coach you're a [expletive]," or push you or hit you. And what do you do? What if you did something? (Boren, 2013, para. 5).

Many college coaches perceive spectators rushing the court as an important part of the sport as long as no one gets injured (Auerbach, 2013). Policies to deter court rushing vary significantly among the nation's colleges. Some conferences have instituted policies against fans coming onto the basketball court in droves. For example, the Southeast Conference (SEC) has a rule against court storming:

For the safety of participants and spectators alike, at no time before, during or after a contest shall spectators be permitted to enter the competition area. It is the responsibility of each member institution to implement procedures to ensure compliance with this policy ("Kentucky Fined," 2011).

The policy, which was unanimously approved by all of the SEC schools in 2004, allows the conference commissioner to enforce financial penalties. These penalties include \$5,000 for the first infraction, up to \$25,000 for a second offense, and up to \$50,000 for a third violation ("Kentucky Fined," 2011). However, this type of policy is unique in intercollegiate athletics. As a result, the norm is that universities are responsible for implementing safety procedures should such occasions occur.

Experienced individuals of well-run organizations should try to manage potential event risks, or they may be controlled by the risk (Frame, 2003). By acknowledging that injuries incurred during a university-sponsored event may lead to litigation, but the sport event manager may gain a greater comprehension and appreciation for the need to develop and implement a risk management plan specific to court rushing activities. This awareness may be considered the first step in managing risks at sport events. Thus, the purpose of this article was to analyze the risk management practices of intercollegiate men's basketball venue managers. To understand why and how to best manage the potential risk of injuries that may occur due to spectators rushing the basketball court, I will first address the legal issues that an institution owes to the spectators.

Spectator May Be Owed a Duty as a Business Invitee of Institution

Although a land owner should never be considered as the absolute insurer of a visitor's safety, premises liability holds landowners and/or possessors of a property liable for injuries occurring on their property including land areas and facilities (Sharp, 2003). An events test was used in early premises cases that dealt with prior similar incidents of crime on or near the landowner's property (*Delta Tau Delta v. Johnson*, 1999). As such, the owner of the premises did not have duty unless "... the owner knew or should have known that the specific harm was occurring or was about to occur." In many instances, premises owners have been able to avoid liability by emphasizing they were unaware of the action on their premises that was occurring or that they could not have known it was going to occur. However, litigation has grown with an increasing trend against land possessors in the past 10 years (Bates & Bates, 2005; Celedonia, 2008).

The primary component in resolving whether a university can be liable to spectators for their injuries is whether the institution owes a duty to its spectators. In a broad sense, three types of entrants exist—trespassers, licensees, and invitees—and with each categorization, the owner owes a different standard of care to the individual. A basketball arena owner-spectator relationship is equivalent to an invitee (Dobbs, 2000). Furthermore, the invitee status of entrants may be divided into two classifications: public invitee and business invitee. The public invitee is one who gains access to the area as a member of the general public, whereas the business invitee is invited to enter the area due to some business relationship, though not necessarily monetary in nature, with the land possessor. A distinction may be made between a public and business invitee by determining why the person is on the premises. For example, people who enter a store but do not buy anything are considered public invitees. A business invitee, as applied to athletic contests,

may be any fan attending an intercollegiate contest conducted on university- or college-owned premises (Mallen, 2001). As such, fans that pay for their tickets are considered business invitees because the cost of their ticket provides an economic gain to the university (Dobbs, 2000).

Based on this type of relationship, the university owes a duty of care to make conditions in the venue reasonably safe and to exercise reasonable care toward the spectators (Dobbs, 2000). Foreseeability is considered to be the degree to which the university knew or should have known that an invitee may be exposed to the probability of injury. Foreseeable danger provides a basis by which the risk of injury to another person and the existence of the duty to exercise care for a person injured on a premise is determined (Grady, 2010). If it is foreseeable that spectators are not in a position to ascertain a danger or protect themselves from the danger, then the university should exercise care to protect those spectators (Dobbs, 2000). However, if university cannot foresee the exposure to harm, in all likelihood, it will not be held liable for injuries that spectators incur (The American Law Institute, 1965). If the college cannot foresee the hazardous activity, then the school will most likely not be liable for spectator injuries (Dobbs, 2000). Thus, a threshold question is, is the essence of a university duty to protect noninvolved spectators from those rushing the basketball court? I will discuss this question in the following section.

Duty to Control Third Party Acts

Rushing the court may be dangerous. When schools encourage or condone field rushing, they may be considered to have acted unreasonably. When situations such as these have occurred, courts have held that the harm to plaintiffs, although caused by third parties, was stimulated by the defendant's actions, and consequently, the defendant is liable (*Isaacs v. Huntington Memorial Hospital*, 1985). Early case law confirmed that when individuals were on their premises, "...places of public entertainment owed affirmative duties of reasonable care to protect their customers" (Dobbs, 2000, p. 324). Because fans who go onto university- or college-owned property and pay to watch an athletic event are business invitees, a land owner has a greater level of duty to protect patrons attending sport events from negligent behavior (Mallen, 2001). This is especially true as an athletic organization has been recognized as having a "special relationship" or duty to protect patrons at sporting events and is required if the organization can foresee that a third party could inflict harm on another person (*Hills v. Bridgeview Little League Association*, 2000). In a majority of states, when conducting an event such as an athletic contest, an organization possesses a duty to use reasonable care for the safety and protection of their business patrons (*Pierce v. Murnick*, 1965).

To summarize, an invitee is owed two legal duties: (1) the duty to use reasonable care in keeping up the property in a reasonably safe condition and (2) the duty to warn of dangers of which the owner knew or should have known; dangers that are not known to the invitee; and dangers of which the invitee would be able to ascertain from reasonable care (Dobbs, 2000). Thus, an operator of a sport venue is under a general duty to exercise reasonable care under the conditions to preclude injury to people who come to watch a sporting contest (Mallen, 2001). In today's litigious society, injuries, particularly those of a serious nature, can generate lawsuits, which not only are financial burdens but also can be costly in terms of time, energy, and reputation. To alleviate possible lawsuits from occurring, organizations should develop and implement a risk management plan (Ammon & Brown, 2007). I will discuss the steps in developing an effective risk management plan in the next section.

Developing a Risk Management Plan

From an organizational perspective, risk management can protect the financial resources and reputation of an organization. To assist in protecting an organization from potentially litigious situations, venue managers should consider creating and executing detailed, preferably written, risk management plans (Miller & Gillentine, 2006; Miller, Wendt, & Young, 2010). Ef-

fective risk management plans should assess potential risks that are tied to the prospect of injury or loss through a blend of several distinct approaches. The risk assessment process calls for comprehensive deliberation of likely risks, not necessarily all risks (Frame, 2003). Risk assessment provides a basic tool with which to determine facility risk management needs. Risk assessments have four primary mechanisms: threat, criticality, and vulnerability assessments and application of countermeasures.

Threat Assessment

The first step in assessing risk is to conduct a threat assessment. A threat assessment may be used as a decision support tool to assist in creating and prioritizing security program requirements, planning, and resource allocations (Decker, 2001). It deals with issues such as how operations might be affected negatively or what weaknesses can be identified. For example, having heavily armed security personnel surround the basketball court to deter spectators from rushing it would be categorized as a negative.

When an organization embarks on a threat assessment effort, the team conducting the assessment is searching for potential sources of concern (Frame, 2003). Certainly, security personnel would have difficulty stopping hundreds of spectators, if not more, from streaming onto the court. However, an appropriately analyzed threat assessment may determine which section is most likely to have the most fans rush the court.

The risk assessment method to prepare for spectators rushing the court with vulnerability and criticality assessments, discussed in the next sections, can provide a better promise of vigilance in case of such an occurrence. One of the great undertakings of effectively managing risk is to bridge the gap between the anticipated events surfaced through risk assessment and reality. To narrow this gap, facility managers should implement a vulnerability assessment.

Vulnerability Assessment

Because not every threat might be identified, or because threat information might be incomplete, vulnerability assessments are essential to prepare better against threats (Durling, Price, & Spero, 2005). A vulnerability assessment might reveal weaknesses in an organization's security systems, avenues of ingress and egress in the building, and points of access to team or game official locker rooms. A vulnerability assessment is an evaluation of those areas in which a vulnerable population is susceptible to physical or psychological harm (Durling et al., 2005). For example, Coach Krzyzewski (Boren, 2013) raised concerns about his and his players' welfare when playing away from home. Additional populations that may be vulnerable to physical or psychological attack are the officials' and visiting coaches' wives. Each of these populations (visiting coach, players, and officials) may be left in a vulnerable position if the home institution does not have a risk management plan to escort them off the court safely. A vulnerability assessment identifies weaknesses that may be exploited and suggests options to eliminate or address those weaknesses (Decker, 2001). However, risk and vulnerability assessments need to be bolstered by a criticality assessment, which is the final major element of the risk management approach.

Criticality Assessment

A criticality assessment is a practice that recognizes and calculates important assets, infrastructure, and critical functions based on several factors, including the importance of its mission or function of the event, whether people may be at risk, and the significance of a structure or system. Assessing the criticality of a target can determine a target's attractiveness and which potential areas will receive attention first (Decker, 2001). As stated earlier, visiting coaches, players, and game officials may be vulnerable to assaults from spectators rushing onto the court. By identifying them as not only vulnerable but also critical to the function of the game, venue managers may designate visiting coaches, players, and game officials as areas of highest priorities and thus

may better direct their safety and security personnel. Once the priorities have been developed, the basketball venue implements appropriate risk management countermeasures.

Risk Management Countermeasures Considerations

According to Hawley, Noll, and Hildebrand (2000), an operative countermeasure, also referred to as a risk management countermeasure, can be defined as any item that may reduce a target's vulnerabilities. Within this context, risk management practices can include improvements in physical protective systems or changing procedures to minimize the potential of being victimized. Effectively implementing such risk management procedures is significant as courts have assumed that fans lack the capability of foreseeing a group of enthusiastic spectators suffering an injury while partaking in game-related activities such as chasing a ball during a game (*Hayden v. University of Notre Dame*, 1999; *Telega v. Security Bureau, Inc.*, 1998). Courts also have not allowed assumption of risk defense to be used even in situations in which a fan may foresee the potential for injury, asserting that such likelihood is not a matter of common knowledge (*Davidoff v. Metropolitan Baseball Club*, 1984; *Pestalozzi v. Philadelphia Flyers, Ltd.*, 1992). Seemingly, the courts have determined that in comparing a fans' assumption of risk and a venue operators' foreseeability of preventing crowd reactions, the venue supervisor "... stands in a better position to assume the liability due to its decision to operate such a facility and its ability to cover the costs of an injury that results from its decision" (Laughlin, 2003, p. 94). Additionally, previous court rulings have extended the liability for third party "criminal actions" to teams and universities who operate the venues and to entities that provide venue security that allegedly does not suitably employ the theory of legal liability to sports. To that extent, Laughlin (2003) related, "Courts appear all too eager to hold teams and universities liable for third party actions by rendering foreseeable events as unforeseeable, which results in a misapplication of the duty of care" (p. 94).

Decisions that previous courts made may influence the value of attending a sporting event for every fan (Miller et al., 2010). Increasing spectator safety may boost ticket prices as venue operators try to financially cover litigation costs. At an operational level, a risk management plan may be improperly implemented as a countermeasure if the risk policy and its relationship to the organization's overall strategy are not well communicated (Miller et al., 2010). Generally, risk tends to degrade an organization's (or an activity's) value if it is not effectively addressed (Rescher, 1983). However, if risk management countermeasures are improperly performed, they may negatively affect the overall appeal of attending the event. Although risk management countermeasures may meet the internal "value" test, no value-adding argument will suffice if they are judged to be illegal. In other words, inappropriately implemented risk management measures would most likely degrade the value of game attendance. Although driving risks to "zero" without degrading value is unlikely (even then, proximity to "zero" comes only at great expense), venue managers must consider how to balance the costs and benefits of risk management countermeasures with overall risk management objectives (Rescher, 1983). Thus, understanding how venue managers—specifically for this study individuals in charge of intercollegiate basketball venues—provide a reasonably safe environment for spectators without infringing on their enjoyment of the game is important.

Questionnaire Instrument

I developed a questionnaire that consisted of six multiple-choice questions and 23 Likert scale statements. Because individuals may be reluctant to provide a firm answer as they may most often choose the center answer (representing *unsure* or *uncertain*) on a 1–5- or 1–7-point scale, all of the Likert scale statements were identified on a 1 to 4 scale (1 = *strongly agree*, 2 = *agree*, 3 = *disagree*, 4 = *strongly disagree*). Previous studies have indicated that by using a

1–4-point Likert scale, the respondent is forced to identify a position (*agree* or *disagree*; Davis, 1992; Heaphy & Gruska, 2000; Lynn, 1986).

To ensure the instrument was valid, content validity was employed. Lynn (1986) recommended that a minimum of three experts but suggested that more than 10 was not effective. Because content validity is dependent on expert judgment regarding the appropriateness of the content (Patten, 2000), four intercollegiate basketball venue managers, not included in the population of the study, were asked for input. After perusing the instrument, they suggested four grammatical changes. Once these suggestions were incorporated into the instrument, they approved that the content of the instrument was appropriate. Thus, content validity was provided.

The next step was to determine the reliability of the instrument. Reliability addresses the consistency of the research findings' quantitative research (Litwin, 1995). To ensure that the survey questionnaire was reliable, five individuals who previously had conducted multisport events but were not involved in determining instrument validity were asked for their input. As test-retest reliability is the most common method used to determine survey instrument reliability (Litwin, 1995), this method was adopted for the present study. The result of the pilot study was $\alpha = .90$, which is above the criteria to establish reliability (Patten, 2000). Thus, the questionnaire was deemed to possess sufficient validity and reliability to continue the investigation.

Method

To address the purpose of this study, I distributed the questionnaire through online software to 76 intercollegiate basketball venue directors from six Division I conferences throughout the United States. The conferences were the Big 12, the Southeastern Conference (SEC), the Atlantic Coast Conference (ACC), the Pacific-12 (Pac-12), the Big Ten, the Big East Conference, and the Atlantic 10 as of the 2012–2013 basketball season. These conferences were selected because the affiliated schools compete on national television. For example, in 2012–2013, CBS Sports maintained the rights to broadcast 40 men's college basketball games from the Big Ten, Big East, SEC, ACC, Big 12, and Pac-12 conferences through an agreement with ESPN (Sabreen, 2012). Additionally, schools from the selected conferences have won the last 20 national men's Division I championships, from 1992 to 2012 (NCAA Men's Basketball, 2013). The names and e-mails of the basketball venue managers were gleaned from the university's athletic department website of the schools that were affiliated with the conferences.

Although they are comparable to print surveys, online surveys have been found to have fewer missing responses (Boyer, Olson, Calantone, & Jackson, 2002). Additionally, online surveys can be coded and presented in a more flexible manner that provides researchers new opportunities to ensure reliability and validity of the instrument (Boyer et al., 2002). Patten (2000) suggested that by incorporating different methods of answering a survey, the truthfulness of the answer may increase. For example, the respondent cannot simply check the same answers to all the statements.

Two weeks prior to the distribution of the survey instrument, each of the venue managers was sent an e-mail introductory letter informing them of the intent of the study. Previous research has determined that prenotification letters are the most cost-effective method of generating a satisfactory response rate (Kaplowitz, Hadlock, & Levine, 2004). Two weeks after the prenotification, a second e-mail was sent to remind the recipients of the purpose of the study with a link to the questionnaire website. When the questionnaire was distributed, each of the listed venue managers was notified of the deadline and that participation in the study was completely voluntary and there would be no penalties for choosing not to participate. Furthermore, they were informed that they would be able to withdraw at any time, for any reason, without penalty. Nowhere on the questionnaire did the respondents need to identify themselves or the event for which they were responsible.

Each e-mail recipient was instructed to answer questions as they applied to their present site location and/or supervisory position. Furthermore, many of the questions and statements in the survey included the words *in the past three years* (e.g., “In the past three basketball seasons, spectators have rushed the court after a home game more than once at my institution” or “I believe that the number of instances that spectators rush the court after college basketball games has increased in the past three years”). The rationale for including this phrase was twofold. First, it provided a sense of recent history regarding the fans rushing the court after an intercollegiate men’s basketball contest. If significant injuries or fatalities were to occur, they would become more foreseeable, and risk management procedures may be better implemented (Miller et al., 2010). Second, a school may have had a number of on-court rushes several years ago but none as recent as 3 years ago. Limiting the years to 3 provides a common number for the potential respondents to base their answers.

Initially, 52 responses were received. However, five were discounted due to incomplete questions. Ultimately, 47 (62%) individuals responded to the online survey. The return rate for the questionnaire is well within the recommended parameters (Sheehan & McMillan, 1999).

Results

Respondent Demographics

Of the individuals contacted, nine (19%) were from the Big 12; eight (17%) were affiliated with the SEC and the Pac-12; seven (14%) were from the ACC; six (13%) were from the Big Ten; five (11%) were from the Big East; and four (9%) represented the Atlantic 10. All of the respondents indicated that they were the venue supervisors in charge of all intercollegiate basketball contests. Additionally, all of the respondents revealed that the basketball venue was located on land owned by the university. As the venue supervisors, all of the respondents revealed that they were responsible for coordinating event personnel and spectator safety conditions for all intercollegiate basketball games. Twenty-two (47%) had held their current position as the basketball venue director for 1 to 3 years, and three had maintained their position for more than 15 years.

Rushing the Court Incidents

Twenty-two (47%) of the respondents agreed that a court rush had occurred during the 2011–2012 season, and 15 (32%) indicated that spectators had not rushed the court. When asked if spectators had rushed the court at their venue more than once per season over the past 3 years, 35 (74%) did not agree. However, 23 (49%) perceived that the number of times spectators rushed the court after intercollegiate men’s basketball had increased over the past 3 years. Thirty-seven (79%) indicated that injuries to spectators had occurred due to rushing the court incidents. However, few of the respondents reported that any visiting players (4%), home players (2%), home team coaches (2%), or officials (3%) had been injured when spectators had rushed the court.

University and Conference Policies

Thirty-eight (81%) of the respondents reported that their institution had a policy that specifically dealt with spectators rushing the court after a men’s intercollegiate basketball game. Thirty-two (68%) indicated that their conference or league office possesses specific policies regarding spectators rushing the court. However, to the best of their knowledge, the respondents did not believe that their conference had a policy to fine a school when the court was rushed. As further support, 41 (87%) had never been fined by their conference office. Finally, 12 (26%) reported that conference officials had never attended men’s basketball games to determine whether the conference court rushing policies were being enforced.

Basketball Venue Risk Management Countermeasures

In regard to spectators rushing the court, 25 (53%) of the respondents reported that it was a primary risk in managing the event. Thirty-six (82%) perceived the greatest threat of spectators was from the student section. Thirty-eight (86%) believed the visiting team and coaches to be the most vulnerable population to potential injury from spectators rushing the court. Additionally, 33 (70%) perceived the game officials to be the most vulnerable to incur harm. When asked which population was the most critical to protect in cases of spectators rushing the court, 31 (66%) selected the game officials and 27 (58%) selected the visiting team and coaches.

To manage the risk, 37 (79%) of the respondents possessed an emergency action plan that was developed for spectators rushing the court. Concerning implementing the emergency action plan, 16 (34%) provided a written emergency action plan to each event safety personnel prior to the season. Moreover, 28 (60%) required their event safety personnel to attend safety training sessions prior to working a game to understand the proper protocol to follow. Additionally, 26 (55%) reviewed and discussed the management of crowd control issues, including spectators rushing the court, with the event personnel immediately after the contest. Finally, 38 (81%) agreed that the university supported implementing and enforcing the risk management protocols in cases of spectators rushing the court.

Discussion

From the results of this study, the likelihood of intercollegiate basketball fans rushing the court immediately after or before the contest is complete appears to be increasing. Often the local networks, or in some cases national, will televise the postgame celebrations. Although fans should have the opportunity to rejoice with their teams, there have been concerns about the safety of the players and coaches when waves of people charge onto the playing court. Although no deaths have occurred as a result of spectators rushing the court, the results of this study indicate that players and spectators have been injured. All of the respondents conducted basketball games in arenas that were located on university or college property. As such, the university or college may be perceived as the landowner. Patrons who enter a university's property for the purpose of watching a basketball game or other sporting event are considered business invitees (Mallen, 2001). As a result, a university or college conducting a sport activity has a duty to take reasonable safety measures to warn or protect the invitees from foreseeable harmful or criminal acts of a third party (Dobbs, 2000; Maloy, 2001). Although sport venue managers might not be aware of the liability involved, based on the existing negligence casework, a person can argue that sport venue managers are bound by law to protect from these threats and therefore be held accountable if they shun that duty (Dobbs, 2000; Piccarello, 2005).

The results also indicate that spectators have previously rushed the court after a game, and the expectation is that such incidents will increase in the near future. An important component in preventing an incident from happening is the landowner (i.e., university or college) being able to foresee possible exposures to harm that people rushing the court may face and taking reasonable precautions to protect the invitee from potential foreseeable dangers. States such as Alabama, Colorado, Georgia, and Wisconsin have developed legislation to increase the safety of individuals attending public events including sporting events (Montgomery & Nahrstadt, 2004). Although some states have a specific premises liability act (Illinois) or a safe place statute (Wisconsin), the courts will determine whether the landowner of the premises used reasonable care to create a reasonably safe environment to individuals invited onto the property.

To provide a reasonably safe environment, a written risk management plan should be developed for all foreseeable areas in which a person may be exposed to unnecessary harm. A well-constructed risk management plan should systematically identify the risk, examine the impact and the likelihood of the risk occurring, develop strategies to address the risk, and actively

communicate those strategies. To provide a reasonably safe environment, more than 80% of the respondents revealed that their institution had a risk management policy in place and slightly less than 70% reported that their conference had a policy against spectators entering the court. However, only 60% required their event safety personnel to attend safety training sessions prior to working a game to understand the proper protocol to follow. Additionally, 55% reviewed and discussed the management of crowd control issues, including spectators rushing the court, with the event personnel immediately after the contest. Finally, only 34% provided a written emergency action plan to each event safety personnel. Heath (1994) stated, "Risk communication deals with risk elements, whether they are appropriately tolerable, and risk consequences" (p. 257). Although risk management plans identify and assess the broadest possible range of risks in less structured settings (Miller et al., 2010), risk communication is "... the causeway that links all the organizational elements in a well-functioning risk management process" (Powell, 1998, para. 5). Effective risk communication procedures should be developed and implemented at the same time as risk management decisions are being completed (Burns, Mearns, & McGeorge, 2006). Such an approach ensures that the threat, vulnerability, and criticality assessments have been identified and that effective countermeasures are developed and implemented.

The home court arena personnel and the university are responsible for the safety and well-being of players, coaches, and spectators. Highly anticipated games include opponents who are nationally ranked, conference rivals, and traditional rivals. When the stakes are high, the spectators' emotions run high. This creates an overwhelming adrenaline rush for the fans in attendance. Once the final seconds tick off of the clock, the winning team has an explosion of excitement with the fans rushing onto the court to celebrate, which may result in an increase of danger to themselves and others.

The results reveal that although few incidents have occurred in which the visiting team coaches, home team coaches, or game officials were injured, harm did occur and the risks should be addressed. Perhaps these results reflect the rationale that these populations were deemed to be vulnerable to potential injury from spectators rushing the court. Different arenas have different protocols in protecting these individuals. Some conferences have additional safety requirements that fine universities when spectators rush the court. The amount of the fines reflects how many times that spectators have rushed the court. Though a great idea, it has not always worked in favor of the university. Arena personnel should have an understanding of the protocol that they use when situations arise. The level of security is threatened when screaming fans infiltrate the court. Event staff should be trained and aware of what to do when this occurs.

Most event managers will find hiring enough security to counteract 5,000 or more spectators from rushing onto the court fiscally impossible. Yet, everyone on the court is a cause of concern. The visiting team, coaches, and officials need to be protected from the oncoming spectators' emotions. The responses indicate that individuals most likely to rush the court are students of the home team. These results are key, as the the home institution may consider and analyze two aspects to protect the visiting teams and game officials. First, the event manager must consider placement of the student section in relation to the visiting team bench, the visiting team locker room, and the game official locker room. By identifying this aspect, the event manager can determine the safest route to escort the visiting team and coach and game officials to their respective locker rooms. The event manager should introduce the safety personnel and police officers to the visiting and home team coaches prior to the game, provide written instructions, and discuss safety and security protocol. Items that may be discussed are safety personnel meeting the respective individuals at a certain spot on the basketball court at the end of the game and identifying the best course to follow to the locker room.

Because the results indicate that the student section is the most likely area from where the rush may originate, the home venue manager should be able to foresee how the students

would tend to funnel down onto the court. During a court rush, every aisle is often full. Those rushing the court tend to use any means necessary to get to the court including jumping media tables, moving bench chairs, and trampling each other. With 5 min to go in the game, the safety/security personnel should assemble in previously identified areas near the visiting team and coaches and the game officials. For the teams at the completion of the contest, safety personnel should be assigned players and move along with them as they move through the line as they shake hands. These safety personnel, along with one of the police officers, are responsible for escorting the visiting team to locker rooms via a predetermined and discussed route. For the coaches, one police officer and at least one assigned safety personnel member should meet them at a specific place and escort the coaches to their locker room by using a previously discussed route. Finally, one or two police officers and at least one safety event personnel member should meet the game officials at a previously determined spot on the court, generally the side opposite of the student section, to escort the officials to their locker room. By analyzing these factors, the venue manager will be in a better position to assign an appropriate number of trained personnel to the vulnerable and critical populations, thereby increasing the safety of the visiting coaches, players, and game officials.

Venue managers also need to realize that people rushing the court may be placed in danger in a similar manner to Gerry Plunkett or the North Carolina student who used a wheelchair identified earlier. As mentioned previously, having an equal number of event safety personnel to stop a stampede rushing the court is virtually impossible. As a result, trying to prevent individuals from doing so may be futile. To that extent, the event safety manager may instruct safety personnel to allow individuals to rush the court since most celebrations often dissipate within 10 min if no confrontations occur (N. Horell, personal communication, September 22, 2013). However, the event manager is also responsible for protecting people who rush the court. As such, the event safety manager should consider placing a surveillance camera operator in a secured booth with communication capabilities to event personnel on the court, having an usher at every vomitory entrance including balconies, and assigning staff members to specific areas of the arena to watch for injuries that might occur due to rushing the court. To increase communication, each safety personnel member should be equipped with a walkie-talkie.

Limitations

As in any research study, limitations exist in this study. First, the subjects that could reflect a measure of bias on behalf of the institution and/or venue director base the results of the study upon self-reported information. Furthermore, I can only assume that the university personnel responded in a truthful and honest fashion. Additionally, these findings may not be generalized to a greater population in that not all Division I intercollegiate basketball/football venue event directors participated. Last, the athletic departments that did not participate in the study may have possessed a risk management plan but chose not to disclose it.

Future Research

Future investigations could include an investigation concerning the perception of safety in court rushing activities at intercollegiate basketball contests from the patrons' point of view. A second study could analyze reasons for spectators rushing the courts. Finally, an investigation could explore the university or college athletic department representatives' understanding of potential defenses for the potential harmful acts incurred at basketball court rushes.

Conclusion

This investigation was not conducted to propose the elimination of rushing the court by intercollegiate fans after a major win. Rather the overt message was that universities and colleges

must understand the need to provide a reasonably safe environment for their patrons on their premises. Risk management decisions regularly involve a risk–reward trade-off (Adams, 2001). In such a case, the question becomes, how can “value” be measured since it can suggest different things for different settings? For the basketball venue manager, the value of the event would seem to be the result of an interconnection of “experience elements,” such as ambience, competitiveness of the event, concessions quality, security, convenience, and weather. Developing and communicating a risk management plan may protect the university from potential litigation and add to the value of the experience for the spectators through improved security. Thus, basketball venue managers need to weigh the range of threat, vulnerability, and criticality assessments and the operative countermeasures as aids in maintaining or increasing the value of the spectators’ experience at the event.

The concerns expressed by Duke University basketball coach Mike Krzyzewski and the injuries incurred by the North Carolina State student who uses a wheelchair, Joe Kay, and Jared Sullinger may serve as examples for developing and enforcing risk management policies at intercollegiate basketball contests. Since lack of enforcement basically renders a plan ineffective, I strongly suggest that risk management measures be implemented and communicated. Such adoption requires identifying pertinent threats, vulnerabilities, and criticalities as applied to spectators rushing the court. Because the results of this study indicate that the most likely section to rush the court is the student section and that the most vulnerable and critical aspects of an intercollegiate basketball contest are the visiting team and coaches and the game officials, venue managers should strongly consider implementing methods to remove these parties safely.

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FACILITY PLANNING AND DESIGN

ABCs of Planning a Roller Skating Rink

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Abstract

Roller skating and rollerblading are recreational activities that have evolved over time. Popular activities such as jam skating, roller derbies, and speed skating are more prominent today. Skating facilities host various events and parties, appealing to youth as well as adults. When considering the design and construction of a roller skating facility, you need to consider various aspects, including (a) location, (b) land, (c) type of building, (d) layout and design of building, (e) amenities and services provided, (f) ownership, and (g) personnel. A planning and programming committee should be formed to assist in the development of the facility.

Keywords: *design; planning; programming; roller skating; site analysis*

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Roller skating is the traveling on smooth surfaces with roller skates. It is a form of recreation as well as a sport and can also be a form of transportation. Skates generally come in three basic varieties: quad roller skates, in-line skates or blades, and tri-skates, though some designers have experimented with a single-wheeled “quintessence skate” or other variations on the basic skate design.

Brief History of Roller Skating

In America, this hobby was most popular in the 1970s and the 1990s. The following is a short history of roller skating:

- 1743: First recorded use of roller skates, in a London stage performance. The inventor of this skate is lost to history.
- 1760: First recorded skate invention, by John Joseph Merlin, who demonstrated a primitive in-line skate with metal wheels.
- 1819: First patented roller skate design, in France by M. Petitbled. These early skates were similar to today’s in-line skates, but they were not very maneuverable; it was difficult with these skates to do anything but move in a straight line and perhaps make wide sweeping turns. Rest of the 19th century: Inventors continued to work on improving skate design.
- 1863: The four-wheeled turning roller skate, or quad skate, with four wheels set in two side-by-side pairs, was first designed in New York City by James Leonard Plimpton in an attempt to improve upon previous design. The skate contained a pivoting action using a rubber cushion that allowed the skater to skate a curve by leaning to one side. It was such a huge success that the first public skating rink opened in 1866 in Newport, Rhode Island, with the support of Plimpton. The design of the quad skate allowed easier turns and maneuverability, and the quad skate came to dominate the industry for more than a century.
- 1876: William Brown in Birmingham, England, patented a design for the wheels of roller skates. Brown’s design embodied his effort to keep the two bearing surfaces of an axle, fixed and moving, apart. Brown worked closely with Joseph Henry Hughes, who drew up the patent for a ball or roller bearing race for bicycle and carriage wheels in 1877. Hughes’ patent included all the elements of an adjustable system. These two men are thus responsible for modern-day roller skate and skateboard wheels, as well as the ball bearing race inclusion in velocipedes—later to become motorbikes and automobiles. This was arguably the most important advance in the realistic use of roller skates as a pleasurable pastime.
- 1876: The toe stop was first patented. This provided skaters with the ability to stop promptly upon tipping the skate onto the toe. Toe stops are still used today on most quad skates and on some types of in-line skates.
- 1877: The Royal Skating indoor skating ring building was erected rue Veydt, Brussels.
- 1880s: Roller skates were being mass produced in America. This was the sport’s first of several boom periods. Micajah C. Henley of Richmond, Indiana, produced thousands of skates every week during peak sales. Henley skates were the first skate with adjustable tension via a screw, the ancestor of the kingbolt mechanism on modern quad skates.
- 1884: Levant M. Richardson received a patent for the use of steel ball bearings in skate wheels to reduce friction, allowing skaters to increase speed with minimal effort.
- 1898: Richardson started the Richardson Ball Bearing and Skate Company, which provided skates to most professional skate racers of the time, including Harley Davidson (no relation to the Harley-Davidson’ motorcycle brand). In 1911, a 24-hour roller skating endurance competition was held in Paris.

- The design of the quad skate has remained essentially unchanged since then and remained as the dominant roller skate design until nearly the end of the 20th century. The quad skate has begun to make a comeback recently due to the popularity of roller derby and jam skating.
- 1979: Scott Olson and Brennan Olson of Minneapolis, Minnesota, came across a pair of in-line skates created in the 1960s by the Chicago Roller Skate Company, and seeing the potential for off-ice hockey training, they redesigned the skates using modern materials and attaching ice hockey boots. A few years later Scott Olson began heavily promoting the skates and launched the company Rollerblade Inc. (“Roller Skating,” n.d.)

During the late 1980s and early 1990s, the Rollerblade® skates became so successful that they inspired many other companies to create similar in-line skates, and the in-line design became more popular than the traditional quads. The Rollerblade® skates became so synonymous in the minds of many with “in-line skates” and skating that many people came to call any form of skating “Rollerblading,” thus becoming a generic trademark.

For much of the 1980s and into the 1990s, in-line skate models typically sold for general public use employed a hard plastic boot, similar to ski boots. In or about 1995, “soft boot” designs were introduced to the market, primarily by the sporting goods firm K2 Inc., and were promoted for use as fitness skates. Other companies quickly followed, and by the early 2000s, the development of hard shell skates and skeletons became primarily limited to the aggressive in-line skating discipline and other specialized designs.

In 1988, Miyshael F. Gailson of Caples Lake Resort, California, made the single-wheel “quintessence skate” for the purpose of cross-country ski skating and skiing training. Other skate designs have been experimented with over the years, including two-wheeled (heel and toe) in-line skate frames but the vast majority of skates on the market today are either quad or standard in-line design.

Planning and Programming Committee

According to Sawyer, Hypes, and Gimbert (2013), the roller skating organization should establish early on in the planning process an ad hoc planning and programming advisory committee (sometimes called the program committee), which should comprise the following members:

- program specialists,
- end users,
- financial consultants,
- maintenance personnel,
- community representatives,
- management representatives,
- facility consultants, and
- risk management and safety consultants.

Furthermore, Sawyer et al. (2013) indicated the role of the planning advisory committee includes (1) representing the organization’s constituencies; (2) overseeing and reviewing the ongoing work; (3) communicating with the various stakeholders about the work in progress, findings, and results; (4) validating the process; (5) resolving unsettled issues; and (6) endorsing the results and forwarding the master plan for approval.

The committee should be assisted by the office staff within the organization, which should keep the senior administration advised of the ongoing work, coordinate and schedule the planning efforts, serve as committee recorder, assist in communicating the ongoing work to the stakeholders, and represent the committee at planning work sessions and related meetings.

Identifying the Roller Skating Organization's Goals and Objectives

Sawyer et al. (2013) suggested detailed planning can begin with three concurrent studies: developing an organization profile, identifying capital improvements, and analyzing existing conditions. Developing the organization's program statement is intended to generally describe the organization's niche. The statement should include (a) a brief history of the organization; (b) the organization's mission; (c) the organization's programs, products, and services; (d) the administrative structure, critical issues, and strategic responses; (e) goals and objectives for the organization; (f) details about clientele; (g) an outline of short-range, mid-range, and long-range planning; and (h) other programmatic features that describe the organization as a distinctive operational entity. Finally, the statement should conclude with a descriptive overview of how the existing situation is expected to change strategically during the period covered by the proposed organization master plan and the implications and consequences such changes may have on the physical development of the organization.

It is important to compile a 10-year listing of projected capital improvements for the organization according to Sawyer et al. (2013), including buildings, landscape, circulation (i.e., pedestrian and vehicular traffic), infrastructure (i.e., chilled air, electricity, roadways, sewage, sidewalks, steam, telecommunications, water, etc.), land acquisition, and actions that will change and modify the existing physical plant (e.g., new state highway right-of-way).

The objective of the survey of existing conditions is to discover and describe elements that, in combination, typically create, inform, and/or express the organization as a physical place designed and operated as an organization for a specific purpose and located in a setting that has tangible physical characteristics. Certain items should be identified and defined in graphic and narrative formats so as to describe location, function, and physical character of elements such as (a) land ownership, land forms, and topography; (b) microclimate, soils, and related subsurface conditions; (c) recreational, social, and cultural patterns; (d) land use; (e) building use; (f) buildings rated by physical condition; (g) building entrances, exits, and service points; (h) pedestrian and vehicular circulation systems; (i) public transportation; (j) parking; (k) landscapes; (l) ecological and natural settings, views, vistas, and related design features; (m) major utilities by location, type, and condition; (n) site history and heritage; (o) site and building accessibility; (p) and site and building problems (Sawyer et al., 2013).

Synthesis and Evaluation of Findings

After an ad hoc planning advisory committee is established, briefings are completed and plan studies are initiated, and master plan goals and objectives are identified and confirmed, those findings now need to be synthesized and evaluated. This effort should begin to clarify issues and opportunities that the organization needs to address and should establish and confirm the direction of the master plan. According to Sawyer et al. (2013), the issues and opportunities that should surface during the synthesis and evaluation effort relate to the following: the organization's image, a sense of place for the improvements, and existing and new initiatives that may require new building(s) and infrastructure, improvements and revitalization of existing physical resources, and potential demolition. Expansion of present facilities should occur only after careful and thorough evaluation of projected needs and capabilities of existing facilities. Once needs are established, the following approaches are generally considered the most appropriate way to proceed with the program requirements: (1) higher usage of existing space, (2) renovation of existing structures, (3) infill (i.e., adding vertically or horizontally to existing structures), and (4) expansion of facilities into new areas on the organization's site.

The master plan, according to Sawyer et al. (2013), needs to consider generally accepted land use guidelines. For instance, the organization should (a) make the highest and best use all

land, (b) avoid land use conflicts (i.e., neighboring residential and commercial areas), (c) build areas to complement each other and promote a visual interest that functionally fits the remainder of the organization's site, (d) construct facilities only on sites that best meet its programmatic and environmental objectives, and (e) develop a no-build policy relating to the preservation of historic sites or open spaces.

Furthermore, the master plan should contain goals and objectives for circulation and transportation on the organization's site, including (a) general access to the organization, (b) vehicular circulation, (c) parking, (d) pedestrian and bicycle circulation, and (e) transit (Sawyer et al., 2013).

Another extremely important aspect of the master plan is the utilities and service elements. A consolidated utility system consistent with the projected needs of the organization should be developed. This system should be designed for simplicity of maintenance and future needs for extension or expansion of the utility network.

The master plan should consider the landscape design, including the organization's buildings and grounds, accessibility issues, fire, security, energy conservation, and desired development beyond the organization's property line. The primary landscape goal for the campus should be to present an image with a high degree of continuity and quality.

Regional Analysis

Sufficient data must be gathered about the off-site surroundings to ensure that the project will be compatible with surrounding environments, both man-made and natural. This part of the design process is referred to as the regional analysis. Sawyer et al. (2013) said it should include

- service area of the facility under construction (i.e., major facilities such as parks, large commercial areas facilities and minor facilities such as children's playgrounds, senior citizen centers, and local library),
- user demand (i.e., determining the use clients desire, activity interests, demographic makeup of residents, and local leadership and calculating the number of users),
- access routes (i.e., major and secondary routes),
- governmental functions and boundaries (i.e., contact the local planning agency and local government offices),
- existing and proposed land uses (i.e., gathering information about abutting land ownership, adjacent land uses, land use along probable access routes, off-site flooding and erosion problems, off-site pollution sources, views [especially of aesthetic and historic interest], and significant local architectural or land use characteristics), and
- regional influences (i.e., check for anything unusual or unique that could either enhance or cause problems to the project).

Site Analysis

The planning committee will need to consider various information prior to selecting the building site, including

- access to the site (i.e., ingress and egress, surrounding traffic generators, accessibility via public transportation);
- circulation within the site (e.g., roads—paved and unpaved, bicycle trails, walking and hiking trails);
- parking;
- water supply;
- sewage disposal;
- electrical service;
- telecommunication service;

- other utilities, including oil/natural gas transmission lines, or cable television;
- structures to be constructed or renovated;
- environmental concerns and conditions on and off property (e.g., noise, air, water, and visual pollution);
- easements and other legal issues (e.g., deed restrictions, rights-of-way, and less than fee simple ownership);
- zoning requirements (i.e., changing the zoning is usually time consuming and expensive and frequently not possible);
- historical significance;
- existing uses (activities) on the site;
- climactic conditions prevalent in the area by season (e.g., temperature; humidity; air movement velocity, duration, and direction; amount of sunshine and precipitation—rain, sleet, snow; sun angles and subsequent shadows; and special conditions—ice storms, hurricanes, tornadoes, heavy fog, heavy rainstorm, floods, and persistent cloud cover);
- nuisance potentials (e.g., children nearby, noise);
- natural features (e.g., topography, slope analysis, soil conditions, geology, hydrology, flora and fauna);
- economic impact of a site (e.g., labor costs, growth trends, population shifts, buying power index, available workforce, property taxes, tax incentives, surrounding competition, utility costs, incentives, area of dominant influence [ADI], designated market area [DMA], and established enterprise zones);
- natural barriers and visibility;
- supporting demographics (e.g., age, gender, occupation, marital status, number of children, expenditures, education, income, number of earners in the family, ethnic background) and psychographics (e.g., lifestyle data or lifestyle marketing); and
- security concerns (e.g., proximity of police, fire, emergency medical personnel, hospitals). (Flynn, 1985; Sawyer, 1999, 2002, 2005, 2009)

The most important aspects of site selection are location, location, and location. If the site is not in the most accessible location with a high profile for people to recognize, the venture will be negatively affected.

Common Components of a Roller Skating Rink

Planners need to consider the following components for a roller skating rink that will make it financially successful with multiple streams of revenue:

- skating area with
 - ◊ a wood (maple; most expensive), concrete (least expensive), or composite (moderate expense) floor;
 - ◊ a basic shape, either rectangular or oval;
 - ◊ 3 to 4 ft tall railings on the wall of the skating area for beginners to use;
 - ◊ 10 to 12 ft ceiling;
 - ◊ multiple color overhead lighting, spotlights, and crystal ball;
 - ◊ padded walls up to 5 ft high on the side and end walls of the rink; and
 - ◊ audio;
- concession area with snack bar seating (size per unit would be 47 in.) and
 - ◊ stove,
 - ◊ pizza oven,
 - ◊ cotton candy machine,
 - ◊ hot dog machines,

- ◊ nacho cheese dispenser,
- ◊ soda dispenser,
- ◊ microwave,
- ◊ oven,
- ◊ double sink,
- ◊ refrigerator,
- ◊ freezer, and
- ◊ popcorn popper;
- changing area for skaters to put on skates with
 - ◊ rolled colorful carpeting or carpet tile flooring,
 - ◊ benches, and
 - ◊ storage lockers for skaters;
- party room (e.g., birthday and graduation parties);
- seating for spectators;
- game area;
- pro shop to sell skates, toy novelties, uniforms, and more;
- skate rental area with skate storage for 200 to 1,000 skates;
- control booth for audio and lighting;
- signage such as risk management, safety, informational, and operational;
- restrooms; and
- offices.

Design Spaces for a Roller Skating Rink

The planning committee needs to consider the following details in designing the roller skating rink.

Building

The inside of the building on average would be between 26,000 and 29,000 sq ft. The building could be a steel building with a pitched roof. The exterior surface would have space for promotional signage.

Skating Area

The size of the skating area would be 10,500 sq ft designed as a rectangle (75–150 ft) or oval. A padded 5-ft wall (or taller) should be built around the floor with an opening into the nonskating areas of the rink. A railing should be built on the inside of the rink 3 ft from the floor surface to aid novice skaters.

Nonskating Areas

This area will contain multiple spaces designed to generate additional revenue. This area should be as large as the skating area. The following nonskating spaces include a concessions and snack bar area, skate rental space with skate storage for 200 to 1,000 skates, skate staging or changing area, locker/patron storage area, party room, game area, restrooms, pro shop, and spectator area.

Operational Area

This area will house offices and control booth with sound and lighting controls.

Rink Layout

The main entrance should have an entrance door into a short hallway leading to a ticket booth and then a second door to enter the rink proper. A separate exit should be available to the parking lot.

The concession/snack area should be located near the entrance. It should have a kitchen space with a large counter to serve customers. The space should have plenty of electrical sources. A double sink with counters on either side should be planned. A food pantry should be available to store supplies. The customer area should be large enough to seat 20 to 24 customers. The floor in the kitchen should be ceramic tile with an adequate number of drains in the floor.

The pro shop should be connected to the skate rental and repair area. The pro shop should be designed as a normal retail space with racks and counters to display the items for sale. It should have a storage closet as well. The skate rental area needs a large counter area and shelving to store between 200 and 1,000 skates. Behind the storage area should be a repair area with tables and counters to work on skates and store equipment. The floor in these areas could be carpet or carpet tiles.

The restrooms need to be able to accommodate six to eight people at one time. The walls and floor need to be ceramic tile. The faucets, flushing mechanisms, and paper towel dispensers need to be automatic. The restrooms should include a baby changing area with a table or counter space. Accessible toilets and urinals must be available. Mirrors should be installed above the sinks. The floor needs to have adequate drainage.

The skate changing area needs to have benches for the skaters and lockable storage lockers close by to store their street clothes and valuables. The flooring in this area should be carpet or carpet tiles.

Party Area

The party area may be used for a variety of events. Ample space should be provided to allow for tables, chairs, and seating, as well as activities. Depending on the type of environment and atmosphere, as well as budget, other items such as the use of flat screen televisions, ceiling-mounted projectors, and decorations may be considered. Garbage bins and cleaning items should also be stored either in a locked closet space in the room or nearby for easy access for spills and cleanup. The flooring in this area could be carpet or carpet tiles.

Game Area

The game area should include age-appropriate games and should be accessible. The number and variety of games provided will depend on the budget and space available. Games may include winning various prizes, tokens, or tickets to use for prizes. Those prizes could be incorporated near or combined with the pro shop. The flooring in this area should be carpet or carpet tiles.

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EVENT MANAGEMENT

Venuescape Attributes: Importance-Performance Perceptions of Spectators at a Ladies Professional Golf Association Tour Major

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to analyze the importance-performance perceptions and consumer behavior patterns of spectators attending a major on the Ladies Professional Golf Association tour. A questionnaire was administered to 1,974 self-selected spectators of the tournament using the spectator convenience intercept method. Descriptive statistics were calculated to examine spectators' demographic profiles. The Mann-Whitney statistic was used to assess differences between females and males for the variables that were not normally distributed. Analysis determined venuescape attributes have a direct impact on spectator's level of satisfaction. Researchers confirmed spectator satisfaction is a function of both expectations related to certain important attributes and judgments of attribute performance. Differences were found between females and males in areas of importance and performance. The implications of how venuescape impacts the planning, design, and programming for the entire sport and entertainment experience of attendees at configurable nonstadium venues have merit for researchers and practitioners.

Keywords: *consumer behavior; importance-performance; LPGA; patron experience; venuescape*

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In recent years, the Ladies Professional Golf Association (LPGA) has faced many challenges and witnessed much change brought on by trying economic conditions making it challenging to maintain sponsorship levels and television revenues, to a rebound in 2014 with a total purse of \$56.3 million and 350+ televised hours (LPGA, 2013). Created in 1950, the LPGA tour began with 14 events and \$50,000 in prize money (LPGA, 2013). In 2001, the number of tournaments grew to a high of 40 events and \$43.5 million in prize money, before a recessionary economy reduced the number of tournaments to 27 in 2009, 24 in 2010, 23 in 2011, 27 in 2012, 28 in 2013, and 32 in 2014 (LPGA, 2013). Another trend has been the growth of the LPGA on the international level, with 14 scheduled for 2014, nine of those in Asia. In 2014, the LPGA tour will offer 32 events (21 official North American events, nine official Asian events, and two official European events) and the LPGA International Crown (biennial, global team match-play; LPGA, 2013). Of these events, 18 are scheduled in the United States with total prize money for the U.S. events being \$30.8 million compared to \$13.7 million in the Asian tournaments (LPGA, 2013). The U.S. Women's Open, the Ricoh Women's British Open, the Evlan Championship, the Wegman's LPGA Championship, and the Kraft Nabisco Championship, the site of this investigation, are classified as major championship events.

Robinson and Carpenter (2002) noted the spectating experience at a professional golf tournament differs from other professional sport competitions. Golf spectators can view the action from three perspectives: parade style (spectators select a spot on the course and watch the field pass by), cross-country style (spectators follow a particular player or group around the course), or random roaming (spectators watch different golfers at different course locations). Famed golf historian Barkow (1989) noted that regardless of viewing perspective, spectators will miss the majority of action due to the approximately 4 miles of area and 150 players. Viewing golf is disparate from the conventional spectator experience where a fan is confined to a seat in a sports or entertainment venue but can see the majority of action in the event from that seat (Hansen & Gauthier, 1993).

Another distinctive element to a professional golf event, including a major on the LPGA tour, is that championship competition is spread over 4 days. The standard format for an LPGA event is a 72-hole format where the players play 18 holes each day for 4 days. After the first 36 holes (Thursday and Friday), players who do not make the cut score depart and the remaining golfers compete the final 2 days (Saturday and Sunday) of the tournament. The winner is determined by the lowest stroke (score) total over the 72 holes. To see the entire event, spectators must attend all 4 days. The usual spectator experience in the other primary professional sports is a contest/game on only 1 day. To determine spectators' satisfaction and consumers' behavior at a professional golf event, all days of competition must be considered. The distinctiveness of a golf tournament could influence the ordonnance of the spectators. For instance, half of the tournament is played on 2 weekdays (Thursday and Friday) and the other half is played on the standard 2 weekend days, which could influence who attends and on which days. If well-known, popular or fan-favorite players are on the leader board after Saturday's play, this could lead to a different crowd on Sunday than on the previous 3 days. Also, if a celebrity Pro-Am is incorporated, this could attract certain spectators for that day or days.

Research has explored motivations of golf spectators and factors at tournaments such as physical beauty or the competitive level present as elements in customer satisfaction. Hansen and Gauthier (1993, 1994) analyzed motives of spectators at men's and women's professional golf tournaments and found attendees at LPGA events to be drawn by shot-making finesse, the physical benefit of walking the course, and the drama and excitement as the tournament progresses. For nongolfers who attended, the scenery provided by lush grass, mature trees, and manicured landscapes was a prime incentive. Lambrecht, Kaefer, and Ramenofsky (2009) studied sportscape factors (i.e., parking, course accessibility, concessions, seating, merchandise, crowd control, and restrooms) and spectators' satisfaction at a PGA event. Using cluster analysis, they identified

two groups of spectators based on their evaluation of the sportscape factors. Those holding hospitality tickets rated the experience more positively due to benefits such as private seating and restrooms and parking access.

Dixon (2002) studied attitudes of active male and female golfers toward the LPGA. Sample participants had varying levels of exposure to the LPGA including those who had volunteered at tournaments. Nearly all (87%) said they would enjoy watching an LPGA event in person, and 57% who had volunteered expressed a positive change in attitude toward the LPGA. Most felt the LPGA successfully marketed products. Females were more likely to remember signage from corporate sponsors and to actively purchase those products than were males. Females also expressed positive views toward LPGA pros and their shot-making skills.

Additional studies explored other facets of tournaments such as the makeup of spectators on different days (Robinson & Carpenter, 2002), attitudes about sponsors' products (Danylchuk, 2000), and the importance of LPGA events to the community (Crossett, 1995). Robinson and Carpenter (2002) noted that spectators at an LPGA event must be segmented into different groups. Over half (52%) of the sample planned to attend only 1 day of the tournament; furthermore, older, retired spectators were more likely to attend on Thursday when the pace was slower and they could get closer to the golfers. Complimentary tickets from business sponsors were used on weekend days and a high number of walk-up tickets were purchased on Sunday because big-name stars were in contention. Crossett (1995) indicated the importance of an LPGA event to the community; meanwhile, Robinson, Trail, and Kwon (2004) suggested spectators are good representatives of the community and their presence indicates their support for bringing the event back in the future.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to analyze the importance-performance perceptions and consumer behavior patterns of spectators attending a major on the LPGA tour. We chose to investigate this based on the hypothesis that spectators' satisfaction is a function of both expectations related to certain important attributes and judgments of attribute performance. To analyze spectators' perceptions and gauge impressions regarding select tournament venuescape attributes we asked spectators two fundamental questions: (a) How important is this feature to attendees? (b) How well did the tournament perform? Select importance-performance categories of the tournament venuescape included parking lot experience, shuttle service, tournament entrance, ticketing/will call/admissions experience, driving range area, concessions, area around greens/sightlines, bleacher seating, friendliness of pros on course, service of event host(ess)/ hospitality staff, comfort stations, and trash and recycling. Additionally, we wanted to determine the admission type for the majority of golf spectators (daily, tournament, corporate/sponsor, complimentary, or volunteer), their demographic characteristics (population, gender, and geography), their spending patterns, and their viewing style (parade, cross-country, random roaming).

Relevant Literature

Venuescape, a practical term used by article authors, expands upon the Wakefield and Sloan (1995) "sportscape" description of service extensions and physical surroundings of a sports event. Venuescape captures not only service extensions and physical surroundings of a sports and/or entertainment event but also the diversity of programming surrounding the planned sports and/or entertainment event (core product). Study authors have expanded into venuescapes to capture more conducive terminology of sports and entertainment venues (e.g., fixed stadia or configurable LPGA tournament venues), the diversity of events they host, and the multitude of ancillary services necessitated and provided for the total event experience. In regard to a major on the LPGA tour, attendees experience the results of a planned, built-out, and managed entertainment

environment while attending a sporting event. For instance, a planned Wednesday evening Pairings Party or a Friday evening concert event (entertainment) programmed within the overall championship tournament schedule expands beyond the sport-only focus by incorporating entertainment and a multitude of venues to host such events and attendees.

Allen, O'Toole, Harris, and McDonnell (2011) stated venue management often includes an event management component, whether as part of the marketing of the venue or as part of the servicing of event clients. This mirrors the intentions of the LPGA and event organizers of its sanctioned or cosponsored tournaments. Moon, Kim, Ko, Connaughton, and Lee (2011) suggested hosting such events can increase a city's awareness and positive public image. Sports events such as a major LPGA championship with international players are also attractive to other constituents including the media and corporate sponsors because of business opportunities. Event organizers need to develop and implement effective marketing and event management strategies to produce the highest level and quality event. Particularly, enhanced service quality (e.g., complex interactions between consumers and the program, management, and staff/volunteers) significantly influences the spectators' enjoyment and satisfaction of the event (Getz, 1998) and their revisit intentions (Petrick, Morais, & Norman, 2001). Festivals and special events (e.g., LPGA event) are important for the life of a community because they not only provide important activities for residents and visitors but also enhance the image of the local community (Getz, 1993).

Zhang et al. (1997) cited game attractiveness as a motive to attend a sporting event. They cited individual skills, team records, league standings, record-breaking performances, closeness of competition, special events, and entertainment as factors that could make an event more attractive. As with other sports and entertainment events, patrons may choose to purchase admission tickets to a golf event in advance for the tournament because of one of the attractiveness factors. They also have the opportunity to purchase tickets during the course of the multiday event if they learned of or were informed of the attractiveness of the event. For instance, if a spectator finds the outward beauty of a player attractive, then he or she may choose to attend on Thursday or Friday, provided this player may not make the final cut. Additionally, spectators may find close competition attractive, a tight leader board involving two or several well-known players going into the final round could be a motivator for walk-up ticket sales the final day of the event, or a person who finds skill attractive may buy a tournament pass to view the skill over the duration of the event or a daily grounds ticket get to see it up close on a less crowded day (Thursday). Attractiveness may be associated with the spectators' vantage point, such as viewing the championship round and trophy presentation from a pavilion or other VIP area at the 18th hole.

Parallel with Allen et al. (2011), from the viewpoint of an LPGA tournament attendee, quality service occurs when expectations of the event match perceptions of the service experienced. Uhrich and Benkenstein (2010) suggested the atmosphere in a sports stadium (soccer) not only provides additional value to the core product but also creates a unique entertainment value. Event organizers must have an unbridled understanding of the fans' perceived service quality and event programming to maximize the entertainment value for the consumer. Yoshida and James (2010) studied game and service satisfaction at sports events in Japan (baseball) and the United States (collegiate football). Wakefield and Blodgett (1999) showed that sport spectators' perceived excitement induced by the atmosphere in the stadium positively affects repatronage intentions, willingness to recommend a visit to other, and customer satisfaction (Madrigal, 1995; Wakefield & Blodgett, 1994). Getz (1998) suggested that hosting sports events can result in benefits including increased economic activity in the region, which compounds the importance of event organizers, sponsors, regional politicians, and community stakeholders to work in congruence.

With exception of Robinson and Carpenter (2002), none of the cited studies involved a golf event; they investigated German professional soccer, Japanese baseball, women's collegiate basketball, collegiate football, professional hockey, and Major League Baseball. We cited Lam-

brecht et al. (2009) and Uhrich and Benkenstein (2010) because we suspected that venuescape attributes and the entertainment atmosphere could impact the importance-performance perceptions of attendees. Previous literature has indicated that spectators are influenced to attend sports events for appreciation of the game, quality of the players, and seating (Kahle, Kambara, & Rose, 1996). Melnick (1993) presented that spectators may seek social connections and interactions, well-designed venues inclusive of sightlines, comfort, food service, parking and tailgating, and player-fan interactions. Allen et al. (2011) indicated transport is often the first (and last) physical commitment by the audience to the event. Thus, customer transport, including mobility assist, parking, and traffic management, is the first and last impression of an event (Mahoney & McMillen, 2011). In terms of satisfaction, Breiter and Milman (2006) and Wu and Weber (2005) used the importance-performance model to analyze convention services and facilities, but they did not use attendee satisfaction.

The cited literature, however, did not investigate spectators rating select tournament attributes in terms of importance to them or the perceived performance regarding the respective attributes while attending a major on the LPGA tour. The scarcity of prior studies on what venuescape attributes are important to attendees and how satisfied they are with different aspects of the tournament is particularly true in the context of the LPGA. To fill the gap in the literature, the primary objective of this study was to investigate the select 13 importance-performance attribute categories of the tournament venuescape. This study provides insight by analyzing spectators' perceptions and gauging impressions at a major on the LPGA tour. It also provides event organizers and academic researchers insight into how venuescape impacts the planning, design, and programming for the entire sports and entertainment experience of attendees at configurable nonstadium venues.

Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton (2007) stated that businesses enter into sponsorship agreements with sports properties for the purposes of increasing public awareness, influencing public perception, establishing associations with particular market segments, becoming involved in the community, building goodwill, generating media benefits, achieving sales objectives, hospitality and entertainment opportunities, and naming rights. In this study, the long-standing tradition of sponsorship (Kraft Nabisco/Dinah Shore) continues as an important business-to-business and business-to-consumer component for Kraft Foods growth. Positive event identifiers lead to increased name association, product awareness, and consumer loyalty and sales, whereas negative identifiers often have a converse result. As written earlier, Dixon (2002) contended females are more likely to remember signage from corporate sponsors and to actually purchase (not merely intend to purchase) products or services from those sponsors. Shank (2009) wrote that understanding consumers' needs and wants, in turn, is important when developing an effective marketing mix for spectators.

DeLisle (2009) contended events represent a special product that is of short duration; interact with varying levels of anticipation, product knowledge, and expectation; and require satisfying the customer in an ever-changing environment. Essentially, event attendees expect outcomes that meet or exceed their initial expectations. Administrators need a method of assessing the pleasure or displeasure perceptions of spectators (Wakefield, Blodgett, & Sloan, 1996). This research meets this need with pertinent data and recommendations for tournament administrators, event managers, and corporate CFOs to make well-informed choices regarding future events.

Method

Sample

Spectators who attended the 2010 Kraft Nabisco Championship (KNC) LPGA tour major at the Dinah Shore Tournament Course at Mission Hills Country Club in Rancho Mirage, Califor-

nia, were identified and asked to complete an 18-question survey. The executive director of the KNC tournament granted permission to conduct the 6- to 8-min, paper-and-pencil surveys via a Kraft Rewards booth within the mega Kraft Experience tent. The 1,974 study participants were given a choice of a Kraft Nabisco product sample (e.g., Chips Ahoy, Cheese Nips, Wheat Thins, Triscuits, Oreos) upon completing the survey. Participants were assured confidentiality and that they would not be contacted for marketing purposes. All participants were 18 years old or older.

Instrument

The survey instrument used for this study was designed to solicit information in five areas from spectators attending the LPGA tour major Kraft Nabisco Championship: spectators' perceptions and impressions on select tournament venuescape attributes, demographics, admission type, spending pattern, and viewing style. Two of the questions involved the major subclassifications (importance and performance) with a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (*low unimportant/poor performance*) to 7 (*very important/excellence performance*) rating of the 13 venuescape attributes. These categories were selected for the purpose of determining how important specific venuescape attributes were to attendees and how well the tournament performed. Approximately half of all survey questions pertained to gathering touch point information for tournament directors; 13 of the 18 questions provided the information needed for this study. Those questions pertained to gender, type of admission ticket (daily, tournament, corporate/sponsor, complimentary, or volunteer), spending patterns and viewing style (parade, cross-country, random roaming). Type of admission ticket and gender impacted the demographic makeup and consumption patterns of the spectators. The category of viewing style was included to determine an active or passive audience. Each of these questions offered a line for the subject to check the most appropriate category for which he or she fit.

We used the spectator convenience intercept method, a variance of the in-person survey. This method allows the interviewer to "intercept" individuals and asks them to participate (Rea & Parker, 2005). As such, this method entailed soliciting spectators as they meandered the Kraft Experience mega tent located within close proximity to the driving range, putting green, clubhouse, and ancillary services village. Participants only had to circle or place check marks to respond to questions, so completing the survey seated or standing was not a problem. The final sample resulted in 1,974 completed surveys, with a high mark of 32% completed on Saturday.

Data Analysis

We performed statistical analyses using the SPSS (version 18) software. We calculated descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages, and means) to examine spectators' demographic profiles. Because the dependent variables were not normally distributed, we used the Mann-Whitney test to assess differences between females and males.

Results

Demographics

Approximately 67% of participants were female, 69.7% have attended for 2 or more years, 47.7% attended with a spouse or significant other, 39.2% attended with friends, and 46.4% held a specific day admission ticket. Of the participants, 46.5% attended 1 day of the event and 11.4% reported an event duration ticket or pass (Celebrity Pro-Am and championship tournament play). Nearly 34% indicated a complimentary or volunteer ticket, 5.3% used corporate/sponsor passes, and 3.3% indicated pavilion. Table 1 reports the descriptive statistics of the demographic and attendance information for the 1,974 respondents.

Table 1*Descriptive Statistics of Demographic and Attendance Information of Spectators at a PGA Major*

Variable	%
Gender	
Female	67.1%
Male	32.9%
Number of Years Attended	
First year	30.2%
2-3	24.9%
4 or more	44.8%
Mode of Attendance	
Alone	9%
With spouse/significant other	47.7%
With friend(s)	39.2%
With coworker(s)	4.1%
Type of Admissions	
Daily	46.4%
Tournament	11.4%
Corporate/sponsor	5.3%
Kraft Pavilion	3.3%
Complimentary	32.2%
Volunteer	1.5%

Note. $N = 1,974$.

Differences in Importance Variables Between Females and Males

We found a statistically significant difference between females and males in the importance of the following variables: parking lot experience (female: $M = 5.31$, $SD = 2.456$; male: $M = 4.99$, $SD = 1.948$; $p = .003$), shuttle service (female: $M = 5.62$, $SD = 1.832$; male: $M = 5.15$, $SD = 2.022$; $p \leq .001$), ticketing/will call/admission experience (female: $M = 4.97$, $SD = 1.975$; male: $M = 4.62$, $SD = 2.023$; $p = .001$), concessions (female: $M = 5.16$, $SD = 1.520$; male: $M = 4.82$, $SD = 1.614$; $p \leq .001$), area around greens/sightlines (female: $M = 5.75$, $SD = 1.351$; male: $M = 5.61$, $SD = 1.326$; $p \leq .001$), bleacher seating (female: $M = 5.61$, $SD = 1.419$; male: $M = 5.37$, $SD = 1.461$; $p \leq .001$), service of event host(ess)/hospitality staff (female: $M = 5.87$, $SD = 1.276$; male: $M = 5.78$, $SD = 1.320$; $p = .020$), comfort stations (female: $M = 5.86$, $SD = 1.294$; male: $M = 5.66$, $SD = 1.392$; $p \leq .001$), and trash and recycling (female: $M = 5.87$, $SD = 1.287$; male: $M = 5.53$, $SD = 1.445$; $p \leq .001$). The importance survey results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Mean Venuescape Attribute Importance Ratings Based on 1 (Unimportant) to 7 (Very Important) Likert Scale

Venuescape attributes	Male ^a		Female ^b		<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Parking lot experience	4.99	1.948	5.31	2.456	.003*
Shuttle service	5.15	2.022	5.62	1.832	< .001*
Tournament entrance	4.86	1.922	5.02	1.831	.069
Ticketing/will call/admissions experience	4.62	2.023	4.97	1.975	.001*
Kraft experience	5.29	1.577	5.37	1.594	.063
Driving range area	4.85	1.818	4.70	1.826	.126
Concessions	4.82	1.614	5.16	1.520	< .001*
Area around greens/sightlines	5.61	1.326	5.75	1.351	< .001*
Bleacher seating	5.37	1.461	5.61	1.419	< .001*
Friendliness of pros on course	5.99	1.254	6.00	1.250	.528
Service of event host(ess)/hospitality staff	5.78	1.320	5.87	1.276	.020*
Comfort stations	5.66	1.392	5.86	1.294	< .001*
Trash and recycling	5.53	1.445	5.87	1.287	< .001*

Note. Nonparametric statistics were calculated for these variables because they were assessed using ordinal scales. Means and standard deviations are shown for ease of interpretation.

^a*N* = 621. ^b*N* = 1,267.

**p* < .05.

Differences in Performance Variables Between Females and Males

We also calculated the performance scores by spectators on the same 13 attributes. We found a statistically significant difference between females and males in the performance of the following variables: parking lot experience (female: *M* = 5.98, *SD* = 1.342; male: *M* = 5.80, *SD* = 1.393; *p* = .008), shuttle service (female: *M* = 6.12, *SD* = 1.226; male: *M* = 6.08, *SD* = 3.141; *p* = .004), tournament entrance (female: *M* = 6.03, *SD* = 1.197; male: *M* = 5.88, *SD* = 1.299; *p* ≤ .001), ticketing/will call/admission experience (female: *M* = 5.83, *SD* = 1.393; male: *M* = 5.55, *SD* = 1.488; *p* ≤ .001), Kraft experience (female: *M* = 5.93, *SD* = 1.230; male: *M* = 5.76, *SD* = 1.237; *p* = .001), concessions (female: *M* = 5.71, *SD* = 1.255; male: *M* = 5.46, *SD* = 1.433; *p* = .001), area around greens/sightlines (female: *M* = 6.06, *SD* = 1.020; male: *M* = 5.91, *SD* = 1.071; *p* = .004), bleacher seating (female: *M* = 5.87, *SD* = 1.134; male: *M* = 5.62, *SD* = 1.251; *p* ≤ .001), friendliness of pros on course (female: *M* = 6.06, *SD* = 1.107; male: *M* = 5.92, *SD* = 1.221; *p* = .013), service of event host(ess)/hospitality staff (female: *M* = 6.05, *SD* = 1.095; male: *M* = 5.87, *SD* = 1.174; *p* = .005), and trash and recycling (female: *M* = 6.02, *SD* = 1.128; male: *M* = 5.72, *SD* = 1.244; *p* ≤ .001). The performance survey results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3*Mean Venuescape Attribute Performance Ratings Based on 1 (Poor) to 7 (Excellent) Likert Scale*

Venuescape attributes	Male ^a		Female ^b		<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Parking lot experience	5.80	1.393	5.98	1.342	.008*
Shuttle service	6.08	3.141	6.12	1.226	.004*
Tournament entrance	5.88	1.299	6.03	1.197	< .001*
Ticketing/will call/admissions experience	5.55	1.488	5.83	1.393	< .001*
Kraft experience	5.76	1.237	5.93	1.230	.001*
Driving range area	5.55	1.348	5.65	1.377	.193
Concessions	5.46	1.433	5.71	1.255	.001*
Area around greens/sightlines	5.91	1.071	6.06	1.020	.004*
Bleacher seating	5.62	1.251	5.87	1.134	< .001*
Friendliness of pros on course	5.92	1.221	6.06	1.107	.013*
Service of event host(ess)/hospitality staff	5.87	1.174	6.05	1.095	.005*
Comfort stations	5.74	1.155	5.83	1.208	.178
Trash and recycling	5.72	1.244	6.02	1.128	< .001*

Note. Nonparametric statistics were calculated for these variables because they were assessed using ordinal scales. Means and standard deviations are shown for ease of interpretation.

^a*N* = 621. ^b*N* = 1,267.

**p* < .05.

Spending and Viewing

As shown in Figure 1, on-course spending patterns were analyzed for food and beverage, merchandise, and other items. Notably 84% of the participant pool contributed revenue to the tournament via food and beverage purchases. Over 63% of purchasers spent between \$1 and \$39 on food and beverage, 11.3% between \$40 and \$59, 6% between \$60 and \$99, and 3.3% at or exceeding \$100. Merchandise purchases were the second spending area of this investigation, with 56% of the pool indicating money spent in this category. Over one third (33.5%) of these purchasers reported monetary outlay of \$1 to \$39, followed by 14% at \$40 to \$79, and 5.4% at \$100 or more. Other spending was reported by approximately 17% of the pool, with the highest concentration within this category (11%) spending \$1 to \$19, followed by the \$20 to \$59 range (3.6%).

Spectators' viewing styles equated to 27.6% parade, 26.5% cross-country, and 61.5% random roaming. We examined the female and male factors for this area with statistics of random roaming (41.4%), parade (20.5%), and cross-country (17%) reported for females. Male participants used spectating modes with the highest at random roaming (33%), followed by parade (35%) and cross-country (31.8%).

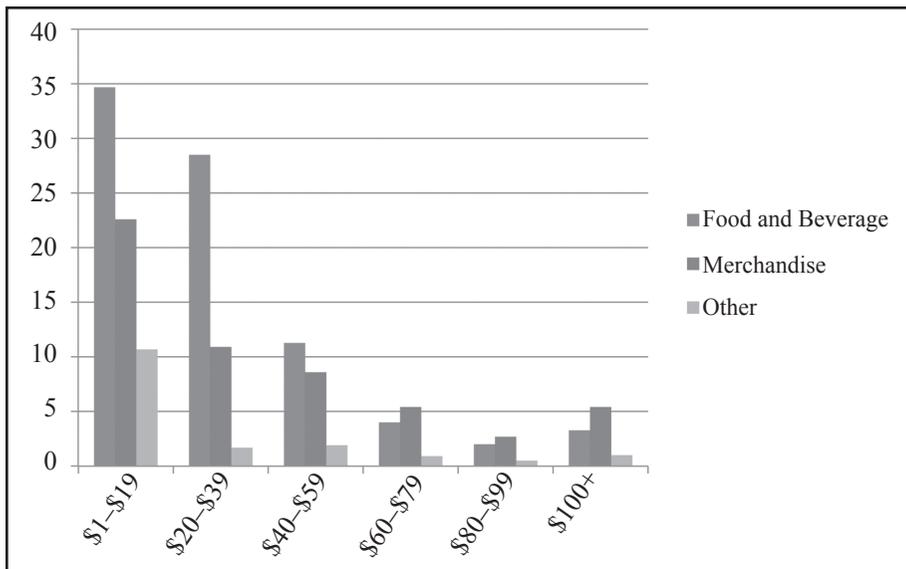


Figure 1. On-course spending patterns.

Implications and Conclusions

Areas of significant importance to spectators were parking, shuttle, admissions process, concessions, greens/sightlines, bleacher seating, host/hospitality staff, comfort stations, and trash and recycling. Females reported the top three importance ratings of the 13 venuescape attributes were friendliness of pros, trash and recycling, and comfort stations. Males' top three importance ratings were friendliness of pros, service of event host(ess)/hospitality staff, and comfort stations. Females' lowest three importance ratings were driving range, ticketing/will call/admissions, and tournament entrance. Attributes of lowest importance to males were ticketing/will call/admissions, concessions, and driving range.

Areas of performance that were significant to spectators were parking, shuttle, tournament entrance, admissions process, Kraft experience, concessions, greens/sightlines, bleacher seating, friendliness of pros on course, host(ess)/hospitality staff, and trash and recycling. The top three performance ratings of the 13 venuescape attributes females reported were shuttle service, area around greens/sightlines, and friendliness of pros. Males' top three performance ratings were shuttle service, friendliness of pros, and area around greens/sightlines. The lowest three performance ratings for females were driving range, concessions, and both ticketing/will call/admissions and comfort stations. Males' lowest performance ratings were concessions, ticketing/will call/admissions, and driving range.

Although there were statistically significant venuescape attributes of importance to spectators, significant differences were found between females and males in areas of importance. Similarly, spectators reported statistically significant venuescape performance attributes, and again, significant differences were found between females and males in areas of performance. The most consistent female and male rating was from the importance categories of tournament entrance, Kraft experience, driving range, and friendliness of pros on course and from the performance categories of driving range experience and comfort stations. Our hypothesis that spectators' satisfaction is a function of both expectations related to certain important attributes and judgments of attribute performance was confirmed. It is evident from our study that venuescape attributes

directly impact spectators' level of satisfaction. The findings of this study exemplify the need for future event planning, design, programming, marketing, and venuescape studies within the professional golf environment.

That 46.4% of the spectators reported they attended 1 day of the event and that only 11.4% of the spectators had tournament tickets indicates that the crowds on several levels vary over the course of the celebrity Pro-Am days and the 4 days of championship competition at an LPGA major. The data further indicate that differences exist among crowds for LPGA events based on the days of championship play (Thursday–Sunday) and the celebrity Pro-Am (Tuesday–Wednesday). We suggest future research of LPGA events in areas of venuescape attributes, gender, type of admission ticket, and viewing styles. Future research could involve days of the week and demographics (Robinson & Carpenter, 2002), consumption behavior and sponsor loyalty (Dixon, 2002), and variables that affect the motive to attend (Zhang et al., 1997).

Robinson and Carpenter (2002) suggested that marketing implications exist based upon the differences based upon the days of week. In this case, these differences based upon a celebrity Pro-Am, pairing party, championship play, pre-cut play, or concert could have ramifications for tournament directors in terms of the differences based upon days of attendance and in terms of decisions related to price, place, promotion, and product. Tournament directors and stakeholders should focus upon segmentation to reach potential and past or current attendees that are more likely to attend on given days and on developing marketing strategies that could increase attendance of a desired segment on a given day. We suggest research of spectators' behavior and venuescape factors that impact attendance.

Another finding of this study is that venuescape satisfaction is independent of gender, viewing style, and number of years attended. This outcome is similar to a sportscape investigation at a PGA event (Lambrecht et al., 2009) indicating golf tournaments are conducted at an array of unique facilities. For instance, LPGA tournaments are hosted where the venuescape is spread over acres of terrain, including permanent fixed and semipermanent rigid structures, parking, ancillary service and storage facilities, and delivery locations. Venuescape attributes can be planned or adjusted for a major championship tournament and for each specific tournament site. This research confirms the event management component of servicing event stakeholders (Allen et al., 2011), in this case the spectators, by measuring the importance and performance of specific venuescape attributes and making recommendations for future studies and events.

Previous literature has examined spectators' satisfaction, attendance, and repatronage patterns at fixed venues; however, overall venuescape impacts at configurable nonstadium venues were nonexistent. Thus, professional golf associations (e.g., LPGA and PGA), tournament administrators, event managers, and corporate CFOs who authorize tournament sponsorship must become knowledgeable of venuescape factors and how they impact and influence spectators' satisfaction while at their configurable venues. The spectators' experience at a major championship on the LPGA tour is different, with spectators deciding unique viewing perspectives of parade, cross-country, or random roaming. Therefore, tournament directors should consider appealing to the diversity of the spectators by using current technology to enhance their experience while attending the tournament and planned ancillary events. Appealing to younger attendees might be enhanced via allowing, enabling, and boosting signal strength for wireless communication devices throughout the entire venue/tournament site. Researchers have advocated using social media platforms to post leader board updates, video highlights from other holes, sponsor advertisements, parking and traffic advisories, or emergency information. Engagement of spectators with sponsors and vendors, pros, and the LPGA are quintessential to furthering the sport among this younger demographic. Technological enhancements might be used to improve connections with fans via use of on-site navigation apps directing attendees to areas such as the closest concessions and merchandise offerings, recycling bin, restroom, sponsor location, specific tee or green, children's fan zone, luxury hospitality, or the pro autograph area. *Clean* and *green* are

often-used terms for environmental awareness among event organizers, and as such, it is equally important to intertwine sponsorship into the event makeup with solar recharging stations, food waste recovery, biodegradable utensils, plates, cups, and so forth.

Last, the economic impact spectators have upon a specific event and the host community is important to event organizers, sponsors, regional politicians, and community stakeholders who are attempting to work in congruence. Albeit in negotiations with a local city manager, major, city council, or destination marketing organization, the event administrator is responsible for knowing the economic impact his or her event exudes upon the host community. Such knowledge will enable event administrators to seek favorable tax, permit, or other municipality services rates. Within our study, 84% of the participant pool made on-site food and beverage purchases and over half purchased event merchandise. We suggest studies investigating the event impact of day visitors, nonlocals with overnight hotel stays, and a multitude of additional spectator, staff, media, and player expenditures.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Although this study indicated a substantial level of involvement with the LPGA, we are uncertain whether the fans in this study would be similar to all LPGA fans. Even with a significant sample size ($N = 1,974$), we encountered obvious limitations by using a spectator convenience intercept survey method and attempting to generalize to all tournament attendees. Also, the research instrument could be altered to include “other” or “trans-gender” as 4.4% of participants did not complete the female or male gender question. Future research using the variables in this study, along with a broader scope (e.g., queries across the global spectrum of LPGA tournaments), is needed to determine the potential impact of such venuescape attributes (e.g., studies at events throughout the host nations of the 2014 LPGA tour: Australia, Bahamas, Canada, China, United Kingdom, France, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Mexico, Singapore, Taiwan, and Thailand).

Mahoney and McMillen (2011) suggested that with a graying population and millions of people with disabilities worldwide, accommodations for elderly people and people with special needs present tournament directors, event planners, marketers, and academicians with areas of focus and needed research. Future studies should incorporate patron, special guest, and staff accessibility (parking, shuttle, drop-off and pick-up locations, porta potties, charging stations, mobility assistance, etc.) as potential focal points for marketing to this populace and for advancing venue and event planning, design, and management. This information can be crucial to the marketing efforts of LPGA and other professional golf events and can provide insight into how venuescape impacts the planning, design, and programming for the entire sport and entertainment experience of attendees at configurable nonstadium venues.

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EVENT MANAGEMENT

MLB Drug Policy Analysis

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Abstract

Policy analysis is the process of establishing community values, promoting agreed upon objectives, resolving conflicts, and designing effective solutions to well-defined problems that affect a community, in this case the MLB. The job of analysis consists of producing evidence and arguments to be used in the course of the public debate. This study analyzed the MLB drug policy, breaking it down into key components, developing criteria for evaluating problems, comparing alternative solutions, and providing feedback to policy makers and the community at large. The end result of the MLB drug policy was to create an equal playing field for all players and a healthier lifestyle as well. The analysis of the policy determined that the policy is working well and meeting its main objective to improve baseball for all.

Keywords: *drug policy; policy analysis; policy actors; policy classification; policy evaluation*

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Policy analysis is the process of establishing community values, promoting agreed upon objectives, resolving conflicts, and designing effective solutions to well-defined problems that affect a community. Analyses should be developed in a systematic and unbiased manner and involve breaking down an issue into its key components, developing criteria for evaluating problems, comparing alternative solutions, and providing feedback to policy makers and the community at large. The job of analysis consists of producing evidence and arguments to be used in the course of public debate. The crucial argumentative aspect of policy analysis is what distinguishes it from the academic social sciences and from problem-solving methodologies such as operations research.

As a professional working in the sports industry, specifically baseball, I have seen that use of performance-enhancing drugs (PEDs) is growing significantly and that sports entities have been trying to stop this increased usage. Major League Baseball (MLB) has especially been working to prevent this usage by working with the MLB Players Association (MLBPA) to create the Joint Drug Treatment and Prevention Program.

The Joint Drug Agreement went into effect in December 2011 and is scheduled to terminate December 1, 2016. In January 2013, MLB and MLBPA announced several key amendments to the agreement, including the adoption of in-season blood testing for human growth hormone and enhanced testing techniques aimed at improving detection of illegal testosterone usage (Major League Baseball Players Association, n.d.).

This policy set forth by the MLB and MLBPA has gone into effect to set rules and regulations regarding drug abuse in the MLB. Included in this policy are lists of banned substances that experts have deemed to be performance enhancing and will be tested throughout players' careers. Also included in the policy are the consequences players face should they not follow the policy guidelines. Consequences for offenders include a 50-game suspension for first-time offenders, a 100-game suspension for second-time offenders, and a lifetime ban for third-time offenders, although players banned for life would be able to apply for reinstatement after 2 years.

When beginning the analysis of this policy, I found that understanding what caused the formation of this policy and how it was developed was important. Understanding the time period of the game of baseball puts the policy into perspective. In the late 1990s, a prominent and interesting home run record chase existed between Mark McGwire of the St. Louis Cardinals and Sammy Sosa of the Chicago Cubs. Both of these players were chasing the single-season home run record set by Roger Maris of 61, and during the season, both players surpassed this record and McGwire set a new record of 70 home runs in a single season. Following this race, the media speculated about steroid use; however, the MLB did not have a plan at that point on how to handle a situation of this magnitude. Following that home run race, speculation grew rampant, and not only with the aforementioned players. Players such as Barry Bonds, Jason Giambi, and Roger Clemens were thrown into the mix. This era of baseball has commonly been referred to as the "Steroid Era" of baseball with several players having asterisks next to their feats, specifically the home run chase of 1998 with McGwire admitting to using steroids.

This issue is ongoing and is being covered in the media every day following a revelation of numerous players receiving treatment for PEDs at a Miami clinic. Two marquee players in the news today are Ryan Braun of the Milwaukee Brewers and Alex Rodriguez of the New York Yankees. The MLB is looking to suspend each of these players, and possibly up to 20 others, for up to 100 games for their connection to this clinic. The owner of this clinic, which is now closed, agreed with the MLB to release documents that incriminate several players who were using PEDs. Most of these players still deny their usage and involvement with the clinic, but the MLB is preparing for the worst (Quinn, Gomez, & Fish, 2013).

This policy is important to analyze because it can be a building block for other governing bodies and their treatment of PEDs in their leagues and organizations. Being a business professional in baseball, I find studying topics such as these is important because I should be aware

of what is occurring in the industry and how to help implement and maintain the policy to its fullest.

Defining the Problem

The MLB is must solve is the illegal use of PEDs in baseball.

Policy Classification

Given the large number and complexity of public policies in the United States, the task of making sense of them is enormous. Political scientists and others have developed numerous general typologies for categorizing public policies. These typologies will prove more useful in distinguishing among and generalizing about policies than some of the more traditional and widely used categorization schemes. Although these categories are convenient for designating various policies and organizing discussions about them, they are not helpful in developing generalizations because they do not reflect the basic characteristics and content of policies.

The MLB's drug policy can be classified in two manners. First, the policy can be classified as formal because it states what the MLB expects from its participants and the way they should act. The MLB is taking steps to create an effective policy. Second, the policy can be classified as regulatory because it restricts or limits the behavior of individuals and groups. That is, it reduces the freedom or discretion to act of the individuals it regulates. In this sense, the MLB policy clearly differs from distributive policies, which increase the freedom or discretion of the people or groups affected.

The formation of regulatory policy usually features conflict between two groups with one side seeking to impose a control on the other side, which customarily resists, arguing either that control is unnecessary or that the wrong kind of control is being proposed. For this policy, the two groups were the MLB and the MLBPA, and in the past, the MLBPA was more hesitant but worked with the MLB to create a collective bargaining agreement, which included the Joint Drug Treatment and Prevention Program.

Policy Actors

Although only a limited number of people can actually create and update policies, that does not mean a large number of people do not play a role in creating the policy. Certain groups of people, official actors, can make decisions that affect policies, whereas other groups of people, unofficial actors, cannot make decisions, but they provide their input/opinions on policies, which can persuade the way the official actors behave. I will explain the official and unofficial actors in the MLB's drug policy next.

Official Actors

Bodey (2012) said that official actors have the authority to make decisions regarding policies. Official actors are broken down into four categories: (a) legislative, (b) executive, (c) administrative, and (d) judicial. For the MLB's drug testing policy, the legislative actors are the MLBPA executive board and the league owners. They work together to agree on how policies are created and implemented in the MLB. Both sides have an opinion of how the policy should be enacted and compromise for the final outcome. The executive actor in this situation is the MLB commissioner, which at this time is Bud Selig. Selig is the highest authority of the MLB and has the power to create and maintain policies for the MLB. The administrative actor for this policy is the Montreal laboratory that handles the league's drug tests. This laboratory is an administrative actor because it does not set the policy, but it implements the policy by following the procedures of the policy and filing its results with the league. Finally, the judicial actor for this policy is the

World Anti-Doping Agency. The agency has to interpret the policies the MLB has set to ensure the tests are following the appropriate procedures.

The authority figure for this drug policy in the MLB is Commissioner Bud Selig. The commissioner of the MLB is at the top of the MLB organizational chart, meaning he has the highest authority to determine what policies are set for the MLB. The Montreal laboratory of the World Anti-Doping Agency that the MLB uses to process the drug tests acts as the expertise in this policy. This laboratory will implement the drug testing procedure and ensure the results of the tests are accurate. The players in the MLB have a strong impact of the order of the drug testing policy. When the policy was created, the players union and the executives of the MLB worked together to agree on a policy. The players gave their opinion of how to keep the order of the testing in favor to the players so the testing will not affect their play (Hagen, 2013).

Unofficial Actors

Unofficial actors do not have the authority to make decisions regarding policies; however, they provide information to persuade the official actors to change or revise their policies. Unofficial actors are broken down into five categories: (a) citizens, (b) media, (c) interest groups, (d) issue networks, and (e) research groups. In this situation, citizens who have a role as an unofficial actor are fans. Everyday fans can voice their opinions on how the drug testing policy should be implemented, and although they cannot change the policy, their opinions might affect the MLB's decision if the connotation of these opinions is negative.

The media in this situation will be news reports, especially reports via ESPN. Several baseball experts on ESPN who have a history in the MLB will most likely talk about drug testing in their broadcasts. One interest group that is an unofficial actor in this situation is the MLBPA. The executive board of the MLBPA is an official actor, but regular members of the MLBPA are unofficial actors because they have an opinion in which they declare to the executive board who in turn presents this to the league owners and MLB executive board to make decisions. In this situation, an example of an issue network is SAMHSA (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration). SAMHSA sees how substance abuse affects people and works to ensure certain drugs are not being abused by society. Finally, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) acts as a research group because it is always testing new drugs and how certain drugs affect performance such as human growth hormone.

Causal Model

This policy was set because of drug abuse within the MLB. Players were using steroids and other PEDs to help them get ahead of the competition. It was also set because the MLB did not have a formal policy in regard to drug abuse or PEDs. The desired outcome of this policy is obvious: to eliminate the usage of PEDs.

The desired outcomes of this policy are not only to eliminate PEDs usage but also to educate players about the negative affects these drugs have on their health. Players do not always think about how harmful these substances may be in the future; they see in the present and look to get ahead. This policy is a good educational/informational tool for players in the league to be conscious of what they would be putting into their body and how dangerous it can be to their health. The death of former National League Most Valuable Player Ken Caminiti shows that drugs are a problem that could potentially end a player's life. Caminiti died of a drug overdose after admitting to using steroids throughout his career and testing positive for cocaine (ESPN.com News Services, 2004).

Policy Goal

The goals of a policy may be somewhat loosely stated and imprecise in content, thus providing a general direction rather than precise targets for implementation. Actors who want action

on a problem may differ as to what should be done and how it should be done. Ambiguity in language then can become a means for reducing conflict, at least for the moment. Compromise to secure agreement and build support may consequently yield general phrasing and lack of clarity in the statement of policy goals.

The goal of the MLB drug policy is primarily to alleviate the problem of drugs and illegal substance usage within the league. The obvious goal is to completely eliminate the problem, but that may not be realistic. Regardless of policies that are in place, this will always be a problem.

The formation of this policy created a step-by-step process of how drug testing will work in the MLB and what is acceptable and what is not. A goal from this policy that is not often spoken about is to inform players how harmful PEDs are and how these can negatively affect their lives. Players often see the positive reinforcements of the drugs at the present, but understanding all of the reinforcements, especially the negative ones since those outweigh the positive, is important. The MLB is responsible for providing players with the information and allowing them to consciously decide what to do with the information. Obviously, the MLB's recommendation would be for the players to study the information and refrain from using PEDs and other illegal substances, but only the players themselves can make that decision.

Policy Targets

The direct targets of this policy are MLB and Minor League Baseball players. The indirect targets are sport managers who manage these players and baseball organizations. The direct targets are the players because their lifestyle and/or behaviors are being affected. They must live a certain lifestyle to be living in accordance to this policy. Whether or not they have used these illegal substances in the past, it reinforces the lifestyle that they have been living.

The indirect targets are not affected directly because the policy will not affect their lifestyle, but it will increase the work and opportunities they have because of the amount of people participating in sports. If indirect targets do not act in accordance to the policy, they will not pay the consequences by the MLB, but if an agent's client were to fail a test, he would be out of work because his or her client would be suspended for a predetermined amount of time.

Policy Tools

The policy tool used in this policy is central characteristics. The MLB and MLBPA did not create this policy for economic or political reasons but rather for the moral obligation and need to inform their players. The moral obligation in this instance is fair play and relieves the uncertainty players have of whether the game of baseball is being played on an equal playing field.

The certainty of the policy and how it will be performed is great. Several areas of the policy state how failing to comply with the policy will affect the player. The discipline is straightforward and the political feasibility is not obvious, but it is understood. Although the MLB created this policy in regard to the moral obligation it feels it has, it can see other benefits. Because of their involvement in the prevention of the drug use, other leagues and organizations may follow suit and create similar programs to eliminate this problem from all sports.

The targets of this policy are not expected to act radically, but they may not change at the first interaction. The targets will be interested in this information, especially when they realize how many people the problem affects. When the participants are informed of the harmful effects of these drugs and the ways in which they will be disciplined, they will change their ways.

Policy Implementation

An incentive technique that can help to implement the policy is to pay athletes bonuses for each year of having clean drug tests. This is the simplest incentive technique because people like to earn money for their hard work.

The incentive system would be easy to administer. Once the level of taxes appropriate for achieving a policy goal is determined, the next step would be to monitor discharges and collect the taxes due. Large bureaucracies would be unnecessary, and political struggles would be avoided. Governmental coercion to cause compliance with standards, with all the balkiness that it creates, would give way to choice driven by self-interest.

A capacity technique to help implement this policy is to train athletes and team management and educate them on the harmful effects of PEDs. The athletes and management need to understand the harmful effects of these drugs so they will not use the drugs and so they can educate young athletes and be role models to help mold the future.

Policy Failure

In the nature of this policy, the way for this policy to fail is to not follow through on the guidelines specified. The MLB must stand firm and not be afraid to take action against offenders whether the player is low profile or high profile. This policy should not be flexible because that would ruin the reason for initially creating the policy.

Another way that this policy could fail is for the MLB and MLBPA to not communicate. Both of these parties must communicate to ensure the other is aware of suggestions, recommendations, and updates to the policy. The MLB needs to educate athletes and management on the policy and how the drug testing policy works.

Policy Evaluation

Policy evaluation entails activities intended to determine what a policy is accomplishing, whether it is achieving its goals, and whether it has other consequences. Who is involved? Who is advantaged and disadvantaged by a policy? What are the consequences of policy evaluation? Are there demands for changes in or repeal of the policy? Are new problems identified? Is the policy process restarted because of evaluation?

Policies can be evaluated in informal and formal methods. However, formal methods tend to be difficult to conduct and informal methods can be riddled with bias. Policies can be evaluated while they are being implemented or after they have been implemented. Policies are difficult to evaluate when they aim to accomplish broad conceptual goals, have competing objectives, or possess multiple objectives. Most policies fail to be evaluated due to assessment difficulties and the tendency of the policy process to favor the status quo.

As its name implies, the process evaluation analyzes how well a policy or program is being administered. Most often, program managers employ this evaluation to determine how to improve the implementation—the aspects of service delivery—of the program. It does not directly address whether the policy or program is achieving the desired outcome or impact on the target population.

Using the process evaluation on the drug policy is the best way to evaluate the effectiveness of the policy and how the MLB is following through on its policy. Having outside sources evaluate the process is important to ensure loopholes do not exist that the parties involved are missing. The MLB may not recognize all problems, but an outside source understands. Evaluating and updating the policy is also important because athletes may find a loophole themselves and try to cheat the system/policy.

Triggering Mechanism

Triggering mechanisms perform a vital function at an early juncture in the public policy-making process: They identify and clarify emerging issues. Unfortunately, these activities are difficult to anticipate because they tend to remain hidden from view as their momentum builds behind more observable daily events. Nevertheless, triggering mechanisms become important to

the political process when their ramifications present adverse effects for a large sector of the public under a specific set of conditions at a particular point in time. Their interference with routine tells the impacted segment of society that something is wrong and needs attention.

As unexpected as they are, triggering mechanisms are significant because of their potential for altering the conditions and boundaries of the political system. What is not necessarily part of the political process prior to a triggering mechanism may become the subject of political decisions after a triggering event has occurred. As events from the environment penetrate the boundaries of the political system, they rearrange that system.

The value of a triggering mechanism as a catalyst for public policy stems from the interaction of four elements: scope, intensity, time, and resources. Together, these elements constitute the core ingredients of the demands for political change. The presence of each element in combination with the others establishes the potential impact of the triggering mechanism on the public policy process and the likelihood for change.

The triggering mechanism for this policy was the increasing use of PEDs within MLB players. With the public coverage of alleged steroid use in the late 1990s and early 2000s, the MLB and MLBPA had to take action, which resulted in the formation of this policy. Another triggering mechanism that helped form this policy was the death of Ken Caminiti and how his drug overdose proved that drugs are a problem in the MLB and, more important, that they can result in death.

Conclusion

As a professional in the sport industry, I think that understanding how to analyze policies is important because organizations should always be looking for ways to improve. Even top-of-the-line organizations should strive to be better. Properly being able to analyze policies will allow organizations to grow and achieve greater success. Using new employees in an organization to evaluate the policy can be great because they can realize problems that other employees have not seen in years. New techniques and trends in the industry need to be considered as well to ensure the organization keeps up with the industry.

As a professional in the baseball industry, I think analyzing the MLB's drug policy is important because it has recently become a strong focus for the league. However, most of this focus has not been positive. People are talking about how players are not complying with the policy rather than how the policy is helping the league. It is important to understand where the MLB is failing to communicate to its players the policy to eliminate the problem of PEDs. The recent shockwaves being sent throughout the MLB by Ryan Braun and Alex Rodriguez will surely affect the way the policy is communicated to players in the future.

As a result of analyzing this policy, the MLB has drastically taken steps to better the MLB from the late 1990s to present day. The policy is obviously working, with the recent announcement of suspensions for PEDs use by MLB players. Fans, media, players, and MLB directors are learning about the policy in great detail and working to understand how the policy works and what the MLB expects from its players. This policy was not created to diminish the game of baseball but to better create an equal playing field for all players and a healthier lifestyle as well.

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EVENT MANAGEMENT

A Coach's Guide to Budgeting at the Division III Level

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Abstract

Coaches at all levels need a guide to budgeting for their teams in particular at the Division III level. The budgeting process is important to coaches as well as the teams. The budgeting process can be confusing and frustrating for new coaches. This paper outlines for the coaches a budgeting process. Coaches must understand the budgeting process. The success of their programs rides on how many resources they are able to procure and how they use the resources.

Keywords: *budget; budget lines; budget process; chain of command; fiscal year; fund-raising*

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Varsity sports programs at National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) institutions come in many shapes and sizes. At the Division III level, athletic teams face challenges in creating and using monetary budgets. Division III schools tend to be smaller with a smaller amount of money. Despite differences between institutions, the process that allocates institutional resources retains a general flow. The coaches determine how much money they need for the next season and request their budget. The athletic department then requests their overall budget. The student affairs or student life office then requests their budget, which includes athletics, among other activities for the general student body. The board of directors approves the budget plan along with the president and the chief financial officer.

The budgeting process is important for coaches. It gives them an avenue to express concerns with their current budget and to suggest places for improvement. The budgeting process can be confusing for new coaches. Questions pop up dealing with issues such as how much money is needed for a team. This is why coaches need to understand the process and their team's finances. Coaches should think about their goals for their programs, decide how much financial support they need to reach those goals, and plan a route toward reaching that level of financial support.

Recent Background

Recently, concern over the rising cost of tuition and the growing student debt has been growing. The average 2011 college graduate had a student debt of roughly \$26,000 (The Project on Student Debt, n.d.). The Federal Reserve Bank of New York reported \$902 billion in outstanding student debt in the United States (Brown et al., 2012). The Consumer Financial Protection Bureau stated that the total outstanding debt in the United States has increased to more than \$1 trillion (Chopra, 2012). Recently, Congress has argued over the rate that the federal government will charge for student loans. The rising cost of tuition at public and private institutions is well documented.

The economic downturn of 2008 cost many colleges a large percentage of their endowment (Hechinger, 2009). As colleges have been trying to recover from these losses, they have made cuts to their budget or kept budgets at the same level. The economic downturn followed increases in tuition. Students used to be confident in their ability to pay off their student loans because they would be able to land a job after they graduated. With the economic downturn, institutions have been forced to reign in the growth in tuition prices to cope with students' newfound fear that they will be stuck in debt with no job. With shriveled endowments and no desire to raise tuition further, colleges have been reluctant to deal with increased commitment to athletic programs.

This reluctance has made planning for the future of athletic programs difficult for coaches. A proper budget helps programs to remain competitive as coaches need to recruit and attract new student athletes. The support for the current student athletes will affect the student athletes programs are able to attract.

How the Budgeting Process Works

Cost of a Student's Education

This paper focused on budgeting issues for small private colleges. However, many of the problems coaches face can be applied to public institutions. In addition, the majority of small Division III NCAA institutions tend to be private. First, I will examine the differences between smaller institutions and large universities.

First, universities gain a significant portion of their budget from state funding. Private institutions do not receive such funding. Larger universities typically consider their out-of-state tuition to be the real cost of a student's education (Zdziarski, 2010). They will give in-state students a huge discount and make up the difference through other sources. At private institutions, in-state students are not given a preference on tuition. Instead, every student is charged the same.

To make up for this price difference, smaller institutions discount the tuition for students depending on their ability to pay for college. The federal government has students fill out its Federal Application for Student Financial Aid (FAFSA) form that asks for information pertaining to their family's income, savings, and financial assets. After the form is filled out, the federal government will determine how much students can contribute to their education. Private institutions tend to consider this information when they decide to whom they will provide institutional grants. Institutions can take several approaches to determine from where their funding will come. Institutions with large endowments may use them to fund a significant portion of their budget. Most use the revenue from their students' tuition.

When the revenue of the institution is closely tied to tuition, the budgets of the departments within the college are generally fixed. If budgets increase significantly, the tuition of the students must be raised or more students must be admitted to the institution. Smaller institutions generate interest in themselves by marketing their small size, and increasing the size of the student body is not always a great answer to budget shortfalls. Plus, increasing the size of the student body would most likely require investments into additional infrastructure. The inflexible nature of the budget at smaller institutions makes increasing budgets for athletic programs difficult for administrations. However, student athletes make up a higher proportion of the student body at smaller institutions. The athletic department is a large percentage of the student body and must be recognized in this role.

Chain of Command

When creating financial budget's for the year, institutions of higher learning have many departments that they must consider. The athletic department will typically fall under the student life or student affairs office. This means that the athletic director will answer to the dean of student affairs or the dean of student life. Above the dean is the president, vice president, chief financial officer, and the board of directors. Many people must be convinced that the money put toward athletic programs will be put to good use.

Fiscal Year

The fiscal year is an arbitrary measure of time that the institution sets to group expenses together that are incurred around the same time. Colleges tend to define a fiscal year according to the school year. They set the date of changing from one fiscal year to another during the summer because it is a period of lighter administrative work with the student body away on summer vacation. Other institutions may set the fiscal year to align with the calendar year. Institutions set the fiscal year based on their own needs and organizational system. When programs request their budget for the next school year, they request the amount of funding they desire for the entire fiscal year. This includes recruiting expenses that are incurred during the summer.

Budget Lines

Programs are given a total amount of money that they are allowed to spend in a given year. Athletic departments must track how the resources are spent. This is typically done through a credit card banking system and accounting software. To track the funds, those who are authorized to spend must label their transactions for future identification. Because there may be a large number of transactions to track, budget lines are designated for purchases to be filed under. Budget lines are an identification system used in budgeting software. They typically comprise a series of numbers that are organized to group similar expenses together.

Budget lines are handled in different ways depending on the leadership of the athletic department. In most cases, budgets are broken down into separate lines that track how money is spent. In some cases, budget lines are not used at all, and the funding is tracked as a lump sum.

Typically, lines will be designated for recruiting expenses, traveling expenses, athletic equipment, professional development for coaches, and miscellaneous expenses.

To ensure all funds are being spent for the university, several people must review the monthly statements for the programs. At smaller institutions, typically a designated secretary reviews purchases. The athletic director will also review the statements after the secretary. Larger athletic departments may have designated support staff for the reviews, but most Division III institutions are small enough for a limited staff to monitor the budget. The accounting department may also have staff that audit programs. When this happens, a staff member outside of the typically involved persons will review the records. This ensures that staff members are not abusing funds for their own personal use.

Budget lines play the largest role in the planning process. When planning their fiscal strategy, schools delegate resources to areas depending on the need for the funding. Coaches, faculty, and other staff are known for requesting more money for their budget than the administration is willing to give them. Different requests must be categorized to be reviewable and prioritized. For athletic programs, priority is typically given to traveling expenses for competitions and equipment vital to competition. When creating a budget within lines, coaches will often use an Excel worksheet (see Figure 1).

Budget lines are used to create a budget for the next year to demonstrate how the funds will be spent. Some institutions will give coaches discretion after the budget lines have been created and allow some lines to go over their allotted total as long as the budget total does not go over the set amount. Other institutions will not allow coaches to spend more money than was allotted at the beginning of the year to the budget line. When allowed to go over their budget lines, coaches have more flexibility to disperse their funds as they see fit. This can be extremely useful when an emergency emerges or unforeseen circumstances create sudden unpredicted expenditures. When not allowed to go over their budget lines, coaches are forced to look more closely at the needs of their team for the upcoming season and submit an accurate portrayal of their costs. This can also make adapting to changing circumstances throughout the season difficult for coaches.

Other Types of Budgeting

In incremental budgeting, programs have a set amount of funding. Each year the budget automatically increases to account for increased travel costs and other expenses. The administration decides the size of the increase and then leaves the budget alone. This is an easy way for administrations to handle their budgets, but it makes it difficult to determine whether the amount of funding being given to the athletic programs is appropriate. Using incremental budgeting gives coaches freedom from preparing budget requests, but it could make requesting a funding increase beyond the set amount difficult.

To deal with this problem without resorting to budget lines, the administration may use a formula that determines how much funding programs will receive. The administration constructs this formula, which will vary depending on the needs of the institution. It can consider a few factors such as the cost per participant and the cost for travel depending on the distance the team travels. This equation can create institutional standards that create equity among sports. However, creating a formula that considers every facet of budgeting can be difficult. The administration should be able to tweak the formula if needed or decide to give itself the ability to change the outcome of the budgets if unforeseen circumstances emerge.

Finally, in zero-based budgeting, coaches begin the year with \$0 for their budget. They must then build their request with each dollar given to them for expenses. This type of budgeting gives the administration the most control over the resources. Coaches must plan out the entire season and consider each expense they will face. This type of budgeting gives the administration the ability to quickly respond to changes teams face in their needs. When coaches are faced with this kind of budgeting, they must be thorough and able to exaggerate their needs.

2015 Fiscal Year Budget Detail					
Sport:		Submitted by:		Date:	
Budget Line	Description	Qty.	Unit Price	Item Amt.	2015 Budget
6103	Athletic Supplies				\$0.00
6115	On Campus Food Service				\$0.00
6122	Memberships				\$0.00
6123	Office & Instructional Supplies				\$0.00
6124	Postage & Express				\$0.00
6126	Professional Fees				\$0.00
6132	Staff Development				\$0.00
6136	Travel				\$0.00
	Buses				
	Mini-Buses				
	Vans				
	Meals				
	Hotels				
6141	Technology				\$0.00
6159	Recruiting				\$0.00
	Mileage/Rentals				
	Fees				
	Meals				
	Lodging				
6199	Miscellaneous Supplies & Expenses				\$0.00
11-524??			Totals	\$0.00	

Figure 1. Sample fiscal year budgeting worksheet.

Budget Requests

For budget requests, coaches must consider many factors, including the financial health of the college, the financial health of the athletic department, the prominence of the team, the seniority of the coach, the ability of the program to raise funds outside of the budget request, the relationship of the coach with his or her superiors, the current goals of the college, the needs of the program, and the current and future competitive position of the program. If the institution is in good financial health, coaches will be more likely to receive their requests. If the institution is struggling, coaches should temper their expectations for the funding they will receive. Coaches can still request more resources, but they should be prepared to defend their request. During lean financial times, requests are likely to be approved only if they are necessary. During better financial times, coaches should still be prepared to defend their requests, but they will have a

better chance at pushing for new funding. Depending on the institution, coaches may also have to consider the financial situation of the athletic department.

The prominence of the team, the seniority of the coach, and the relationship between the coach and higher administration will largely impact whether a coach's requests are fulfilled. Programs that have a winning record, especially those with national titles or other honors, will have an easier time procuring funding. Usually, these teams will have coaches who have been with the institution for a long time. Administrators will invest more resources into programs that are likely to make a return on the investment. The media and prestige that come with successful athletic programs can enhance the institution's ability to attract students. This can be especially important at smaller institutions where student athletes can make up one fourth to one third of the student body. A range of financial situations exists for Division III institutions. Some have large endowments and receive a significant amount of funding from grants. Others receive nearly all of their funding for a fiscal year from tuition. Both types can benefit from athletic programs that will attract students that the school might otherwise not be able to attract.

Fund-Raising

Linked to the prominence of programs, the ability of programs to raise funds outside of their budget requests can also determine for what coaches will ask. If programs are able to raise a significant amount of funds, coaches must decide what they will request in their budget and for what they will use the extra funds. Although coaches may consider many items necessary for the success of their program, administrators may not have the same view. Coaches who learn how to examine their situation through the eyes of the administration will be the most successful in complementing their institutional funding and extracurricular funding. For example, coaches know that the administration will probably not provide funding for expensive equipment that has training benefits but is not essential. However, the administration will be more likely to provide funding for extra travel expenses. In this situation, coaches should request the travel expenses and use their other sources to acquire funding for the expensive equipment.

Athletic programs can raise funds in a few ways. First, alumni will donate to programs that have a history of success. The most successful programs make their student athletes feel as if athletics was a crucial component of their educational experience. They make them feel as if athletics helped make them the successful people they are today. These alumni will give back to programs in their desire to give current and future student athletes the same, or a better, experience. Successful programs can also organize camps or clinics that use their reputation to attract participants. Only the top Division III institutions are able to organize large camps, but smaller institutions can organize local camps if they put forth the effort. Depending on the setup at the college, coaches may have to pay to use the facilities or share a portion of their profit with another department. For example, the conferences and events office at Juniata either will take one third of the money earned by a camp or will provide the camp with workers and take two thirds of the money. Other institutions, such as Kenyon College, charge for the use of the facilities and allow the coaches to keep the rest of the profit.

Coaches can involve their teams in running camps. This has a couple of advantages. First, it shows them the amount of work that goes into raising the funds that they use. This can give them a perspective that may prove beneficial when they become alumni. Second, the camp will be run well since the athletes will be on the same page as their coach. Third, it can give the student athletes a way to make money over the summer months. Finally, it can build up student athletes' résumés in case they want to become involved with the sport after graduation. The NCAA has two requirements for this pay. First, the work must actually be performed. Second, the rate must be commensurate with the typical rate given for the work (NCAA, 2012).

Teams can also sell goods such as T-shirts for fund-raising. They can also organize traditional fund-raisers such as concession stands and car washes. The NCAA (2102) rules on this

subject say that such actions are allowed as long as all proceeds go toward the institution. The likeness of the student athlete can also be used to promote events as long as it is linked to the institution or to a certified nonprofit if the organization is outside of the institution.

Although teams should maximize their opportunities by organizing as many fund-raising events as possible, they must also keep a pulse on the administration. The current goals of the administration will majorly impact requests for more funding. If the college is trying to cut back on costs or freeze their tuition, programs will unlikely receive more funding. If the college is trying to expand its athletic department, coaches should prepare a case for more funding. Coaches will find the most success at institutions where the administration's goals align with their own. Coaches will have difficulty when an administration expects more from the program than they feel comfortable handling or when they want to take the program further than the administration is prepared to fund.

The needs of programs are related to their competitiveness and the expectations of the administration. The needs of programs shift over time depending on the quality of competition they need to face, the number of athletes they need, the quality of the athlete they need, and the shifting reputation of the institution as a whole. When programs reach a point where they need to face a high level of competition, they will probably have to travel farther. This will require more program funding. When programs need to expand their roster, they will need more funding for greater travel and equipment costs. When programs become nationally competitive, they will need to expand their recruiting reach to bring in better athletes. This will take more money as coaches will need to send out more letters, access to new recruiting databases, and travel farther to watch recruits in action.

Most coaches consider these factors without conscious effort because they are aware of the situation of their program and the status of the institution as a whole. However, coaches will find it useful to step back and examine the situation. They may find that some of their priorities have been misplaced and that they need to shift focus to other areas of their budget that have been neglected. Identifying the needs of the program is the first step in acquiring the resources that coaches require.

Differentiating Between Needs and Wants

At smaller institutions, coaches are asked to provide a great experience for their student athletes with limited resources. Coaches must prioritize their spending to maximize their ability to achieve success within their program. If coaches listen to their athletes, they will find that every area of their program is lacking. They will bemoan how the program does not garner enough attention or support from the college. Comparisons will be made that are meant to demonstrate how other programs have more. However, these small complaints are typically quickly forgotten. Coaches must decide how to spend their resources to make athletes feel comfortable and enjoy their experience.

The decisions coaches make create a balancing act. On the one hand, student athletes will be happier if they are provided expensive food and lodged in expensive hotels. On the other hand, few programs have the means to spend lavishly on the athletes. Division III coaches tend to search for the best deals they can find so that they can stretch their funding further. Coaches do not want to place their student athletes into the cheapest accommodations, as this will typically negatively affect team morale. Instead, Division III coaches should search for accommodations that are nice enough but still affordable. Coaches must also balance the nutritional content of the meals with their affordability. Student athletes who typically eat more expensive food will not be happy if their coach provides them with pizza for every meal. While budgeting, most institutions use a standard rate to determine how much funding coaches will need to provide food and lodging for their student athletes. The ability of coaches to acquire food and lodging underneath the rate will allow them to use the funding on other items.

For Division III athletics, programs sometimes ask the student athletes to shoulder part of the financial burden. For colleges in the north, programs might ask student athletes to pay for trips taken to southern states for competition or training. For example, many baseball teams in the northeastern area are unable to play outside at the beginning of their season. It is simply too cold. They have gotten around this problem by taking trips to Florida, South Carolina, or other areas that are typically scheduled over a school's spring break. These trips may cost the student athletes more than \$500. Another example is the propensity for swimming teams to take "training trips" over their winter breaks. The swimming season is longer than most, lasting from September until February or March for most Division III programs. The trips are used as a way to keep the student athletes engaged during a difficult portion of their training. Baseball, softball, and swimming coaches will attest for how their trips are a vital part of their competitive culture, but they are too expensive for nearly any Division III institution to pay for. Beyond trips, programs have also been known to ask athletes to pay for some of their equipment.

When deciding how to improve their program, coaches are faced with several decisions. First, they can use a large portion of their funding to recruit better student athletes and hope for the best. However, coaches should also consider that they must provide their current student athletes with a great experience to attract new student athletes and create alumni that want to give back to the program. They must also consider how they want to recruit student athletes. They can mail letters to recruits, but they must pay for postage and printing. They can e-mail recruits without those costs, but they may have to pay for access to e-mails. They can use funds to visit recruits at competitions or at their homes. However, coaches must watch the amount that they spend on recruiting. If too much is spent on recruiting and not enough is spent on the current student athletes, coaches will have trouble with their student athletes telling recruits to look elsewhere. Coaches must decide how they will focus their efforts and stick to a plan to be successful.

First, a coach must ask, how vital is this expenditure to the success of my student athletes? Programs have only a few necessary expenditures. First, programs must be able to travel to competitions. Several options for travel are available depending on the size of the team. Colleges often have vans that smaller teams can take for no charge outside of the costs of gas. The teams can also rent vans if their college does not provide that service. Many teams will require a bus. Different buses are available, although smaller buses do not cost much less than a full 55-passenger bus. Other than size, buses also have the advantage of a professional driver. The coach is no longer responsible for driving and the student athletes feel safer. Whether the extra cost of the bus worthwhile depends on how large the team is and how comfortable the coaches are with driving.

Another necessary expenditure is athletic equipment. The budget that is required for athletic equipment varies depending on the sport. Uniforms must be replaced semiregularly, balls must be replaced regularly, swimsuits must be bought every season, goals must be replaced occasionally, and other purchases must be made for teams to function. For football, these can include pads, helmets, jock straps, water bottles, and balls. For soccer, these can include uniforms, balls, and field maintenance. For tennis, these expenditures can include balls, rackets, nets, painting the courts, and uniforms. Every sport has expenditures that are vital to the competition. Coaches can easily argue these purchases, but the administration can be difficult with which to deal on certain points.

Coaches must be able to recruit. This is less important at some institutions than at others. Better known colleges such as Williams and Amherst have more student athletes come to them. Lesser known institutions must seek out potential student athletes. The administration will give their athletic programs resources depending on the amount of recruiting activity they deem necessary. The job of coaches is to convince the administration that further resources administered in recruiting will find a return on the institution's investment. When creating budget requests,

coaches must first consider whether they need an increase in recruiting funds. If they decide that they do, coaches must prepare a defense for their request. They should avoid being placed in a situation where the administration expects more return from their investment than possible. The better coaches can explain their situation, the better chance that expectations will match the investment into recruiting.

The recruiting budget is typically flexible in how it is used. Many approaches can produce results, but Division III institutions have their own trends. First, many athletes need to be contacted because the institution cannot offer athletic scholarships. High-prestige Division I institutions typically contact a small pool of recruits because they can offer many incentives. Because Division III schools have a murkier process for offering incentives, student athletes tend to widen their search to compensate. Second, Division III institutions tend to not have travel budgets that are big enough to sustain constant travel or sustain the staff to recruit across the country.

Even deciding how to contact potential student athletes can hold different possibilities. The trend has shifted toward e-mail because it is free for coaches to send and nearly every recruit has an e-mail address. However, the impermanence of the format lessens the weight of e-mails. High school students are bombarded with e-mails, and schools may not stand out. Letters cost money to print and send in the mail. High school students still receive plenty of mail, but whether sending a letter or an e-mail will more likely catch a recruit's attention is difficult to determine. Most likely, it depends on the recruit.

The most expensive option, but also the most impactful, is meeting the recruit in person. This can be done by visiting competitions or the recruit's home. Many Division III coaches choose to attend events where they can speak to several recruits at once. Coaches typically reserve this for top recruits, but they can save money and reach more recruits with their limited resources. First, they can consider living out of their car instead of booking a hotel room. Coaches must ensure that they have access to a public bathroom if they choose to go this route and should bring equipment for cleaning themselves as if they were camping. Second, coaches could try and find a friend with whom they can stay who lives close to the recruit. This is vastly preferable to living out of the car. Third, coaches can rent a hotel room. This is expensive and not preferable, but this is often necessary. Finally, coaches can only visit recruits that are within driving distance of their home. This can be difficult for coaches who do not enjoy driving home late at night, but it is cheap. This can also be difficult for coaches who work at rural campuses where it can be tough to reach many recruits who are farther away.

Once coaches determine how they will recruit, they must create an optimal recruiting schedule for their program. They should have a list of events they would like to attend and add up the cost of attending the events. When asking for budget increases, coaches should start with the highest amount for which they can ask. They will then negotiate if their initial request is not approved. It helps if coaches are able to justify their recruiting trips and to tie the trip into the health of the college.

Conclusion

Institutions of higher learning are not a monolithic entity. They approach their finances in different ways. However, commonalities span all institutions. Coaches should remember three main points while creating a budget. First, they should understand the overall financial situation of the institution so they can adjust their requests for budget increases. Second, they should prioritize their expenses. When deciding where to request budget increases, they should be able to point out which areas will be vital for the health of the program. Third, coaches should be able to justify their budget request with a detailed explanation for how the money will be used, which will make them more persuasive.

Coaches must understand the budgeting process. The success of their programs ride on how many resources they are able to procure and how they use the resources. Coaches might

find arguing with the administration for more resources difficult, but a solid understanding of how funds are being spent and a good argument about how funds will help the overall mission of the college can go a long way.

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Guidelines for Contributors

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 - c. The title page must include four elements: title, author(s) and affiliation(s), running head, and author identification notes.
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 - e. The abstract page must include two elements: (1) the abstract itself, writing in the concise and nonevaluative form and not exceeding 120 words and (2) three to five keywords. No information about the author(s) should be presented on the abstract page.
 - f. Examples of reference citations in text are found in the *APA Manual*, 6th edition.

4. Manuscripts are typically in the range of 20–30 pages of text. Papers can be submitted electronically via Sagamore’s Journal Management System—<http://js.sagamorepub.com/jfpdm/about/submissions>.

