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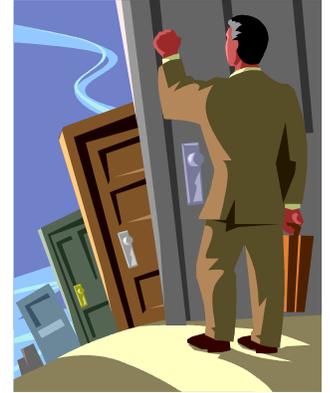
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Dr. Jason W. Lee,
Editor

PROGRAM CHOICE FACTORS OF SPORT MANAGEMENT DOCTORAL STUDENTS IN NORTH AMERICA

DR. JAY JISHA, PHD, UNIVERSITY OF TAMPA, & DR. BRENDA PITTS, EDD, GEORGIA STATE UNIVERSITY

KEY WORDS: SPORT MANAGEMENT, EDUCATION, PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

Doctoral education in sport management has recently garnered attention from leading sport management scholars. The 2000 and 2001 North America Society for Sport Management Earle F. Zeigler Award winners have used the occasion of the Zeigler Lecture to voice concerns about doctoral education in sport management. The 2000 recipient of the Earle F. Zeigler award expressed a concern that the number of faculty in sport management has not kept pace with the increasing number of programs (Pitts, 2001). This point was reiterated by the 2001 Zeigler award winner Dr. James Weese. Weese (2002) contended that the existing doctoral programs in sport management are currently not producing enough graduates to fill faculty vacancies created by attrition, growth of existing programs, and the creation of new programs. Furthermore, he suggested that the most relevant question for the future of sport management is not how to recruit more students, but how to find and retain faculty members to teach these students.

Doctoral education in sport management is vital to the success and continued growth of our field. However, little is known about this topic. In her 2000 Zeigler address, Pitts (2001) indicated that that the literature on doctoral education in sport management is virtually nonexistent. Further, she declared that this area is in need of examination and urged sport management scholars to investigate this area. One logical place to start an examination of doctoral education in sport management is to investigate how students select an institution for their sport management doctoral education. In addition, it is constructive to identify characteristics of students enrolled in sport management doctoral programs. Therefore, it was the purpose of this study to examine the program choice and demographics of doctoral students enrolled in North American sport management doctoral programs. The significance of this study is to provide information that could be helpful to faculty and program administrators in sport management doctoral programs in the recruitment of doctoral candidates.

PROGRAM CHOICE LITERATURE

The terms "college choice" and "program choice" appear in the literature as terms describing factors influencing students' decisions on which institutions to attend. Poock (1997) suggests that since the choice process of graduate or doctoral students relates to specific programs as opposed to institutions in general for undergraduates, the term "program choice" should be used. There is little research on the program choice of graduate students in general and even less on doctoral students (Kallio, 1995). The existing literature on graduate students mainly has been limited to "special" populations such as women or minority groups (Malaney, 1987). An explanation for this is that graduate recruitment often times is not centralized in an admissions office like it is for undergraduate recruitment. Individual departments are responsible for communication with potential students. Some have sophisticated recruiting programs, while others do very little. Malaney (1987) suggested that academicians are not

trained admissions officers and many dislike the idea of recruiting. They often equate the practice with commercialism and are reluctant to engage in it.

Although program choice at the doctoral level is not a commonly studied topic, several studies have been conducted. Several common themes have emerged from the limited doctoral program choice literature. Reputation of the institution and the individual program, placement rate, financial assistance and faculty involvement all appear as primary factors in the choice process.

DOCTORAL PROGRAM CHOICE

Talbot, Maier and Rushlau (1996) identified philosophy of the program, reputation of the academic program, reputation of the faculty, and fellowship/assistantship opportunities as factors of great importance for doctoral students in student affairs.

Webb (1996) sampled doctoral students in business and identified reputation, specific programs, degree marketability, faculty contact time, accreditations, assistantships, financial aid, placement, completion time, and library size were all important in the choice process.

White and Hernandez (1990) sampled doctoral students in counselor education and found that academic reputation, faculty philosophy, and faculty approachability were the factors rated the highest.

Poock (1997) studied newly enrolled doctoral students from 24 institutions in the field of higher education administration. He found that location close to home, reputation of the institution, friendliness of faculty and staff. Availability of evening classes, flexible program requirements, and positive interaction with faculty were the highest rated factors in the choice process.

Poock (1999) also investigated the factors influencing students of color to apply to doctoral programs in higher education. He found that some factors were different for students of color as opposed to white students. Specifically, students of color tend to more thoroughly investigate the environment of an institution. This is accomplished by talking with other students in the program, visiting the campus, and ensuring that the institution is aware of and sensitive to their needs.

No studies were found in the literature on doctoral sport management program choice. Yet, we believed that faculty and administrators might benefit from this research. For instance, knowing what factors influence potential students' decision making process about applying to and attending a particular program would help in decisions concerning recruiting plans, program development plans, and student retention plans. Therefore, it was believed that there was a need for this research.

METHODOLOGY

FRAMEWORK

This study was based on the Hossler and Gallagher three-phase model of college choice (1987). That model was based on market research theory developed by Kotler (1976). The Hossler and Gallagher model evolved from earlier work in college choice by Chapman (1981) and Litten (1982). The phases of the Hossler and Gallagher model are the predisposition phase, the search for information phase, and a

choice phase. Specifically, this study will focus on phases I and II of the model. These phases align with the collection of demographic data and explanation of the choice process. This model has been used previously to study the matriculation decisions of foreign graduate students (Waters, 1992) and the program choice of doctoral students in higher education (Poock 1997).

INSTRUMENT

A survey instrument was developed based on the Program Choice Questionnaire developed by Poock (1997), and labeled the Sport Management Program Choice Survey. The items selected for the survey were drawn from previous studies on program choice at the doctoral level. The literature has established common factors in the choice process that have been applied to different academic disciplines. This study has taken these established line of questions and applied them to the field of sport management. The survey was pilot tested with a group of 50 students seeking a Master's degree in sport management in the fall of 2000. The survey used a 5 point Likert type scale to measure the importance of 62 items influencing a students' decision to attend their institution. Demographic data were also collected.

SAMPLE

The subjects for this study were 158 sport management doctoral students, representing 8 institutions in North America. Two institutions with programs declined to participate. Unfortunately, there is not a comprehensive listing of sport management doctoral programs. Therefore, it is possible some programs were omitted unintentionally. Institutions for this study were selected based on the NASSM website and personal correspondence with sport management faculty members that had recently served on faculty search committees. Because they were privy to the resumes of numerous applicants, these faculty members were able to identify institutions that were producing graduates that were stating they had a doctoral degree specifically in sport management. A total of 76 surveys were returned, producing an overall response rate of 48%.

DATA COLLECTION

A contact person at each institution was identified. This person distributed the instrument either during a class session or by mail to all registered doctoral students. The students were asked to take the survey home complete it and mail it back to the researcher. A two step variation of the Dillman (1978) method was used as a follow-up procedure.

TREATMENT OF THE DATA

Mean and standard deviation scores were calculated for each of the items related to the choice process. Frequency counts, converted to percentages were utilized to report demographic information.

RESULTS

Poock (1997) used a mean score of 3.5 or higher to signify items that were "highly rated" in the choice process. Applying his criteria to this work, seven items were found to be highly rated. These include opportunity for assistantship, job placement, friendliness of faculty and staff, and the time required to complete the program. In addition, three items "reputation of the institution," "reputation of the program," and "positive interaction with the faculty" had a mean score above 4. Table 1 illustrates the mean score and standard deviation of all items on the instrument.

Table 3 illustrates the 10 lowest rated items on the survey such as the availability of child care, relatives living nearby, and parking on campus. Table 5 illustrates selected high rated variables from this study and confirmatory findings from program choice literature such as reputation, assistantships, time required to complete program and positive interaction with faculty. Table 6 illustrates findings of this study that contradict the program choice literature. These include factors such as location close to home and the role of brochures and catalogs in the choice process.

Table 4 illustrates the results of the principal demographic variables of the respondents. The data suggests that a sport management doctoral student will most likely be a white male age 33. Who is studying full-time, seeking a PhD, and has 1-3 years of work experience in sport. Further, they are most likely to be married and want to pursue a career in college teaching.

The final open-ended item in the demographic section asked the number of miles the respondent had to travel to relocate from their permanent address in order to attend their doctoral program. The range was from a low of 0 to a high of 10,000. The average distance a respondent had to travel to attend their doctoral program was 1405 miles. This number appears to be influenced by the relatively high percentage of Asian students in the sample that may have had a greater distance to travel to a North American institution.

Two items, reputation of the athletic department and NASPE/NASSM program approval were added to the instrument because of their relevance to the population. However, neither item was found to be among the highest rated items.

It is interesting to note that 4 of the institutions in the study had 8 or fewer students and the other 4 had twenty or more. Two institutions had forty or more students. Further, this study found that over 50% of doctoral students applied to only one school.

DISCUSSION

The ranking of individual items in this study were supported in the literature of college and program choice. The highest rated items in this work were very similar to the results of Poock's 1997 study that influenced the design of this project. This would suggest that in general, the choice process of doctoral students in higher education is similar to that of students in sport management. Reputation of the institution and of the program were the two top rated items in the study. A possible explanation for this can be found in the literature of human resource management. Chelladurai (1999) states that supervisors may judge employees based on perceptions of themselves. This is called similarity error. For instance, if a supervisor rated an employee higher than they deserved because they had similar interests or life experiences as the supervisor; similarity error has occurred. This bias may have had an effect on the rating of reputation. Students may have rated the reputation of their school high because it is "their" school. It is unlikely that a person would report that their school does not have a good reputation. It is probable that some degree of similarity error occurred when the respondents were rating the reputation of their own program and institution. To minimize the effect of similarity error, the concept of reputation should be investigated further. The importance of the role a programs faculty plays in the choice process was underscored by this study. Positive interaction with the faculty and the friendliness of the faculty and staff were the 3rd and 4th highest rated items in this project. This is a clear indication that the faculty needs to play a primary role in the recruiting process. Institutions should not defer all of the recruiting to the de-

partment head or the support staff. Faculty members need to make time to interact with prospective students and they need to do this in a friendly manner. This aspect of the choice process was deemed much more important than tangible items such as brochures and catalogs in the choice process.

Faculty-student ratio was rated in the top 20% of responses. This is interesting considering the variance in the size of the programs. The data suggests that prospective doctoral students appear to have the option of being part of a large or small community of doctoral students. The assumption could be made that smaller programs lead to a higher faculty-student ratio. However, the overall high rating for this item suggests that programs with larger enrollments are taking steps to maintain a manageable faculty-student ratio. These steps may include adding additional sections of courses and hiring additional faculty to meet the demands of a high enrollment.

It would be logical to assume that larger programs would have more faculty, thus more diversity in course offerings. However, smaller programs may incorporate more classes from other departments into their programs of study. This consideration may contribute to the overall high rating for diversity of courses offered. Size of the department was also rated fairly high, but that result is inconclusive. The question only asked the respondent to rate the importance of the size of the department. A distinction between large and small was not made. Therefore, it is impossible to determine if the respondents feel a small department is important or a large department is important. This needs to be corrected in further research as well as the addition of an item regarding class size.

It is also salient to note the high rating for opportunity for assistantship/fellowship. It may be surmised that programs with small enrollments have more of an opportunity to provide financial assistance to their students since there are fewer students to provide for. The overall high rating for this item suggests that this is not the case. The findings of this work suggest that programs with both large and small enrollments are able to provide the opportunity for assistantship/fellowship. This opportunity was rated higher than the nature or time commitment of the assistantship/fellowship. This is a positive finding for program administrators and students. In addition to research and teaching assistantships within a sport management program, there are often times funds available for assistantships in other areas. The athletic department, physical education activity courses, intramurals, and campus recreation are allied departments that may be willing to fund a doctoral student in sport management. The data suggests students are willing to work in a variety of different areas as long as there is the opportunity for compensation. This finding gives the program administrator more avenues to pursue to obtain assistantships/fellowships.

Time required to complete the program was another high rated item that was well supported in the literature. The job market for faculty positions in sport management may have influenced the high rating for this item. The job market is currently very good for sport management academics. This study indicated that a large majority of sport management doctoral students are most likely to pursue a career in academia. It appears that students want to go to a program that they can complete in a timely fashion and be able to take advantage of the current favorable job market conditions.

Placement was found to be both important and unimportant in previous studies on program choice. Placement and job placement reputation were both among the top ten highest rated items in this study.

Since the majority of students in sport management doctoral programs aspire to a career in college or university teaching, it would be logical to assume that students are most interested in learning about recent program graduates that are teaching at the college level.

Several other variables were found to be important in the literature, but were not strongly supported by this study. Location close to home was an item rated highly in Poock's (1997) study but not rated highly in this work. This could be explained by the fact that there are so few doctoral programs in sport management. Students often do not have the option to stay close to home to pursue their degree.

Previous research has identified location and cost to be leading factors in the choice process. This study found them to be rated near the top, but they were not the primary factors in the choice process. Geographic location was an interesting item. It ranked just outside of the top ten highest items. The interesting aspect of this is that the eight programs in this study represented many different geographic regions. One is in the mid-west, one is in the mid-south, one is in the deep-south, three are in the west, and two are on the east coast.

The low rating for influence of spouse/partner is surprising considering over 40% of the respondents were married. The low rating for the influence of undergraduate faculty in the choice process is easier explained. Doctoral students' in sport management have an average age of 33. In general, this indicates that they have been away from their undergraduate institution for over ten years. It is likely that the passing of time has weakened the influence of undergraduate faculty on the choice process of doctoral students. In addition, sport management is a relatively new academic field of study. It is unlikely that a doctoral student in his/her 30's would have been a sport management undergraduate major. Therefore, students may have determined that their undergraduate professors did not have a frame of reference to offer advice about sport management doctoral programs.

In general, items that were rated low in this study were also rated low in other program choice studies. The lowest rated items in this study were also found to be rated in the bottom tier of responses in Poock's (1997) study. The reputation of the athletic department was one of the highest rated factors in the companion study for this project, drawn from a sample of master's degree seeking students. However, it was not highly rated by the doctoral students. The data concluded that the vast majority of doctoral students were interested in a career in academia as opposed to athletic administration. This likely explains the lower rating for the reputation of the athletic department by doctoral students. A possible explanation for the lower rating of NASPE/NASSM program approval could be that the process is still new. This is one reason that program approval at the doctoral level should not be the only criteria used to evaluate a program. As more schools go through this process, this item will most likely become more important in the choice process than it is today.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results of this study, reputation of the institution and the reputation of individual programs were the highest rated factors influencing the program choice of doctoral students in sport management at North American institutions. The importance of the faculty in the recruiting process also

stood out in the choice process. Positive interaction with faculty and the friendliness of faculty and staff were both highly rated items in this study.

The data also suggests that there is a general lack of gender and racial diversity among doctoral students in sport management. The ranks of doctoral students in sport are dominated by white males in their early thirties.

Further, a variance in the number of students attending individual programs was also found. Some programs have many doctoral students while others have only a few.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are for faculty and program administrators wanting to align their recruiting efforts with data collected from this study. The focus should be on the reputation of the institution and the program. Faculty should take an active role in the recruiting process. Further, they should provide information about the placement record of the program and place emphasis on graduates teaching at the college level. In addition, they should provide opportunities for assistantships/fellowships and simplify the admissions process and minimize the time required to notify students about their admission status into the program.

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TABLES AND CHARTS
TABLE 1
Mean and Standard Deviation for the Individual Items Regarding the Decision to Attend an Institution

Items	Mean	SD
Institutional Characteristics		
reputation of institution	4.18	1.02
job placement reputation	3.41	1.37
geographic region of institution	3.29	1.52
cost	3.17	1.50
access to current technology	3.08	1.26
library facilities and collections	2.98	1.34
reputation of athletic department	2.91	1.56
location close to home	2.60	1.67
university size	2.42	1.32

Institutional Characteristics Continued

Items	Mean	SD
Program Characteristics		
NASPE/NASSM program approval	2.40	1.43
attractiveness of campus	2.34	1.20
sensitivity to the needs/interests of minorities,		
women, disabled	2.30	1.35
social atmosphere of campus	1.94	1.13
location far from home	1.79	1.28
parking	1.56	.926
mean for the category	2.69	
reputation of program	4.12	.999
friendliness of department faculty and staff	3.93	1.14
opportunity for assistantship/fellowship	3.86	1.42
postgraduate job placement	3.74	1.20
time required to complete program	3.52	1.28
ease of admission process	3.37	1.22
diversity of courses	3.30	1.27
speed of acceptance into program	3.26	1.28
rigor of program	3.13	1.24
faculty student ratio	3.09	1.36
internship/practicum opportunities	3.01	1.39
size of department	2.93	1.32
opportunities to develop friendships	2.76	1.28
evening class availability	2.36	1.41
ability to be a part time student	2.29	1.54
day class availability	2.28	1.28
ease of program	2.05	1.11
mean for category	3.11	
Marketing/Recruitment Factors		
positive interaction with faculty	4.09	1.25
unsolicited contact from faculty	2.72	1.68
brochures	2.49	1.37
catalogs	2.45	1.35
department web site	2.44	1.47
campus visit	2.44	1.53
mean for category	2.77	

Institutional Characteristics Continued

Items	Mean	SD
Input from the Following People		
current professionals or colleagues	3.32	1.60
students currently in the program	2.85	1.52
master's faculty	2.82	1.61
spouse/partner	2.63	1.61
alumni	2.55	1.66
friends	2.46	1.35
parents/family	2.34	1.33
employer	2.06	1.49
undergraduate faculty	1.69	1.25
mean for category	2.52	
Financial Aid Factors		
amount of assistantship/fellowship	3.10	1.62
nature or responsibility of assistantship/fellowship	2.89	1.52
time commitment of assistantship/fellowship	2.56	1.47
only school offering aid	1.98	1.46
amount of loan	1.93	1.26
offer of non-assistantship/non loan aid	1.90	1.35
mean for category	2.39	
Personal Factors		
cost of living in the area	2.64	1.42
affordability of off-campus housing	2.49	1.45
ability to continue working in current job	2.28	1.72
job availability in area for spouse/partner	1.96	1.55
spouse/partner educational plans	1.70	1.31
availability of university housing	1.61	1.19
friends attend the institution	1.58	1.15
relatives live in the area	1.49	1.13
availability of child care	1.46	1.09
mean for category	1.91	

TABLE 2

The 10 Highest Rated Individual Items

Items	Mean	S.D.
Reputation of institution	4.18	1.02
Reputation of program	4.12	.999
Positive interaction with faculty	4.09	1.25
Friendliness of department staff and Faculty	3.93	1.14
Opportunity for assistantship/fellowship	3.86	1.42
Postgraduate job placement	3.74	1.20
Time required to complete program	3.52	1.28
Job placement reputation	3.41	1.37
Ease of admission process	3.37	1.22
Input from current professional or Colleagues	3.32	1.60

TABLE 3

The 10 Lowest Rated Individual Items

Items	Mean	S.D.
Availability of child care	1.46	1.09
Relative(s) living in the area	1.49	1.13
Parking	1.56	.962
Friends attend the institution	1.58	1.15
Availability of university housing	1.61	1.19
Input from undergraduate faculty	1.69	1.25
Spouse/partner educational plans	1.70	1.31
Location far from home	1.79	1.28
Offer of non assistantship/non loan aid	1.90	1.35
Amount of loan	1.93	1.26

TABLE 4

Response Rate by Selected Demographic Variables

Variable	%	(n)
Gender		
Male	68.4	52
Female	30.3	23

Response Rate by Selected Demographic Variables Continued

Variable	%	(n)
Household Status		
Single	39.5	30
Cohabitating	13.2	10
Married	42.1	32
Divorced	3.9	3
Race		
White	72.4	55
Hispanic	5.3	4
African American	5.3	4
Asian	15.8	12
Degree Type		
PhD	89.5	68
EdD	10.5	8
Field of Degree		
Sport Management	89.5	68
Related Field	10.5	8
Enrollment Status		
Full-time	77.6	59
Part-time	21.1	16
Number of Programs Applied to		
One	55.3	42
Two	19.7	15
Three	15.8	12
Four	5.3	4
Five	2.6	2
Academic Standing		
Taking Classes	67.1	51
Dissertation (ABD)	32.9	25

Response Rate by Selected Demographic Variables Continued

Variable	%	(n)
Attended Doctoral Institution as an Undergraduate		
Yes	11.8	9
No	86.8	66
Attended Doctoral Institution for Masters Degree		
Yes	27.6	21
No	69.7	53
Area Most Likely to Pursue Employment upon Graduation		
College/University Teaching	67.1	51
College/University Athletics		
Administration	19.7	15
Other	10.5	8

N = 76

TABLE 5

Selected Variables and Confirmatory Findings

Variable	Confirmatory Findings
Reputation	Kallio (1995), Talbot, Meier, & Rushlau, (1996), Webb (1996), White & Hernandez (1990), and Poock (1997)
Positive Interaction with Faculty	Olson & King (1985), Poock (1997)
Friendliness of Faculty	Poock (1997)
Opportunity for Assistantship/Fellowship	Talbot et al. (1996)
Time Required to Complete Program	Webb (1996), Poock (1997)
Diversity of Course Offerings	Kallio (1995)
Placement	Webb (1996)

TABLE 6

Selected Variables and Contradictory Findings

Variable	Contradictory Findings
Placement	Malaney (1987)
Input of Spouse/Partner	Kallio (1995)
Brochures and Catalogs	Malaney (1987)
Input from Undergraduate Faculty	Malaney (1987)
Location Close to Home	Poock (1997)

A GUIDE FOR IMPLEMENTING A PHYSICAL FITNESS MAINTENANCE TRAINING PROGRAM IN A CRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCY

DR. JEFFREY C. LEE, PHD, TROY STATE UNIVERSITY & DR. STEPHEN MALLORY, PHD, UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN MISSISSIPPI

INTRODUCTION

One issue that most researchers agree on is that police officers need to be physically fit, due to the potential need for officers to be able to exert maximum efforts. Police work is sedentary in nature, without sufficient physical activity to maintain levels of fitness for exertive efforts or general health. The fitness levels of police officers seem to be an issue of some controversy in the literature. The majority report that police officers are at or below average fitness levels. Few researchers described police officers as average or above average (Lee, 2003). A review of the literature suggests that officers achieve an acceptable measure of physical fitness during academy training. However, without fitness maintenance programs, these gains achieved in the academy are shortly lost (Lee, 2003).

Some police administrators have recognized the need for fitness maintenance programs. It is interesting to note that academy graduates are reported to be at average to above average fitness levels, while incumbent officers have been described as below average to poor. When police administrators are considering the implementation of fitness programs for their departments, they must look at certain legal issues.

Administrators should be aware of two important cases. First, in *Tennessee v. Garner* (1985) the Supreme Court's ruling restricted the police's use of deadly force in apprehending fleeing felons. Therefore, officers may opt to allow a suspect to flee and attempt to apprehend the suspect at a later time or the officer may pursue the suspect. A practical implication of this ruling is that officers should be in adequate physical condition to pursue and subdue suspects without depending on their firearms. In another case, *Parker v. District of Columbia* (1988), the court directly addresses police officers' physical fitness and agencies' responsibility. In this case, an unfit officer who was not physically able to affect an arrest resorted to the use of deadly force. The court found that a pattern of deliberate indifference in inadequate training, discipline, and supervision existed (Cooper Institute, 2001; Gaines, Falkenberg, & Gambino, 1993; Getz, 1990). Based on this ruling alone police administrators should implement fitness programs and adequately monitor the fitness levels of their officers.

FITNESS PROGRAM CONSIDERATIONS

There are several issues that police administrators should consider when making decisions about fitness programs. Program goals and implementation strategies are important considerations. Administrators should also consider what type of leadership support is necessary to ensure the program's success. It may be necessary to conduct medical screenings as part of a fitness program. Another important consideration is the type of motivation strategies that are to be employed. Administrators must also decide if fitness standards are to be a part of pre-employment screening, maintenance, or both. The type of program, cost of the program, and manner in which the results will be measured and evaluated are other important considerations.

GOALS

There are two general goals of fitness programs identified in the literature. The first general goal is to get officers fit. Secondly, officers should be taught skills to maintain desired fitness levels. Employees should be prepared to stay active throughout their lives (Charles, 1983; Collingwood, 1978; Cooper, 1982). Johnston and Hope (1981) identified goals of cardiovascular disease prevention, detection of warning signs of officers at risk, and to offer exercise prescriptions. Objectives of maximizing job effectiveness and lessening risks of occupational disease and injury have also been identified (Spitler, Jones, Wade, & Williams, 1987).

Once an agency determines the goals of a fitness program, then individualized goal setting for officers must be considered. Goal setting helps officers answer the question, "Where should I be, realistically?" The Cooper Institute (2001) recommended that fitness assessments be conducted to determine the officers' fitness levels. Raw scores are compared to norms and standards that indicate one's relationship to others of a similar age and gender. Scores are converted to levels of "very poor," " poor," " fair," "good," " excellent," or "superior." Goal levels should be set no higher than one level above the current raw score. It is recommended that goals be made too easy rather than too difficult. Hoffman and Collingwood (1995) concur that it is important for a goal to be realistic and progressive. It is also suggested that contracts be made to improve adherence to set goals.

IMPLEMENTATION

There are several factors that should be considered when implementing a fitness program. Jones (1992) and Ness and Light (1992) believe that the budget appropriators are the first obstacles that have to be overcome. There are costs involved in implementing such programs. Advocates should prepare documentation for the appropriators to provide them with information on the benefits of fitness programs.

Next, administrators need for officers to buy into the fitness program. Collective bargaining should not be ignored in this process. Collingwood (1988a) recommended an evolutionary approach. It is not reasonable to demand unfit officers to meet high fitness standards overnight. This process involves mandatory fitness testing and education.

Additionally, officers are to be given exercise prescriptions based on current fitness levels. Once officers have their prescriptions they are given the opportunity to participate in voluntary training sessions. Once standards have been developed, officers are tested against the standard. Reinforcement systems are formed to encourage maintenance or to assist those who fall below the standard. Time frames for adherence to the standard should be negotiated and stated. Giving officers ownership in program development will assist in a smooth implementation process.

LEADERSHIP

Effective program leadership is critical for the success of a police fitness program. Collingwood, Homes, & Motely (1979) recognized that it is unfeasible for law enforcement agencies to hire academically trained exercise physiology experts to manage fitness programs. Therefore, the use of physical fitness coordinators that provides a human link between physical fitness programs and officer participation is recommended.

Coordinators should be able to demonstrate the roles, skills, and competencies associated with the physical fitness program. Proper selection, training, and certification for the position of physical fitness coordinator are critical. Often physical training instructors are defensive tactics instructors with no training in physical education. Courses have been developed that prepare police fitness instructors with the skills

and concept to develop and implement fitness programs safely. These courses should include principles of conditioning, curriculum development strategies, fitness assessment techniques, exercise techniques, evaluation techniques, and safety procedures. Without coordinators who are properly trained and certified programs may fail (Collingwood, 1988b).

MEDICAL SCREENING
Medical screenings are an important part of fitness programs. The purpose of medical screenings is to review existing information to see if there is any risk of exercise. These screening techniques can be quite sophisticated or somewhat practical. The Cooper Institute (2001) suggested that screenings function as a check step to ensure safety. If the screenings indicate any contraindications, fitness tests should not be performed. One simple and validated screening questionnaire is the PAR-Q test.

Screenings may also include blood pressure checks and the 3-minute step test. Proper medical screenings can help prevent litigation. Jones (1992) and Getz (1990) suggested that sophisticated medical screenings be used for officers over forty or officers that have certain risk factors. Some contend that agencies may consider making professional medical screenings a part of regular fitness assessments. It should be noted that these might be expensive. Often medical screenings are a part of the pre-employment selection and candidates may be required to pay for these types of screenings (Jones, Spitler, Swan, & Hawkins, 1987; Spitler et al., 1987).

MOTIVATION
Police administrators should ask themselves what motivates officers to adhere to fitness programs. Most officers do not adhere to diet and exercise programs although they know they should. Self-responsibility and reinforcement are key factors for adherence, according to the Cooper Institute (2001).

Administrators must decide if departmental fitness programs are going to be mandatory or voluntary. Jones (1992) pointed out that programs with mandatory standards need considerable legal scrutiny. These standards may be the basis of personnel actions such as assignment, dismissal, or promotion. Furthermore, he suggests that voluntary wellness oriented programs that focus on benefits to employees are less likely to experience legal challenges. However, Ness and Light (1992) suggested that voluntary programs tend not to have lasting success. Collingwood (1988a) concurred that successful programs are mandatory.

Another important aspect of motivation is officer incentives. One researcher suggests that peer pressure and personal motivation are sufficient incentives (Serra, 1984). Certainly officers should be self-motivated, but reinforcements in the form of incentives may contribute to higher adherence rates. Many of the common incentives offered to officers include additional leave time, on-duty workout time, pay bonuses, fitness club memberships, and special recognition such as T-shirts and awards (Cooper, 1982; Getz, 1990; Lindell, 1975; Slahor, 1990; Weinblatt, 2000; Witczak, 1984).

MEASURING RESULTS AND EVALUATIONS
In 1992 Jones reported that there are two important issues to be considered in measuring the effectiveness of fitness programs. The first and most important is whether the program is improving the health and fitness scores of the officers. The evaluator should determine if officers' cholesterol and blood pressure levels, dietary trends, tobacco habits, and levels of obesity are improving. The second is whether the program is saving money in health-care costs. A database should be formed that tracks health-care related information such as absenteeism, injuries, insurance claims, and workers' compensation claims. Any positive effects can be documented to justify the program (Jones, 1992).

CONCLUSION

Turner (1982) noticed that officers' fitness levels diminished significantly after the academy. Therefore, police administrators should consider fitness maintenance programs. Many feel that it makes no sense to select police officers on the basis of physical fitness and abilities and then have no requirement that minimum fitness and abilities be maintained (Lee, 2003; Carter, 1982). Maintenance programs are necessary to achieve fitness goals. Serra (1984) suggests that agencies may be guilty of negligent retention or failure to train when it comes to unfit officers. Law enforcement administrators may utilize these suggestions to successfully implement fitness maintenance programs for their agencies.

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LEGAL ISSUES ASSOCIATED WITH TICKET SCALPING

BETH CIANFRONE, MESS, UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA & DAN CONNAUGHTON, PHD, UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

KEYWORDS: TICKETS, TICKET SCALPING, LAW

INTRODUCTION

The popularity of live sport events combined with a limited number of tickets led to the scalping of tickets. Although often restricted by state or local legislation, ticket scalping is a common practice that occurs before many sport and entertainment events. Scalping is defined as, "the practice of selling something (especially a ticket) at a price above face value once it becomes scarce (usually just before a high-demand event begins)" (*Black's Law Dictionary*, 2000, p. 1080). Ticket scalping can result in a criminal or civil violation in jurisdictions that have laws regulating the practice. These laws can range from limiting resale ticket prices to completely prohibiting the scalping of tickets. Some states require that a ticket scalper be licensed by the state to resell tickets. Other states only allow ticket brokers to resell tickets. Currently, there is no federal law that regulates ticket scalping. The purpose of this article is to provide a brief historical perspective of ticket scalping, examine various anti-scalping legislation and analyze related case law.

Ticket scalping has become a huge business; however, it is nearly impossible to account for the broad effect and extent it has on sport and entertainment events. One study estimated that ticket brokers/scalpers made a profit of over $87 million from live sport and entertainment events in 2000 ("Ticket Scalping History," 2002). Ticket scalping can obviously be very profitable and there are several methods typically employed in an effort to obtain such financial rewards.

TICKET SCALPING METHODS

The legality of ticket scalping depends upon the state or municipality in which the act occurs. Certain scalping methods are protected by law and do not violate anti-scalping legislation, even though tickets are often sold for a price higher than the original face value. The simplest and most traditional form of ticket scalping is when one person purchases a ticket via the box office or an authorized ticket agent (i.e., Ticketmaster) and then resells it at a higher price to a consumer on the street or through a brokerage (Gibbs, 2000). The initial owner of a ticket may sell the ticket to make a profit or simply to get rid of it if he or she cannot attend the event. Selling a ticket on the street around an event venue is the most common method of scalping tickets. This practice can be disruptive as it often creates commotion and possible safety concerns around the venue, which is a major reason for anti-scalping legislation (Gibbs, 2000).

Ticket brokers are another avenue for ticket scalping. Brokers are legal in some states and permitted to sell tickets for prices higher than face value. In an effort to regulate brokers for fair business practices and for tax collection purposes, they must be registered and licensed in such states. In these states, they are exempt from anti-scalping laws. Ticket brokers, however, can run into legal trouble when their means of acquiring tickets are illegal, such as bribing the person in control of the ticket at the original point of sale (Gibbs, 2000). Ticket brokers have received much criticism because they often control a large percentage of the tickets, thereby making it difficult for fans to obtain tickets through the box office.

Recently, a class action suit against the Chicago Cubs, who allow brokers to sell their tickets, was decided. The broker and defendant in the case, Wrigley Field Premium Ticket Services, is owned and oper-

ated by the Tribune Company, which also owns the Cubs franchise (Munson, 2003). The plaintiff's alleged that Wrigley Field Premium Ticket Services and the Cubs violated the Ticket Scalping Act by selling game tickets above face value through Premium. In ruling for the Cubs, the judge found that the Ticket Scalping Act did not prohibit a single entity such as the Tribune Company from owing a sports team and a ticket brokerage, or the team from selling its tickets to its sister company (Associated Press, 2003).

Although travel agents sell tickets for more than face value when sold in travel packages, they are also exempt from anti-scalping legislation. These state licensed agencies are allowed to increase the price of tickets only when they are included in a "package deal" that provides hotel accommodations and/or travel (Gibbs, 2000). When the agency sells the tickets alone for a higher price, it is considered scalping and the offender can face charges.

Authorized ticket agencies, such as Ticketmaster or Ticketron, are companies that are given permission and tickets by event managers/owners to sell tickets for an event (Gibbs, 2000). These agencies are permitted to add a surcharge above the original ticket price without violating the anti-scalping laws. However, authorized ticket agencies can violate the law if they set ticket prices higher than originally contracted.

The widespread use of the Internet has resulted in a new form of ticket scalping which has become very popular. With online auctions such as Ebay, chat rooms, and sales of tickets via the Internet, online scalping is a new issue facing sport managers/owners. However, ticket scalping legislation remains in effect if the person buying or selling the ticket is in a city or state where ticket scalping is regulated.

Anti-scalping legislation has become more defined over the years, but ticket scalping still remains a fundamental part of the sport industry. These laws differ among states and are often difficult to enforce. Anti-scalping legislation dates back to the early 1900's when the Sherman and Clayton Acts provided early regulations on price fixing and other unfair pricing practices. Due to the high demand for tickets and limited access to stage shows, the first anti-scalping laws in the United States were passed in 1918 (Happel & Jennings, 1995). As professional and college sports grew and became an integral part of American culture, ticket scalping became more and more prevalent. The increasing popularity of attending live events was evident as crowds began filling arenas and stadiums, subsequently creating a high demand for tickets, which ultimately led to ticket scalping.

Following World War II, the improving economy of the nation allowed many individuals an increase in leisure time and a more expendable income. With additional attention and money being spent on sports, there was an increase in season ticket sales, which resulted in fewer seats being available for single pre-game sales. This demand also contributed to ticket scalping, as well as fraudulent practices by many box office employees; some would buy tickets and then resell them on their own for a large personal profit. In an effort to curb such practices, cities and states began passing different types of anti-scalping legislation. This first strong wave of anti-scalping legislation included various levels of restrictions for reselling tickets, such as limiting resale price to $1 above the printed ticket price, adding a maximum $3 service charge to the original ticket price, or putting percentage limitations on the amount a ticket could be scalped for (Happel & Jennings, 1995). Several states utilize this type of anti-scalping law. For example, the 2004 Florida Statute on ticket scalping states:

§ 817.36 Resale of tickets of common carriers, places of amusement, etc.--
(2)(a) Whoever shall offer for sale or sell any ticket good for admission to any sporting exhibition, athletic

contest, theater, or any exhibition where an admission price is charged and request or receive a price in excess of $1 above the retail admission price charged therefore by the original seller of said ticket shall be guilty of a misdemeanor of the second degree, punishable as provided in s. § 775.082 or s. § 775.083.

Other restrictions in the early wave of anti-scalping laws included requiring owner/promoter authorization for resale above the printed ticket price, restrictions on scalping locations (e.g., no sales at event, on-site property), ticket sales and resales limited to printed price, scalping deemed illegal for specific types of events (e.g., athletics), broker licensing, and charity/nonprofit exceptions for resale (Happel & Jennings, 1995). Many jurisdictions have laws that prohibit scalping within a certain distance from the sports venue. Attempting to curb scalping in this manner is often viewed as weak, since scalpers can simply, and legally, sell tickets, for example, at 200 feet from the premises rather than illegally at 199 feet.

These early laws made ticket scalping a misdemeanor offense and punishable by fines, possible jail sentences, and/or the confiscation of tickets. This legislation aimed to control the location, price, and nuisance effects. These laws held through the 1970's and 1980's, however, enforcement of them was typically infrequent (Happel & Jennings, 1995).

Within the past ten years, scalping laws have differentiated ticket scalpers on the street from ticket brokers or agents operating on the behalf of the event producer (Happel & Jennings, 1995)*. Throughout the country, many efforts are being undertaken to regulate and better define ticket scalping. Anti-scalping remains a debated topic whenever new legislation is proposed. Sport managers should stay abreast of the different and changing legislation in their jurisdiction(s).

*[Editor's Note: For greater clarity, a sentence was removed from the original draft designated paragraph on 12-7-04]

WHY HAVE ANTI-SCALPING LAWS?

In principle, ticket scalping is not necessarily negative. There are benefits to having ticket scalpers. Ticket scalpers provide goods (unobtainable tickets) to a portion of society that could not acquire tickets to the event by conventional methods or because they were sold out (Criscuolo, 1995). The service of selling tickets, although typically overpriced, is beneficial to those seeking them. Some fans benefit from ticket scalpers if they could not (or simply chose not to) wait in line, or on the phone, for tickets when they originally went on sale. For these fans, paying a higher price for the scalped ticket is justifiable because they did not have to wait in line. Many people think scalpers are simply taking advantage of America's free enterprise attitude (Diamond, 1982). Ticket scalpers argue that they own the ticket, and therefore, can resell the ticket for whatever price they want.

In the eyes of many, the profit that scalpers make is unfair. According to Phoenix Suns president, Jerry Colangelo, the scalpers, "made money off him without his permission and that was not right" (Happel & Jennings, 1995, p. 72). Owners often try to keep ticket prices somewhat low so fans can afford to come to the events. Additionally, by maintaining inexpensive prices, fans are more likely to increase their spending on concessions and souvenirs once inside the arena or stadium, thereby creating more revenue for the ownership entity of the team(s) (Criscuolo, 1995). Scalping can cut into the owner's profit, which is just one of the many problems scalping creates in the sport industry.

Additionally, ticket scalpers and brokers often obtain many of the tickets thereby causing regularly priced tickets to be unavailable for the fans. This leads to an unequal and unfair allocation of tickets to events (Criscuolo, 1995). Brokers also have an unfair advantage because they often utilize methods that the aver

age fan would not attempt in an effort to obtain tickets, like using high-speed dialing equipment or mailing in several order forms under many different names ("Why Can't I Get Tickets?", 1999).

The traditional act of scalping on the streets in areas surrounding venues has caused problems as well. Public disturbances, harassment/annoyance, and safety concerns are major issues. Just prior to the start of an event, there is often a high volume of people and scalpers can be a nuisance or seen as potentially dangerous because of the possible threat to public safety.

RELATED CASE LAW

The courts have responded to ticket scalping problems and have upheld much of the anti-scalping legislation. Four related legal issues that have been challenged in court are (1) the legitimate interest in protecting the welfare of the people, (2) the legitimate interest in ensuring public access to entertainment and sport events, (3) the legitimate exercise of a state's police power, and (4) the ticket scalping statute must be rationally related to stated legislative goals (Pittman & Osborne, 2003). Other challenges against anti-scalping laws range from free market rights to constitutional grounds. These have included claims that anti-scalping statutes violate the Equal Protection Clause, Fourteenth Amendment (due process), and/or improperly delegate legislative power to the managers of sport or entertainment events (Criscuolo, 1995).

LEGITIMATE INTEREST IN PROTECTING THE WELFARE OF THE PUBLIC

Ticket scalping, on the basis that it goes against public welfare, is deemed illegal in many states (Gibbs, 2000). A case involving the state's legitimate interest in protecting the welfare of the public is *The People of the State of New York v. Susan Johnson* (1967). In this case, the defendant, Susan Johnson, purchased two tickets to the opera in New York City for $20 each. After purchasing the tickets, she realized she would not be able to attend the show, so she put an advertisement in the newspaper to sell the tickets. Three weeks before the opera, she received a call from someone wanting to buy the tickets. However, the buyers were two undercover police officers. They met at Johnson's apartment and she sold them the tickets for $40 each. The police officers then arrested Johnson for ticket scalping.

The court found that Johnson was not guilty of violating Section 168 of the General Business Law of New York. The court determined that anti-scalping legislation was established to preserve public welfare and for the advancement of the arts and theater (Pittman & Osborne, 2003). Since the defendant was not in the business of reselling tickets, she was not found guilty. The anti-scalping law made no reference to an isolated sales transaction by a person who is not in the business of reselling tickets.

LEGITIMATE INTEREST IN ENSURING PUBLIC ACCESS TO ENTERTAINMENT AND SPORT EVENTS

The courts have recognized that anti-scalping legislation was created, in part, so the public would have safe access to sport events. In *People v. Shepherd* (1978), the defendant was arrested for scalping Los Angeles Raiders tickets outside the Los Angeles Memorial Coliseum. Ticket scalping was illegal within the city limits and in areas used by the general public for recreation and amusement. The court ruled that the anti-scalping laws were created to, "eliminate the intrusion of the seller and his effect upon the safety, comfort and enjoyment of the crowds of people streaming into the Coliseum" (*People v. Shepherd*, p. 382). The court pointed out that the crowds of people outside the stadium need to move in a safe and quick manner, and unregulated use of this area by ticket scalpers would add annoyance, congestion, and inconvenience to the crowds. The anti-scalping law, in this case, was deemed reasonable based upon the significant governmental interest of protecting the well being of the people.

LEGITIMATE EXERCISE OF A STATE'S POLICE POWER

Courts have upheld anti-scalping laws when a state's police powers are legitimate and fair. The U.S. Supreme Court case of *Nebbia v. New York* (1934) was not directly related to ticket scalping, but it involved price controlling (of milk) and proved to be an important precedent. A New York statute mandated the minimum and maximum retail prices of milk and, in the case, the court upheld the statute. The court stated that, "price control like any other form of regulation is unconstitutional only if arbitrary, discriminatory, or demonstrably irrelevant to the policy the legislature is free to adopt, and hence an unnecessary and unwarranted interference with liberty" (*Nebbia v. New York*, p. 504). The state's regulation of the price for milk was not capricious, unreasonable, or without relation to the original purpose of the legislation and, therefore, the law did not violate the due process clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. A state may adopt any economic policy it considers necessary to promote public welfare and create legislation to enforce it (Pittman & Osborne, 2003). The Nebbia case became a foundation for anti-scalping legislation.

THE TICKET SCALPING STATUTE MUST BE RATIONALLY RELATED TO STATED LEGISLATIVE GOALS

Anti-scalping legislation is often upheld in court, especially if it is connected with reasonable goals of a state's constitution. This was evident in *State v. Major* (1979), which reversed the lower court's decision that anti-scalping laws were unconstitutional because they unduly interfered with, "the private property right of disposing of one's property at a non-exorbitant, non-fraudulent, non-extortionate price set by the scalper" (p. 725). The court ruled that the anti-scalping legislation in Georgia was constitutional and valid because the exchange made when scalping tickets is seen as an unlawful contract in the state. A ticket scalper can enter contracts only if the contract is legal and lawful (Pittman & Osborne, 2003). Furthermore, the Court stated, "the state has made the contracts covered [in ticket scalping] unlawful through a valid exercise of its police power" (p. 727).

CONCLUSION

Anti-scalping regulations have changed a lot since the early 1900's, but they will need further modification to address the new and ever changing methods of ticket scalping. Many of the current anti-scalping statutes are of merit and have been upheld in the courts; however, many law enforcement agencies do not have the manpower to effectively enforce these laws. Anti-scalping laws may also need to be revised to address Internet sales. Additionally, a federal anti-scalping statute may create more uniform enforcement and ease jurisdictional problems. Finally, sport fans and managers should stay abreast of the ticket scalping regulations in their jurisdiction to help avoid potential problems.

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AN OVERVIEW OF THE RECIPROCATING RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SPORT AND RELIGION

JASON W. LEE, PHD, TROY STATE UNIVERSITY

INTRODUCTION

Religion and sport are two major institutions that help compose the social lives of many. Eitzen and Sage (1997) proposed that religious values are inherent in sport ideology. In this sense, "sport embodies religious values including character development, hard work, and perseverance, and, like religion, it promotes and inculcates these qualities and behaviors," (Bryant and McElroy, 1997, p. 55).

Religion and the role of religion as it pertains to government involvement remain an area of concern throughout the United States. Today, there is great controversy surrounding issues pertaining to the appropriateness of bringing forth components of religion in workplaces, classrooms, and playing fields throughout the country (Alexander & Alexander, 2000). The issue of the legality and appropriateness of issues such as prayer within public school settings and the upholding of a "wall of separation" between religion and public education institutions have been engulfed in a variety of legal battles in our country.

Though there are differing views on the matter of sport and religion's involvement with each other, it should be apparent that sport and religion do have various common bonds. Putnam (1999) stated, that the association of sport and religion, "can be found in nearly every part of the sports world, from the energized boxing rings of Las Vegas and Atlantic City to the sprawling stock car tracks of the South, from the boisterous stadiums of football to the lush, green fairways of professional golf" (p. 103).

Religious scholar Charles Prebish (1992b) claimed that it is both necessary and expected to look at the newest revolution in sport, the growing relationship of religion and sport. The relationship can be seen through the "use" of sport by religion and the "use" of religion by sport (Coakley, 1998; and Eitzen and Sage, 1992; 1997). Each of these concepts will be addressed in the following passages. Due to the fact that Christianity is the prevailing religious belief system in the United States, the primary emphasis of the related issues covered in this article are focused on Christian sport associations.

THE USE OF SPORT BY RELIGION

The associations pertaining to the "uses" of sport by religion and the "uses" of religion by sport need to be detailed. Eitzen and Sage (1992; 1997) proposed that religion has utilized sport through churches, religious leaders, church affiliated colleges and universities, and various religious organizations that are centered on sport.

ORGANIZATIONS USING SPORT

The prevalence of sport's relationship with religion can be seen in the form of various organizations that have been centered on linking sport and religion. Groups such as Fellowship of Christian Athletes (FCA) and Athletes in Action (AIA) are among the various commonly found organizations (Aitken, 1992; Coakley, 1994; Eitzen & Sage, 1992; 1997; Hoffman, 1992b; Hubbard, 1997; Ladd & Mathisen, 1999).

A rise in the link between evangelical Christianity and sport has occurred over the past few decades. As Aitken (1992) coined the phrase, "Born-Again sport" is quite prevalent in various levels of American

sport, where numerous Born Again athletes can be found in most Christian denominations throughout North America.

The joint union between sport and religions has also taken place through use of sport by quasi-religious institutions. Among such movements have been the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA), Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA), Catholic Youth Organization (CYO), and Jewish Community Centers (JCC) (Kraus, 1984; Ladd & Mathisen, 1999).

CHURCH-AFFILIATED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES
Religion also utilizes sport in educational settings. In North America, numerous church-affiliated higher education institutions made common use of sport. Protestant schools such as Southern Methodist University, Texas Christian University, and Jerry Farwell's Liberty University (just to name a few) have used sport and religion in varying ways and to varying degrees (Coakley, 1994; Eitzen & Sage, 1992; 1997; Hoffman, 1992a; 1992b; Prebish, 1992a).

In addition to the vast array of Protestant colleges that have used sport, there are also numerous widely known church-based Catholic institutions. For example, institutions such as Notre Dame, Georgetown University, Boston College and many others have used sport for various purposes. Other religious based institutions of higher education have also made use of sport, such as the Mormon based institution Brigham Young University (Eitzen & Sage, 1992; 1997; Hoffman, 1992b, Prebish, 1992a).

There are also numerous smaller, less widely known institutions that have utilized sport. Some small church-based colleges are affiliated with the National Christian College Athletic Association (NCCAA) (Coakley, 1994; Hoffman, 1992b; Ladd & Mathisen, 1999; Prebish, 1992a). Headquartered in Marion, Indiana, the NCCAA was established in 1968. Some of the larger NCCAA members have also maintained affiliation with the NAIA, but most have no other affiliation (Ladd & Mathisen, 1999).

CHURCH LEADERS/NOTABLE FIGURES USING SPORT
Religious leaders and notable figures making use of sport have also become quite common. Among some of the more notable leading historical figures to heavily promote the association of sport with religion was individuals such as Amos Alonzo Stagg and James Naismith (Ladd & Mathisen, 1999).

In contemporary America, the use of sport with religion has been promoted by such notable figures as Jerry Farwell, who has been noted as a sometimes controversial visionary with great interest in politics, sports, education, and media as he joins these segments of life with his fundamentalist Christian messages (Eitzen & Sage, 1997; Ladd & Mathisen, 1999). Another notable religious figure promoting the virtues of sport is Oral Roberts, the founder of Oral Roberts University. When establishing his university, Oral Roberts desired to make sport an integral part of its Christian witness (Eitzen & Sage, 1992; 1997; Ladd & Mathisen, 1999; Overman, 1997).

Additionally, Reverend Billy Graham and Pope John Paul II have been strong proponents of sport and physical activity through encouraging the promotion of sport activities in the lives of their followers (Atcheson, 1994; Coakley, 1998; Kerrigan, 1992; Ladd & Mathisen, 1999, Mathisen, 1990; Prebish, 1992a; Veenker; 1999).

CHURCHES USING SPORT
In America, the relationship between churches and sport has moved from a position of opposition to that of a position of complete reversal, in which the relationship is readily embraced. By recognizing that our

society is highly sport oriented, many churches and church organizations understand look for ways to meet these interests (Morrow & Morrow, 1986). Churches provide sport opportunities including church leagues and tournaments, as well as various other sport, fitness, and recreation program activities.

Among the varied uses that have been embraced include utilizing sport as a function of social service. Churches sponsoring recreation and sport programs have been provided to members, potential members, and guests, as well as members of the community at large. In line with these purposes of church sport, churches have used sport for functions such as evangelism, fellowship, church growth, and discipleship (Drinkford, 1996; Eitzen & Sage, 1997). Hartzell (1996) noted the involvement of sport activities can serve as a means of catching the interest of many un-churched people that might generally be reluctant to attend church, but may be much more open to sport. Furthermore, in lieu of commercial recreation, churches have provided activities that have served as a positive environment for sport and recreation which can serve as an alternative for less desirable atmospheres (Overman, 1997).

THE USE OF RELIGION BY SPORT

In addition to the aforementioned uses of sport by religion, there are also numerous ways in which sport makes use of religion. Eitzen and Sage (1997) state that religion can be used to help coaches and athletes deal with stressful situations. For example, utilizing religious practices has been commonly implemented by coaches as a means of supplementing practical athletic techniques.

Prayer activity has been found throughout professional sport, collegiate sport, interscholastic sport, and even youth sport. According to Eitzen and Sage (1997), "Prayer is perhaps the most frequently employed use of religion by coaches and athletes" (p. 163). Examples of issues discussed often requested in prayer may include protection in competition, prayers for good performance, and even prayer for victory.

The uses of prayer have taken place in a variety of contexts as well. Some individuals see prayer as a means for being able to build unity and cohesion. Others may see prayer as being more of a ritual. An example of such can be seen when some individuals recite the Lord's Prayer as a form of team ritual. Another example for prayer use is as a means for dealing with the uncertainties that are part of sport. Furthermore, some have used prayer as a vehicle for bringing forth God's intervention (Eitzen & Sage, 1997).

Along the same lines, Coakley (1998) stated that religion is used in sport as a means to do the following: to cope with uncertainty, to stay out of trouble, to give meaning to sport participation, to put sport into proper perspective, to establish solidarity and cohesion among teams, and to reaffirm the rules and authority of coaches.

CONCLUSION

The combination of sport and religion proves for various areas of academic and practical interest. This work profiled various aspects pertaining to sport and religion's union, including measures by which sport makes use of religion. Such associations and their implications will continue to leave strong implications on the world of sport.

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EDITOR'S NOTE: Further associations between sport and religion will be addressed in two upcoming SMART articles. These articles will focus on the relationship between sport and religion regarding the use of prayer in athletics and church related sport activities.

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Dr. Jason W. Lee, Editor
SMART Online Journal
205 Wright Hall
Troy State University
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