A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON THE IMPORTANCE OF WINNING WITHIN
UNIVERSITY SPORT IN ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES

Joshua Mathew Cooprider

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# List of Abbreviations

| | |
|---|---|
| **AAA** | Amateur Athletic Association |
| **AAC** | Amateur Athletic Club |
| **AAU** | Amateur Athletic Union |
| **APR** | Academic Progress Rate |
| **ARA** | Amateur Rowing Association |
| **AU** | Athletic Union |
| **BCSA** | British Colleges Sport Association |
| **BPSA** | British Polytechnics Sport Association |
| **BSSF** | British Student Sport Federation |
| **BUSF** | British University Sport Federation |
| **BUSA** | British University Sport Association |
| **CBS** | Central Broadcasting System |
| **CCPRT** | Central Council for Physical Recreation Training |
| **CEO** | Chief Operating Officer |
| **DNH** | Department of National Heritage |
| **EOC** | European Olympic Committee |
| **ESPN** | Entertainment Sport Network |
| **EUSA** | European University Sport Association |
| **FIFA** | International Association of Football Federation |
| **FISU** | International Student University |
| **GNAC** | Greater Northwest Athletic Conference |
| **HE** | Higher Education |
| **HEI** | Higher Education Institution |
| **IAA** | Inter-collegiate Athletic Association |
| **IOC** | International Olympic Committee |
| **IVAB** | The Inter Varsity Board of England and Wales |
| **NAA** | Northern Athletic Association |
| **NACPT** | National Advisory Council of Physical Recreation Training |
| **NAIA** | National Association of Inter-collegiate Athletics |
| **NARA** | National Amateur Rowing Association |
| **NBC** | National Broadcasting System |
| **NCAA** | National Collegiate Athletic Association |
| **NFC** | National Fitness Council |
| **NFL** | National Football League |

| | |
|---|---|
| **NGB** | National Governing Body |
| **NJCAA** | National Junior College Athletic Association |
| **NNU** | Northwest Nazarene University |
| **NPFA** | National Playing Fields Association |
| **NYAC** | New York Athletic Club |
| **UAU** | University Athletic Union |
| **UCS** | University and College Sport |
| **UCW** | University College Worcester |
| **U.K.** | United Kingdom |
| **UNESCO** | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization |
| **USA** | United States of America |
| **UW** | University of Worcester |
| **WIVAB** | Women's Inter Varsity Board |
| **WUG** | World University Games |
| **YMCA** | Young Men's Christian Association |

# Abstract

This thesis draws from a bi-national comparative study on the importance of 'winning' within university sport in England and the United States, in two institutions, University College Worcester (UCW) and the British University Sport Association (BUSA) in England and Northwest Nazarene University (NNU) and the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) in the United States. The thesis focuses on perceptions and attitudes related to the 'amateur' – 'commercial' ethos of winning, specifically of administrative personnel, coaches and athletes within these systems.

In order to provide a contextual setting, the socio-historical development of sport culture generally and in universities in particular was examined in both countries. This context also provided an informed rationale for 'participants' perceptions and attitudes selected for this study. A multi-method approach for data collection was utilised comprising questionnaire and interview instruments supported by a comprehensive underpinning literature review including participant observation and analysis of primary and secondary documentation in a comparative dimension.

The study's findings suggest that the extent of the importance of winning within university sport in England and the United States is influenced by a range of shaping factors. BUSA's central goal emanates from an 'amateur' approach that includes features such as 'mass-participation' and recreational enjoyment for the student-athletes participating. The NCAA is a business-run organisation that operates on financial budgets into the millions. Inter-collegiate sport serves as a major form of entertainment in American society, with 'commercial' pressures driving a 'winning' attitude on all levels. However, the empirical evidence and participant observations do suggest an emerging blurring of perceptions, especially amongst the athlete groups at both UCW and NNU. The evidence reveals features, which challenge accepted orthodoxy on the nature and extent of the 'amateur' – 'commercial' ethos continuum in both university systems

# Declaration

No portion of the work referred to in this thesis has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification at the University of Worcester or any other institute of learning.

# Copyright

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# Chapter 1: Introduction

**Global Significance of Sport**

Sport in the 21$^{st}$ century is a significant component of modern society, testimony to which is institutional recognition by inter-governmental agencies such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), and Council of Europe, which have established policy principles on access to sport (UNESCO Charter for Sport and Physical Education, 1978 and Council of Europe Sport for All Charter, 1975), as a basic human right. Its global significance can also be seen in the involvement of international multi- and single sport non-governmental agencies such as the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and International Association of Football Federations (FIFA), which hold regular high profile events such as the Olympic Games and World Cup Championships, both of which attract audiences measured in millions and revenues measured in billions of dollars. The 2004 Athens Summer Olympic Games, for example, included 201 participating countries, with 57,000 volunteers engaged to aid in their management and administration. Overall, £750 million ($1.5 billion) in revenue was generated with over 80% stemming from television contracts and sponsorships (IOC, 2004). The Athens Games had around 3.9 billion viewers through over 300 T.V. channels across the world spanning over 35,000 broadcasted hours of televised events (IOC, 2004). The 2006 Turin Winter Games drew similar attention with over 1.5 million ticketed spectators attending the event. In addition to about 2 billion people viewing the games from the comfort of the armchair, a record 700 million people visited the official website for the latest news and highlights from the competitions. Media attention was at an all time high with over 10,000 media representatives from all four corners of the globe (IOC, 2006).

The antecedents of sport as a global phenomenon largely lie in post-Industrial Revolution Britain, when, in the second half of the 19th century, sport came to be regarded as 'respectable'. This respect had its origins in desires for a healthy and fit nation and for improved moral education and socialisation (Hardman, 1998). As an area of activity accepted as a 'rational' form of recreation, it was able to provide a proper environment for exposure to the superior example, whose values would ultimately be internalised" (Bailey, 1978: 41). It was far from coincidental that the new found respectability came at the time when, under the influence of earlier European developments, grounded in Rousseau's writings, moral education came to the fore and physical activity had a significant role to play in, for example, extending "the moral influence of the teacher" (Committee of

Council, 1839-40: 71), a theme which came to be the underlying tenet of 'muscular Christianity', developed within, and by, English Public (private) boarding schools. Initially, team games provided a means of occupying students in a 'positive' activity, which promoted healthy exercise and was perceived as a healthy antidote to ill-discipline associated with the informal pastimes of the early 19th century. From such social control antecedents was derived the belief that competitive sport, especially team games, was thought to have an ethical basis with a transfer of moral behaviour from the field to the world beyond: cricket, for example, was "all part of the business of preparing the young men for the 'great game' to come" (Dobbs, 1973: 24). 'Official' approval of the values of games was seen in the Clarendon Commission's (1864) recognition that cricket and football fields were not merely places of exercise and amusement; they helped to form some of the most valuable social qualities and manly virtues (Hardman, 1998). The claims here were 19th century forerunners of later developments, in which proponents were persuaded of the qualities and virtues to be derived from participation in play, games and sport and, which could be transferred into the broader social and institutional world. Thus, as well as an end in itself, in both formal and informal institutional settings, sport was, and has been, considered an important component of educational and socialising processes. The 19th century influence of 'Public Schools' on sport-related outcome values centred on the 'amateur' concept was transmitted by pupils progressing into university level education and they were values that were prominent in shaping the structure and ethos of university sport in the late 19th century and still evident in these institutions in England today.

It was these considerations together with his belief that preparation for, and competition in, joyful, challenging, honourable non-professional sport could best accomplish a happy human state of men and women understanding themselves and the right way to live (Lucas, 1973) that persuaded Baron de Coubertin as part of his mission to revive the French nation morally and physically following defeat in the Franco-Prussian War (1870-1871) through educational reform, just as English Public School Headmasters such as Arnold (Rugby), Thring, (Uppingham), Cotton (Marlborough) and Vaughan (Harrow) had been catalysts for the reform that occurred in private boarding schools' education systems, linked with promoting both physical and moral development to eradicate ill-discipline, immorality and general anti-social behavioural conduct of young men, who attended these privileged institutions (Mangan, 1981). For de Coubertin, the 'muscular Christianity' concept represented true education: it dealt with the muscular, the intellect, and with morality, all integrated in the same activity. With such ideals in mind, he promoted and succeeded in his efforts to create the modern Olympic Games on 'amateur' foundations (Muller, 2000).

Although the ideology of the modern Olympic Games under De Coubertin had its origins in 'amateur' values embracing participation for participation sake and moral codes of behaviour instilled by the 'muscular Christian' movement of the English 'Public School', the reality from the inception of the Games in Athens in 1896 was that the Olympic movement relied on financial support of local, national and civic leaders and entrepreneurs in which commercialism had a part to play, giving rise to the emergence of a dichotomy between 'amateurism' and 'commercialization', a pervasive feature within sport at most levels today.

Paradoxically, the late 19th century Olympic ideal of precedence of 'taking part' over 'coming first' increasingly throughout the 20th century came to be compromised by its *citius, altius, fortius* motto, which spurred on athletes and nations to seek supremacy through victory, and 'winning' (sometimes at all costs) came to have precedence over 'taking part', in which professionalism (and in many cases unprofessional behaviours such as performance enhancing practices through drugs) came to the fore. Although a form of 'amateur' ideology exists within the present day Olympic movement, professional athletes are ever present and 'commercialization' appears to have asserted a considerable influence on the Games, which now have substantial economic impacts. Today, the modern Olympic Games encapsulate underpinning stereo-typical 'amateur' principles with intrinsic reasons for participation and related moral codes of behavioural conduct including 'fair play' intertwined with 'professionalism' and 'commercialism', which combine to influence the importance of winning for participants at all levels of sport.

**Overall Purpose and Specific Aims**

The overall purpose of the thesis is to examine the extent of the importance of winning within university sport in England and the United States, focusing in particular on the perceptions and attitudes of selected administration personnel, coaches, and athletes within student sport at University College Worcester (England) and the athletic department at Northwest Nazarene University (United States). The specific aims related to this overarching purpose are to:

**Aim 1:** *Conceptualize the importance of 'winning'*

Sport as an institutional formally organised sphere of activity has evolved from largely 19th century English private boarding schools antecedents based in the intrinsic values of participation for its own sake, enjoyment and muscular Christian values of acceptable modes of transferable behaviours, which was utilised as a form of social control agent that promoted a participation first, winning second ethos that developed into a significant global, social and economic phenomenon. The role of commercialism and professionalism

in sport also has resonance within this study in determining roles in the pursuit of a winning first, participation second ethos, which occurred in certain aspects of contemporary sport in England and the United States heading into the 20th century. The conceptualisation of winning provides a context for the ethos and importance placed on winning at institutional and individual levels within university student sport.

**Aim 2:** *Identify key contributions in the historical and socio-cultural sport development in both England and the United States in contextualising the situations at national and local levels*

Sport is a social phenomenon in which people construct meanings that influence and organise both their own and others' actions and conceptions of themselves. The discourses promoted in, and through, sport by dominant groups construct identities by producing meanings about the 'nation' in which people can identify. Sport has been socio-culturally articulated in different historical periods. Of resonance within this study are the key contributions of the post-Industrial Revolution period (1850–1910), which encompass influential determinants such as urbanisation, institutionalisation, technological developments and capitalism. The second half of the 19th century marked a transformation from traditional games to the development of contemporary institutionalised sport on the national and international level. In examining the issue of socio-cultural and historical values in sport, the analysis considers how the modern nations (England and United States) are 'imagined' and what significant factors represent major dispositions of sport in both England and the United States. By identifying key historical socio-cultural values, the context of each sporting nation within the study is understood and provides a basis for the examination of the national organisation/local institution perspectives within this study.

**Aim 3:** *Critically examine the organisational structure along with relevant policies of BUSA and the NCAA in order to provide the contextual settings of the two local institutions as a precursor to comparison of 'ethos' within the two institutions*

BUSA's philosophy of student management stems from the 19th century ideology of placing responsibility on students in the pursuit of character building and development. BUSA's organisational strategy lies within the Student Unions and with the numerous volunteers that manage one of the largest sporting programmes in Europe. As a result of the relatively low commercial pressure, the organisation portrays an 'amateur' approach in relevant aspects of operation (structure, policies, ethos etc.). The inception of the NCAA system in the United States was less inhibited by the traditional values centred on 'amateurism' than their English counterparts heading into the 20th century, where characteristics influencing the organisation shifted towards external regulation and institutionalisation, which promoted 'commercial' values in all aspects of operation. The NCAA organisation has adopted a professional approach that can be seen in the 'big-time' athletic departments that are efficiently run businesses that generate millions of pounds through mass-market sports (basketball, grid-iron football) and television contracts that have promoted intercollegiate sports as entertainment for American society. An examination of the organisations of BUSA and the NCAA will provide a context for the local case study institutions perspectives regarding the importance placed on winning.

**Aim 4:** *Compare perceptions and attitudes of (administration personnel, coaches, and athletes) at UCW and NNU regarding sports programmes development and delivery, from Social Factors, Infrastructure, Environment and Attitudes perspectives*

The chosen institutions within the study, University College Worcester[1] (England) and Northwest Nazarene University (United States) are not renowned as 'top flight' universities in regards to sport within their respective country. This sport's status factor renders it difficult to draw any firm conclusions about the perceived respective ethos, and in any event, it is recognised that one institution in each country may not be representative of the overall situation. However, within the context of explorations of historical and socio-cultural antecedents of sport in both countries and a review of national structures governing university sport, it may be possible to identify some general tendencies from the perceptions of participants at both institutions.

**Aim 5:** *From three levels of analysis (country, national organisation, and local institution) compare the extent of importance of winning in the two case study university institutions*

In isolation, UCW and NNU would not contribute affective generalisations towards the national outlook of university sport in England and the United States. However, the local institution findings were analysed with key contributions from both the country and national organisation perspectives, allowing for an appreciation of general tendencies on the importance of winning that may exist in the overall picture of university sport in both countries. By examining the importance of winning at all three levels of analysis (country, national organisation, local institution), the concept of 'winning' in both England and the United States can be assessed.

**Amateurism to Commercialism: Change in Sport Organisations**

Generally within higher education institutions, internal and external factors such as culture, goals and processes are agents of change. There is considerable evidence (Kikulis, Slack and Hinings, 1992, 1995; and Slack and Hinings, 1992, 1994) that because of pressures both within and external to the organisation, sport and physical activity organisations have changed practice in order to remain viable in an ever-increasing competitive marketplace. Central to the idea of organisational change is the conceptualisation of organisational learning, the process through which organisational routines (ideologies, strategic orientations, cultures, and technologies that define the operations of the organisation) are repeated and adjusted (Cunningham, 2002). Pfeffer and Salancik (1978:43) argue "…It is the fact of the organisation's dependence on the environment that makes the external constraint and control of organisational behaviour possible and almost inevitable…." (and)

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[1] During the course of the study, University College Worcester (UCW) was granted university status, and had a name change to the University of Worcester (UW) in 2005. However, as the main research was carried out before the name change, it was decided to remain with the former UCW title.

> "…Because organisations are not self-contained or self-sufficient, the environment must be relied upon to provide support. For continuing to provide what the organisation needs, the external groups of organisations may demand certain actions from the organisations in return. It is the fact of the organisation's dependence on the environment that makes the external constraint and control of organisational behaviour possible and almost inevitable."

From this perspective, influence or change is related to the degree to which the organisation becomes more or less dependent upon the environment for the provision of necessary resources or by reacting to changes that take place within it (Cunningham, 2002). The present study involves two institutions, University College Worcester (UCW), England and Northwest Nazarene University (NNU), United States.  As Pfeffer and Salancik (1976) and Cunningham (2002) have indicated, such institutions are both influenced by, and dependent upon, the internal and external environment in which they administer sport.  The external environment influencing the extent of the importance of winning at both UCW and NNU is reflected in the historical antecedents and developments related to socio-cultural factors of sport at different levels (country-wide and national organisation), whilst the internal environment is reflected in respective local institutional (UCW and NNU) settings, circumstances and practices as well as in the perceptions of administrative personnel, coaches, and athletes on the factors affecting their extent of the importance of winning. The external and internal environmental shaping factors are relevant at three levels: country, national organisation and local institution in shaping the perceptions of participants within the case studies selected for the present investigation.

## Contextualising Contemporary Sport

The starting point for this study is in the developments and contributions of the post-Industrial Revolution period (1850 – 1910) in both England (Walvin, 1975; Hargreaves, 1982; Mangan, 1981; Mangan, 1988; Holt, 1989; Brailsford, 1991; Allison, 2001) and the United States (Guttmann, 1978; Hardy, 1981; Riess, 1989; Gorn and Goldstein, 1993; Riess, 1997). Sports that prevailed during the immediate post-Industrial era were a by-product of the socio-cultural and socio-economic factors evident within these two countries. Contributing factors in shaping sport in England and the United States during this period included urbanisation, institutionalisation, technological improvements, and capitalism. The maturation of nation-state based capitalism in the United States during the second half of the nineteenth century, for example, was accompanied by the emergence of institutionalised sport as an agent of social control, pleasure and entertainment for the urban industrial masses.  As a result, sport helped constrain working bodies while simultaneously contributing to the commercialisation of urban leisure culture.

There were two conflicting tendencies in the post-Industrial Revolution period: one, which saw the commercial potential of urban markets and new transport systems for mass sport; and the other which rejected those possibilities. In England, the 'amateur-elite ethos' was able to establish a degree of hegemony between 1863 and 1895 with sports such as rowing and athletics attempting to ban professionalism altogether; even in sports with a mass spectator market, limits on wages were imposed on 'players' wages by the 'amateur' administrators. But 'professionalism' was fast occurring, testimony to which was the formation of a rowing association (the National Amateur Rowing Association) open to paid workmen, the emergence of rugby ('League') as a 'professional code' with paid playing participants and already established tradition of annual 'Gentlemen' (amateurs) v. 'Players' (professionals) fixtures in the game of cricket. Although commercialisation intruded into many aspects of contemporary sport in England, those responsible for the management and development of university sport during the late 19th century ignored increasing commercial opportunities and protected the amateur ideals of the participant athletes, male and female. Consequently, an amateur hegemony was established within university sport leading into the 20th century (Allison, 2001), and it is the related ethos within the present situation of university sport in England that is relevant within this study.

Although the Olympics instilled 'amateur' values, the improvements in technological developments after 1945 and the emergence of mass media instruments such as television, radio and internet communication together with improvements in mass transportation (air travel especially) created global scale audiences. The improvements also facilitated the growth of multi-national corporations, particularly from the 1970's on and these have been major contributors to increased commercialization of sport and consequent opportunities for advertising and marketing. The sale of television rights was, and is, not the only source of revenue for many sports; additional sources lie with sponsors prepared to contribute revenue for exposure of their brand names and logos on anything associated with an event spectacle. These contributing factors along with the emergence of key proponents of commercialised sport, an example of whom is Juan Samaranch IOC President (1980 – 2001) have contributed to the Olympics becoming highly commercialised and bureaucratised today (Muller, 2000). The example of the Olympic Games represents the struggle in the role that amateurism and commercialisation play in sport today.

It was not until the post-World War II era that intensification of corporate-based consumer capitalism accelerated the 'infiltration' of market forces into major societal institutions in

England and the United States, including those governing sport. The interaction between television and the promotion of major sporting bodies in both England (Football Association) and the United States (National Football League) contributed to the commercialisation of sport that intensified in both countries to levels never seen before. The international politico-ideological situation after 1945 also created the template for elite sport development systems that emerged in the former Soviet Union and were variously adopted or adapted by its 'satellite' socialist bloc and later western countries. The success of these 'elite' models was demonstrated on the global stage at the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games, at which seven of the top twelve nations were 'socialist' (or communist) states (Hardman, 2002). Competition came to be seen in some parts of the world as 'winners' and 'losers', obsession with the outcome of the game, which measured success in terms of financial gain or of supremacy of one ideology over another (Whitaker, 1995; Green and Houlihan, 2005).

The influence of 'commercialization' of sport in the 20th century has particular resonance in the United States. In 1995, the US Gross Domestic Sport Product was worth $47 billion (£23 billion) with a growth rate of 8.8 per cent per annum since 1986, a proportionate figure that was significantly higher than the overall growth in the Gross Domestic Product (Slack, 2004). The estimated US sports industry in 1999 was $213 billion (£106 billion). A central theme running through the evolution of 'commercialized' sport development models is the notion of strategic, planned and co-ordinated approach. For countries to be successful at elite levels of sport, they need to have the infrastructure, the support and the strategic approach at national and international levels to achieve results. Such implications have applicability at 'local' levels and may for example, impact on governance within national or individual institutions as in the case of the present study in the United States on the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) and the case study institution, Northwest Nazarene University (NNU). In relation to sport's usefulness as a vehicle of mass participation, the professionalisation of sport has resulted in greater prioritisation of elite representation at the expense of more casual and informally engaged participants. Commercial enterprises or even stock-market businesses have emerged, whilst lesser sports clubs and youth sports struggle for survival. The commercial enterprises and stock market businesses emerging within the athletic departments of the 'big-time' universities within the NCAA are relevant to the present study.

**The Conceptualization of Winning**

As its overall purpose, the present study essentially encompasses the importance of winning within university sport in England and the United States, with a specific focus on the British University Sport Association and an associated institution, University College Worcester in England and the National Collegiate Athletic Association and a member institution, Northwest Nazarene University in the United States. The importance of winning within this study is conceptualized through the role of 'amateurism' and 'commercialism' and the affects it has on both countries university sport systems. Traditionally, amateurism in sport is considered to be about playing for pure enjoyment, without extrinsic reward or material gain. The concept is a development of the idea of *amateur,* a French word primarily indicating action or consumption arising from taste rather than instrumental self-interest (Allison, 2001). The 'amateur' concept in England was inextricably linked with antecedents in English private (boarding or public) schools in the 19th century. These institutions of the 'privileged' laid down enduring foundations that have continued to affect the scope and structure of sport today. Some of these schools came to be primarily concerned with the education of an elite group of young people in which character development fostered through participation in sport (mainly games) was an important by-product. These schools offered the means of acquiring the 'stamp' of the 'gentleman' and entry to appropriate professions and positions. Participation could be justified for accrued benefits (Smith, 1975). Activities were encouraged initially to structure boys' leisure and as a remedial counter to ill-discipline, immorality and general anti-social behavioural conduct. Mangan (1981) points out that Public Schools inculcated values such as physical and moral courage, loyalty and cooperation, the capacity to act fairly and accept defeat, and the ability to command and obey. The significance of these values linked with the so-called 'English Games Tradition' was incorporated into curricular and extra-curricular contexts in schools in several European education systems in the late 19th and early 20th centuries (Mangan, 1981). It was a model that also penetrated higher learning institutions introduced and perpetuated by ex-public schools' pupils on entry into university. However, whilst these amateur ethic-related values are as universal as religion or football, their interpretation and role vary from country to country and according to the socio-cultural determinants, an illustrative example of which is the United States, the country juxtaposed with England in the present study.

The English concept of 'amateur' values associated with, and instilled by, the 'muscular Christian' movement did not gain a foothold in the development of university sport in the United States. An American ideology based upon 'freedom' and 'equality' allowed for a

professional approach focused on a dominant cultural attitude based on consumption or competition within a capitalistic society that was developing into the 20th century. As a result, the amateur value system shaping university sport in England was not adopted in the United States, rather commercial values came to be a central concern of those who administered university sport in the 20th century. This concern had long term implications on the degree of emphasis on winning in the United States' university system, added to which were influences of extrinsic rewards, and bureaucratization within inter-collegiate sport. In turn, the emphasis on winning has consequences for administration personnel, coaches, and athletes (De Francesco and Johnson, 1997). One of the consequences is the increasing pressure on athletes to win, an emphasis, which variously occurs in business, educational institutions and social enterprises. Accompanying the pressure to win is also a greater fear of failure. Another consequence of placing emphasis on winning pertains to specialisation: as the emphasis on winning increases, athletes will be more likely to engage in one sport only as there is greater pressure on athletes to improve performance. Concomitantly, it will be in the vested interests of coaches to have athletes who focus on one sport throughout the year so that they can hone their skills and hence, acquire a higher level of proficiency. Higher proficiency means a greater probability of winning (Crone, 1999). One negative of an emphasis on winning may be increased propensity for winning at all costs, to include devious practices (the use of performance enhancement drugs, illegal actions within the activity, unfair play, and unsportsmanlike conduct) among administration, coaches and athletes (Pilz, 1995). Indeed Pilz (1995) argues that a mentality has evolved in sport in the United States, whereby success is associated by participants with knowledge and motivations in decision making in the area of 'foul play' and yet participants are not ready to completely give up the idea of fair play in their motivation to win in sport.

Not only does this increased emphasis on winning affect participants involved, but also it might affect the nature of sport in general. The 'end result' (the 'win') comes to have precedence over the process (the act of participation and having fun) of the event. The emphasis on 'outcome' makes sport more like 'work' than like 'play'. Thus, as winning becomes disproportionately important, practice sessions and matches take on a more 'work-like' atmosphere rather than a 'play' atmosphere with the way in which sport is managed and developed taking on a business-like approach, resulting in sport organisations becoming bureaucratised, efficient and commercialised enterprises.

**Conceptualizing Perceptions and Attitudes**

Perception is defined by Collins (2000:872) as, "awareness of the elements of environment through physical sensation and physical sensation interpreted in the light of experience." Foddy (1993) defines attitude as "a learned predisposition to respond to an object or class of objects in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way". The current study looked at the perceptions and attitudes of participants at the selected case institutions, UCW and NNU regarding the importance of winning in university sport. In conceptualising perceptions and attitudes within the study, the researcher selected a situation approach, summarised by Bandura (1977a) as behaviour largely determined by the situation or environment. The approach draws from social learning theory, which explains behaviour in terms of observational learning (modelling) and social reinforcement (feedback). Simply stated, this approach holds that environmental (external) influences and reinforcements shape the way a person behaves.

Many individuals participate in sport for the pleasure, fun, curiosity and personal mastery involved with the experiences. These reasons for participating can be classified as intrinsic or internal motives for participation (Horn, 1992). Alternatively, there may be external reasons for participation behaviour in sport, such as social approval from peers, material rewards, and social status. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations are examined as they relate to the interaction of social support, affect and self-perceptions of success, competence, and performance control. In both psychology and sport psychology literatures, cognitive evaluation theory (Deci, 1975; Deci and Ryan, 1985) has been studied extensively in the sport domain (Ryan et al., 1984; Vallerand et al., 1987) by researchers who employed primarily the effects of external rewards, which include examples such as positive and negative feedback, competition or intrinsic motivation (Horn, 1992). Perceptions and attitudes within the study are reviewed through the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational changes that an individual experiences and which have a substantial impact on their perceived competence, tendencies to approach or avoid similar achievement situations.

**Methodological Issues**

A persistent theme across the aims of the study is 'comparison'. The comparative dimension is considered to make sense out of similarities, differences and variations among educational systems (Haag, 2004). The result of a comparative investigation and analysis is a set of general principles that provides guidance to active participants within the settings involved in the research (Bereday, 1964; Haag, Kayser and Bennett, 1987; Haag, 2004).

At the theoretical level, comparative study is considered to be a general social science that employs theories, models, and strategies to clarify fundamental processes, for example, of education. Acceptance of a comparative approach, acknowledges that inter-disciplinary thinking should apply (Haag, 2004). Important relevant data collected by formal research methods can be categorised and their functional inter-relationships can be examined. By using a cross-cultural comparative approach, the researcher acquired a dimension and applicability to the discussion of objectives and functions of university sport according to the aims of the study and ultimately gained an understanding of two different university sport systems within a comparative framework.

**Structure of the thesis**

The next chapter (Chapter 2) reviews the socio-cultural and historical development of sport in English and U.S. societies with particular regard to the range of determinants that have contributed to shaping each country's university sport system and the importance attached to a winning ethos. The review provides a context for raising awareness of positions of BUSA and the NCAA respectively in England and the United States and the specific ethos they adhere to.

Chapter 3 comprises an examination of BUSA's organisational structures and key policies. Particular attention is paid to the pre-disposition towards an 'amateur' ethos that underpins participation and is pervasive at all levels of the BUSA organisation. Similarly, the organisational and policies structure of university sport are explored in the NCAA system and in the United States, where there is a clear adherence to a 'winning' ethos influenced by the commercialisation impact of sport. Thus, the chapter provides a basis for comparisons at national and institutional level.

Chapter 4, concerned with research methodology and techniques (instruments), navigates the barriers of the research environment. The multi-method approach helps in the acquisition of a more comprehensive understanding of institutional life, because any one approach invariably offers only a partial account of the complex phenomenon (Van de Ven and Poole, 1995). The content of the chapter provides a rationale for the methodological procedures and addresses data gathering tools such as case studies, literature review, documentary analysis, observations, questionnaires and interviews.

The research findings based on documentary analysis, questionnaire and interview schedules are presented in Chapter 5. They embrace data generated on 'perceptions' of the

level of importance of winning amongst administration, coaches and athletes from the local institutions. The content of this chapter forms the basis for discussion and comparison, the essential concern of the following chapter. In Chapter 6, significant perceptions from participants generated by the empirical data at both case study institutions are compared. These perceptions are underpinned by references to environmental factors from the country and national organisation perspectives including socio-historical developments shaping the structure of university sport and the ethos, organisational structure, and relevant policies of the governing bodies (e.g. BUSA/NCAA) in the context of four perspectives: Social Factors, Infrastructure, Environment, and Attitudes.

The concluding chapter summarises the main findings of the study in relation to the overall purpose and specific aims. It draws conclusions from comparisons of the two university institutions investigated from the three levels of analysis (country, national organisation, local institution). It addresses limitations of the study and makes recommendations for further study.

# Chapter 2: An Overview of Socio-Cultural and Historical Factors Shaping Sport in England and the United States

## Section I: Introduction

At most levels of commitment, sport exhibits the differentiations and divisions of the wider, stratified social context. This is not to say that sport is just a mere reflection of society. Sport practices and cultures can challenge an existing order of division and inequality and in such ways, a particular sporting form can demonstrate a complex mix of the residual, dominant and the emergent within a society (Sugden and Tomlinson, 1999). On many accounts sport cultures have contributed to the reproduction of existing patterns of the social platform in a country (Horne, Tomlinson and Whannel, 1999). This chapter attempts to identify the major determining factors that have influenced both England and United States sport societies and focuses on socio-historical factors that have contributed to shaping each country's university sport system.

The process of socialisation can be defined simply as the process by which people learn to do what is expected of them and social values as, "…a widely held belief or sentiment that some activities, relationships, feelings, or goals are important to the community's identity or well-being".  Every role that an individual plays (e.g. student, employee, and athlete) in the activities pursued (studying, employment, playing sports) is learned. Figler and Whitaker (1995) note that people become socialised to 'fit in' to their society; to be similar rather than different. When addressing the socialisation process in England and the USA, the objective is to identify key socio-historical values that not only affect English and American societies in general, but also those, which have had an effect specifically on the university sports structure (Figler and Whitaker, 1995).

Butterworth and Weir (1984) provide three reasons for the prevalence of 'conventional wisdom' among a particular set of people: first that people associate truth with convenience; secondly, that people find most acceptable what contributes to their self-esteem; and thirdly people approve most of what they best understand. Edwards (1973) observes that social values have an influence on particular sets of people:

> "People adhere to their particular kind of ideology because of emotional conflicts, the anxieties and doubts engendered by the actions which their roles compel them to take, and by the conflicting demands of other social roles which they must fulfil in their various communities and in the society at large" (30).

The function of this ideology is to help maintain one's psychological ability to meet the demands of one's role. According to Edwards (1973), people are given roles within their community and through emotional conflicts and anxieties, people conform to their social values. This has significance in the affect this may have on the participants' perceptions in the research at the case study institutions. Social values, whatever the specific reason for escalating to a dominant position in a particular society, serve a need for the people of that society and thus, become ingrained in their way of life. Cultural values, therefore, become a part of the social structure, and also come to provide the basis of emotional commitment (Mangan, 1988). It is these values that are examined within major components of English and U.S. societies such as the economic, political and societal structures along with dominant attitudes present.

Malcolmson (1984), Mason (1988) and Holt (1989) have raised important issues concerning the respective character and merits of socio-cultural and historical approaches. Malcolmson (1984) proposed a contextual socio-historical approach to sport in which there is recognition of wider societal conditioning influences on the practice and character of sporting activities. From this perspective of social influences, sports are perceived in many respects to be influenced and shaped by these factors. Mason (1988) draws his socio-historical approach to sport in Britain from the neo-Marxist approach, which places sport as structurally analogous to work. Holt (1989) investigated the relationship between the historian and the sociologist and the awareness of the respective need the one has for the other. He argued that there is an interdependence of sociology and history in the identification and pursuit of common problems in social science, though he also critically looked at the relationship between the two disciplines. In Holt's (1989) view, the critical issue for the historian and true sociologist is the perception of "…Sport and the varying cultural meanings that are attached to games, sometimes to the same game, by different social groups or by different forces within the state that command our attention" (360). Common then to the disciplines are perceptions and varying terminological meanings. Together these three approaches combine to provide a more rounded basis for this investigative study.

**Section II: Post Industrial Revolution and Contemporary Sport in England**
The post-Industrial Revolution period was significant in the process of the development of sport in English society (Walvin, 1975; Hargreaves, 1982; Mangan, 1981; Mangan, 1988; Holt, 1989; Brailsford, 1991; Wigglesworth, 1996; Horne *et al.*, 1999; Allison, 2001). The period (1850-1910) is the starting point for this study as the majority of changes occurred

in the development of contemporary modern day sports during this time. Prevailing sports at the time were, in a cultural Marxist sense, a 'product of historical conditions, and are fully applicable only to and under those conditions' (Slack, 2004:4). For instance, the maturation of nation-state-based capitalism in Western Europe and North America during the second half of the 19th century was accompanied by the emergence of institutionalised sport, partially as an agent of social control for the urban industrial masses. By codifying sporting practice (regulating participation) and sanctioning cathartic release (mass spectatorship), the patrician-industrialist power bloc ensured that sport helped constrain working bodies to the demands and discipline of the industrial workplace, while simultaneously contributing to the commercialisation of urban leisure culture.

Hargreaves (1982) examined the importance of the post-Industrial Revolution and its impact on the modern day English society. Notably, she looked at the major changes in this period as a direct result from the organised or commercialised interest of the society. Her outline of the development of modern sports identified five aspects of social change that create the climate in which modern sports emerged:

- ❑ the way of life of the majority of people is subjected to attack or change
- ❑ for the majority of people, time and space are defined
- ❑ patrician patronage is the basis of the reconstruction of some sports
- ❑ forces of social class affect the way new sports forms are developed
- ❑ expansion of a "commercial" provision in the new society.

A shift from an agricultural based economy to an industrial focused economy occurred in England during the period 1850 – 1910 (Brailsford, 1991). This shift brought major changes in living patterns and movement from the rural farm into town to work in factories spawned urban growth. At first, long working hours and difficult conditions were not conducive to leisure time activity. Eventually, however, developments induced by rising incomes and changes in work patterns and practices allowed the workers to enjoy increased time for leisure (Mangan, 1988). A second point acknowledged by Mangan, (1988) occurred when industrialists began to appreciate that sport could have a utilitarian function and thus, began to patronize work teams. A structural change and productivity-raising innovation associated with industrialization eventually led to both increased real incomes and leisure time, which in turn stimulated a demand for commercialized spectator sport. Together with the impacts of urbanisation, lifestyle changes gradually led to increased popularisation of sport amongst both participants and spectators. The commercialised form of sport stimulated its new popularity when business people began to see the possibilities of promoting spectator sports for profit.

Spectator sport emerged and developed as part of English society in the later part of the 19th century. Inventions such as the newspaper press and steam locomotive, with the latter facilitating cheap, mass travel contributing to the expansion of sporting activities and spectator attendance throughout the country (Wigglesworth, 1996). The railway allowed spectators and participants to travel to sporting competitions and so revolutionized sport in England by widening the catchments area for spectators and by enabling participants to compete nationally. Before the 19th century, concept of space and time had little relevance in sports. Games were 'played' locally and the duration of 'matches' lasted in many cases from sun-up until sun-down. Railway transportation helped to transform 'folk games' into modern day games, some of which became highly 'commercialised.' Sporting games played locally, could be engaged in regionally and eventually nationally (Brailsford, 1991). Concomitant with the rapid expansion of the railway network came time uniformity with the need to observe timings more precisely (Wigglesworth, 1996). The railway encouraged a sharper sense of promptness, a greater emphasis on precision in all life's comings and goings. This was not a change that sports could ignore, thus games were formatted into certain lengths of time around clock time imposed on the factory floor and increasingly relied upon by English society. Games had to start on time, and be played within a certain time frame for people to travel regionally and nationally to witness the matches (Brailsford, 1991). All towns by the early 1850's were using 'Railway Time' or 'London Time'. With conformity of matches with the clock and spectator travel, entrepreneurs saw the opportunity to 'commercialise' these events for the financial gain to be made. Two sports especially benefited from the advent of the railway network, cricket and horse racing. The late 1850's witnessed the development of touring professional teams, beginning with William Clarke's first All-England XI, which attracted large crowds wherever they played (Mangan, 1988). The railways made a major breakthrough in the transport of horses and, together with easier access which they provided for race goers, led to racing becoming a genuine national sport rather than one pursued only at a local or regional level.

The process of mediation, carried through written, visual, and oral was responsible for what many people understood sport to be. Within these media texts, were inscribed many assumptions, pre-conceptions and 'common-sense' attitudes about sport and life that positioned readers and listeners in relation not only to sport, but to many other aspects of society. It is a consequence that Mangan (2000:24) pointed out that "…sport not only reflects culture, it shapes it." The principal agency in creating a 'discourse' for sport that had the capacity to shape attitudes that was developed during the post-industrial period was the newspaper press. Until the advent of radio and later television, it was the principal

medium for transmitting information and ideas about sport. Since the later years of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, a strong specialist sport press had been in existence, establishing codes of sports writing either on a focused area, like the *Sporting Life,* which concentrated on the horse-racing turf, or like the Manchester-based *Athletic News,* on a range of sports (Hill, 2002). Detailed narratives were the style of the local press. Things began to change with the foundation in 1896 of the first mass-circulation daily, the *Daily Mail,* initially a paper aimed at middle-class women with plenty of pictures and advertisements for expensive shops. The news press departed from the dense layout of the established press to introduce more readable pages on which pictures increasingly conveyed much of the story.

The style of the popular press served to position its readers of sport in a number of distinctive ways. First, sport in many cases was cast in terms of popular sports: horse racing, (because of its betting appeal) soccer, boxing and cricket made up the vast majority of the sports pages. Other sports were covered only when they possessed a well-loved national event such as the Boat Race, or when a British competitor had achieved success, as with Fred Perry's triumphs at Wimbledon in the mid-1930's (Hill, 2002). Secondly, such a focus emphasised male interests. Though some of these sports (e.g. cricket and soccer) were played by women, female contributions to them were almost wholly neglected, except when they had a 'novelty' value. Third, there was a markedly insular approach to sports coverage, which ensured that readers viewed the sporting world from a British perspective. The local press continued to be an important part of sports coverage and a major force in stimulating local partisanship.

### *Contemporary Sport and the Public School*
Unlike in the USA, such commercialism was not the primary consideration in the development of sport in the universities, the reasons for which lie in the desire in the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries to control professionalism and foster the amateur ethic (Wigglesworth, 1996). The importance of the Public School in the development of sporting forms and in articulating them cannot be exaggerated. A reconstructed form of sport became the norm in these schools spreading throughout the network of voluntary sport and recreation associations dominated by ex-Public School men. The significance of these institutions is associated in the development of the ruling class in the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. A specific function of the Public Schools was to unify the older landed 'patrician' ruling class and the rising bourgeois elements (Hargreaves, 1986). The principle of amateurism was arguably encapsulated within the concept of 'muscular Christianity' associated with educational and sporting experiences in Public (i.e. private boarding) Schools. New

emergent middle-class righteousness towards the 'amateur' principle stemmed from the classical tradition so strongly followed at Public Schools, which encouraged the belief that nobility of action lay in purity of motive. In sport terms, this meant playing the game for the games sake and the enjoyment to be desired there from (Wigglesworth, 1996).

Many of the core characteristics of modern contemporary sports were shaped in the English Public Schools of the 19th century (Holt, 1989). In his seminal study of developments of sport in Public Schools in the 19th and early 20th centuries, Mangan (1981) addressed the genesis and impact of what he labelled the 'ideology of athleticism.' He asserted that the emphasis was placed on four educational goals in Public Schools with inculcation of desirable moral values:

- physical and moral courage
- loyalty and cooperation
- the capacity to act fairly and accept defeat graciously
- the ability to command and obey.

A central purpose for private school education in the 19th century was the development and nurturing of young students' bodies and more importantly minds. The so-called 'character development' was a particular aim associated with Public Schools during the Victorian era and sport was seen as a vehicle for its achievement through the transmission of moral values to newly educated generations of upper and upper middle-class males. Perhaps the most remarkable feature of elite education in the 19th century was the changing status of Games. Brutality and the disorderly behaviour dimension among school boys was a major aspect of the Public Schools that Arnold (at Rugby School) and his fellow headmasters set out to reform. Arnold saw the potential of sport as a source of discipline and morality, especially in relation to the selection of senior boys to impose discipline through the prefectorial system (Holt, 1989). His aim was to create an enlightened ruling class of educated men, who would resist the greed that existed within the industrial explosion during the 19th century as well as the socialistic claims of the oppressed. Education at Rugby, where Arnold was headmaster from 1828-42, was, therefore, designed to turn out 'Christian gentlemen', men who were disciplined, socially responsible and self-reliant enough to govern not only themselves, but lower orders as well (Hargreaves, 1986). The concept of the 'Christian gentlemen' stimulated moral excellence and character training without neglecting the intellect. Arnold can be associated with deliberately encouraging and favouring the development of more rationalized bourgeois forms of sport and helped create the climate in which Games could flourish during the second half of the 19th century. A major example was the transformation of popular 'folk' football into a 'gentlemanly' sport that transformed the game from one linked with uncouth values of the working class

to that of the 'Christian Gentleman' of the rising middle-class; football in its Public School form could be used to inculcate the kind of virtues, which Arnold and some of his contemporaries and their successors had identified: loyalty, *esprit de corps*, and self-sacrifice.  The Public School served as an instrument in the 'civilizing process' of England during this period (1850-1910). When Arnold emphasized 'moral excellence' and 'character training' in the education of his 'gentlemen', the ruling class acknowledged the importance of these virtues in the development of a firm identity for wielding authoritative power (Hargreaves, 1986), epitomised in  *Tom Brown's Schooldays,* in which, Hughes (cited in Hargreaves, 1986:40) requires of education:

> "…Were I a private schoolmaster, I should say, let who will hear the boys their lessons, but let me live with them when they are at play or rest.  Shall I tell him (Tom) to mind his work, and say he's sent to school to make himself a good scholar? Well, he isn't sent to school for that, at any rate not for that mainly.  I don't care a straw for Greek particles.  What is he sent to school for? Well, partly because he wanted to go.  If he'll only turn out a brave, helpful, truth telling Englishman, and a gentleman, and a Christian, that's all I want."

The cult of 'athleticism' gripped the late 19th century in several ways: it fed into the growing concern about health and fitness of the nation for national defence; it met a growing demand among dominant groups for a form of leisure activity; and most importantly it was a way of disciplining or 'normalizing' the male youth dominant classes to enable them to take their places in the modern social order (Hargreaves, 1986). The 1850's was the crucial decade in Public School sport. Headmasters during this time, Arnold (Rugby), Vaughan (Harrow), Cotton (Rugby), Thring (Uppingham) encouraged organised sports and turned their private boarding schools into successful sport institutions. Gradually, sport ceased to be a means to a disciplinary end and eventually became an end in itself. The culture of athleticism and the 'Christian Gentlemen' gradually came to dominate the whole system of elite education, which included ancient institutions of higher education.

By 1897, the moral values enshrined within the concept of amateurism in the Public Schools had been carried over into universities. Indicative of the perceived importance of sport in universities was a feeling of community in university life being fostered by education, lectures and study, and that:

> "…No influence fostered it more surely and more effectively than that feeling
> of common life which the modern athletic sports, as they had been developed
> in modern places of learning, gave to all those who took an interest in such
> matters, whether as performers or spectators"
>
> <div align="center">(Honey, 1977:117)</div>

Going on to university, and that primarily meant Oxford or Cambridge for many elite Public School graduates, the academic demands of the ancient universities fitted into the pattern of communal living and rivalries learned in the school houses. An important purpose of university sports in the 19th century was to foster participation, socialization and a community type of atmosphere on campus. The inherent values of sport as an agent of socialisation and sense of community through participation had stemmed from practices present in the Public Schools of the 19th century. As the recruitment of Public School boys increased into higher education during the late 19th century, these institutions became more serious about their prowess in sport through the 'Christian Gentlemen' principles encapsulated in the Public Schools (Holt, 1988).

The consequences of 'athleticism' in the ancient universities were potent. 'Oxbridge' was the matrix of this hugely influential moralistic ideology, disseminated enthusiastically by alumni throughout the public, state and colonial school systems in the British Empire. The ramifications of ethical inspiration were more widely dispersed as the activities characteristic of the boating rivers and playing fields of the late 19th century (Mangan, 2006). Attitudes, relationships and administrations owed much to the ethical imperatives of the playing fields. Life in late 19th century Oxford and Cambridge revolved around a Public School value system. As Mangan observed (2006:94), "…the average undergraduate was merely… the average public schoolboy transferred to conditions affording him rather great scope for his essentially schoolboy impulses", an observation reinforced the assertion that late Victorian and Edwardian university life was an extension of English Public School. It was a sporting life, centred on the river, the cricket pitch, and the football field. For many at Oxford and Cambridge, the universities were boarding schools in which the elements of rowing were taught to youths. Activities on river and playing fields eventually became so pressing that the hour of dinner in college was moved to accommodate the times of sporting competitions.

There were, in reality, three types of university men in the 'Oxbridge' model in the late 19th century, predominantly of the mind, predominantly of the body and of both mind and body. In translating these types of university students, there were reading men, rowing men and men who attempted both. Perhaps, the clearest evidence of institutional priorities in higher education during the second half of the 19th century can be associated with the athletic talents of newcomers to Jesus College (Cambridge), where the typical undergraduate of the late 19th century would have had much in common with B.H. Stewart who graduated in 1896. For Stewart (1945:1), "…all my life sport has been and still is a passion with me."

The extent of his degree of contentment at the university was measured exclusively in terms of his athletic accomplishments and activities. Some of these included an obligatory period of 'compulsory rowing' as a freshman, becoming an enthusiastic cricketer, winning a worthy 'blue' at soccer and becoming an efficient President of the Jesus College Athletic Club. In short, Stewart took full advantage of the opportunities available in the most sporting college at Cambridge. In his memoirs on games as a training for life, he set three years of hedonism in moral perspective:

> "And if you're beaten – well, what of that?
> Come up with a smiling face.
> 'Tis no disgrace to be knocked down flat,
> But to lie there, that's disgrace.
> The harder you're knocked, the higher you bounce,
> Be proud of the blackened eye
> It isn't the fact that you're licked that counts,
> But how did you fight, and why?
> (Stewart, 1945:69)

Athletes at Jesus College were valued highly by the institution. They defined reality, set the tone, determined the values, coerced the unwilling and disciplined the recalcitrant (Stewart, 1945). In the light of this, it may be possible that the ethos of Victorian and Edwardian 'Jesus' scholar was essentially the product of the Public Schoolboy. Throughout the later period of Victoria's reign, Jesus College authorities strongly encouraged the cult of 'athleticism'. From the end of the 1870's, as in the case of some modern American universities, there were tangible returns to be gained from sporting prowess, exemplified when the 1904 coach (Fairbairn) of the Jesus boats was informed by college administrators that the position of the College boat on the river was an index of the prosperity of the college (Mangan, 2006). Around this time, Jesus was transformed into a College of the 'river' and the games of the 'field'. The ethical qualities in sport were recognised by the College during this time because of the moral worth in the efforts of the oarsmen. This was associated with the competition for the position of the 'Head of River', which could not have been achieved without courage and self-denial; and it was these qualities that would carry over later in life.

The many similarities between Games in the Public Schools and universities are exemplified by practical contributions made by H.A. Morgan to the development of the sporting ethic in late 19th century Cambridge. He was for many years the treasurer of the leading university athletic clubs, played a major role in organising the subscription fund for the purchase of Fenner's Cricket Ground, and promoted the development of athletic facilities. He was considered to be an "admirable type of muscular Christian" (Mangan, 2006:101). Values that prevailed in Jesus College during Morgan's years were summed up

by his designation as a 'glorified headmaster with a taste for sport'. As in the Public Schools, donnish enthusiasm for sport was associated with self-interest and altruism. The collegiate ideal was redefined to lay an emphasis on personal influence and character formation. This ensured legitimacy, promoted self respect and improved professional image (Mangan, 2006). This ideal was challenged as undergraduates increased in number, as a consequence of the growing wealth of Victorian Britain associated with the expansion of the Public School system and the consequent university reforms of the mid-and late 19th century. The colleges (universities) faced a classic Public School problem, sizeable numbers of students in the grip of boredom of restriction. Illustrations of this problem during this time were Latham (Trinity Hall) and Morgan (Jesus College), as they, "unrivalled in the power of controlling full-blooded undergraduates, made it their business to encourage all forms of bodily exercise, above all rowing" (Rothblatt, 1968:143). It was a case of more concern for control and less of a concern for character; pragmatism as much as idealism was dictating policy and practice.

The alleged ideal of Arnold's Rugby School Greek and cricket syllabus was more accurately the ideal of Walter Headlam's Cambridge. Headlam, was "in spirit and temperament nearly a Greek" (Mangan, 2006:103). Headlam adhered to the Athenian concept of 'the whole man'. Sport and scholarship were worthy and linked pursuits, which gave rise to a 19th century Graeco-Britannic ideal. It is described further by Lehmann (1889:153):

> "He will have suffered much, he will have rowed many weary miles, have learnt the misery of aching limbs and blistered hands, he will have laboured under broiling suns, or with snow storms and bitter winds beating against him, he will have voluntarily cut himself off from many pleasant indulgences. But on the other hand his triumphs will have been sweet, he will have trained himself to submit to discipline, to accept discomfort cheerfully to keep a brave face in adverse circumstances, he will have learnt the necessity of unselfishness and patriotism."

Here is the essence of Victorian and Edwardian upper-class educational purpose, character training through athletic endeavour. It was no less valid at the university than it was in the Public School, a prime example of which was that of boating, which was "pre-eminently a means of university education, a high moral lesson" (Pitman, 1887:217). One of the highest objectives of a university career should be the formation of character" Pitman, (1887:222). Young Englishmen at the universities took pride in resisting fatigues and rejoiced at the highest display of bodily strength and were intoxicated by swift, effortless movement. It was this muscular morality above all else, which the British product of Public School and ancient university took to every corner of the Empire (Mangan, 2006).

It is reasonable to conclude that during the Victorian and Edwardian period of the late 19th and early 20th centuries, the 'Oxbridge' model subscribed to the 'athleticism' ideology in the same manner as did Harrow, Lancing, Loretto, Malborough and Uppingham. As in those Public Schools, indulgence, rationalisation, expedience and idealism were the contradictory characteristics of the enthusiastic. Glorified schoolmasters running the universities during this time preserved the 'Public School' mentality of the ascribed 'College blood as a hero' (Mangan, 2006:108), concerning control, restricted leisure, and ethical imperatives in determining action. It is equally reasonable to suggest that the changing role of liberal education of the late 19th century 'Oxbridge' had a physical as much as a cultural connotation, an example of which, is Jesus College and the role it played on 'movement' and the encouragement and diffusion of organised athletic activities that transferred exercise into ethical endeavour. The political, social and educational aspects of the 'Oxbridge' impacts contributed to the social revolution during the late 19th century and continue to have lasting affects on the current university structure today.

The traditional values surrounding the amateur ethos in schools of the 19th century Public School and universities can be seen in English society today. Certain values of amateurism have been upheld and deemed important in sports involving the Public Schools and higher education. Former Prime Minister, John Major, in his introductory statement to the government policy document *Raising the Game* (DNH, 1995), framed ideas to rebuild the strength of every level of English sport. The policy document was rooted in the founding principles of the 19th century concept of Athleticism. In *Raising the Game*, it was argued that sport should be cherished for its capacity to bind people together across ages and national borders, and also to represent 'nationhood' and 'local pride.' Thus, sport in England is claimed to:

- through competition, teach lessons which last for life
- be a means of learning how to be both a winner and a loser
- thrive only if 'both parties play by the rules', and accept the outcome 'with good grace'
- teach how to live with others as part of a team
- improve health
- create friendships.

<div align="center">(DNH, 1995:2).</div>

For the former Prime Minister, the quality of life extended beyond the boundaries of material success:

> "I have never believed that the quality of life in Britain should revolve simply around material success. Of equal importance, for most people, is the availability of those things that can enrich and elevate daily life in the worlds of the arts, leisure and sport"
>
> (DNH, 1995:1)

In many English universities, the concept of amateurism and availability of, and access to, sport for all students, has been translated into participation engagement but there are examples of universities breaking this trend or mould. These will be considered in more detail in Chapter 3. However, in general, the amateur ethos was represented in the industrial masses during the late 19th century, examples of which are the Amateur Athletic Association (AAA) represented the traditional basis of amateur sport that was centred on a 'participation' ethos that developed in Public Schools and higher education institutions for many years to come. The 'amateur' ethic in sports at universities was nurtured by various socio-historical determinants in English society that are examined in the next section.

## Section III: Socio-Cultural and Historical Values of English Society and the Amateur Ethos in Sport.

There are few activities, which have secured a more central place in the national culture of England and the United States than sport. Sporting activities feature prominently in the broadcasting programmes of the radio and television media and they constitute a weighty component of the leisure and entertainment industries (Hargreaves, 1986). Sport is deeply ingrained in culture and as a result our understanding of sport is impregnated with common sense. The socio-cultural and historical phenomenon remains profoundly opaque and an imminent question that is posed within this type of study is the relationship between power and sport. The role of power within this analysis refers to the analysis of civil society and 'the State' and its influence on the major dispositions that may exist within the current structure of university sport in England and the United States. Hargreaves (1986) summarises civil society as a network of voluntary associations and institutions and the informal social relations, which regulate every day life in a particular society. The 'State' can be summarised by the coordination of social function by providing a forum for expression of interests that provides a set of procedures for settling conflicts through governmental agencies or institutions. These two forces are analysed with reference to the development of sport in England and the United States within this chapter.

Hargreaves (1986) contends that sporting activity can never be adequately explained purely as an instrument of social harmony, or as a means of self-expression, for this ignores the divisions and conflicts, and the inequalities of power in societies, which are embedded in

societies.  Adequate concepts within the social and historical context are needed to understand the character of sport and the power network, which impinges on sport within a particular society.  The reproduction of the sport-power relation is systematically concealed in the routine of operation between the two forces.

**Amateurism in the Victorian and Edwardian Periods**

The formation of a distinctive English national culture in the late Victorian and Edwardian era developed from an interest in literature, music, folklore, landscape, and the idea of games as an embodiment of the English spirit (Holt, 1989).  Sport in England was not just the source of high-minded ideals, it was inseparably associated with a more assertive and patriotic Englishness.  A central focus of Englishness in sport in the late 19th century (1850-1910) within this study is the conceptualisation of 'amateurism' and the impact it had on the modernisation of sport in England during this period.

*Amateurism and the Concept of Fair Play*

Amateurism in England derived from an eighteenth century gentlefolk who dabbled nonchalantly without the desire for excellence of performance in the fine arts. This explained their disdain for those who strove mightily for precisely this, namely the professional and quasi-amateur who by definition, therefore, could not be a 'gentlemen'. The prejudice against such performance was underpinned by a similar distaste for trade learned from a classical education, which stressed the Athenian concept of Victorians into a religious orthodoxy extolling the benefits of a strict social hierarchy (Wigglesworth, 1996). This in turn produced an amateur ethic which preached against the 'professional' at any cost.  The social and cultural apartheid based upon ownership of land had constituted English society for centuries when the rise of mercantilism challenged the upper-class ideology in the 18th century.  Despite severe inequalities in English society, the ruling class in the Victorian and Edwardian period remained deep-rooted and resistant from contemporary revolutionary trends, a situation earlier examined by the contributions of the post-Industrial Revolution era.  As a result, the bourgeois class consolidated its hegemony by virtually taking over the great Public Schools of the time:  in 1700 only 17 percent of upper-class boys were at Eton, Harrow, Winchester and Westminster while in 1780 there were 72 percent (Wigglesworth, 1996:86).

The values instilled in the Public Schools during this time supplanted the traditional gentlemen's pursuits of dinners, playhouse and gambling, and in sporting terms the upper-class establishment through the Public School was the first group of people to make active

sport a 'gentlemanly' activity by appropriating some activities like bowling, cricket, and rowing at school level (Wigglesworth, 1996). Fair play was the central force of the 'gentleman' amateur. Amateurs within England during the late 19th century were of the middle and upper classes who played sports that were often also enjoyed by the common people (e.g. athletics, rowing, or cricket). Fair play meant not only respecting the written rules of the game, but abiding by what was generally understood to be the spirit of the game. Sport had not only to be played in good spirit, it had to be played with style. 'Strife without anger, art without malice' as generations of Harrovians commented (Holt, 1989). A particular example of the Victorian conscience and the promotion of 'gentleman' ideals is demonstrated in cricket, with individuals such as W.G. Grace, who was depicted as a hero not because 'he played the game', but the way he played the game in the 'grand manner' that embodied the sporting English hero. Fry, quoted in Holt (1989:263), asserted that, "…he stood bolt upright and swept into every stroke, even a defensive backstroke, with deliberate and dominating completeness. He never hedged on his stroke, he never pulled his punches." The hegemony of cricket on the middle-class English imagination became strong during the late 19th century. The way in which cricket was played and valued was different between the 'North' and 'South' regions of England. The southerners' nostalgic dream of peace and harmony and an emphasis on the 'amateur' did not gain a foothold with the northern working class. As the south region encapsulated primarily middle to upper class players, their discretionary income allowed them to play the game as a 'gentleman' without financial reward for playing. The northern working class sense of 'Englishness' into the game of cricket was less sentimental and was professionalised with an emphasis on the unforgiving duels of batsman and bowler that exhibited a blend between guile and grit, which appealed to the northern public (Colls and Dodd, 1986). As the player base in the north came from the working class, financial reward was given in order for players to remain in the sport. Despite the differences in the way the game was formulated between the north and south, cricket remained the true national sport of England during the late 19th century. Football was associated with the industrial workers, rugby of the middle class, only cricket was universal. Sport, especially cricket, was never a vehicle for crude social control, rather it provided a shared vocabulary of 'fairness' and embodied a set of principles for the decent organisation of public life. Sport played an important part in the creation of a stable and democratic political culture: 'Fair play' summed up all that English education and ethics hold most dear:

> "…Everyone, be he sportsman, soldier, politician, statesman, journalist, employer or employed, finds these two words guidance and admonishment affecting the whole scope and meaning of his work. Fair play means regard for one's neighbour and seeing the man and fellow player in one' opponent" (McKibbin, 1994: 18).

*Social Class and 19th Century Sport in England*

Perhaps one of the single greatest factors responsible for shaping English social values has been the country's class structure. Each society is stratified in a particular way, but stratification within a society is usually connected with historical developments in the country (Goldthorpe, 1987). In English society one, not untypical, image is that of sharp division into three major classes: the upper class, middle class and the working class. Whilst 'blurring' of class boundaries has occurred in reality, the positions of power within most institutions in England are dominated by the upper and middle classes and the strong hold on tradition concerning family connection, wealth, and prestige (Hutton, 1995).

As mentioned earlier in the chapter (section II) the post- Industrial Revolution was a major force in creating modern day England (Horne *et al.,* 1999). The post-Industrial Revolution new emerging middle-classes had to strive against an already established or 'traditional' society in trying to change societal trends. Many of these societal trends looked at previously were already established before the shift to an industrial nation began. The established aristocratic, and gentry dominated framework already present in England and the rising new middle classes during the post-Industrial Revolution were obliged to accommodate each other. Each side assimilated values from the other, but the existing established society retained a strong hold on many of the 'traditional' practices that were in place (Jones, 1984). Consequently, it is important to consider in further detail why English university level sport was not subject to commercialisation. The mutual accommodation between the established society and the new middle class society during this era facilitated the retention of the societal system in Public Schools and higher education. As a result, the Public Schools and higher education systems' emphasis on principles of amateurism and 'participation' in sport survived the changes that took place in so many other areas of English society during the Industrial Revolution.

Despite the growing inclination to exclude those not considered suitable from their sporting activities, the 'gentlemen' maintained an attitude of *noblesse oblige* in patronising the sporting endeavours of their social inferiors. Although the desire to keep the lower classes segregated derived partly from sheer snobbery, it was also regarded as a necessary form of social containment and control in an era of revolution and unrest. A breakdown of class structure was seen as the precursor of anarchy and many thought the progress of socialism would allow lawful authority anarchy and ruin. From this background, the amateurs' fight for survival was associated with a struggle for civilisation based upon 'heredity', rank and

nobility of blood as the essence of Christian privilege against those who 'honoured' no one except personal merit and deeds (Mangan, 2006). The initial battle in the hegemony of the 'gentlemen' amateur of the middle-upper class was challenged by the 'professional' who emerged in the second half of the 19th century, but it must be noted in many cases by a quasi-amateur who may, or may not, have taken payment for his on-field activities, but was recognised as socially inferior. The rise of the 'professional' had a direct cause in the perceived link between popular recreation and civil disturbance, which threatened the *'status quo'* of the 'gentlemen' values that were instilled by the aristocrat society. In the mid-19th century, it was conceivable in the imagination of the new class of gentleman to extend a presumed guilt by association from working people at rural sports to tradesman at organised sports. As Wigglesworth (1996) noted, it was this synthesis that provided them with a Christian and patriotic justification for actions, which they were inclined to take in any event for social and cultural reasons. As sporting activities were becoming more organised, working class participants began to find that they were being excluded from taking part by the rules and regulations of the 'gentlemen'. Bailey (1978) comments that in such circumstances, the middle classes stood steady to defend the line of their own 'gentility' with a judicious mixture of discrimination and neglect.

A primary example of the discrimination of the amateur 'gentlemen' and the working-class 'professional' is referenced through the development of athletics during this time. The Amateur Athletic Club (AAC), formed in 1866, positioned itself apart from the active professional of the day. As a result, it continued its exclusion from anyone who earned a living as a 'mechanic, artisan or labourer'. Matters came to a head in 1879 when the Northern Athletics Association (NAA) was formed with a constitution that embraced all but professionals. The AAC was dissolved the next year and was replaced by the Amateur Athletics Association (AAA) and all athletes except professionals were welcomed irrespective of class or social status. A prominent attitude within English society during this time was associated with professionalism and the working classes on the grounds that manual labour gave a man an advantage physically over the 'gentlemen' opponent. Nevertheless, the significant fact is the loss of the control by the AAC to the AAA and the criteria for an 'amateur' was drawn far lower in the social scale than had originally been intended (Bailey, 1978). Here at least, discrimination, except against professionals, did not work and athletics in England was established on generously wide foundations.

A similar case can be seen in the sport of rowing. When the Amateur Rowing Association (ARA) was formed in 1882, similar arguments and rules were adopted in the segregation of

the 'amateur' from the 'professional' as found in athletics with the formation of the AAC. The stories of the ARA beginnings are important since it was itself the product of compromise, as the organisation adhered to a strong 'amateur' elitist code, but was obliged to accept considerable modification towards a 'professional' approach. In the early part of the century, the issue of amateurism did not exist. Mangan (2006:192) recalled that …"the old theory of an amateur was that he was a gentleman, and that the two were simply convertible terms. Such a man might make rowing his sport, so long as he did not actually make it his ostensible means of livelihood." Amateurs of this kind were active during the 19th century on all major rivers and in their approach they hardly differed from the professional waterman of the day. The skills of the waterman (professional) were objects of praise and envy. Many 'amateurs' aspired to row like a waterman. But while, their skills might have been admired, some were beginning to question their methods, particular their emphasis on fouling and the large sums of money involved in wagers or betting. Similar anxieties had already begun at Oxford and Cambridge during the 19th century. Oxford had begun to use watermen in their crews and feelings had been strong enough to temporarily halt the races between the two institutions. The tensions between Cambridge towards Oxfords' strategy of using watermen in their crews were exemplified as Selwyn, the brother of a member of Cambridge's crew and himself a Race umpire, publicly stated that "…watermen's ways are not our ways, or watermen's notions our notions". Being even more explicit the next year, "…the principles which we always maintained were: first that gentlemen should steer, second that fouling should be abolished and last, not least, that victory should be its own reward" (Drinkwater and Sanders, 1929:11). Cambridge resistance towards integrating watermen into their crews during the 19th century was typified by Egan, former Cambridge cox and coach, who believed that it was possible with a group of university undergraduates to produce a perfect crew. It was a belief that had been earlier articulated by Shadwell, his friend and great rival both as cox and coach. Shadwell (1846:25) stressed the quality of character needed to be a good oarsman, fundamental to which was good discipline:

> "…discipline involves in itself the notion of principles, and these, when carried into practice, enter men's ways of thinking and feeling, and give a decided bias to their conduct as rowing men. Thus, like any constitutional maxims, they are much more than written laws; they are not letter, but spirit and become the hereditary guides of every successive set of men in the boat club, a wholesome pervading system of tradition and a standard which each man endeavours to act up to. Discipline, in truth, has an immense moral effect, and that an enduring one."

The viewpoint of Shadwell along with the preaching of Kingsley, Hughes and others was common among universities and college oarsmen, and it is worth stressing that the genesis

of that cult of athleticism that was to dominate the late Victorian Public Schools and universities may well have been found among those active on the Cam and Isis during the 1850-1910 period. Examples of the cult of athleticism dominating the Public School and universities during this time are chronicled in Hughes's less well known novel, *Tom Brown at Oxford* (1860), which centres on the fortunes of the college boat. Kingsley himself often relaxed on the river Cam and would cut his lectures short to do so, much to the surprise to his students, as he was a Regius Professor of History. In short, what was emerging at the two universities was a powerful and coherent view about rowing that was in time to embrace most other undergraduate sport games activities. The problem was the self-confident and patrician approach to rowing that occurred from the mid-19th century onwards, when the time for leisure activities was growing among all sections of society and the increase in the number of low-cost clubs. It was inevitable that a number of these newly formed clubs would strive to measure their standards with that of the university and colleges, most notably Oxford and Cambridge. Their aspirations would be judged by their ability on the water, at the only place where they could meet the student crews on equal terms, namely the Henley. Overall though, the standards of rowing were the unwritten rules of the Regatta that governed conduct and behaviour which was conceptualised through the work of prominent figures such as Selwyn, Shadwell, and Egan (Bailey, 1978).

The conclusion of the struggle between the ARA and the National Amateur Rowing Association (NARA) resulted in an unparalleled situation in British sporting history, with the continuation of governance from the 'elitist' amateur of the ARA until it finally absorbed to the NARA in 1956. Selwyn, Egan and Shadwell had unashamedly encouraged an elitist approach which over the course of time meant that the concept of the amateur became identified in the minds of many during the late 19th century, drawing its inspiration from the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge. The inflexibility of the governing bodies of sport (Amateur Athletic Club and the Amateur Rowing Association) over the definition of amateurism of the English gentleman combined to produce tensions in domestic sporting relations with the working-class that continues to have repercussions today. On the domestic front, the 19th century English 'gentleman' was directly responsible for the formation of hundreds of clubs and organisations throughout England which were established either for maintaining social exclusivity or providing those excluded with the means of carrying on organised activities. It is the structure and ethos of such organisations (BUSA-UCW and NCAA-NNU) that the analysis will return to in the following chapters.

*Sport, Leisure and The State: The Victorian Legacy*

Neither sport nor leisure is unaffected by social, economic and political activity, and this activity in itself was influenced ideologically by the practices and texts of sport and leisure. In this sense, sport and leisure can communicate broad political meanings, including what it means to be a part of Britain. A primary example of sport and politics co-dependence can be associated with the 'local authorities' who are the main providers of recreational facilities. The tradition of municipal socialism moved on to provide playing-fields as well as parks and swimming-baths. The formation of the National Playing Fields Association (NPFA) in 1925 with a view to improving the nation's health is highlighted as an example of 'Englishness' in sport as it combined private charity with royal patronage in a typically British alternative to formal political initiatives through government (Holt, 1989). The therapeutic effect of exercise in the economic depression of the inter-war years, the increasing prestige attached to performances at the international level and the need to create higher levels of fitness for future conflict all contributed towards a recreational philosophy. The government nurtured the new 'athleticism' by setting up a National Fitness Council (NFC) in 1937 and a National Advisory Council for Physical Training (NACPT), which funded several full-time organisers for sport, the first of which was for amateur boxing. This type of initiative supplemented the work of the municipalities. Initiatives from this point were taken by the government, an early example of which was the Physical Training and Recreation Act in July of 1937, which made available through the Ministry of Education modest amounts of public money to aid voluntary organisations in the provision and equipment for gymnasiums, playing fields, swimming baths, bathing places, holiday camps and camping sites, but it must be noted that only part of the £2 million allocated over the three year contract was spent on sport (Hill, 2002). The motivation here was a perceived need to equip the nation physically for war, and although the involvement fell short of that of the Soviet Union and Fascist Italy, it nevertheless established a precedent for government action in the future.

On the whole, however, government at the national level still preferred to work through independent voluntary organisations such as the NPFA and the Central Council of Physical Recreation Training (CCPRT) (established 1935) because of the importance attached to the concept of 'voluntarism' (Hill, 2002). In 1945 when Labour swept to power with the most progressive manifesto seen in British politics to that time, the principle of voluntarism remained in sport when elsewhere a strong learning towards public ownership and initiative was evident. This principle has withstood the test of time in many cases and continues to serve as a primary management instrument in the success of organisations within England

today. This concept continues to play a significant role in the management of student sport within the BUSA organisation and will be examined in the following chapter.

It was not until the 'welfare capitalism' of the Macmillan and Wilson years that the 'State' accepted responsibility for the provision of sports and facilities on the national level. The primary purpose of the national intervention of the government was directly associated with the World War II years. The political leaders were aware that sport helped rather than hindered the war effort, and defended the position against some quite severe patriotic sentiment. As a result, the Trades Union Congress initiative 'Leisure For All' aimed at improving leisure opportunities and facilities after the war, linked with the Youth Advisory Council's plea for better sporting and leisure facilities for young people within the nation was launched. The launch was significant as it marked a key national policy set by the government.

Another prominent Victorian legacy of recreational activities and sport was that of 'socialising' and much of the language of the early clubs reflects this with many styling themselves as 'societies'. Many early societies were formed by small groups of friends seeking diversions, an example being the Dresden Boat Club of 1839, where rule 10 of the constitution state that, "…any members having once belonged to the club remain as long as the timbers of the boat hold together and that their sports club purpose was essentially social" (Wigglesworth, 1996:69). This was often made apparent by their titles as in the Bullingdon Cricket and Dining Club, which was established to play cricket once a week but to dine twice weekly. Often the titles of many like clubs established during the late 19th century provided its members with opportunities for family outings of swimming, canoeing and picnic trips. This was also the case with lawn tennis in its first years of the All England Lawn and Tennis and Croquet Club initiated a serious championship in 1877, at which the Committee recorded that they had chosen the best seats for themselves and friends. The Committee's priorities cannot only be gauged in relation to ticket allocation but its approach in setting aside two rest days on the first Friday and Saturday to avoid a clash with the highlight of the social season, the Eton and Harrow cricket match (Wigglesworth, 1996).

During the same period was the annual 'Varsity' cricket match, which grew to become a fiercely contested event to the dismay of its creator Charles Wordsworth, who had also been responsible for the University Boat Race in 1829, since both events had been the result of informal arrangements amongst old school friends. As Wordsworth was a

prominent figure in the development of 'recreationalism', he criticised the 'professionalism' of the participants of the events as this was far removed from his original concept of 'pure recreation', but by then the sporting excellence in many situations brought about the growth of professionalism had replaced the simple pleasures of participation with the overwhelming desire for victory. Fortunately, for Wordsworth, this was not always the case in all clubs or organisations and recreationalism continued to flourish around the country throughout the Victorian time period and into the 20th century.

**Post World War II England and Sport**

Although the primary focus of the analysis of English sport values in this chapter is centred on the 'amateur' values in the 1850-1910 period because of the significant role in the creation of sport today, a brief overview of the post-World War II (1950 – present) period relating to the sport consumer culture and mass-media, the 'traditional' values of the current Political culture, and major dispositions within English society today is provided in order to identify any general tendencies in the sporting culture of England.

The post-1950's era has seen a dramatic development in sport and market forces (Holt, 1989; Slack, 2004). Key examples include the maximum wage and the retain and transfer system in football, the distinction between the gentlemen and players in cricket and tennis abandoning the amateur and professional labels and simply labelling competitors 'players' from 1967 on (Holt, 1989). The post-1950's witnessed a rush of profits from sport that provides a contemporary context against which to measure the amateur hegemony of the 19th century and the control of commercialisation during that period. Spectator sport created an opportunity for earnings of the professional and potential large profits that could be made by both clubs and organisations. The role of 'commercialism' changed during this period as professionalism was limited up until the 1950's because the 'amateur' gentleman had not permitted the market forces to enter the world of sport in many areas of sport during the time. There was, however, a long standing tradition of professionalism, which centred on jockeys and pugilists (Holt, 1989). Sporting gentlemen of the pre-Victorian period saw no harm in making money through playing games, so long as it was not a matter of gambling, nor did they mind mixing with others of a lower class. Yet in Victorian Britain, as previously discussed in this chapter, the alliance of wealth and birth formed in the Public School infused sport with a new idealism whilst simultaneously segregating the elite from members of the lower class taking the same form of exercise. More striking during the Victorian period was the segregation of certain sections of the business community that excluded itself from the commercial forces of sport.

The rule of sport by amateurs kept capitalism at bay in British sport in many cases up until the post-World War II era. All sports came to make sharp distinctions between those who received payment and those who did not. Some amateur associations went as far as legal prosecution to prevent any payment or profit derived from the activities they controlled. Of the sports in which payment was permitted, for example football, there was still no active engagement with the free market. The historical hostility to commercialism among ruling bodies of sport is indisputable: this will be highlighted in certain aspects of the examination of BUSA in the following chapter. However, there were areas of commercial penetration of English sport heading into the post-1950's period. It was this period when sport certainly responded to the demand of the urban worker for entertainment. Professional football is the obvious case. Today, with hundreds of thousands of paying spectators each week, rising transfer fees into the millions, and the registration of clubs as limited liability companies, it seems reasonable to conclude that professional football is a 'business'. Key influences that are highlighted here in the penetration of 'commercialism' into English sport in the post-1950 era were the emergence of consumer-capitalism and mass-televised spectator sport (Holt, 1989; Slack, 2004).

Although professionalism was restricted and most governing sport bodies held themselves aloof from the pursuit of profit, the impact of 'television' is significant in the impression on sport becoming part of the 'leisure' industry catering for the needs of a new kind of consumer in the post-1950 era. Televised sport cannot be ignored as it demonstrates the deeper cultural values and ideologies that are reproduced through mediated sport because they are integral to naturalising and reproducing dominant notions of competition, global capitalism, nationalism and the gender order, especially in the case of the United States and intercollegiate sport, which serves as a primary analysis for this study's comparative dimension. In short, the immense impact that televised sporting spectacles have in reproducing power relations that shape our various social identities cannot be underestimated (Slack, 2004). Spectator sport seems to be a part of a wider system of entertainment, which embraced English society from the 1950's on. The growth of the popular press, as previously discussed, brought the latest sporting news to the breakfast tables of the nation and clearly played a crucial role in defining sport as part of a commercialised mass culture (Holt, 1989). However, the emergence of commercial investment in sport to unprecedented levels was not fully embraced until the arrival of mass-television. The enormous success of televised sport since the 1980's in particular has

certainly been decisive in turning matches into 'media events' and in attracting commercial investment at unprecedented levels (Slack, 2004).

*'Tradition' Values and the Political Culture*

The political culture is one of the primary shaping factors of present day English society. The English governance has changed fundamentally in many ways, but tradition still has a hold on many areas of the institutional agencies that run the country (Beetham and Weir, 1999; Cuncliffe, 2003). As a member of the G9 group of countries, the UK is still acknowledged as a major power in the world. Executive power is vested in 'the Crown', yet while the Queen may reign formally, it is the Prime Minister and other ministers who effectively govern. In the absence of a formally written constitution, the doctrine of parliamentary supremacy in law making is unrestrained by constitutional limits, no formal separation of powers between the executive and Parliament exists, and the judiciary is subordinate to Parliament (Beetham and Weir, 1999; Cuncliffe, 2003).

No one knows exactly what to call the executive: it is usually English referred to as 'The Cabinet.' The state bureaucracy, the civil service, is often known simply as 'Whitehall'. Thus, the shape of both the state and executive is half-hidden. In the public eye, few are sure where ultimate authority lies: with the Queen or 'Crown', the Prime Minister, the Cabinet, Ministers, the House of Commons, Parliament, the state bureaucracy, the people? The executive and Parliament are subject to informal constitutional rules, known as conventions, which are constantly changing (Beetham and Weir, 1999; Cuncliffe, 2003). Much of what actually goes on under the conventions, procedures and understandings of the 'unwritten constitution' has its roots in its political history. This history through tradition continues to have a powerful and profound influence on current political and democratic practice (Beetham and Weir, 1999). It is examples such as the political structure that serve as an indicator for major organisations in England such as BUSA, that are being shaped and affected today by the rich tapestry of the past.

In order to understand the English form of democracy, it is necessary first to examine the political tradition and culture that in part shape it. English constitutional arrangements are, as the constitutional theorist Moodie (1964:14) argued, "… a continuously changing blend of the ancient and modern". Government in England, Parliament, the civil service and the courts are long-standing institutions with a pre-democratic history and culture that still inform their formal processes and informal behaviour. Political scientists often refer to this as 'British exceptionalism' (Beetham and Weir, 1999). It is traits such as 'British

exceptionalism' that continue through historical and cultural history to inform the current processes and behaviour of other systems present in England, such as university sport.

In 1988, Margaret Thatcher then Prime Minister noted that since 'Magna Carta' in 1215, England has pioneered and developed representative institutions to stand as examples of freedom (Beetham and Weir, 1999). England has experienced a long uninterrupted tradition of partially representative government under the law since 1689. The partially representative government up until 1950 was a prime example of England holding on to traditional values and being reluctant to change with modern times (Cuncliffe, 2003). This may have a direct impact on English society today and the effect on how institutions, such as university sport are run.

Today, there are still genuine tensions between the principles of liberty and democracy in England. Issues between individual or minority rights and majority decisions, and between principles of constitutionalism and the rule of law and the idea of popular sovereignty. The historic notion of liberty was, and still is, strongly based on property rights. This hold on property rights still serves as a dividing force for a true democracy to exist in England today (Beetham and Weir, 1999; Cuncliffe, 2003). The resolute belief in England's democratic past is but one example of long-standing and traditional ideas that still shape its democratic politics. Obstinate beliefs of the past existing in the democratic structure of England today can also be seen in the university sport structure of England.

*Major Dispositions within English Society*

England can be viewed today as a liberal-conservative middle-class society with 'tradition' as a major disposition influencing society (Butterworth and Weir, 1984; Jones, 1984; Goldthorpe, 1987; Butcher, 1995; Hutton, 1995; King, 1999; and Beetham and Weir, 1999; Cuncliffe, 2003). A strong social attitude or value allegedly present in English society is the 'Dunkirk Spirit'[2] (Cunliffe, 2003). The operation was seen as a glorious triumph. This 'never-say-die' spirit contributed to the survival and freedom of the country during World War II. This is a trait, which perhaps assists the country in becoming a guarded institution with a strong hold on what has worked in the past (Cuncliffe, 2003). In King's (1999) view, the same incapacity for acknowledging defeat has caused English society in many

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[2] The 'Dunkirk Spirit' is referred to as the incapacity for acknowledging defeat and living to fight another day. The 'Dunkirk Spirit' was a direct result from World War II. In World War II, by the end of May 1940, the British forces fighting to halt the advance of the Germans through France found themselves in what appeared to be an inescapable corner. With nowhere to go, the forces executed the evacuation of Dunkirk: some 600 boats of all shapes and sizes were brought to their aid by the British Navy in a desperate attempt to save the lives of the armed forces (Cunliffe, 2003).

ways to practise stubborn habit rather than logic in allowing English citizens confidence that their way is right even when others lay down the law. Many people and institutions in English society will work out things their own way, and change only when a better method has been worked out. Educators have referred to this trait of so-called 'muddling through' as 'pragmatism' (King, 1999). Such an attitude has contributed to university sports bodies such as (BUSA) in becoming a guarded institution in its own right holding on to 'traditional' methods and values that have worked in the past.

Whatever the term, 'pragmatism' or 'muddling through', the trait continues to be entrenched in English society today; it has also prompted a degree of adaptability towards present-day societal changes. This 'concept of adaptability' (Butterworth and Weir, 1984) has encouraged willingness to experiment and a readiness to tolerate other people's experiments. English society's attitude towards new experiments or new ways of doing things has primarily been short-term in nature and considered doomed to rejection at the first sign of trouble (Jones, 1984). But, Cuncliffe (2003) also sees this habit or trait of 'muddling through' in providing much glory to England in allowing the country to retain the best of the old amidst the rapid changes of the 21st century and the pressure it puts on society to change with the current times. It is strong societal attitudes such as 'muddling through' in England that shapes institutions like university sports. What needs to be addressed in university sport is how much tradition should be retained before moving forward in changing the system behaviours to at least acknowledge the importance attached by athletes to 'winning' in the present day cultural climate, an issue that is addressed in Chapter 6.

A major factor in the presence of 'pragmatism' in English society is attributed to the concept of 'empiricism' (Butterworth and Weir, 1984). The concept emphasises a changing response to evolving challenges. Because 'empiricism' is rooted in the belief that all knowledge is derived from past experiences, most English societal structures demonstrate an evolutionary approach. An evolutionary approach is effective in many ways, but England's move into the 21st century has been affected by an apparent reluctance to break away from some of the values and principles that are deemed traditional (Beetham and Weir, 1999). Empiricism has been at the core of the evolution of English society and the 'English character' (Beetham and Weir, 1999). This 'English character' is present in the structure of university sport in England as well. It is this belief that all knowledge is derived from past experiences that provides the basis for the structure of university sports.

This concept is considered in Chapter 3 when the current university sport organisation is examined with reference to BUSA.

The strong presence of 'pragmatism' and 'empiricism' in England produces a feature of English society that causes a lasting impression on foreigners with its constriction on imagination and aspiration. There is an apparent lack of vigour and daring sense in exploring and taking on new ideas and ways of doing things (Butterworth and Weir, 1984). In many cases, there are dependant grips on past practices, those who try to break away from traditional ways of doing things tend to lack self-confidence and innovators on many accounts are not trusted. The demand for imagination and ideas are too restricted, curiosity is confined, and people are stuck on roads that lead to conventional paths (Butterworth and Weir, 1984). This trait of English social attitudes impacts on the institutional enterprises such as university sports and the willingness of the universities to change past practices. However, Beetham and Weir (1999) note that there are many variations to the 'stereo-typical' view of English society lacking vigour or a daring sense to explore new ideas or ways of doing things. Industries do attempt to find better techniques through research, many people are constantly striving to break the mould of the traditional practices that have been grounded in society for so many years, and universities are trying different educational and sport schemes.

In looking at both the current political culture and major dispositions in England, it is striking to see the adherence to traditional practices and values that have been present and have worked in the past. It is this adherence to what has worked in the past that influences the organisational structure, key policies that inherently create the existing ethos of BUSA in establishing 'amateurism' as the primary motive for the administration, coaches and athletes that are involved in the system.

**Section IV: The Post-Industrial Era and Contemporary Sport in the United States**

Sport evolved from an essentially unorganised activity to a highly structured and organised phenomenon during the latter stages of the 19th and early years of the 20th century in the United States (1850-1910) (Guttmann, 1978; Hardy, 1981; Radar, 1983; Noverr, 1983; Riess, 1989; Gorn and Goldstein, 1993; Wiggins, 1995; Riess, 1997; Eitzen, 2001). The post-industrialisation era was a period of revolutionary change that profoundly altered the total fabric of American life, for better or worse (Noverr, 1984). Some examples of the many ways in which American life was influenced are the Protestant temperament and the decline of religious opposition to recreation, urbanisation and the rapid rise in

industrialisation, new technologies, post civil war era (1865-1910) which included a massive tide of immigration, leisure activities, expanding middle and working classes, and the influence of the British concept of 'amateurism' that all played roles in the establishment of governing bodies in collegiate sport, increased organisation and control of amateur athletics, and growing stability of professional sport (Wiggins, 1995). This period alone witnessed the founding of American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education; formation of the National Croquet Association; founding of the League of American Wheelmen; staging of the first National Women's singles tennis championship; organisation of the Amateur Athletic Union; invention of basketball and volleyball; beginning of Davis Cup tennis competition; formation of the American League of Professional Baseball Clubs; and the founding of both the Playground Association of America and the National Collegiate Athletic Association.

*The Protestant Ethic*

Before an examining the post-Industrialisation era in American sport, the Protestant Ethic and the influence on contemporary sport cannot be overlooked. In the late 16th and early 17th centuries, recreation had become a major source of religious and political conflict. In England, the Puritan religious temperament led the crusade against strict Sabbath laws and suppression of traditional holidays. The Puritans wanted a reform in the Church of England, as there were two modes of thought during this time; one which rested on the past, which encompassed the old ruling class, church hierarchy and the country side (Radar, 1983); and the second thought rested on the future, the cities, the merchants and the Puritan Ethic. The key to Puritan antipathy toward the ancient customs of the villages was the belief that, "… God had extended to every man a calling. Glorifying and absorbing the end of man's earthly existence. Every Puritan should strive to become, a 'moral athlete'" (Radar, 1983:10). While play was essentially frivolous and unproductive, according to the established society of England during this time, close attention to one's calling furthered divine purposes. To do less, if play was not glorifying God, than it was considered a grievance and sin.

The colonial settlers from England and Europe arrived in the United States in the 17th century with their own popular recreations that originated from their pastimes (Gorn and Goldstein, 1993). The ways that colonials played, however, bear little resemblance to twentieth-century practices. The colonial settlers did not believe that athletics built character, or made men out of boys, or inculcated the ethic of fair play. Sports used readily available implements and most often occurred spontaneously whenever people gathered

together: swimming in a pond or skating on it in the winter, bowling on the town green or at the crossroads tavern, playing rounders in the street or football in the pasture (Gorn and Goldstein, 1993). As they had in England, those with a Puritan or industrious temperament who fled to the United States tried to legislate a strict observance of the Sabbath, abolish the traditional holidays, and restrict or eliminate the old village recreations. While those of Puritan temperament introduced numerous laws, especially in the New England colonies, the Puritan temperament did not prevent the colonial settlers from engaging in traditional forms of play. Conditions of fulfilling one's recreational calling was justified and approved. Key figures within the Protestant Church at the time called for 'diversion' and that recreation must glorify God. The scope and end of all recreation is that God may be honoured in and by them. Nonetheless, the conscientious Puritan always worried that recreation would become an end itself. To the Puritans, play often stimulated the passions, leading to deceit, feasting, dancing, gambling, sexual immortality, and the neglect of one's calling.

Puritanism was not only the major religious temperament in the American colonies. Settlers in the New England colonies, later called 'evangelicals', departed from the both the main body of Puritans and from conventional Anglicanism. The 'evangelicals' rejected the Puritan covenant of grace in which God virtually promised salvation to those men who would believe in 'Jesus' as the Saviour and strive to lead pious lives. The evangelicals insisted instead that man could obtain salvation only as a free gift from God. With that great awakening, a religious revival swept through the colonies in the 1730's and 1740's. The Protestant temperament, whether in the evangelical or more moderate Puritan forms, left a profound imprint on the history of American sport (Radar, 1983). Perhaps Dr. Benjamin Rush and Benjamin Franklin exemplified advanced moderate thinking about folk games during this time best, as they noted while favouring exercise by walking or swimming, they called for an end of Sunday amusements, clubs, cockfighting, horse racing and affairs. To Rush and Franklin, a republic of virtue could not be founded on the idle amusements of the decadent monarchies of Europe (Radar, 1983).

In a larger cultural sense, the American colonies were simply a provincial outpost of the British empire, the colonist pastimes were the result of the interaction between the customs of people brought with them from Europe and the new World circumstances that were present. The dispersion of the settlers, the need for 'hard work' and the religious sentiments of the Puritans and evangelicals hampered the growth of sport during the time but shaped attitudes of future generations.

*The Evolution of the City*

The evolution of the city stimulated by the industrial revolution, more than any other single factor, influenced the development of organized or modern sport and recreational athletic pastimes in America. Nearly all-contemporary major sports evolved, or were invented, in the city. The city was the place where sport became rationalized, specialized, organized, commercialised, and professionalised (Guttmann, 1978; Hardy, 1981; Riess, 1989; Gorn and Goldstein, 1993; Riess, 1997). As cities underwent the process of urbanization from 1820-1870 in America, they evolved into larger and more complex units that became parts of regional and national systems of cities and they played an active role in the rise of sports. According to Riess (1989) cities were composed of:

- spatial dimensions
- governments and laws
- neighbourhoods
- social classes
- ethnic groups
- voluntary organizations
- communication & transportation networks
- value systems
- public behaviour

It was these entities that interacted during the post-industrial era (1850-1910) to create changes in the cities that stimulated a sports revolution. Examples include the formation of clubs such as New York Knickerbocker Baseball Club organised (1845); first intercollegiate athletic contest (1852); New York Athletic Club founded (1866); first all professional baseball club (1869); Amateur Athletic Union organised (1888); basketball invented by James Naismith (1891); revival of the modern Olympic Games (1896); first modern World Series (1903); and the Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States (NCAA) founded in (1905). Urbanisation, technological innovations, rising per capita incomes, and the new social and cultural order combined in complex ways that stimulated a sports revolution and a new era of American sport (Radar, 1983; Wiggins, 1995).

Urban development directly influenced the sporting culture and athletic institutions of their inhabitants, which impacted on certain aspects of city building, which in turn shaped American sport (Riess, 1989). American sport history is largely the product of the constant, continuous interaction of the elements of urbanization, physical structure, social organizations and value systems. Hardy (1981) proposed two perspectives on the general outline that links the rise of modern sports to the urban complex. Simplified, the first

perspective suggests that as cities grew in size, population and density, Americans felt a longing for the outdoor life and sporting activities that were being swallowed up by the stultifying regime of the machine or industrial age. The countryside was inaccessible to most city dwellers. Before succumbing to the frustrations, the routine and the sheer dullness of an urban-industrial culture, Americans discovered and nurtured games and pastimes that let off steam and at the same time strengthened their bodies and spirits for another round of city life (Hardy, 1981). The viewpoint is anti-urban and primarily concentrates on the negative features of urban living. By itself, this perspective does not explain the material forces that enabled new leisure pursuits to develop and thrive.

The second perspective proposed by Hardy (1981) delves deeper into the study on urbanization, the period between (1820-1870), influences on modern sports and the positive aspects it produced in American society. Hardy (1981) and indeed others (Riess, 1989 and 1997; and Radar, 1996) note that the city's contributions were multiple: a) improved transportation increased the scope of competition and enabled more residents to participate or watch; b) a higher standard of living, more free time, and more discretionary income improved the recreation opportunities of an ever-wider segment of the urban population; c) swifter, cheaper modes of communication like the telegraph and the 'penny' press helped to whip up enthusiasm for sports and games; and d) larger more concentrated populations alone meant a greater market of consumers for sporting equipment, entertainment, and information.

During the primary period of urbanisation in America (1820-1870), the percentage of the population living in cities quadrupled; the period had the greatest proportionate growth in urban population in the nation's history (Riess, 1989). In 1820 there were twenty-three cities with over 10,000 residents compared with one hundred cities with over 10,000 residents in 1860. Before 1820, only five percent of the national population lived in cities. The nation's growth rate was phenomenal during this period. The population of the country totalled approximately 47 million in 1877 and had increased to 67 million in 1893. In the 1880's, nearly 5.25 million immigrants arrived and in the 1890's about 3.75 million landed from Europe (Noverr, 1983). Most of these immigrants in the latter part of the 19th century were from central and Eastern Europe and they were generally Catholic or Jewish and possessed cultural customs which made them 'different' from the 'Old Stock' Americans. America saw a considerable shift from rural living to city living (Gorn and Goldstein, 1993; Riess, 1997). These changes to city living created many new circumstances that people had not dealt with living in the countryside, such as the lack of

available space needed for recreational activities (Riess, 1997). The rise of the city in America created new dimensions of, and inventions linked to, a new lifestyle that fitted with the fast-pace city life that America would now adopt.

### *Technological Innovations and Spectator Sport*

Improvements in communication and transportation were two major changes that occurred alongside the rise of the city in America. Although American sport continued to have deep roots in rural life and in smaller towns, it was in the cities that sports grew most rapidly (Radar, 1996). Not only could people gather more easily in cities for playing and watching games but also news of sporting events could be conveyed far more quickly than in the countryside. Communication and transportation improvements aided the development of city life during the process of urbanisation in America. These improvements not only helped American society develop, but also they contributed to the making of modern sports.

Perhaps the most important ingredient for industrial growth was the development of the nationwide network of railroads and the concomitant development of heavy industry such as steel, combined with the expansion of the development of the fuel industries such as oil and coal (Noverr, 1983). The simultaneous development of industrial capacity created competition and financial dealings which had not been witnessed to this point in North America. The drive for a national market was made possible because of the railroad network, this resulted in the unprecedented consolidation and integration of manufacturing and industrial enterprises. The high cost of industrial expansion and the need to control a substantial portion of the consumer market often resulted in ruthless competitive practices among business rivals as they sought to 'win at all costs' in order to attain the significant share of the market available. Heilbroner (1977:3) noted in the, *'The Economic Transformation of America'* that, "…the most important immediate effect was a devastating new form of competition, not just in steal, but in virtually all industries with heavy fixed costs, railroads, coal, and copper." The result was that the cutthroat competition soon forced smaller firms with less wealth against the wall.

In regard to the influence in the making of modern sport in America, the railroad system was first seen as important in America in 1830 (Riess, 1989; Gorn and Goldstein, 1993; Radar, 1996; and Riess, 1997). Travel from Detroit to New York had taken at least two weeks in 1830; by 1857 the trip required only an overnight train ride. As early as 1842, the Long Island Railroad reportedly carried some 30,000 passengers to the Fashion-Peytona

horse race. A rapidly expanding railway network permitted the founding of the National League of professional baseball in 1876. The National League included franchises as geographically as far as Boston and St. Louis (Radar, 1996). Transportation improvements such as the railroad allowed (as in England) sports to expand from local games, to regional and eventually national contests. As a result, they induced sport marketers to confine sports to a time length and have the games started at specific times to allow for people to catch the train to, and from, the game (Radar, 1996).

Equally rapid improvements in communication encouraged a sporting revolution as well (Riess, 1989; Radar, 1996; Gorn and Goldstein 1997; and Riess, 1997). The mass production of watches in the early nineteenth century permitted the scheduling and advertising in advance of the precise starting times for sporting events (Radar, 1996). The increased interest in sport within the city population led to the desire to obtain match results instantly. Consequently fans turned to the newly invented telegraph. In 1867, for example, Philadelphians jammed the telegraph and newspaper offices to find out if their beloved 'Athletics' had crushed the 'Unions of Morrisania', New Jersey in a baseball match (Radar, 1996). Two forms of print media caused public interest in sports: 1) the regular daily newspaper and 2) the weekly-specialized sheet devoted to covering all aspects of nineteenth-century leisure life (Riess, 1989; Radar, 1996). These two kinds of newspapers were first targeted at the upper class of American society. William Trotter Porter's *Spirit of the Times,* a weekly publication that began in 1831, was noted as being America's first premier sporting sheet (Radar, 1996). By 1856 it claimed to have 40,000 subscribers scattered across the nation. Unpaid, largely untutored authors sent in reports to Porter of sports, games, and curiosities. Most sporting sheets appeared briefly and sporadically, but their sheer numbers increased from three in the 1840's to forty-eight in the 1890's. Nearly all of the weeklies devoted more space to the theatre than to sports, a practice, which suggests the close connections between all forms of nineteenth-century commercial leisure. Rising literacy rates, along with new printing technology, broadened the potential market for sporting journalism. But, it was not until the 1880's that newspapers recognized the value of continuous sports reporting (Radar, 1996).

The development of the railroad and telegraph made possible long distance team travel as well as the instantaneous transmission of scores that newspapers could more quickly report the results of sporting events and thus generate interest among the American public. Further innovations included the electric light bulb which eventually made possible night contests, the Kodak camera which captured sports highlights, the sewing machine and the

factory system, which meant it was easier to make uniforms and equipment that provided the creation of sporting good promoters and manufacturers such as Michael Phelan, John Brunswick, Al Reach, George Wright, and Albert Spalding.

Within a half century in America, sport developed from the pre-modern sports brought over by the colonial settlers to the modern sports present today. Sport became one of the most popular forms of entertainment for Americans during this time period. Commercialised spectator sports such as baseball developed into highly organized and rationalized enterprises (Radar, 1996). The post-industrial revolution caused not only changes in the development of American society, but also major changes in the development of the sporting culture as well (Guttmann, 1978; Hardy, 1981; Riess, 1989; Gorn and Goldstein, 1993; Riess, 1997). America was becoming highly commercialised, standardized and professionalised heading into the post-civil war era (1865-1910) (Riess, 1989).

**Post-Civil War Era and the 'Gilded Age'**

The period from 1865-1910 (post-civil war) is often described as the 'Gilded Age', a term used by Mark Twain to title a novel published in 1873 that looked at the American drive for 'success' and profits and often the unscrupulous activities of businessmen and politicians to grab a share of profits (Noverr, 1983). Although these activities did occur, Hays (1957) argues in *The Response to Industrialism, 1885-1914* that the basic thrust of social, economic, political and sport movements during this era constituted not only a reaction to corporate control, but also against 'industrialism' and the many ways in which it affected the lives of Americans. In analysing the challenges facing the nation in the post-Civil War period or as many referred to this time as the *'Era of Reconstruction'*, the Civil War was the ultimate human solution, a physical confrontation between two opposing sides (north v. south). It was a time of heroism, valour, and glory. Most importantly, the war, time and progress during this era had altered the world, in that little reliance could be placed upon pre-war principles and customs. The principles had little relevance in a world that required constant adjustments to continuously changing situations (Noverr, 1983). Although the Industrial Revolution had made its impact on the United States prior to the Civil War, it was in the post-Civil War era that the United States underwent the widespread industrialisation that transformed it economically from a primarily rural agricultural society to an urban industrial power.

*The Jeffersonian Tradition and the Democratic Political Philosophy*

When Jefferson wrote the *'Declaration of Independence'*, he was interested in establishing the principle that all men were equal on a moral and spiritual level. Thus, for Jefferson and those who later upheld the 'Jeffersonian tradition', basic human freedoms were superior to economic freedom (Noverr, 1983). However, sometime between 1776 and the latter part of the 19th century, this ideological position experienced a transformation. The idea of property rights was assigned to an equal or superior plane to human rights. When the materialistic post-Civil War generation looked back upon the democratic value system, they found ways in which they could alter the principles to a philosophy by which they could justify their actions. For industrialists and businessmen in particular, according to McCloskey (1951:7), "…liberty was translated as the freedom to engage in economic enterprise, while the more basic and humane significance of the term was gradually submerged." Thus, the new American belief system became centred around the paramount rights of property and the transformation of 'personal worth into an exchange value'. Within this transformation of the democratic political philosophy, capitalistic entrepreneurs could justify their motives and actions under the economic freedom and raise their 'moral' indignation when they perceived any threat of restriction or their activities.

*Doctrines of Social Darwinism*

The philosophical rationale necessary to calm any remaining conscience concerning the new democratic philosophy that emerged in the post-Civil War era concerning 'property rights' and their value on the same ground as 'human rights' was further justified by the doctrines of Social Darwinism. English philosopher, Herbert Spencer, who 'translated' Darwinian biological principles of evolution into the social sphere, states that, "… the biological principles of the 'struggle existence', 'natural selection', and 'survival of the fittest', came to be represented by 'business competition', 'laissez-faire', and the 'giant corporation'" (Noverr, 1983:7). From this starting point, Social Darwinism in the United States was theorised by William Graham Sumner, a professor at Yale. Sumner believed that life essentially was a struggle. He believed in the 'survival of the fittest' mentality proposed by Darwin, in that the weak and indigent should not be helped because any aid contributed to the degeneration of the society. The rich should not aid the poor because the wealthy would be doing a 'moral' wrong if they helped the 'unfit' to survive.

The industrial leaders of the time were encouraged greatly by the concept of Social Darwinism that was established in the United States, as people had to accommodate

themselves to the great inequality of environment, the concentration of business, industrial, and commercial wealth in the hands of the few, and the law of competition between these, as being not only beneficial but essential for the future progress of America. Prominent industrial leaders of the time (e.g. the Carnegies and Rockefellers) were satisfied with the concept of Social Darwinism, they were equally excited by the sermon, *'Acres of Diamonds'* given by the distinguished Reverend Russell Conwell, in which he declared it was every man's duty to become wealthy and to "…make money honestly is to preach the gospel" He furthered added that man should, "…trust in God and in business for everything that is worth living for on earth" (Noverr, 1983:8).

The post-Civil War period witnessed an athletic revolution. According to Betts (1974) cited in Noverr (1983:9), "…the roots of our sporting heritage lie in the horse racing and fox hunting of the colonial era, but the main features of modern sport appeared only in the middle years of the 19$^{th}$ century." Such factors that led to the development of modern sport included the decline of rural influence, the decline of the Puritan orthodoxy, the rise of the English athletic movement, the impact of immigrants and frontier traditions and the promotion of sports. Sports that are embedded into the fabric of American society today, were not even in existence in the early 19$^{th}$ century, or were virtually unknown. These include such spectator sports as baseball, basketball and grid- iron football. Contemporaries like Albert Bushell Hart, believed that athletics had become so popular in college that the caricature of the college student is no longer the long haired, stoop shouldered kind, but a person of abnormal biceps and rudimentary brains (Noverr, 1983). Hart cited in (Noverr, 1983:11) stated that, "… it must be remembered that the enthusiasm for sport is not confined to the college student, but is a feature of modern life outside as well as inside the colleges." Important case studies that portray key features of contemporary sport during this era include voluntary associations and the development of the sport club (e.g. New York Athletic Club) and America's sporting pastime, baseball.

*Voluntary Associations: The Role of the Sport Clubs*

The development of the labour movement within the industrial society of the late 19$^{th}$ century changed the earlier habits and customs that held communities together before this era. A shift towards 'individualism' in regards to personal resources and the rise of wage payments completed the isolation of the individual from the group. While accepting the industrial society, 'unions' set to replace the community that had been disintegrated within America during this period. Sports could play a vital role in promoting social reintegration and new connections with the community (Noverr, 1983; Radar, 1983). Americans turned

to new forms of community and the sports club as one type of voluntary association and became one of the basic means by which certain groups sought to establish sub communities within the larger society. Radar (1983) asserts that there were two types of sub communities developed: ethnic and status. As Radar (1983) cited in Noverr (1983:13) notes "the ethnic community usually arose from contradictory forces of acceptance and rejection of the immigrant by the majority of society. The status community, by contrast, was a product of status equals who wanted to close their ranks from those they considered inferior."

The sport club, Radar (1983) found, served multi-faceted purposes, an instrument for social exclusion, for the socialisation of youth, and for disciplining the behaviour of its members. In short, the sport club assumed some of the 'traditional' functions of the church, the State, and the geographic community. The sport club of the 19th century provided a tremendous impetus to the growth of American sport. An example of the significant role the sport club had in developing contemporary sport is the formation of the New York Athletic Club in 1866 (Radar, 1983). The sudden rise of sport in England in the middle 19th century decisively influenced the American elite. Would be American aristocrats had always been inclined to follow the fashions set by their English counterparts upper-class. At the beginning of the 1850's, as previously discussed in this chapter, Englishmen 'gentlemen' of the 'Public School' became caught up in the organised sports movement, forming numerous clubs for cricket, athletics, football, rowing and golf. In most cases, the English sportsmen preceded the Americans by a decade or so in giving their sports organised form (Radar, 1983). Inspired by the formation of the London Athletic Club in 1863, the first English amateur championship meet in 1866, and the athletic activities founded in the New York Caledonian Club (NYCC), three well-to-do young athletes founded the NYAC in 1866. In the 1870's, the club primary philosophy had 'player-centred' orientation and assumed the leadership role for new clubs. It sponsored the first national amateur championships in track and field (1876), swimming in (1877), boxing in (1878) and wrestling in (1878) (Radar, 1983).

The 1880's and early 1890's marked the transformation of the club's ethos from a 'player-centred' orientation as the NYAC became more effective as an agency for the establishment of status communities. Increasingly, responsibilities for staging and management of athletics shifted from the active players to the social element (the social element consisted of those club members who were more concerned with the fate of the club as a whole rather than the sport itself). This evolution of amateurism reflected the

subtle, conflicting forces at work within the sporting world during this time. Initially, the clubs seemed unconcerned about insisting upon an amateur-professional distinction. Threatened with the possibility of the invasion by the 'professional' athlete with 'inferior' social credentials, working class, ethnics and blacks, the club gradually placed restrictions on participants at their athletic meets. In 1876, the NYAC defined an amateur as, "… any person who has never competed in an open competition for public or admission money, or with professionals for a prise, nor has at any period in his life taught or assisted in the pursuit of athletic exercises as a means of livelihood" (cited in Radar, 1983: 58). The definition of an 'amateur' proposed by the NYAC and other clubs during this time was a direct result to the threat of the 'professional'. If clubs permitted open professionalism, they could no longer serve as effective agencies of 'status' communities. In short, the clubs had important vested interest in discrimination. Nonetheless, the amateur code's 'rhetoric' versus 'reality' was less restrictive in practice than it was in principle. The American amateur code, unlike its English counterpart, rested neither upon a body of established customs or the sponsorship of an inherited aristocracy. In England, centuries of tradition and the perquisites of old wealth had prescribed behaviour associated with the 'muscular Christian' gentlemen of the 'Public School' that was examined previously in the Chapter. The American athletic clubs, especially those within New York, were often men of new wealth. As a result, they brought with them in many cases acquired values of 'capitalism'. Although, 'fair play' and 'amateur' codes were looked upon to structure sport in the late 19$^{th}$ century, defeating one's rivals by any means within the rules was perfectly consistent with their experiences in the world of commerce and industry. This attitude was paralleled in the sporting scene within America and more specifically the major metropolitan athletic clubs engaged in intense rivalries of fierce competitions.

The games of the metropolitan athletic clubs (e.g. NYAC) began with a 'player-centred' ethos but soon shifted toward a 'fan-centred' orientation in the post-Civil War era. Management and finances of sports formed in these clubs soon came under the control of the social element of the clubs, as a result, these clubs began to charge admissions to their competitions and the athletes were influenced towards increased 'specialisation' and 'professionalism' (Radar, 1983). This was not the case with all forms of sport in America during this time, as examples such as polo, golf, and tennis held on to a 'player-centred' ethos into the 20$^{th}$ century. Clubs such as these, along with the NCAA continued to adhere in practice to an amateur code, the ideals of amateurism acted as a brake, preventing the complete triumph of the 'spectator-centred' ethos that would prevail in many aspects of American sport heading into the 20$^{th}$ century.

*The National Pastime: The Rise of Baseball in the late 19th Century*

Baseball spread quickly across the country during the later half of the 19th century, evolving into a mass cultural movement involving thousands of players from the Eastern seaboard to the coast of California. 'America's Game' was embraced by young men in the country with a passion rarely see in sport during the time (Wiggins, 1995). The reason for the enormous popularity has been a source of much debate by sport historians. In his essay, Story's (1991) analysis of the meaning of baseball in early American culture, outlines prevalent factors that stimulated the strong interest of young men during the late 19th century, some of these include Irish ethnicity, working-class occupations, promotionalism, sponsorship, the masculine subculture and the railroad-based entertainment industry. Story (1991) adds further that the love affair with baseball came about because it fulfilled for young males their emotional needs for 'comradeship', recognition, and order. Although other sports helped fill some of these needs, it was baseball that best served young males during this era and became their salvation during an era characterised by rapid industrialisation and destabilising mobility.

It was in the 1880's that promotionalism, franchise and league formation, expanded seasons, city and world series, tobacco cards, product endorsements, booster clubs, and flamboyant icons that all led to the mass cultural movement in America. Story (1991) argues that this movement can be paralleled with other mass movements during the time such as revivalism or temperance in American society. Although key factors such Irish ethnicity, working class influence and promotionalism were all important to baseball becoming America' pastime, the prominent influence proposed by Story (1991) is attributed to the 'youth' movement and the fascination of the game during the late 19th century. It was the coming of age during the late 1870's and 80's of thousands of youthful players that produced the critical mass of players, spectators and followers on which the mass baseball movement rested. Love and passion were central forces in this movement, as 19th century adults did not want their adolescent sons playing baseball in may circumstances. Baseball was not only a mass movement it was also a youth movement, developed in the face of disapproving authority. Youth movements, as noted by Story (1991) arise because they satisfy deep-seated emotional needs among their adherents. With this in mind, what needs of the adolescent male population during this era did baseball seem to satisfy?

Baseball was an outdoor activity for the summer months of the year. Nineteenth century houses were places of work with poor ventilation and lighting. In the summer, the house or workplace was a great place to get out of. As urbanisation was a key factor in the industrial rise during the late 19th century, housing conditions were cramped, and in many cases held up to 8 or 9 people on average. The streets and vacant lots of the city is where baseball flourished. Early baseball during this time was aggressively physical and simple to learn, unlike the English game of cricket brought over by the colonial settlers. There was endless bursts of action and limitless sprinting with very little dead time during the game itself, which was of major importance as it gave exuberant young males something exciting and vigorous to do outdoors at a time when staying inside was agony and the workplace required unskilled, long hours in the factory (Wiggins, 1995). Baseball in other words was an outlet for the energies of the boisterous young male in a way that languid pursuits of the time such as fishing, saloon games or backyard games such as horseshoes or marbles were not. Baseball's intensely competitive nature, was key in leading young men to develop and hone their physical skills on a more sustained basis. The combination of physical exertion and competitive tension produced 'joy' in the lives of these young men during this impressionable period.

The physical side of baseball was a key factor here, as the premium placed on strength, speed and agility, is significant of the conditions of the 19th century, as America was quickly developing from a 'rough' nation into an industrial power. 'Excellence' in baseball was valued over the boxing ring, as it carried a status to players in a brawling era that held physical prowess and 'grit' in high regard. Physical prowess had a profound importance in the rise of baseball, but of equal importance were the emotional needs of the young males. Young Americans preferred team sports during this era as it promoted three distinctive emotional needs as outlined by Story (1991), comradeship, recognition, and order. While Europeans and the Japanese inclined toward individual sports at this time, American preference for team sports was first manifested in the 1860's and 70's with the emergence of baseball. Victory itself, required actual 'teamwork' and 'comradeship', a constant working together to blend disparate talents. Early artisan players brought this stress 'victory through teamwork' with them from the floor shop and imbued sport with a particular mode of competitive labour excellence. A second emotional need of the young male during this time was recognition. The 19th century was filled with young men from the provinces seeking fortune and fame, a little recognition in the newly formed urban cities of America. Baseball provided the collective achievements of the team through the sum of a series of individual actions. Recognition was gained both by individual

achievements (e.g. home run) and by the acceptance of one's team-mates, their own distinctive strengths and idiosyncrasies that the young male could accomplish for their 'mates' (Wiggins, 1995). 19th century boys, as Story (1991) noted may have felt the need for recognition, as mid-19th century fathers, both immigrant and native born, commonly related to their sons in two ways: by neglect because of the long hours that the industrial era required in the factory; and by domination and control that led to the youth movement that was recognised earlier as a central force in the rise of baseball.

Comradeship, recognition but also orders were key factors in the rise of baseball. As Guttmann (1978) notes, baseball may have served as a mechanism for easing the great transition from rural to urban life that has characterised the United States. The destabilising mobility and insubordination particularly evidenced in the brawling cities and experienced by boys in the city streets. Besides seeing their fathers move from job to job, families from neighbourhood to neighbourhood, males born in the 1850's and 1860's lived through war mobilisation and massive influxes of immigrants, sharp financial panic of deep economic depression, crime waves, a saloon culture and gang fights. These young men were tough and had to fight to protect themselves, but even the young male during this time needed refuge from the harsh living situation in the rise of the city, lacking the adult authority to furnish safety in the late 19th century, they found their own, on the baseball field. In closing, some general tendencies can be identified: young males of this generation needed security and order in a society where violence and chaos seemed the norm. Because of the rapid transformation that American society was experiencing during this time, families were not stable both financially and emotionally, the education system could not fill that void and gangs ruled the streets of many cities. Needing security, the young adolescent males sought refuge where they could, and the surrogate family was that of team sports, such as baseball. Of the available team sports during the 1860's and 1870's baseball served as the best option. Baseball included significant characteristics such as security, control, comradeship and recognition, and because the young male was looking for these qualities during the time of rapid industrialisation and the rise of the city, baseball became the salvation of this youth movement (Wiggins, 1995).

## Section V: Socio-Cultural and Historical Values of American Society and 'Commercialism' in Sport

There is a pervasive syndrome of intense and desperate competitive striving in American society. Competitive striving, achievement, mobility and success are major elements of the dominant American Ideology. As indicated by a former athletic director at the University

of Southern California, the relevance of sport to the American Dream when he said, "…athletes develop dedication and a desire to excel in competition, and a realisation that success requires hard work" (Edwards, 1973:71). Sport can be seen as part of the basic institutional fabric of American society, and its dominant ideology can be seen as a mirror of dominant value themes in larger society. The socio-historical approach taken in this section attempts to provide insights into the historical construction of societal roles of significant political, social and cultural patterns that are present within American society. In doing so, sport in the United States is linked to the political, social and cultural milieu with which it is associated.

*Dominant American Values and Sport*

Some people would argue that winning is valued even more than honesty or 'fair play', since only victory is tangibly rewarded by the formal structures or institutions. It is this attitude that can be associated with the social system present in America today. Roth (1973) comments:

> "Winning! Oh, you really can't say enough good things about it. There is nothing quite like it. Win hands down, win going away, win by a landslide, win by accident, win by a nose, win without deserving it. Winning is the tops. Winning is the name of the game. Winning is what it's all about. Winning is the be-all and the end-all, and don't let anybody tell you otherwise. All the world loves a winner. Show me a good loser, and I'll show you a loser" (287-88).

Roth's comment exemplifies the central value present in American society today: 'winning' (Jones, 1984; Figler and Whitaker, 1995). Figler and Whitaker (1995) note that winning and losing are the results of the process known as competition. Berkowitz cited in Figler and Whitaker, (1995) states that competition can be defined as, "…participants seeking an objective in opposition to each other, so that all seekers cannot attain it" (54). He goes on to say that pursuit is the process of competition, while the prize is its product. Without these two elements, competition does not exist in the absence of either element. Thus, there are two different perspectives taken with competition: one may engage in competition emphasising either the process (i.e., participation) or the product (winning at all costs); and some would say that one cannot compete in the absence of either component. Consideration of the two perspectives proposed by Figler and Whitaker (1995) towards competition, lead to the conclusion that a dominant cultural value that exists in American society is the winning attitude. The following section reviews the 'winning' attitude through major social attitudes, institutions, and class structures within America's society, with reference to the direct affect on university sport values.

Edwards (1973) refers to three creeds or ideologies present within American society: 1) the dominant creed; 2) the humanitarian creed; and 3) the equalitarian creed. He observes that the ideologies analysed are all at complete odds with one another but all three different attitudes are included in the American cultural heritage. In addition to these ideologies, Kew (1978) places value orientations in sport in three different perspectives: the 'Counterculture Ethic', the 'Radical Ethic' and the 'Lombardian Ethic'. Kew's Lombardian ethic has particular resonance for the current study in the explanation of the importance of winning that was examined at all levels of university sport.

*The Lombardian Ethic*

The 'Lombardian Ethic' is attributed to Vince Lombardi, who was the legendary coach of the Green Bay Packers of the National Football League (NFL). Lombardi coached the 'Packers' during their glory years of the 1960's and led them to five championships. Figler and Whitaker (1995) note that the Lombardian Ethic dominates American sport, lauding competitiveness above all other values. The Lombardian Ethic's central value was determined and guided by the belief that winning is the reason for competing, it is the ultimate value and goal epitomised in Lombard's assertion that: "… Winning isn't everything, it's the only thing" (cited in Figler and Whitaker, 1995: 65). This 'Virtue of Single-Mindedness' (Kew, 1978) stems from attitudes that exist in America today where winning is stressed in all facets of American society. Those who persevere on the straight and very narrow path to victory will succeed in their occupation (Figler and Whitaker, 1995). In short, participation among American society for its own sake diminishes as the tangible rewards of victory increase. The focus is so narrow that all other values are subordinated to a moment of truth. The culmination of such overwhelming value is that nothing else counts. From the 'Lombardian Ethic' perspective, the ethos of winning that affects social attitudes, major institutions, and class structures that exist within the American society today are reviewed here.

Americans demand winners, winning being the ultimate goal over the pleasure within the activity. Thus, American culture heroes tend to be people like Abraham Lincoln, John D. Rockefeller and Joe Namath, each of whom rose from humble origins to the top of their respective professions. These selected icons in American culture signify the competitive spirit towards achievement or winning attitudes that are glorified and accepted within the society. Eitzen and Sage (1978) commented "… the comparatively striking feature of American culture is its tendency to identify standards of personal excellence with competitive occupational achievement" (60). Thus, American culture is different from

most societies in that competition is located at the heart of its cultural heritage (Jones, 1984). Americans also place a central value on progress and self-improvement (Fawcett and Thomas, 1983; Jones, 1984; Nixon, 1984; and Eitzen, 2001;).

Beginning with an attitude that was created by the colonial settlers from Europe, Americans have a feeling that children's frontiers should not necessarily be the same as those presently facing parents (Jones, 1984). As a result, Americans tend not to be satisfied with the 'status quo', as they neither make the past sacred, nor are they generally content with the present. This is evident within the university sport structure present in America and is addressed in more depth in the Chapter 3. Additionally, material progress is highly valued with the emphasis of having the best of things long being a facet of American life (Fawcett and Thomas, 1983; Jones, 1984; Nixon, 1984; Figler and Whitaker, 1995; and Eitzen, 2001). Through this attitude to winning driving American society, a competitive ethos was created because of the emphasis on the 'prize'. Americans have developed a competitive attitude towards consumption within their society. Success or status is often identified with the person who drives the nicest cars or has the biggest house within the community (Jones, 1984; and Figler and Whitaker, 1995). The Lombardian Ethic drives this significance of materialistic possessions.

The hard work ethic can be regarded as one of the most prominent attitudes that made America the country it is today (Fawcett and Thomas, 1983; Jones, 1984; Nixon, 1984; and Eitzen, 2001). This work was conceptualised by Max Weber when he pointed to a relationship between the emergence of capitalism and the Protestant ethic in Western civilisation. The hard work ethic that is recognisable in American society today can be attributed to the Puritan ethic that was established in the 18th century (Gorn, 1993; Radar, 1996). Gorn (1993) explains that the Puritan creed had to compete with other ideologies that approved class distinctions in other Western civilisations, whereas in America the Puritan creed had a virtual monopoly in that society was not established with deep-rooted beliefs at the time. This in part serves to explain why Americans from the early Puritan days to the present have elevated the status of those persons who are industrious and denigrated those who were not.

*American Sport and 'The State'*
Sport and the political economy will be associated with each other as long as people care about sports and they possess a political quality, being associated with whatever values are endemic in a social system (Figler and Whitaker, 1995). Values that exist both in the

political and sport worlds in America are perseverance, respect for authority, achievement orientation, and support for the incumbent polity (e.g. love of country). Sport has been linked with values as contrasting as democratic ideals in America, socialist ideals in the Soviet Union and fascist ideals in Nazi Germany (Figler and Whitaker, 1995). The flexible quality of sport within its host nation is its ability to be linked with the political system or ideals that exist.

The system for promoting social order and general welfare in the United States can be explained with reference to its Constitution. The network of administrative and bureaucratic agencies that make up this system is often referred to by social scientists as 'the State' (Sage, 1998). It encompasses the government, the elected office-holders in all its branches and levels. Also included in 'the State' is a variety of organisations, including hundreds of appointed officials, the military, and the police and legal system, as well as the many public bureaucracies and agencies involved in opinion shaping and ideology formation. In effect, 'the State' is an organised power of structure, the functions of which are the management and control of society. Sage (1998) notes that 'the State' is inseparably associated with all of America's social institutions and cultural life.

Sage (1998) provides two images or perspectives of American society and the interaction with 'the State': pluralism and hegemony. Pluralists see the state as equally accessible to all citizens and acts in the common interest, remaining outside particular interests but responding to diverse pressures. He notes that pluralists often contend that the interests of the people and the policies of the state are the same. 'The State' then, is regarded as a benign and neutral set of agencies and bureaucracies that have no direct involvement in furthering the functions of other social institutions or cultural practices. The researcher chose the hegemony perspective in order to explain the relationship of sport and the political environment in America because the hegemony perspective links sport and its relationship to the political economy in America to a greater depth than the pluralistic perspective. The hegemony perspective can best be linked with capitalistic societies. A growing theme among scholars that support the hegemony perspective in the past half century has occurred in western capitalist countries such as America in that the role of 'the State' has had an expanding role into both social institutions and cultural practices (Sage, 1998). In summarising the hegemony perspective, Sage (1998) observes:

"… More than ever before men and women now live in the shadow of the state. What they want to achieve, individually or in groups, now mainly depends on the state's sanction and support. But since that sanction and support are not bestowed indiscriminately, they must, ever more directly, seek to influence and shape the state's power and purpose, or try and appropriate it altogether. It is for the state's attention, or for its control, that people compete. It is against the state that beat the waves of social conflict. It is to an ever-greater degree the state which men and women encounter as they confront other men and women. This is why, as social beings, they are also political beings, whether they know it or not. It is possible not to be interested in what the state does, but it is not possible to be unaffected by it" (103).

As Sage (1998) notes, the hegemonic view has expanded its role within capitalistic societies such as America leading into the 21st century. Americans are placed into a social system under 'the State's' guidance where they are taught and guided towards competition within all aspects of their lives.

*Social Class and Sport in the United States*

The United States economy is dominated by a capitalistic society. The relationship between 'the State' and capitalism is complex. The capitalist class does not dictate the State's decision making and the reverse effect can be said about the state's influence towards capitalism. At times, however, both systems apply pressure on each other in influencing decisions made by both parties. Nevertheless, capitalist power can be real without the relationship it has with 'the State.' When referring to American class structure and the significance on the development of contemporary sport, three classes are identified within this study: upper-class, middle class, and working class. The upper class is elite in terms of wealth, income, ownership, privilege, and power, members of this class hold extensive control over the economic system as they own most of the nation's capital and land, and they employ most of the labour force (Sage, 1998). Although, according to Sage (1998), statistics show that the capitalist class is very small, (only 2% of the population), it wields great influence. Indeed, the upper class is influential in defining essential characteristics of American society as a whole, because of its control over important societal resources. Consequently, the upper class plays a vital role in shaping the beliefs and thought patterns that influence the existing social class system.

American society is driven by a particular form of economic enterprise, capitalism, which is inextricably related to other social institutions as well as cultural practices that are present. In its basic meaning, capitalism is an economic system based on the accumulation and investment of capital by private individuals who then become the owners of the means of production and distributing goods and services (Sage, 1998). Capitalist organisations

provide a system stratified into social classes based on relations between capital and wage labour, with a central focus on 'power' relations whereby those who own and control the means of production (capitalist) hold power over those who produce the goods and services (workers). As a result, the working class depends on the capitalist and, therefore, allows the upper-class the 'dominant' view within American society.

Because the United States has a capitalistic economy, class relationships directly link the economic organisation of capitalism to the social relations and institutions making up the rest of American society. As Sage (1998:39) explains,

> "…capitalism, then, is not only an economic system, it is also a complete social system. It functions not only to produce cars and television sets that make a profit for industry owners, it also produces a whole communication universe, a symbolic field, a culture, a control over various social institutions."

The analysis of American culture has to be recognised through the influence of social classes that exist (Sage 1998). Although, Americans are exposed to, and come firmly to believe that, pluralistic ideas such as equality and opportunity have resonance over class divide. Pluralistic influences are derived from America's most important national documents, including the Declaration of Independence and the U.S. Constitution, where the underlying ethos is 'America is the land of opportunity' (Sage, 1998:40). Other slogans such as, 'all men are created equal', 'equality' and 'opportunity', and others like them are imbedded in the dominant ideologies within American society. Social class in the United States demonstrate that during the past 150 years, class struggle by workers has been controlled by the upper class (capitalistic) and the enormous resources it commands. The power of capital has been accompanied by the systematic and consistent ideological discourse designed to advance pluralistic imagery and convince Americans that consideration of class is irrelevant. The effectiveness of this combination of power and persuasion in class consciousness in the general population has allowed the upper-class (capitalistic) ideals based on 'competition' with a hegemonic control over the middle and working classes to remain, with a view that 'equality' and 'opportunity' are the central values overriding the hegemony of the capitalistic class.

The socio-economic elite have always been prominent figures in sport. Indeed, the patronage of the upper class was responsible for the creation and promotion of a number of American sports. For example, America's pastime, baseball, when its rules were first codified around the mid-19th century, was played primarily in 'gentlemen clubs' such as the NYAC, which was mentioned earlier within this chapter. American football achieved

its initial popularity in the elite private colleges of the Northeast (e.g. Princeton, Harvard, Yale). Students from these colleges were predominantly from wealthy families. Basketball originated at the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA), at Springfield College, and initially became popular at exclusive women's colleges in New England (e.g. Smith, Vassar, Wellesley) (Allen, 1987). Historically, access to sport is evident in the time and material resources needed to engage in many sports and in various formal and informal restrictions to participation. Wealthy and powerful groups have traditionally restricted access to 'their' sports. The majority of urban sporting clubs and country clubs during the latter 19th century were upper-middle class institutions operated by the members of the urban socially elite class.

Owners of professional sport teams are among the wealthiest people in the United States. Each year the richest 400 people in America are identified and profiled in *Forbes* magazine, invariably 20 to 30 of them are professional team sports owners (Sage, 1998). The Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) controlled amateur athletics from the latter 19th century until the 1960's when the U.S. Olympic Committee and its sport federations seized control of amateur sports. Both organisations continue to be overwhelmingly associated with American wealth and power. A primary example of the connection between the AAU, the U.S. Olympic Committee and social elitism is illustrated through two men who played prominent roles in both organisations, Avery Brundage and Casper Whitney. Brundage, although born in a working class family, became a millionaire early in his business career. He demonstrated his upper-class social status by two important positions in American amateur sport: President of the AAU and President of the U.S. Olympic Committee. The system of amateur athletics has also been a means of controlling the working-class participation in sport, for amateurism is a product of the 19th century Public School 'gentlemen' of England that established rules and social arrangements that were based on social class, that created social segregation, with white upper-class families firmly in control. Whitney was a wealthy editor of one of the most popular sporting magazines in the latter half of the 19th and early 20th centuries. Through his magazines and his upper-class social standing, he was a powerful influence in the promotion of amateur sport and an advocate of both the AAU and the U.S. Olympic movement.

Despite apparent improvements, there has been no significant reduction of control over sport organisations and policies on the part of the upper-class; class inequalities remain at large. Furthermore, when class stratification is narrowed to an analysis within sport, inequalities are evident among various organisations. Professional athletes, the equivalent

of working class in sport, have very little control over any aspect of the sport they play. The same is true for intercollegiate athletes as they are controlled by the professional administration of the NCAA and the 'Athletic Department' as the power is invested within these two entities.

## Post-World War II United States and Sport

Monopoly capitalism in the last half of the 20th century, with its concentration of power, wealth, and influence in large corporations dominate economic life in their hegemony of business markets and profits, which in turn dominate cultural practices within the United States. Sport and leisure have developed into a large, commodified industry that increasingly dominates everyday life of the average American. As Young (1986:12) noted,

> "…the most significant structural change in modern sports is the gradual and continuing commodification of sports. This means that the social, psychological, physical and cultural uses of sport are assimilated to the commercial needs of advanced monopoly capital."

The commodification of sport and other leisure activities has transferred the profit motive into cultural practices. Central to capitalistic production is the belief that employers hold the right to decision making and that workers must subordinate their wills to the organisation. As capitalism is a central ideology in 20th century American society, it supports technology and the domination of humans and their environment by bureaucratic techniques, science, organisation, and planning are all prime values that exist today. The highly structured, bureaucratic approach to production, emphasising specialisation within the division of labour and rigid control of management, are features that are paralleled into from industrial practices to other industries or organisations such as the NCAA, which has resonance in the following chapter. These values and norms of rationalised and bureaucratic industrial influences increasingly came to define sport in the United States in the latter half of the 20th century. This trend is summarised by Weber's (1978) analysis of expansion of capitalism being closely linked with bureaucratic administration. He argued that, "…large, industrial, capitalist firms depend on training the workforce to accept strict control and discipline to enhance production and maximise profit." Furthermore, he suggested that, "…because social life under capitalism is dominated by it, this bureaucratic model of rational discipline would extend beyond the boundaries of the workplace" (Weber cited in Sage, 1998:147). It is this 'rational discipline' that is evident in contemporary sport in the United States. In short, sport mirrors industry, with the same formal functional rules and standards of variation. As Sage (1998) comments, the influence of corporate power has lasting impressions on the values and behaviours that have become central in American society. Corporate values are embedded in every social institution that the

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socialisation process is largely devoted to, conditioning in particular males to this ideology. As sport in the latter half of the 20th century has grown prominent and powerful, it has clearly adopted the assumptions and values of large private and public organisations (Radar, 1983; Wiggins, 1995; Sage, 1998).

*Emphasis on Winning*

The emphasis on winning occurs in various parts of American culture (e.g. business and education). As Crone (1999) observes, there are three significant factors in the degree of emphasis on winning within sport in the United States: 1) degree of emphasis on winning; 2) degree of emphasis on extrinsic rewards; 3) and the amount of bureaucratization within sport. With such an emphasis on winning, there should follow some pressure on people to win. Accompanying this pressure to win will also be a greater fear of failure (Ball, 1976). A primary consequence of placing emphasis on winning in sport involves specialisation, as mentioned previously in Weber's (1978) expansion of capitalism from the industrial society. As the emphasis on winning increases, athletes are more likely to participate in one specific sport, as the pressure to win will mean that there will be greater pressure on the athlete to improve in performance. Coaches of these athletes in their invested interest will be likely to influence players to focus on only one sport through the year, so that athletes can further perfect their skills in that sport. Not only, will increased emphasis on winning affect both athletes and coaches in specific ways, but it will also affect the nature of sport in general. For example, there will be a tendency to place greater emphasis on the end result of the game (i.e. the win, while placing less emphasis on the process of the game) as opposed to the act of participating and having fun, which are values associated with the concept of 'amateurism' (Crone, 1999). Also increased emphasis on outcome should make sport more like work than like play. That is, as winning becomes disproportionately more important, both practice sessions and games will take on a more work like atmosphere as opposed to play atmosphere. There will be greater attention paid to the details of the game, game tapes will be viewed, scouting reports from other teams will be analyzed, and additional training outside practice will be carried out (Crone, 1999).

The second independent variable is the increasing emphasis on extrinsic rewards that are stimulated from the 'commercial' environment of sport organisations. Rewards such as money, power (authority) and prestige are all vital components of extrinsic rewards in sport that are a result of commercialism in the United States. As Crone (1999) notes, people are socialised to want these resources. As all three of these resources become more part of sport, people will seek these resources via sport as they do in other areas of their lives.

When a greater emphasis is placed on attaining resources in limited supply, various forms of innovative deviance can be expected. Innovative deviance or as many scholars refer to this concept as 'winning at all costs', occurs when the society emphasises certain goals (e.g. money, power, and prestige) but creates structural conditions that do not allow for everyone to attain these goals (Merton, 1968:200). Sport deviance or 'winning at all cost' is exemplified through examples such as the use of violence, the increasing illegal use of performance enhancing drugs and the breaking of rules of the game, which has resonance within the NCAA and its development as a social control agency as is examined in the following chapter. When extrinsic rewards enter into sport, the mass media begin to play a more prominent role. McPherson (1982:49) suggests that sport and the mass media "enjoy a very symbiotic relationship" in that each is functional for the survival of the other. For example, mass media advertises sport and keeps the attention and interest of the public on sport, while sport helps mass media by generating revenue through the sales and advertisements of television commercials (Andrews, 1996; Denzin, 1996; Sage, 1996). As extrinsic rewards become a larger part of sport, athletes and coaches will concentrate more on attaining these rewards and hence will not focus solely on the intrinsic reward of participating in sport for fun. Even at the big-time college level of sports, Adler and Adler (1996) found this tendency of feeling that sport has become more like work. The college athletes began to realize that they were "no longer playing for the enjoyment". Rather, playing sport "changed from recreation to an occupation" (233-234).

The third independent variable that has numerous consequences for sport according to Crone (1999) is the degree to which sport increasingly becomes bureaucratic and rationalised (Edwards, 1973; Stewart, 1981; Alt, 1983; Berryman, 1988). As sport becomes more organised at all levels (e.g. youth sport, interscholastic sport, collegiate sport, professional sport) administrators or managers will begin to make more of the decisions and take over control of the sport (Coakley, 1978; McPherson, 1982; Berryman, 1988). Thus, the characteristics of bureaucracy such as specialisation, rules, documents, offices and hierarchy of authority begin to appear and influence the nature of sport. Characteristics of bureaucratic sport are increase involvement of spectators, development of rivalries between two competing teams, a higher importance on record keeping such as won-loss records published and league championships. With the keeping of records, individuals and team performances can be compared. With such records to refer to for standards of 'excellence', future athletes have a goal to reach and surpass. As Eitzen and Sage, 1997:52) assert, "…coaches, athletes and fans place a central value on progress.

Continued improvement in mastering new techniques, in winning more games, or in setting new records, is the aim of all athletes and teams."

The combination of extrinsic rewards and the increased emphasis on winning will lead to the increasing bureaucratization of sport. Organisations will be created and expanded to increase the probability that a team will win in order to gain extrinsic rewards. Creating and expanding an organisation will be seen as a rational process from the perspective of those working within the organisation because, according to Weber (1968:24) notes, "they will see the need to be more instrumentally rational as a 'means' for the attainment of the actor's own rationally pursued and calculated ends." Once these three variables become interrelated within sport, they rely upon each other and promote the increase of each aspect in increasing the emphasis on winning in commercialised sport in America in the 21$^{st}$ century.

*Mass-media and sport*

The first objective of the mass media according to Sage (1998) is profit. Mass-media sport is merely a means for profit making and much of commercialised sport revenue is generated through the media. For televised sport, viewers are attracted to sport organisations such as New York Yankees, who have sold their rights to broadcast to the media, in which the media have sold time to major corporations in America to show their commercials. This trend is seen within intercollegiate athletics, as the Notre Dame Football team has recently extended their television contract from 2006-2010 with the National Broadcasting System (NBC) for an estimated $60 million dollars per/year (£30 million). Sport and television have become beneficiaries in American capitalism. The American sport industry has been successful at negotiating large contracts with media networks for the rights of televised events, which in turn makes commercial sport wealthy. A few examples demonstrating the significant revenue in the last decade that is generated from sport and television in the United States are: in 1998, the NFL games as well as the Super Bowl were sold to several television networks for eight years for $17.6 billion (£8.5 billion); in 1997, NBC and Turner networks signed a 4-year contract worth $2.46 billion (£1.2 billion); and 1996, NBC paid $456 million (£222 million) in rights to televise the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games (Sage, 1998). Contracts such as these have made the commercial sports industry very wealthy, resulting in expanding franchises and higher salaries. The contracts demonstrate the extent to which television subsidizes the commercial sports industry. Advertising sales to sporting events provide substantial profits

for the television industry, an example of which is NBC's advertising sales exceeding $680 million (£340 million) just for the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games alone.

Media and sport play two major roles according to Sage (1998): economic as a result of the significant revenue generated from the television contracts and major sport organisations or leagues; and secondly the ideological (shaping attitudes, values, and beliefs). Although the television and sport events may seem neutral in activity, it is in reality an opportunity for dominant interests (capitalist class) to shape the very meaning of sport to cultivate their ideology among generally unsuspecting viewers. A dominant attitude that has particular resonance for this study in the shaping attitudes of mass-media sport, is 'winning'. The spontaneous, creative motive to participate for the love of the sport has been overshadowed in media sport by an obsession with victory above all else. Success in media sport is defined by one criterion, who won? (Sage, 1998). Broadcast sports tend to produce an attitude centred on winning, as broadcasters admire qualities in athletes in their will to do 'whatever it takes to win'. Almost any action in the pursuit of victory is justified within televised sport. Competition is waged not only against opponents, but also the rules to see how often they can be stretched and violated without getting penalised, all in the pursuit of victory.

Camera crews and sportscasters are not attuned to the aesthetic nuances of a well-executed play, instead they are focused on the score, who is winning and who is losing. As a result, definitions, values, and practices of the media are made to sound as if they are enlightened ways of thinking about the meaning of sport. One particular result of this selection, is that spectators become less interested in the 'beauty' of the game, instead they become more sensation minded, focusing on the issue of winners and losers. A capitalistic relationship exists between the mass media and contemporary sport. Media sport is another arena for accumulation of capital and expenditures for leisure. Media sport is not only affecting the beliefs and values of corporate America, but the media represent effective and powerful organisations in promoting dominant ideologies that shape the attitudes and values of society and their motivation in sport.

*British Concept of 'Amateurism'*

A dominant nineteenth-century American ideology, based upon freedom and equality, would not allow the British upper-class concept of amateur sport to permeate American college sport. Riess (1997) notes that the dominant ideology present in American society during the 19th century was that of freedom, or equality of opportunity. Equality of

opportunity was the key value that Americans could now hope to extract from a tradition that had been handed down to them as equality of rights. Americans rejected the British concept of a fixed status system based upon birth, wealth, and education, and it had telling implications for amateur intercollegiate sport (Riess, 1997). The amateur concept involved a system of privilege and subservience that would not, and could not, hold up in American society. Americans rejected an antiquated system that did not meet the criterion of freedom of opportunity to achieve excellence in college sport. To achieve excellence, the professional model proved to be far superior to the amateur model in the eyes of American society (Riess, 1997). As Americans opposed the aristocratic social system of England, they did not accept the concepts of amateurism.

The American college developed differently from the system of higher education in England. The history of English and American university sport is looked at in more depth in Chapter Three, but a major difference was that until the nineteenth century, Oxford and Cambridge had a monopoly of higher education in England. Both of those universities pre-dominated during the entire period of the development of university sport in England. In America no two institutions, such as Harvard and Yale, could control higher education; there was far greater freedom and opportunity to establish and develop colleges. Thus, in America great private institutions such as Harvard and Yale evolved as well as excellent state-supported schools such as the University of Michigan, Ohio State, and California University. Within both the private and public institutions, there was no upper-class control of higher education, or athletics with its elitist concept of amateurism as had occurred at Oxford and Cambridge (Riess, 1997; and Miller, 1998). Even if America had wanted to develop amateur sport based on the Oxbridge model, it could not have succeeded. There was no way to control sport in a select group of colleges because there was no way to control the quality or quantity of institutions of higher education. Any individual, group or level of government could found a college, and any college which wanted to raise intercollegiate athletics to a level of excellence was free to do so with a commitment towards time, effort and financial backing (Riess, 1997). The egalitarian principles were more dominant than any elitist desires that might have existed at Harvard or Yale, the closest match to Oxford or Cambridge that America had to offer. Separate, dual competitions between Harvard and Yale existed for generations to keep them socially and athletically above the rest of colleges in America, but eventually both Harvard and Yale could not remain athletically superior to, and separate from, the newer and less prestigious institutions in America (Riess, 1997).

Another aspect of the English model's amateur principles not to prevail in American university sport was the ideal of participating for the enjoyment of the contest and for no other motive, including financial considerations. This concept could not exist in American society, whose freedom of opportunity ideology allowed all to seek excellence through ability and hard work (Riess, 1997; Miller, 1998). Inter-collegiate athletics in America fit well into that ideological model and a system based upon effort and talent resulted in college athletics from an early time. Achieved status and prestige were gained through the success of the university athletic teams and this concept became the American way in university sports, rather than the ascribed status as seen in sport in English elitist universities.

The English amateur system based upon participation by the social and economic elite would never gain a foothold in American college athletics. Riess (1997) points out that this was caused by the fierce competition present in American society, a strong belief in merit over heredity, and an abundant ideology of freedom of opportunity for the amateur ideal to succeed. It is possible that amateur athletics at a high level of expertise can only exist in a society dominated by upper-class elitists, or that amateurism can never succeed in a society that has egalitarian beliefs. America did not model the structure of collegiate athletics on the English amateur system already established. American colleges practised a type of professionalism where mass commercialised sports led the way in the university-sporting scene. It was 'commercialism' in university sports in America that was nurtured by major social determinants present in American society.

## Section VI: Summary

English sport values were affected by significant historical developments that came to prominence in the post-Industrial Revolution (1850-1910), such as technological innovations (e.g. railroad), concept of 'uniform' time, and the 'amateur' ethic that was cultivated within the 'Public' schools during the 18th and 19th centuries. The Victorian and Edwardian era and the influence on the development of 'amateurism' was affected by significant values such as 'fair play', the amateur 'gentlemen' and the segregation against the working-class 'professional' that demonstrated the struggle between working class people of the 'North' and the aristocrat society of the 'South' of England. Additional influences of this era included the concept of 'rational recreation' that inspired the 'Leisure for All' policy towards the mass-participation movement of sport in England. Development of modern sport in the Post-War II era had resonance in regards to the 'amateur' hegemony and the attempt to control 'professionalism' from 1950 onwards. Such

developments together with major dispositions such as the 'Dunkirk Spirit', 'Pragmatism', 'Empiricism' and a 'traditional' ethos that was highlighted in the economical, social and political bodies of England moulded and shaped the 'amateur' ethos that permeates university sports today. The 'amateur' ethic refined in the 'Public' schools in the 18th and 19th centuries has been retained and established today as the major ethos within university sports in England due to the strong hold on 'traditional' values that was evidenced within this chapter.

Modern sport in America was shaped by the post-Industrial Revolution era (1850-1910) with historical developments such as the Protestant Temperament, the impact of urbanisation, innovations and improvements towards communication (watch, telegraph and print media) and transportation (i.e. railroad). In addition, the post-Civil War era (1865-1910), 'Gilded Age' was prominent in shaping features of modern sport today, with examples such as Democratic Political Philosophy and the concept of Social Darwinism, the role of the voluntary clubs with a specific focus on the New York Athletic Club, and the rise of the 'National Pastime' in America, baseball. Dominant American values in sport were highlighted with a particular focus on the winning attitude associated with the 'Lombardian Ethic' that stimulated a 'virtue of single-mindedness', self-improvement, material progress and hard work. Furthermore, the analysis demonstrated the hegemony perspective of the 'State' on American society, the upper class (capitalistic class) and the hegemony of American society through the influence of capitalism. The Post-World War II era (1950-present) analysis concluded with 'monopoly capitalism', the emphasis on winning in American sport, the mass-media and the British concept of 'amateurism' and the rejection of American society. The review of socio-historical values in America highlights the winning attitude that is present in the university system today. The 'amateur' ethic established in the 'Public' schools in the 18th and 19th centuries in England was not accepted as the fundamental ethos within university sports in America because of a dominant nineteenth-century American ideology based upon freedom and equality. This disparity was a significant factor in both systems establishing different ethos's within the development of university sport that is examined in the following chapter.

This chapter highlighted the relationship between the socio-cultural and historical influences on university sports in both English and U.S. societies as well as the influence it had on the sporting scenes that exist in both countries. On this foundation, a more extended analysis of the current structure of the national organisations governing university sports in the two countries is presented in Chapter 3.

# Chapter 3: The Structure of the British University Sports Association in England and the National Collegiate Athletic Association in the United States

**Section I: Introduction**

This chapter looks at the current structure of English university student sport and the inter-collegiate athletic system in the United States. More specifically it focuses on certain components of the British University Sports Association (BUSA) that exemplify the 'amateur' ethos that exist within English university student sport in comparison with the situation within the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) in the United States, which typically represents a 'commercialised' ethos. Prefatory to the overview of the current university sport structures in England and the United States, a brief account of the historical development of these systems with particular reference to the respective main governing bodies (BUSA and the NCAA) is provided in order to set into context the present structures.

At the outset, a few points should be noted, firstly that University and College Sport (UCS) is a strategic organisation in the amalgamation of BUSA to act as one voice for student-sport in the U.K. Conversely, the United States has two other main governing bodies of university sports: the National Association of Inter-collegiate Athletics (NAIA) and the National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA). The NAIA is a much 'looser' and smaller scale organisation than the NCAA. The NAIA focus is national but the focus is on smaller scale university sports. Similarly the NJCAA, like the NAIA, does not have as high level of significance as the NCAA in terms of competition or finances on a national scene. Junior colleges are different from those colleges represented by the NCAA and NAIA in that they only offer two-year degree programmes, one consequence of which is smaller scale of operation. The NCAA is the most dominant organisation in university sports in the U.S.A. and hence, is accorded the primary focus within America in this chapter. It is also noteworthy here that the information available for the English and American university structures is markedly different. Literature including archival primary documentation sources on the history of American university sports and the NCAA are rich in information and diverse, whereas documentation on the history of English university sports and BUSA is limited in nature and scope.

**Section II: Overview of the Development of the English University Student Sport.**

The first British university founded, Oxford, is generally accepted to have its origins in 1167, following an embargo placed on English 'clerics' going abroad to study. Five years later, the university at Cambridge was founded, following a migration of a group of teacher and students from Oxford. Oxford and Cambridge evolved into two internationally renowned universities with the so-called 'Oxbridge' affect establishing a firm foothold in the English university scene for many years to come (Jones, 1984). During the time that followed (1200-1900) universities within England were independent and separately active in the development of university sport, with examples such as rowing and inter-varsity fixtures emerging, but these activities were without a national agency overseeing the developments.

Before the First World War had ended, a feeling had sprung up within the universities and university colleges that some form of 'Association' was necessary to promote the development of various branches of sport within those universities. In February 1918 a conference for the Presidents of University Unions was convened at Manchester to discuss the value of some form of association to promote the development of sport within universities. The conference delegates agreed that an association was needed to promote university sport within Britain (Kerslake, 1969) At the first conference, the name of the association was determined as, 'The Inter Varsity Board of England and Wales' (IVAB) commonly referred to as the 'Board'; it was the first official governing body of university sports established within the U.K. In addition, consideration was given to the elements of a Constitution and the functions of the Board, which would have authority to deal with sport amongst the universities of the country with its decisions subject to the approval of the Students' Representative Councils. Notably a key objective set by the Board was agreement that the control of 'varsity' sport and students' sport grounds and funds should be vested in the students themselves. The objective promoted the action of certain universities in maintaining rigid control over students' administration of sport. A further decision was that the Board recommended that an afternoon, additional to Saturday, should be devoted to athletics. These objectives were important in the first body promoting university sport in the England (IVAB) establishing a 'participation' ethos through the funding and management of sport by the student-athletes themselves.

Once IVAB was firmly established, it was able to turn its attention to the organisation of other activities, such as an athletic competition, the first one of which was organised by Aberystwyth University on 28 July 1919 (BUSA, 2002a) when nine institutions' and 61 competitors participated. Nottingham won the team title, with 281 points, 61 more than Aberystwyth. The programme included the 220 yard run, the half-mile, and 3 miles, and the schedule of points awarded to competitors was 5-3-1 for the top 3 places in each event (BUSA, 2002a). Some form of competition in association football, hockey and rugby union football seems to have taken place in 1920, but more organised competitions were planned later that year when it was decided that the affiliated members should join in leagues (Kerslake, 1969). Each team was asked to play each other in 'home' and 'away' games. Subsequently, as a result of the high cost associated with the travelling in this framework, IVAB organised the league into three groups: group 1 included Aberystwyth, Bangor, Cardiff; group 2 Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, Sheffield; and group 3 Birmingham, Bristol, Nottingham. Thus was inaugurated the forerunner of present Divisional Championships.

For the next few years, IVAB concentrated on administrative developments that included: improvement of the 'Constitution'; tightening up Championship regulations; and adding where practical, new events to programme activities, thereby satisfying the wider participation engagement philosophy promoted by IVAB. The Board had benefited immensely from the continuity arising from one university being charged with the administrative responsibility for several seasons and an important step was taken, when it was agreed that the Board should have permanent headquarters in London and function independently of a single affiliated university (Kerslake, 1969). It was realised that administrative work had become too burdensome for a student to carry out efficiently in his spare time and accordingly it was decided to appoint a part-time secretary. The Board and its Officers, moreover, realised that to make progress and enhance its prestige, it was essential that it should have the advice and help of senior members of its affiliated universities. Thus, a panel of Vice-Presidents was created to influence the financial picture during the period of consolidation.

During the next few years, the Board devoted time to revising its Constitution to provide support for the organisation, which was expanding to satisfy the needs and interest of students in sporting competitions. An Associate Membership was established for universities and colleges, which were unable to take part fully in its activities. The

Executive was enlarged by the addition of Group Representatives, the first institutions being Liverpool, Birmingham, Southampton, and Cardiff. Divisional Sub-Committees were established to make recommendations to the Executive with regard to activities within their groups (BUSA, 2002a). IVAB was on its way to offering competitions for the students involved in the system and began to foster a value system embracing a predisposition towards participation for intrinsic reasons that continue to affect the current structure today (Kerslake, 1969).

In 1930 the name of the Inter Varsity Board of England and Wales changed to 'The Universities Athletic Union,' (UAU) or the 'Union' as it was subsequently referred to. The UAU was responsible for the governance of men's only sport within the U.K. The ensuing immediate first few years had universities involved in governance administration on a rotational basis. In November 1923, the Women's Inter Varsity Board (WIVAB) was established to develop and organise university women sports in the U.K. WIVAB continued to act as a separate body that governed university sport for women when the UAU was formed. A proposal in 1927 by the University of London to provide an accommodation base for the Board's headquarters was duly accepted. This was a development that facilitated both a clearer 'Union' identity and progression in governance of university sports. In 1931, the 'Union' was able to establish headquarters' offices of its own and appointed its first secretary, Capt. Evan A. Hunter (BUSA, 2002a).

The objectives of the 'Union' between (1930 and 1994) were centred on providing a wide range of sports and championships for students with an emphasis on participation, thus encouraging broad levels of recreationally oriented engagement rather than elitist levels of competition. As the number of championships and range of sports increased, the 'Union' and WIVAB realised the need for joint co-operation to develop activities for both organisations. The co-operation started to occur in arranging mixed sporting events by the two organisations, which culminated in discussions that resulted in 1979 in the administrative organisation of both Men's and Women's sport in England and Wales by a single body, the University Athletic Union (BUSA, 2002a).

In 1962 the British Universities Sports Federation (BUSF) was formed, primarily to administer Britain's representation at student international level but additionally to provide a link between 'binary divide' higher education institutions. BUSF governed effectively until 1992 when the removal of the binary divide within Higher Education occurred. With

the removal, the need for a single student sporting body emerged. At this time, Government had made clear its intention to remove the binary divide in Higher Education and to amalgamate the funding and governing bodies for Universities and Polytechnics, at the same time offering Polytechnics the opportunity to become University titled institutions (BUSA, 1995a; BUSA, 1995b; BUSA, 2002a; BUSA, 2003).

Within the higher education sector, the various institutions formed their own 'governance' bodies, which organised their own championships. These universities were affiliated to the UAU and the Polytechnics and Colleges of Higher Education were represented by the British Polytechnics Sports Association (BPSA) and the British Colleges Sports Association (BCSA) respectively (Kerslake, 1969). The picture grows increasingly complicated with British student participation in international competition. Both the British University Sport Federation (BUSF) and the British Student Sport Federation (BSSF) were established in order to represent British interest abroad, firstly, the BUSF, and when it was felt that students from institutions other than Universities should have the opportunity to represent Britain, the BSSF.

During the early 1980s, the funding of higher education by central government was increasingly under threat, and in the face of these difficulties, the various student sporting bodies saw the importance of co-operation. Government had made clear its intention to remove the binary divide in Higher Education and to amalgamate the funding and governing bodies for Universities and Polytechnics, at the same time offering Polytechnics the opportunity to become Universities. This in turn created a new situation in student sport. In 1991, the BUSF General Council empowered its Chairman and officers to investigate the ways in which the administration and control of student sport could be achieved through a unified universities' body. Following a series of meetings by the General Council, the meetings resulted in a proposal, (1995) endorsed by the officers of BUSF and UAU (Wade, 1990; Grahamslaw, 1992; BUSA, 1995b) to amalgamate the UAU and the BUSF was agreed to form the British Universities Sports Association. The amalgamation would be accomplished by adopting and adapting the constitution of one of the existing bodies and by deciding (in the academic year 1993-94), which of the current office locations (or an alternative to either London or Birmingham) should be selected as the headquarters of the revised organisation. The proposal outlined the timetable to allow for the uncertainties in University structures to be resolved and to ease the transition from then five student sport organisations to one. The first stage consisted of a clear-cut division

of responsibilities between the existing university organisations. All representatives and international sport, including an enlarged version of the present group tournaments, were to be administered by BUSF office in Birmingham, thus removing the overlapping functions of the two bodies, which had often created difficulties in the past (BUSA, 1995b). The proposal also contained an amendment to the constitutions and executive arrangements of the two bodies to bring them more closely in line, to facilitate the final merger and to allow the interim arrangements to work to the best possible advantage of both. The future structure of the domestic programme outlined in the proposal, took into consideration the possibility of a rapid expansion in the membership numbers. The UAU 'Block Fixture' arrangement was the mainstay of the UAU sport and could accommodate up to the 64 institutions. In the long term, therefore, the plan acknowledged the importance to plan a fixture programme that would provide teams divided on the basis of playing strength (Grahamslaw, 1992; BUSA, 1995b).

Strategic plans on representative sport were also acknowledged in the joint UAU and BUSF proposal with the central ethos concerned with providing a wide range of sports, extending from regional trials to international competition. The programme offered would vary from sport to sport, taking account of the calendar of events then offered by UAU and BUSF and receiving applications from sports on an *'ad hoc'* and developmental basis. Matches and tours would be organised for sports at appropriate levels and with teams selected at Regional/National and British level, taking into account sport specific requirements and the wishes of constituent and corporate members (BUSA, 1995b). Any future structure, with an anticipated rapid increase in student numbers especially in England would need adaptation. It would be important to retain the ability of N. Ireland, Wales and Scotland to compete as separate units, thereafter any combination of London, Oxford, Cambridge, and geographical English regions would be used to create teams of comparative strength (Grahamslaw, 1992).

The proposal indicated that all institutions of Higher Education should be eligible for membership and as a result both the British Polytechnics Sports Association and the British Colleges Sports Association were dissolved, and applied for membership of BUSA. The change in status of Polytechnics and Colleges of Higher Education to University status precipitated this decision, because the BPSA and BCSA had become redundant organisational structures. This complex administrative history led to the records of these various predecessor organisations being listed together under the title of the current

organisation, BUSA (Grahamslaw, 1992; BUSA 1995a; BUSA, 1995b; BUSA 2002a; BUSA 2003).

The advantages of national student sport competition are numerous. Apart from offering an extensive sporting programme and enabling institutions to compete for the title of overall student champions, the attraction to the press and sponsors of a truly national competition representing students at all levels in all sports was desirable. A central office administering all aspects of student sport would operate more cost effectively than the separate administrations. The matter of unification of student sport had been discussed for many years. On 1$^{st}$ of February 1973, all sectors agreed wholeheartedly to establish a working party to consider unification. Some twenty years later, papers were still being written about the advantages of unification. Regional sport was developing during this time, but without a central body governing university sport, there was no control. As a result, BUSA was established to provide support and an administrative structure for student run sport within Great Britain. Unlike in the American system, which is administered by professionals, it is the students who have responsibility of both managing and participating in BUSA competitions.

The following section addresses key areas within BUSA that illuminate the 'amateur' ethos that exists within the organisation from its' inception in 1994 to the current structure that exist today, but the focus is specifically on England and in particular on the University College Worcester. Additionally, the section concentrates on only the domestic structure, team and individual competitions of BUSA and not on BUSA's other two main areas of enterprise: domestic representative (British University Games) and International (FISU) events, non-FISU sport tours, and the European University Sport Association (EUSA) events (BSSF, 1989; BUSA, 2003).

**Section III: The Organisation of the British University Sports Association**

BUSA governs university sport in England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland, but as mentioned above the focus of this section is strictly on the situation in England. BUSA is the British equivalent of the NCAA in the USA; however, its competitive events are conducted on a much smaller scale and have a lower national profile. Since its formation, BUSA has become recognised as the governing body for university sports in Britain and is accepted by national sports-related agencies such as UK Sports Council, Central Council for Physical Recreation (CCPR) and National Governing Bodies of Sport. BUSA is

recognised as the key delivery mechanism for much of the competitive and representative sport within higher education in the UK.  Figure 3.1 shows the position that BUSA holds in England's sport nationally:

## BUSA NATIONALLY

**WHERE BUSA FITS IN**

**FISU**

**International Sports Federations**

IOC

**British Government**

Sports Council

CCPR
Sports Aid
Foundation

BOA

NATIONAL
GOVERNING BODIES

**BUSA**

REGIONAL/COUNTY
GOVERNING BODIES

**National Coaching Foundation**

**University Sports
Offices**

**Clubs**

SPORTS CLUBS

**Regional Councils of
Sport & Recreation**
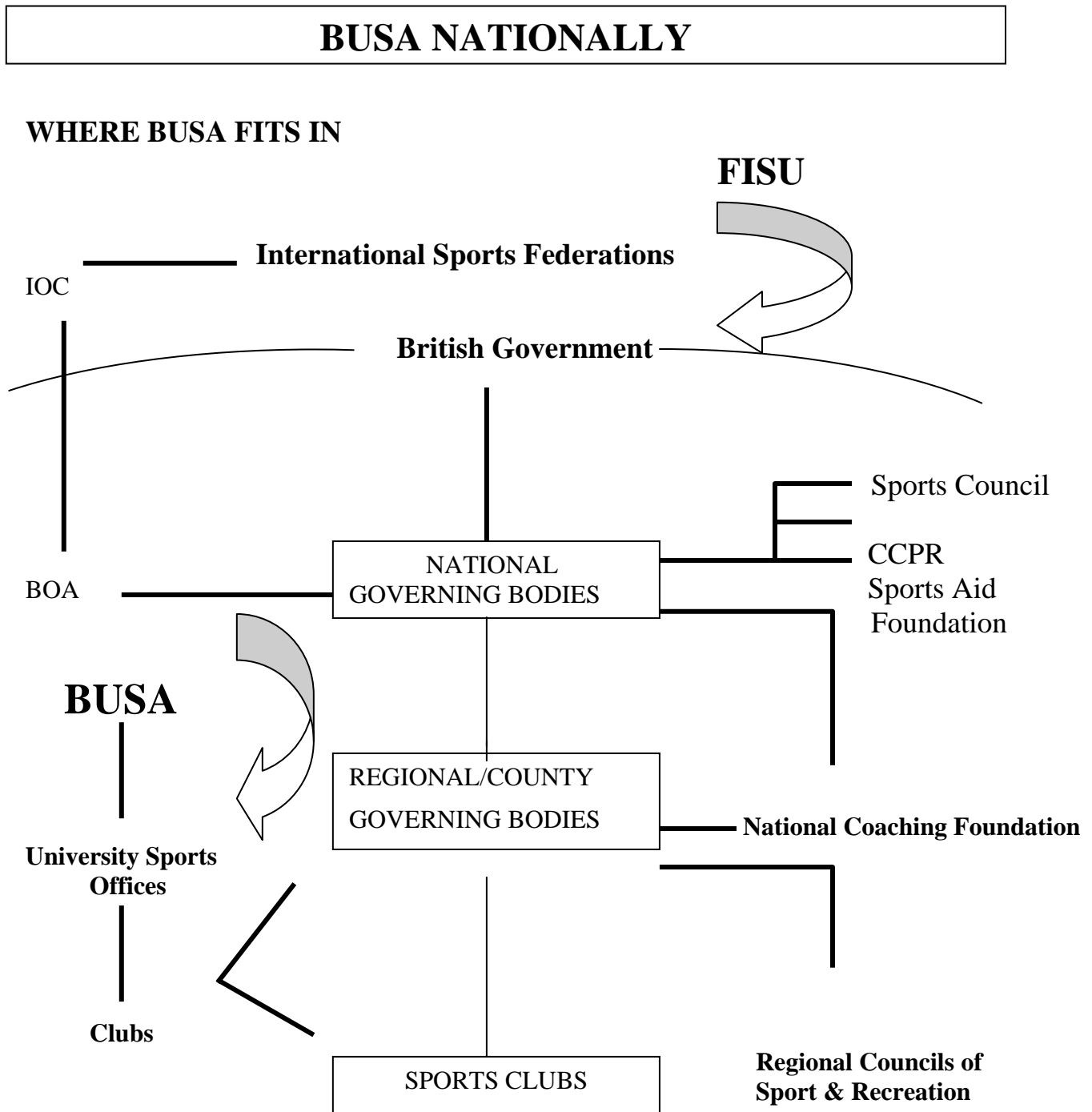
**Figure 3.1: BUSA Nationally [3]**

(Source: BUSA, 2002a:28)

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[3] As the primary research was carried out in the year ending 2003, Figure 3.1 was an appropriate representation of the over-all position that BUSA held nationally at that time. However, since 2003, structural changes have been implemented to support elite level representation within university sport.  These changes are highlighted in the following section, 'Looking Forward'.

Currently there are 146 universities and institutes of higher education in BUSA's membership of which there are: 107 single site universities, University of London and 14 colleges, University of Wales comprising 8 colleges, 7 multi-campus universities organised as 17 playing sites (BUSA, 2006). BUSA's mission aims to "…offer competitive sport to students in higher education through the organisation of championships, representative fixtures and British teams for international events" (Odell, 2002). In order to achieve this, the Association provides an inter-university championship programme in 43 sports as well as a representative programme in the World University Games and World University Championships, thus, BUSA programmes encompass participation and representation. The BUSA domestic sporting programme involves some 1.2 million students with 3,200 teams engaged in BUSA competition on a typical university sporting day that usually takes place on a Wednesday. Wednesday afternoons are traditionally held free for sport and recreation in UK institutions. On average 3,200 teams take the field each Wednesday from October to March, with a participation level averaging 34,000 players. Some sports are run on a tournament basis: over 1250 teams register for these events encompassing some 12,500 players (Odell, 2002). With 503 participating leagues, it is the largest sporting programme in Europe (BUSA, 2002a).

Despite the size of this programme, currently, BUSA only employs 13 full time members of staff. The key to BUSA's organisational strategy lies in the management structure of the system through the students and the independent Student Unions at each member university, the philosophy behind which stems from the 19<sup>th</sup> century ideology that placing responsibility on students is character building. BUSA is essentially an organisation in which the student voice dominates decision making at all levels. The following sections address the governance structure from 1994-2005 and the recent changes that have occurred from 2006 to present. The examination of the structure highlights the levels of student management within BUSA that exemplifies the 'amateur' ethos that exists.

*BUSA Governance Structure (1994-2005)*

In order to highlight the amateur stance taken by BUSA, figure 3.2 shows the in-built student majority that comprises the different levels of management of the organisation that was comprised from the inception of the organisation in 1994 and remained as the acting governance structure until 2005:
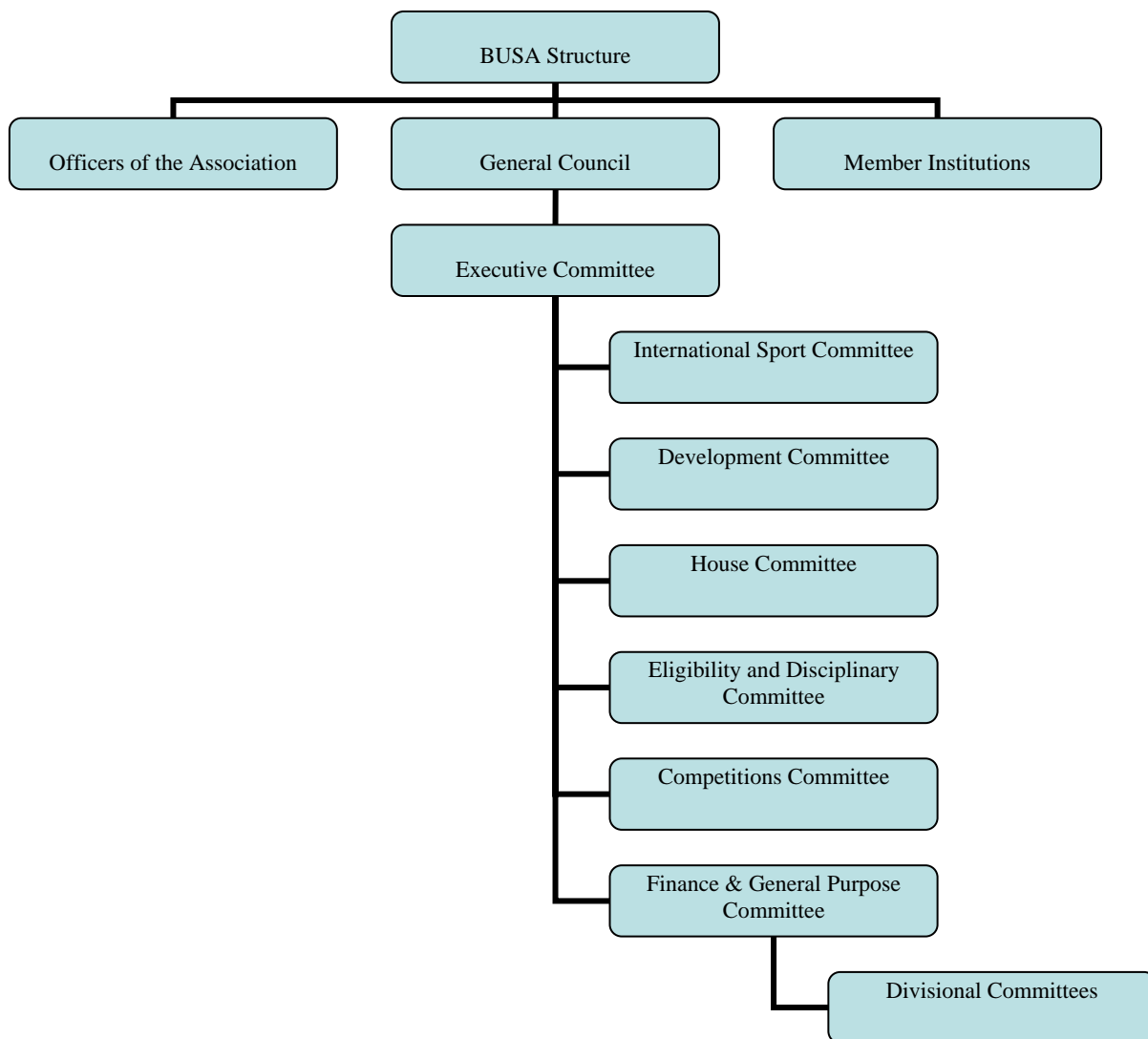
**Figure 3.2: BUSA Governance Structure**

(Source: BUSA, 2002a:8)

BUSA is a student led organisation that follows a democratic process. The General Council, on which every institution has one vote, is the supreme policy making body. The General Council is made up of student representatives from each of the Members, and officers (with power to vote) and the representative of the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principles (with power to vote) (BUSA, 2002a). The General Council manages generally the affairs and finances of the Association and in furtherance of the objects may exercise the following powers: the acceptance or rejection of applications for membership; the election of the Officers of the Association and the appointment of all members of the various sub-committees. Additionally, the Vice-Chancellor or Principal of each institution in membership automatically becomes a Vice-President of BUSA; each institution may nominate two further Vice-Presidents for appointment (BUSA, 2002a). In between meetings of the General Council, the operation of the Association is conducted by the

Executive Board supported by the Standing Committees. Each of the Committees in figure 3.2 has an inbuilt student majority.

The strength of BUSA comes from the involvement and decisions of its student members. Of note is that it was a student paper that initiated the merger process between the UAU and BUSF to form BUSA in 1994 (BUSA, 1995a). Therefore, the importance and involvement of students at all levels of management cannot be over emphasised. A way for student voice to be heard in student sport on a national level, is to become an 'Officer of the Association' or member of one of the 'Committees' shown in figure 3.2. The 'Officers of the Association' consist of:

- The Chairperson
- Two Senior Vice-Chairpersons (non-Student)
- Two Student Vice-Chairpersons
- The Honorary Treasurer

An example of student representation on a national level is that of a Student Vice-Chair within the 'Officers of the Association'. Student Vice-Chairpersons are the student focus for sporting issues within BUSA (BUSA, 1995a). They are elected by the student members at General Council to represent views in student sport; they hold office for one year. Responsibilities include attending all the various sub-committee meetings to give the student perspective on issues, and where possible attend regional meetings to offer their service, advice or simply give neutral point of view. Additional duties include the management of many of the BUSA championships, duties on the Discipline Committees, establishment of relationships with potential and acting sponsors, and welcoming visiting dignitaries (BUSA, 2002a). Assuming the position of Student Vice-chair also provides the opportunity to take up issues and views from students participating under BUSA affiliated competitions and bringing them to the attention of BUSA members.

*The Executive Committee*

The BUSA Executive Committee meets three times per year. It receives the minutes from all Sub-Committees and Divisions, reviews the issues and makes recommendations to the General Council. The Committee can also act on matters that need immediate action within the organisation. All executive decisions and recommendations have to be approved by the General Council (BUSA, 1995a). Additional responsibilities of the Executive Officers include reporting back to their Division on the activities and proposals of the BUSA Executive. Of equal importance is their role in making recommendations from their Division to the National Executive (BUSA, 2002a). The Executive Officers provide information and an action pathway between the Division and the Executive. These

positions are vitally important to the successful administrative procedures within BUSA as these elected officers serve as a link between the divisional and national bodies working together. BUSA (1995a:10) lists the Executive Officers that are elected annually at the first meeting of the academic year:

- International Committee: one student elected from Executive Committee
- Development Committee: six members of which two are students
- House Committee: two student members of the Executive Committee
- Eligibility and Disciplinary Committee: four students each representing a different division
- Competitions Committee: one member appointed by each of the Divisional Committees
- Finance and General Purpose Committee: two students selected

The Committees that comprise the Executive branch serve different roles and purposes. The *International Committee* for example deals with representative sport and works closely with organisations such as international sports federations. The *Development Committee* meets prior to Executive meetings to discuss how student sport might develop further; by way of illustration, previous meeting topics such as eligibility, modularisation and semesterisation under BUSA have been discussed.  The *House Committee* makes decisions on staffing, premises and office equipment. The *Eligibility and Disciplinary Committee* handles disciplinary problems that occur. The appeals process is governed by two selected members of the panel and the non-student chair convenes to from an Appeals and Disciplinary Sub-Committee to decide upon the action to be taken. The *Competitions Committee* handles all matters concerning the 43 championship competitions offered by BUSA.  *The Finance and General Purposes Committee* deals with all financial matters, including budgets for the entire Association (BUSA, 1995a; BUSA, 2002a).

*The Role of Divisional Committee*

Student involvement in management can be on a Divisional Level. The Divisional Committee comprises one voting student representative from each member institution, a Chairperson, the Officers, a Secretary, and a number of Recreation Officers from the member institutions (BUSA, 1995a).  Only the student representatives have voting rights, indeed students and the Vice-Presidents are the only *bone fide* members of the Divisional Committee. Involvement of both the sport administrators and recreation officers at the Divisional Committee meetings is a result of the affect the students will have on them through the decision making power they have.  The Divisional Committee has a significant influence on the day-to-day management of both the sport administrators and recreational managers at the affiliated BUSA institutions through their voting rights and the policies and procedures they adopt.

As the participation levels within BUSA expand each year, the role of the Divisional Committees becomes increasingly more important.  It is difficult to apportion the levels of responsibility and importance attached to the committee, as each academic year inevitably includes various problematic challenges, such as timetabling the Conference fixtures according to the facilities that are provided to support these contests at each affiliated institution (BUSA, 1995a). The key functions of the Divisional Committee include: elections to various sub-committees; organisation of Divisional Championships, including dates and venues; initial steps on the policy making ladder and if ideas are agreed on they are passed to the Executive Committee and General Council by the elected student delegates (BUSA, 2002a). The Divisional Committee elects officers at annual summer meetings, (Chair, Vice-Chair, Secretary and Vice Presidents) for the coming academic year.  Nominations are also made for Student Representatives to serve on various Sub-Committees of BUSA.  These include: Executive Committee, Finance and General Purpose Committee, Appeals and Disciplinary Committee, House Committee, International Committee, Development Committee, Eligibility Committee, and Competitions Committee.  All of these elections must be ratified by the BUSA General Council.  In addition, there are Sports Sub-Committees to which Technical Representatives are nominated by their division (BUSA, 1995a; BUSA, 2002a).

For certain sports (e.g. basketball, football, rugby), the Divisional Committees decide the times and selection of sports played. The role of Divisional Committees is often to consider the cases of growing participation rates in the sports offered by BUSA.  The decisions to select teams within the divisions to progress into the knock-out stages of the BUSA championships often depend on the number of teams competing in the Division.  An example of issues raised as a result of this are the facilities available through the Recreational Officers, particularly when decisions have an impact on the scheduling of BUSA competitions.  However, if only a few teams compete at a particular sport or it is not possible to stage fixtures on a block basis, then the Divisional Committee is required to provide a format that will enable the teams to fulfil their sporting experience.  It is the responsibility of the Divisional Committee to organise the event and allocate a host institution from on of its member institutions (BUSA, 2002a).  An example of issues that must be confronted in the Divisional Committee in recent years has been increasing pressure on use of facilities on Wednesday afternoon block fixture days.  An option presented by certain divisions was the concept of 'reverse venues'.  This option called for half the teams within the division to play at home, whilst the other half play away.  This is

an alternative option to traditional practice of one institution sending all of its teams away and the opponents hosting them (BUSA, 1995). Two potentially conflicting issues to be considered when choosing which option to adopt are the social aspect of block fixtures and the pressure on facilities. A key strategy imposed by BUSA is the 'block' fixture format, which facilitates social gathering on the Wednesday afternoon, thus serving the participative strategy of the Association. This enables more sports to be brought into the Wednesday afternoon schedule and so increases the participation rates within BUSA competitions (Grahamslaw, 1992; Morgan, 1999).

The primary purpose of the Divisional Committee is to shape and structure the Division in a suitable way to select the correct number of qualifying teams in the latter stages of the BUSA Championship competition. The selection process has a number of implications. It is the responsibility of the student representing the Divisional Committee to express the views and thoughts of the associated institution within that Division. The views of the Divisional Committee are expressed by the elected student representatives at the Executive Committee and at the BUSA General Council meetings (BUSA, 2002a). Many of the issues discussed at the Divisional Level have wider implications far more reaching than just within the area itself. It is, therefore, essential that the Divisional Committees are well informed about what is going on at the national level. The Divisional Committee will elect two students as Executive Officers who will form a link with the Division and the governing body of BUSA (BUSA, 1995a; Wooldridge, 1999). In addition, delegates from their associated university may represent the views of the Athletic Union (or Student Union). The student voice can be heard by submission of a 'Discussion Paper' to the Divisional Committee (three weeks prior to the meeting). The paper will be carried forward via the minutes to the Executive Committee and ultimately to the General Council, where a decision will be made, and therefore, progress to policy change. Hence, the process enables student representation at national and or divisional level within BUSA to effect change.

*'Amateurism' and the Student Union*
Within the hierarchical structure of BUSA, immediately below the national and divisional levels lies the Student Union (or Athletic Union), where the management of student sport occurs at each affiliated BUSA institution. Excluding the various sports clubs themselves, the Student Unions situated in each Higher Education Institution (HEI) exist as the base level of university sports in England, which is the foundation of the whole structure. Presidential positions within Student Unions are acquired through fellow student elections. The term of office is normally for one year, as a so-called 'roll-over' position, for which it

is usual for the elected candidate(s) to take a 'sabbatical' year in order to fulfil the obligations and responsibilities of the position (BUSA, 1995a; BUSA, 2002a; BUSA, 2006a). A notable feature of this procedure is empowerment of students by students. As noted by BUSA (2002), students are the decision makers on issues on and off the 'field'. Additionally, larger HEIs within England have full-time permanent administrative staff to help in the smooth running of the Student Union. The Union President is normally assisted by a Union Council, an Executive Committee, senior managers, and other staff who all help in the operations within the student union. A more detailed view of student union administrative involvement, responsibilities and functions through reference to the situation in UCW is presented in the document analysis in Chapter 5.

Within the Student Union of each HEI exists an Athletic Union (AU). Larger universities within England have an AU, which is separate from the Student Union. The smaller universities typically have the AU as a 'branch' within the Student Union. University College Worcester is classified as one of the smaller HEIs within England and the AU is not a separate entity from the Student Union, as its structure detailed in Chapter 5 demonstrates (UCW, 2002b; UCW, 2006b). Within AUs, a member of a university's academic staff may sit on the Executive Committee in an advisory capacity, as may a member of a university's physical education or recreation staff. However, it is important to note that the student members, who represent various sporting clubs and interests, are the decision-makers. The official positions held by the students within an AU structure are: chairman, captain, secretary and treasurer for each institution's sports club. Members elected from the general club membership fill these positions. New clubs can be formed by a group of students organising themselves to form their own constitution. The club constitution is submitted to the AU Management Committee for approval; acceptance normally results in financial support from the AU, and the club is then ready to start its activities (BUSA, 2002a). This procedural system facilitates opportunities for broadening participation and for BUSA participation rates are a success indicator.

Only basic knowledge of book-keeping and accountancy is required to organise AU finances. The treasurers of Athletic Unions and sports clubs are more likely to be student-athletes themselves and not accountants. This is a direct reflection of the small scale of finance dealt with by the AUs within Student Unions. The AU budget is submitted either to the Finance Committee of the Student Union or department of the University from whichever source the funds are derived. BUSA funding is also available to an AU and sports clubs each academic year (BUSA, 2002a).

In brief, the purpose of an AU is to promote sport and recreational activities amongst the student body within a HEI and to encourage competition with bodies outside the organisation. Indeed although the operation of an individual AU varies considerably, the fundamental goal according to each circumstance should be to attempt to offer the best possible service for the students. Sport then in HEIs in England is organised by the students for the students, with its central feature being that of self-governance; it has grown up as a natural expression of student life (BUSA, 1995a; BUSA, 2002a; BUSA, 2006a).

An AU has the primary aim to develop and achieve a balanced programme of activity and expenditure. Furthermore, all student interests, whether competitive or recreational, are represented. Unlike the American system, participation among students in a sport is encouraged. Arguably, intercollegiate athletics in America are a form of 'elite' sport that is motivated by commercial interest. University sport in England caters for both athletes who are serious about competition and for athletes who are participating for social or recreational reasons. AUs are administered on a democratic basis and are generally based on the philosophy of maximum student participation in as many competitive matches in as many sports as possible. This serves perhaps as a microcosm of the whole British HEI sports philosophy (BUSA, 2002a).

*Sponsorship and Volunteerism*

Over the years, student sport has had various propositions for sponsorship from companies looking to enhance the profile of student sport. From 1989 until 1994, 'Commercial Union' Assurance sponsored the UAU, the principal aim being name awareness and graduate recruitment. 'Endsleigh Insurance' sponsored BUSF for similar reasons. 'Lucozade Sport' became the first BUSA sponsor in 1995 seeking to use the Association for market research. The sponsorship was terminated after only one year (BUSA, 2002a). Vaseline sponsors in 1996 sought product awareness and gave away thousands of pounds worth of product at every BUSA affiliated event. When independent market researchers moved Vaseline into a number of member institutions, too many students were unable to identify the Vaseline brand with BUSA Championships. Thus, when the Association sought a longer-term commitment from the company, their offer was annual renewal only. Current sponsors of BUSA are associated with corporations such as: The Daily Telegraph, Price Waterhouse Coopers, Barclays, and Lucozade Sport. A key sponsorship strategy acknowledged by BUSA, is the variety of ways to support the organisation, as BUSA (2006a) acknowledges that there are many ways to get involved in sponsorship with

BUSA. Whether it is an Associate Sponsor, a Sports Specific sponsor, an event Sponsor, a web sponsor or a partner of the Association, BUSA can tailor a package to suit the needs and objectives of the particular company (Wooldridge, 1999).

Sponsorship money benefits every member of the Association. Without the input of such funds from BUSA sponsors, the affiliation fees would without doubt be much higher than at present. When the UAU and BUSF merged, the joint affiliation fee paid by members was 72 pence; previously BCSA members had been paying 52 pence and BPSA members 39 pence (BUSA, 2002a). On the formation of a single student body, the relative income from members' affiliations was significantly lower and barely able to cover the cost of core activities. It was sponsorship money that was used to fund all other initiatives such as coaching courses, increases in information technology provision etc., and thus enhancing the services provided for the membership. As BUSA's participation rates continue to grow with each passing year, sponsorship money is becoming more difficult to obtain and retain. As a consequence, member institutions are required to have a BUSA results board and any BUSA event hosted by a member university must be fully branded; every effort has to be made to ensure media coverage of BUSA events both in University and the local press; team members must be made aware of the BUSA sponsors; and every Athletic Union President is personally responsible for the promotion of the sponsors name (BUSA, 2002). Without the support of the member institutions, affiliation fees would inevitably raise or the service provide for competitions would significantly decline. The Association is no more than the sum of its membership, which, therefore, needs to work to ensure the continuation of sponsorship income. Unlike the NCAA scenario in the United States, BUSA does not rely significantly on the 'commercialisation' interest of corporate sponsors.

To aid in the development of domestic sport within BUSA from the relatively low income generated from sponsorship revenue, the organisation has developed a 'volunteerism' strategy to manage the largest sporting programme in Europe. There are many ways to volunteer within student sport ranging from student sport clubs at member universities, to BUSA Finals at a National Level. BUSA relies heavily on over 2000 volunteers to run events in 50 sports and this is without taking into consideration team captains, coaches, managers and officials who take part in the largest league programme in Europe on Wednesday afternoons. Realising the importance of volunteers for the future of the Association, BUSA has put into place a 3-year volunteering action plan. In addition, BUSA is represented on the Sports Strategic Partnership for Volunteering (SSP4V) and has

come together with other key HE/FE partners to form a sub-group of the SSP4V (BUSA, 2006a). The significant role of 'volunteerism' in BUSA can be associated with the government initiatives established in the 1930's to promote 'athleticism'. From this movement, 'volunteerism' became a significant component of organisations within Britain, with primary examples such as BUSA demonstrating the role volunteers play in managing one of the largest sporting programmes in Europe.

**Finance and Budgets**

As indicated at the beginning of this chapter, BUSA's foundational ethos revolves around a participative stance taken by the organisation in all aspects of management decisions. It is this ethos that can be seen in the management of the finance and budgets of the organisation reviewed in this section. No financial rewards are given to BUSA winners, and no revenue is ever obtained from Championships within BUSA. BUSA's core income is derived from student sources, paid out of AU funds. Figure 3.3 represents a summarised version of BUSA annual income for 2002:

| CORE INCOME: | | Sub- | Totals |
|---|---|---|---|
| **1. Member Subscriptions** | **£615,000** | | |
| 2. Entry Fees (Team & Individual | £267,220 | | |
| 3. Other (interest, etc) | £35,000 | | |
| Total Core Income = | | | £917,220 |
| NON-CORE INCOME: | | | |
| 4. Sponsorship (net after deduction) | £60,785 | | |
| 5. Governing Body Grants | £35,000 | | |
| 6. UK Sport (World University Games-WUG) | £115,000 | | |
| Total Non-Core Income (in a WUGs Year) | | £210,000 | |
| Total Non-Core Income (non-WUGs Year) | | £120,000 | |
| Total Income (in WUGs Year) = | | | £1,127,220 |
| Total Income (in non-WUGs year) = | | | **£1,037,220** |

**Figure 3.3: BUSA Annual Income**

(Source: BUSA, 2002a:47)

Figure 3.3 clearly shows that the main form of income comes from member subscriptions £615,000 ($1,123,000) in 2002. The fees paid by each institution are calculated on a *per*

*capita* basis and cover support of committees, mail-outs and central office costs etc. The largest institutions pay approximately £13,459 ($24,500) and the smallest £104 ($190). The Finance and House Committee decides how much it requires each year in subscription income and changes the multipliers accordingly. With the total income at £1,127,220 ($2,056,000), the members' subscriptions income accounts for approximately 55% of the annual core income of the Association. Sponsorship accounts for only £60,785 ($119,000) which represents a mere 5% of the total amount of income generation. Not only is the system administered by the students, for the students, but also it is funded by the students!

*Expenditure*

Figure 3.4 shows the annual expenditure for BUSA in 2002:

| | Core Exp | Grants | Sponsors |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Domestic Championships | £216,400 | | |
| 2. Domestic Representative | £65,372 | £20,000 | |
| 3. International Programme | £30,000 | £115,00 | |
| 4a. Staffing: Direct Sport-related | £233,470 | | |
| 4b. Staffing: Central Office | £117,605 | | |
| 4c. Staffing: ISA / PR / Scot | | | £71,050 |
| 5. Non-staff Office costs | £206,201 | | |
| 6. Committees (direct) | £31,750 | | |
| 7. Other exp. From sponsorship | | | £12,157 |
| **Sub-totals =** | **£900,798** | **£135,000** | **£83,207** |
| **Total =** | | **£1,119,005** | |

**Figure 3.4: BUSA Annual Expenditure**

(Source: BUSA, 2002a:48)

In comparing total income and expenditure (in the non-WUGs) for 2002 (see figures 3.3 and 3.4), BUSA had an overall surplus of £81,785 ($162,039). What does not appear in the income-expenditure accounts are the contributions made by the hundreds of active volunteers who work beside the paid staff in delivering the service to the members. These include members of the 36 Sport Management Groups, committee chairs/members and elected officers, for whom the only costs are expenses. BUSA is providing a service for the

member institutions and athletes and in doing so gains little profit. BUSA does not have commercialised pressure in the form of television contracts or valued prizes at stake in the promoting and running of university sports. Its strategies, therefore, emphasize participation and recreational engagement as the basis for the athletes.

*Recent Developments within BUSA: Governance Structure*

As the primary research collected (interviews, questionnaires) in this study occurred in 2002, the organisational structure along with key policies reviewed within this chapter to this point is parallel with the situation and environment that was present when the data was collected.  This next section provides a synopsis of 'significant' developments that have emerged within the organisation since 2003. A strategic review within the organisation was conducted in 2005-2006 that resulted in the introduction of a new governance structure that promoted BUSA to reconsider the longer term picture in providing a more holistic view to strategic planning for future development of student sport. The overall structure of BUSA was adapted in 2006, as a result of the findings that emerged from the strategy review that was carried out. Although a structural change was adopted in 2006, it is important to note that the structural change aligns with the 'amateur' ethos that was prevalent in the organisational structure that was reviewed previously in this chapter.

The Executive Board within the new structure serves in a similar capacity from the previous structure that was reviewed earlier. It receives the minutes from all Sub-Committees and Divisions, reviews the issues and makes recommendations to the General Council. The Committee can also act on matters that need immediate action within the organisation.  All executive decisions and recommendations have to be approved by the General Council (BUSA, 2006b). The Disciplinary Committee considers all matters constituting or pertaining to any breach of the rules and regulations of the Association and shall be empowered to deal as they think fit with institutions, clubs, officials and players in respect of complaints of misconduct or other matters not otherwise specifically provided for in the BUSA Rules and Regulations. The Disciplinary Committee consists of: a) a Chair, who shall be a Life Vice-President or Vice-President, other than an elected member of Executive Board and who shall be appointed annually at the Annual General Meeting; a panel consisting of student members, each Division having two nominated representatives. Each formal hearing the Committee consists of the Chair and two student members from the panel.  The student members selected shall not be concerned with any sport or any

Division that is under consideration, nor have any other interest in the proceedings (BUSA, 2006b).

Sport Management Groups are responsible for overseeing a specific BUSA Sport. Criteria for the Groups are outlined below: The Chair (elected by executive); The BUSA administrator of the particular sport; 1 National Governing Body (NGB) representative appointed by the SMG and ratified by National Competition Committee. Ex-Officio FISU Reps of the sport; 2 representatives to offer technical and developmental advice (Members appointed by Executive Board) 1 student representative. A Sports Management Group is responsible for overseeing a specific BUSA Sport, including the following areas: 1) Domestic Championships- oversee the running of their respective sport; 2) Domestic National Teams- advise on team selection of competitors and management staff; 3) International Teams- advise ISC on team selection of competitors and management staff; 4) Rules and Regulations- changes in rules and regulations brought about by NGB's and WUG's; 5) Budgets- management of financial budgets; 6) Developmental Issues- following NGB and BUSA business plans and developmental plans; 7) NGB Partnerships- developing links; 8) Funding from external sources; 9) Technical Advice.

*BUSA Strategic Vision: "Looking Forward"*
The strategy for 2006-2009 defines central aims of the Association with a central question to be answered according to the BUSA Strategic Plan (2006b:1), "What do Students and Universities need from the national governing body of student sport?" Some of the key aims identified by the Association include: provision and management of competition at all levels; provision and adequate facilities and healthy lifestyle initiatives; promotion of student sport and raising the profile and perception of student sport and the individual competing; and provision of an efficient administration team to oversee the activities of the association. BUSA will aspire to meet these needs in two strategic ways, firstly, to place a greater emphasis on delivering beyond the current competitions programme within the current corporate structure. This focus requires attention and resource being placed on member services to increase involvement in intra-mural sport, healthy lifestyle initiatives, best practice guidance, volunteering and personal development. A point of emphasis is the focus of the Association in achieving this aim over the next few years lies with examining ways to increase income from external sources and reducing costs of both the members of the Association and the organisation itself. This emphasis on improving the current 'corporate culture' is listed in BUSA (2006b:4): a) events that are capable of raising

income through appealing to a wider audience than purely the student community; b) closer relationships with NGB's to ensure that programmes and events are compatible with their objectives; c) improved commercialisation of website and hence appealing to sponsors for than just graduate recruitment. Although the current structure and ethos of BUSA is primarily that of an 'amateur' approach, the 'post-script' review conducted for 2006-2009 highlights the importance of 'commercialisation' within the organisation in developing student-sport in the near future. The second aim proposed in the strategic review is: exploring the opportunity to create a new organisation with UCS, the collective body for directors and administrators of sport in Higher and Further Education to represent the interest of all major stakeholders in the delivery of student sport (BUSA, 2006b:4). BUSA acknowledges in the review that the proposed options would create a true governing body that is capable of looking after the interest of students, universities, Directors of Sport and administrators and has a wider remit to oversee and represent all areas and levels of sport in HE.

To enable and support delivery of the strategic aims mentioned previously, BUSA (2006b) will provide the following benchmarks: 1) establishment of the terms of engagement with UCS and other HE partners to ensure one voice for HE sport and that BUSA is well placed to influence key stakeholders in sport in the UK; 2) creation the "BUSA National Finals", a multi-sport event that will provide a showcase for the majority of the National Finals and Championships; 3) development of an international and national sporting programme that ensures BUSA is relevant and at the forefront of university sporting activities across the full continuum of participation and performance; 4) focus on marketing and communication, internal and external through creation of a brand that is perceived to be modern and innovative and communication channels that make BUSA important and relevant to all students at member institutions; 5) increase of external revenue streams into BUSA from commercial sponsors; 6) increase opportunities for student volunteering, personal development and enhancement of future employability through the development of sustainable partnerships and the provision of a platform for students to volunteer within the areas of administration, coaching and the Sports management groups; and 7) establishment of a long-term financial plan and implement a transparent annual financial planning process which supports delivery of the strategy. The future staffing structure will also be developed to support implementation of the strategy, at both national and regional level, across the needs for effective delivery of the Annual Plans.

As indicated previously in Figure 3.1, further structural changes have been made within BUSA to support 'elite' level athletes in their sporting experiences. The Talented Athlete Scholarship Scheme (TASS) is a unique partnership between National Governing Bodies of sport and Educational Institutions, which focuses on maintaining a balance between academic life and training as a performance athlete. TASS provides athletes with a tailored package of services compromising services such as Coaching, Strength and Conditioning, Talented Athlete Lifestyle Support, Physiotherapy, and Sports Medicine, as well as support with competition and training expenses. TASS operates across England through nine regional consortia: North East, North West, Yorkshire, East Midlands, West Midlands, East, South East, South West and London. Each consortium comprises several higher and further education institutions that work together to provide a package of sporting services to TASS scholars and bursars in their region.

There are currently over 80 educational establishments across England delivering sporting services on behalf of the programme. Each institution has passed the base level standards set by TASS, which ensures a high standard of service delivery to all athletes. Each participating athlete is assigned a Lead Institute; this Institute is responsible for mentoring and liaising with the athlete and organizing service provision. It may not be the sole provider of support services to the athlete. Support services are athlete focused and are delivered on a local level wherever possible. In summarizing the purpose of this initiative, according to TASS (2008), two overall objectives outlined by the organisation are: 1) to enhance the extent and the quality of partnership working between National Governing Bodies of Sport and the Further and Higher Education Sectors; 2) to enhance the capability of the Further and Higher Education sectors to flexibly support and cater for, to an agreed standard, the needs of talented young athletes.

The impact of the TASS programme can be seen at the local institutional level at UCW. Currently, the programme offers £3,000 per/year to full-time students that are on the TASS scholarship scheme. This financial contribution is supported by the 'Professional and Athlete Life Skills' (PALS) within the institution. These PALS offer 'Life-Sport' balance within four designated areas for the talented athletes during their time in higher education: 1) technical; 2) Psychological; 3) Physical; 4) Social. The support offered by the PALS through the 'Service Level Agreement' in the TASS programme are; to reduce drop-out rate of talented young people from sport, particularly at key transition points in their lives;

to enable talented young people to effectively mix sport and education (in HE or FE); and to enhance the development of the support services/infrastructure within HE/FE for talent ID and development. A good example of the successful contribution in support of 'elite' level athletes at UCW was a recent graduate within the School of Sport and Exercise Science in 2007, in which she achieved a 1st class honours degree in Sport and Physical Education, competed in the European U-21 Hockey Championships and upon completion of her degree has obtained a full-time position as a secondary physical education teacher at a local 6th Form College.

In addition to the TASS programme highlighted within this section, a further scheme offered by UK Sport to support 'elite' athlete development at all levels of sport within the United Kingdom is the 'World Class Pathway' programme, which was established in 2006. UK Sport assumed full responsibility for all Olympic and Paralympic performance-related support in England, from the identification of talent right the way through to performing at the top level. It will also provide expert high performance consultancy to non-Olympic sports in England, to help improve performance and drive success in the future. This programme will offer development at three identified levels: 1) World Class Podium; 2) World Class Development; 3) World Class Talent. These three pathways were primarily established for the development of 'elite' sport in the UK leading up to the 2012 Olympic Games. Talented athletes within higher education will be able to take advantage of these areas of development to further support their sporting experience.

This review of recent developments highlights the important changes and benchmarks that BUSA has adopted for its strategic plan over the next three years. An important focus for the organisation within the strategy is focused on the 'corporate' role that the organisation will seek to enhance the financial status of the Association and ultimately value a more 'commercial' focus in the development of the Association. Although the Association has made considerable efforts in changing the structure of the administration involved within the management of student sport, the general ethos and philosophy of the organisation remains intact as the central focus of the organisation continues to enhance the experience of student sport. The locus of control within the Association remains with the students and the associated Athletic Unions that serve as the backbone of the organisation in providing opportunities for students to manage and participate in sport during their experience in higher education.

**Section IV: Overview of the Development of Intercollegiate Sport in the U.S.A.**

American colleges date back to colonial times, the first established being Harvard in 1636 (Jones, 1984). These institutions were almost universally based on the collegiate pattern of Oxford and Cambridge. However, it was the independent college and not the university that became the model to be followed in the early period of American university history. Late in the nineteenth century, the colleges motivated by the needs of American society and influenced by other countries' structures such as Germany, began to liberalise their curricula and modern languages, sciences, specialisation and professional training were introduced (Jones, 1984). According to Ben-David (1972: preface), "… The late nineteenth century more specifically the 1860's was a suitable point in time to consider the beginning of the present system of higher education in the U.S". It also marked the time of the beginning of sports within higher education in America. American intercollegiate athletics was born in 1852 with a series of rowing contests between Harvard and Yale (Figler and Whitaker, 1995; Radar, 1996; Riess, 1997). An estimated 1,000 spectators witnessed the contest that saw Harvard the eventual champion. Both Harvard and Yale crews had not hired a coach or trainer and did not prepare systematically for the contest (Radar, 1996). However, leading into the 20th century, the emotional stake that the students had in winning crew races escalated with the clubs going all out to win. As the sport became more popular within American society, the winning and sometime 'at all cost attitude' (Lombardian Ethic) began to influence and drive the sport to higher levels of competition (Figler and Whitaker, 1995; Radar, 1996; Riess, 1997).

From the outset, baseball also reflected the tendencies of collegians to transform informal games into serious contests while simultaneously encouraging allegiances among students far more powerful than anything in the college's academic programmes (Radar, 1996). The first recorded intercollegiate baseball game was in 1859, with Amherst College beating Williams College by a large margin 73-32. As with the first rowing contest between Harvard and Yale, professional coaches, strict diets, daily practices, and values such as discipline were not present within the systems during the first intercollegiate baseball game. The emphasis on 'winning' would commence and be the driving force leading baseball into the 20th century as it exploded on to the scene in American society (Figler and Whitaker, 1995; Radar, 1996; Riess, 1997).

Intercollegiate track and field, destined to rival rowing and baseball as a popular spring and summer sport, had its origins in the annual college field days. Students in American

colleges sparked an interest after the examples set by the Oxford-Cambridge competition first scheduled in 1864. Radar (1996) notes that American students began to devote a special day to contests in running, jumping and throwing in the 1860's. From this beginning, formal intercollegiate track and field began as an offshoot of rowing.  The first event was held in 1873 when a two-mile race took place at the annual Saratoga regatta. Only three men competed in the race, one each from Amherst, Cornell, and McGill of Montreal.  From this starting point, track and field began to grow and increasingly became more competitive with a winning attitude driving the sport into the 20th century like that of crew and baseball previously mentioned.

Sports such as rowing, baseball, and track and field illustrate the starting point of intercollegiate athletics in the mid 19th century. Forces such as urbanisation, industrialisation, immigration, and increased prosperity had combined to create an American population that was socially and culturally more diverse, had less commitment to the traditional discipline or puritanical values, and had more leisure time (Figler and Whitaker, 1995; Radar, 1996; Riess, 1997). These changes in the composition, values, interests, and life styles of American people encouraged the development of interest in involvement in sport on the American college campuses.

An issue here is the primacy of the winning ethic in American intercollegiate athletics over the 'amateur' ethic in English universities. Although American collegians were nearly all from the upper social ranks during last half of the 19th century, they were less inhibited by traditions of fair play than their upper-class English counterparts (Nixon, 1984; Radar, 1996).  Understood conventions or traditional values that had been established for many years rather than explicit rules governed much of the play of English 'gentlemen'.  When American students took up sports such as rowing, baseball, and track and field, they seized upon, and took advantage of, all areas of the game not governed by explicit rules because traditional values had not been established and were not the driving force in all-major societal functions of American society (Radar, 1996). As mentioned earlier, in its early years, intercollegiate athletics tended to be student-oriented, student-run, and fairly unrestricted in its organisation.  The early years resembled the English HEI sport structure where students were in control of the organisation (Nixon, 1984; Radar, 1996). Coaches were students or volunteers from the faculty.  The impact of no eligibility rules allowed the students to compete with faculty in intercollegiate contests (Nixon, 1984).

Heading into the 20th century, the patterns of participation, student control and casual organisation that characterised college sports in the second half of the 19th century shifted towards external regulation and institutionalisation.  Nixon (1984) notes that leagues and conferences were established to regulate and promote regular competition between a number of colleges in sports such as the examples given earlier (i.e. rowing, track and field, and baseball).  Intercollegiate athletics was on its way to becoming highly organised, commercialised, and in the control of professional administrators that would push the sports to higher levels.  It was this shift from the English model of student-run sport to professional administrators running the American system that would have a significant impact on the structure of intercollegiate athletics in America.  The winning ethic would become the driving force behind intercollegiate athletics from this point.  College sports needed to feature on to the national stage before the formation of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) would be established.  It was the explosion of American 'grid-iron' football on to the college scene and the influence of Theodore Roosevelt Jr., the nation's 26th President that led to the creation of the NCAA.

*The Creation of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA)*

Without the sport of football there would be no NCAA.  The NCAA's father was football and its mother was higher education (Hawes, 1999). Football became popular first in elite colleges, and then spread to broader American society (Figler and Whitaker, 1995). Football was established in the collegiate scene by the 1880s.  Football's value to universities was predicated not simply on having a team to combine students and alumni together, rather it was simply on victory alone.  Green (1986) noted that coaches were hired to win rather than develop all-around, healthy young men.

Baseball, rowing, basketball and track and field were supplanted by football as the major sport during the early years of collegiate sport. The transition into the 20th century would see football hit an all-time low within an era of brutality making the headlines.  Because coaches were hired by the universities to win rather than develop 'all-rounders', this mentality caused football to spiral out of control.  Something needed to be done to put structure back into this great American collegiate sport, the answer, Theodore Roosevelt and the birth of the NCAA.

The 1905 college football season produced 18 deaths and 149 serious injuries, leading those in higher education to question the game's place on their campuses. The game might have died that year had it not been for the American President, Theodore Roosevelt, a

Harvard man, football fan and former student-athlete. Imbued with the belief in the benefits of 'Muscular Christianity', Roosevelt felt that college football was out of control and was on the verge of being shutdown by American society because of its brutality. On October 9, 1905, Roosevelt called representatives from the major universities in the collegiate football scene at the time, Harvard, Yale and Princeton to the White House to discuss the game's future. Roosevelt was clear, reform the game or it would be outlawed. The result in 1906 was the formation of the Intercollegiate Athletic Association (IAA). The IAA was created by college administrators expressly to control the vicious and brutal tactics that existed within college football because of the prevalent win at all cost attitude driving the sport. In 1910, the IAA became the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) (Hawes, 1999).

Initially, the NCAA acted as a social control agency, expanding its mission to cover all unethical conduct in collegiate athletics. It is apparent from the beginning in 1910 that the NCAA's purpose was to formalise and structure collegiate sports to enable them to develop both ethically and more importantly financially. It was the prevailing attitudes towards winning and competition, ethical regulations and commercialisation that served as the foundation for not only the creation of the NCAA, but also for intercollegiate athletics that are present today in America. The following section outlines how the structure of the NCAA through some of its principle components reflects 'commercialism' as the central aspect of the organisation as opposed to 'amateurism', which is the central component within the English university sport structure.

**Section V: The Structure of the National Collegiate Athletic Association**
The NCAA is a voluntary association of about 1,200 colleges and universities, athletic conferences and sports organizations devoted to the administration of intercollegiate athletics. Through the NCAA, member schools and conferences consider any athletic problems that have become national in character. The colleges, universities and athletic conferences that make up the NCAA are referred to as members. The members appoint volunteer representatives who serve on committees that introduce and vote on rules called the byelaws. Hawes (1999) notes that the members also establish programmes to govern promote and further the purposes and goals of intercollegiate athletics.

The NCAA membership has three main divisions (Division I, II, III). Division I contains the largest universities and is referred to as 'big-time' college athletics, Division II is the intermediate level of intercollegiate sports and Division III is the smallest level of

collegiate sports.  All sizes and types of institutions, from the largest state institutions to the small private church affiliated colleges make up the NCAA.  Most national attention is focused on the so-called major college level Division I, but two thirds of the NCAA member schools are found on the Division II and III levels.  Each NCAA division has a separate governing structure. Table 3.1 lists the divisional facts of the divisions for 2002:

**Table 3.1: The NCAA Membership Report**

(Source NCAA, 2002a:35)

| Division I Facts | Division II Facts | Division III Facts |
|---|---|---|
| **Division I Institution:** | **Division II Institution:** | **Division III Institution:** |
| 327 total members | 282 total members | 424 total members |
| 325 active | 270 active | 410 active |
| 2 provisional | 12 provisional | 14 provisional |
| 35% private, 65% public | 44% private, 56% public | 80% private, 20% public |
| **Average Undergraduate Enrolment:** | **Average Undergraduate Enrolment:** | **Average Undergraduate Enrolment:** |
| Men…………….4,398 | Men…………....1,442 | Men……………...921 |
| Women………….5,019 | Women………….1,888 | Women………….1225 |
| Total……………..9,417 | Total……………..3,330 | Total……………..2088 |
| **Average Number of Student-Athletes per Institution:** | **Average Number of Student-Athletes per Institution: w/out football** | **Average Number of Student-Athletes per Institution:** |
| Men……………..322 | Men………………..95 | Men………………..109 |
| Women………….232 | Women…………….80 | Women…………….104 |
| Total……………554 | Total………………175 | Total………………213 |
| **Average operating expenses for athletics per school:** | **Average operating expenses for athletics per school:** | **Average operating expenses for athletics per school:** |
| Men…………….$4,808,903 | Men…………….$620,000 | Men………………$103,000 |
| Women…………$2,233,457 | Women…………$530,000 | Women/Nongender $248,000 |
| Total…………….$7,042,360 | Total…………….$1,430,000 | Total………………$351,000 |

(4,903,731) of students at NCAA affiliated institutions, only 7% of students compete in sport.  The NCAA national headquarters are located in Indianapolis, Indiana, where 350 paid professionals, who implement the rules and programs established by the membership in all three levels of intercollegiate sports, are employed. The 350 paid professionals represent a stark contrast to the 13 full-time employees within BUSA.  The low percentage 7% of students enrolled at NCAA affiliated institutions and the employment of some 350 full-time administrators at the national headquarters are perhaps indicative of a more elitist and professional approach to university level sport in the USA.

*NCAA Governance Structure*

As mentioned earlier, the NCAA was formed to address eligibility issues in intercollegiate sport by providing rules and regulations to prevent member universities from abusing these policies. Inevitably, the rules and strict regulations set forth by the NCAA have resulted because of the immense rewards at stake and winning ethos established. Consequently one of the primary functions of the NCAA is to 'police' its members. This view is supported by Vitale, a television commentator for NCAA basketball, who gives insight to the winning attitude that drives administration and coaches to break the policies set by the NCAA:

> "Until we have presidents who have the fortitude, the guts, the courage to look at their alumni and simply say, I don't care that my coach was 5-21. I don't care if the stands weren't filled, I just care about the fact that all my players here have graduated and are really class youngsters, there will be a major problem. As long as the message being sent out loud and clear is that you must win, win, win a coach tries to take a shortcut. I don't blame the coach."
>
> (Vitale, cited in Hawes, 1999:2)

Vitale's rhetoric makes it clear why the NCAA has such an important role in setting policies and regulations to patrol the member universities. The answer lies in the competitiveness of American intercollegiate sport, particularly at the higher levels (i.e. Div. I, II), which in turn is a product of the considerable rewards at stake. The NCAA has addressed this major problem and has set up a complex governance structure to provide guidance and to control key issues such as unethical behavior within intercollegiate athletics. Table 3.2 displays this complex structure:

**Table 3.2: NCAA Governance Organizational Chart**

| | EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE |
|---|---|
| Association-Wide | Eight 1-A members from Division I Board of Directors<br>Two I-AA members from Division I Board of Directors<br>Two I-AAA members from Division I Board of Directors<br>Two members from Division II Presidents Council<br>Two members from Division III Presidents Council |
| | EX OFFICIO members:<br>NCAA President<br>Chairs of Divisions I, II, and III Management Councils |

| DIVISION I<br>Board of Directors<br>Members:<br>Institutional CEOs | DIVISION II<br>Presidents Council<br>Members:<br>Institutional CEOs | DIVISION III<br>Presidents Council<br>Members:<br>Institutional CEOs |
|---|---|---|
| DIVISION I<br>Management Council<br>Members:<br>Athletic administrators<br>Faculty athletics representatives | DIVISION II<br>Management Council<br>Members:<br>Athletic administrators<br>Faculty athletic representatives | DIVISION III<br>Management Council<br>Members:<br>Athletic administrators<br>Faculty athletic representatives<br>Student-Athletes |
| DIVISION I<br>COMMITTEES<br>& CABINETS | DIVISION II<br>COMMITTEES | DIVISION III<br>COMMITTEES |
| | SPORT AND RULES COMMITTEES | |

(Source: NCAA, 2002a:4)

On a national level, the NCAA governance structure is made up of more than 125 Committees. The Association allows for greater autonomy for each division and more control by Chancellors and Presidents. Under the governance structure, Athletics Administrators play a primary role in the maintenance of college sports, and in most instances in developing legislation that the Chancellors and Presidents then consider for each division and the Association (NCAA, 2002a). The Executive Committee is the highest governance body in the NCAA (see table 3.2) and is composed of institutional Chief Executive Officers (CEO's) that oversee Association-wide issues. The Committee is

charged with ensuring that each division operates consistently with the basic purposes, fundamental policies and general principles of the Association.

Association-wide committees deal with issues that affect all members of the Association and perform duties necessary to the ongoing operation of the Association (see table 3.2). Association-wide committees comprise members from each of the Association's divisions and subdivisions of Division I.  Common committees deal with issues that apply to more than one, but not every division of the Association. Common committees perform duties necessary to the ongoing operation of the applicable divisions and are made up of members from the applicable divisions (NCAA, 2002a).

*Division Committees*

Division I committees deal with issues that apply only within the division; the Committees perform duties necessary to the ongoing operation of Division I and comprise only Division I members, unless otherwise specified. The appointment process for Division I committees is coordinated through conference offices. Division I is a system based on conference representation. Legislation is approved by an 18-member Board of Directors (rather than a vote of all Division I members at an annual convention) (NCAA, 2002a). In addition, the committee structure in Division I includes cabinets responsible for academic affairs, eligibility and compliance, and championships and competition. The cabinets have 49 members (NCAA, 2002a). Several Division I committees, including rules and sports committees, report directly to a cabinet.

All cabinets report to the Division I Management Council, which in turn reports to the Board of Directors (see table 3.2). The Management Council contains athletics administrators and faculty athletics representatives empowered to make recommendations to the Board and to handle responsibilities delegated to it. No legislation is created in Division I through a vote of the membership. Division-wide voting is only carried out through an override vote process that requires a written request from at least 30 Division I institutions (NCAA, 2002a).

Division II committees deal with issues that apply only to Division II, perform duties necessary to the ongoing operation of Division II and are made up of Division II members, unless otherwise specified.  As seen in table 3.2, the structure and management of Division II is closely associated with that of Division I, only on a much smaller scale compared with the finances and budgets involved with the division.  The management of the division operates under the same system that was reviewed in the aforementioned Division I.  The

only major difference to the structure (see table 3.2), is the role of the 'Presidents Council' acting as the supreme decision making body within the division, whereas in Division I, the 'Board of Directors' fulfills the responsibility.

Division III has two governing groups: the policy-setting Presidents' Council and the Management Council. As its name implies, the 15-member Presidents Council is made up of CEOs from member colleges and universities. This group oversees the Management Council, which consists of 19 CEOs, athletics administrators, faculty representatives and student-athletes. Below these two bodies is a committee structure that focuses on issues relating specifically to Division III. Legislation in Division III is considered and approved through a traditional one-school, one-vote process at an annual convention. In this way, Division III institutions make their own rules, independent of the other two divisions (NCAA, 2002a).

It is striking to see the complex nature and dynamic governance structure that is presented on a national level in table 3.2. Because of the inherent complexities and larger scale of operation that the NCAA presents, this section provides a brief overview of the picture of the Association on a national scene. The next section on the 'Commercialisation of the Athletic Department', will review in more detail the importance of the Athletic Department to the management of the NCAA, with reference to 'commercialism' and the winning mentality. The Athletic Department's role in the NCAA is similar to that of the Student Union (or Athletic Union) to BUSA.

*Commercialism and the Athletic Department*

The primary focus of this section is on issues of commercialisation and structure within the NCAA affiliated member Athletic Departments. The review of commercialisation on the Athletic Departments within NCAA affiliated institutions concentrates on Division I universities that can be classified as 'big-time' Athletic Departments. The review here concentrates on these 'big-time' Athletic Departments because of their overall effect on all divisions within the NCAA. As Dunderstadt (2000:136) states, "…The prosperous programs at institutions such as Michigan, Penn State, Notre Dame and Michigan set the pace for the entire intercollegiate athletics enterprise, no matter what the size of the school". Dunderstadt's assertion that the 'big-time' departments' programmes has resonance for all divisions and sizes of athletic programmes within the NCAA, this includes the selected institution for the case study NNU, which competes at the Division II level for intercollegiate athletics.

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Before reviewing the Athletic Department and the effects commercialisation has on its organisational and structural formats, it needs to be recognised that Athletic Departments are not central to a university's mission. Frey (1994) alludes to the fundamental problem of 'big-time' Athletic Departments as sub-units that can deviate from the organisational values in universities. As a result of this fundamental problem, athletic departments are run as a separate unit from the mission and goals of the university, into which they are associated. In fact, they can be replaced without any loss to the educational mission of the university. Frey (1994) defines organisational deviance as:

> "A situation where there is a violation of normative expectations surrounding the organisational and this behaviour has peer and elite support, conditions that facilitate group rule breaking and the adoption of goals inconsistent with societal values" (110).

Some would argue that any perceived 'big-time' Athletic Departments exploitation of intercollegiate athletics through excessive commercialism lies with the personalities of the administrators, coaches, or players involved, but in reality the source of much of this deviance lies in the structural and organisational characteristics of the universities. The key points investigated further on 'big-time' Athletic Departments adhering to a winning mentality are a direct result of the explanation of organisational deviance explained by Frey (1994).

*University Structure*

When defining the role the university plays in American culture, there is a wide variety of descriptors. Because of the dynamic role of the university, it is far easier to understand the American university by listing the many roles it plays in contemporary society: for example, provision of an education for American citizens, produces the scholars, professionals, and leaders needed by American society, undertaking of research necessary to generate new knowledge critical to the progress of the nation, and provision of a number of services to society that draw on the unique expertise of our institutions (Dunderstadt, 2000).

Many would consider the most important role of the university in America to be grounded in providing education. Unlike the English model of higher education, America's system extended beyond that of the elite and made an attempt to provide higher education to a diverse and large portion of society from the outset. As a result of this, a diverse range of universities and colleges evolved such as small colleges, large universities, religious to

secular institutions, single sex to co-educational colleges, vocational schools to liberal arts colleges and land-grant to urban to national research universities.

Within these different institutions, the university setting within American society is expected to develop its undergraduate students in various ways outside the traditional academic setting. Some of these expectations include: providing a safe environment for the students who are living away from home for the first time, and enabling both learning and exploring without concern for the risks posed by the so-called 'real world'. An undergraduate education is a time of challenge, curiosity, discovery, and intellectual development. Some, including Sperber (1990) and Dunderstadt (2000) point to the last comment on undergraduate education being a time of challenge as the most frequently used justification for intercollegiate athletics in higher education.

Another traditional mission of the university in America has been to provide a service to American society. Higher education within American society has long been expected to produce professionals of various fields into the 'real world' to service the public. The commitment of universities to the development of professional schools in fields such as medicine, nursing, dentistry, law, and engineering are adequate testimonies to the importance of this mission. In relating this point to intercollegiate athletics, Dunderstadt (2000) observed that the inception of intercollegiate athletics originated from extra-curricular activities to provide public entertainment for American society. Dunderstadt's comment explains the transformation from universities providing extracurricular activities strictly for participation and enjoyment, to producing highly marketable sport teams (primarily grid-iron football and basketball) for the demand and service of the American public. This concept is reviewed later within this section.

The forces that drive the university and its place in American society are complex and frequently misunderstood. Much of society would argue that the university setting is still very traditional in its ways, with images of faculty members thinking themselves as Oxbridge dons, and the students they teach as serious scholars. In reality, the American university is still founded on the education it provides its students, but the university is also a complex, dynamic corporation that is generating revenue, research and public services to the American society. In reviewing the Athletic Department and its role within the university, the primary focus looks at whether the fundamental mission of the athletic department aligns with those of the university.

*The Structure of the Athletic Department*

The structural complexity of American universities is somewhat compounded by high levels of decentralisation, one result of which is that there are parameters in the forms of check and balances that provide structure and guidance to most academic and administrative units. These checks and balances are usually structured on a vertically top-down model. At Faculty level, there are also checks and balances in overseeing academic matters. The overall and academic departmental specific top-down model structure is common throughout many American universities (Zimbalist, 1999; Dunderstadt, 2000). In many of the Athletic Departments within the university, a key fundamental difference is found within the structure of governance through checks and balances (Dunderstadt, 2000). Many 'big-time' Athletic Departments are allowed to operate rather unconventionally from the controls (e.g. top-down model) listed above. Thus, university practices such as affirmative action and equal opportunity are sometimes bypassed in recruiting and hiring coaches; contracts with sports apparel companies and broadcasters are signed without the approval of the university; and 'big-time' coaches primarily from grid-iron football and basketball choose to ignore conflict of interest rules that restrict other faculty and staff to benefit financially from commercial endorsements or contracts that exploit the name of the institution at which they are working (Sperber, 1990; Dunderstadt, 2000). It is apparent that many Athletic Departments within American universities are allowed to function and operate as a separate entity from the university itself. This fundamental difference has consequences for issues of commercialism to be reviewed later on in the chapter.

University President

Arguably the fundamental principle of integrity in intercollegiate athletics is based upon presidential control and accountability (Frey, 1994; Dunderstadt, 2000). Ultimately, all major decisions concerning the Athletic Department within university falls on the President's desk. The NCAA's rule of 'institutional control' requires that the President accept ultimate responsibility for the integrity of intercollegiate athletics within a university. Along with making the final decisions concerning the Athletic Department, the extraordinary visibility of intercollegiate athletics with its 'show-business' character requires the President to make public appearances supporting the teams and representing the university at major athletic events.

Athletic Director

As indicated above, the day-to-day responsibility of the Athletic Department, which is a member affiliate of the NCAA, lies with the President of the university. The Athletic

Director is only under the President of the University for the Departmental Control (see Chapter 5 – NNU Organisational Chart). In many cases, the Athletic Director reports directly to the President for all decisions concerning the day-to-day operations. Primary responsibilities for Athletic Directors comprise: administration of the Athletic Department (e.g. hiring and firing coaches, managing budgets and athletic facilities, and interfacing with organisations such as the athletic conference and the NCAA). Many Athletic Directors have managed their departments as a separate entity from the university itself. A generalisation noted by Dunderstadt (2000) is that in many cases, characteristics among 'big-time' Athletic Departments under NCAA membership can be classified as a dictatorial, command-control-communications structure that stands in sharp contrast to the highly consultative, collegial and occasionally anarchical culture of the academic units of universities they are affiliated with.

Coaches

The first line of command under the Athletic Director falls to the coaches of the programmes within the Department. In most cases, coaches are dedicated professionals motivated to produce a top-quality team. In reality, many 'big-time' celebrity coaches are given too much freedom by the Athletic Department, which causes their actions to be at odds with the values and objectives of the university. Responsibilities embrace handling the administration of the programme, hiring and firing of assistant coaches, press conferences, television and radio appearances, speaking engagements and marketing activities designed as much to promote their personal careers as to benefit the programme. Actual coaching responsibilities include: the management of training sessions, the details of recruiting prospective players, the personal relationships with players, and the development and execution of game strategies (Frey, 1994; Dunderstadt 2000). Coaches at the 'big-time' collegiate programmes have no academic responsibilities and focus their attention on the responsibilities both as a publicist and coach observed by Frey (1994) and Dunderstadt (2000).

Official Bodies

The bodies that take on the responsibility of developing the rules and regulations for intercollegiate athletics include the conference offices and the NCAA. The goals of the NCAA and conference offices are essentially the same even though the NCAA professes the ideals of amateurism. In theory, the primary focus of these two bodies is directed towards regulating and forming the rules and regulations of intercollegiate athletics, but in reality many (e.g. (Gorn, 1993; Figler and Whitaker, 1995; Hawes, 1999; Dunderstadt,

2000) would argue that it is directed towards promoting and marketing intercollegiate athletics in a commercial manner and maintaining a competitive balance.

*The Role of Commercialism*

Harvard University is accredited as the starting point where intercollegiate athletics developed into an economic enterprise within American society. Odenkirk (1981) identifies the year of 1903 when the first seed of commercialism and intercollegiate sports was shown to the Harvard class of 1878, celebrating its twenty-fifth anniversary. The class of 1878 offered $100,000 (£55,000) to the University to build a stadium for track and field athletics and grid-iron football. The initial cost of the stadium increased as the project was being carried out because the university wanted a larger stadium than initially planned. As a result, the subsequent need for more finance occurred. Thus, administrators at Harvard targeted areas within university sports where commercial opportunities could be taken up.

Charging spectators to watch the football games became the primary source of revenue generation at Harvard and other universities during the early years. Larger stadiums were built, rivalries developed and financial guarantees for visiting teams increasingly grew (Odenkirk, 1981). This commercial trend developed quickly throughout intercollegiate athletics and it soon became the norm for university football games to attract 50,000 or more spectators. These games were good for business and it was not long before successful teams assisted their universities with financial help at budget time. Before the universities realised it, they were in too deep within the entertainment business within American society, and the stakes were too large for administrators to pull out. Thus, the commercial trend set by Harvard and other universities in the early 1900's, significantly contributed to intercollegiate athletics developing over the last century into big-time sports that provide commercial and entertainment value to American society.

In looking at the Athletic Department within intercollegiate athletics, Hart-Nibbrig and Cottingham (1988) refer to the Department being directly linked to expanding market forces. This can occur because the Athletic Department is removed from the academic values that permeate other values of the university, a concept that was briefly mentioned earlier within the chapter. Hart-Nibbrig and Cottingham (1988:9) assert:

"The university's cofederal organisational structure also facilitates the emergence of corporate athleticism by granting its subunits substantial administrative autonomy to carry out their specialised missions. Though many academic units enter into client relationships of various sorts with outside groups, the Athletic Departments have become sports productions systems and have actively formed client relationships with boosters and with local business interests".

Intercollegiate athletics or as Sperber (1990) refers to 'College Sports Inc.' is akin to a hybrid of corporate and public agency America. 'Big-time' Athletic Departments within the NCAA Division I generate millions of dollars primarily through their men's football and basketball teams. American society is led to believe that intercollegiate athletics is highly profitable, which is the case for the NCAA, but for the Athletic Departments at 'big-time' Division I schools, financial down-turns and million dollar deficits frequently occur. The University of Michigan boasted that it made a profit of $14 million (£7.6 million) from its football programmes in 1997, the year it won the national championship. Furthermore, Division I football programmes reportedly averaged profits of $5 million (£2.7 million) in 1997. Yet, most Athletic Departments plead poverty when balance income/expenditure balance statements show a deficit. How could it be that a programme such as the University of Michigan Athletic Department, which generated roughly $45 million (£24.5 million) in 1997-98, based on revenues from gate receipts of $16 million (£8.7 million), sponsorship, signage, licensing revenue of $8 million (£4.3 million), and private gifts of $7 million (£3.8 million), still managed to have an operating deficit of $2.8 million (£1.5 million) (Dunderstadt, 2000)? This inconsistency is due, in part, to the 'business culture' of intercollegiate athletics.

A major component of the 'business culture' within the Athletic Department is the competitive nature of intercollegiate athletics that leads most Departments to focus far more attention on generating revenue than on managing costs. The financing of intercollegiate athletics including the costs such as staff salaries, student-athlete financial aid, and facilities maintenance are usually fixed, revenues are highly variable (Sperber, 1990; Dunderstadt, 2000). All other revenue streams, such as gate receipts, bowl or NCAA tournament income, licensing revenue, and private gifts, are highly variable. These forms of revenue can be quite volatile. The problem stems from the Athletic Department's accounting books being kept private from the public and from the university in which it is associated. Many Athletic Directors are managing multi-million dollar organisations within their Department with limited experience in running a complex business or dealing with the accounting books that budget their revenue versus expenses (Okenkirk, 1981;

Frey, 1994; Dunderstadt, 2000). Many of these Athletic Directors are figuring the volatile forms of revenue such as licensing revenue on the high side rather than calculating the average or low-end projections. As a result, they build these tentative revenues into annual budgets that sometimes backfire and bring the Athletic Department into a major deficit when these revenues fail to materialise (Odenkirk, 1981; Sperber, 1990; Dunderstadt, 2000).

In 1997-98, NCAA Division I schools generated almost $2 billion (£1.1 billion), a majority of the figure produced entirely from men's football and basketball revenue (Dunderstadt, 2000). In trying to show the magnitude of commercialism within 'big-time' intercollegiate athletics, three prominent college football teams, Michigan, Notre Dame, and Florida are valued in terms of the revenue they bring into the institution, more than the majority of professional football franchises in the National Football League (NFL). An example such as this, in many cases leads smaller colleges to aspire to join 'big-time' Division I sports in pursuing the immense revenue 'prizes' at stake. These examples also serve to persuade American society into believing that seemingly highly profitable intercollegiate sports can contribute to improvements in general through financial support in their respective universities. What is not generally known in the public domain is that intercollegiate athletics programmes at most colleges and universities require some subsidy from general university resources for tuition fees or state appropriation (Sperber, 1990; Dunderstadt, 2000). Overall deficits amounting to $245 million in 1998 (£133 million) were calculated from Division I college athletic programmes. Much of this deficit can be directly related to the Athletic Departments focusing attention strictly on generating revenue, ignoring expenditure cost of items as facilities and salaries for high profile coaches. While football and men's basketball account for the majority of revenue generated at these 'big-time' Athletic Departments, they also are responsible for much of the expenditure costs within the budgets. As Dunderstadt (2000:134) observes:

> "When college sports are transformed into an entertainment industry, and when its already intensely competitive ethos begins to equate expenditure with winning, one inevitably winds up with a culture that attempts to spend every dollar that it is generated, and then some".

The 'winning' ethos is a fundamental contributor causing Athletic Departments to factor in annual deficits. These 'big-time' Athletic Departments do generate a massive revenue stream, but because of the winning ethos that drives intercollegiate athletics, the revenues are reinvested into the system to improve areas such as football stadium, basketball arenas, weight training facilities, and higher salaries for top quality coaches and administrators.

Figure 3.5 shows the various revenue and expenditure streams associated with intercollegiate athletics which contribute to the balance of the finances within the Department:

| Revenues: | Expenditures: |
|---|---|
| Ticket Sales | Salaries |
| Guarantees | Athletic Scholarships |
| Payouts from bowl games and tournaments | Travel and recruiting |
| Television Contracts | Equipment, supplies |
| Corporate sponsorships, advertising, licensing | Insurance |
| Unearned revenues | Legal, public relations |
| Booster club donations | Capital expenditures |
| Student fees and assessments | Facilities |
| State or other government support | Student-athlete accomodations |
| Hidden university subsidies | |

**Figure 3.5: NCAA Sources of Revenues and Expenditures**

(Source: Dunderstadt, 2000: 134-135)

The financial strategy in intercollegiate athletics adhering to the winning pressure from outside commercialistic forces drives the Departments to focus their primary motives on the income generated from NCAA affiliated competitions. This belief can be linked back to 'those who spend the most win the most', which drives institutions such as Michigan (highlighted earlier within this section) to spend millions of dollars in improving facilities, salaries and providing luxuries for the administrators who work within the department. In many cases, Athletic Departments focus more on income revenue streams coming into the Department and not the expenses going out. This can cause financial shortfalls even at the most prominent 'big-time' Athletic Departments (Odenkirk, 1981; Sperber 1990; Dunderstadt 2000). To advance the notion of 'those who spend the most win the most' further, three major expenses are cited: 1) grants-in-aid system, 2) inflating cost of football programs, 3) competitive attitudes within football coaches. A financial deficit balance in an Athletic Department's situation can be partly attributed to the grants-in-aid system for athletic scholarships within American higher education. The grants-in-aid system allows for full financial support of student athletes while they are undergraduates within an NCAA affiliate university. American universities are allowed to provide student-athletes with sufficient support to meet all commonly accepted educational expenses, regardless of

financial need or academic ability (Sperber, 1990). This financial support is known and referred to by athletes, coaches and administrators within the system as a 'full-ride scholarship'.

This policy was first implemented within football teams in the 1950's and spread quickly to all other' varsity sports (Sperber, 1990; Dunderstadt, 2000). As the cost of higher education has increased over the decades, so has the cost of the grant-in-aids provided by the universities. Private universities tend to have higher tuition costs because in many cases they provide the sole revenue stream for that particular institution. Public university's tuition fees tend to be cheaper than private universities because of the support from state agencies towards tuition costs. Figure 3.6 shows a sample of 'big-time' Division I Athletic Departments expenses towards grant-in-aids for the academic year of 1995-1996:

| University: | Grant-In-Aids (in U.S Millions): |
|---|---|
| Michigan | 7.6 |
| Northwestern | 5.7 |
| Ohio State | 4.6 |
| Penn State | 4.5 |
| Michigan State | 4.3 |
| Indiana | 4.1 |
| Illinois | 3.4 |
| Minnesota | 3.4 |
| Purdue | 3.4 |
| Iowa | 3.3 |
| Wisconsin | 1.8 |

**Figure 3.6: Grant-In-Aids of Big-Ten Universities**

(Source Dunderstadt, 2000: 140-141)

Through the winning ethos that permeates intercollegiate sports, the NCAA has increased the amount of Grant-In-Aids over the decades to the totals seen at the selected institutions in figure 3.6. It must be acknowledged that the NCAA faced outside pressure from the conference committees, athletic directors, and coaches to increase the amount of 'full-ride' scholarships available to athletes for their chosen sport. This pressure increased from 1950 onwards because of the continuing effect stemming from the 'commercialisation' of

intercollegiate sports.  As a result of this external pressure, Athletic Departments today are spending millions of U.S. dollars as shown in figure 3.6 towards grant-in-aids for athletes within their programmes (Frey, 1994; Dunderstadt, 2000).

The second major expense concerning Athletic Departments is the inflating costs in supporting the rapid growth of football programmes.  A major policy passed by the governance structure of the NCAA introduced the unlimited-substitution rules in the 1960s.  This policy allowed football to develop a 'specialist' mentality within all levels of the sport. Coaches trained and recruited players to develop a specialist's mentality for essentially every position and every situation in the game: for example in offence, defence, blocking, tackling, kicking, and passing (Sperber, 1990; Dunderstadt, 2000).  The rationale for this policy was that it would make the game more exciting.  More importantly, it formed college football into a corporate and bureaucratic enterprise, with 'teams' comprising over 100 players, dozens of coaches, trainers, and equipment managers, and even technology experts in areas such as video production and computer analysis.

The third factor driving the rapid expansion of an Athletic Department's costs targets the winning ethos that has driven football coaches to gain advantage over their competitors. Examples of these advantages pursued by football coaches can be seen both on and off the football field.  Off the field examples include: special on-campus residence for the football players that at times represent four-star hotels; special training facilities strictly for the varsity athletes; museums to display the winning traditions of the football programmes that will attract future recruits to the programme; charter jet services for road trips; and four-star hotels for travel accommodation (Dunderstadt, 2000).

The competitive pressure applied by coaches, fans and the media has contributed towards the inability of the Athletic Departments to control costs of reform attempts to control commercialisation within their programmes. The excessive spending of Athletic Departments is frustrated by the philosophy of 'those who spend the most win the most'. Adding to the financial problems of Athletic Departments is the relative financial inexperience of those who manage the Departments and in many cases are driven by the winning ethos to focus on a one-dimensional financial strategy, concentrating their efforts on revenue generation and neglecting costs' controls such as limiting expenditure on larger and better facilities.

**Finance and Budgets**

The commercialisation needs within the NCAA could have the biggest impact on the winning mentality prevailing as the dominant attitude. This section reviews the finances and budgets for the NCAA in the year of 2002, the overall participation and championship sponsored events, revenue and expense, and the television contract revenue in showing the enormous impact on the winning attitude that exists within intercollegiate sports in America.

A total of 44,933 student-athletes (22,120 females, 22,473 males) participated in NCAA championships in 2002. In the year ending of 2002, the overall participation was 359,782 athletes in official NCAA sports. In looking at the total of undergraduate enrolment within the NCAA, the average total comes to 4.9 million students. Out of that total, only 359,782 or 7% of students are participating in official NCAA sponsored events. Championships and special events expenses for all three divisions totalled roughly $58 million (£31 million). The following figures listed by NCAA (2002a:8-10) summarise the NCAA championship expense figures and overall participation in 2002:



**2001-02 Championships Expenses**

| | Game Expenses and Special Events | Championship Committee | Transportation | Per Diem | 2001-02 Total | 2000-01 Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Division I championships | $ 11,293,158 | $ 1,073,879 | $ 16,647,921 | $ 9,901,860 | $ 38,916,818 | $ 45,505,840 |
| Division II championships | $ 1,528,013 | $ 292,372 | $ 4,409,730 | $ 2,749,500 | $ 8,979,615 | $ 8,381,455 |
| Division III championships | $ 1,878,126 | $ 321,213 | $ 4,307,236 | $ 2,845,740 | $ 9,352,315 | $ 9,687,351 |
| Total | $ 14,699,297 | $ 1,687,464 | $ 25,364,887 | $ 15,497,100 | $ 57,248,748 | $ 63,574,646 |

**Figure 3.7: NCAA Championship Expenses and Overall Participation**

(Source: NCAA, 2002a:8-10)

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Figure 3.7 shows the money invested into the Division I Championships by the NCAA, around $39 million (£21 million) went into providing top-quality events that would attract television viewers and in turn larger financial rewards for the NCAA through television ratings. As a result of this, the championships provided by the NCAA are not only for the athletes themselves, but also for the financial gain of the NCAA, corporate sponsors, and media sponsors who are all involved in the events.

*Revenue*

Overall NCAA revenue for 2002 was roughly $358 million (£195 million) Television rights fees made up 76 percent of NCAA operating revenue for 2002 (television revenue is examined more in depth later within the chapter). Other primary revenue sources were: championships and special events 12%, royalties 8%, and investments 1%. Figure 3.8 provides data on revenues for 2002.



**2001-02 Revenue Report**

| | |
|---|---|
| Television rights fees | $ 273,099,161 |
| Championships and special events | $ 43,465,248 |
| Royalties | $ 29,060,270 |
| Investments | $ 4,451,700 |
| Sales and services | $ 5,559,264 |
| Contribution-facilities | $ 2,654,775 |
| NCAA Foundation | $ (690,821) |
| Total | $ 357,599,597 |

**2001-02 Revenue Sources**

Television Rights Fees–76%
Championships and Special Events–12%
Royalties–8%
Investments–1%
Sales and Services–2%
Contributions-Facilities–1%

**Five-Year Projected Revenues**

| Year | Amount | Percent Increase |
|---|---|---|
| 2002-03 | $422,233,000 | |
| 2003-04 | $453,479,000 | 7.4% |
| 2004-05 | $487,083,000 | 7.4% |
| 2005-06 | $522,736,000 | 7.3% |
| 2006-07 | $562,238,000 | 7.6% |

**Figure 3.8: Revenue Report**

(Source: NCAA, 2002a:4-26)

Figure 3.8 shows evidence that the NCAA is a multi-million dollar corporation whose 'product' are the student-athletes. Because of influences such as the emergence of mass-

media, collegiate games have become apart of the American culture and lifestyle in today's society. With the financial rewards at stake, it is no surprise that a winning attitude dominates attitudes from all levels within the NCAA (NCAA, 2002c).

*Expenses*

NCAA operating expenses for 2002 were roughly $338 million (£184 million). A total of $187 million (£101 million) was distributed directly to the Division I membership in 2001-02. Expenses for championships and special events totalled roughly $57 million (£31 million) Increased expenses were caused by higher travel costs in Division I men's basketball, expanded field sizes and brackets in a number of championships and the addition of new championships in various sports (NCAA, 2002a). Figure 3.9 shows the expense report listed by NCAA (2002a:5)



**2001-02 Expenses**

- Division I Distribution –55%
- Division I Championships –12%
- Division II –4%
- Division III –3%
- Association-wide –19%
- Management and General –7%
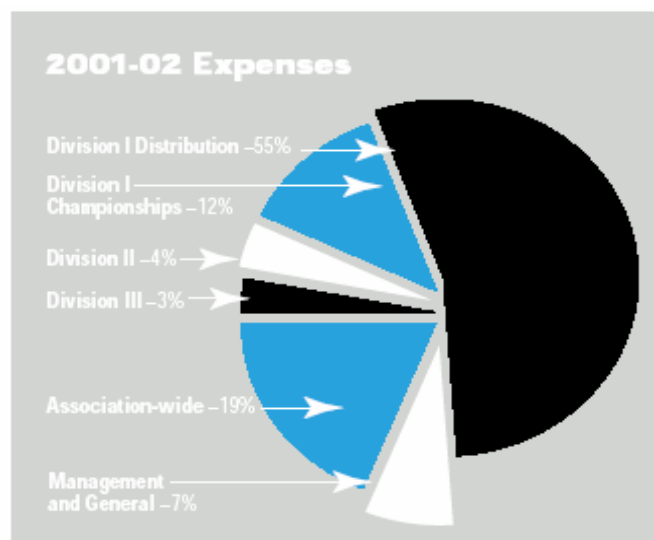
| Expenses | 2001-02 | 2000-01 | 1999-00 | 1998-99 | 1997-98 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Distribution to Division I members | $187,063,065 | $171,748,117 | $181,808,487 | $141,395,553 | $148,017,496 |
| Division I championships and special events | 38,916,818 | 45,505,840 | 38,804,971 | 38,134,535 | 36,775,379 |
| Division II distribution, championships and programs | 13,236,364 | 11,608,072 | 10,045,349 | 9,145,299 | 9,851,769 |
| Division III championships and programs | 10,725,438 | 9,832,397 | 8,201,823 | 7,233,651 | 7,152,123 |
| Association-wide | 65,444,037 | 57,582,443 | 60,743,338 | 63,992,135 | 102,260,816 |
| Management and general | 22,292,794 | 20,632,129 | 18,695,118 | 18,696,601 | 18,556,458 |
| Total | $337,678,516 | $316,908,998 | $318,299,086 | $278,597,774 | $322,632,263 |

$4.6 million of expenses from NCAA Foundation programs and management support is included in Association-wide and management expenses for 2001-02.

**Figure 3.9: Expense Report**
(Source: NCAA, 2002a:5)

As previously mentioned, the NCAA generated revenue of roughly $358 million (£195 million) during 2002. Because of the large-scale revenue and big-time sports at hand within the organisation, the expenses listed above show the magnitude of money reinvested in all aspects of the NCAA. This is done by the organisation in large part because of the

competitive and or winning attitude that serves as the driving force in pushing all levels of intercollegiate sports to improve to a higher level of quality by managing and promoting the games and championship tournaments more effectively.

*Television Contracts and Revenue*

The first televised intercollegiate football game in the United States was a contest between Fordham University and Waynesburg College on September 30, 1939 (Hawes, 1999). The weak signal reached such a limited audience that it caused not even a ripple in how people regarded college football and television. It is hard to find an audience that televised college football does not reach in America today. The early years of intercollegiate athletics and television were unstable. Television was not popular in 1939, few people owned sets. Post-World War II saw a time where Americans took quickly to the 'tube', and the NCAA's most attractive product at the time football, became a commodity and the driving force for the relationship between television and the NCAA (Hawes, 1999). In looking at the relationship today, the NCAA and television contracts have evolved in commercialising intercollegiate athletics, and brought so called amateur sports in under the 'spotlight' of American society. The NCAA makes decisions to uphold amateurism within intercollegiate athletics, but the driving force affecting the organisation is placed on the television contracts and the massive commercialised interest and revenue that stems from this partnership (Hawes, 1999).

The NCAA reached an agreement with the Central Broadcasting System (CBS) in 2002 for exclusive television rights to the NCAA Division I Men's Basketball Championship, other championship events and marketing opportunities related to all NCAA championships. The eleven-year agreement, which is for a minimum of $6 billion (£3.25 billion), commences with the 2002-03 academic year. The agreement averages $545 million (£297 million) per year and contains financial incentive opportunities for the NCAA as well (NCAA, 2002a). In 2001, the NCAA and the Entertainment Sports Network (ESPN) signed an eleven-year agreement granting rights to twenty-one championships through the 2013 season. NCAA (2002a) comments that ESPN will expand coverage on tournament games and provide an enhanced promotional package for the NCAA and college sports, including eight highlight programmes. In addition, an annual promotional campaign will run from November to March on ESPN. Figure 3.10 provides information on the television contract revenue and projections for the NCAA from 2000 to 2013:

## Five-Year Revenues and Related Television Revenues

**1996-97**
Television Revenue: $ 191,277,515 ~ 77.2% of revenue
Total Revenue: $ 247,701,483

**1997-98**
Television Revenue: $ 213,628,467 ~ 77.4% of revenue
Total Revenue: $ 275,915,104

**1998-99[1]**
Television Revenue: $ 228,512,998 ~ 61.6% of revenue
Total Revenue: $ 370,804,049[2]

**1999-00**
Television Revenue: $ 282,692,985 ~ 77.5% of revenue
Total Revenue: $ 364,546,859[3]

**2000-01**
Television Revenue: $ 256,690,303 ~ 77.4% of revenue
Total Revenue: $ 331,713,818

1. Beginning with the fiscal year ended August 31, 1999, the NCAA and NCAA Foundation are consolidated.
2. 1998-99 total revenues include one-time $54.4 million contribution of future lease payments for the NCAA Indianapolis headquarters.
3. 1999-00 total revenues include one-time $40.0 million CBS contract bonus payment.

### Television Contract Revenue Projections

| | Amount | Increase | Percent Increase |
|---|---|---|---|
| [1]2001-02 | $271,450,000 | | |
| [2]2002-03 | $370,000,000 | 98,550,000 | 36.3 |
| 2003-04 | $400,000,000 | 30,000,000 | 8.1 |
| 2004-05 | $432,000,000 | 32,000,000 | 8.0 |
| 2005-06 | $466,000,000 | 34,000,000 | 7.9 |
| 2006-07 | $503,800,000 | 37,800,000 | 8.1 |
| 2007-08 | $543,800,000 | 40,000,000 | 7.9 |
| 2008-09 | $586,800,000 | 43,000,000 | 7.9 |
| 2009-10 | $633,800,000 | 47,000,000 | 8.0 |
| 2010-11 | $674,900,000 | 41,100,000 | 6.5 |
| 2011-12 | $728,800,000 | 53,900,000 | 8.0 |
| 2012-13 | $783,100,000 | 54,300,000 | 7.5 |

[1]Figures through 2001-02 do not include marketing rights fees.
[2]Beginning in 2002-03, amount includes TV and marketing rights fees.

**Figure 3.10: NCAA Television Contract Revenue**

(Source: NCAA, 2002a:25)

Figure 3.10's information on television revenue and projections for the NCAA shows the importance between the relationship of intercollegiate sports and the broadcasting companies such as CBS or ESPN. The projections indicate that the rewards at stake between the partnerships will only increase with each year. The NCAA must take into consideration the ideals and goals of these broadcasting companies towards the coverage and marketing schemes towards intercollegiate games.

As previously mentioned, television rights fees made up 76% of NCAA operating revenue for 2002. If the NCAA obtains 76% of its revenue from television rights alone, it is hard to imagine that the primary interest in the decision making policies are to uphold the amateur ideals of intercollegiate athletics in America. The truth of the matter is the NCAA is a big business that is run by commercialised interest such as the television contracts between CBS and ESPN. In looking at the striking statistic that shows that television revenue alone accounts for more than three-quarters of the total revenue within the NCAA in 2002, it

could be argued that the massive revenue at stake causes the NCAA to base many of its decisions through commercialised interest in order to support the substantial expenses paid out by the NCAA to produce high quality and organised events that are attractive to American society. This attitude of basing major decisions within the NCAA through commercialistic interest stimulates a winning mentality that exists within the components of the current structure of the NCAA.

*NCAA Strategic Vision: "Looking Forward"*

Since 2002-03, the NCAA has focused on executing the 3-5 year goals identified in the strategic plan that seek to ensure a strong role for athletes in higher-education, a quality student-athlete experience, informed governance and decision making, effective national office administration improved perceptions of the Association and intercollegiate athletics and the most comprehensive reform initiatives ever established within NCAA Division I. As highlighted in the strategic review of the NCAA (2006a) one of the most important developments that occurred was that policy makers established a 'historically based' standard for the Academic Progress Rate (APR), a team based compilation that measures student-athlete retention and eligibility. From now on, teams that fail to reach that cut-off point will be subject to long-term penalties, an outcome that we all understood when we approved the APR in 2004. Division I members will train their reform focus on fiscal behaviors designed to align athletics spending with university budgets. The charge comes from a 50-member Presidential Task Force appointed in 2005 to re-center Division I athletics within universities' educational missions. That group found that spending in big-time college sports has significantly outpaced expenditures in higher education for several years, a trend most presidents and chancellors believe cannot be sustained. The Presidential Task Force determined that a crisis is possible if spending patterns do not change. Fiscal reform efforts will assist individual presidents by providing clear, concise and comparable financial data to help with athletics spending decisions. Through the use of "dashboard indicators" that allow Presidents to compare their own athletics budgets with aggregate spending of their peers, the Task Force believes Presidents and Chancellors will be better equipped to make good fiscal decisions. Division I also must address national concerns during 2007. First, the division must attend to its representative governance structure. At issue is providing the Board of Directors the tools it needs to fortify its leadership role. The Management Council's governance subcommittee has developed various models for review, and improved governance architecture is possible by the 2007-08 legislative cycles (2006a).

The long-term vision of the NCAA is summarized in the following key points listed in the benchmark in the NCAA (2006a): 1) intercollegiate athletics will be understood as a valued enhancement to a quality higher education experience; 2) student athletes will be better prepared to achieve their potential because they have participated in intercollegiate athletics. They will value their athletic endeavors as a valued part of their undergraduate education; 3) chief executive officers of member institutions will lead intercollegiate athletics at campus, conference and national levels; 4) members will view their Association as an essential partner in governing intercollegiate competition and enhancing the integration of academics and athletics; 5) intercollegiate athletics will be perceived by the Association members and public as complementary to higher education. Academic success among student athletes will enable the Association and its members to positively influence the perception of college sports; 6) individuals at all levels of intercollegiate athletics will be accountable to the highest standards of behavior; and 7) the public will view the Association as a trusted organization and wholly support its purpose and practices.

**Section VI: Summary**

In comparing BUSA and the NCAA, a stark contrast exists in the fundamental principles of each system reviewed in this chapter. In the year ending of 2002, the overall participation in official NCAA sports was 359,782 athletes. In looking at the total of undergraduate enrolment within the NCAA, the average total comes to 4.9 million students. Out of that total, only 320, 820 or 7% of students are participating in official NCAA sponsored events. Arguably the high levels of competition linked with substantial rewards and commercial gains foster participation in an elitist dimension in NCAA sponsored sports events. Within BUSA, the average total enrolment for member universities comes out to approximately 1.5 million students (HESA, 2003). Around one million students participate in BUSA sponsored events, which is 67% of the total enrolment. A considerable increase in the percentage of students taking part in sport for BUSA occurs because of the 'mass-participation' stance taken as the central goal of the organisation.

With reference to management of both systems, the student-athletes within BUSA serve as the driving force behind the management of university sports, whereas the American system is run by professional administrators on all levels. The philosophy behind the former stems from a 19th century ideology that student run sport would contribute to character building through the responsibility given to them in the management of the system at all levels of university sport (Mangan, 1988). This concept was abandoned by the American system in the late 19th century because of the lack of traditional values

established within major components of American society and more specifically the American sporting scene. The respective philosophies adopted by both systems largely account for the differences between both systems: BUSA's 'amateur' ethos contrast with the NCAA's 'commercialised' ethos.

A significant component within BUSA is the role of Student Unions in management and organisation of student sport at each respective institution. Students serve and occupy positions at all levels within the 'Student Union' in managing sport under the BUSA organisation. In contrast to the situation in England, students do not control sport in higher educational institutions of the United States. Rather, athletic directors and paid professionals hold these positions within the athletic departments that govern and manage university sports. The athletic departments within the American system do not have anything remotely close to a Student Union; they are serviced by paid professionals who organise, control, and make decisions on the experiences athletes have within university sports in America. There is very little if any empowerment of students and athletes within the NCAA structure in the management and structure of the university sporting scene (Sperber, 2000).

The amount of time given in the constitution of BUSA to govern eligibility suggests it has considerably less importance in England than American university sport and the NCAA. Although guidelines are laid down by individual Athletic Unions and BUSA concerning eligibility of student athletes, neither the volume nor their complexity approximates to those of the NCAA (BUSA, 2003; BUSA; 2006). A primary reason for this arises because there is significantly less at stake, both in terms of the material rewards and the prestige through media coverage that comes with the competitions within BUSA. Competitive matches are played with less consideration of the end result.

The concept of paying to play in taking part in sport is a foreign concept within the NCAA system. In reviewing the revenue outlook for BUSA for the year ending of 2002, athletes participating provide well over half of the core income through member subscriptions. This is a fundamental concept within student sport under BUSA's organisation. Most athletes competing within the NCAA are paid to play through athletic scholarships. Athletic scholarships are granted to athletes within the NCAA to cover the cost of tuition, room and board, books and fees etc. Within each NCAA division (I, II, III), a number of scholarships is available to athletes within each team (NCAA, 2003a). The more talented the athlete, the greater the monetary rewards will be through the scholarship. Top athletes

in each team can receive a 'full-ride' scholarship that covers all costs of their education while attending university. This NCAA inspired philosophy promotes an 'elitist' approach towards the process of university sports in the U.S.A and is an essential aspect of the American system.

The review of recent developments within BUSA demonstrates that the organisation has remained dynamic in order to enhance the quality experience for athletes participating in the Association. Key changes that have occurred since 2002-03 include: a) shift to a 'corporate culture' that will require a greater attention on resources being placed on member services to increase involvement in all aspects of the opportunities within the Association; and b) joint cooperation with University College Sport (UCS) to create an organisation that will represent the interest of all major stakeholders (e.g. students, universities, Directors of Sport and administration) in the delivery of student sport in the U.K. The recent NCAA developments reveal a strong emphasis placed on the value and the priority that academic studies has for student-athletes within the Association, a prime example of which is the creation of the Academic Progress Rate (APR), a team based compilation that measures student-athlete retention and eligibility. Although the NCAA's primary ethos is that of 'commercialism', strong efforts are being made in the 3-5 year outlook to enhance the image and importance placed on academic studies and the value it has within the Association.

This chapter has attempted to show through key components how the structure and certain policies of BUSA reflect its relatively 'amateur' stance compared with the NCAA system and its 'commercial' attitude that prevails within major components of its organisation. The BUSA philosophy can be summarised by the organisation applying a flexible, sympathetic approach towards the athletes involved in the system. The main priority of BUSA lies not with records of competitive or commercialised success, but in the numbers and the enjoyment of the participants. Undoubtedly, the NCAA is an efficiently run business enterprise organisation. The NCAA assumed such a business-like orientation, as big-time intercollegiate sport is a major form of entertainment in the U.S.A. With considerable rewards at stake for the winners, this in turn, has led to an overemphasis on winning at all levels within the NCAA. With such huge amounts of money involved it is understandable and perhaps necessary that the NCAA is run as a business corporation. The rewards, which are so great, have made winning an important objective. The next chapter discusses the methodological approaches and techniques that were used to collect, analyse,

and generate data on the importance of winning within university sport in England (UCW) and the United States (NNU).

# Chapter 4: Research Methodology

## Section I: Introduction

The process of navigating the choices for the research conducted in this thesis is a central theme in this chapter, which has the purpose of consideration, and rationale for, methods selected to assist in the achievement of the overall purpose and specific aims of the thesis. It is relevant here to restate the overall purpose, which seeks to examine the importance of winning among administration, coaches and athletes within university sport in England and the United States, focusing in particular on student-sport at University College Worcester (England) and the athletic department at Northwest Nazarene University (United States). The specific aims related to the overarching purpose of the study are to:

**Aim 1:** *Conceptualize the importance of 'winning'. The conceptualisation of winning provides a context for the ethos and importance placed on winning at institutional and individual levels within university student sport*

**Aim 2:** *Identify key contributions within the historical and socio-cultural sport development of both England and the United States in contextualising the situations at national and local levels*

**Aim 3:** *Critically examine the organisational structure along with relevant policies of BUSA and the NCAA in order to provide the contextual settings of the two local institutions as a precursor to comparison of 'ethos' within the two institutions*

**Aim 4:** *Compare perceptions of (administration personnel, coaches, and athletes) at UCW and NNU regarding sports programmes delivery, from Social Factors, Infrastructure, Environment and Attitudes perspectives*

**Aim 5:** *From three levels of analysis (country, national organisation, and local institution) compare the extent of importance of winning in the two case study university institutions*

The research design included a situational approach (case studies) that incorporated interplay of (quantitative and qualitative) data methods in pursuit of a more comprehensive understanding of organisational life at UCW and NNU institutions, because any one method invariably offers only a partial account of complex phenomena (Haag, 2004). Data collection in the multi-method case study approach involved triangulation procedure including documentary analysis, literature review, questionnaire, interviews and observations to facilitate examination of the level of importance of winning within the context of the study's overall purpose and aims. As Postlethwaite (cited in Standeven, Hardman and Fisher, 1991:58) asserts, "… there is no single scientific method appropriate for research in such an eclectic field of study, the nature of the problem should determine that one or several approaches be used."

**Section II: Research Design**

*Descriptive Research Design*

Essential characteristics in 'description' according to Haag (2004:101) are past or present issues, facts and events, which are presented as objectively as possible and for which hermeneutic approaches for acquiring knowledge may be applied when necessary. Description has to be seen as a legitimate research method, which should not be considered to be pre-scientific in order to generate basic assumptions for empirical research and clear research designs must be followed within descriptive research so that hermeneutically oriented research can be examined inter-subjectively. There are many variations of descriptive research methods: case study, action study, developmental study, *ex post facto* study, historical research, philosophical research, intercultural-comparative research and ethnographic research. Within the research design, two key issues need to be addressed: information is required to answer the overall purpose and specific aims; and the best way to collect the data? In addressing these issues, the variation employed in this study was a situational design (case study) that included multi-methods for data collection from both a bi-cultural-comparative and historical contextual framework.

*Situational Research: Case Study*

The concept of *case* remains subject to debate, and the term *study* is ambiguous (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). A case study is both the process of learning about the case and the product of our learning. The more the object of study is a specific, unique, bounded system, the greater the usefulness of the epistemological rationale (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). Nisbet and Watt (1984) refer to the case study as a specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle: "… a case study is the study of an instance in action" (72). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) refer to a case study as a 'bounded system'. In this research, it is bound to other moulding factors to provide a complete and accurate study through three levels of analysis: country, national organisation, and local institution (Dunning *et al.,* 1993).

Using case studies as a research strategy offers an abundance of research methods' opportunities, an example of which is a multi-method approach (Yin, 1989; Robson, 1993; Cohen et al*.,* 2000). Significant importance was placed on the multi-method approach because it allowed various methods to be implemented in one specific instance. As a result, this led to a greater understanding of the specific institutional cases at UCW and NNU and as Robson (1993:5) observed a "case study is a strategy for doing research which involves

an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence".

The next step was the adoption of a case that would provide the framework for the institutional comparisons. Robson (1993:147) lists six types of case studies: 1) individual case study (detailed account of one person); 2) set of individual case studies (small number of individual with common features); 3) community studies (studies of one or more local communities, which describe and analyse the pattern of and relationships between main aspects of community life); 4) social group studies (studies of both small direct contact groups, describes and analyses relationships and activities; 5) studies of organisations and institutions (many possible foci, e.g. best practice, policy implementation and evaluation, industrial relations, management and organisational issues, or organisational cultures, processes of change and adaptation; and 6) studies of events, roles and relationships (focus on a specific event – overlaps with 3 and very varied; includes study of policy, citizen encounters, studies of role conflicts, stereotypes etc.). Case study categories five and six were seen to be an appropriate basis for this study. Category five is of two institutions where an investigation takes place to identify areas such as best practice, policy evaluation, management and organisational issues and cultures. The research also falls into category six in that an examination takes place in comparing roles and relationships within the selected groups (administration, coaches, and athletes) of the case studies at UCW and NNU.

There are limitations posed by case study research that were encountered because of the nature of this study. Case study seems a poor basis for generalisation (Stake, 1995). Only a single case or just a few cases will be studied, but an advantage of a case study approach will allow these 'cases' to be studied at length. As noted by (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Stake, 1995), a weakness in a case study lies in the ability for the researcher to affectively link the findings of a specific case to forces outside the specific instance analysed. The issue here, however, is not about generalisations, but of particularisation. A researcher takes a particular case and comes to know it well, not primarily as to how different from others but what it is, what it does. As Stake (1995:8) noted, "… there is an emphasis on uniqueness, and that implies knowledge of others that the case is different from, but the first emphasis is on the understanding the case itself". This concept of 'particularisation', acknowledged by (Stake, 1995), was accepted by the researcher in the study as the primary motive for the case studies at UCW and NNU.

In order to enhance the validity of the findings that resulted from the case studies, triangulation was adopted in the research process. Triangulation may be defined as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour (Cohen et al., 2000). A single method approach yields only limited and sometimes misleading data, whereas a multi-method approach utilising triangulation has two significant advantages regarding the validity of the findings. First, whilst single observation in various fields (e.g. medicine) can provide only a limited view of the complexity of human behaviour and of situations in which human beings interact, case studies can provide a wide range of observations on a particular subject, increasing the validity of the findings. Cohen et al., (2000) add that researchers act as filters through which the environment is selectively experienced, and conclude that the researchers' have a difficult time in remaining neutral in representing the world of experience within that environment. As a result, exclusive reliance on one method, therefore, may bias or distort the researcher's view of the particular case being studied. Reducing bias within research can occur with the use of different methods of data collection. The confidence and validity of the findings from different methods are strengthened when similar results are produced, allowing the researcher to have further confidence in the analysis of patterns that emerge. A second advantage of triangulation in a multi-method study is the use of triangular techniques to overcome the problem of 'method boundedness'. Boring (1953) cited in Cohen et al., (2000:113) described this problem:

> "…as long as a new construct has only the single operational definition that it received at birth, it is just a construct. When it gets two alternative operational definitions, it is beginning to be validated. When the defining operations, because of proven correlations, are many, then it becomes reified."

The concept of triangulation further confirms the findings and helps substantiate the results from the biased, selective, personal and subjective research that can occur during a case study (Cohen et al., 2000). By using multiple methods of data gathering and implementing triangulation in analysing the results, the researcher is aware of biased data that could result and the effects it has on the validity of the results at the selected case study institutions.

Case studies pose limitations such as the relevance of the generalisations to the outside factors from the specific case studied, or the biased research that can occur during through the approach, but the case study's unique strength appears to be its ability to deal with a full variety of evidence such as documents, questionnaires, interviews, and observations (Yin, 1989; Robson, 1993; Cohen et al., 2000) that incorporates the central concerns within this research project. In addition, a case study entails both the process of learning about the case and is the product of our learning. Stake (1995) notes that to study a case many

researchers will gather data on: the nature of the study; the historical background; the physical setting; other contexts, including economic, political, legal and aesthetic; other cases through which this case is recognised; and those informants through whom the case can be known.

The researcher was faced with a strategic choice when conducting the case study. A decision had to be made on how much and for how long the complexities of the case could be studied. If the case study can be seen as a small step towards generalisation, the researcher should be able to capture and explain important features for understanding the case itself. Stake (1995) argues that not everything about the case can possibly be understood but the researcher will decide how much needs to be so. The issue appears to be that not everything about the case can, or needs to, be understood. Thus, in this study, the researcher focused on those elements, which were regarded as more relevant to the overall purpose and specific aims of the study.

*Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in a Case Study Approach*
Denzin and Lincoln (1994) offer a useful starting point for qualitative methods, where it is often described as 'rich' and 'deep', generally indicative of the attention to detail and their sustained contact with the subject area. The researcher used qualitative approaches (documentary analysis and semi-structured interviews) in the attempt to gather 'rich' and 'deep' data from the case studies at the selected institutions. These approaches are discussed in subsequent sections. In a quantitative approach, the researcher applies a pre-structured framework in an attempt to become a detached scientific observer. Essentially, quantitative approaches use a methodology, which is based on numerical data that can be subjected to some kind of measurement or statistical interpretation. The nature of the data can often be categorised as 'hard', 'rigorous' and 'reliable' (Nelson and Thomas, 1996). The use of a closed questionnaire was administered to selected 'case study' athletes at both UCW and NNU to gather data to complement qualitative generated information. The combination of multiple methods, empirical materials, perspectives and observers in a single study is best understood as a strategy that adds rigour and depth to any investigation (Flick, 1992).

Support for using both generic methods (qualitative and quantitative) is found in May's (2001:27) argument that demonstrates the interlinked nature of the two approaches: "…there may be some element of quantification even in a qualitative approach, as for

example, the researcher reporting the numbers of individuals with similar judgements or experiencing similar feelings". Furthermore, Verma and Mallick (1999) emphasise that,

> "… Quantitative and qualitative are not mutually exclusive… if a researcher decides to use a quantitative approach to the investigation of a problem, there is no obligation to ignore any qualitative data that are collected in the process. Similarly, if in another study it was decided that a qualitative approach was best suited to the topic being investigated, it could still include quantitative data" (27).

The ability to rigidly classify an approach as one or the other, qualitative or quantitative would seem to be unimportant in the scheme of gathering information within the selected case studies. What is of importance is the extent to which research techniques may demonstrate both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The researcher accepts the views of Verma and Mallick (1999) and May (2001) and adopted an approach that would allow for both qualitative and quantitative tools to be utilised in the selected case studies. These two research tools were used as a prime source of data collection. Considerations of validity and reliability were factored into the research design and process; they are discussed later in this chapter.

*Multi-Method Investigation*

The researcher accepted the multi-method approach advocated by Postlewaite (cited in Standeven *et al.,* 1991) and identified this approach in the decisions that were made to navigate the research choices in the study. The research design within the case studies at UCW and NNU included information/data collection techniques encompassing a comprehensive literature review, documentary analysis, observations, closed questionnaire, and semi-structured interviews to gather 'in-depth' and 'personal' data from the case study. The combination of methods facilitated provision of empirically generated data set alongside and within the context of primary and secondary source literature information and informed observation in order to maximise respective research strengths. It is contended that none of the data collection techniques are sufficient in isolation, but together they reveal a detailed and critical insight into the subject under investigation. A number of additional factors were central in consideration of the research design in this study: namely the principal area where the research was located; the overall purpose and specific aims; and the development of a fieldwork design at both UCW and NNU. In addition to the acquired observations, the pluralistic approach, the various data generated and information derived from the range of literature provided the basis for comparative analysis, a central facet of the overall purpose of the study. A key aspect in the generation of data for comparison was the sample of questionnaire and interview participants variously utilised in UCW and NNU sport administration, coaching and practising athletes.

*Document Analysis*

Robson (1993) argues that documentary analysis deals with certain kinds of data having a relationship between content and context. This context includes the purpose of the document, as well as institutional, social reliability and validity, which are central concerns in content analysis. Documentary sources provided a rich source of information relevant to the current study. They included UCW Student Sport, BUSA, NNU Athletic Department and NCAA primary source documents, for example: the Constitution of Worcester Students' Union (2002a; 2006a); Worcester Students' Union: Club and Society Handbook (2002b; 2006b); BUSA Summer Conference (1995); BUSA Conference (2002); University Athletic Union: '50 Years of University Sport (1969)'; NNU's Athletic Department Policies and Procedures Handbook (2002a; 2006a); NCAA Division II Institutional Self-Study Guide to Enhance Integrity in Intercollegiate Athletics (2003b; 2006b); and the NCAA Membership Report (2002a; 2006a). Because of their 'overall value' (Yin, 2003:86-87), documents play an important role in the information derived from the data gathering tools. During the 'fieldwork' at both UCW and NNU, a range of documentary records were accessed in order to collect information pertinent to the purpose and aims of the study. As the primary literature search and review for this study occurred in 2002-2003, an analysis of recent (that is 2003-2006) developments indicated in identified relevant documents was carried out for both sets of national and local institutions (BUSA/UCW and NCAA/NNU) included in the study. These developments are discussed in Chapters 3-6.

*Literature Review*

Before commencing data collection, and before considering the research design, it is important to be knowledgeable in the subject, understanding not only appropriate concepts, but also any work that has been done on the subject previously. As Gratton and Jones (2004) observe, knowledge does not exist in a vacuum, and research findings will be significant only to the extent that they are the same as, or different from, other people's work. Reviewing literature is an essential aspect in all research. A literature review is the background to the research, where it is important to demonstrate a clear understanding of the relevant theories and concepts. As Gratton and Jones (2004:51) suggest, the literature review can be seen to consist of two different aspects: the actual process of locating, reading and organising the appropriate academic literature; and the presentation of the information collected above as part of the research report.

Robson (1993: 227) argues that interviews and questionnaires can be used as the "only approach in a study". However, in order to gain a more holistic view of the current

situation within the case study, literature sources including primary and secondary texts were considered essential to the research process and outcomes. Yin (1989) notes the use of theory in case studies is "… not only an immense aid in defining the appropriate research design and data collection, but also becomes the main vehicle for generalising the results of the study" (33). A preliminary literature search and review (UCW and NNU Sport Department and library sources, review papers, journals, textbooks on issues in sport, more specifically university sport) was undertaken to assist in the identification of the area of investigation and associated research problem(s)/issues and in the formulation of research aims.  In isolation a comparative approach between two universities provides insufficient evidence for effective generalizations to be made (Cohen *et al.,* 2000).  The study involving UCW Student Sport and the NNU Athletic Department could not be conducted without different levels of analysis (country, national organisation, local institution) that would provide the depth needed for generalizations to be made within the case study (Dunning, Maguire and Pearton*.,* 1993).

The review of literature concerned with the historical-socio-cultural antecedents of sport in England and the United States with specific reference to 'winning' in ostensibly different amateur and commercial settings within universities presented in Chapter 2, provided a context for understanding the sporting culture of both countries in general.  Similarly, the review of the university sporting culture in both countries (Chapter 3) and in particular the national governing bodies (BUSA and the NCAA) provided a contextual forerunner to examination of the structure of university sport in England and America, prefatory to analysis of the situation in the two local institutions (UCW and NNU). Thus, the literature review informed the discussion on the importance of winning from the perspective of administration, coaches and athletes at both participating institutions.

*Hermeneutical Approach: Phase 1*

The questionnaire and interview surveys formed the primary data collection instruments in data generation on perceptions and attitudes on the importance of winning at both UCW and NNU. As Haag (2004) indicates, hermeneutics is a key theory of cognition, which helps to understand how knowledge can be generated in a popular and scientific way. Hermeneutics is a complex construct representing an epistemological theory, which explains how knowledge can be gained.  Hermeneutics is characterised in various forms, some of which are related to facts (documents), objects (art work), or action (movement in sport). In the context of this study, 'text-hermeneutics' according to (Haag, 2004) is of major interest as the researcher's analysis was centred on text scripts that stemmed from

the questionnaire and interview surveys. Hermeneutics in the broad sense has two standard functions: review of the literature and interpretation of the data. In Phase 1 of the hermeneutical process, the researcher focuses on the review of the literature to gain an understanding of the key concepts and themes that emerged in order for a greater appreciation of the key content that should be collected from the surveys within the study. When content data collection, especially content data treatment and content data analysis are applied, hermeneutical concepts in a narrow sense are of central concern. Standard functions of hermeneutics in a broad sense relate to two very distinctive phases of the research process. The 'broad sense' means that in any research process the researcher deals with words. In the first phase, the review of literature, the relevant literature is reviewed, which relates to the overall purpose and specific aims that are central to the research. In this first phase, the researcher must integrate the available written information relevant to the topic of investigation. Therefore, the 'review of literature' is an important basis for the development of a theoretical framework for the planned research and the basis assumptions, which represent a framework along which the research is carried out. This requires the researcher to use hermeneutics, especially in regard to the understanding of text documents. The review of literature at the beginning of the research process can be characterised as the phase, in which the researcher applies hermeneutically orientated strategies of the construction and treatment of the data collection techniques involved within the study (Haag, 2004).

*Construction of Questions: Measuring Attitudes and Perceptions*

The use of verbal data was significant in the reliability and validity of the findings. Asking questions is widely accepted as an efficient way of gathering information about past behaviour and experiences, private actions, motives, beliefs, values and attitudes. Nevertheless, asking questions may also give rise to limitations that relate to issues of data reliability and validity. For example, questions may elicit responses, which do no always reflect actually reality; respondents' attitudes, beliefs, opinions, habits, interests often are unstable (Foddy, 1993). Techniques to overcome such potential shortcomings have been based on efforts to provide a more sophisticated basis for formulation of question wording but have been hampered by the lack of an encompassing theoretical framework, although a number of methodologists have made suggestions about possible directions that might be taken. Examples include:the importance of social interaction nature of question-answer situations (Phillips, 1971); the relevance of cognitive and linguistic processes and the idea that question/answer behaviour should be treated as a form of communication (Cicourel,

1982); and the impact of contextual variables on the way respondents interpret questions (Douglas, 1985 and Briggs, 1986).

As Foddy (1993) acknowledges, it is useful to address a theoretical framework within methodological assumptions underlying the use of verbal data in social research. A theoretical analysis of these assumptions is necessary because it inevitably influences the way a researcher carries out data collection. To improve the ability to formulate questions in a research design, the researcher must understand the methodological implications of the assumptions underlying the procedures used. The construction of questions on both the questionnaire and interview surveys adopted two approaches advocated by Foddy (1993). The questionnaire was designed from a survey researcher mindset, as the items were a stimulus-response model, and the design was carefully standardised in that each respondent would give only one response to the stimulus, otherwise referred to as closed questions. As a result, standardised items with the choice of one response only leads survey researchers to assume that different responses to an item can be meaningfully compared. Other features of this approach on the questionnaire survey noted by Foddy (1993) are: the researcher has clearly defined the topic about which information is required; respondents have the information the researcher requires; respondents understand the question as the researcher intends it to be understood; and the process of answering the questions does not change the respondents' beliefs, opinions, and habits. The design of the interview survey took on a qualitative research approach. In this approach, the interview questions formulated were concerned with how human beings 'experience' their worlds. This approach favours the use of data collecting techniques that are sensitive to the 'actors' meanings. Qualitative researchers strive to 'absorb' the culture, which encompasses the organising concepts and rules, which govern the perceptions and behaviours of the members of a social group. Procedures are based on prolonged, intimate questions that respondents answer in their own words rather than in terms of pre-set response categories.

As the theoretical framework for constructing surveys (i.e. questionnaire and interview) was significant, the central focus was on the formulation of questions and how to measure 'perceptions' or 'attitudes' of UCW and NNU case study participants. The domain of 'attitudes' and 'perceptions' has received a great deal of attention from methodologist. A variety of question devices have been formulated to measure respondents' attitudes, illustrations of which include: simple open ended questions; the National Opinion Research Centre's ranking procedure for getting respondents to indicate the first, then second, then third most important items in a list; and sets of statements about the attitude object

accompanied by rating scales, which are either numeric or verbal. Respondents were instructed to tick the response options that best reflect their positions on each item; the generated scores are taken to give respondents' position in respect to the attitude object (usually labelled 'Likert' scales) (Bradburn, 1982:158-173).

Although theoretical approaches were accepted in the construction of the questions, and question devices were used as indicated previously, researchers have never managed to reach a consensus on how 'attitudes' should be defined.  This situation has caused Dawes and Smith (1985:509) to observe that:

> "It is not uncommon for psychologists and other social scientist to investigate a phenomenon at great length without knowing what they are talking about. So it is with attitude.  While articles and books are listed under the rubric 'attitude' in the Psychological Abstracts, there is little agreement about the definition of attitude and hence what aspects of attitudes are worth measuring. In fact, the typical article on attitude contains a discussion of various classical definitions of attitude, which then conclude with a statement of what the author himself or herself will mean by the term."

The point that needs to be reiterated is that failure to identify and properly deal with significant component dimensions of attitudes has been a major obstacle in the progress of attitudes' research.  Besides a lack of consensus over the way attitudes should be defined, a focus on question devices, in particular the devices for this study (i.e. open ended questions, National Opinion Ranking Centre, and Likert Scales) can be used affectively in measuring attitudes or perceptions in studies that aim to collect data in these areas.  Foddy (1993) defines attitude as, "…a learned predisposition to respond to an object or class of objects in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way." This definition focuses on the dimension of 'affect', which is assumed to be bipolar (i.e. negative-positive).  Although there are variations on Foddy's (1993) definition, the focus on the 'affect' is of central concern in the research design of this study.  Both the questionnaire and interview surveys are composed of key categories (see Questionnaire and Interview Topics) that emerged from the literature review. These categories are important in the process of collecting data on the perceptions and attitudes of the participants involved in the study according to its overall purpose and aims.

*Questionnaire Survey*

The questionnaire is a widely used instrument for collecting survey information, providing structured, often numerical data, able to be administered without the presence of the researcher, and often being relatively straightforward to analyse (McLean and Wilson, 1994). Defined simply, a questionnaire is a standardised set of questions to gain

information from a subject. They are associated with quantitative research design, when relatively simple measurements are required from a large sample group. It is important to note that the justification for using questionnaires listed above, are counterbalanced by issues such as the amount of preparation in developing the instrument, piloting and refining the questionnaire, the limited scope of the data that are collected, and the limited flexibility of response; although, as McLean and Wilson (1994) stated, this can be an attraction to the researcher. Questionnaires are appropriate in a variety of contexts, where relatively simple, generally quantitative information is required from a large sample group. The data can then be summarised through the use of tables and graphs, or analysed statistically to answer research questions (Gratton and Jones, 2004).

Though there is a range of types of questionnaire, according to Oppenheim (1992), there is a simple rule of thumb in selecting the appropriate type:

> "…The larger the size of the sample, the more structured, closed and numerical the questionnaire may have to be, and the smaller the size of the sample, the less structured, more open and word-based the questionnaire may be. Highly structured, closed questionnaire are useful in that they can generate frequencies of response amenable to statistical treatment and analysis. They also enable comparisons to be made across groups in the sample" (115).

Questionnaires generally fall into three categories: 1) postal questionnaire; 2) telephone questionnaire; 3) face to face questionnaire (Gratton and Jones, 2004). The advantages of the questionnaire over interviews embrace replicability (because it is anonymous), encouragement of greater honesty, and economy (time and budget constraints) (Cohen et al., 2000). That is not to say that there are disadvantages in use of questionnaires. Cohen et al., (2000: 129) indicate several disadvantages: low percentage of return; the interviewer is able to answer questions concerning both the purpose of the interview and any misunderstandings experienced by the interviewee; only closed questions are answered; the questionnaire may lack coverage or authenticity; only open items are used; respondents may be willing to write their answer for one or another; can present problems to participants of limited literacy; and can be filled out in a hurry. Face to face questionnaires were included in the present research in order to obtain information that interviews could not provide and, which, would provide necessary additional data for comparison on the sport departments at UCW and NNU.

*Designing the Questionnaire*

Once the researcher decided that the face-to-face questionnaire was an appropriate data collection instrument for achievement of the overall aims of the study, the second stage of

questionnaire-based research is that of initial design. Designing questions that actually fulfil all of the researcher's needs is more time consuming. As Oppenheim (1992:7) notes:

> "Too often, surveys are carried out on the basis of insufficient design and planning or on the basis of no design at all. Fact-gathering can be an exciting and tempting activity to which a questionnaire opens a quick and seemingly easy avenue, the weaknesses in the design are frequently not recognised until the results have to be interpreted."

Before designing the questionnaire, the researcher established a framework that would allow for the needs of the questionnaire to be clearly identified. The questionnaire, as Gratton and Jones (2004) acknowledge, was designed to be as simple and short as possible, yet would still generate the required data to assist in achieving the aims of the study. As previously mentioned, the researcher selected the theoretical framework and types of questions before designing the survey. The questionnaire was designed from a survey research perspective, with primarily closed questions, in producing a stimulus response model for the participants involved. The questionnaire items (see Appendix A and Appendix B) were structured on a Likert Scale format. The Likert Scale is a useful device for the researcher, as it builds in a degree of sensitivity, and differentiation of response whilst still generating numbers and can generate a range of responses to a given question or statement. Rating scales are widely used in research, for they combine the opportunity for a flexible response with the ability to determine frequencies, correlations and other forms of quantitative analysis (Oppenheim, 1992). They afford the researcher the freedom to fuse measurement with opinion, quantity and quality. The size of the sample selected for the questionnaires as well as the need for additional data for more meaningful comparisons helped determine the choice of a closed or structured questionnaire format. A largely structured questionnaire format was adopted in order to select patterns for observation and comparisons (Oppenheim, 1992). Such a questionnaire is demanding in time, especially in the early stages, when necessary piloting and consequent refinement of the instrument are taken into account. However, once the questionnaire has been 'set up' then analysis can be speedily completed. An open-ended question was also incorporated into the questionnaire format. Robson (1993) and Cohen et al., (2000) point out that the desire for a researcher to use open-ended questions appears to be 'almost universal.' It is the open-ended responses that might contain the 'gems' of information that otherwise might not have been evident in the questionnaire responses. Further, it places the responsibility for, and ownership of, the data much more firmly into the respondents' hands.

Once the specific questions had been framed, it was then important to consider the sequence within the questionnaire. Gratton and Jones (2004) suggest that there is no set

order for questions, but that a researcher should consider the following: commencing with a few straightforward, closed questions requiring factual information; avoidance of complex questions, requiring detailed thought, or questions requiring lengthy responses at the beginning of the questionnaire; group questions on a similar theme together; and avoiding jumping from topic to topic. Unlike many other forms of data collection, questionnaire surveys generally allow the researcher a 'one-off' chance at research. If the questionnaire is badly designed, then it is unlikely that the researcher will have another opportunity to collect the data because of time constraints or difficulties in finding other respondents. Amongst potential errors in questionnaire designs are: ambiguous/complex wording; incorrectly pre-coding closed questions; leading questions; double-barrelled questions; threatening questions; and incorrectly operationalizing concepts.

One standard questionnaire was designed and distributed to fifty male athletes at each UCW and NNU. As previously mentioned in figure 4.1, the researcher selected three 'elite' male teams from both UCW and NNU. The teams selected for UCW and NNU were chosen using a purposive sampling technique in order to produce an appropriate number of participants that would give a balanced perception on the importance of winning at both case study institutions. The instrument's questions were formulated so as to encompass pre-identified areas central to the study's aims related to the overall purpose. The topics identified in figure 4.2 for the questionnaires were consistent with the categories identified for the interviews out of concerns for reliability and validity.

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**Section A: Social Factors -** consist of influences on certain values such as: societal, university, departmental, coaches', teammates', and personal values.

**Section B: Infrastructure -** different structures that have an influence on the participants within the both systems, these structures include; BUSA and NCAA governing bodies, UCW and NNU sport departments, team structure, coaching structure, and training facilities.

**Section C: Environment -** constitutes the influence of environments that exist within each system at UCW and NNU sport departments: recreational, competitive, social, mass-participation, and commercialised sport.

**Section D: Attitudes -** the value and importance of activities regarding the participants in each sport system: additional personal training, commitment to team sessions, ambition for success, academic importance, participation, winning, team and personal rewards, social relationships and status, bursaries and notoriety.

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**Figure 4.1: Questionnaire Topics**

The questionnaires topics used within figure 4.2 at UCW and NNU provided 'hard' facts that supported or contradicted the data that came from the interviews with selected administration personnel, coaches and athletes.

*Interviews*

The nature and content of interview questions are a key consideration in providing valid and reliable information. The most common type of interviewing is individual, face-to-face verbal interchange, but it can also take the form of face-to-face group interviewing, mailed or self-administered questionnaires, and telephone surveys. Interviewing can be structured, semi structured, or unstructured (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). A structured approach usually yields predominantly fixed alternative questions. This has the advantages of ensuring reliability between interview situations, allow quantification of the data and provide factual information. However, such an approach risks superficiality. An unstructured approach may utilise an *aide memoir* of research topics to be addressed, utilising open ended questions, which would facilitate probing of key concepts and respondents' perceptions and knowledge. A semi-structured approach contains elements of both of the above by using a schedule of questions having open and fixed-alternative natures, thus, enabling deviation to explore emergent themes.

Bryman (2001:160) suggested that "…multi-site studies are probably the most structured… because of the need to draw reasonably comparable data across different cases". The current research, therefore, required a structurally coherent core of questions to ensure comparability allied to open-response questions to add depth to the information gathered. Multi-site studies offer "potentially greater generalizability" (Bryman, 2001:161) and therefore, a "structured open response interview" (King, 1997:16). King (1997) offered several criteria to be avoided when phrasing questions. Questions need to be simple and the interviewer needs to avoid double questions to eliminate any confusion towards the interviewee. Leading questions imply the interviewers' own perceptions, which may result in the respondent agreeing out of politeness. Finally, attempting to interpret an answer may impart an element of misinterpretation, which the respondent could feel unable to challenge. In semi-structured interviews in particular, such an appreciation should be evident because questions will be forwarded that have not been pre-determined.

The over-riding advantage of the research interview is that the technique is flexible. It allows a pre-determined approach to be implemented whilst enabling depth and scope to be incorporated. King (1997) accepts the method from the perspective of the interviewee.

However, the interview process can be time-consuming for the interviewer as well as the respondent and in many cases can result in data overload (King, 1997). A lack of precision in the results, subjectivity in responses and bias introduced by the interviewer and the issue of non-generalisable findings and difficulty in replication of findings are also offered as criticisms (King, 1997). Advocates of quantitative methods (Campbell and Stanley, 1963: Smith, 1975a) criticise qualitative research techniques by pointing to the lack of precision in the methodological procedures particularly in respect of reliability, replication and generalisability. Three broad positions are reflected by qualitative methodologists in relation to issues of validity and reliability. First, the modification of quantitative criteria such as highlighting data collection and analysis of methods, developing standardised coding schemes, and triangulating research methods. Secondly, rejecting the notions of validity and reliability as inappropriate to the naturally occurring situation. Finally, providing alternative ethnographic criteria such as respondent validation or those developed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirm ability.

Replication is, therefore, viewed as an inappropriate construct for the qualitative researcher to consider, however, convention, in the form of validity, is wholeheartedly adopted. Veal (1997:35) notes that, "procedural validity, the extent to which the measure truly reflects the phenomenon being considered", encapsulated the concept of interviewer bias. An increase in the degree of validity conversely affects the level of bias. Bias has three essential sources: i) the characteristics of the interviewer; ii) the characteristics of the respondent; and iii) the substantive nature and content of the interview questions (Veal, 1997; Cohen et al., 2000). More specifically these include: the attitudes and opinions of the interviewer; the tendency for the interviewer to see the respondent in his/her own image; the tendency to seek answers that support preconceived notions; misconceptions of what the respondent is actually saying; and misunderstandings by the respondent of what is being asked (Cohen et al., 2000). Researcher's such as Dey, (1993) and Bryman (2001) have proposed ways to reduce bias, most notably by careful formulation of questions, thorough training procedures to aid awareness of potential problems, and interviewer and respondent character matching. For the current research, the first two proposals are plausible (the second can be significantly gauged at the pilot stage), but the latter character matching has no feasible basis as the researcher completed each interview personally.

*Typologies of interview*

Many research methods practitioners discuss interviewing as a method by highlighting their preferred typology and providing a set of prescribed guidelines for their practical use. The following section outlines the type of interviews most closely associate with the present study, demonstrating the overlapping and sometimes confusing nature of the labelling of interviews in the literature. Fontana and Frey (2000) outline six major types of interview – structured; group; unstructured; creative; oral and post-modern. The incompatibility of some of these types to the present study is demonstrated as Fontana and Frey describe their respective categories. For example, in structure interviews, they note that the interviewer asks all respondents the same series of pre-established questions and they add "this kind of interview often elicits rational responses, but it overlooks or inadequately assesses the emotional dimension" (651). This makes structure interviewing unsuitable for the present research. The difficulty of labelling a qualitative interview as a specific typology is made evident when Fontana and Frey (2000) describe the unstructured interview. They refer to unstructured interviews as being the same as open-ended ethnographic interviews; and in turn, they describe ethnographic interviews as in-depth interviews also. The close methodological links between qualitative interviewing and participant observation is then made explicit:

> "…many qualitative researchers differentiate between in-depth (or ethnographic) interviewing and participant observation. Yet, as Lofland (1971) points out, the two go hand in hand, and many of the data gathered in participant observation come from informal interviewing in the field" (Fontana and Frey, 2000:652).

Robson (2000) asserts that "interviews can be used as the primary or only approach in a study, as in a survey or many grounded theory studies" (270). He distinguishes between the categories of fully structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews, adding that the latter two are widely used in flexible qualitative research designs. Semi-structured interviews often have pre-determined questions but crucially, for the present study, the wording and order can be changed and explanations given; questions which seem inappropriate with a particular interviewee can be omitted, or additional ones added. Robson (2002) stresses that semi-structured interviewers "have their shopping list of topics… and have considerable freedom in the sequencing of questions, in their exact wording, and in the amount of time and attention given to different topics" (278). He goes on to describe semi-structured and unstructured as qualitative research interviews which should be used where a study wishes to focus on the meaning of particular phenomena to the participants and where individual perceptions of processes within a social unit, such as

a work group, department, club are to be studied. This type of interview has particular resonance within the current study.

Flick (2002) is a little more specific, providing several possible sub-categories of the semi-structured interview which he says is used when the subject is more likely to express self in a more open forum than in the standardised interview or questionnaire. The sub-categories are 'focused', 'problem-centred', 'semi-standardised', 'expert' and 'ethnographic'. The latter three appear to be relevant to the present study, with semi-standardised appearing similar to what other writers label 'semi-structured'. 'Ethnographic' is relevant due to the aforementioned opportunities for an interview to often arise spontaneously from the field. The expert interview seems to apply to the present study's groups (administration personnel, coaches, practising athletes) at UCW and NNU. Flick (2002:89) notes:

> "…the interviewee is of less interest as a (whole) person than in his or her capacity of being an expert for a certain field of activity. He or she is integrated into the study not as a single case but as representing a group (of specific experts).

To summarise, there are a variety of terms used to describe and label the numerous types of interviews used in research methods. There are slight differences between some research practitioners' terms, and many of these typologies of interview share characteristics with those of other practitioners' typologies. For example, Flick (2002) describes the 'semi-standardised' interview, which can be further sub-categorised as 'expert' or 'ethnographic'. These appear to share most characteristics with Robson's (2000) 'semi-structured' interviews. In turn, these also appear similar to Fontana and Frey's (2000) 'ethnographic' interview, which is similar to the 'in-depth' interview also mentioned by Fontana and Frey. The present study utilises the semi-structured interview and the expert interview at various times and under certain circumstances throughout the data collection process.

The advantages of a semi-structured interview outlined by King (1997) were appropriate for the type of research and overall aims that were present within the study. A structured approach was maintained through an interview guide and the sequence of interview questions was established prior to the interview, but the respondents had freedom in their responses (see Appendix C and Appendix D). Open-ended questions were used because they allowed the interviewer to make a well-rounded assessment of what the respondent really believed (Robson, 1993). They also aimed to give the respondents the opportunity to convey their feelings and opinions about the importance of winning within university sport at UCW and NNU. An open-ended approach allowed for terminological and conceptual differences, along with varying cultural practices in UCW (England) and NNU (USA) to

surface in the interview. Such questions can also bring additional 'colour' and 'flavour' to the research gathered within the case study. One key advantage of the interview as a research method is that of the opportunity to probe. Probing allows the researcher to obtain additional information from the respondent. Two different types of probes were utilised by the researcher in the interview: clarification probes, these allow the interviewer to clarify any point that was not clear or open to misunderstanding by the interviewee; and elaboration probes, these are used to elicit a more in-depth response about a particular point related to the interview.

*Interview Design*

Designing the interview largely follows the same process as designing a questionnaire. The researcher must identify what information is required, and how that information will be collected. The key difference with interviews is that once the researcher has determined the questionnaire items, they cannot be changed, whereas interview schedules have inherent propensity for refinement. The interviews were designed for three different groups of participants at each institution within the case studies (administrative personnel, coaches, athletes). Different sets of questions were included in the interviews for each of the three groups. This approach was adopted in order to cover the different experiences and perspectives that existed because of the different roles that each group played within the sport departments at UCW and NNU. However, there were some identical questions posed to all three groups to enable the researcher to compare the similarities and differences at each institution. The pre-designed questions included in the interviews were first connected to the research aims and secondly were related to the particular group of participants for the interview guides for the selected groups listed above). This selection was made because each respondent's 'position' would facilitate provision of relevant specific insights in perceptions and attitudes on the importance placed on 'winning' within the two respective sport departments. The duration of the interviews took one hour to complete. The interviews were tape-recorded for reason of analysis and comparison. Interviewees were asked to sign a consent form for each of the three sample groups' questions were both specifically aimed at their experiences and involvement within the participating institutions and more generally at pervasive (or common) issues. Identical questions were asked of each group in order to reduce the risk of variation in answers attributed to different questions and sequence rather than variation in the actual responses. Reducing this risk would allow for a stronger case of validity within the pending results.

*Issues Embraced in the Interviews*

The issues embraced in the interviews were consistent with the questionnaire design. Additional to the questionnaire design, the researcher included questions that involved the relative work experience of the selected participants within the interviews. With that in mind, the categories that comprised the interview questions are shown in figure 4.3:

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**Work Experience -** encompasses the participant's introduction to the profession, their involvement relating to their experiences and the responsibilities they have within the sport department.

**Section A: Social Factors -** consist of influences on certain values such as: societal, university, departmental, coaches', teammates', and personal values.

**Section B: Infrastructure -** different structures that have an influence on the participants within both systems, these structures include; BUSA and NCAA, UCW and NNU sport departments, team structure, coaching structure, training facilities and bursaries.

**Section C: Environment -** constitutes the influence of environments that exist within each system at UCW and NNU: recreational, competitive, social, mass-participation, and commercialised sport.

**Section D - Attitudes:** the attitudes towards activities regarding the participants in each sport system: additional personal training, commitment to team sessions, ambition for success, academic importance, participation, winning, team and personal rewards, social relationships and notoriety.

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**Figure 4.2: Interview Topics**

The interview topics selected in figure 4.3 comprised the key issues that the researcher selected from the literature review to accord with the overall purpose and aims of the study. The skills required by an interviewer are more than those of simply being able to talk to others. The overall objective of the interview is to gather valid and reliable data to answer the research question. To achieve this, Flick (2002) suggests the following techniques: establish rapport; keep the discussion going, short periods of silence may actually be beneficial, in that the interviewee may be persuaded to provide further data; avoid asking questions which can be answered with simply a 'yes' or a 'no'; avoid jargon and abstractions with which the interviewee is unlikely to be familiar; avoid double negatives and loaded expressions; be non-judgemental in your reactions to the interviewee's responses, and avoid reacting in any way that may influence further data collection; and remember to keep focusing on your research objectives.

*Pilot Study*

Questionnaire and interview surveys enable revisions and refinement of the chosen research instruments. Veal (1997) outlined several functions of the pilot survey with relevance to both quantitative and qualitative techniques. In the case of questionnaires, the 'pilot' enables the testing of wording, understanding, question sequencing, layout convenience and, significantly, to gauge the relevance of content. Additionally, analysis procedures can be trialled. In the current study, the pilot questionnaire was administered to the men's field hockey team at UCW. The researcher piloted the design for both the questionnaire survey and interview script with the intent to analyse common themes, categories, and terminology in the responses of the participants and increase the validity of answers from both instruments. Changes were made after the participants had completed the pilot questionnaire and a series of informal conversations with the participants; the researcher identified key vocabulary that was a source of confusion to answering the questions effectively: Question 4) 'Playing vs. Studies', athletes were confused by the use of 'Studies', a decision was made to replace 'Studies' with 'Academics'; Question 11a) Confusion over the terminological word, 'Community' was replaced with 'Society'; Question 12e) 'Level of Play' was modified to 'Standard of Play' as the athletes participating in the questionnaire were confused about what 'Level' entitled; 14a) 'Student Sport' was changed to 'Recreational' for the Environment section, as the responses from the participants did not address the topic identified by the researcher for the purposes of the study.

For interview procedures, the pilot enables the testing of interview technique and likely time for interview completion. The pilot study also allows the researcher to focus upon particular areas that may have been unclear. In addition, pilot interviews may be used to test certain questions. The framework of the pilot allows the researcher to begin to develop and solidify a rapport with participants as well as to establish effective communication patterns (Cohen et al., 2000). During the pilot interview, the researcher must focus on the exchange, listening, taking notes, but staying in control of the data gathering, thinking about the relevance, clarity of the interview questions and responses from the participants (Stake, 1995). Main questions should be kept in mind along with probing questions and the types of responses that are critical areas the researcher must review and modify accordingly from the results from the pilot. The pilot interview was held with the Manager of the Sport Centre at UCW. During the course of the interview, the researcher identified problems that became apparent from the responses of the Sport Centre Manager. The first question in the interview transcript, '*Do you think social values and sport are interdependent?*' produced a

response, which related to the situation at the local level (UCW). The question was reformulated to relate to the situation at national level (country) to reveal whether social values had any influence on the sport values that are present within society. After informal conversations with the interviewee, the researcher decided that responses that were not indicative of the purpose of the question would be followed up with 'process' questions for clarification. As Kvale (1996) (cited in Cohen et al., 2000:276) observes, questions that are determined as 'process' questions are those that follow-up a topic or idea, probe for information or response, directly ask for information, indirectly ask for information and interpret respondents' replies. These 'process' questions were utilised in the interviews with the case study participants and helped reduce the responses that may have been unclear in answering the overall purpose and aims within the study.

Further issues illuminated in the pilot interview occurred in the repetition of certain responses and the time length of the interview. The researcher identified questions that were originally designed in the pilot interview that produced repetitive responses from the pilot interviewee, such as for example, the item regarding, "…for the majority of public schools and higher education sport, the focus is not on technique but more on participation and enjoyment of the game" (UCW Sport Centre Manager, 2003), reiterated responses that had been produced by previous items addressed. Such question items were omitted from the final interview transcript. As a result, the interview length was reduced from one hour and thirty minutes in the pilot interview, to an average of one hour for the twelve interviews that were carried out at the case study institutions.

Other decisions made during the pilot study usually concern effective use of time, participants' issues and researcher issues (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). Because working in the field is unpredictable, a good deal of the time, the qualitative researcher must be ready to adjust schedules and to be flexible about adding or subtracting observations or interviews or even re-arrange terms of the original agreement (Denzing and Lincoln, 1994). With this in mind, the research within the study was of comparative nature, including two countries, England and the United States. The researcher was based in England during the course of the study and only had the time and resources to make one research trip to the case study in the United States, NNU. Because of time, distance, and resource constraints, the researcher made the decision to conduct pilot studies for both the questionnaire and interview instruments on only participants from UCW (Men's Field Hockey Team, Sport Centre Manager). The researcher acknowledges the significance of the pilot study and accepts the limitation that may result in not conducting a pilot on participants from the

questionnaire and interview design at NNU. However, the researcher is an American citizen and has gained a good understanding of social values that are present within American society. Substantial experience has also been gained within the NCAA and NNU Athletic Department as a student-athlete for four years. As a result, the researcher had a good understanding of the terminological differences that may exist on both the questionnaire and interview design, and made necessary changes accordingly. With the pilot tests and modifications made on the design of the questionnaire and interview at UCW, along with the researcher's background and substantial experience of the American system, the response outcomes from the instruments used on the NNU participants have not been devalued.

*Observation*

The researcher undertook 'observation' because it afforded the opportunity to gather data from 'live' situations. An advantage of observation is that the researcher is allowed to observe the situation at first hand, rather than relying on collecting information from primary literature sources and empirically generated data. Though it is possible to argue that all research is some form of participant observation, since researchers cannot study the world without being part of it, there are, for example, levels of participation in observation (LeCompte and Preissle, 1993). The 'complete participant' is a researcher who takes on an insider role in the group being studied, and maybe who does not even declare that he or she is a researcher. Cohen et al., (2000:305) list four types of observation techniques:

1. Complete observer
2. Observer as participant
3. Participant as observer
4. Complete participant

In the case of the present study, the author acted in the capacity of the participant as observer. Cohen et al's, (2000) classification of observer roles as a participant in simple observations, firmly places the researcher's position prior to the commencement of this study, at the participatory end of the continuum. Participant observations were used in the research as a secondary method. Although participants knew that the researcher was making observations, the researcher was regarded as a peer or one of 'them' as the observations were being carried out throughout the duration of the study. In participant observations, the researcher stays with the participants for a substantial period of time to reduce reactivity effects (the effects of the researcher on the researched), recording what is happening, whilst taking a role in that situation. The method of 'simple' observation was utilised within the case study (Robson, 1993). The observations were used as a supportive

technique that complemented data obtained by other means such as the interviews and questionnaires.

*Sample: Method and Participants*

The most relevant sampling method for the current research was that of purposive sampling, whereby "…researchers hand-picked the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgement of their typicality. In this way, they build up a sample that is satisfactory to their specific needs" (Cohen et al., 2000:89). Different types of non-probability sampling were reviewed in trying to select the appropriate samples for both the participants in the questionnaires and interviews within the case study (Cohen et al., 2000). These included: convenience sampling; quota sampling; dimensional sampling; snowball sampling; and focused sampling.

Further justification of the selection of purposive sampling related to the size of the sample, which is a logical determinant in expense, time and accessibility. This factor "depends upon the purpose of the study and the nature of the population under scrutiny" (Cohen et al., 2000: 89). In the current study, the emphasis on the generation of data based on perceptions and attitudes through interview schedules has to be seen in relation to employment of a questionnaire instrument design to produce 'background' information to be used as reference support when undertaking the subsequent in-depth interviews.

As mentioned earlier, purposive sampling entails the researcher hand picking the participants that will satisfy the needs of the study. More specifically, this style of approach focuses on a particular person, groups or institutions, or of particular relationships, processes or interactions that are expected to offer especially illuminating examples, or to provide especially good tests for propositions of a broad nature. Purposive sampling then, allows the researcher to choose a case on the grounds that it illustrates some feature or process, which the researcher is trying to analyse within the chosen case study (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). However, purposive sampling alone does not provide sole justification for the participants to be selected within the case study. Silverman (2000) believes "… it is necessary to think critically about the population interested in and choose the sample case carefully on this basis" (104). Additional considerations for choosing UCW and NNU as the sport departments under investigation were made by the researcher on the criteria listed immediately below:

- participation in both systems
- similar in physical size
- similar in number of students enrolled within the institutions
- availability of documents for analysis
- access to administration, coaches and players for questionnaires and interviews
- institutions are relatively small in comparison to the average of enrolment in universities in England and the United States

Additionally, the researcher was able to participate in both systems as an athlete, thus a more in-depth study could be undertaken and observations could be included in the discussion of the results. The similarity of both institutions in terms of enrolment of students and physical size were key factors in allowing the researcher to undertake comparisons of the two institutions and the relevant personnel's perceptions and attitudes.

The research used purposive sampling for both the participants within the questionnaire and the semi-structured interviews. Figure 4.1 shows the male teams chosen for the purposive sample participating in the questionnaires used within the study. A central issue in considering the reliability and validity of the questionnaire survey involved the representative sample. An unrepresented, skewed sample can distort the data and inhibit reliable statistical analysis. Under these considerations, figure 4.1 shows male teams selected to participate in the questionnaire part of the empirical-related research.

| UCW Student Sport | NNU Athletic Department |
|---|---|
| 1. Basketball | 1. Basketball |
| 2. Rugby | 2. Baseball |
| 3. Football | 3. Cross-Country |

**Figure 4.3: Participating Teams in the Questionnaire**

The essential selection criteria for athletes participating in the questionnaire primarily involve the attainment (or near attainment) of an elite level of performance in their respective sport for their particular institution. In addition, the teams at both institutions were all male teams to limit the scope of areas researched. In focusing on one gender of athletes at both institutions, a sharp focus on the importance of winning could be retained without the issue of gender that might complicate the interpretation of findings. Ideally the researcher would have selected three identical sports from both institutions. Realistically, basketball was the only elite male sport that was represented at both institutions. As a result, the researcher selected two additional sports from each institution that were of similar number of players. This acknowledged a compromise of selection of different sports from the two institutions. No other viable option was available, apart from a focus on

one sport (basketball) only, which would have narrowed the range of participants and hence, have produced a less balanced perspective on the extent of the importance of a 'winning' ethos. Collectively from the three sports, fifty male athletes within each institution were selected from UCW and NNU teams to provide a total of 100 to whom the questionnaire was administered. Along the same lines of the structured questionnaire, purposive sampling was also used for the semi-structured interviews. In total, six participants were chosen from each institution's sport departments, comprising they represented administration, coaches and athletes. Because basketball was the only sport represented in both institutions, players were selected from this common activity. Collectively, the selected interviewees would assist in illuminating for programme related strategies and in achievement of research aims.

*Hermeneutical Approach: Phase 2*

According to Haag (2006), Phase 2 of the 'Hermeneutical Approach' should be applied at this stage of the research design. The second phase of hermeneutics applied within the research design was implemented for the interpretation of data (results) from the primary data collecting tools (questionnaires and interviews). The researcher interprets the research results in both words and numbers. Therefore, hermeneutics in a broad sense is of fundamental importance for any research process. Each research process ends with the data interpretation independently of the research concept, be it hermeneutically or empirically oriented. The researcher constructs this interpretation as objectively as possible with respect to the available findings. The hermeneutically oriented cognitive processes during the interpretation phase are mainly related to theoretical and logical strategies, denoted as information sharing, systematizing, summarizing, comparing, interpretation, explaining, justifying and proving (Haag, 2006). The interpretation of data, as one step in the research process, leads to an acceptance or rejection of basic assumptions, which are explained by rational thinking according to the overall aims in the study. In doing so, this step will limit the researcher from a relatively narrow concept of an experimental research approach. Explaining has to be viewed in a broader sense on the basis of plausible considerations (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). The interpretation of data is viewed in relation to the continuum paradigm of research methods (i.e. descriptive research design). Scientific work intends to clarify and explain issues, in the case of this design, a hermeneutically oriented explanation based on the concept of plausibility within the descriptive research concept was used in regards to the nature of the data collected (i.e. words and numbers) in summarising the results from the case studies at UCW and NNU.

Once the survey responses had been gathered, it was important for the researcher to understand the value in content analysis, as the primary tools used (questionnaire, interview) were number and text producing instruments. Gratton and Jones (2004:167) define content analysis as, "the analysis of communications, which involves the use of systematic procedures to describe the content of text." Different texts are common as examples include written, audio, or visual. Content analysis generally involves the researcher determining the presence, meanings and relationships of certain words or concepts within the text. In many cases, the advantages and disadvantages of this approach reflect those of observational approaches, an example of which is misunderstood meanings with associated texts. Thus, the researcher should be aware of those issues when considering undertaking a content analysis. Gratton and Jones (2004) acknowledge 5 key steps in using content analysis within a research study, these are: 1) identify texts to be used; 2) identify the data set to be used; 3) identify categories, or codes into which the data will be placed. Codes can be taken from existing theory, or researchers may develop their own. Ensure the codes are appropriate to fulfil the research overall purpose and aims; 4) place each relevant text or numbers into the appropriate category; and 5) analyse the resultant data.

As well as frequencies of occurrence, the researcher can measure the number of other variables as part of a content analysis. Variables such as the prominence of a particular concept, for example where does the concept appear? Does it appear early or later within the text? How much space in the text is devoted to this particular concept? In what context does the concept appear? These variables were all taken into consideration when the content analysis was carried out on both the questionnaire and interview surveys. Although there are many advantages of utilising content analysis within a research study, there are two main issues highlighted by Gratton and Jones (2004) that a researcher must be aware of, these are: not collecting a representative sample of texts, consider the sampling method clearly, and ensure that if fulfils the objectives of the research.

*Quantitative Data Analysis (Questionnaires)*

Once the quantitative data had been collected, it needed to be organised, analysed and interpreted. Quantitative data needed to be analysed so that it may meaningfully used to answer the overall aims of the study. Statistical analysis can be broadly separated into two forms, descriptive and inferential. In order to properly address the main research issues and aims, the researcher chose descriptive statistics in organising the data for analysis in the case studies within the research. The *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences for*

*Windows (SPSS for Windows version 14.0)* was utilized in analysis of data appropriately coded for the various types of surveys' items responses (Gratton and Jones, 2004). In order to highlight any significant differences in findings from UCW and NNU survey participant athletes' responses, the independent t-test measure was chosen.

*Intra-Group Comparisons: Non-parametric statistics - Kruskal-Wallis Test*

Intra-group comparisons were carried out to determine whether there were sport-specific variations between UCW (football, rugby, and basketball), and NNU (cross-country, baseball and basketball) teams' responses to survey items. To this end the Kruskal-Wallis Test was utilised as a non-parametric test do not have the stringent requirements of parametric tests and do not make assumptions about the underlying population distribution (Pallant, 2005). They are ideal for use with data that are measured and nominal (categorical) and ordinal (ranked) scales, as was the case in the questionnaire format used in the study with the use of a Likert (ordinal) scale. Furthermore, they are useful with small samples, and when the data does not meet the stringent assumptions of the parametric techniques. The Kruskal-Wallis Test is the non-parametric alternative to a one-way between groups analysis of variance. It allows the researcher to compare the scores on some continuous variable for three or more groups (Pallant, 2005).

*Qualitative Data Analysis (Interviews)*

The digitally recorded 12 interviews were for analysis in accord with the three concurrent flows of activity proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994): i) data reduction; ii) data display; iii) and conclusion drawing and verification. For the 'data reduction' activity flow, interpretative qualitative analysis was employed. For interpretational analysis, elements, categories, patterns, and relations between properties emerge from the analysis of the data and are not predetermined. Two main operations play important roles in the development of an organised system of unstructured data: first, there is the detailed examination of the data to identify topics which best describe particular segments of text; and secondly, there is the determination of common features which characterise the text segments in order to create and understand the relationships between topics. These two operations are typical of interpretational qualitative analysis and are usually undertaken in two separate phases: data organisation and data interpretation, which can also be seen as creating tags and creating categories (Tesch, 1990; Salmela, Abderrahim, and Storm., 1993).

The first part of interpretational analysis for the interview surveys used within the case studies at UCW and NNU, creating tags, aimed to produce a set of concepts, which

adequately represent information included in the interview transcripts according to the overall aims of the study. An open coding strategy identified meaningful pieces of information (Strauss, 1987). This procedure involved dividing the text of each interview into 'meaning units' defined as, "… a segment of text that is comprehensible by itself and contains one idea, episode or piece of information" (Tesch, 1990:116). In open coding, the coder looks for terms used by the individuals who are being studied that have significance for the overall aims of the study. In summary, creating tags separated relevant portions of data from the interview transcripts context, or 'de-contextualises' the information (Tesch (1990). By de-contextualising the relevant information, the researcher was able to reduce the information available from the interview surveys and able to organise the information into the relevant categories, (Social Factors, Infrastructure Environment, Attitudes) after the first phase of the hermeneutical process. From this point, the second step of interpretational analysis, creating categories, involved listing and comparing tags derived in the first phase. The purpose of the second step of interpretational analysis is, therefore, to 're-contextualise' the information into distinct categories, resulting in a set of categories which serves as a preliminary organising system, as in the case of the current study (Social Factors, Infrastructure, Environment, Attitudes). The initial classification system is built according to three critical characteristics of categorisation: coding experience, inductive inference, and similarity (Smith, 1990). First, the coding or tagging experience, which is essential to categorising a large amount of qualitative data, is used to rearrange the text into manageable and organised units. Second, inductive inference is used to create categories. The important dimensions of the interviews emerge from the analysis. In other words, tags and categories are generated from the data (Patton, 1980; Miles and Huberman, 1994). Finally, the categories are judged by their similarity, so that data in each category are similar to each other yet distinct from the other categories of data within the interview survey. This characteristic of a category can be referred to as its internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity (Patton, 1980). According to Tesch (1990) categories for sorting the segments must remain flexible during the analysis process. Because categories are developed mostly from the data, they can be modified and refined until a satisfactory system is established, as was the case in the categories that were established on both the questionnaire and interview surveys used in the current study.

For the 'data display' activity flow, assembled information permitted conclusion drawing within the research process (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). Thinking about meanings and more focused displays may include structured summaries, examples of which are seen in this study in graphs that were generated through the use of a focus display on the

qualitative findings that are shown by the matrices of the text from the documentary analysis and interview quotations (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Once the significant data has been displayed, the third activity flow is 'conclusion drawing' and 'verification' is actioned to draw meaning from the data displayed or as Miles and Huberman (1994:11-12) observe,

> "…Noting regularities, patterns, explanations, possible configurations, causal flows and propositions, final conclusions may not appear until data collection is over. Verification refers to 'a second thought that crossing the analyst's mind during writing with a short excursion back to the field notes".

The tactics used range from the wide use of comparison/contrast, which focuses on noting patterns and themes, clustering, and use of tactics such as triangulation in looking for negative cases, following up surprises and checking results with respondents (Miles and Huberman, 1994). This aspect of analysis demonstrates that there is a multiple set of tactics within the research process, as was the case within this study as there were four significant themes that categorised the data that was displayed and conclusions drawn from the interviews (Social Factors, Infrastructure, Environment, Attitudes).

Figure 4.4 modified from Miles and Huberman (1994:12) intro-active mode of the components listed on the analysis of data represents the general process the researcher followed in analysing the interview data.
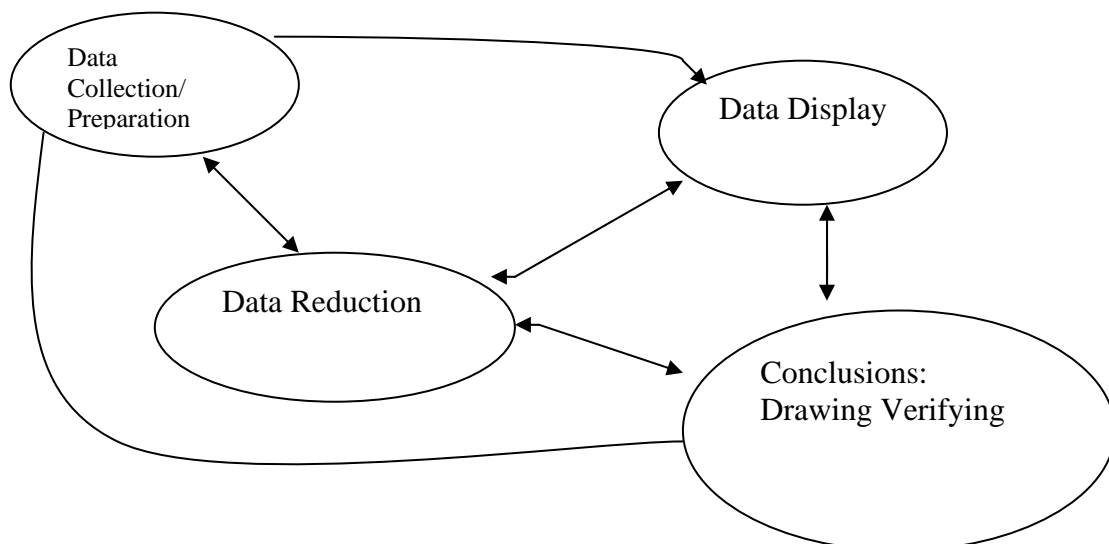


**Figure 4.4: Components of Data Analysis: Interactive Model**

(Source: Miles and Huberman, 1994:12)

The framework of analysis develops from the precise nature of the research as outlined above. The three phases outlined in figure 4.4 (data collection, data reduction, data display) serve as the overall process for analysis by the researcher and more specifically for

analysing data in both the document analysis and interviews to assist in the method of determining the overall purpose and specific aims that were set at the outset of this study (Robson, 1993).

*Comparative Dimension*

Within the concept of science in this study, a comparative dimension emerges at the theoretical level, which is considered to make sense out of the similarities, differences and variation among educational systems (Haag, 2004). The result of comparative investigation and analysis is a set of general principles that provides guidance to active participants within the settings involved in the research (Bereday, 1964; Haag et al, 1987; Haag, 2004). Comparative study is considered to be a general social science that employs theories, models, and strategies to clarify the fundamental process of education (Haag, 2004). For the present research, comparison provided a structural dimension that had applicability to the discussion on university sport in accordance with the rationale and the aims of the study and ultimately facilitated an understanding of two different university sport systems within a comparative framework (Haag, 2004).

The comparative dimension assists in obtaining an insight into the aims, objectives, and functions of sport. Since comparison as a research paradigm (Bereday, 1964; Haag, 1982; Standeven et al., 1991; Haag, 2004) can be used under different socio-cultural points of view, as long as at least two different socio-cultural settings are involved, it seems advisable to present the paradigm in an explanatory figure. Bi-national comparative research is frequently presented on a horizontal line, dealing with a comparison of at least two different socio-cultural units, which can relate to the investigations of the *status quo* today. It is, however, possible to move the horizontal line on the historical vertical time line into the past, as was the case in relation to the current study and the socio-historical examination that was carried out in Chapter 2 (Haag, 1982; Haag, 1994b). Haag (2004:113) acknowledges significant characteristics within a bi-national comparative study: language competence; at least two different socio-cultural units should be selected; the socio-cultural conditions should be defined and become part of the investigation; the research design is quite open, using descriptive, correlational or experimental methods; basic assumption and or hypothesis use the terms different, similarity, or equal; sampling of the countries or cultures should be comparable; generally a three step approach is used within the design: description, juxtaposition and discussion; various techniques of data collection and data analysis are applied, the concept of triangulation with regard to these techniques is applied;

and the interpretation of the analysed data, as well as the positioning of the data within the context, can be quite difficult because of the challenges that comparative studies present.

In trying to define comparative research, Nixon and Jewett (1980) cited in Haag et al., (1987) acknowledge that comparative education is one of the subdivisions of the theory of education. This particular field of education concentrates on the investigation and interpretation of educational policies and practices in various cultures and countries throughout the world. As Bereday (1964:94) intimates:

> "(Comparison) seeks to make sense out of the similarities and differences among educational systems. It catalogs educational methods across national frontiers, and in this catalog each country appears as a variant of the total score of mankind's educational experience. If well set out, the like and the contrasting colors of the world perspective will make each country a potential beneficiary of the lessons thus received."

Standeven et al., (1991) emphasise the need to go beyond country system descriptions to examine, through juxtaposition, two or more entities comparing their similarities and differences. An identified shared interest by the researcher in the way university sport is structured, through a central theme regarding the importance of winning, provided a focus for systematic comparative analysis across countries and institutions on both sides of the Atlantic Ocean (England and the Unites States). A central issue for consideration in the comparative research design is that of procedure for comparison. Comparison in sport studies is perceived by Howell and Toohey (1979:24) as "… the process of examining the physical activities carried out in two or more societies, cultures, countries or areas, for purposes of comparing likenesses and dissimilarities." This process contributes to: a) an understanding of socio-historical antecedents and their influence on current values and practices; b) establishment of differences and similarities of two culturally different sport systems (BUSA/NCAA); c) amelioration of knowledge and systems (UCW/NNU). These points outlined by Howell and Toohey (1979) emerged within the findings, discussion and conclusions of the study, which are examined in greater depth in the subsequent chapters (5-7). The case can be made for the importance of comparative sport study approaches by Howell and Toohey (1979: 4-24) who summarise the specific contributions that this type of approach can provide: i) searching for regularities by analyses of differences and similarities, with particular attention to the relation of theory and practice; ii) understanding of the past, to predict future trends, and to assist in the formulation of policy; iii) examining the reform of one's own methods and systems and to contribute to a universal improvement of standards and knowledge; iv) and relating knowledge in the specific field of sport study and to that in all other relevant disciplines.

The steps of the comparative approach to achieve the aforementioned contributions were also reviewed in accordance with Bereday's, (1964:28) methodological procedure: 1) *description;* 2) *interpretation;* 3) *juxtaposition;* and 4) *comparison.* However, during the course of the study, the researcher modified the Bereday 4-step approach, an example of which, was the literature review (Chapter 2), where the researcher examined socio-historical factors shaping sport values in England and the United States in a juxta-posed setting in anticipation of 'Discussion' in Chapter 6. Together, these approaches, Bereday's (1964) methodological procedure and the contributions outlined by Howell and Toohey (1979) on the importance of comparative research in the field of sport studies offered a useful starting point for why a comparative approach would provide significant contributions to the area of analysis in this thesis.

Whilst, comparative research approaches offer many significant contributions to the field of sport studies, it also has limitations, one of which is the significance of cultural bias that can present a problem to researchers. Researchers in the comparative domain may exhibit prejudices. These prejudices, which in many ways derive from the researcher's own culture, may be a limitation when comparing one system or practice with another country (Bereday, 1964). Such cultural bias is by no means the only hurdle that the comparative researcher needs to negotiate. As Bereday (1964:159) notes, researchers in comparative studies need to overcome: 1) application of reliable information on educational systems; 2) its application to apply to the basic disciplines; and 3) juxtaposition and meaningful comparison of the relevant information. Cultural bias is a 'circumstance', which permeates all steps of comparison. Cultural bias is seldom simple; it can sometimes be extremely subtle by being tied to personal careers and feelings. In more ways than one, cultural bias results in real difficulties and honest differences of perception; it permeates throughout all steps of the comparative research process and it determines the nature of research undertaken and the conclusion reached. The present researcher acknowledges this as a potential limitation within the study and has, therefore, taken pre-cautionary measures, such as employing a multi-method approach to offset or strictly limit any such situation.

*Ethical Considerations*

Most if not all research involved with people and institutions and collection of empirical data generated by questionnaire and interview schedules may give rise to ethical considerations. The most suitable approach for this study was to gain the 'informed consent' of the sample participants within the study and the collaborating case study institutions. Each participant 'informed consent' was gained through the consent form

provided for the study, 'Consent for Research Participation' and the permission to conduct research at the collaborating institutions, UCW/NNU (see Appendix E, F, and G). According to Gratton and Jones (2004), the sample should be chosen using an appropriate sampling technique and each participant in the research should then be informed as to the nature of the study and the use of data supplied or published after the data is collected from the questionnaires and interviews. The sample of participants was chosen using a 'purposive' sampling technique as indicated earlier within the chapter, as each participant was able to answer the questions from the data collection techniques because of their related experiences and backgrounds within university sport. Each participant was informed through the 'Consent for Research Participation' form (see Appendix E) and oral confirmation prior to both the questionnaire and interview sessions that the findings from the documentary analysis, questionnaires and interviews will be published in the dissertation, unless the participant choose otherwise. However, the participants understood that the findings were displayed and given reference to by their position within the Sport Departments at both institutions as their names remained 'anonymous' for data protections issues.

**Section III: Summary**

This chapter has sought to illustrate that research is a complex process with many different methods to choose from. There are a number of ways of seeing, knowing and doing research, a result of which is that the researcher is faced with a variety of routes, borders and barriers. In addition, personal, theoretical and methodological frameworks of the research project shape the research question/topic as outlined at the beginning of the chapter.

The chapter has addressed the main methodological issues that frame the research design and data collection methods and analysis. In doing so, main methodological issues highlighted in this chapter were a case for bi-national comparative studies, which was selected because of its potential value in handling the complexities of the social phenomenon that existed at both institutions in England and the Unites States. The basis for the methodological approach in the study was centred on a multi-method design, whereby one or several methods can be used in the area to be investigated within the research process. Furthermore, the case study approach interlinks both qualitative and quantitative methods essential to providing information relevant to the research question(s) and aims of the study. The comparative case study approach in examining the importance of winning within the sport departments at UCW and NNU was extended to include the

choice for the appropriate sample of participants within the case studies, a comprehensive literature analytical review of primary and secondary sources, a documentary analysis of key texts in both case study institutions, semi-structured interview schedules with a range of respondents (administration personnel, coaches, and practising athletes), and structured questionnaires that provided data on the general perceptions and attitudes of participating athletes at both institutions. On this foundation, the researcher identified the data analysis process for questionnaires through a descriptive approach and the use of SPSS software to provide illustrative (graphs) included in the next chapter. The qualitative analysis framework was associated with an interpretational analysis approach through the work of Tesch (1990), Salmela et al. (1993) and Miles and Huberman (1994) that provided the essential framework to collect, reduce, display and draw conclusions from the interview survey utilised in the study. The next chapter respectively displays the findings from the documentary analysis, questionnaire and interview findings from the perceptions and attitudes of the UCW and NNU participants on the importance of winning.

# Chapter 5: Findings

**Section I: Introduction**

This chapter presents findings of the empirical research undertaken in the UCW and NNU institutional settings involving administration personnel, coaches, and practising athletes. Initially, the chapter addresses key themes emanating from documentary analysis and then reports on questionnaire responses of administered selected athletes and interview schedules' (the Directors of Sport, a selected senior sport administrator, the basketball coach, and three basketball players at both UCW and NNU) responses with particular regard to the general structure, policies and governance of both sport departments in order to provide insight into their respective organisational strategies and views. In reporting the findings of the questionnaires, the responses to each item are presented chronologically according to the questionnaire transcript that was used within the study (see Appendix A & B).  As indicated in Chapter 4, the questionnaire was designed as a largely structured instrument.  The opening section required respondents to provide biographical information. The ensuing sections addressed similar features from the sport departments involving a mixture of closed, and one open, questions based on the four key research areas: social factors, infrastructure, environment, and attitudes. Interview schedules' were semi-structured, and were specifically oriented to each interview group set in both institutions (see Appendix C & D). Open-ended responses, which had particular resonance for the study including variations and 'new' variables were followed up.  Whilst any follow-up questions may stretch reliability and validity boundaries, they were considered as important to the study for their propensity in enrichment of information generated.  Consistency was, however, maintained through replication of the four key research areas used for the questionnaires. Additionally, the participants were asked related questions regarding their work experience.  The chapter concludes by highlighting key issues as a prelude to discussion and conclusions in respective subsequent chapters.

**Section II: Documentary Analysis**

The documentary analysis provided an overview of the respective institution ethos related to the importance of winning.  Specific documents reviewed at each institution included: the Constitution of Worcester Students' Union (2002a; 2006a); Worcester Students' Union: Club and Society Handbook (2002b; 2006b); BUSA Summer Conference (1995); BUSA Conference (2002); University Athletic Union: '50 Years of University Sport' (1969); NNU's Athletic Department Policies and Procedures Handbook (2002a; 2006a); NCAA Division II Institutional Self-Study Guide to Enhance Integrity in Intercollegiate Athletics

(2002b; 2006b); and the NCAA Membership Report (2002a; 2006a). The review of documents provided a basis for comparison of organisational structures at both institutions.

**University College Worcester**

The Vice President of the Student Union is officially responsible for administration of university sport at UCW. At all levels, the structural organisation of UCW Student Sport is served and managed by students. Ultimately, decision making lies with the Union Council, which sets policies and regulations (UCW, 2002a; UCW, 2006a). The body is made up of students from all areas of UCW. The Executive Committee works under the Union Council and is made up of 10 elected officers (UCW, 2002a; UCW, 2006a). The elected officers are student volunteers who can continue their studies whilst fulfilling their student-administrative role. The Academic Liaison, Education Welfare, Communications Officer and Vice President are all elected officers who have taken a sabbatical 'year out' either during, or at the end of, their study programme. These officers work full-time and receive a small stipend in dealing with the day-to-day running of the Student Union; they report back to the Executive Committee on a weekly basis (UCW, 2002a; UCW, 2006a; UCW, 2002b; UCW, 2006b).

Students, mostly practising athletes, also serve as coaches for the majority of teams at UCW. Some teams might have an administrator from the university who serves as coach. In most cases, coaching positions are strictly on a volunteer basis with no financial remuneration. The Vice President (Director of Student Sport) manages the sport clubs, committee members, captains, and ultimately the UCW paying members or athletes within BUSA sport. The Director of Student Sport is responsible for all matters concerning student sport at the university including related budgets. Figure 5.1 shows the positions within the structure of UCW student sport, where there is clear student involvement in the running of sport hierarchically down from top positions, represented by members of the Union Council, through coaching positions, to the paying members' base (UCW, 2002b; UCW, 2006b). Figure 5.1 displays the organisational structure of student sport within the university:

```
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │      Union Council       │
                    └─────────────────────────┘
                              │         │
                                   Executive Committee

    Academic          Education      Communications    Vice President
    Liaison            Welfare          Officer        (Student Sport)

                                     Clubs

                                   Committee

                    Captains

                    Members (athletes)
```

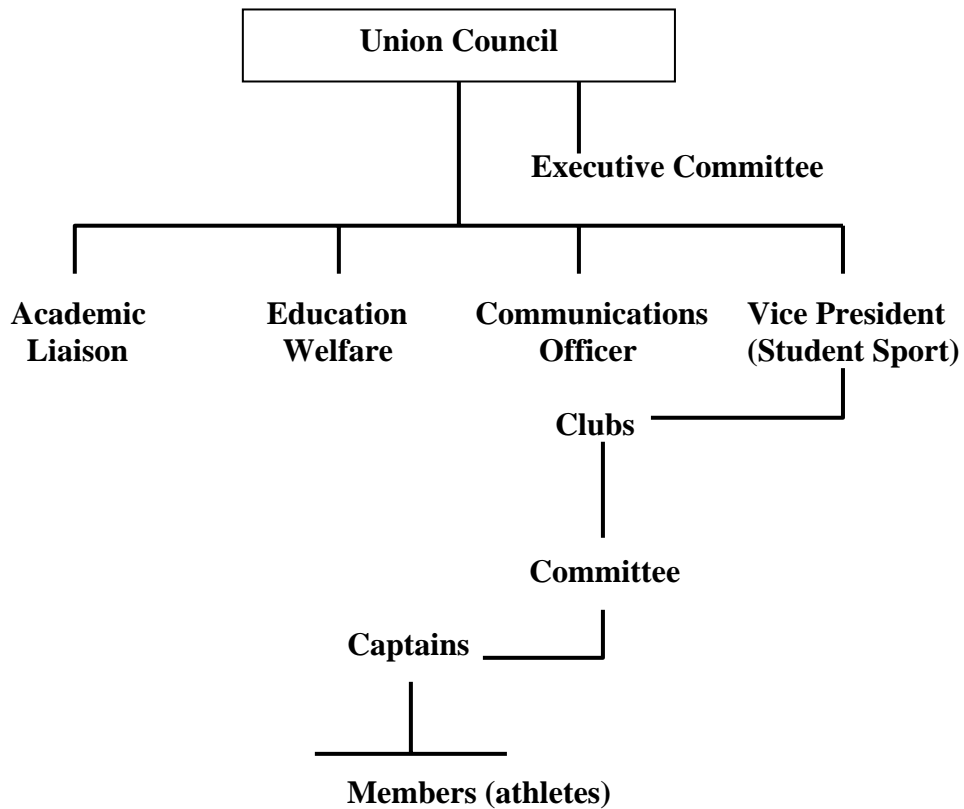**Figure 5.1: Organisational Chart of UCW Student Sport**

(Source: UCW, 2002c:4; UCW, 2006c:4)

*Athletic Union Budgets*

The budgets of both institutions were reviewed to compare financial features in both sport systems. The budget at UCW showed the relative low-scale institutional financial support for the teams competing in student-sport under BUSA. The operating budget for student sport is shown in figure 5.2:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| - | Badminton | £150.00 |
| - | Christian Union | £145.00 |
| - | Drama Society | £125.00 |
| - | Gospel Choir | £120.00 |
| - | Jitsu | £300.00 |
| - | Ladies Hockey | £320.00 |
| - | Ladies Football | £235.00 |
| - | LOCO | £250.00 |
| - | Ladies Basketball | £266.00 |
| - | Men's Football | £600.00 |
| - | Men's Cricket | £200.00 |
| - | Men's Hockey | £200.00 |
| - | Men's Rugby | £750.00 |
| - | Men's Basketball | £460.00 |
| - | Netball | £300.00 |
| - | Alternative Music Society | £150.00 |
| - | Archaeology | £150.00 |
| - | Ladies Volleyball | £100.00 |
| - | Men's Volleyball | £200.00 |
| - | Art and Design | £200.00 |
| - | Ladies Rugby | £400.00 |
| | **Total** | **£5,621.00** |

**Figure 5.2: Operating Budget for UCW Student Sport**

(Source: UCW, 2002c: 2)

The paying members or athletes service student sport at UCW. The low budget provided by the Student Union (figure 5.2) and BUSA is one facet of the non-commercial orientation that historically has been evident in university sport within England. In reviewing the operating budgets presented in figure 5.2, a noticeable difference in the amount of budget allocated to certain teams such as the men's rugby team (£750) compared with other clubs such as badminton (£150) is shown. The budget shows a relatively inequitable distribution of monies, but overall consistency is evident in the low-scale financial investment from BUSA for the operation of the participating teams. As a result of this, the sport teams at UCW rely heavily on sponsorship from local businesses within the community. Without these sponsors, the budgets alone would not be enough to satisfy the basic financial requirements needed throughout the season.

University College Worcester is a small HEI that competes under BUSA's rules and regulations for university sports. University sports at UCW are funded, serviced and managed primarily by the student-athletes within the system. The total budget for UCW Student Sport in the year ending of 2002 amounted to £21,960.00 ($40,382) (UCW,

2002c:1). Commercial and financial gain does not result from the BUSA system that governs university sports in England, therefore, no money is re-invested into the Athletic Unions at each institution for improving the level of quality of competition by each participating sport team.

*Recent Developments of Student Sport at UCW*

The participant observations and post-script review of UCW (2002b; 2006b) *'Constitution of Worcester's Student Union'*, *Worcester Students' Union: Club and Society Handbook* (2002b; 2006b), and *'Budgets and Structure of UCW Student Sport'* UCW (2002c; 2006c) revealed the implementation of the scholarship scheme in the basketball programme in 2002, which subsequently has evolved into a more professional approach in this particular sport. Further discussion of this approach will be carried out in the subsequent chapter.

**Northwest Nazarene University**

The President, Athletic Council, Athletic Director, Associate Athletic Director, Coaching Staff and Office Staff administer intercollegiate athletics at NNU. The collective responsibilities of these personnel are to:

1. maintain and administer policies
2. assure that athletics provide a focus of interest for campus, community, and alumni.
3. assure that athletics contribute to NNU's basic purpose of encouraging Christian character, commitment and scholarship.
4. adhere to all rules and guidelines of the NCAA and the GNAC.

(Source: NNU, 2002a: 4; NNU, 2006a:4)

Ultimately the Board of Trustees and the University President make the major financial decisions concerning intercollegiate athletics at NNU. The Athletic Director, who works closely with the University President, runs the day-to-day operations and makes the majority of decisions concerning issues within the Athletic Department. Figure 5.3 shows the vertical organisational structure within NNU's Athletic Department:
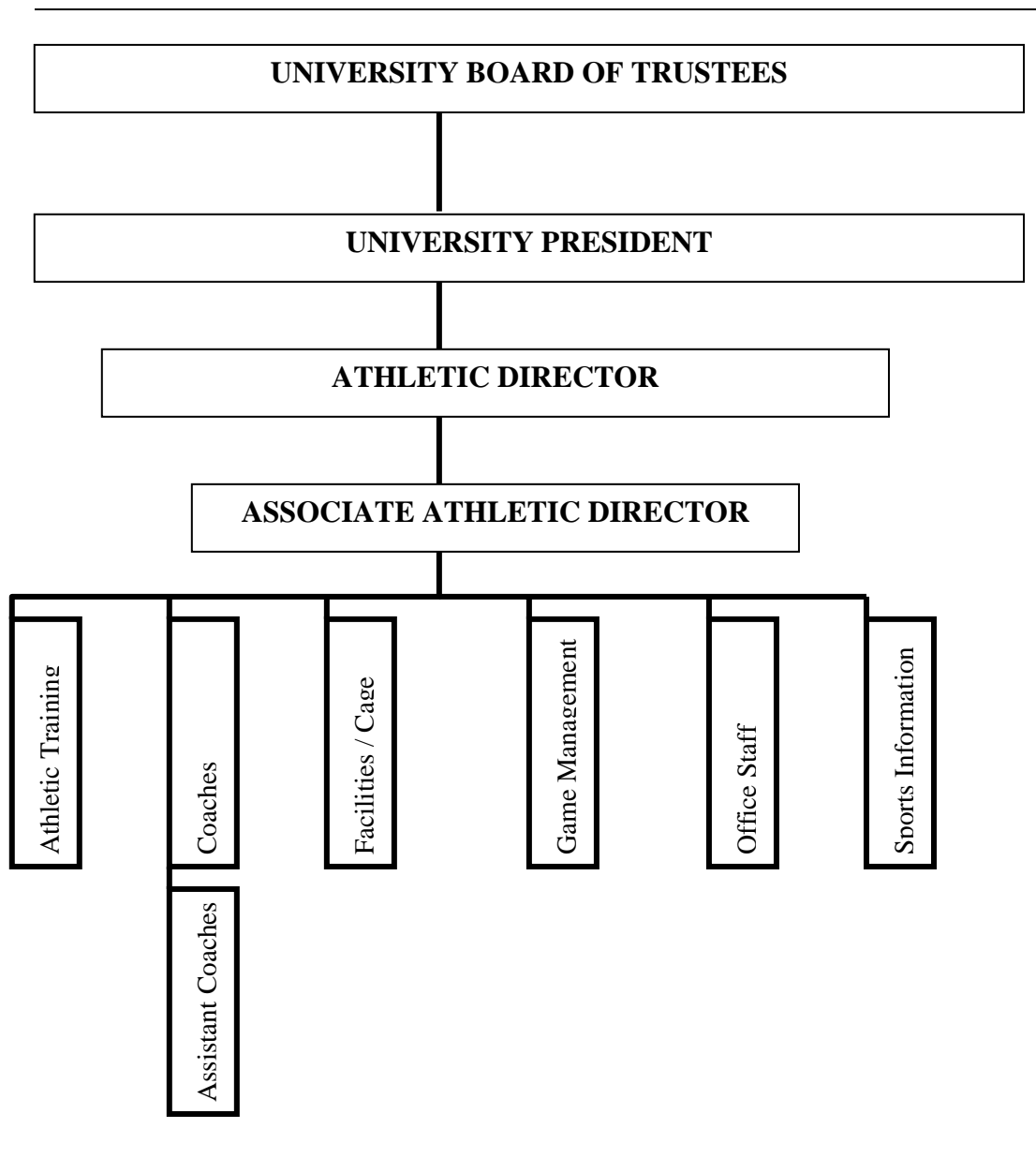
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                    ┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
                    │      UNIVERSITY BOARD OF TRUSTEES         │
                    └─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                                       │
                    ┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
                    │          UNIVERSITY PRESIDENT             │
                    └─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                                       │
                    ┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
                    │            ATHLETIC DIRECTOR              │
                    └─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                                       │
                    ┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
                    │       ASSOCIATE ATHLETIC DIRECTOR         │
                    └─────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

Athletic Training | Coaches | Facilities / Cage | Game Management | Office Staff | Sports Information

Assistant Coaches

**Figure 5.3: Organisational Chart of NNU Athletic Department**

(Source: NCAA, 2002a: 15; NCAA, 2006a:15)

Under the Athletic Director's supervision are 28 full-time or part-time positions within the Athletic Department. These positions are used to coach, serve and manage NCAA Division II intercollegiate athletics at NNU. Figure 5.4 displays the structural organisation positions within the NNU Athletic Department:

| Administration | | Women's Basketball | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Athletic Director: | Rich Sanders | Head Coach: | Kelli Kronberger |
| Assoc. Athletic Director: | Darlene Brasch | Assistant Coach: | Stephanie Imhof |
| Office Manager: | Jewel McKinney | Assistant Coach: | Loree Payne |
| Financial Secretary: | Donna Proffitt | | |
| | | | |
| **NCAA Compliance** | | **Women's Softball** | |
| Compliance Coordinator: | Darlene Brasch | Head Coach: | Julie Coert |
| Athl. Financial Aid Dir: | Faye Cummings | | |
| | | | |
| **Sports Information** | | **Women's Soccer** | |
| Sports Info. Director: | Craig Stensgaard | Head Coach: | Jamie Lindvall |
| | | Assistant Coach: | Rachel Lindvall |
| **Men's Varsity Basketball** | | **Women's Volleyball** | |
| Head Coach: | Ed Weidenbach | Head Coach: | Deb Bradburn |
| Assistant Coach: | Mike Terpstra | Assistant Coach: | Steve Garwick |
| Assistant Coach: | Roger Schmidt | Assistant Coach: | Darlene Brasch |
| | | | |
| **Men's Baseball** | | **Track/Field/Cross Country** | |
| Head Coach: | Tim Onofrei | Head Coach: | John Spatz |
| Assistant Coach: | Scott Shaver | Assistant Coach: | Ben Gall |
| Assistant Coach: | Rich Wagner | Assistant Coach: | Leah Merrell |
| | | Assistant Coach: | Jim Honell |
| **Men's Golf** | | Assistant Coach: | Maurie Lewis |
| Head Coach: | Craig Stensgaard | | |

**Figure 5.4: Athletic Personnel Directory**

(Source: NNU, 2002a)

Most positions are held by highly qualified coaches and administrators that have made coaching or administration their chosen career. These positions serve as the primary source of income for coaches and administrators within the NNU Athletic Department. The positions obtained by the coaching and administrative staff at the NNU Athletic Department provide: salary, health benefits and retirement options such as '401K plans'[4] (McKinney, 2007). The large scale of NCAA intercollegiate athletics is represented through the full-time positions listed in figure 5.4 in the management of NNU sports. NNU (2003a:18) displays the salary budget in athletics at $502,891 (£273,536) Professional administrators under the guidance and regulations set by the NCAA run intercollegiate athletics at NNU.

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[4] A 401k is an employer sponsored retirement plan where the employer promises to pay a defined amount to retirees who meet certain eligibility criteria. With a 401K plan, it defines the contributions that an employer can make and not the benefit that the employee will receive at retirement.

*Athletic Department Budgets*

The financial picture at the institution is on a much larger scale than that of UCW. Figure 5.5 shows the operating budget for the Athletic Department in the academic year 2002:

| - | Softball | $20,000 |
|---|---|---|
| - | Volleyball | $38,602 |
| - | Soccer | $20,000 |
| - | Women's basketball | $59,600 |
| - | Men's basketball | $66,100 |
| - | Track | $36,375 |
| - | Baseball | $40,000 |
| - | Golf | $8,600 |
| - | Athletic training | $19,613 |
| - | General athletics | $19,932 |
| - | Athletic service centre | $15,000 |
| - | Cross country | $18,500 |
| - | Fundraisers | $100,000 |
| | **Total** | **$462,322** |

**Figure 5.5: NNU Operating Budget**

(Source: Sanders, 2003)

Along with the operating budgets for each sport, the Athletic Department raises an additional $100,000 (£53,000) to help with funding the sports teams within the department (Sanders, 2003). As shown in figure 5.5, the total operating budget in the year ending 2003 was $462,322 (£244,000). An additional component of the total budget is the athletic scholarship budget. Athletes competing within NCAA sponsored sports can receive athletic scholarships to help pay for their education. Athletic scholarships cover tuition, room and board, books, food, and off-campus living. Scholarships range from 'full-ride', which cover all of the areas listed, to 'partial' scholarships that relate to specific areas in aiding the athlete financially. Each team within the NNU Athletic Department receives scholarship budgets specified by the NCAA. The athletic scholarship budget for the year ending 2002 totalled $810,322 (£427,655) (Sanders, 2003).

Northwest Nazarene University is a small university within the United States that competes in intercollegiate athletics at the NCAA Div. II level. Although the institution has a small enrolment of students, a large scale of NCAA Div. II athletics exists within the athletic department. The total budget for NNU Athletic Department in the year ending 2002 was $1,775,535 (£937,056). A review of the documents from NNU's Athletic Department indicates that the budgets allocated for athletics at NNU are significantly higher than that of

UCW concerning the relative financial scale generated within the system (NNU, 2002a; NNU, 2002b; NNU, 2006a; NNU, 2006b).

### Section III: Questionnaire Findings – UCW and NNU

The respective sample groups of 50 UCW and NNU student athletes comprised 14 basketball players, 16 soccer players, and 20 rugby players at UCW and 13 cross-country team athletes, 24 baseball players, and 13 basketball players at NNU.

### Questionnaires: Section A - Social Factors

*a) Competitive Play or Social Interest*

Figure 5.6 and 5.7 findings related to participation show that 80% of the UCW sample group deem playing competitively more important, while only 20% indicating social interest was their reason for participating.
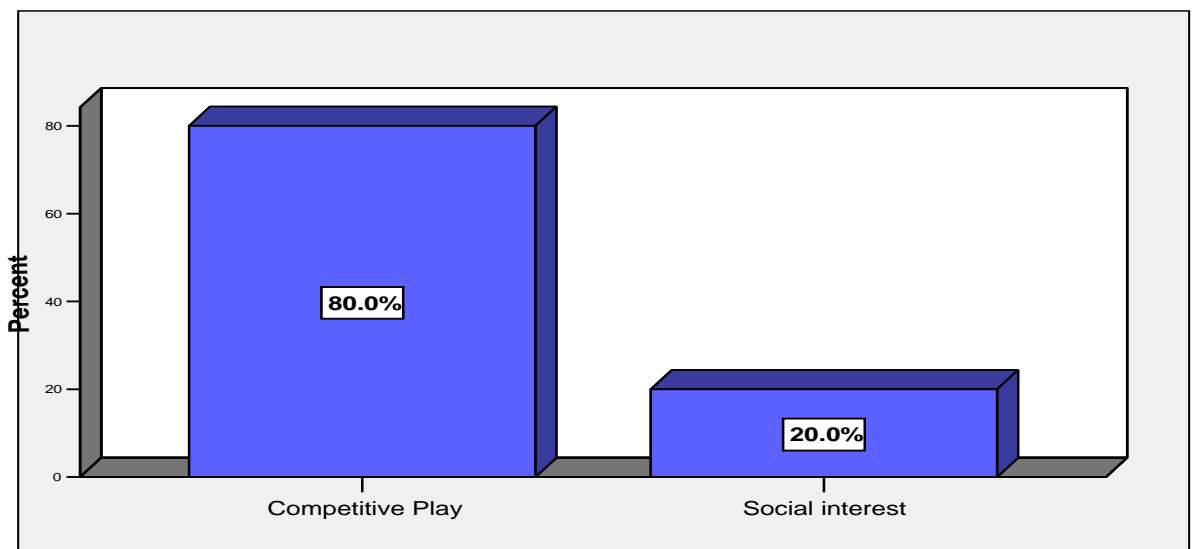


**Figure 5.6: UCW Athletes - Competitive Play or Social Interest**

In figure 5.7, 92% of the NNU athletes chose playing as the more important reason for participating, while only 8% thought social interest was more important than playing. This pre-disposition towards competitive rather than social interest as the reason for playing mirrors that of UCW students but at an even higher level.
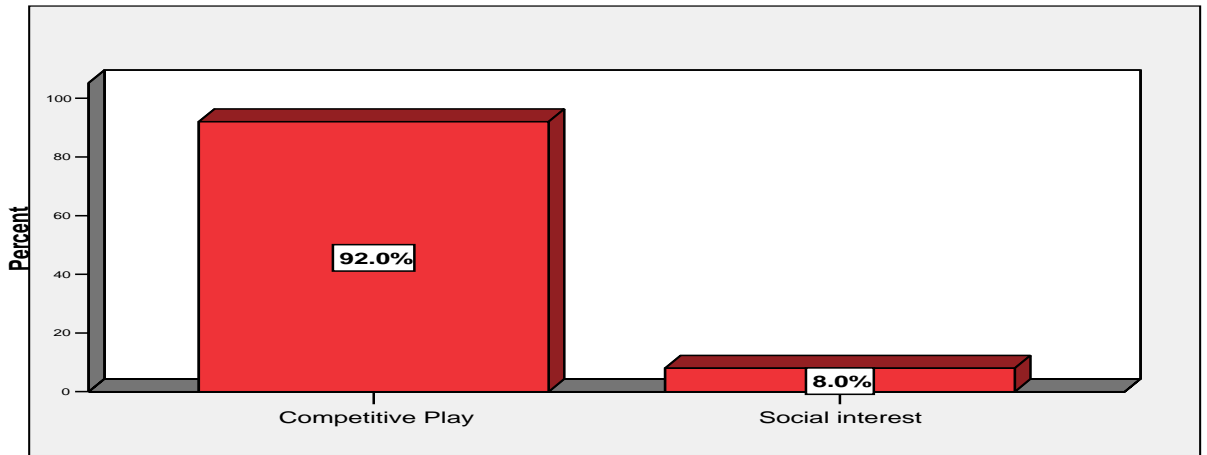
**Figure 5.7: NNU Athletes - Competitive Play or Social Interest**

*b)        How do your personal values influence your attitude on winning?*

Perhaps unsurprisingly and to some extent reflecting the similarity of responses to reasons for participants, there was an overwhelming dedication on personal values and the influence on winning. Overall, both sets of students (UCW 90%), (NNU 100%) reported "some" to "major influence" of personal values influencing attitudes towards winning (see figures 5.8 and 5.9). A majority (64%) of the sample of NNU students as against a minority (38%) was clearly oriented towards personal values having a significant attitudes on winning (66% UCW; 90% NNU).
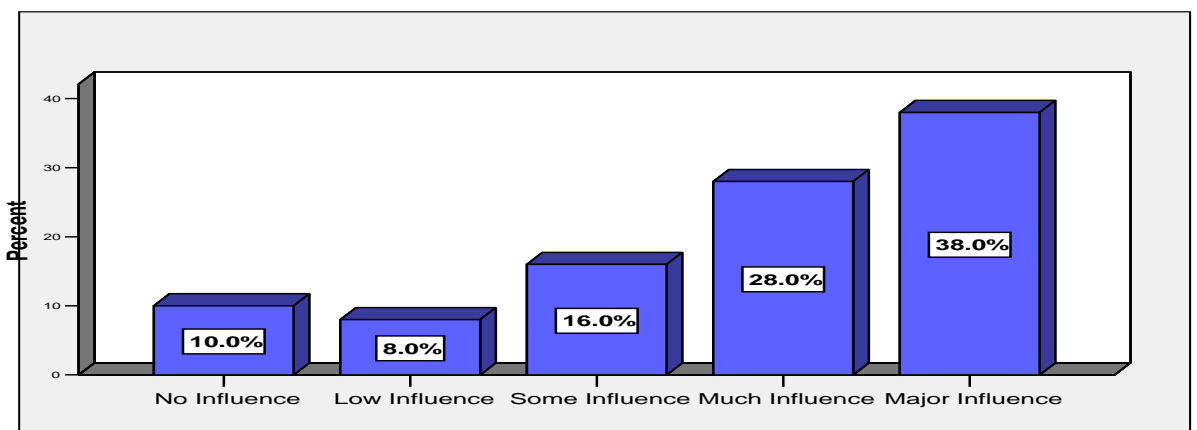


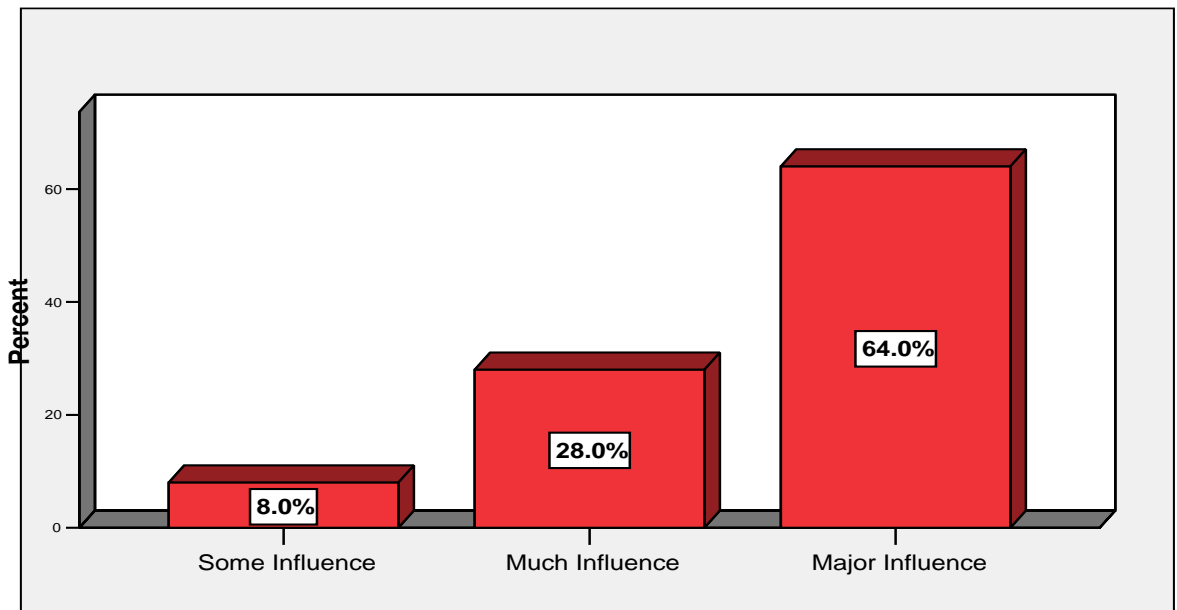**Figure 5.8: UCW Athletes - Personal Values on Winning**

**Figure 5.9: NNU Athletes - Personal Values on Winning**

*c)        How do your coach's values influence your attitude on winning?*

Figures 5.10 and 5.11 show the findings of the two institutions' sample groups relating to the influence of the coach's values on their attitude towards winning.  In the UCW sample (refer figure 5.10) 2% of the group believed there was "no influence"; 4% "low influence"; 36%  "some influence"; 34% "much influence"; and 24% that the coach's values had a "major influence" in their attitudes towards winning.  Thus, a substantial majority (94%) found their coaches' had at least some influence on their winning values.  For the NNU sample a similar picture emerges (see figure 5.11): 2% thought there was "low influence"; 16% "some influence"; 36% "much influence"; and 46% "major influence" that is 98% had at least some influence towards their attitude on winning.  Whilst overall there is some similarity in the figures for the two sets of samples, the NNU students show a stronger orientation to "much / major influence" (82%) than UCW students (58%).
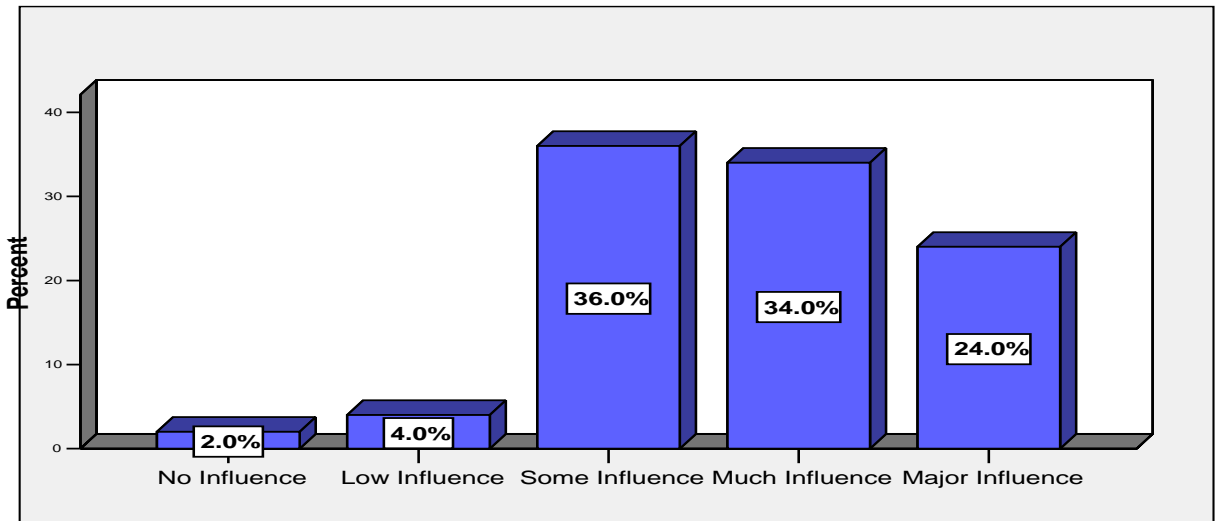
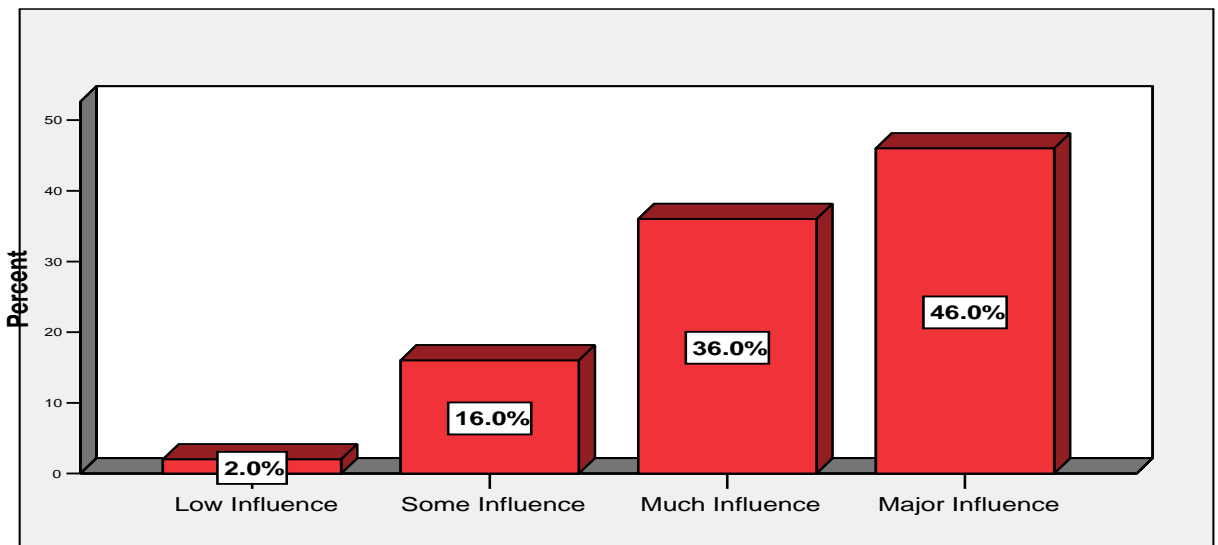**Figure 5.10: UCW Athletes - Coach's Values on Winning**



**Figure 5.11: NNU Athletes - Coach's Values on Winning**

**Questionnaires: Section B – Infrastructure**

*a)*        *Levels of financial support for playing*

Figures 5.12 and 5.13 display the level of financial support for the athletes at UCW and NNU. Figure 5.12 (UCW) shows a high proportion (72%) indicating "poor support", 10% "below average", 12% "average", 4% "above average" and only 2% "very high";

conversely figure 5.13 (NNU) shows 18% receiving "poor" support, 14% "below average", 36% "average", 22% "above average", and 10% a "very high" financial support for participating in their respective sport. The more evenly spread distribution of responses of the NNU sample may be indicative of the nature and scope of scholarship support whilst the highly skewed proportion of UCW athletes registering "poor" support may be indicative of the student driven system of BUSA.
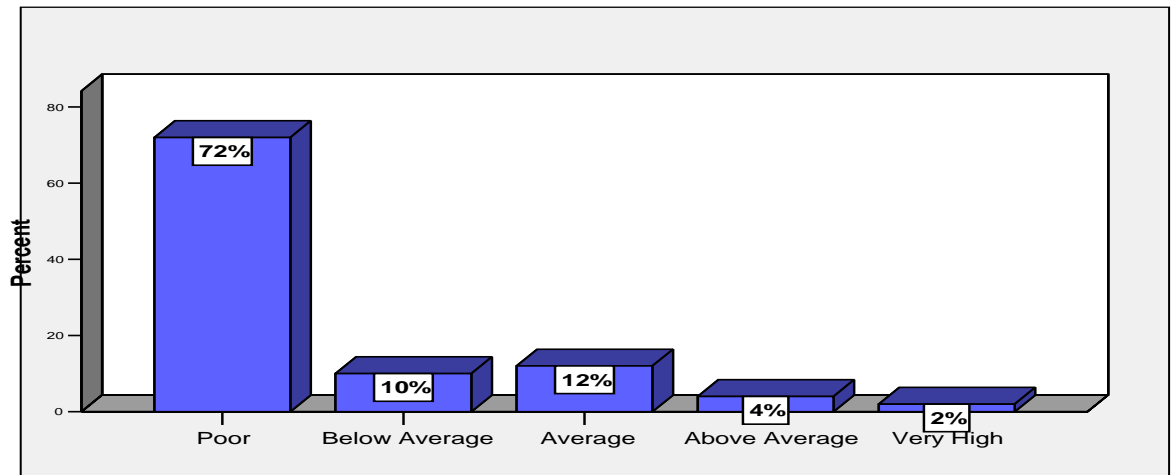


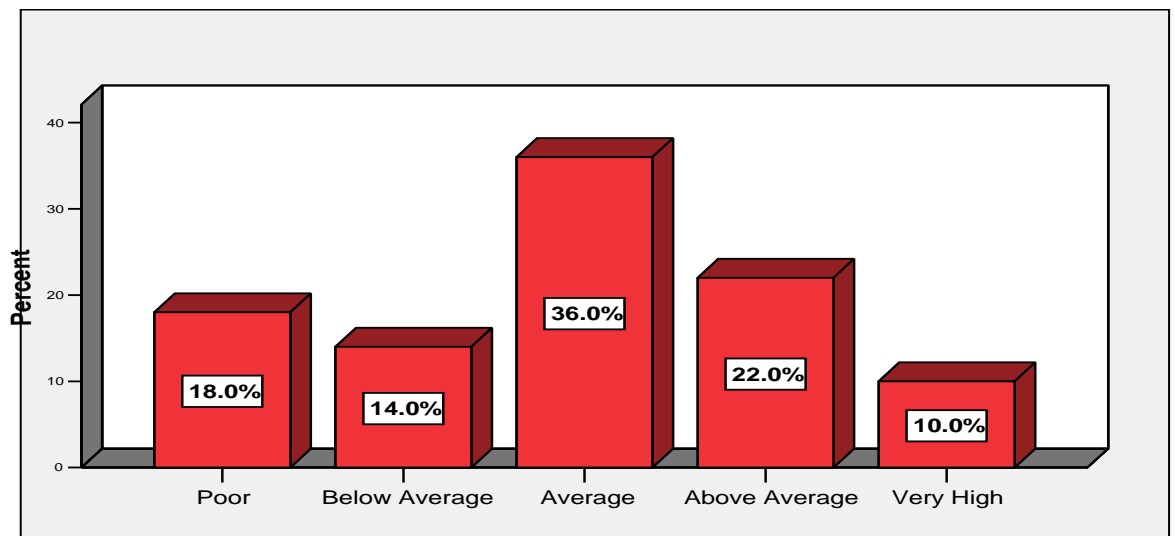**Figure 5.12: UCW Athletes - Levels of Financial Support**



**Figure 5.13: NNU Athletes - Levels of Financial Support**

*b)        How significant is the commercial structure on winning?*

Findings on the commercial structure and its impact on a winning ethos are represented in figures 5.14 for UCW and 5.15 for NNU.  As figure 5.14 demonstrates, 40% of the UCW group believed that there was no commercial influence on their attitude to winning, 24% believed there was a "low influence", 22% "some influence", and 14% believed that the commercial structure within UCW student sport had "much influence" on 'winning' attitudes.  For the NNU group, figure 5.15 shows that 14% thought it had "no influence", 32% thought "low influence", 32% through "some influence", 18% thought "much influence", and 4% thought that the commercialised structure had a "major influence" on 'winning' attitude within the NNU Athletic Department.   These findings reveal a substantial difference between the proportion of athletes at UCW (40%) and those at NNU (14%) in the belief that there was "no influence" emanating from the commercial structure present in each system.
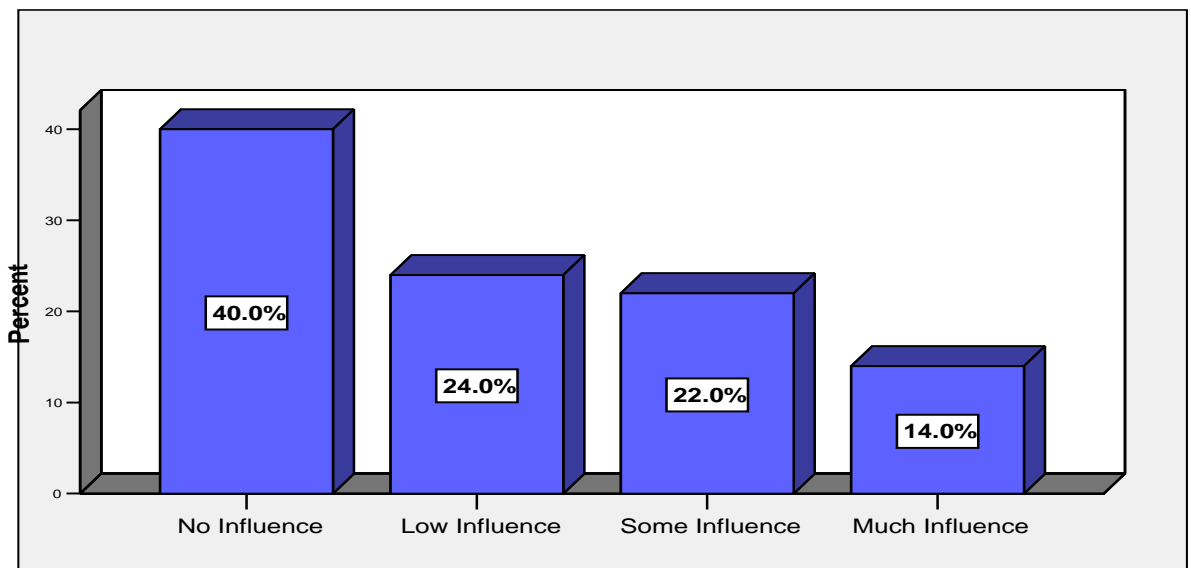


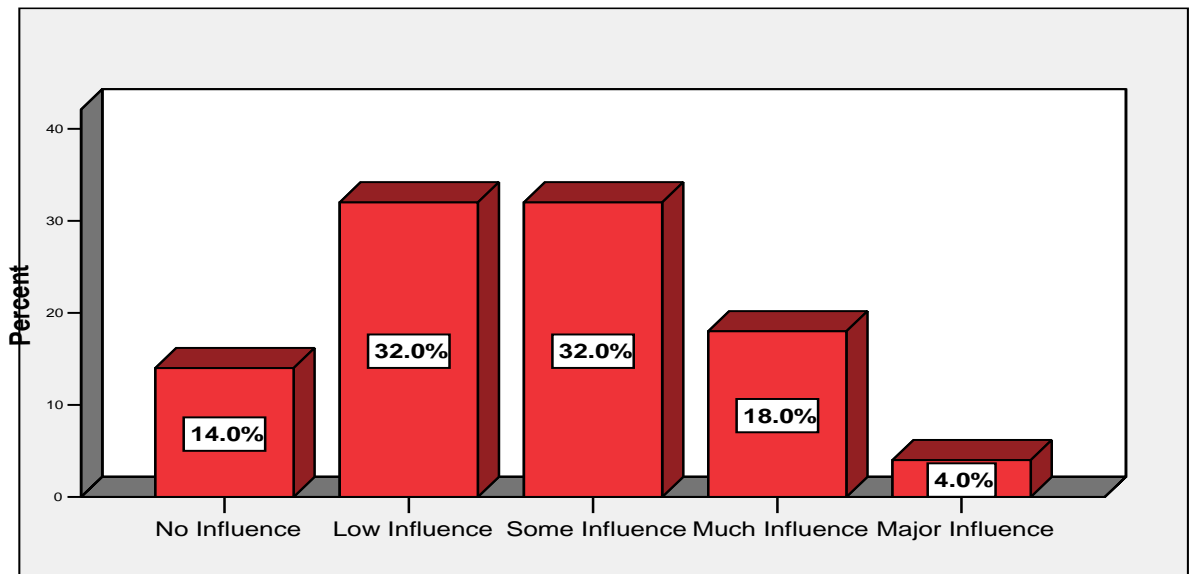**Figure 5.14: UCW Athletes - Commercial Structure**

**Figure 5.15: NNU Athletes - Commercial Structure**

*c)        How significant are the off-season structures on winning?*

Figure 5.16 shows findings from the sample groups on how significant the off-season structures are on the winning attitudes of the athletes. At UCW, only 4% of the sample group believed off-season structures had "no influence" on their attitude on winning; 20% believed they had a "low influence" on winning; 40% believed there was "some influence"; 32% believed "much influence"; and 4% of the sample group believed that the off-season structures had a "major influence" on their attitude towards winning.  Some differences in findings are seen in the NNU data on the significance of off-season structure on a winning ethos (see figure 5.17): only 2% of the sample group thought there was "no influence"; 12% revealed "low influence"; 40% "some influence"; 24% "much influence"; and 22% of the sample group thought the off-season structures had a major influence on their attitude towards winning.  The latter figures in particular reveal a marked difference from those of the UCW sample.
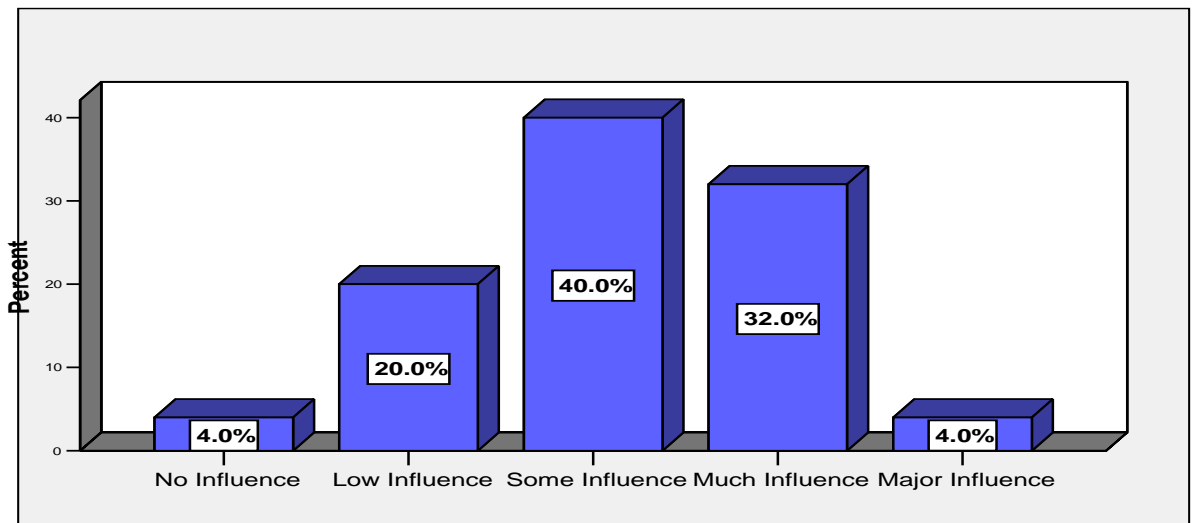
**Figure 5.16: UCW Athletes - Off-Season Structure**
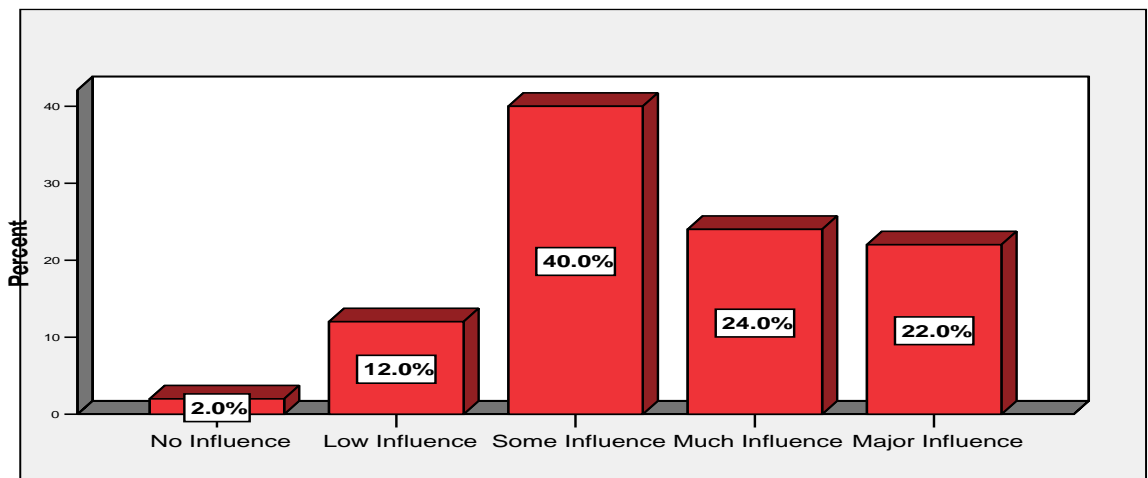


**Figure 5.17: NNU Athletes - Off-Season Structure**

*d)        How would you rate your coach's knowledge within your institution?*

Figures 5.18 and 5.19 display the findings from the sample groups' responses regarding their coach's knowledge. For UCW, figure 5.18 shows that 2% of the sample group believed their coach's knowledge was "below average"; 22% believed it was "average"; 38% believed it was "above average"; and 38% of the sample group believed that it was "excellent".  For NNU, responses to the item on the coach's knowledge (see figure 5.19) indicate some degree of differences in the "average" (UCW 22%; NNU 2%) and "excellent" (UCW 38%; NNU 58%).  Other NNU ratings show similarity with UCW

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responses: 2% rated level of knowledge as "poor"; 2% as below average; and 38% as "above average".
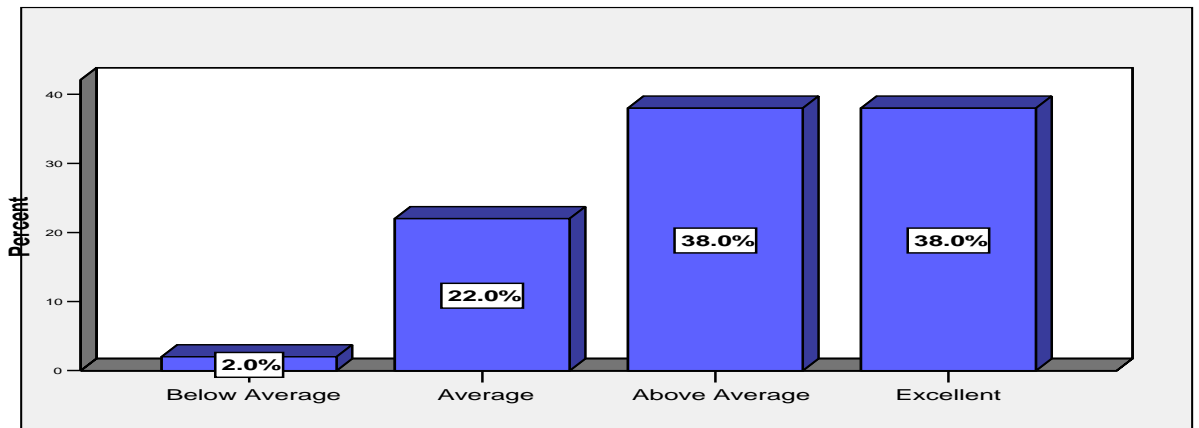


**Figure 5.18: UCW Athletes - Coach's Knowledge**
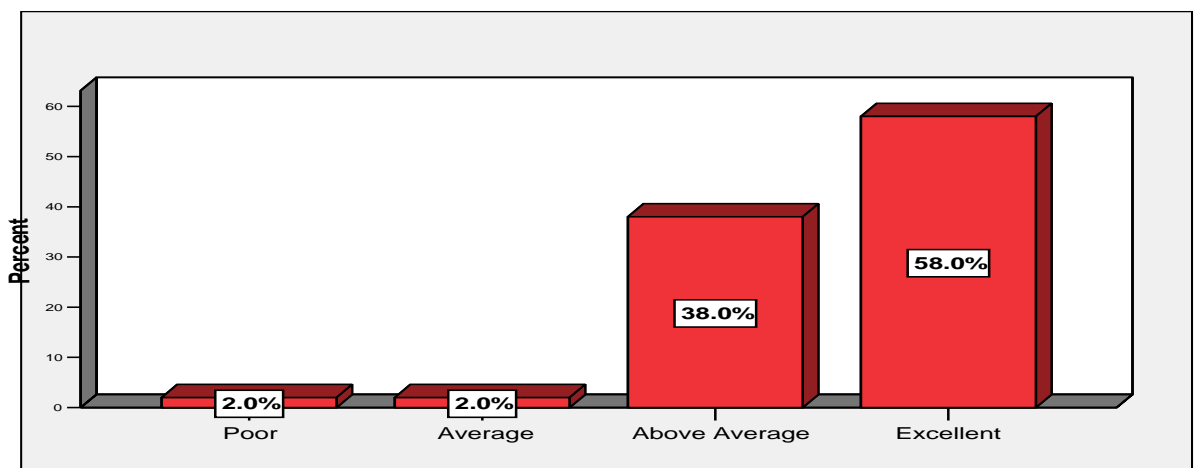


**Figure 5.19: NNU Athletes - Coach's Knowledge**

*e)        How important are bursaries to you as an athlete?*

From the data featured in figures 5.20 and 5.21 on the level of athlete interest in bursaries, much greater interest is generated amongst NNU athletes (74%) than amongst UCW athletes (18%).  The percentage of UCW athletes (32%) indicating "no" interest contrasts starkly with NNU athletes (4%).  Similarly, the high percentage of UCW athletes (50%) expressing "low"/"some" interest is substantially higher than their NNU counterparts (22%).  Relevant to these findings perhaps is the significant importance of the scholarships available to NNU athletes, which far outweigh any available for UCW students, as indicated earlier in this chapter.
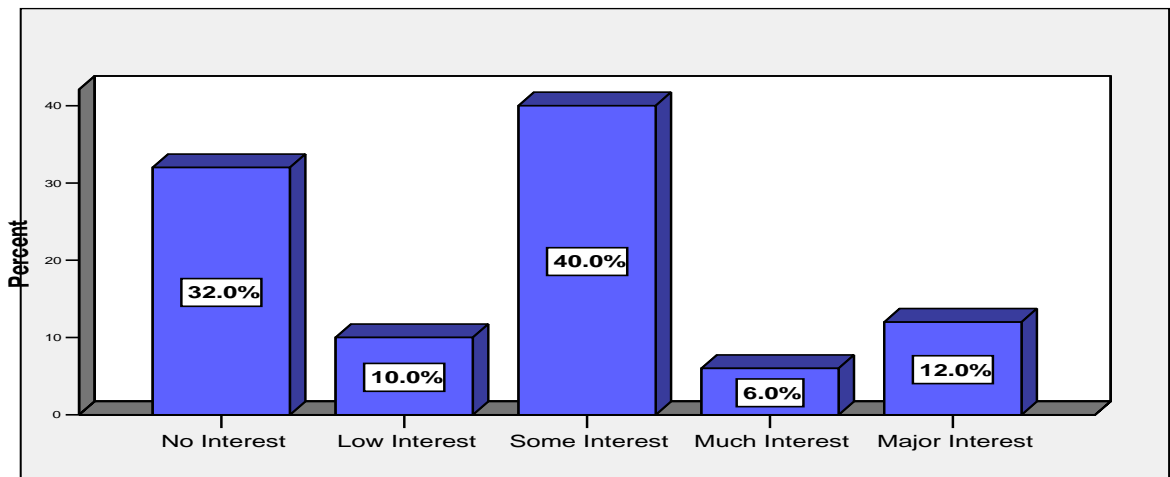
**Figure 5.20: UCW Athletes - Bursaries**
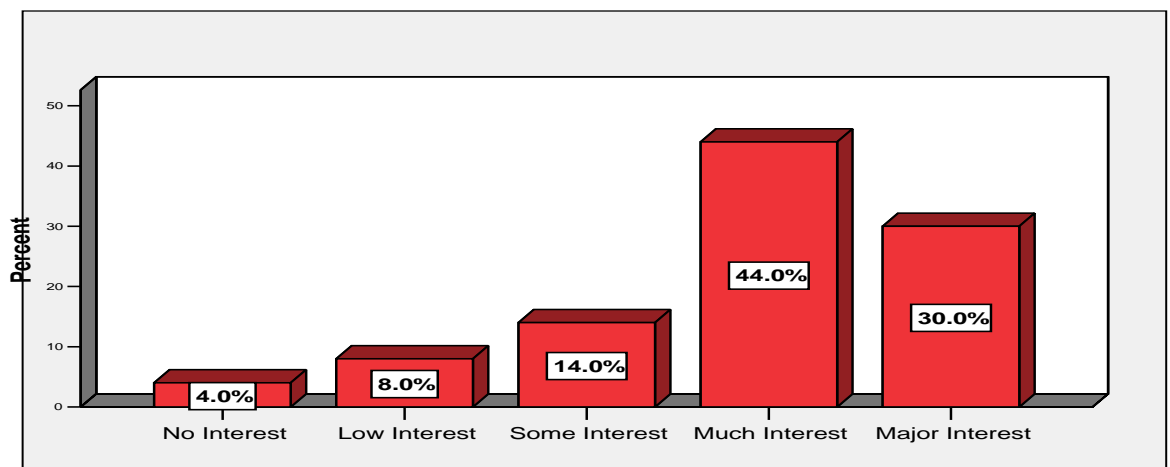


**Figure 5.21: Bursaries**

**Questionnaires: Section C - Environment**

*a)        Does a recreational ethos exist within your sport department?*

For the item on recreational ethos, figures 5.22 (UCW Athletes) and 5.23 (NNU Athletes) are characterised by differences in category percentages: a "low" level recreational environment of only 2% is indicated for UCW and none for NNU; "below average" 12% UCW (4% NNU); "average" 26% UCW (52% NNU); "above average " 36% UCW (36% NNU): and "very high" 24% UCW (8% NNU). The recorded differences especially in the

percentages of "above average" / "very high" (60% to UCW and 44% at NNU) are perhaps suggestive of institutional ethos considerations.
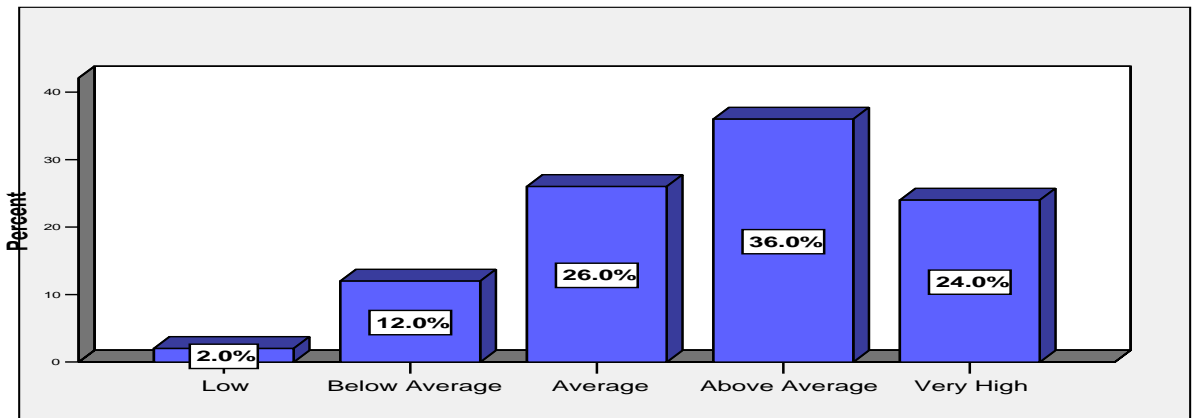


**Figure 5.22: UCW Athletes - Recreational Ethos**
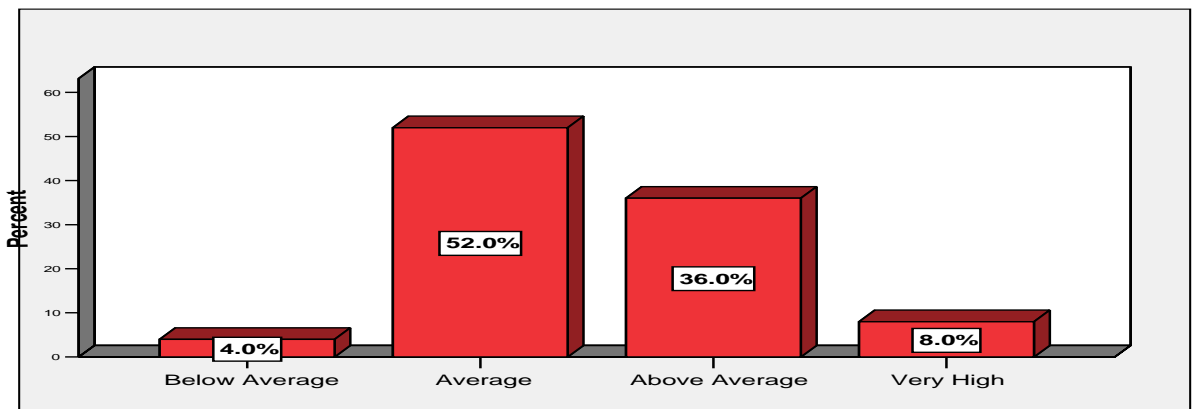


**Figure 5.23: NNU Athletes - Recreational Ethos**

*b)        Does a mass- participation ethos exist within your sport department?*

Comparison of figure 5.24 and 5.25 show both differences and similarities in the two institutions. Similarity is seen in "low"/"below average" responses (UCW 12%; NNU 12%) and in "above average" responses (UCW 44%; NNU 42%). Response differences are apparent in "average" (UCW 22%; NNU 38%) and "very high" (UCW 22%; NNU 8%).
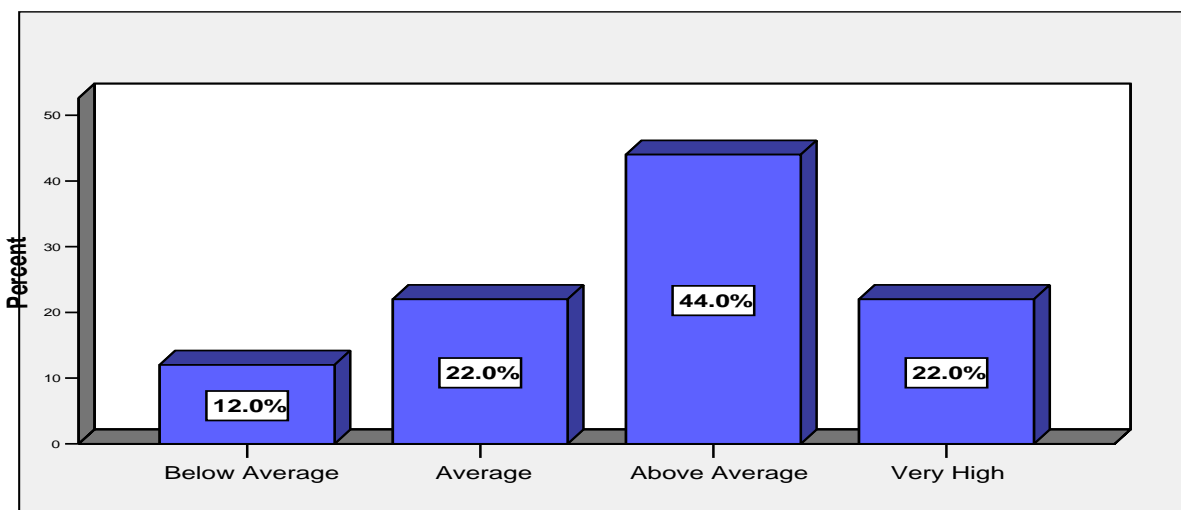
**Figure 5.24: UCW Athletes - Mass Participation Ethos**
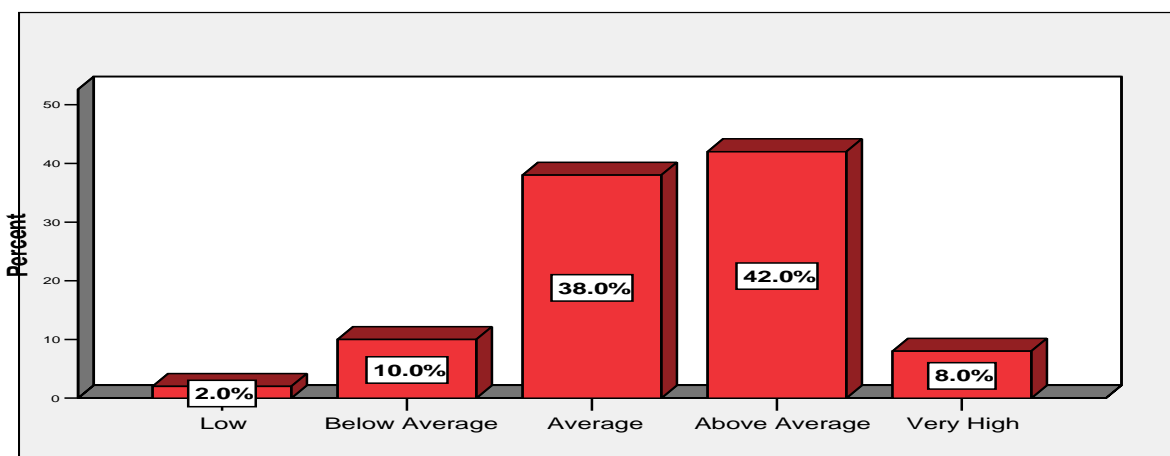


**Figure 5.25: NNU Athletes - Mass Participation Ethos**

*c)*         *Does a commercial ethos exist within your sport department?*

Analysis of figures 5.26 (UCW) and 5.27 (NNU) on levels of commercialised sport environments reveals different patterns of distribution of samples' responses. The pattern for UCW is characterised by a similiar pattern for NNU. It resembles a statistical normal curve of distribution around the mid-scale "average" category (54%). Of some note is the considerably higher percentage of "low" / "below average" responses at UCW (54%)

compared with NNU (22%). Discussion of the differences in the next chapter will include reference to what constitutes a commercialised environment.
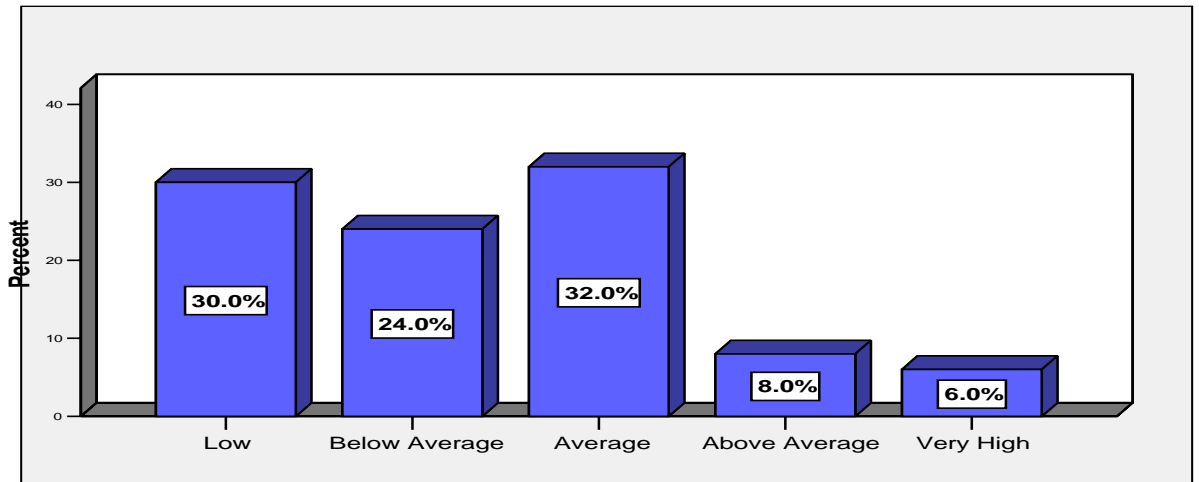


**Figure 5.26: UCW Athletes - Commercial Ethos**
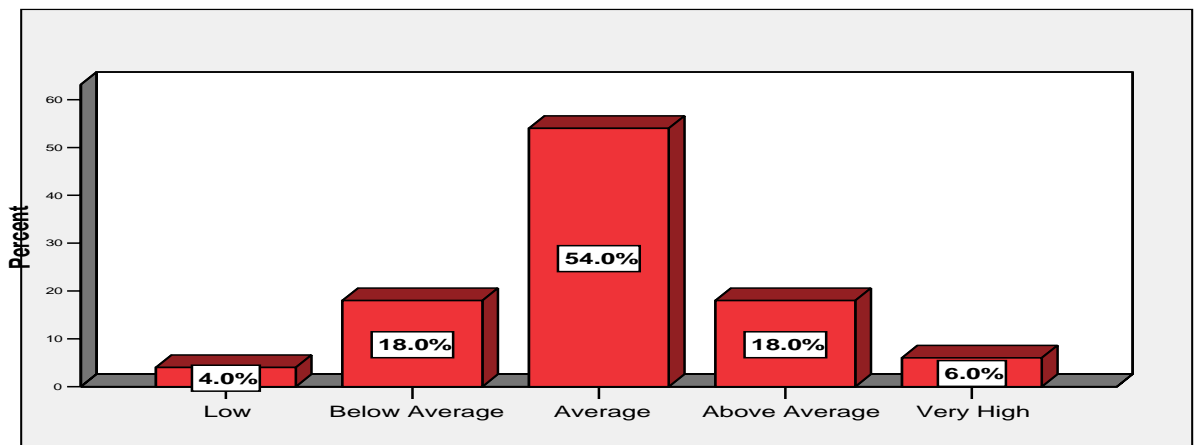


**Figure 5.27: NNU Athletes - Commercial Ethos**

*d)      Does a social ethos exist within your sport department?*

Figure 5.28 shows the findings of the item on the social environment that exists within UCW student sport:  Of the sample group: 4% thought that a "below average" social environment exists; 16% thought an "average" social environment is present; 40% thought an "above average" environment exists; and 40% a "very high" social environment exists. When compared with the UCW sample, the most notable differences for the NNU sample

are the relative small percentage of NNU students (10%) who considered that a "very high" social environment exists (see Figure 5.29). One other difference relates to the "average" category response, which is higher for NNU athletes at 38% compared with UCW athletes at 16%.
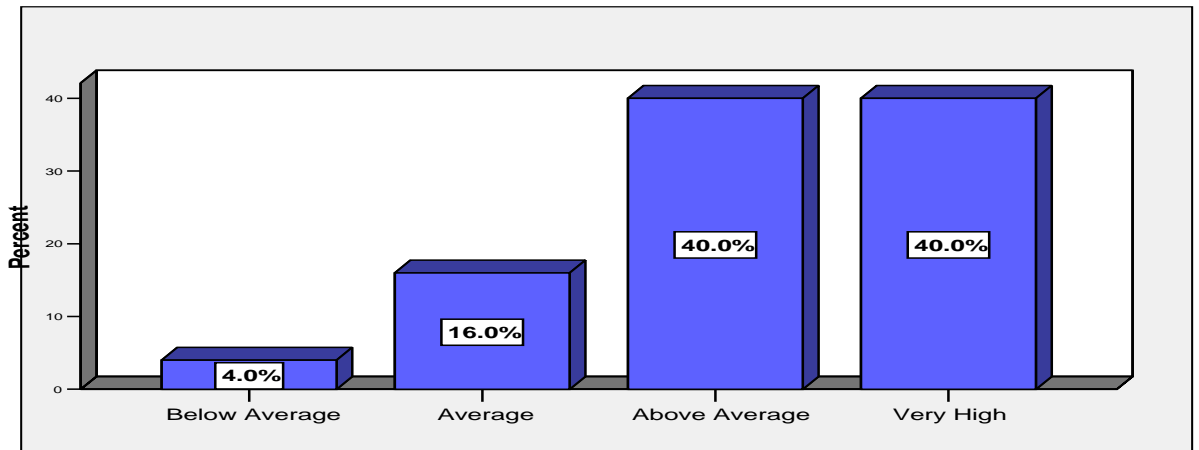


**Figure 5.28: UCW Athletes - Social Ethos**
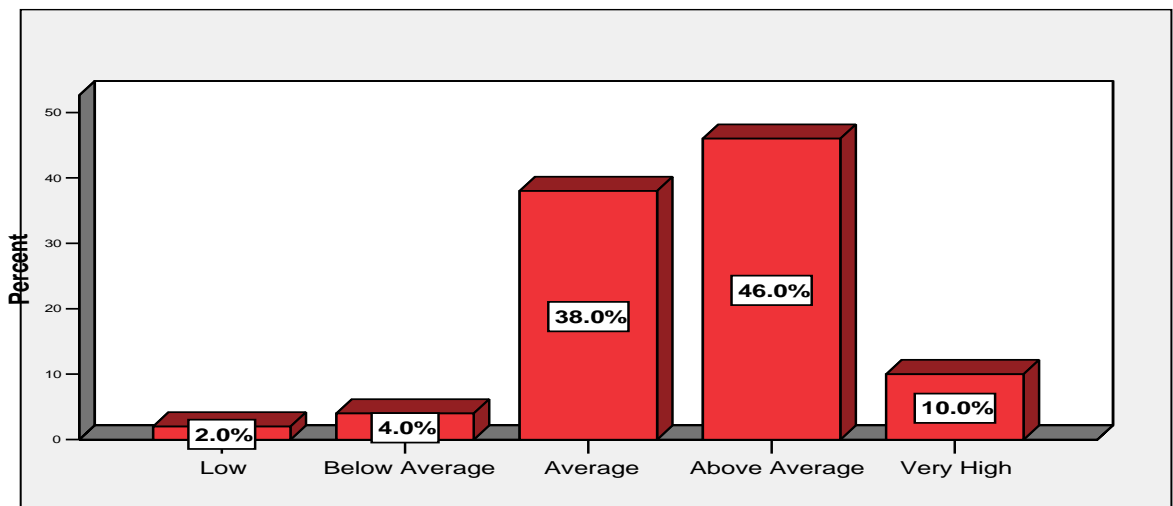


**Figure 5.29: NNU Athletes - Social Ethos**

*e)        Competitive Play or Academic Study*

Figure 5.30 shows that UCW athletes (64%) considered "playing" more important than academic studies. This is interesting NNU view of the responses to the item on the importance of reasons for entering the institution in figure 5.30. The apparent inconsistency in responses shows that 60% of UCW athletes chose academics as their most important

reason for coming to college. In each separate finding, the UCW students value academics and playing as their most important aspect whilst at university. To some extent the situation at UCW regarding this item is also seen in NNU responses in the marginally higher preference for academic studies (52%) over playing (48%) (see Figure 5.31). Although NNU athletes chose academics as their most important aspect whilst at university in Figure 5.30 and 5.31 inconsistent responses were also noticeable. In Figure 5.30, 38% of athletes chose playing as opposed to 48% in Figure 5.31. As with the apparent UCW discrepancy between the playing versus academic studies and the importance of reasons for coming to university, along with the findings from NNU regarding academics higher than playing, the findings presented above will be discussed in the next chapter.
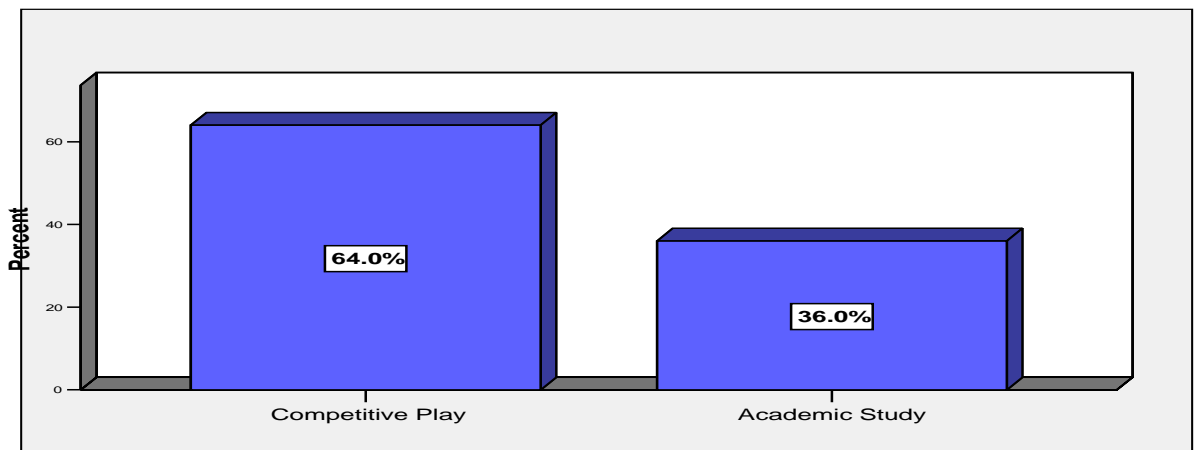


**Figure 5.30: UCW Athletes - Competitive Play or Academic Study**
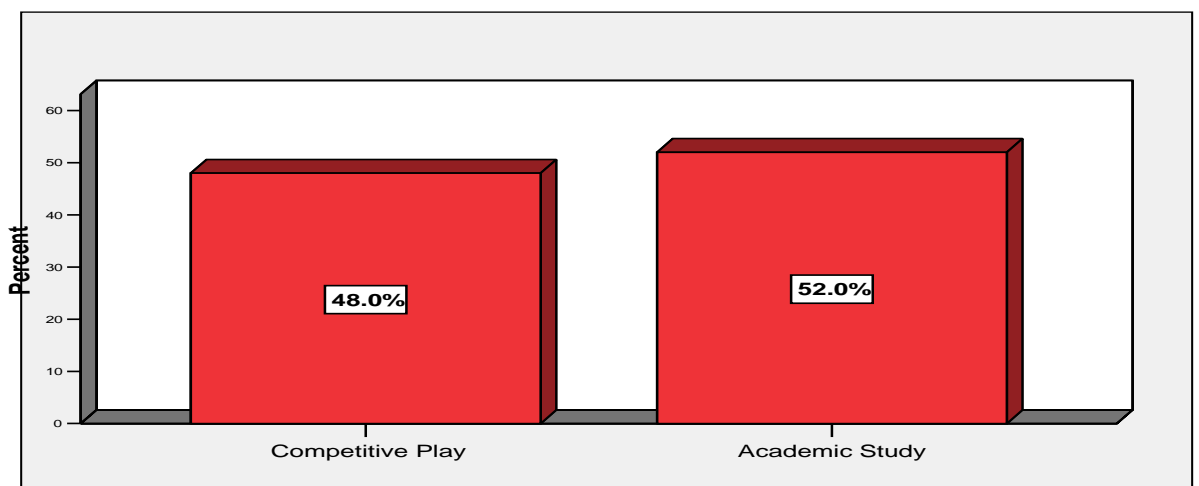


**Figure 5.31: NNU Athletes - Competitive Play or Academic Study**

*f) Most important reason for coming to university*

As demonstrated in figures 5.32 and 5.33, there is a general consensus amongst both UCW and NNU athletes about reasons for entry into their respective institutions: academic studies are given as the most important (UCW 60%; NNU 60%); sport-related reasons are ranked second (UCW 30%; NNU 38%) and social interest reasons are listed as the least important (UCW 10%; NNU 2%). These findings are consistent with figures 5.32 and 5.33 (Degree or Winning a championship) in that both UCW and NNU athletes chose academic studies as the most important factor entering into university.
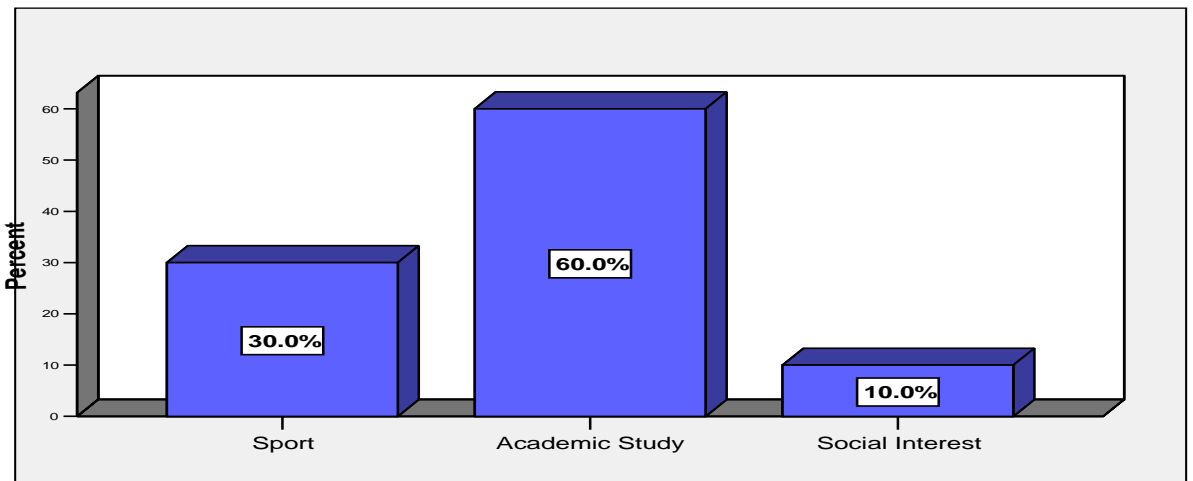


**Figure 5.32: UCW Athletes - Most Important Reason for Coming to University**
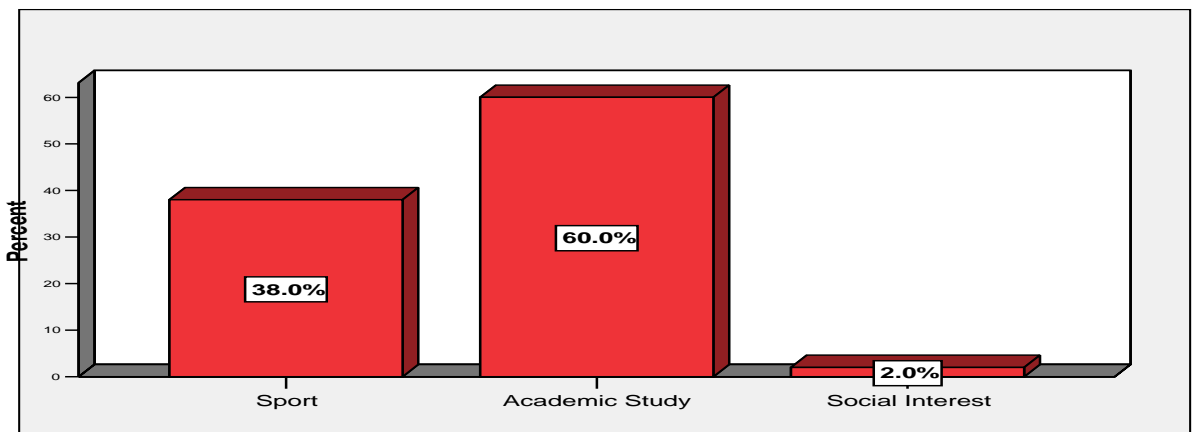


**Figure 5.33: NNU Athletes - Most Important Reason for Coming to University**

**Questionnaires: Section D – Attitudes**

*a)        Degree or Winning a Championship*

Findings related to the importance of obtaining a degree as opposed to winning the league championship show similarities in responses of both institutions' athletes (see figures 5.34 and 5.35).  The percentages clearly show that athletes place obtaining a "degree" (UCW 70%; NNU 64%) higher in importance than "winning a championship"; (UCW 30%; NNU 36%).
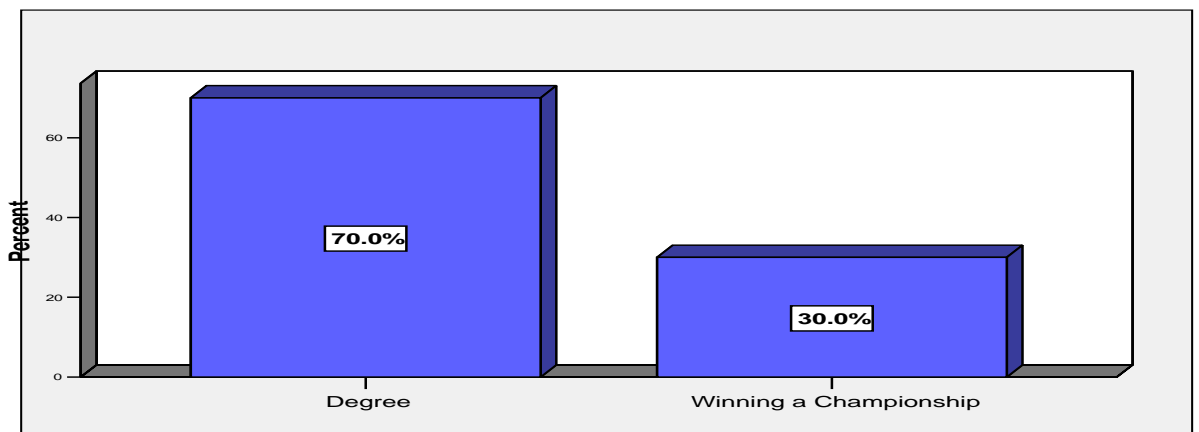


**Figure 5.34: UCW Athletes - Degree or Winning a Championship**
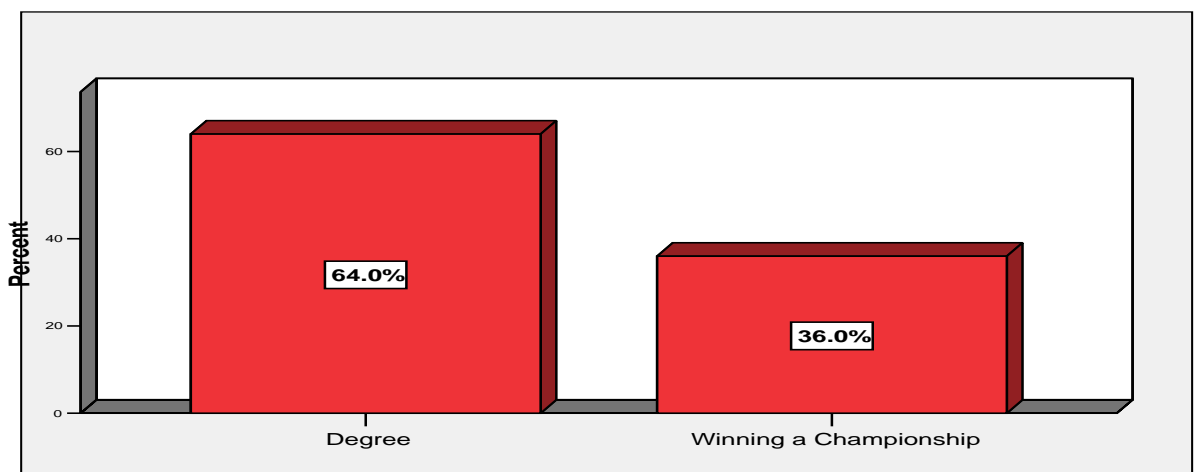


**Figure 5.35: NNU Athletes - Degree or Winning a Championship**

*b)        How important are individual honours to you as an athlete?*

There is a similarity in the general tendency in the two sample groups from "no"/"low" through "some" to "much" and "major" interest in importance of honours to the individual

athletes (refer figures 5.36 and 5.37). However, these are differences between the specific levels of interest, with a higher percentage of UCW athletes (52%) compared with NNU athletes (38%) showing "major interest" in honours; and a lower percentage of UCW athletes showing "some interest" (14%) compared with NNU athletes collectively showing "no"/"low"/"some interest" (30%). The combined proposition of athletes (UCW 86%; NNU 70%) showing "much"/"major interest" in individual honours is evident in the figures.
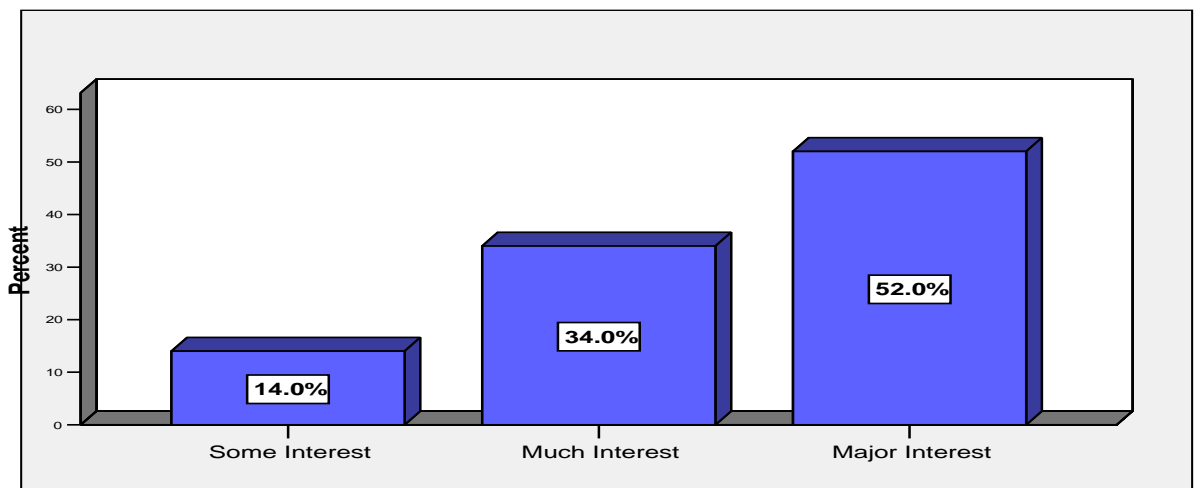


**Figure 5.36: UCW Athletes - Individual Honours**
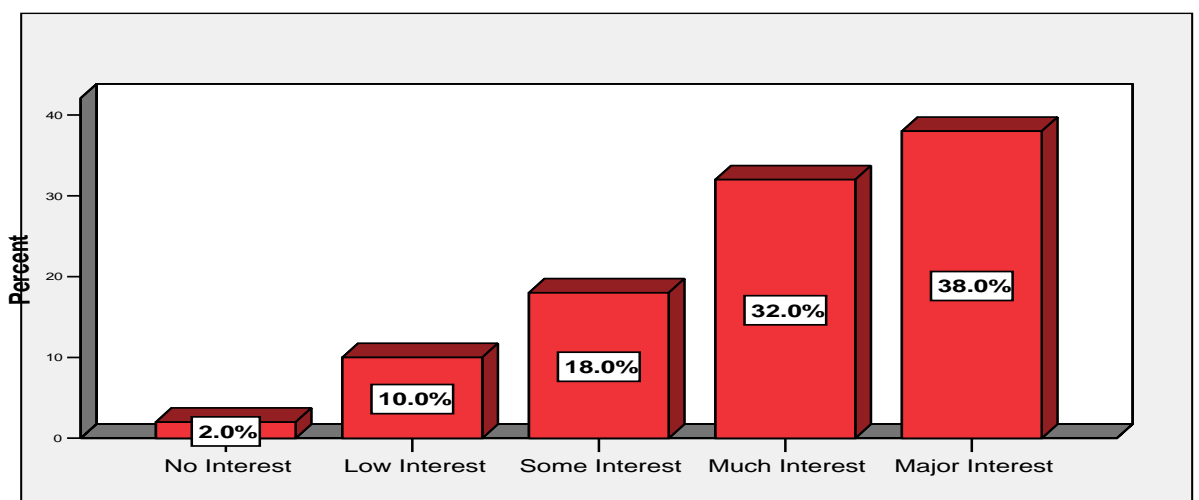


**Figure 5.37: NNU Athletes - Individual Honours**

*c)        How important is social status to you as an athlete?*

Figure 5.38 shows the findings regarding how important social status is to UCW athletes: 14% of the sample group has low interest in the social status; 28% has some interest; 44% shows much interest; and 14% has a major interest in the social status gained from participating as an athlete.
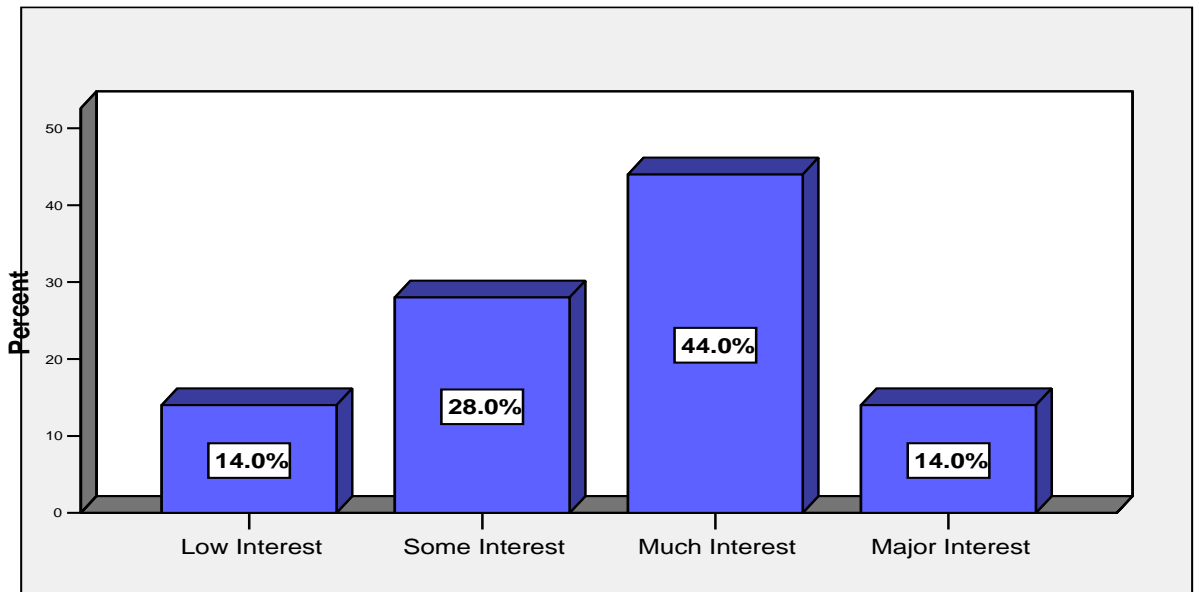


**Figure 5.38: UCW Athletes - Social Status**

Figure 5.39 displays the findings regarding the importance of social status to NNU athletes: 8% has no interest in social status; 26% has low interest, 32% has some interest, 22% has much interest, and 12% has a "major interest" in social status.  Comparing both figures, 44% of UCW students show "much interest" compared with 22% of NNU students in their social interest.  This disparity suggests that UCW students may value social status more highly than NNU students.
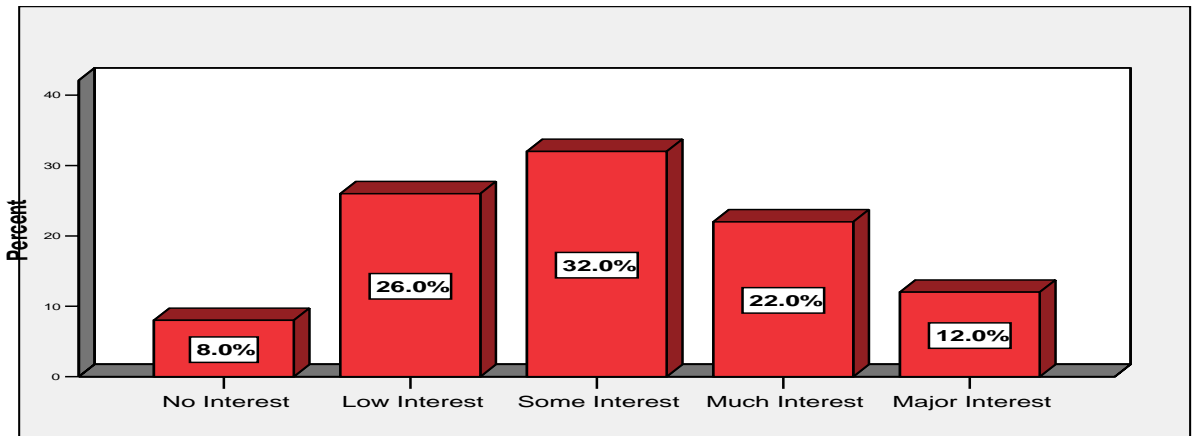
**Figure 5.39: NNU Athletes - Social Status**

*d) How important are social relationships to you as an athlete?*

Comparison of findings illustrated in figures 5.40 and 5.41 reveals that there is a higher pre-disposition amongst UCW athletes (74%) than amongst NNU athletes (34%) to rate the importance of social relationships at "much" / "major" interest levels. Conversely a higher proportion of NNU athletes (62%) than UCW athletes (22%) only indicate "low"/"some" interest on the importance of social relationships. Again, these findings indicate the importance UCW athletes place on social relationships as opposed to the NNU athletes. This tendency is perhaps indicative of historical cultural influences and is addressed in the following chapter.
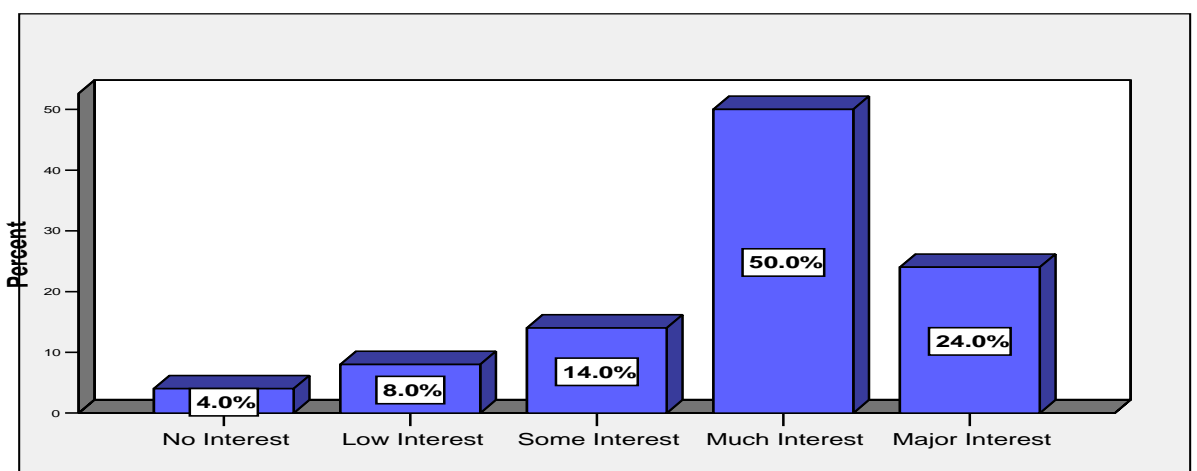


**Figure 5.40: UCW Athletes - Social Relationships**
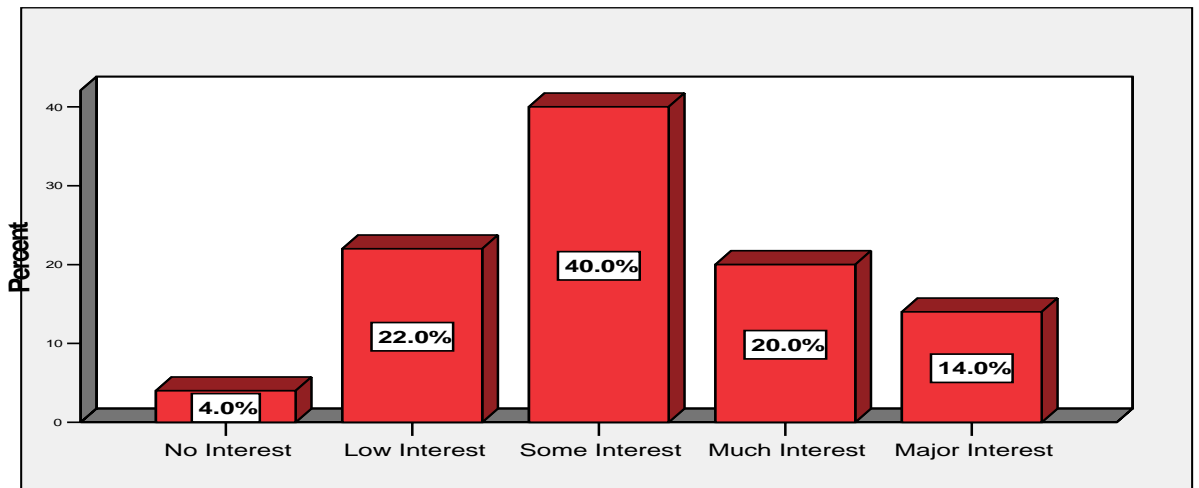
**Figure 5.41: NNU Athletes - Social Relationships**

*e)        How important is winning to you?*

From figures 5.42 and 5.43, it is clearly evident from both sets of athlete samples that "winning" is important, with 96% of UCW athletes and 94% of NNU athletes indicating "important" / "very important."  To some extent the level of importance expressed may reflect or be linked to findings related to personal values attached to winning, (see figures 5.8 and 5.9) and coaches' values in influencing attitudes towards winning (see figures 5.10 and 5.11).
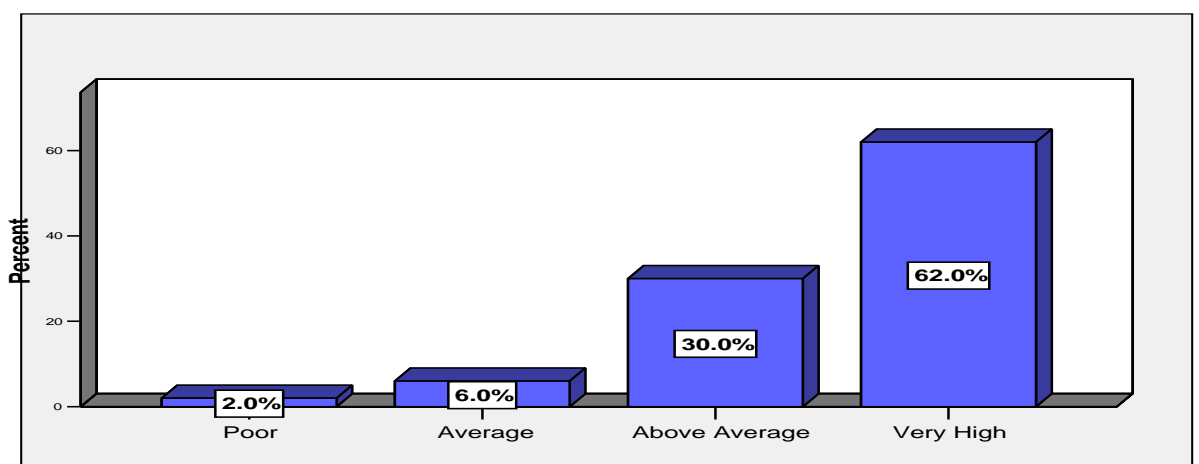


**Figure 5.42: UCW Athletes - Winning**
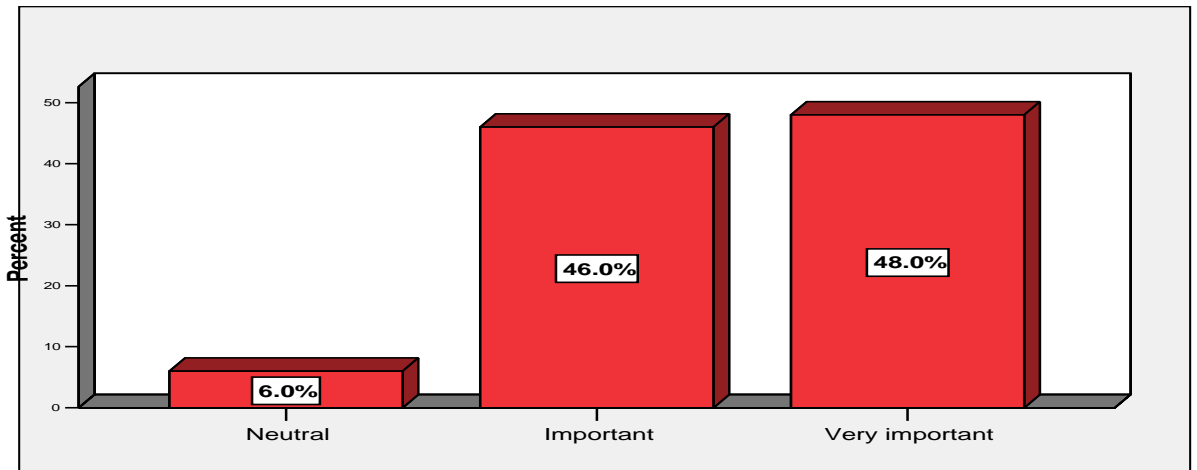
**Figure 5.43: NNU Athletes - Winning**

*f) Win and play badly or lose and play well?*

Given the importance accorded to the importance of winning by both sets of athletes, it is not surprising that the value attached to winning and playing badly is greater than that attached to losing and playing well in both institutions (refer figures 5.44 and 5.46). Almost three quarters (74%) of UCW athletes and two-thirds (62%) of NNU athletes supported winning over losing. At the same time though, there is a 12% difference in the responses from both institutions. Factors that could suggest a difference in the responses are discussed in the following chapter.
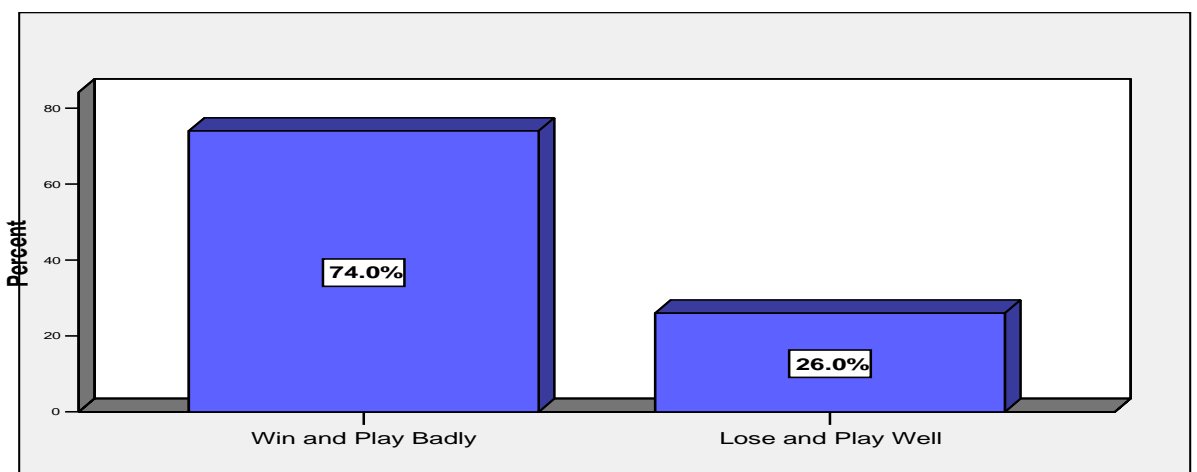


**Figure 5.44: UCW Athletes - Win and Play Badly or Lose and Play Well**
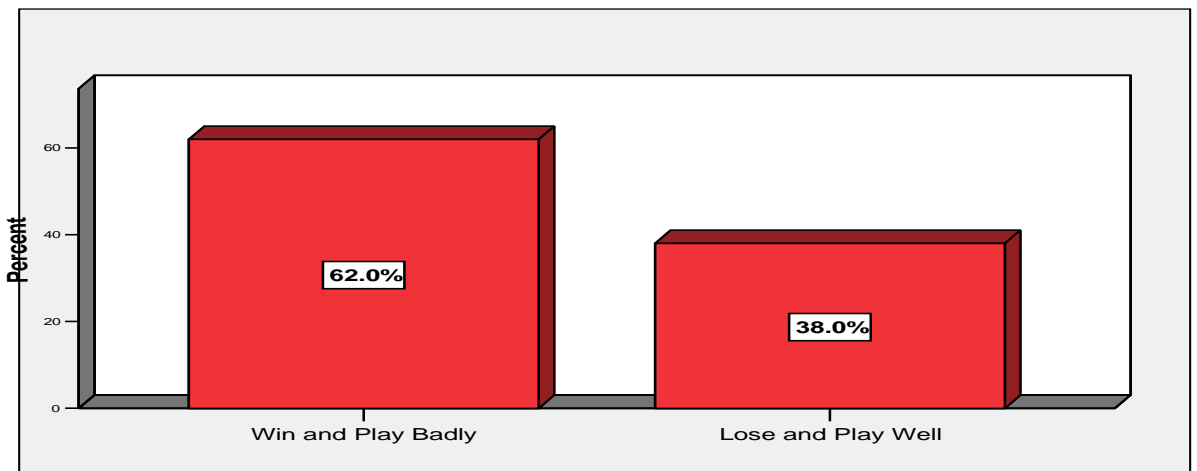
**Figure 5.45: NNU Athletes - Win and Play Badly or Lose and Play Well**

*g)        How important is your ambition for success in your sport?*

Figures 5.46 and 5.47, which relate to the importance of ambition for success, reveal that NNU athletes (68%) are more predisposed to attaching "very high" importance than UCW athletes (40%).   However, when combined with "above average" importance, there is minimal difference between the two samples (NNU 90% ; UCW 88%).
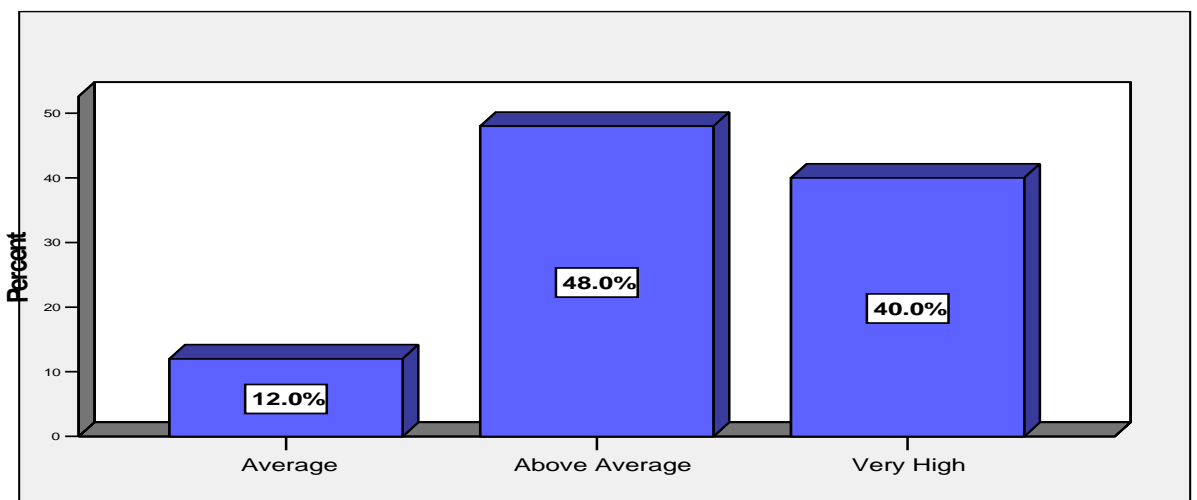


**Figure 5.46: UCW Athletes - Ambition for Success**
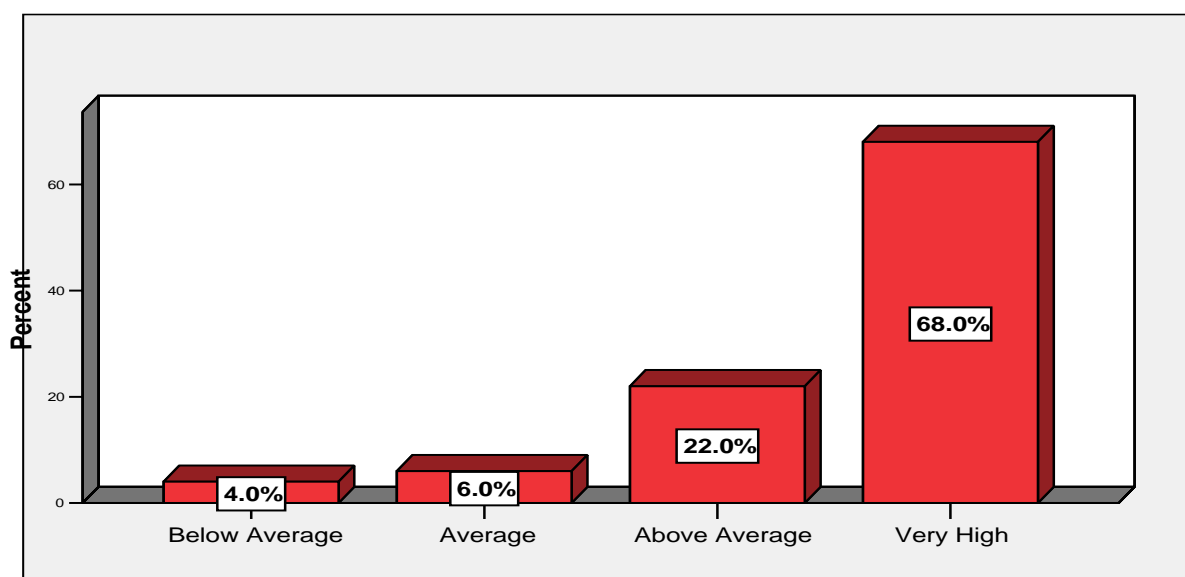
**Figure 5.47: NNU Athletes - Ambition for Success**

This section has presented the findings from the responses of the case study participants in the questionnaire survey at the selected institutions. The results have given an indication of the general outlook of the importance of winning amongst the sample athletes at both selected institutions.

**Questionnaires: Section E - Intra-Comparisons of Athletes' Questionnaire Responses**

Intra-comparisons of data responses to questionnaire items were made for both UCW and NNU athletes. Section III within this chapter presented illustrative data derived from SPSS analysis of the questionnaire surveys findings. These graphically illustrated findings represented overall responses of the selected athletes at UCW (rugby, football, basketball) and NNU (cross country, baseball, and basketball). In order to ascertain whether there were any significant differences between athletes responses of the sports represented and hence, have relevance to the winning/ participation debate, a Kruskal-Wallis Test was undertaken. Tables 5.1-5.4 show details of intra-comparisons' findings for each institution:

**Table 5.1: UCW Kruskal-Wallis Test**

| | Personal Details | N | Mean Rank |
|---|---|---|---|
| Win and play badly vs. Lose and play well | Basketball | 14 | 33.29 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 20.56 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 24.00 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Society | Basketball | 14 | 26.54 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 18.66 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 30.25 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Governing body of university sports | Basketball | 14 | 30.04 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 17.06 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 29.08 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Sport department | Basketball | 14 | 36.71 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 18.34 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 23.38 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Coaches values | Basketball | 14 | 33.93 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 22.25 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 22.20 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Personal values | Basketball | 14 | 8.04 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 34.47 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 30.55 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Media attention | Basketball | 14 | 38.04 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 16.91 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 23.60 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How would you rate the following factors within your institution? Coaching knowledge | Basketball | 14 | 30.43 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 15.94 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 29.70 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How would you rate the following factors within your institution? Coaching/practice sessions | Basketball | 14 | 31.79 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 13.97 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 30.33 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How would you rate the following factors within your institution? Coaching skills | Basketball | 14 | 30.68 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 15.41 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 29.95 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How would you rate the following factors within your institution? Training facilities | Basketball | 14 | 39.29 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 24.66 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 16.53 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| In your opinion, what type of environments exist within your university's sport programmes? Social | Basketball | 14 | 17.36 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 33.00 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 25.20 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How important are the following rewards to you as an athlete? Perks (shoes, shirts, travelling gear) | Basketball | 14 | 18.57 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 20.97 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 33.98 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How important are the following to you in your sport? Additional personal training | Basketball | 14 | 33.32 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 20.91 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 23.70 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How important are the following to you in your sport? Coaching standards | Basketball | 14 | 33.00 |
| | Soccer | 16 | 24.50 |
| | Rugby | 20 | 21.05 |
| | Total | 50 | |

(Source: SPSS 14.0: Kruskal- Wallis Test - Grouping Variable)

**Table 5.2: UCW Test Statistics - Summary of Significant Comparisons on Participating Teams in the Questionnaire**

| | Win and play badly vs. Lose and play well | How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Society | How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Governing body of university sports | How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Sport department | How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Coaches values | How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Personal values | How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Media attention | How would you rate the following factors within your institution? Coaching knowledge | How would you rate the following factors within your institution? Coaching/practice sessions | How would you rate the following factors within your institution? Coaching skills | How would you rate the following factors within your institution? Training facilities | In your opinion, what type of environments exist within your university's sport programmes? Social | How important are the following rewards to you as an athlete? Perks (shoes, shirts, traveling gear) | How important are the following to you in your sport? Additional personal training | How important are the following to you in your sport? Coaching standards |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chi-Square | 10.462 | 6.265 | 8.562 | 13.418 | 7.219 | 31.103 | 17.212 | 11.530 | 16.591 | 12.664 | 21.283 | 9.920 | 12.006 | 6.617 | 6.646 |
| df | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .005 | .044 | .014 | .001 | .027 | .000 | .000 | .003 | .000 | .002 | .000 | .007 | .002 | .037 | .036 |

(Source: SPSS 14.0: Kruskal- Wallis Test - Grouping Variable)

**Table 5.3: NNU Kruskal-Wallis Test**

| | Personal Details | N | Mean Rank |
|---|---|---|---|
| How important is winning to you? | Cross-country | 13 | 12.00 |
| | Baseball | 24 | 30.67 |
| | Basketball | 13 | 29.46 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| Win and play badly vs. Lose and play well | Cross-country | 13 | 33.31 |
| | Baseball | 24 | 25.38 |
| | Basketball | 13 | 17.92 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| Financial support for playing? | Cross-country | 13 | 23.77 |
| | Baseball | 24 | 21.04 |
| | Basketball | 13 | 35.46 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Sport department | Cross-country | 13 | 16.19 |
| | Baseball | 24 | 26.08 |
| | Basketball | 13 | 33.73 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Coaches values | Cross-country | 13 | 16.65 |
| | Baseball | 24 | 26.08 |
| | Basketball | 13 | 33.27 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How significant are the following infrastructures on your attitude towards winning? Off-season structures | Cross-country | 13 | 13.62 |
| | Baseball | 24 | 28.83 |
| | Basketball | 13 | 31.23 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| In your opinion, what type of environments exist within your university's sport programmes? Social | Cross-country | 13 | 29.15 |
| | Baseball | 24 | 23.58 |
| | Basketball | 13 | 25.38 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How important are the following rewards to you as an athlete? Personal (individual honours) | Cross-country | 13 | 31.81 |
| | Baseball | 24 | 25.54 |
| | Basketball | 13 | 19.12 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How important are the following to you in your sport? Additional personal training | Cross-country | 13 | 16.69 |
| | Baseball | 24 | 28.38 |
| | Basketball | 13 | 29.00 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How important are the following to you in your sport? Playing standards | Cross-country | 13 | 16.65 |
| | Baseball | 24 | 31.25 |
| | Basketball | 13 | 23.73 |
| | Total | 50 | |
| How important are the following to you in your sport? Academic importance | Cross-country | 13 | 16.19 |

(Source: SPSS 14.0: Kruskal- Wallis Test - Grouping Variable)

**Table 5.4: NNU Test Statistics – Summary of Significant Comparisons on Participating Teams in the Questionnaire**

| | How important is winning to you? | Win and play badly vs. Lose and play well | Financial support for playing? | How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Sport department | How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Coaches values | How do the following factors influence your attitude towards winning? Off-season structures | How significant are the following infrastructures on your attitude towards winning? | In your opinion, what type of environments exist within your university's sport programmes? | How important are the following rewards to you as an athlete? Personal (individual honours) | How important are the following to you in your sport? Additional personal training | How important are the following to you in your sport? Playing standards | How important are the following to you in your sport? Academic importance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Chi-Square** | 19.092 | 10.244 | 9.104 | 10.399 | 9.995 | 13.080 | 10.022 | 5.440 | 7.226 | 11.065 | 8.325 |
| **Degrees of Freedom** | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| **Asymp. Sig. (Significance Level)** | .000 | .006 | .011 | .006 | .007 | .001 | .007 | .066 | .027 | .004 | .016 |

(Source: SPSS 14.0: Kruskal-Wallis Test- Grouping Variable)

Tables 5.1 and 5.2 show significant differences that exist in the questionnaire responses between the participating teams' athletes (football, basketball, rugby) at University College Worcester. Table 5.1 provides the mean rank of each participating team and reveals there is a significant difference (>.05) between the three groups within the questionnaire items' findings.

In determining the statistical difference between the participating teams on the issue of win and play badly or lose and play well, table 5.1 reveals the mean rank for both basketball and football (soccer), with basketball participants' mean rank (33.29) to football participants' (20.56). Factors influencing each participating sport club at UCW, such as the 'scholarship scheme' established by the basketball programme in 2002 and eluded to earlier in this chapter are discussed in the following chapter, as they are relevant to the findings of the study. Basketball participants' mean rank in table 5.1 was significantly higher (33.93) than both rugby and football participants (22.20 and 22.25) in regards to coach's values influence on winning. Other values influencing the participating teams highlighted in table 5.2 revealed that football and rugby's mean rank of (34.47 and 30.55) was significantly higher than the basketball team (8.04) on the issue of personal values influence on winning attitudes. These values may well be influenced by the ethos of the respective clubs within UCW and are discussed in the next chapter.

Other related factors that demonstrated a significant difference between the participating teams at UCW presented in table 5.1 revealed a consistent pattern in the mean rank of the basketball participants scoring consistently higher (30.43, 31.79, 30.68) as opposed to the lower mean ranks of the football participants (15.94, 13.97, 15.41) on issues such as: coaching knowledge, quality of training sessions, and quality of coaching skills. The role of the 'coach' and the influence on the athlete's experience of student-sport at UCW is a persistent theme that is discussed in the Discussion chapter. It is not surprising then, that questions in relation to the importance that social influence has on the athletes' experience at UCW revealed in table 5.2 that the mean rank of the football club was significantly higher (33.0) than their counterpart, the basketball club (17.36). In regards to additional personal training, an issue that may well be influenced by the coach's values in each respective club, the basketball participants mean rank was (33.32) and was significantly higher than the football participants (20.91).

Significant differences emanating from the Kruskal-Wallis Test emerged between the participating teams at NNU and are highlighted in tables 5.3 and 5.4. Findings determined by the researcher as potentially capable of skewing the overall data emanated on the issue of 'winning' in that baseball and basketball participants mean rank (30.67 and 29.46) was significantly higher than the cross-country participants (12.00). The mind-set of the cross-country athletes may well be more personal as the nature of the sport is more individually oriented. Possible evidence to support this view emanated from the importance of individual honours, as the mean rank of the cross-country team (31.81) was significantly higher than for more traditional team sports, such as basketball (19.12) and baseball (25.54).

Other trends from the Kruskal-Wallis findings were identified on a range of issues: financial support; influence of sport department on winning; influence of off-season structures on winning; and the importance of additional personal training. These questions are all related, as the motivation of the participating athletes on each team may well be determined by the financial support provided. The basketball mean rank for financial support was (35.46) and was significantly higher than their counterparts, baseball, 21.04 and cross-country, 23.77). Following questions relating to the influence of financial support for teams at NNU included: the influence of the sport department on the participants attitude towards winning; how significant the off-season structures are on the attitudes on winning; and the importance of additional personal training. The findings show that the basketball mean rank (33.73, 31.23, 29.00 ) was higher for the sport department influence, off-season structures, and additional personal training on the basketball participant's attitude on winning in comparison with the cross-country team participants who scored consistently lower (16.19, 13.62, 16.69).

**Section IV: Interview Findings - UCW and NNU**
This section contains the interview schedules' findings of the selected groups (administration, coaches, and athletes) at UCW and NNU. The focal areas contained within the interview schedules were organised into the five broad categories detailed in Chapter 4: work experience, social factors, infrastructure, environment, and attitudes.

**Work Experience:**

<u>Administrators:</u>

The Director of Sport at UCW had a broad sphere of responsibilities encompassing academic staff and study programmes, research and sport science students:

> "I am responsible for the academic department, all the undergraduate programmes, masters programmes, research profile of the institution, 37 academic staff and nearly 850 students of sport science" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

However, reflecting on the student driven English university sport system, the Director of Sport had no functionary role in the management and administration of the sports teams within UCW:

> "Student sport here in this institution is run by the students for the students under something called the Students Union, they are affiliated to the institution but free and independent of us. They receive a grant from the institution towards their budgets and allocation of finances among the various sports teams. That is the tradition in all UK Higher Educational Institutions (HEI's)" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

By way of contrast the Athletic Director at NNU highlighted his functionary role as primarily concerned with athletics and student athletes, NCAA affairs, and budget related issues:

> "I oversee all personnel matters in the athletic department. I have between 20 and 30 members on staff, we also have between 150 to 200 athletes that we are responsible for. I oversee an operating budget of approximately a half million dollars, we probably fundraise another two hundred thousand dollars. We have salaries of staff that we oversee another half of million dollars, and then scholarship budgets are probably somewhere around another half of million dollars. My primary purposes is personnel, budgets, fundraising, dealing with our booster club, and then the daily process of dealing with the NCAA and the athletes with things such as eligibility, and lastly dealing with our staff" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

The Director of Student Sport at UCW, who is responsible for 25 sports teams and individual competitions for league and tournament play, provided insight on student-run sport in English (HEI's). Prior administrative experience was learned in her under-graduate study in sport studies and by little, if any engagement in administration:

> "I studied for three years at UCW doing a degree in sport studies jointly with business management so that gave me a good basis to go into the role. However, anyone can go for it regardless, you get elected into the position so the student's may not be fully aware of your background for it, but luckily I did have quite a good background that helped me a lot for it. Also, I hadn't done any real administration before, so you are very much thrown in at the deep end" (UCW Director of Student Sport, 2003).

The Student Sport Director's observation on lack of experience is indicative of an approach to administration in a multi-faceted department consistent with students in high positions. The approach is underlined in the Director of Student Sport's comment on student involvement and interaction:

> "The system is run by the students, for the students. We are eligible to play the student sports. Every Wednesday I would be playing rugby with the students and then in the evening you go out and socialise with the students. I think that is a very key point of it. You could hire someone in to run the student sport but they don't know what the student really wants because they have been away from it for a little while whereas if you are actually playing it and getting involved then you can see for yourself what needs to be done" (UCW Director of Student Sport, 2003).

By way of comparison in a similar position within the system at NNU, the Associate Athletic Director's background and experience within sport administration was described as:

> "I have been involved with athletic administration for 24 years. It was my chosen profession and provided me with a great lifestyle. I have coached and won many conference and league championships, I have taught physical education classes at both the high school and university level, and I am now in a full-time position of administration to provide a great experience for both coaches and athletes at NNU" (NNU Associate Athletic Director, 2003).

Her extensive experience within athletic administration is consistent with the specialised approach the NCAA maintains with highly experienced professionals in positions throughout the organisation and the member universities competing under the organisations' rules and regulations.

Coaches:

The interview schedule revealed different backgrounds for each within their coach's' field. At UCW the basketball coach was:

> "A Senior Lecturer in Sports Studies Coaching Science and I'm also the head coach for University College Worcester Men's Basketball Team." (UCW Coach, 2003);

Whereas the coach at NNU was:

> "The head coach at Northwest Nazarene University. My main duties include recruiting student athletes, coach on floor, schedule public relations, fund raising events and everything that is involved with running a successful collegiate program at the NCAA Division II level. This is my 24th season in college basketball. I have coached in different collegiate levels, NAIA level and now the NCAA Division II level" (NNU Coach, 2003).

The differences are indicative of the contrasting ethos between the two institutions in that the UCW basketball coach has a full time academic position at the university and coaches in his spare time, whereas the NNU coach's responsibilities embrace full-time coaching; recruiting, scheduling public relations and raising money for the basketball programme.


Athletes:

On the issue of background, the UCW players responded:

> "I started playing when I was 13. My mum was big on doing extra curriculum activities she always wanted me to do something. So we sat down and we made a massive list of all different sports I could try, and we came up with basketball. I didn't know what basketball was. Over here it's never played, it's never on TV" (UCW Captain, 2003).

> "I started playing when I was 14, it was the summer before my 15th birthday when I went to my first basketball camp. That was when I first started playing properly. Before then it was just shooting around in the back garden occasionally" (UCW Player 1, 2003).

> "A friend at school asked if I would like to go to training run by the council, and I just loved it from there, I loved the experience and wanted to play more" (UCW Player 2, 2003).


Players from the NNU basketball team respectively responded:

> "I started playing basketball at the age of five. I played through the junior high ranks. High school I started on varsity as a freshman. I transferred to another high school and started on varsity my sophomore, junior and senior years where we went to State. We did very well in State and received a lot of accolades from that. Played a year of junior college and left for a mission for two years and came back. This is my second year of three years with NNU" (NNU Captain, 2003).

> "I started playing basketball when I was eight years old. I played on summer teams up until my 8th grade year. That is where I began to play organised basketball. Played on high school varsity as a junior and senior. Then came to NNU to play on this basketball team" (NNU Player 1, 2003).

Players from UCW were introduced to basketball at a later stage than those from NNU. The interview schedule revealed that the athletes from NNU were introduced to the game through the educational system in the USA, whereas athletes from UCW mentioned activity camps and family decisions for involvement in the game.

**Interviews: Section A - Social Factors**

Administrators:

The administrators at UCW and NNU were asked about social values and their relationship with elite sport. The Director of Sport at UCW responded:

> "Certainly, society's attitude towards losing or winning, or concepts like fair play and equity are all societal values and there has to be the extent to which they are valued or otherwise a society will have no impact on sport. For example, if a society chooses not to value winning the world cup, then it probably won't want to put any of the finances and systems into place in order to win the world cup, another society might value that" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

The Athletic Director at NNU agreed with this concept that social values and sport are intertwined in observing that:

> "I think in the U.S. system and the NCAA, they have to be intermixed. In the last week, I went through a telephone conference with the NCAA on ethics in sport. We had a situation where the incident was not very bad involving an athlete, but they covered it up. Covering up the incident and not being truthful was huge. This incident is going to cost the athlete 20% of his athletic season because of his ethical stand" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

Both administrators highlighted the importance of social values and the relationship or role within elite sport. They allude to the importance of the relationship and determining what effects each has towards the other. In trying to find what social values affect the perceptions of winning among the administrators in both systems, the Directors of Sport at both institutions were asked, *'What have been the major contributors in the personal development of your social values?'* The Director of Sport at UCW regarded his as:

"The major influence for me in the early days was my parents. My father was a cyclist, a competitive cyclist and he ensured that I went to a school where sport was valued highly. I attended a private school where we played sport every Wednesday afternoon and every Saturday, which is similar to a traditional American model of the public school system. My major influence was the private school I attended. I suppose the other thing is, if you talk about socio-cultural factors, I think a lot of it comes down to personality of the individual, I like to win at darts even if it's a family friendly game" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

The Athletic Director at NNU response to the same question on social values was:

"The number one influence is my father. When I grew up I wanted to please him. I am fifty years old, and when I see my father I still want to please him, I don't want to embarrass him, I want him to be proud of me. When I got into athletics, my coaches were my next role models, my next layer of fathers" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

By way of comparison, both administrators place a high value on parental influence on acquisition of social values. Additionally, coaches had a significant impact on the administrators' values and approach to competitive sport. In addition to determining the affect of social values on the administrators within both systems, the Directors were asked the question, *'Do social values you have formed directly affect your approach towards university sports?'* The response from the Director of Sport at UCW was:

"Oh yeah, I am sometimes amazed and disappointed at the talent that is available in my own university. I look at the number of athletes and the talent and potential that they have who are either participating or just getting started in sports, doing something, even being active at one level to achieving their talent and potential at the other end. I personally would like to see athletes more focused and driven towards competing at high levels, but I have no affiliation with the management of student sport." (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

The Athletic Director at NNU responded:

"I think you have to make sacrifices if you want to be good in athletics. I think a part of that is putting some things away, putting some things aside and making some decisions. Personally, my upbringing raises my expectations of people that it is possible to do. To me when I was growing up and playing, athletics were the most important thing and I would do anything to get better. My upbringing is huge for the expectations of our athletes and of our program. I try to keep expectations high. I think that is also a major reason why I am here" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

Although the UCW Director of Sport had no affiliation with sport itself, his social values with regard to competition are apparent in his disappointment of the competitive standards within student sport at UCW because of values taught and learned in his early years. Social values affected the NNU Athletic Director as well in his response to making sacrifices to compete at an elite level in university sport. These sacrifices were learned during his formative years. Further insight into the effect that social values had on the administrators' approach within their respective systems is gained through the observation of the Director of Student Sport, who highlighted the relationship between the two and referred to the effect of social values within student sport at UCW:

> "I would definitely say it did. We talked earlier about being sport biased as I have heard people were in the past so I was very, very conscious of it, if anything because I was a member of the women's rugby team, they probably got more penalised than any other team because I was worried people were going to say, 'oh, she's a rugby player, I'm a netball player, there's no point talking to her she's not going to help me I'm playing the wrong sport basically" (UCW Director of Student Sport, 2003).

*Coaches:*

The basketball coaches from UCW and NNU were asked, *'Do you think social values and sport are interdependent?'* The coach from UCW commented:"I think a lot depends on the programme and how much winning is important"(UCW Coach, 2003). The coach from NNU revealed that:

> "I know things that are going on socially show up in sports. They are co-mingled and they tie together. There are some things that are better in sport than they are in society, and I think sometimes in society there are better things going on than there are in sports" (NNU Coach, 2003).

Both coaches concluded that sport and society are intertwined and both are affected by each other however, the coach from UCW placed some importance on winning as the determining factor for the interaction between the two. The coach from UCW was asked if the social values he has formed directly affect his coaching values, his answer was:

> "My approach is that whatever situation, no matter how well we've prepared or how badly we've prepared, whenever we go out I want to go out to win and play as well as we possibly can. In terms of the student life here a lot of their priority is not on being an athlete it's on being a student and when we get them on court we have to spend a lot of time on the court with them trying to motivate them to get this culture of wanting to win" (UCW Coach, 2003).

To the same question, the coach from NNU responded:

> "Most definitely, I think there are a lot of different philosophies for the game of basketball. Sports are pretty shallow if it is all about winning games and being competitive on the floor. I don't think one philosophy is better than another as far as I am concerned. I think the key is that athletes believe in that philosophy, execute that philosophy then they will be successful at it. The group has got to value that philosophy in order for them to win games" (NNU Coach, 2003).

Both coaches direct their responses to winning and creating a 'culture' or 'philosophy' within each team. There was no mention of winning in the initial question, but the findings infer that 'winning' is a central value in the approach of both coaches.

An additional question was asked in regards to the effect that social values have on the coaches from UCW and NNU. The question posed was *'Do you feel that the society within your country places an added emphasis towards the importance of winning?'* The UCW coach answered:

> "In terms of winning we like winning but we don't work hard enough. I don't think we are a country of winners. When we've got winners and successful people we knock them down and want to criticise them and destroy them. If we've got people who try hard and do quite well we give them more credit, we cheer our losers louder than we cheer our winners" (UCW Coach, 2003).

The NNU coach replied with:

> "I think sport in America is out of whack a little bit. What has happened in America is, I don't believe one person is more valuable than another no matter what their role or vocation. I think in the case for collegiate sports as well, when you have a basketball tournament (March Madness) produce 1 billion dollars over a month period in our country, that is a significant business. Obviously you have some problems when that kind of money gets involved." (NNU Coach, 2003).

The UCW coach felt a lack of preparation or a commitment towards winning within his country and that 'winners are not readily accepted within English society. The NNU coach believed that society in the USA has allowed sport to reach uncontrollable heights with 'commercialisation' as the driving force for this problem. These problems or

attitudes involving society and sport within each country will be discussed within the following chapter. The final question regarding social factors and their influence was directed towards both coaches. The NNU coach was asked *'How much influence do you have on your athletes and their perception on the importance of winning?'* He answered:

> "I think the coach is the leader on the team, someone who sets the tone. I think the team takes on the personality of the coach. I don't think that is a bad thing, I think that is a scary thing. It is the responsibility of the coach. I want our team to be known as one of the best teams in the league" (NNU Coach, 2003).

The UCW coach intimated:

> "I think in training when we have practices I work very hard. I think more to achieve and play well as we can, so in practice time it's more about well lets do as much as we can in the hour or so we have." (UCW Coach, 2003).

The NNU coach feels his responsibilities' and influence over his players as 'scary', regarding the amount of influence he can have on each individual player. Attention to a 'winning' ethos is mentioned in that he wants his team to be known as one of the best teams in their respective league. The UCW coach believes he influences his players by valuing achievement and hard work ethos when in training. His influence is limited because of the lack of training time with his team during the week.

Athletes:

On the question of, *'What have been the major contributors in your personal social values?'* The UCW captain believed:

> "The major contributors have been my family. My parents had the biggest influence on me I have to say from an early age just saying what's right, what's wrong. Then I'd say friends, just the people I've been friends with, if you've got friends and you respect them, you look at the way they deal with other people. I'd say family first, friends and then just people you respect" (UCW Captain, 2003).

The NNU captain responded with: "It has definitely been my family, my parents. My faith in God and my wife as well" (NNU Captain, 2003).These responses show both UCW and NNU captains place emphasis on their parents as the strongest influence that

shaped their social values. Friends and respected people in their lives also contributed to the development of their values.

Questions regarding the role that society has within England and the USA and the effect it had on the perceptions of winning amongst the players at UCW and NNU produced varying responses:

> "Yes definitely. The attitude here is about participation. It's not that people don't want to win over here because they do, people want to win but you are not made to feel bad if you don't win. There are no consequences of losing. Because of that attitude society does have an impact because people are like that and that's the way things are done by your parents, that's the way things are done by your peers and they have that attitude, I can't lie and say it doesn't have an impact, it does because if everyone around you has got that attitude, you're not going to be as driven" (UCW Captain, 2003).

The NNU captain's response was:

> "Oh yes, I think America is number 1 in the eyes of the world. It is the big brother to all countries. I think playing on a team in the United States you have that feel as well. That is what this country is built upon, being number 1 in everything, bigger than life, so I think it does have a big impact" (NNU Captain, 2003).

These responses above suggest two different attitudes on 'winning' within each respective societal setting. The UCW Captain mentions "participation" as the central value present within English society and attitudes on 'winning'. In sharp contrast, the NNU Captain refers to "America is number 1 in the eyes of the world" and relates this kind of competitive or winning attitude to the very foundation of what the country is built upon. These polar attitudes will be discussed in the following chapter.

Responses as to whether the UCW players felt that their coach places an emphasis on winning include Player 1 commenting with:

> "Yes there is expectation. There was expectation last year. I think we tried but we just failed miserably. It's not a bad thing having coaches give you expectations because it gives you something to aim for as long as they're not ridiculous. It is good to have an emphasis placed by the coach but nothing immense" (UCW Player 1, 2003).

and the Captain believed that:

> "I would say Mick lives for sport and loves sport and wants to win and puts a lot of time and effort into it and I'd say he really wants to win. He definitely places an emphasis on winning" (UCW Captain, 2003).

At NNU, Player 1 observed that:

> "Our coach definitely places an emphasis on winning. That is one of the biggest things. Just the other day I can tell you he has had 21 seasons and he has won all but 4 of those seasons. He made sure we knew that and it is a lot more enjoyable and probably a lot less stressful when we are winning. His first year back we win 5 games, he has pressure from the president and athletic director to get this program fixed now! He takes the pressure from them and puts it on us" (NNU Player 1, 2003).

The Captain from NNU answered:

> "Yes he does. I think a very large emphasis on winning. I think that affects not only me, but the team-mates as well. If we are not going to win, then we are going to have the wrath of coach. Yes, he places a big emphasis on it, by driving us really hard in practice and workouts." (NNU Captain, 2003).

The above responses from both UCW and NNU players show the importance that their coaches place on 'winning' within their respective teams. As a result, the 'winning' attitude affects the approach of the players involved in both systems. The effects are reviewed in the discussion chapter.

**Interviews: Section B – Infrastructure**

*Administrators:*

The administrators were asked a series of questions directed towards the various structures and their influence on the systems at both UCW and NNU. The Director of Sport at UCW responded to the question relating to the level of influence that the British University Sport Association (BUSA) had on student-sport at UCW:

"In some ways BUSA has considerable influence in that it decides what competitions it will run. If there's going to be a fencing competition, or a squash competition, or a basketball competition, BUSA decides that. So the league structure is decided by BUSA, which sports it will operate within is decided by BUSA, but the organisation and management of those sports is down to the university, so the structure is controlled by BUSA in one sense, but students sit on BUSA and can influence that structure in that way. The organisation and administration of BUSA has within this institution, has no influence over that" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

In response to the question on the influence the NCAA had on the student-athletes at NNU, the Athletic Director thought:

"It has a huge influence. The NCAA still stresses self-governance, they want you (administration) to patrol and make sure you monitor your program. They don't leave much to chance. It is all laid out, I have a manual that is probably 2-inches thick on rules and regulations. Every coach has to pass a test in the beginning of August, they have to pass a test on all the recruiting rules, it is an hour and thirty minute test, they have to get at least an 80% or they can't recruit. In addition, we go to rules seminars, we are required to go once a year. We are required to go to the NCAA National Convention once a year, where you vote on legislation" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

BUSA is highlighted by the Director of Sport at UCW as having a 'considerable' influence on the overall structure (i.e league structure) although the universities are separate in the management of student sport within each system. The NCAA in comparison has a 'huge influence' according to the Athletic Director at NNU. He goes on to say that, "I have manual 2-inches thick on rules and regulations" (Athletic Director, NNU 2003). The Athletic Director's comments on the strict regulation policies within the NCAA underline the 'competitive' ethos that is discussed in the following chapter.

A polar view to the above findings by the Directors of Sport, was represented by the Director of Student Sport at UCW:

"Not a great deal. I've got an example from Loughborough University where a student was asked to represent quite highly, the game collided with an exam they were due to sit so their director of sport invigilated this exam separately to everyone else so that student could play in BUSA sport" (UCW Director of Student Sport, 2003).

By way of comparison, the Associate Athletic Director at NNU expressed her belief that:

> "When it comes to rules and regulations in dealing with student-athletes and conduct by them and coaches, it has the majority of influence. We find that we self report on a more regular basis than the majority of schools in our conference and probably in the Nation. We definitely do not look the other way when we have a violation, we report it" (NNU Associate Athletic Director, 2003).

Additional findings from administration at both institutions reveal that the Director of Student-Sport at UCW (2003) thought that BUSA did, "not have a great deal" of influence on the athletes. The relationship between the student unions and BUSA is discussed in the following chapter. The Associate Athletic Director at NNU (2003) agreed with her colleague in that the NCAA has *"majority of influence"* on the athletes participating.

A sharper focus was concentrated on the primary objectives that the administrators from both sport departments implemented. The Director of Sport from UCW responded:

> "I suppose the primary objective is to get as many of them (students) playing as possible, and then to do as well as possible in the league they are in. I think it's different in different teams, for example let's compare the attitude of the rugby team, who play to win and do very well. So, I think there are differences between the teams in the institution. Some teams are more professional whereas some teams are more social" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

The Director of Student Sport at UCW acknowledged that the objectives of the student union in relation to their student-athletes was:

> "I think much of what has been mentioned, the fact that student sport is there for everyone regardless of whether you play for England or whether you've never picked up a cricket bat before and you just want to have a go at being part of a team. They also have social aspects so there is an option for everybody regardless of which experience level you come in at. I think something that is a key objective but the students might not be aware of it to start with is the skills they are gaining as well from taking on positions within the club which might be treasurer, chairman and all those different roles. We're trying to give them more than just experience, anyone can come out with experience but if you come out with a degree and a certificate and have all this knowledge of being in charge of a budget for a year then they have a lot more going for them" (UCW Director of Student Sport, 2003).

The Athletic Director at NNU commented on the primary objectives within NNU athletic department:

> "I think the primary objective is that they need to get a good education. Athletics are a tool to get kids to school. We want them to have a great experience here. I think the teammates and relationships you are going to develop are going to be life long. On the athletics side, we want to challenge people, ultimately we want to be successful. We have made a jump to a higher level of competition, so it is a little tougher to be as successful as we want in terms of wins and losses. I think it is developing the individual both academically, socially, spiritually, and athletically" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

The Associate Athletic Director added further insight on the primary objectives within the NNU athletic department:

> "I would say that our primary objectives as far as the athletic administration feels, is that the athletes have the best experience possible. Not just in athletics, in social, spiritual, academics and athletics" (NNU Associate Athletic Director, 2003).

All of the administrators comment on a common theme that accounts for the 'best experience' available to student-athletes who participate in each respective system. Both administrators from UCW refer to 'mass participation' sport and how the fundamental goal at UCW is to maximize the number of students participating. In comparison, the administrators from NNU both mentioned the 'whole' experience and not just the competition itself.

The Director of Sport at UCW revealed the following on the level of influence that the infrastructure had on winning:

> "Yes I do, I think there has been an increasing recognition amongst the student regarding the importance of winning and I think the factor that caused it would be the improved level of talent in coming to university. I think the calibre of the athlete and the interaction, the social interaction with those students and their own aspirations is probably what has brought about the change in culture there amongst those teams where winning is seen as important" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

The Director of Student Sport added:

> "We have such a thing as a result board in the student's union and it's filled in on a Wednesday so that people can go and have a look and see who's won and who's lost. Now if we didn't have any emphasis on winning we wouldn't have that there because we wouldn't have minded whose won and who's lost. We want student sport to move forward, a lot of that will help, the process will be speedier if we do well but that doesn't just mean doing well in winning, your club needs to do well, it needs to be approachable it needs to be a club that anyone can go into and you've got more people becoming involved and you can feel that and make the first team and really make a good first team that can go on and make a clear winning feeling, what we try and promote into our students" (UCW Director of Student Sport, 2003).

The Athletic Director at NNU responded to the same question:

> "I think right now it depends on which program you are looking at. Our booster club, which is all of our fans who contribute money to the athletics programs, you would see a huge emphasis towards winning. I think institutionally, we realise in our conference how much money you put into a program affects how competitive you can be. Even at that, our president of NNU has high expectations on the basketball program. Our men's basketball program is the main program everyone wants it to be successful. Since we have made this move to NCAA Division II, it has been a challenge. We have built into our coach's contracts expectations on winning. Obviously, every coach wants to win every game or they wouldn't be a coach then. From that side of it there are some frustrations that develop because the coach wants to win every game along with the athletes" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

The Associate Athletic Director believed:

> "I think it definitely does, well it is interesting, because the school administration wants participation because they want the enrolment through more participation. At the same time, they want a winning program, because that is going to bring more students, more crowds, and more revenue. I think the bottom line is whatever will bring in more students and more money. I think that is why we are affiliated with NCAA Division II" (NNU Associate Athletic Director, 2003).

The administration from both institutions agreed on a level of influence regarding the infrastructure in place at both institutions sport departments. When comparing both structures, the level of influence is notably different between each respective institution. The Director of Sport at UCW (2003) mentioned "social interaction" as a major influence

on winning while the Director of Student-Sport (2003) alluded to a "results board" in the students union.  By way of comparison, the Athletic Director at NNU (2003) focused his comments on the 'booster club' and their contribution financially towards the department. Additionally, the Associate Athletic Director mentioned the increase in enrolment of students that in turn increase the revenue for the institution.

The administrators were asked specific questions on their respective roles, such as, *'Do your decisions have a direct impact on the experience student athletes will have within UCW student sport and NNU athletic department?'* The Director of Sport at UCW responded:

> "My decisions don't, remember my job is to run the academic department, although I do think they look to the academic department for role models, but my decisions theoretically will have no impact" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

The Director of Student Sport added further insight:

> "Yes because I'm overall responsible for student sport if I decided that the duty of care cards that every student had to have last year which would cover all their sports, if they were injured in Newcastle and the bus had to come back you could then get a taxi back and not worry about the cost of it because we would pay for it.  If I decided and it's completely within my rights I'm going to up it to 50 pounds, I've probably eliminated 40% of the people that play student sport they would stop playing because of that cost" (UCW Director of Student Sport, 2003).

The Athletic Director at NNU replied:

> "Yes, this year was a great example.  I hired four or five head coaches, obviously that is probably the biggest impact I have on the athletes.  I am picking the individual who is going to work with them day-to-day.  We are also working with the president on the budget, the budget is going to affect what kind of experience they are going to have.  I approve schedules, so I control where the teams go and what they do, so I have some control in that. We approve scholarships, so the number of people receiving money is under my guidance.  Most of my decisions directly or indirectly affect their experience.  I am fund raising, so how the booster club supports it, season ticket sales, all of those things in one form or another will have an affect on the athletes as well.  But the coach is probably the biggest one" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

The Associate Athletic Director at UCW believed:

> "I think ultimately it goes back to the coach. Ultimately it goes back to what their philosophy is, can we win and still have everything else? The administration can say this is what we want you to do, but it comes down to the coach. I think it goes back to who the administration is hiring? What are their priorities in hiring?" (NNU Associate Athletic Director, 2003).

The Director of Sport at UCW (2003) highlighted his decisions having "theoretically no impact" on student sport. His responsibilities strictly deal with the academic responsibilities of the students within the school. The other administrators' findings all concluded that they believe their decisions do have an impact on the athletes. The Athletic Director at NNU (2003) commented on the past year and the coaches he hired and their impact on the experiences of the athletes. In comparison, the Director of Student Sport at UCW (2003) focused her comments on the price for the duty of care cards and how pricing strategy determines in many cases a higher or lower percentage of participation by students in sport. The affects of administrators on athletes are discussed in the next chapter.

Coaches:

The coach from UCW was asked if the amount of time spent by their athletes on basketball had a direct affect on the importance of winning. He responded:

> "We don't train enough, we don't take it seriously enough and yet the frustrating thing is, the guys within the club really want to win when they're there. We might have a training session on a Thursday evening and they've all been out for a heavy drinking session on a Wednesday night an they're not mentally prepared for it or they're not physically prepared for it and when they play badly they wonder why and they waste fifteen to twenty minutes trying to get rid of cobwebs" (UCW Coach, 2003).

In response to the same question, the coach from NNU observed:

> "The NCAA limits the amount of time we can coach our athletes. It is 8 hours a week on the floor in the pre-season, but we expect them to shoot outside of practice and do some stuff on their own. Our players have a 70 hour week between basketball and their studies." (NNU Coach, 2003).

Both coaches direct their frustration at the structure they have to work under. The UCW coach was frustrated with the lack of commitment to training sessions by his players, while he believes is linked to lifestyle and how it affects training itself. The NNU coach concentrated his attention on the NCAA regulations and rules, which have implications for the amount of practice time allowed for his athletes. The coach acknowledged the pressures placed on his student-athletes under the NCAA structure and more specifically NNU.

The coach from UCW was asked an additional question that focused on the structure of BUSA and how it affected the system at UCW and more specifically, the athletes within the system. He responded:

> "We have within the BUSA organisation people changing roles every year. BUSA has improved in the last few years and they're actually getting fixtures out earlier now but I think if we had full time professional people who stayed in the job for years they could tighten up the structure of the organisation, the competition and then maybe we could do it a little bit better as well. But university sport in this country with the exception of five or six Ivory Tower University's is still more of a social thing. We're trying to get away from that and I think we are a little bit but if I'm totally honest we're definitely not in the Ivory Tower approach yet" (UCW Coach, 2003).

The coach at NNU was asked if he thought the structure of the NCAA, more specifically the athletic scholarship, has affected the system at NNU. His response was:

> "I think it has enhanced millions of young people's lives over the years. As far as the competition standpoint, when you raise the water in the harbour, all the boats rise. When you jump to a new level like we have, the water is high. We have to get on a program or we are going to sink. That is the challenge for our program here. I think scholarships at all levels of college basketball is the one thing that should be even at each university if you are going to have a chance to be successful. Your location, your facilities, the type of school, all play a part in the recruiting process" (NNU Coach, 2003).

The UCW coach (2003) attributes *"social"* values as a major attitude within the structure of BUSA and its affect on UCW. He also adds to the structure at UCW, "if we had full time professional people who stayed in the job for years they could tighten up the structure of the organisation." The coach at NNU (2003) commented on the, *"athletic scholarship"* utilised in the NCAA structure and its affect on athletes by "enhancing

millions of young people's lives over the years". Further discussion of this issue is undertaken in the Discussion chapter.

Adding the effect scholarships have within university sport in the USA, the coach from NNU was asked, *'Do the players receiving a scholarship take it as a chance to obtain their degree or play intercollegiate basketball?'* He replied:

> "At this university it is $21,000. That is an $84,000 scholarship over four years, which is significant. We figured it out, if we just coached them during the season, the time the athletes are training for basketball adds up to $67 per/hour, that is pretty good salary. When you sign people to the scholarship, the commitment is a two way street. Basketball is why they are receiving that, basketball doesn't need to be number one, but it needs to be right up there in the top three. That is where your influence as a coach can help young men create a balance and understanding of the big picture. Education is your insurance policy" (NNU Coach, 2003).

The NNU coach commented on the financial sum that comprises a 'full-ride' scholarship for an athlete over four years, which results in 84,000 dollars (48,000 pounds). He also commented on how, "basketball is why they are receiving that" but goes on to say that it should be a two way relationship between academics as well. The effects the 'athletic scholarship' had in the NCAA system are discussed in the next chapter.

Athletes:

The players from UCW and NNU were asked questions concerning the infrastructures and their affect on the importance of winning. Responses to the question, *'Do you think UCW student sport places an added emphasis towards winning?'* comprised:

UCW Captain:

> "We've got more sport teams, there's more tradition here, and I think it's a lot more important but I still say there's no emphasis on winning. Yes, everyone wants to win and we're supposed to be a big sports University and we're in it to win because they're trying to build a better reputation, be the winning team, but do they actually do anything to make you win here, I don't think so" (UCW Captain, 2003).

Player 2:

> "It depends on the level you are playing at, I don't think that across the board in all the sport there is a great emphasis on winning, it's more like the old tradition of taking part, being part of a team, and more kind of social aspects" (UCW Player 2, 2003).

The Captain and Player 1 responded to the same question at NNU with:

> "I don't' think they do in a forceful manner, but I think they do in a subtle manner. This school has a great tradition of winning in basketball through the past ten years. I think it does place an emphasis on winning, in a passive manner." (NNU Captain, 2003).

Player 1 believed:

> "I think NNU Athletic Department totally places an emphasis on winning. The coach I play for now is always talking about winning, saying things such as 'What are you doing to help us get better and win. Winners win, losers lose,' and stuff like that." (NNU Player 1, 2003).

Player 1 continues with:

> "I really do, I know that even above the Athletic Director our president played here and has records, he really wants to see our basketball team be successful. The way he has gotten the program up to full-scholarships almost faster than expected, the way he has gone out and recruited boosters and stuff like that. I really think there is a big emphasis placed on winning" (NNU Player 1, 2003).

Both players at UCW agree that the structure or tradition within student-sport does not cause pressure to win. Alternatively, the players at NNU give accounts of pressure to win. The captain discusses a 'tradition' of winning at NNU, while Player 1 feels that his coach along with the President of the university places pressure on athletes at NNU to be winners.

Continuing with the findings relating to *'winning'*, players from both respective institutions were asked if they thought their coach placed pressure on them to win. UCW players responded with:

Player 2:

> "I think Mick did place a lot of it on the department as well over the course of the season, it wasn't totally winning, it was how you are going to better yourself as well." (UCW Player 2, 2003).

Player 1:

> "Yes there is expectation. There was expectation last year. I think we tried but we just failed miserably. It is not bad thing having coaches give you expectations because it gives you something to aim for as long as they're not unreachable goals. It is good to have an emphasis placed by the coach but nothing immense." (UCW Player 1, 2003).

NNU players believed:

Captain:

> "Yes he does. I think he places a very large emphasis on winning. I think that affects not only me, but the teammates as well. If we are not going to win, then we are going to have the wrath of coach. Yes, he places a big emphasis on it, by driving us really hard in practice and workouts" (NNU Captain, 2003).

Player 1:

> "Our coach definitely places an emphasis on winning. That is one of the biggest things. Just the other day, I can tell you he has had 21 seasons and he has won all but 4 of those seasons. He made sure we knew that and it is a lot more enjoyable and probably a lot less stressful when we are winning. His first year back we won 5 games, he has pressure from the president and athletic director to get this program winning now! He takes the pressure from them and puts it on us." (NNU Player 1, 2003).

An underlying theme from the athletes' findings was that there was an expectation on 'winning' from their coaches at both institutions. Players from UCW mentioned 'expectations' by their coach and felt that it has been a positive pressure because the expectations were not too high, while players from NNU viewed the pressures from their coach as negative in mentioning the 'stress' that comes with losing as a player on his team.

Athletes at UCW were asked, *'If you were given a' full-ride' scholarship that paid for all of your expenses as a student at UCW, would this place an added emphasis on your perceptions of winning?* The Captain at UCW answered:

> "To me, yes it would. With all that money I would feel pressure to perform definitely. If I weren't playing well I would feel I was letting down the school, letting down whoever had chosen to give me all that money. That would definitely put pressure on me to perform" (UCW Captain, 2003).

The concept of the 'full-ride' scholarship and the effect it has towards intercollegiate athletics at NNU was discussed as well, the Captain of the team expressed a clear view on this:

> "I think overall it is very, very big. I think there is a hidden line right there with the scholarship. In a way, they want you to know you are getting money, so you better do this. When I say something, you better jump to it. Not necessarily a threat, but a hidden threat there. You are on scholarship, you better do as I say" (NNU Captain, 2003).

The UCW Captain thought the 'full-ride' scholarship would place an immediate pressure on performance as a result of the financial package provided by the institution to play sport. By way of comparison, the NNU captain confirmed what thoughts the UCW captain had towards the pressures faced with receiving a 'full-ride' scholarship by mentioning the authority the coach and institution has over the players, 'you are on scholarship, you better do as I say'. The 'full-ride' scholarship and its significant impact it on the NCAA system are discussed in the following chapter.

**Interviews: Section C – Environment**

Administrators:

The Director of Sport at UCW responded to the question, *'Do you think sport students first decision in coming here is primarily academic?'*

Director of Sport:

> "That's very hard, they come here because of the reputation of the department, which is to do with the learning and teaching they have received, the facilities, the student teams, it's a whole range of reasons. Students don't come for one particular reason they come for a generic reason" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

The same question was posed to the Athletic Director at NNU, who responded:

> "The ideal experience first of all would be to have success in their sport. To have team success and to have individual success. Support from our booster group I think increases the experience, the travel, getting to see parts of the country, and obviously getting a great education" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

The UCW Director of Sport could not identify just one particular influence for sport students but commented that students 'come for generic reasons'. In comparison with NNU, the Athletic Director's first thought on the ideal experience of his student athletes was associated with 'success in their sport'. These responses underline the contrasting ethos present at both institutions, a feature that is discussed in the next chapter.

In a response to the question, *'What percentages of athletes at UCW are competing to win as opposed to participation?'* as an indicator of the type of environments existing within student-sport at UCW, the Director of Student Sport was inclined to 'participation':

> "From my opinion, I would say more participation. Maybe 65% of athletes are here to participate as opposed to 35% to win. That's because the number of athletes that are involved in student sport compared with the number competing at a very high level. There is no comparison really. There are only a handful competing at the toughest level and the rest of them are participating" (UCW Director of Student Sport, 2003).

In a related question the Athletic Director at NNU was asked, 'Do you think success is measured by the number of student-athletes taking part in sport or by the number of wins by the sport teams in the athletic department?' His response was:

> "I think right now success in men's basketball is wins, this could be said for women's basketball as well. The institutional outlook right now is the number of kids participating in track right now is success as opposed to how they do, this is strictly because of income generation towards the university through increased enrolment. Ultimately though, men's basketball portrays the image of the athletic department and they are judged on wins. There is an old saying that went when I taught at the high school level, it went, 'The school year went as the football team, if the football team started well, then we would have a great school year. If the football team had a lousy year, then the school year would be rather lousy. The attitudes on this campus are based on men's basketball" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

Thus, the Director of Student-Sport highlights 'participation' as the significant 'environment' that is present within UCW sport. However, the environment observed by the Athletic Director from NNU, focuses "ultimately though on men's basketball, which portrays the image of the athletic department and they are judged on wins." These viewpoints support the core principles of both BUSA and the NCAA systems under which these institutions manage sport.

Coaches:

To the question, *'Do you feel that student sport places an emphasis on winning or participation among athletes?'* the UCW coach replied:

> "Student sport in general, I'd say about fifteen sports played on campus and about three or four of the sports go out with a determined approach to be winners the other ten or eleven are happy just to play, have a beer and whatever and that is reflected in the number that attend training regularly and the number that actually do the individual programmes and a lot of emphasis is on the individuals doing things themselves, so I'd say four out of fifteen is not a very high ratio" (UCW Coach, 2003).

The NNU coach believes:

> "I would add that the department places a balanced importance. We don't make any bones about it, we want to win, it is not intramurals, it is intercollegiate sport. We need to try and do our best to win and don't need to apologise for it." (NNU Coach, 2003).

The coach from UCW is consistent with the philosophy of student-sport at UCW by commenting on the ratio for teams competing to win opposed to participating, he believes the ratio was, 'four (winning) out of fifteen teams which is not a very high ratio'. His summary of most athletes' mentality at UCW is that they *'are happy to play and have a beer'*. Adding further insight to the same question, the findings from the NNU coach shows him saying, "we need to try and do our best to win and don't need to apologise for it." On the question, *'Do you feel that University sport is financially driven, if so how has this affected your team?'* the UCW coach believed that:

> "It's not financially driven across the board really. Most universities, the players have to pay to play, they have to pay the referees and that is where we are at" (UCW Coach, 2003).

The NNU basketball coach argued:

> "In our particular sport, we are one of the sports known as a revenue sport. Our university counts on the revenue we generate to aid the university with its progress. It helps when we are successful from a standpoint that it puts more money into the University for other Things. This institution supports the idea that athletics is an important part of the integral process of education. To be competitive at the NCAA Division II level, you are financially driven to have an equal playing field. You need money to get the players, and you need the players to win. So, if you don't have the money, you don't get the players and you don't win. Scholarships to get the players have always been the most important thing" (NNU Coach, 2003).

According to the comments of the UCW coach, players pay to play for sport, in order to have things such as game officials, whereas at NNU the basketball team is counted on for revenue towards the university's annual budget. These responses reflect the different 'attitudes' of both respective institutions on sport.

Athletes:

The captain of the basketball team at UCW was asked what the ideal experience he was looking for as a student-athlete; his response was:

> "The most important goal this year is to win everything. Playing and underachieving at University, that's been getting on my nerves over the last two years. Underachieved in my first year, underachieved in my second year, that's the most important goal, to be the winning team" (UCW Captain, 2003).

The players from the NNU Basketball Team were asked the same question, the captain responded with:

> "I definitely want to win. I want to win but I don't think it is the only important thing. Obviously the ultimate goal is that you want to win. Yes, winning is probably the main goal, but I don't think it is everything" (NNU Captain, 2003).

Player 1 answered:

> "First of all, I look for the socialising aspect of hanging out with the guys. I am always looking for success, like winning games. I guess winning is all you really look for during the game. Personal experience, I probably still play because of the scholarship money. For the group as a whole, I think that most basketball players whether they like it or not are making progress towards their degree. I know that is not some of their first priorities. The success of the basketball team is first in most of the guys on the team. Majority of the guys want to play and have a successful team. That is why they are still playing basketball that is why they are putting up with school" (NNU Player 1, 2003).

These responses showed that players from both institutions all value 'winning' in their ideal experience at their institutions. Although, Player 1 from NNU commented on his personal experience, and how he will, *'probably still play because of the scholarship money.'* Both players mentioned that *'winning'* was important but didn't feel that was the only thing they were looking for in their experience.

## Section D: Attitudes

<u>Administrators:</u>

In regards to attitudes, the first question to the Director of Sport at UCW and Athletic Director at NNU was, 'Where would you rate the importance of winning and academics towards your development of student sport?' The UCW Director responded:

> "Winning for me personally, I would rank very high. I think it is very important. The importance of academics to a sports student is no different that it is for any other student. Academic study is why they come to university" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

whilst the NNU Athletic Director answered:

> "I think the men's basketball we would really like to get it to a high level of winning. That is probably our top priority. I would say right now my goal this year was getting some good coaches in place. The next goal is to start working on funding, hopefully some winning is going to come from that. Our expectations are for all of our coaches to have winning seasons" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

The UCW Director of Sport relates 'winning' to his personal values because of his responsibilities that relate only to 'academics', but concludes that 'academics' are his top

priority concerning development at UCW. In contrast, the NNU Athletic Director's first priority centres around the success of the basketball team, followed by hiring quality coaches and improving the funding allocated for athletics in the department.

In trying to define what UCW measures as success with the student-sport system, the Director of Sport at UCW was asked, *'Does the university measure success by the amount of student athletes taking part in sport or by the amount of wins?'* He remarked that:

> "The university might measure success in the number of students participating. Sport becomes more powerful in this university the more students are playing they have a stronger voice so in a university with 8,000 or 9,000 students, if there is only 200 students playing sport the powers that bee see that as a minority, so why should we spend 25,000 pounds on a new swimming pool? But if you have a higher percentage of students participating, then the stronger the voice is for sport at the university" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

The Associate Athletic Director at NNU replied with:

> "I think success is rated on what that individual is like when they leave this place. The individual not the athlete. Are they a better person for having been here, that means a better person socially as well."? (NNU Associate Athletic Director, 2003).

In UCW's case, the institution recognises success by the amount of participation of students in sport, which in turn provides greater leverage for grants and funding for new sport facilities. In comparison, success is rated on the 'individual' and not the 'athletic' experience according to the Associate Athletic Director at NNU.

To the question of, *'What is success for you as an administrator with regard to the student athletes involved in your system?'* the Director of Sport at UCW indicated:

> "Success for me is the students graduating with their degree, because that's my job. Success is seeing a fully rounded individual who is capable of getting a decent degree and having 3 great years playing on the university team and maturing and learning as a result of that. Success for me is defined by the academic success of the student" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

The NNU Athletic Director responded:

> "Everybody wants to win, so developing the intangible things towards our athlete's outlook on life is ultimately important. I am also looking at improving programs and facilities to enhance the experience for our athletes as well." (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

Both administrators relate their success as administrators to the '*whole*' development of the student-athletes. The UCW Director of Sport (2003) concludes that, "success for me is defined by the academic success of the student." Concluding on what the NNU administrator values as success for his position, clearly it is the improvement of the programmes and facilities for the athletes at NNU.

Coaches:

Coaches from both institutions were asked, '*Where would you rank the importance of winning and academics among your goals as a coach?*' the UCW basketball coach intimated:

> "Because of the structure we got, for the two hours of the week I have spent with the team, I want to do everything I can in preparation to win, but as a full-time lecturer I want to make sure these players leave with a good degree. I would say that the academic background is more important. If they all start failing exams, I would have to look at my job as a basketball coach and wonder if I am spending too much time towards basketball and not enough towards my full-time position as a lecturer" (UCW Basketball Coach, 2003).

The coach from NNU added: *"My goals would be the same. I would want my athletes to win and be the best students they can."* (NNU Coach, 2003). Both coaches valued academics as important, however, the interview responses reveal that the UCW coach's main responsibilities are as a lecturer; he ranked academics higher than winning. In comparison, the NNU coach valued both at the same level of importance.

The coaches from both institutions were asked, *"Does the amount of time spent by your athletes towards basketball have a direct effect towards the importance of winning?"*

UCW coach believed:

> "We don't train enough, we don't take it seriously enough and yet the frustrating thing is, the guys within the club really want to win when they are there. We might have a training session on a Thursday evening and they all have been out for a heavy drinking session on a Wednesday and they are not mentally prepared for it." (UCW Coach, 2003).

The NNU coach responded with:

> "The NCAA limits the amount of time we can coach the athletes. It is 8 hours a week on floor in the pre-season, but we expect them to shoot outside of practice and do some stuff on their own. We are trying to find people who love the game. I think you need to have balance in your lives. We are trying to force our players to be consistent in basketball and in life" (NNU Coach, 2003).

An 'amateur' approach is observed by the coach from UCW on his players and he further adds that a lack of training sessions supports this attitude. In contrast, the NCAA limits the amount of training time on athletes because of the *'win at all cost'* approach taken by coaches within the system. The coach from NNU (2003) underlines this by saying, "the NCAA limits the amount of time we can coach our athletes."

Athletes:

The Captain of UCW and NNU were asked where their inner drive came from. Their respective responses were:

> "When you start playing sports and doing anything competitive when you're little then straight away you find out if you're losing it's not much fun but if you're winning it's more fun. I don't think anyone taught me that, it's just a natural observation. I've played sport in this country, the attitude in England is more about participation, playing hard and stuff like that, it's not about winning. You know go out there, give it a good effort, don't cheat, play fair, participation that sort of thing and then if you win, you know everyone wants to win but there's no winning at all costs" (UCW Captain, 2003).

> "My inner drive is three parts, I have a lot of fun doing it, I figured out when I was 15 years or so I can go places, I got a lot of my college paid for to play sports and I enjoy the notoriety that comes with being a basketball player at NNU." (NNU Player 1, September 2003).

The responses reveal that 'winning' and 'losing' were learned when first playing sports according to the UCW Captain. He adds further that, "losing is not much fun but if you're winning it's more fun." However, inner drive is seen in a range of responses such as; "having fun", "getting college paid for" and "enjoying the notoriety that comes with basketball" according to the NNU Player 1.

The players from UCW and NNU were asked, *'What would you deem the most important: participation, winning, or socialising?* Player 1 at UCW responded: "I'm going to say winning, participation and then socialising because winning and participation would be very close but I don't like to lose" (UCW Player 1, 2003). This is a view that was shared by the Captain at UCW:

> "Winning by far, winning is the most important thing this year by a long way. Participation, I would put that second and socialising third, it's good to socialise but if we play this year and have a great social time and don't win I think a lot of people will be disappointed" (UCW Captain, 2003).

In comparison, the NNU Captain believed:

> "Participation would be the most important. I would almost put socialising first, more on a hanging out level, but more on a growth a person has as they learn to interact with other people. They go hand in hand, but if I had to rank them, participating, social then winning." (NNU Captain, 2003).

By way of contrast to the Captain's response, Player 1 observed:

> "When we are talking about the basketball team, I would say winning a clear number one. Participation a clear number two and socialising third." (NNU Player 1, 2003).

The responses from UCW are consistent in that both players felt winning ranked first, followed by participation and socialisation. The NNU players provided different reactions towards the question with; participation, socialisation then winning answered (the Captain), as opposed to winning, participation and socialising from (Player 1).

A final question to the players from UCW and NNU was, *'What is success for you as an athlete?* UCW players produced similar responses:

"Success for me is winning but winning competitively. If I got beat every week I'd die, I'd hate it. I love competition. I think that's what most players want" (UCW Player 2, 2003).

"Winning. Winning is success. Anything else I couldn't really consider success" (UCW Captain, 2003).

"Inevitably it's to win something, to win the league, to win the trophy. But as an individual knowing that you've given all you could, you've done the best you could and then at the end of it you come out with a degree as well, that's going to be a big factor" (UCW Player 1, 2003).

At NNU Player 1 remarked: "Some kind of complex formula between having fun and winning. I guess just enjoying myself." (NNU Player 1, 2003). The Captain from NNU added:

"Again, I don't think it is necessarily winning, but that is the measurable part. I just think the experience as a whole, just making it through, sticking with things, toughing it out, the physical and mental parts of it, getting through school, getting that degree when it is all said and done." (NNU Captain, 2003).

The interview comments from athletes at both UCW and NNU suggest that winning is the underlying factor in determining success. All three players from UCW advocate strong feelings for winning experiences whilst the captain at NNU (2003) refer to winning as not necessarily the ultimate factor, but the "measurable" part in determining success of their athletic careers. Player 1 comments that there must be a balance between winning and having fun.

**Section V: Summary**

This chapter has presented relevant issues derived from an analysis of primary documentary sources and findings from the questionnaire and interview schedules. Collectively, findings administered in both HE institutions provide an indication of realities of ideals and practices in sport provision at UCW, in which an 'amateur' approach was a persistent theme throughout, and the NNU findings, which exemplified a 'commercial' approach in all aspects of operation. The primary documentary analyses revealed that the structure of student sport at UCW was governed by elected students and that budgets allocated for sport clubs within the institution are relatively low and

unaffected by commercial influences. Key findings that emerged within recent developments at UCW include the introduction of the 'professional' model implemented in 2002 and the growth of the programme within the last few years. The documentary analysis carried out at NNU highlighted through the structure that a 'professional' approach was administered to, through the full-time staff employed for administration and coaching, and the high-scale budgets that influence the overall ethos of the department adhering to 'commercial' pressures.

Participating athletes in both the questionnaire and interview findings revealed trends that supported the BUSA/UCW 'amateur' approach and the NCAA/NNU 'commercial' approach. The key findings are discussed further in the following chapter; however, the investigation of perceptions and attitudes of participating athletes from the case study institutions does reveal features, which represent a degree of 'qualification' on the nature and extent of the amateur – winning (commercialised) ethos continuum. These key features are discussed in the following chapter acknowledgement that a more balanced view of the importance of winning within these institutions does exist. Together, these perspectives highlighted within this chapter provide insight into the value attached to the importance of winning within the study and form the basis of discussion in the next chapter.

# Chapter 6: Discussion

The main purpose of this chapter is to discuss the research findings presented in Chapter 5 with reference to the overall purpose of the study, (i.e. the importance of winning within university sport in England and the United States), focusing in particular on the participants at UCW and NNU and the specific aims indicated at the outset of the study: conceptualise the importance of 'winning'; identify key contributions within the historical and socio-cultural sport values of participating countries (England/United States); examine the organisational structure and relevant policy of the national organisations (BUSA/NCAA);compare perceptions and attitudes of case study participants from the local institutions (UCW/NNU); and compare the importance of winning in the study from the three levels of analysis (country, national organisation, local institution). The discussion sets the findings in the context of the literature reviewed in Chapters 2-3, which addressed the respective sporting socio-historical backgrounds of England and the USA, the structures of BUSA and the NCAA and the UCW and NNU related institutional settings in order to address issues and attempt to provide explanations for actual and perceived differences and similarities on the importance of 'winning' at UCW and NNU. Each section from both the questionnaire survey and interview scripts (Social Factors, Infrastructure, Environment, and Attitudes) are considered in turn and the criteria for comparison are discussed on the three levels of analysis carried out in this study: country, national organisation, local institution.

**Section A: Social Factors**

As indicated in Chapter 2, Malcolmson (1984) proposed a contextual socio-historical approach to understanding the development of sport in which there was recognition of wider societal conditioning influences on the practice and character of sporting activities. This approach was utilised in the analysis of the influence of 'Social Factors' on the level of importance attached to 'winning' in the two university institutions within this study.

In relation to social values held in sport in England and the USA, both senior administrators respectively acknowledged the importance of societal impact on individual sport values. The UCW Director of Sport (2003) highlighted "fair play" and "equity" as valued societal factors within sport in England. In reviewing the development of the 'amateur' ethic in the 18th and 19th centuries, Wigglesworth (1996) noted that amateurism

was encapsulated within the concept of 'Muscular Christianity' associated with private boarding school sporting experiences. Muscular Christianity encouraged the belief that the nobility of action lay in the purity of motive as the UCW Director of Sport put it. Mangan (1981) argued the cases for 'fair play' and 'equity' in sport through what he termed 'ideology of athleticism', the main emphasis of which was encompassed by four educational goals in 19[th] century English 'Public Schools' concerning physical and moral courage, loyalty and cooperation, the capacity to act fairly and accept defeat graciously and the ability to command and obey.

Mangan (1981) indicated the importance of 'fair play' by highlighting the importance of educational goals through the 'ideology of athleticism', while Wigglesworth (1996) brought attention to 'muscular Christianity' and the nobility of action lying in the purity of motive in Public Schools in the late 18[th] and 19[th] centuries. According to the UCW Director of Sport (2003), the concepts of 'muscular Christianity' and the 'ideology of athleticism' continue to influence the ethos in the university sport structure today and are seen in his observations on university sport in England continuing to portray attitudes such as participation and playing the game within concepts of 'fair play'.

The social factor referred to by the UCW Director of Sport (2003) related to the nature of participation and its origins, which can be linked to the formation of the University Athletic Union or 'Union' in 1930 and, which eventually evolved into the current regulatory body, BUSA in 1994. The objectives of the 'Union' during the 1930-1994 period were centred on providing a wide range of sports and championships for students with an emphasis placed on participative engagement (Kerslake, 1969; BUSA, 2002a). Evidently, the 'Union' inherited the conceptual legacy 'Muscular Christianity' and 'ideology of athleticism' established earlier (in the 19[th] century) English private boarding schools. Clearly, as demonstrated by the UCW Director of Sport (2003), these characteristics remain evident amongst English students today. Questionnaire survey findings indicated that 'participation' is a more important feature for English students; (figure 5.6) showed that 20% of UCW athletes considered social interest more important than playing sport compared with 8% of NNU athletes (figure 5.7). The higher emphasis on social interest by UCW athletes is consistent with the BUSA (2002a; 2006a) position and the situation expressed by Wigglesworth (1996) and Mangan (1981) on 'participation'.

However, a review in 2006 of recent BUSA/UCW documents revealed a number of developments that have occurred at the national organisation and local institution levels. The review of the '*Constitution of Worcester's Student Union*' and '*Club and Society Handbook*' revealed that a scholarship scheme was implemented in the basketball programme in 2002 that has since evolved into a professional approach that could affect on the questionnaire findings. The 'professional' model implemented within the basketball programme in 2002 included both an international scholarship and a professional coaching structure. Since 2002, the programme has evolved and now includes four international scholarships, multiple bursaries and a dedicated full-time coaching position within the institution (Donovan, 2006). As the 'professional' approach was implemented around the time of empirical data a collection in 2002-2003, there may well be an influence by the factors influencing athletes' perceptions and attitudes.

Significant factors that may have been affected by the 'professional' approach implemented by the basketball club were highlighted in the intra-group comparisons in Chapter 5. Some of the findings included in tables 5.1 and 5.2 related to: win and play badly or lose and play well; coach's values on winning; coach's knowledge; quality of training sessions and quality of coaching skills. The basketball participants scored consistently higher (refer table 5.1) than both the football and rugby participants, with significant differences occurring between basketball and football players. The club ethos of the basketball and football programmes, stand in sharp contrast with the basketball programme adhering to a 'professional' approach, whereas the football programme is aligned with the 'amateur' student experience that is prevalent throughout most clubs within the student sport at UCW. Additional evidence supporting this view also emerged within table 5.1 in relation to the influence of personal values on winning and the importance of a social experience: the football participants scored consistently higher than the basketball participants. These scores may well be influenced by the football programme not offering scholarships and the profile of the coach, a fellow student and team player. As BUSA and the associated Athletic Union's underlying strategy is to provide opportunities for participating athletes on all levels, the findings that resulted from the intra-comparisons of the participating teams at UCW highlighted emerging trends that are not aligned with the 'amateur' approach that has been persistent throughout student-sport in England.

The NNU Athletic Director (2003) commented on societal factors in the USA and their influence on sport in the country when he focused on the relationship between society and the NCAA. He recognised that the relationship is one that is "intermixed." This 'intermixed relationship' between society and university sport in the USA has existed since the inception of sport development in the country and certainly from the time 'ethics' began to play a role. The starting point of the relationship was recognised by Radar (1996) and Riess (1997), who identified the forces fostering this relationship: urbanisation, industrialisation, immigration, and increased prosperity. However, the ethnically mixed immigrant American population was socially and culturally more diverse, and had less commitment to 'traditional' discipline than English society, especially in the conceptual practice of 'muscular Christianity'. These forces of change led to the development of interest and involvement of American society in sport on university campuses (Radar 1996). The NNU's Athletic Director's (2003) allusion to "…the NCAA on ethics in sport" has additional resonance here. The formation of the NCAA itself can be linked to developments in society and in university sport in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Nixon (1984) notes that the beginning of the 20th century saw the patterns of 'participant' characteristics towards student control and management of university sport that characterised university sports in the second half of the 19th century shift towards external regulation and institutionalisation. Intercollegiate athletics was on its way to becoming highly organised, commercialised and in the control of professional administrators.

The NCAA was established to serve as a form of social control agency, which was highlighted in its mission statement, "…to govern competition in a fair, safe, equitable and sportsmanlike manner" (NCAA, 2002a; NCAA, 2006a). From the beginning, the NCAA was established to control 'ethical' standards (Hawes, 1999), and continues to serve this function. From the questionnaire findings (see figure 5.7), 92% of NNU athletes showed a preference for playing as their primary motive as opposed to 8% for social interest. This high percentage reflects the relationship between society and university sport in the USA, and the significant importance within the NCAA amongst its athletes playing competitively to win as their primary reason as opposed to playing for social interest or mere participation within the team.

The UCW Director of Sport (2003) attributed the major influence on his attitude to winning from the "…private boarding school" he attended. Much of the 'participation' values had been attributed to 'muscular Christianity' and the ethics of 'fair play' to these private boarding schools in the 19th and 20th centuries. It should be acknowledged here that these boarding schools also instilled values of 'winning' during this period, as the Director of Sport intimated in his interview comments. The emphasis on 'winning' values gained importance in post World War II England, when increasing emphasis on winning over participation was seen in many examples of national and international sporting contests (Holt, 1989). It may also reflect the nature and values of the individual as the Director of Sport noted in his comments, "…I think a lot of it comes down to personality of the individual, I like to win at darts even if it's a family friendly game" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003) Although personal social values had a major effect on the administration and athletes in both countries, Figler and Whitaker's (1995) definition of social values highlighted the importance placed on winning through the social values learned by the UCW Director of Sport in his formative years. This was confirmed in interview comments that this 'winning' mentality was nurtured in relationships, with the influence of significant others such as parents: "…The major influence for me in the early days was my parents. My father was a competitive cyclist and he ensured that I went to a school where sport was valued highly" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003). Although societal effects may have influenced 'participation' in England, the Director of Sport values the relationship with his father in his formative years and the importance he placed on competitive sport. While societal values in England perhaps favour attitudes such as 'participation' in sport, there are examples of individuals such as the Director of Sport that propose that 'winning' values are evident in university sport in England and the participating athletes regarding 'winning' (64%) as 'very important' in figure 5.42.

The NNU Athletic Director echoed views on determinants on values and winning in acknowledging that his father was "the number one influence" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003). Such perceptions are consistent with Malcolmson's (1984) recognition that values may be influenced by wider societal conditioning influences (for example family, and friends) on the character or outcome of sporting activities. The NNU Athletic Director regards his coaches as the "…next layer of fathers" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003), an opinion that perhaps epitomises the significant influence that coaches in the American system have on their athletes and the values they form with regard to 'winning'. Riess (1997) alludes to a 'fierce competition' that exists at all levels of intercollegiate sport and

American society that is a result of merit over heredity. Arguably 'fierce' competitive attitudes drive coaches under the intercollegiate system to impose similar values on their players for success. The questionnaire findings on coaches' values and winning (refer figures 5.10 and 5.11) showed that a greater proportion of NNU students (46%) than UCW students (24%) believed their coach was a major influence on their attitudes on winning, and hence, provide some evidence of the extent of U.S. coaches' influence on the 'winning' values of their players.

The UCW coach provided further insight on the affect of attitudes on English sport and alluded to a 'amateur' approach in his comments that, "…we like winning but we don't work hard enough. I don't think we are a country of winners" (UCW Coach, 2003). The relative amount and level of preparation and practice that goes into 'winning' within university sport in England may suggest that whilst winning is important, it does not supersede all other values. The extent to which athletes in both systems are willing to make sacrifice to achieve success form part of the discussion in the 'Infrastructure' and 'Attitude' sections of this chapter.

The emphasis placed on 'winning' for coaches involved in the NCAA are summarised by Eitzen's (2001) analysis of the competitive ethos created in American society on the 'prize'. With the 'prize' being a central goal in American society, a competitive attitude towards consumption has developed as exemplified by the NNU coach's reference to 'March Madness' in the context of the amount of financial profit that can be gained through intercollegiate athletics by saying,

> "…when you have a basketball tournament (March Madness) produce 1 billion dollars over a month in our country that is a significant business. Obviously you have some problems when that kind of money gets involved" (NNU Coach, 2003).

Personal values of the coach at UCW were centred on the commitment to 'winning' and the priority in which athletes place 'winning' along with academic studies, and social interest in their lives. Attention was drawn to the commitment to academic studies,

> "…in terms of student life here a lot of their (athletes) priority is not on being an athlete, it's on being a student and when we get them on court we have to spend a lot of time on the court with them trying to motivate them to get this culture of wanting to win" (UCW Coach, 2003).

From this observation, there is an inference that the UCW coach has acknowledged that 'participation' rather 'winning' is a higher value held by students. Jones (1984) provides evidence on 'participation' values as a central component in BUSA and emphasises that the fundamental goal according to each circumstance should be to attempt to offer the best possible service for students. BUSA's philosophy of maximum student participation (BUSA, 2002a; UCW, 2002a; UCW, 2002b; UCW, 2006a; UCW, 2006b) suggests 'participation' attitudes continue to affect athletes competing within the system. As a result, conflict arises as implied by the UCW coaches' reference to students' priorities and the insubstantial consequences for coaches who are attempting to impose 'winning' values for success in their sport.

The NNU coach's personal values had a direct affect on his coaching values. His comments inferred that sports are considered shallow if they are all about winning games and being competitive on the floor. For him, "…the key is that athletes believe in a philosophy, execute the philosophy then they will be successful at it" (NNU Coach, 2003). However, the interview comments by the players at NNU provided a different perspective on the coach's view of sport and the importance solely placed on 'winning'. The captain of the basketball team responded with, "I think he places a very large emphasis on winning. If we are not going to win, then we are going to have the wrath of coach" (NNU Captain, 2003). Player 1 echoed his team mate and commented,

> "Our coach definitely places an emphasis on winning. It is a lot more enjoyable and probably a lot less stressful when we are winning. He has pressure from the president and the athletic director to get this program winning now!" (NNU Player 1, 2003)

The athletes' perceptions on the coach's 'philosophy' as the key to athletes' experience suggest that his philosophy alluded to earlier in his interview comments on student-athletes experiences are centred on winning within the structure of his basketball programme. The influence of the coach on attitudes towards winning differs between the UCW and NNU athletes. Figure 5.10 shows that the coach had a "major influence" on only 24% of UCW athletes against 46% of NNU athletes (see figure 5.11). This difference may perhaps suggest that the coach's values in the U.S. system are more deeply embedded in what are the perceptions of NNU athletes and the supporting literature, which both differ from the expressed personal values of the NNU basketball coach.

The athletes provided some insight into the affect social values have within English and American societies. By way of illustration, the UCW Captain agreed with the UCW Director of Sport in that 'participation' is a major feature dominating university sport in England. There may be a link here with the "lack of consequences of losing" (UCW Captain, 2003) that is, participation is rated as a higher value than winning. Notably this attitude which has aspirations with the 'purity of motive' engagement discourse, was highlighted in the Department of National Heritage (DNH) (1995) Policy Document with its references to creation of friendships, playing the rules, accepting the outcome with 'good grace' and teaching how to live with others as a part of a team.

The DNH references serve to demonstrate the significance of 'traditional' values embedded in 'muscular Christianity' and ideology of athleticism for present day government policy, in which the maintenance of traditional values in sport embracing the 'Englishness' of participation for its own sake has an essential presence. If such a traditional value is embedded in the English psyche, it is unsurprising that the UCW basketball team captain attributed major importance to participation, especially when there is lack of consequence in losing. The UCW basketball team captain's view stands in sharp contrast with that of the NNU basketball team captain, whose perception of America is: "I think America is number 1 in the eyes of the world", which means, "being number 1 in everything, bigger than life, so I think it does have a big impact" (NNU Captain, 2003) In part this accords with the views of Riess (1997) on the dominant ideology present in American society during the 19$^{th}$ century, which highlights key values such as freedom, and equality of opportunity. The consequence was that Americans abandoned the English concept of a fixed status system based upon birth, wealth and education. Riess (1997) also noted that American society chose a professional model for university sports in order to achieve 'excellence'. To achieve 'excellence', the professional model had to be superior to the English 'amateur' model in the 19$^{th}$ century. Riess' (1997) notion of Americans' selection of the 'professional' model placed an emphasis on commercialising university sport and creating a 'winning' mentality with both the athletes and administrators associated with university sport, which partly underpins the strong views held by the NNU basketball captain.

With regard to the personal values of athletes in both universities, the UCW and NNU Basketball Captains attributed a major influence on the development of their values to their parents: "…my parents had the biggest influence on me I have to say from an early age just saying what's right, what's wrong." (UCW Captain, 2003); "It has definitely been my family, my parents" (NNU Captain, 2003). As Figler and Whitaker (1995) observed, the captains in their formative years were respectively socialised with values that were important to 'fit in' to the family social norms. The findings suggest that the athletes form the base of their personal values from the learned experiences in their early days provided by their family, social values, and the role of school education within each respective country.

On the issue of winning and coaches' attitudes, the UCW athletes emphasised that their coach perhaps favoured a 'winning' attitude by establishing expectations, but there is a guarded aspect to the comments:*" it is good to have an emphasis placed by the coach but nothing immense." (UCW Player 1, 2003). The suggestion is that a 'winning' attitude is appropriate only if there is a balance to it and that it is not a 'winning at all cost' mentality that has been portrayed in the American system. In reviewing the comments made by the athletes from UCW, some emphasis was placed by their coach on winning, but the extent of the impact on athletes' attitudes to winning may well be less significant than counterparts at NNU because of other contributory factors. For example within the BUSA system, a majority of coaches are athletes themselves, and coaches who volunteer are trying to enforce 'winning' values in a system that fosters 'participation'(UCW, 2003). Furthermore, the amount of training that the AU at UCW allows for its athletes, may have a considerable limiting affect that the coaches have on their athletes' values in regards to 'winning'. On average all UCW teams are allotted one training session per/week lasting two hours (UCW, 2003). At UCW there is minimal time to impose values on their athletes with only, on average, one training session per week. Hence, even if UCW coaches want to inculcate their players with 'winning' values, the inherent system with regards to the amount of training time does not allow for deep-seated 'winning' values to be developed.

In comparison, at NNU on average athletes competing under NCAA regulations at NNU can train a maximum of 20 hours per/week (Sanders, 2003; Sanders, 2006). With extensive hours provided for coaching through the NCAA structure, in addition to full-

time employment positions of coaches, a 'winning' ethos permeates as a result. Players at NNU experienced a pressure to win from their coach, as Player 1 at NNU comments,

> "Our coach definitely places an emphasis on winning. That is one of the biggest things. Just the other day I can tell you he has had 21 seasons and he has won all but 4 of those seasons. He made sure we knew that and it is a lot more enjoyable and probably a lot less stressful when we are winning." (NNU Player 1, 2003).

The views expressed by UCW and NNU administrators, coaches and athletes on social and personal values within university sport in England and the USA suggest that there is a contrast between the two systems. Figure 5.8 shows that a minority (38%) of UCW athletes felt there was a "major influence" on personal values towards winning, whereas a majority (64%) of NNU athletes (see figure 5.9) believed their personal values were influenced by wider societal influences such as these highlighted by Malcomson (1984): society, family, administrative, and coach's values.

The differences in social values formed a starting point for the contrasting ethos existing in the respective institutions. Societal values in England and the USA influence the personal values of athletes, administrators and coaches. The empirical data gathered in this study on the social affects of the participants in both institutions inevitably provide a snapshot representation of the situation in the wider context in both countries. However, for UCW participants, the data supported by the literature, provide evidence for suggesting that factors such as tradition, equality of opportunity for access in sport, participation and sport are key social agents, whereas for NNU subjects factors include winning values, freedom and equality, and ethical issues in sport.

**Section B: Infrastructure**

In Section B, discussion relates to infrastructures and the related impacts on the importance of 'winning' in both of the institutions selected for investigation. Both senior administrators acknowledged the significant influential impact respectively of BUSA and the NCAA. The Director of Sport (2003) at UCW commented that: "…In some ways BUSA has considerable influence in that it decides what competitions it will run. So the league structure is decided by BUSA" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003). However, whilst the UCW Director of Sport acknowledged the overall influence that BUSA has in regards

to the league structure and competitions, he does recognise the limited organisational and administrative roles of BUSA:

> "…but the organisation and management of those sports is down to the university, so the structure is controlled by BUSA in one sense, but the organisation and administration of BUSA has within this institution, has no influence over that" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

BUSA embraces the largest sporting programme in Europe and to effectively handle this responsibility, BUSA's key organisational strategy lies with the management structure of the Athletic Unions (AU) of each affiliated university. BUSA (2002a) notes that these AU's are governed and managed by the students affiliated with the institutions. Although BUSA members regulate the overall structure of the league competitions and tournaments, the ultimate influence affecting the athletes under BUSA's infrastructure are the students themselves, who hold positions within the AU's of these institutions. The interview response by the Director of Sport at UCW confirms the underlying strategy acknowledged by UCW (2002a; 2002b; 2006a; 2006b) and BUSA (2002a; 2006b) that allows for each separate AU to manage university sport within the BUSA structure.

To some extent the comments from the NNU coach acknowledge that the NCAA also has

> "…a huge influence. They don't leave much to chance. It is all laid out, I have a manual that is probably 2-inches thick on rules and regulations. Every coach has to pass a test in the beginning of August, they have to pass a test on all recruiting rules" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

Comments from the NNU Athletic Director such as, "it has a huge influence" and "they don't leave much to chance," suggest that the NCAA has considerable influence on all aspects of the athletes competing within the system. There are roughly 320,820 athletes competing in the NCAA system, but there are 350 paid professionals that are based at the national headquarters in Indianapolis (NCAA, 2002a; NCAA, 2006a). This NCAA/NNU situation stands in stark contrast to that of the BUSA/UCW situation of minimal numbers of employees responsible for 1.2 million athletes and essentially relying on support of institutional student members for operational management. Evidence of NCAA regulatory and administrative control over affiliated universities is seen in its handbooks for all three divisions (NCAA, 2002a; NCAA, 2006a). The content of these "two-inches thick" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003) handbooks are voted on through annual legislation. All senior administrators from each institution such the Athletic Director from NNU are

required to attend the NCAA National Convention once a year where they vote on legislation. In addition, they have to attend rules seminars where they are familiarised with all of the changes occurring for that year (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

The respective administrator's comments suggest some similarity between BUSA and the NCAA in terms of allowing each affiliated university to manage and regulate sport under the structural guidance of the governing bodies. But this is where similarity ends. There is a marked difference between student driven Athletic Unions under BUSA and full time administrators driven management of the Athletic Departments at NCAA affiliated institutions. Notably there are two different structures in place: BUSA relies on a large voluntary cohort of students, whilst the NCAA is run by full time administrators.

The UCW Director of Student Sport lends evidence to the influence that BUSA has on sport at UCW in her expression that BUSA influence has "… not a great deal" (UCW Director of Student Sport, 2003). The comments made by the Director of Student Sport could be attributed to her lack of experience as an administrator in dealing with BUSA. Her interview comments reported in Chapter 5 revealed that her prior experience in administration is limited to study, "… for three years at UCW doing a degree in sport studies jointly with business management so that gave me a good basis to go into the role." (UCW Director of Student Sport, 2003). Her role at UCW is significant in that she is responsible for 25 sport teams at UCW, the budgets, scheduling and all other student sport responsibilities. The position she holds as the Vice President of Student Sport is one that she was elected to by her fellow students. The position is normally held for one year, only before another student is elected (UCW, 2002a; 2006a). With prior experience limited to a three year degree programme in sport studies and business management, it is perhaps unsurprising that she understates the influence of BUSA, but the level of administrator experience supports the BUSA policy of student driven management and service.

By way of contrast the NNU Associate Athletic Director has:

> "…been involved with athletic administration for 24 years. It was my chosen profession and provided me with a great lifestyle. I have coached and won many conference and league championships, I have taught physical education classes at both the high school and university level." (NNU Associate Athletic Director, 2003)

The nature and scope of this experience facilitates a more informed perspective on the level of influence of the national agency, the NCAA, which, "when it comes to rules and regulations, it has a majority of influence" (NNU Associate Athletic Director, 2003), a view that accords with that of the NNU senior administrators on the considerable influence of the NCAA on athletes in the system. The contrasting UCW and NNU administrations provide additional evidence of BUSA as an essentially student driven organisation and the NCAA as a highly professionalised managerial and administrative agency.

In exploring the issue of administrative objectives on a local level, the Director of Sport at UCW was asked what his primary objectives were within his department, he replied: "I suppose the primary objective is to get as many of them (students) playing as possible" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003). The reply lends support to the 'amateur' ethos that has been identified as a major factor affecting the management of BUSA. The Director of Sport also gives support to the varying levels of sport that are offered at UCW under BUSA regulations, with his comment that: "I think it's different in different teams. I think there are differences between the teams in the institution. Some teams are more professional whereas some teams are more social" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003). The Director of Sport acknowledges the complexity and dynamic range of opportunities offered under BUSA in his comments. In UCW (2002b; 2006b), a range of opportunities are provided for students to participate in sport on a social level, play competitive sport at a high standard nationally in the upper divisions of BUSA and internationally for their country, and to take on administrative positions such as club chairperson or secretary. Although 'participation' attitudes are dominant throughout the structure of UCW student sport, many would suggest, as indeed does the Director of Sport at UCW, that there are all ranges of opportunities for athletes ranging from the participation of sport as a social activity to elite level sport. Additional experiences are available in the sports environment or administrative positions such as club chairman and secretary.

Other comments on the management of student sport at UCW are provided by the Director of Student Sport, who acknowledges that "student sport is there for everyone regardless of whether you play for England or whether you've never picked up a cricket bat before you just want to be apart of the team" (UCW Director of Student Sport, 2003).

Her comments lend further support to the Director of Sport regarding BUSA regulations adhering to the 'participation' philosophy, in that sport should be provided for all students who are interested, regardless of experience or skill as an athlete. The consequences of the BUSA policy of student run sport raises the issue of capacity and competence to manage the various levels of responsibility, especially in situations where prior experience is limited to 3-year undergraduate programme in sport and business management studies. In UCW (2002a; 2006a), the structure within the student union allows for a student to obtain the position of Vice President, a position for which responsibilities include the management of student sport at UCW. Under this position as previously noted, the Director of Student Sport is responsible for 25 sport teams and all of the administration duties included in running the teams. It is important to recognise the importance and magnitude of this position. In comparing this position with NNU, similar responsibility may be contrasted with that of the Athletic Director whose involvement in athletic administration covers over 20 years of experience and specific training and qualifications before obtaining the position (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

The local administrative structure at NNU stands in sharp contrast to UCW. The NNU Athletic Director comments that:

> "Athletics are a tool to get kids to school. On the athletics side, we want to challenge people, ultimately we want to be successful. We have made a jump to a higher level of competition, so it is a little tougher to be as successful as we want in terms of wins and losses" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

The Athletic Director's comments draw attention towards success. Unlike UCW, where success was identified by both senior administrators as high levels of 'participation' amongst students in sport, the Athletic Director acknowledges that success is measured by the "wins" and "losses" of the teams competing at NNU. His comments support Riess's (1997) belief that the fierce competition present in American society and a strong belief in merit over heredity led to the rejection by American society of the English Amateur system based upon participation by the social and economic elite English society. The difference between the administrators' comments can be attributed at least partially to the different cultural values such as the one noted by Riess (1997) that have been identified in the 'Social Factors' section of this chapter.

Other comments by the Athletic Director recognised athletics as a tool for students to have the opportunity in obtaining a higher education degree. His reference to athletics as a "tool" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003) to aid students in receiving higher education could be associated with the "full-ride scholarship" scheme that is present within the NCAA system. In NCAA (2002a; 2006a), student-athletes compete for athletic scholarships as a financial aid in allowing them to afford the high cost of American higher education. This allows the NCAA member institutions such as NNU to offer "scholarships" to student-athletes interested in representing their institution. The institution, and more specifically the coach from that institution, has a certain amount of control over student-athletes as long as they are receiving financial aid that the "scholarships" provide (NCAA, 2002c; NCAA, 2006c). Many would argue this concept of an "athletic scholarship" has in turn increased the amount of pressure on coaches to win in their respective sport, as alluded to earlier by the Athletic Director, when he defined success by the amount of wins and losses under his athletic department. Comments from the Athletic Director on equating success with amount of wins by the teams at NNU along with the concept of the athletic "scholarship" that was discussed, could suggest there is pressure among athletes at NNU to win.

Providing additional insight into the primary objectives of the NNU Athletic Department was the Associate Athletic Director, who observed:

> "You can do the social with the academic. Then I think the athletics comes in. That is where I feel personally it should be. I am not sure if that is where it is. That bothers me, because I am not sure where administration is on it" (NNU Associate Athletic Director, 2003).

From the interview comments, the Associate Athletic Director is uncertain about the importance attached by other administrators in terms of rank order of athletics, academic studies and social growth for the student-athletes at NNU. A balanced experience between all three areas where academic studies and social growth are first priority followed by athletic experiences is acknowledged in her comments. However, she raised some concerns when she revealed the uncertainty towards the importance place by her colleagues. Her comments suggest that other administrators at NNU value the selected areas (sport, academic studies, social aspects) differently with the possibility of athletes being exploited and a 'winning' ethos occurring. In the early 19[th] century, Radar (1996) noted that intercollegiate athletics tended to be student-oriented, student run, and fairly

unrestricted in its organisation. The shift from student-run sport to the professionalised model where full-time administrators gained control of intercollegiate athletics heading into the 20<sup>th</sup> Century is where ethical situations became prominent and these areas for concern needed to be addressed, hence the formation of the NCAA in 1910 (Nixon, 1984). From Nixon's (1984) and the interview comments by the NNU Associate Athletic Director, it is possible that the NNU Athletic Department could potentially be exploiting their athletes concerning the importance placed on athletics as opposed to academic studies and social development from senior administrators within the department.

Further evidence highlighting the 'participation' ethos in BUSA was found in the UCW coaches' comments on finance related matters: "within the BUSA organisation people changing roles every year. The university sport in this country with the exception of five or six Ivory Tower University's is still more of a social thing"(UCW Coach, 2003). The UCW coach suggests that the ethos stemming from the structure provided by BUSA is one that reflects 'participation' values. It is a structure that affects all components and members involved in the system. This ethos is mirrored in the financial picture present within the organisation. BUSA's annual income for 2002 primarily came from athletes' subscriptions (BUSA, 2002a:47). Its total budget of income and expenditure in 2002 resulted in an overall surplus of £33,215 ($62,803) (BUSA, 2002a:48), which for a non-profit organisation represents a healthy outcome that is not related to any commercial enterprise. BUSA's freedom from commercial pressures (and unlike the NCAA position) allows the organisation to maintain its underlying goals in allowing participation and social interest to serve as the driving forces in the system. Levels of financial support for UCW athletes as figure 5.12 reveals, are also deemed to be "poor" by 72% of UCW athletes; this is starkly contrasted at NNU, where only 18% of NNU athletes believe support is "poor" (see figure 5.13). UCW athletes' financial situation reflects the lack of a commercially funded system and the general stance taken by BUSA.

The coach from NNU believes strongly in the positive effect the NCAA has on athletes. He remarks that: "…I think it has enhanced millions of young people's lives over the years" (NNU Coach, 2003). In his interview comments, the coach refers to the "athletic scholarship" as the main contributor for the enhancement of the athletes' lives. NCAA (2002a; 2006a) notes that about $1 billion (£580 million) in athletic scholarships are awarded each year. Over 126,000 student-athletes receive either a partial or full athletic

scholarship. Responsibility for athletic scholarship awards lies with the institutions themselves. The athletes are required to meet standards (see NCAA, 2002a; 2006a) before they can be considered for these bursaries.

The full athletic scholarship amounts to U.S. $24,180 (£12,538) at NNU for an academic year (Sanders, 2003). Athletes participating at NNU are eligible for a full or partial athletic scholarship to support them financially while they are students at the institution. The athletic scholarship is a unique and important component in American higher education for NNU athletes. From figure 5.13, it can be seen that 32% believe there was "above average" to "very high" support financially, whereas only 6% believed an "above average" to "very high" support existed at UCW (see figure 5.12). Continued support for the level of financial assistance is found in the NCAA Membership Report (2002a), which shows the overall financial picture of the NCAA in 2002. The overall surplus for the NCAA in 2002 was approximately U.S. $358 million (£198 million) (see figure 3.8). From figure 3.8, 76% or around U.S. $273 million (£158 million) comes from the television rights fees. Over three quarters of the revenue earned by the NCAA comes from commercial gains through the contracts of televised games with national media centres. In comparison, BUSA neither has television contracts, nor any additional commercial revenue support. These differences concerning the commercial aspects in the infrastructures of both systems can be seen in the respective responses of the athletes in figures 5.14 (UCW) and 5.15 (NNU) where 40% of UCW athletes believe there is "no influence" on winning from a commercialised structure as opposed to only 14% of NNU athletes. These responses can be linked to different structures in place concerning the significance in both systems of levels of commercialisation.

Coaches gave further insight into the structure that is present within their teams under the rules and regulations of BUSA and the NCAA. The coach from UCW was asked if the amount of time spent by his athletes had a direct affect on the importance of winning. He responded with: "We don't train enough, we don't take it seriously enough and yet the frustrating thing is, the guys within the club really want to win when they're there" (UCW Coach, 2003). An element of frustration comes across in the UCW Coach's comments. In the "Constitution of the Worcester Student Union" (2002a; 2006a) each team is allotted a designated training session per/week along with the games that take place on Wednesdays, (known as 'BUSA' day within the Athletic Union). The

basketball coach is frustrated with the preparation time or lack of training sessions pre-arranged by the Athletic Union. Additional comments by the coach from UCW drew attention to the social aspects of the athletes' lives having priority over the preparation given towards the basketball team. In his comments, he said: "…we might have a training session on a Thursday evening and they've all been out for a heavy drinking session on a Wednesday night and they are not mentally prepared for it" (UCW Coach, 2003). It could be said that the athletes at UCW value winning on the same level as the NNU athletes when competing in the games, but the difference lies within the preparation and training that both systems require. Support for this contention is seen in the UCW coach observing that: "…the guys within the club really want to win when they're there" (UCW Coach, 2003). The observation suggests that although players competing on the basketball team at UCW want to 'win' when in competition, the commitment outside the games themselves are not on the level that the coach requires to enforce a 'winning' mentality. It is this preparation and commitment to 'winning' outside games where a considerable difference lies between the players at UCW and NNU. In response to the same question, the coach from NNU commented on the amount of time spent by his athletes on training and whether it affected the importance of 'winning' for his players: "The NCAA limits the amount of time we can coach our athletes. Our players have a 70 hour week between basketball and their studies" (NNU Coach, 2003). Again, the issue of exploitation of the students by administrators surfaces in the NCAA. The NCAA, as recognised earlier by Riess (1997), was created to serve as a form of social control agency, expanding its mission to cover all unethical conduct in collegiate athletics (Hawes, 1999). In the NCAA (2002c; 2006c), the rules and regulation manual can be viewed. It contains a wide spectrum of rules to control the 'winning' mentality that drives administrators and coaches today. The coach from NNU highlights a specific rule that was established by the NCAA governing body on the amount of time that coaches may have in direct contact with their team in training sessions per week. Although the rule allows for 24 hours of contact time with the team while in training sessions, the coach expects, "… them to shoot outside of practice and do some stuff on their own,"(NNU Coach, 2003) and hence, spend additional time in training. The rule itself serves as an example of the extent of coaches' preparation in promoting a 'winning' mentality amongst the players in their teams. In the UCW Athletic Union, structural regulations allow for one training session per week consisting of two hours for basketball players, whereas by way of comparison the training structure at NNU allows for 24 hours of training time per week. As mentioned above, the NNU coach adds that outside of those

hours, his players spend 70 hours per week between their studies and training sessions either with the team or personal workouts. In comparing the commitment to training in the pursuit for 'winning' attitudes amongst both basketball teams, the preparation by the NNU players outweighed that of the UCW players. It is important at this point to acknowledge this as the discussion in the 'Attitudes' section will review the importance of 'winning' amongst the athletes at both institutions.

The athletes at UCW were asked about the influence that UCW student sport had on the importance they place on 'winning'. The Captain responded with … "We've got more sport teams, there's more tradition here, and I think it's a lot more important but I still say there's no emphasis on winning" (UCW Captain, 2003). Player 2 believes "it depends on the level you are playing at; I don't think that across the board in all sport there is a great emphasis on winning" (UCW Player 2, 2003). Both UCW players believed there was not a strong emphasis placed on winning within UCW student sport. These interview comments give support to the administrator's comments, the questionnaire findings and the examples provided in the literature review that show BUSA as providing an infrastructure that promotes 'participation' and values experiences that are based on 'social' improvement and not winning (at all cost). Comparing those comments with the athletes from NNU, players were asked if the NNU Athletic Department placed any importance on winning; the Captain of the NNU basketball team responded with: "I think they do in a subtle manner. This school has a great tradition of winning in basketball through the past ten years. I think it does place an emphasis on winning" (NNU Captain, 2003). His team mate's response was: "I think NNU Athletic Department totally places an emphasis on winning." Player 1 continues with: "I really do, I know that even above the Athletic Director our president played here and has records, he really wants to see our basketball team be successful" (NNU Player 1, 2003). The athletes' responses leave no doubt that the administrators in the department do place an emphasis on 'winning'. One could suggest that because of the 'commercialised' interest that exists within the infrastructure of the NCAA and the 'prizes' at stake that was noted by Riess (1997) (see Chapter 2), it has a direct influence on the pressure for administrators and coaches to produce winning teams in order to receive the financial benefits that stem from 'commercialised' revenues.

Additional influences that affected athletes in both systems were their respective coaches and the structures established within their programmes. At UCW, the coach's values on winning were recognised but players acknowledged that a 'winning' ethos was not present and there was a more evenly balance standpoint between playing, socialising and academic studies. This was supported by the comments from Player 2: "…it wasn't totally winning, it was how you are going to better yourself as well" (UCW Player 2, 2003). Player 1 agreed with his team-mate and said: "It is good to have an emphasis on winning by the coach, but nothing immense" (UCW Player 1, 2003). Both players agreed that their coach valued 'winning' and supported structures leading towards achieving success within the basketball team. The UCW coach values winning and reveals in his interview comments that "…My approach is that whatever situation, no matter how well we've prepared or how badly we've prepared, whenever we go out I want to go out to win and play as well as we possibly can" (UCW Coach, 2003). From his interview comments, 'winning' is valued and is taken seriously in his preparation and attitude. In looking further at the comments from the coach at UCW, his attitude on 'winning' stands in sharp contrast to the infrastructure that is in place at UCW. He goes on to say

> "…In terms of the student life here a lot of their priority is not on being an athlete it's on being a student and when we get them on court we have to spend a lot of time on the court with them trying to motivate them to get this culture of wanting to win"  (UCW Coach, 2003).

Although the coach values 'winning' and wants to instil this attitude into his players, the structure that has been established under BUSA's guidance in many cases fosters a social and participatory attitude amongst the athletes at UCW. Additional evidence supporting the lack of structure in place creating a 'winning' attitude can be seen in figure 5.16 "Off-Season Structures" where only 4% of UCW athletes believed there was a major influence on the significance of the off-season structures that were in place for the respective team's programme.

NNU players recognise their coach's values are focused on 'winning' without the balance that the UCW players referred to in their comments. The Captain at NNU describes his coach's expectations on winning as "…Yes he does. I think he places a very large emphasis on winning. If we are not going to win, then we are going to have the wrath of coach" (NNU Captain, 2003). This opinion by the Captain is supported by his team-mate who adds: "Our coach definitely places an emphasis on winning" *(*NNU Player 1, 2003). In contrast to the UCW system, one might suggest that the coach at NNU is a by-product

of the NCAA infrastructure system. As previously mentioned, the 'commercial' pressures found within the NCAA that stem from the huge 'prizes' at stake financially cause inherent pressure from top administrators at the university down to the athletes (NCAA, 2002a; 2006a). Evidence of this was seen in the interview comments by Player 1 at NNU with reference to this pressure on his coach stemming from, "… the president and athletic director to get this program fixed now! He takes the pressure from them and puts it on us" (NNU Player 1, 2003). Supporting information was again found in the questionnaire findings, figure 5.15 showed that only 14% of NNU athletes thought there was "no influence" from the commercial structure that was in place at NNU towards 'winning'. Comparing this to UCW players, figure 5.14 shows a greater proportion of athletes (40%) believed there was no 'commercial' influence within student sport at UCW.

Also supporting the winning ethos were the comments from the coach at NNU regarding the influence he had on his athletes,

> "I think the coach is the leader on the team, someone who sets the tone. I think the team takes on the personality of the coach. I don't think that is a bad thing, I think that is a scary thing. It is the responsibility of the coach. I want our team to be known as one of the best teams in the league" (NNU Coach, 2003).

The responses from the players at NNU indicate that the team has felt the personality of the coach and his structure in place stresses the importance of 'winning'. The pressure on 'winning' was not only felt by the athletes, but also as previously discussed by the coach from the senior administrators at NNU. Figure 5.17 shows the importance placed on the off-season structures and their impact on 'winning' at NNU: some 22% of athletes felt there was a "major influence" placed by their coach in comparison with only 4% from UCW (figure 5.16). This difference may be indicative of the structures in place at both institutions causing a contrasting ethos amongst the administrators and athletes involved.

The differences revealed in this section on the infrastructures in place at UCW and NNU lend additional support on the contrasting ethos that emerged in the "Social Factors" section. The infrastructures established at UCW under BUSA regulation are formed with the intention of promoting 'participation' in sport, including athletes of all ability levels. Key features highlighted in the infrastructures at UCW that supported this ethos are the student managed sport under BUSA regulation, 'participation' sport, success

acknowledged by administrators as high 'participation' rates and BUSA as a non-profit organisation; whereas NNU infrastructures are established by the NCAA with ulterior motives for a 'winning' mentality centred on commercialised sport. Some key points acknowledged at NNU towards this ethos include: administrative control of the athletic department; success measured through the wins and losses by senior administrators; the concept of the 'athletic scholarship'; the significance placed on 'winning'; and the commercial prize at stake within the NCAA system.

**Section C: Environment**

Different environments that exist at both UCW and NNU and their significance for the experiences of the athletes participating at each institution are discussed in Section C. The Director of Sport at UCW was asked to rank the importance of student athletes and their reasons for coming to university. He comments:

> "… that's very hard, they come here because of the reputation of the department, which is to do with the learning and teaching they have received, the facilities, the student teams, it's a whole range of reasons" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003).

A multitude of choices was revealed by the senior administrator regarding the factors influencing student-athletes to attend UCW. It is important to note that the responsibilities of the Director of Sport lie strictly over academic matters of the students in his Sport and Exercise Science Department. As discussed earlier, his responsibilities do not cover the management of student sport that responsibility lies with the Director of Student Sport. The separation of the Athletic Union from the School of Sport at UCW produces an environment that was established by BUSA in its foundational policy of student-management sport (BUSA, 2002a; 2002b). An important organisational strategy created by BUSA was the control and management of student sport through the Athletic Unions at member institutions. This strategy allows BUSA to promote 'participation' sport to over one million students and regulate the significant responsibility devolved to the Athletic Unions, which in a majority of cases are run by students themselves, or are in similar positions such as the UCW Director of Student Sport. The separation of the Athletic Union from the administrative control of the institution and more specifically the Sport and Exercise Science Department at UCW is a fundamental philosophy established by BUSA in delegating the responsibility for BUSA competitions to each affiliated institution. Consequently, the UCW Director of Sport's interview comments might be

said to be predisposed to highlighting the influence academic studies have as the primary choice in attending the institution because of his primary responsibilities over academic matters.

In looking at the questionnaire findings to determine whether the Director of Sport's interview comments contradict the responses of the athletes themselves, figure 5.32 shows those UCW students differentially ranked reasons for coming to university: 60% chose academic study, 30% sports and 10% indicated social interest as their first choice. The sample group at UCW supported the Director of Sport's comments in that academic study is the most significant reason for student-athletes' decision in coming to UCW. Contradicting the comments from the Director of Sport and responses of athletes reported in figure 5.30 were the sample group's responses to relative importance of 'playing' or 'academic studies': 64% of the sample group rated 'playing' over 36% academic studies. This finding suggests that whereas students' most significant reason in attending an HE institution such as UCW is academic study, they attach greater importance to participation in sports experiences when in higher education. The value of sports activities and the importance placed on them by students can also be seen in figure 5.28, where 80% of athletes thought an "above average" to "very high" social ethos exists. This response seems to lend support to students' at UCW valuing the opportunities that are available to them in student-sport under BUSA. As mentioned previously, in BUSA (2002a; 2006b) and UCW (2002a; 2002b; 2006a; 2006b) an underlying philosophy of the Athletic Union at UCW is to promote a broad spectrum of opportunities to include athletes competing at all levels, for social engagement, and for management experiences to foster a better rounded individual. As a result of these opportunities, potentially the balance can be focused with a greater emphasis on these activities as opposed to the expected academic rigour that is required at an HE institution. This scenario can be seen at UCW with 64% of UCW sample group focusing on playing sport as opposed to only 36% on academic studies (see figure 5.30).

In determining the priorities placed by student-athletes on their choice for attending NNU, the Athletic Director was of the view that "…The ideal experience first of all would be to have success in their sport. "To have team success and to have individual success" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003). Unlike the Director of Sport at UCW, the senior administrator ranked success in sport first in the importance he would like to see in

the student-athlete's experiences.  Indeed, academic importance is not mentioned until his closing comments "… and obviously getting a great education" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).  After considering the importance of the order in which the senior administrator placed value on 'winning' as opposed to academic studies, one might deduce that his personal emphasis is centred on 'winning' and success of athletes in their teams and on an individual level within his department.  He acknowledged that acquiring a "great education" is important, but from his interview comments, it lags behind the importance placed on 'winning' for the athletes individually and within their respective teams. In looking at the influence of the importance placed on 'winning' in sport over academic study from the interview comments by the Athletic Director, figure 5.35 reveals the order of importance attached by the athletes: 60% chose academic study,  38% playing sport, and only 2% believed social interest was their main choice.  From the sample group's responses, a clear indication is given on the importance of academic study first, sport second, and social experiences a distant third.

In determining the influence of the environments affecting student athletes whilst at NNU, figure 5.31 shows whether the sample group deems playing more important over academic study.  Marginally, responses favour academic study (52%) over playing sport (48%). Although a marginally higher percentage of athletes valued academic study, an increase of 10% was seen in the importance placed on sport from the time they selected NNU (38%) (refer figure 5.33), to 48% that responded whilst at the institution. A primary factor affecting the increase in the value placed on sport towards the athletes could be attributed to the Athletic Director or institutional influence placed on success in sport over academic study in the interview comments.

Further evidence on the importance placed on 'winning' in sport over academic study and social interest can be seen in figure 5.29, where only 10% of the sample group from NNU believed there was a "very high" social environment within the athletic department. Again, the athletes and their attitudes regarding the importance of sport, academic study and social interest are a bye-product of the structure that is established by the senior administrators within the department. Societal values and commercialised pressures under NCAA guidance are factors in the importance by administrators on winning. Ultimately, the importance placed on winning within NNU could be related to the societal values present within American society.

On the issue of competing to win as opposed to participation, the Director of Sport at UCW was inclined to 'participation' "…From my opinion, I would say more participation. Maybe 65% of athletes are here to participate as opposed to 35% to win. There are only a handful competing at the toughest level and the rest of them are participating" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003). The comment by the senior administrator lends support to the 'participation' strategy emphasised by both BUSA and the member Athletic Unions such as UCW. Additional comments by the coach reinforced the opinion of the Director of Sport, "…I'd say about fifteen sports played on campus and about three or four of the sports go out with a determined approach to be winners, the other ten or eleven are happy just to play and have a beer" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003). For the UCW coach, athletes were more likely to be predisposed to 'participation' rather than 'winning', a feature reinforced by the importance attached to social aspects seen in the reference to 'having a beer'. In comparing the opinions of the athletes themselves with those of the administrators on 'mass participation' sport at UCW, figure 5.24 shows that 66% of UCW athletes believed there was an "above average" to "very high" 'mass participation' environment in existence. The similar responses on 'mass participation' sport from both the Director of Sport at UCW (65%) and basketball coach compared with the sample group of athletes (66%) provide consistent responses from both administration and athletes at UCW supporting the philosophy established by BUSA in its foundational policies.

On the same issue of whether the NNU Athletic Department placed emphasis on 'participation' or 'winning', the NNU Athletic Director intimated that:

> "…Ultimately though, men's basketball portrays the image of the athletic department and they are judged on wins. There is an old saying that went when I taught at the high school level, 'the school year went as the football team, if the football team started well, then we would have a great school year. If the football team had a lousy year, then the school year would be rather lousy.' The attitudes on this campus are based on men's basketball."
> (NNU Athletic Director, 2003)

The response from the Athletic Director supports the 'winning' rather than 'participation' ethos that is dominant within the NNU Athletic Department. The senior administrator believed the image of the Athletic Department depends on the successes of the basketball team, and the success is measured by the amount of games won during the season.

Furthermore, the NNU Athletic Director portrays the 'winning' attitude and its association with the institution through previous experiences as an administrator. He attributed the success of the institution for the academic year to the success of the football team and the amount of games won during competition. The comments by the senior administrator highlight the pressure that is applied by the institution as a whole to 'winning.' Conversely, this pressure could influence both coaches and players at NNU in adhering to a 'winning' mentality as opposed to 'participation' principles that are seen at UCW.

The 'winning' ethos also features in the NNU coach mind-set, "…we don't make any bones about it, we want to win, it is not intramurals, it is intercollegiate sport. We need to try and do our best to win and don't need to apologise" (NNU Coach, 2003). There is a clear articulation here of the importance of winning as a fundamental goal for intercollegiate sport at NNU and one for which "… we don't need to apologise for it." (NNU Coach, 2003). In comparing the views of the administration with the athletes at NNU, figure 5.25 shows the opinions of the athletes on 'mass-participation' and the affect it has at NNU: only 8% of the sample group believe a "very high" 'mass-participation' environment exists at NNU, a figure which gives further support to the 'winning' ethos established by the administrators that was seen in the previous discussion of interview comments. Comparing the responses with those of the athletes at UCW, 22% of the sample group believed there was a "very high" environment centred on 'participation' amongst athletes (see figure 5.24). There is a suggestion here that the influence of the institutions, the senior administrators, and the coaches all contribute to the environment that is established in both sport departments.

In further consideration of environments that play a significant role in the experiences of the athletes at both UCW and NNU, the coaches from both institutions were asked about the significance of 'commercialised' sport within their respective institutional settings. The UCW coach was of the opinion that, "…it is not financially driven across the board really. Most universities, the players have to pay to play, they have to pay the referees and that is where we are at" (UCW Coach, 2003). A fundamental component in BUSA sport is the organisation's reliance on students not only to manage the sport through the affiliated Athletic Unions, but also to serve as the significant revenue stream that drives the organisation. In looking at BUSA's annual income for 2002, total income for the

year came to approximately £1 million ($1.6 million) (BUSA, 2002a:47). Out of that income, £615,000 ($1 million) came from member subscriptions. Those figures alone show that over half of BUSA's annual income stems from the students that are paying to take part in sport under BUSA. It is unsurprising that the comments made by the UCW coach on commercialised sport and its role are centred on the major financial contributions by the athletes to allow BUSA to function under its current state. Further evidence on the significance that 'commercialised' sport has at UCW can be found in figure 5.26, where only 14% of the sample group believed there existed an "above average" and "very high" 'commercialised' environment. This low percentage could be attributed to the evidence provided by BUSA's philosophy that students must pay to play. The students' subscription fees are the primary revenue source that drives sport at UCW.

At NNU, the coach commented that,

> "…we are one of the sports known as a revenue sport. Our university counts on the revenue we generate to aid the university with its progress. To be competitive at the NCAA Division II level, you are financially driven to have an equal playing field. You need money to get the players, and you need the players to win. Scholarships to get the players have always been the most important thing." (NNU Coach, 2003).

In sharp contrast to the situation at UCW, immediate attention is attached by the coach to the importance placed on 'commercialised' sport at NNU and he acknowledges that his team is perceived as a 'revenue' sport. The institution itself relies on the revenue that the basketball team at NNU generates on a yearly basis. The UCW 'pay to play' system is polarised in one direction just as the NNU institutional reliance on the basketball team successes is polarised in the opposite direction. The NCAA promotes 'commercialised' sport in order to be financially successful. Unlike the BUSA system, the NCAA is an organisation looking to increase revenue through 'commercialised' success. In the *NCAA Membership Report* (2002a), total revenue came to around U.S. $357 million (£205 million). Out of that revenue, 76% (see figure 3.8) came from television rights fees or approximately U.S. $273 million dollars (£160 million) generated by 'commercialised' streams such as television contracts. The magnitude and importance of 'commercialised' sport can be seen from examples such as the amount of revenue generated by television contracts. In looking at the relationship of television contracts and the NCAA, it could be held responsible as the primary factor in putting intercollegiate athletics in the 'spotlight' of American society.

Arguably the significant revenue at stake between the television contracts and the NCAA is the driving force effecting the institution as an organisation (Hawes, 1999). One example here is the proportion of revenue placed on the contract signed by the NCAA and the Central Broadcasting Systems (CBS) in 2002 for exclusive rights to the Men's Basketball Championships. The eleven year agreement is estimated at a price for U.S. $6 billion (£3.5 billion) over the contract period. The agreement averages roughly U.S. $545 million (£300 million) on an annual basis. It is no surprise that the administration and coaches could place pressure on the athletes involved in their system because of the amount at stake financially. The NNU coach's designation of his team as a 'revenue' sport has resonance here.

In the NNU coach's closing interview comments, he refers to the 'athletic scholarship' as the most important device in selecting high quality players that will give his team the best chance of having a 'winning' season. The issue of the 'athletic scholarship' as a "tool" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003) was addressed earlier in the Infrastructure section. It is this "tool" that has in turn caused an increased level of competition amongst competing institutions in providing successful teams in order to increase commercial revenues and induce pressure from the financial amounts at stake. The affect the 'commercial' environment has on NNU athletes' is seen in their responses, as 72% of the sample group believed there was an "average" to "above average" commercialised environment (see figure 5.27). This percentage differs with UCW students, only 40% of whom thought an "average" to "above average" environment existed (see figure 5.26). The athletes' responses at both institutions lend support to the comments from the administrators and coaches on the significance of 'commercialised' sport within each respective system.

It is not surprising that the athletes' experiences are affected by the administrators and coaches' values and the kind of environments that are established at their respective institutions. The differentiated environments of UCW and NNU contribute to shaping the experiences of athletes. The UCW Student-Sport environment is centred primarily on 'participation', which in turn impacts on all aspects of the student-athletes experiences. Aspects highlighted in this section included: separation of the Athletic Union and the academic department (School of Sport and Exercise Science), academic studies as the most important reason identified by UCW by administrators, the broad spectrum of

opportunities available for student athletes, and student subscriptions as the primary revenue source that drives UCW sport. In contrast, the NNU Athletic Department environment is centred on 'winning', with the emphasis on which affects the experiences of the athletes. Contributory factors highlighted in this section include: administrators primary concern centred on success, 'elite' approach enhanced by the 'athletic scholarship", and 'commercialised' sport through the significant amount that is at stake financially in the NCAA system.

**Section D: Attitudes**

The final section in this chapter considers identified key 'attitudes' towards the importance of winning of administrators, coaches and athletes in both institutions. On the issue of the importance of winning and academic studies in the development plans within their systems, the UCW Director of Sport indicated that: "…The importance of 'academics' to a sports studies student is no different than it is for any other student. Academic study is why they come to university" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003). Thus, academic studies are seen to be the first priority of student-athletes, and that student-athletes' priorities are no different from students not competing in extra-curricular sport-related activities. As noted earlier in this chapter, the Director of Sport's responsibilities at UCW are strictly within the domain of academic-related matters and not the management of student sport. BUSA's foundational policy in the separation of the management of Athletic Unions (BUSA, 2002a; 2006a) from the academic departments creates a philosophical difference from NNU where the athletic department combines responsibilities from administrators that relate both to academic studies and athletics. Such a difference may account, at least partially, for placing importance on academic studies. To some extent the viewpoint of the UCW Director of Sport is mirrored by the UCW coach:

> "…as a full-time lecturer I want to make sure these players leave with a good degree. I would say that the academic background is more important. If they all start failing exams, I would have to look at my job as a basketball coach and wonder if I am spending too much time towards basketball and not enough towards my full-time position as a lecturer" (UCW Coach, 2003).

Although the UCW coach has an obligation to the basketball team, his prior responsibility lies with his commitments as a full-time lecturer at the institution. The pre-disposition to reliance on a student-management system was previously supported by a cohort of volunteers and is supported by academic staff members to administer BUSA

from the associated institution. An example of which, is the coach from UCW, who volunteers his services in coaching the affiliated team (BUSA, 1995a; BUSA, 1995b; BUSA, 2002a; BUSA, 2006a). As the primary responsibilities of the UCW coach are academic related, his values attached to the importance of academic studies over 'winning' is reflected in his interview comments. In looking at the viewpoint of the athletes themselves, figure 5.34 reveals that 70% of the sample group at UCW believed obtaining a "degree" is more important than "winning a championship," thereby underpinning the greater emphasis on the value placed on academic studies as opposed to playing sport.  This is perhaps a reminder of the 'amateur ethic' of participation first and winning second with some focus on primacy of academic studies. The value system embraced by amateurism at UCW typically reflects a set of principles, in which as Wigglesworth (1996) argued, 'amateurism' was encapsulated within the concept of 'muscular Christianity'. A determining factor that has led to the application of these principles within English university sport today, is little, if any intrusion by 'commercialisation' into sport associated with higher education institutions. These principles have been upheld and continue to be so by BUSA since its formation in 1994; 'amateurism' as opposed to 'commercialism' is a driving force in BUSA's foundational policies.

At NNU, the Athletic Director focused attention on winning and generation of revenue as a commercial enterprise:

> "…I think the men's basketball team we would really like to get it to a high level of winning.  That is probably our top priority.  The next goal is to start working on funding, hopefully some winning is going to come from that.  Our expectations are for all of our coaches to have winning seasons" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

Notably no mention is made of 'academic studies'.  This focus on 'winning' and 'commercialised' sport at NNU reinforces Riess' (1997) and Miller's (1998) assertions on achieved status and prestige in American higher education through the success of athletic teams. This concept adopted by American society has had a significant affect on the importance placed by American institutions and their administrators on the importance of 'winning' and the 'commercialised' success that comes with it, as mentioned by the NNU Athletic Director in his interview comments.

Perhaps a more balanced view was projected by the NNU coach: "…My goals would be the same. I would want my athletes to win and be the best students they can" (NNU Coach, 2003). Here the coach is acknowledging equality of importance of 'winning' and 'academic studies.' Notably, such acknowledgement comes despite the prioritisation of success of the men's basketball team over any other objective within the department and associated pressure on the basketball coach by his line managers:

> "…Our coach definitely places an emphasis on winning. His first year back we win 5 games, he has pressure from the president and athletic director to get this program fixed now! He takes the pressure from them and puts it on us" (Player 1, NNU Player 1, 2003).

Player 1 from the basketball team goes as far to say that the President of the university values 'winning' and places importance on the basketball team to be successful at NNU. The importance placed on 'winning' by the senior administrators at NNU on the basketball coach could be associated with the 'Lombardian Ethic' which was noted in Figler and Whitaker (1995) argue that the central value is determined and guided by the belief that winning is the reason for competing, it is the ultimate value and goal which is epitomised in Lombard's assertion that: "Winning isn't everything, it's the only thing."

Although the examples provided by administration, Player 1 as well as the basketball coach (albeit with a more balanced viewpoint) emphasise and lend support to the value placed on 'winning', NNU players provide evidence of a contrary view. From figure 5.35 of the NNU sample, 64% believed a "degree" was more important than "winning a championship". Hence, despite the significance of 'winning' to the administration, a majority of athletes demonstrate a preference for academic achievement over sporting success.

The issue of success and its meaning is open to interpretation at UCW. The Director of Sport remarked that: "…the university might measure success in the number of students participating. If you have a higher percentage of students participating, then the stronger the voice is for sport at the university" (UCW Director of Sport, 2003). The argument here is that sport has a more powerful voice within the institution when a higher percentage of students participate. In *'The Constitution of Worcester's Student Union'* (2002a; 2006a), and in line with BUSA policy, there is no pressure from commercialisation. The organisation itself serves university sport within a non profit

environment, which unlike the NCAA system does not require or significantly rely on 'commercialised' revenue. Success associated with 'participation' rates at UCW is consistent with the participation ethos upheld by BUSA.

By way of contrast to UCW Athletic Union's and administrations widening participation in sport, basketball players present another view, as Player 2 said:

> "…success for me is winning but winning competitively. If I got beat every week I'd die, I'd hate it. I love competition. I think that's what most players want."; "Winning. Winning is success. Anything else I couldn't really consider success" (UCW Player 2, 2003).

The captain responded with a similar attitude: "Winning. Winning is success. Anything else I couldn't really consider success" (UCW Captain, 2003*).* The players have recognised 'winning' as associated with success. The views from the players show a contrasting view to administration at UCW regarding widening participation within sport. Additional evidence supporting this contrasting view can be found in figure 5.32 where 64% of athletes chose playing over academic studies (36%). Figure 5.30 highlights the importance that is placed by athletes at UCW on playing sport, which could be related to the importance placed on winning that was highlighted in the interview comments by Player 2 and the Captain from the basketball team. Further support for this view is found in figure 5.46 where 40% of UCW athletes are shown to have "very high" level of ambition and so infer that athletes do place importance on 'winning'.

For the NNU Athletic Director:

> "…success is rated on what the individual is like when they leave this place. The individual not the athlete. Are they a better person for having been here, that means a better person socially as well" (NNU Athletic Director, 2003).

The senior administrator is placing importance on the experience as a whole for the athlete. The focus does not centre around the importance placed on 'winning' but on the development of the athlete as an individual. His remarks seem to provide a counter position to that portrayed in earlier discussion on the importance placed on 'winning' and the considerable influence of 'commercialised' sport and the amount of monies at stake. The counter position though has consistency with the NCAA emphasis placed on academic study and the development of the individual (Radar, 1996). Evidence can be

seen in the NCAA manual (2002a; 2002c; 2006a; 2006c), where its mission statement is listed: the development of educational leadership; the adoption of eligibility rules to comply with satisfactory standards of scholarship; sportsmanship and amateurism; supervision of conduct of and establishment of eligibility standards; and study in general all phases of competitive intercollegiate athletics whereby universities can maintain their athletic programmes on a high level. In short, the manual, which serves as a primary guideline document for senior administrators within the NCAA, emphasizes development of both academic study and athletic performance of students. Thus, as the NNU Athletic Director implies, there is support provided for the athletes for social and academic development.

The more balanced view on the meaning of success is also apparent within NNU players' perceptions: "…Some kind of complex formula between having fun and winning. I guess just enjoying myself" (NNU Captain, 2003). Player 2 commented: "…I don't think it is necessarily winning, but that is the measurable part. I just think the experience as a whole, just making it through, sticking with things, toughing it out, getting the degree when it is all said and done" (NNU Player 2, 2003). Both players infer winning, social inclusion and academic studies, and in the light of previous discussion, the players did not centre what they deem as success on 'winning' itself as the UCW players highlighted. Although much effort is directed towards instilling a 'winning' mentality by the administrators in the NCAA and affiliated institutions, the present researcher's experiences as an athlete at NNU revealed a more evenly balanced emphasis on the importance of both academic study and athletics.

Whilst, the situation at NNU may only represent a 'snapshot' of the overall picture of the NCAA, it does show that in spite of the amount of literature on the problems in 'big-time' collegiate sport, there are examples that portray positive aspects about the academic and social development of athletes. At a personal level, the department provided the present researcher when a student-athlete at NNU with opportunities available to serve as the President on advisory boards such as the Student Associate Athletic Scheme (SAAC), which acts as the primary voice for athletes and their rights under the NCAA, and support for academic development through academic tutors, mandatory study sessions and resources provided for academic progress (e.g. laptop computers), frequent supervision and mandatory updates on the progress of assessment marks that were required by the

basketball coaching staff. In addition to the support for academic development, opportunities for social inclusion were provided by the NNU Athletic Department. The Department provided social events for athletes within the Athletic Department, along with further support from members of the "Alumni Club"[5] to allow the athlete to feel comfortable during their time at the institution. In looking at the sample group of athletes at NNU within the questionnaire findings, figure 5.43 shows that only 48% of athletes at NNU believed "winning" was very important as opposed to 64% at UCW in figure 5.42. It could be suggested that although much of the literature is focused on the problems that 'big-time' collegiate sport has within the NCAA as a result of the 'winning' mentality, academic and social support is valued at institutions such as NNU as well, and may help to explain the lower percentage of athletes responding to winning at NNU as opposed to UCW. Additional evidence provided in the questionnaire findings can be seen in figure 5.31 where 52% of NNU athletes believed "academic studies" were more important than "playing" (48%). Again, this might suggest that although 'winning' is highly valued at NNU as seen in the administrators' and coach's comments, athletes view academic studies as their first priority.

Examples of a contrasting picture of the literature provided in relation to the key objectives of BUSA again can be found from personal experiences by the researcher as a student-athlete at the institution. In looking at the UCW's Director of Student Sport experience, it was noted earlier that she was running student sport, which included the management of 25 sport teams and budgets that required effective management in order to utilise the funding provided. Her experience prior to entering the position included her undergraduate degree in Sport Studies jointly with Business Management. Further support in the management of student sport at UCW falls in the hands of the club chairman and secretaries who micro-manage the teams they are involved with specifically. Some of these responsibilities include areas such as sponsorship revenue, selection and talent identification within teams in the club, coaching, organisation of officials and game fees, equipment issues, and liaison with teams within the league and the associated athletic unions (UCW, 2003). As an athlete within the system at UCW over three years, the present researcher observed deficiencies of the student-run system: poor management of sport at UCW by the Directors of Student Sport, which included the allocation of funding for the budgets of the sport teams that were mishandled; lack of

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[5] A male or female graduate or former student of a school, college, or university.

organisation in regards to scheduling and rescheduling matches; and the responsibility for transportation and accommodation required for the teams competing in their respective BUSA leagues. Further examples are seen in positions such as club chairman, secretary, and treasurer on each affiliated BUSA team at UCW.  The management of these positions show a very similar outlook to the Directors of Student Sport in the responsibilities assumed when taking the positions are not fulfilled. Some of these examples included the mismanagement of budgets, lack of motivation to assume the responsibility of securing sponsorships from local businesses, inability to organise game officials and provide the match funds, and the lack of experience or knowledge in taking on coaching responsibilities within the clubs.

Arguably a strength of the student-run system perpetuated by BUSA is the opportunity for students to become better-rounded individuals through possible engagement as athletes, and serving in management positions that the athletic unions offer.  However, what may be a perceived strength of BUSA policy, in practice may produce another reality. As a practising athlete at UCW, the current researchers' observations and experiences have revealed that these positions in many cases are not taken seriously by the students assuming them. As result of this, personal development for many students serving in these roles is not achieved through the responsibilities within the position. Additionally, it can be argued that the quality of competition suffers through the lack of affective administrative and management procedures.  Many students competing at UCW have expressed a strong desire for better quality of competitions in which they engage.

The importance of 'winning' and quality of competitions can be seen in the questionnaire findings in figure 5.42, where the sample group of athletes at UCW were asked how important "winning" was to them; in response, 64% of the athletes believed it was "very important" in comparison with 48% of athletes at NNU (figure 5.43). From this percentage difference, it might be suggested that the UCW athletes value 'winning' more than their counterparts at NNU.  Evidence of the quality of support provided for athletes at UCW and NNU can be found in figure 5.18 and 5.19, where the athletes from both institutions responded to the knowledge of their respective coaches: 38% (figure 5.18) of the sample group at UCW believed their respective coaches had excellent knowledge within their sport, in comparison with 58% of NNU athletes (figure 5.19). From those findings, a 20% gap exists in what the athletes at both institutions deem as "excellent"

coaching knowledge, a factor in which can be seen in the student-run system of UCW, where in many cases students serve not only as athletes but also as the coach themselves in many clubs as opposed to the administration run system at NNU, where full-time coaching positions are created with a focus primarily on the responsibilities of the respective team. Further examples of the level of support are highlighted in figures 5.18 and 5.19 concerned with the level of influence that off-season structures provided by coaches on "winning" in only 4% of UCW athletes (figure 5.16) thought there was a "major influence" as opposed to 22% from NNU (figure 5.17). Higher percentages of NNU participants consistently allege a higher quality of support provided by their athletic department. One might suggest that the administration run system provided in its foundational policies by the NCAA to institutions such as NNU, in many cases can provide a 'professional' approach towards the competitions that can fulfil the desires of athletes to 'win'. From the examples provided by this researcher's experience as an athlete at UCW over the past three years, the student-run system in many cases is not adequate in satisfying many of the athletes' desire to 'win' in the quality of competitions offered at UCW.

The theme(s) of winning, participation, and socialisation were further addressed by seeking rank order information on them from both sample groups. UCW Player 1 and the team Captain were in accord: "…I'm going to say winning, participation and then socialising" (UCW Player 1, 2003). The Captain of UCW shared the view of his team-mate and said, "…Winning by far, winning is the most important thing this year by a long way. Participation, I would put that second and socialising third" (UCW Captain, 2003). The evidence provided in both the interview and questionnaire findings, along with the literature reviewed in Chapters 2-3 underline the overwhelming evidence that suggest BUSA sport is driven by 'participation' attitudes in the management of the student-ran system at each affiliated institutions. However, in the interview comments at UCW, players from the basketball team still acknowledge 'winning' first with 'participation' and 'socialising' a distant second and third. The interview comments lend support to the importance placed on 'winning' by the basketball players at UCW. There may be consequences here for BUSA and affiliated institutions in terms of re-appraisal of the efficiency of a student-ran system and whether it satisfies the importance of 'winning' of its athletes through the management and quality of competitions it offers.

At NNU the winning, participation and socialisation issue raises apparent contradictions with evidence provided by other interview schedule findings and the review of literature (chapters 2 and 3). The NNU captain felt that, "…participation would be the most important. If I had to rank them, participating, social then winning" (NNU Captain, 2003). The NNU Captain's reference to 'participation' as the most important may suggest that at least some athletes are motivated to compete in sport out of intrinsic personal beliefs rather than out of extrinsic NCAA affiliated institutions and their administrative 'winning mentality' mind-sets. On the other hand, however, the influence of the NCAA and the NNU Athletic Department became apparent in the comments by Player 1: "…When we are talking about the basketball team, I would say winning a clear number one. Participation a clear number two and socialising third" (NNU Player 1, 2003). In his comments, Player 1 did not associate his own personal attitudes in ranking winning, participation, and socialisation, but based the order in the chosen areas through the importance placed within the basketball team and the values set by his coach.

Despite the discussion immediately above, the evidence found within this study lends support to the importance placed on 'winning' by the NCAA and the NNU Athletic Department. Nevertheless, when considering evidence on athlete's attitudes, there are examples in questionnaire findings that suggest that athletes may have a different view on the importance of winning. Figure 5.35, for example, shows that a majority (64%) of NNU athletes chose obtaining a degree over winning a championship whilst at the institution. Similarly, evidence found in the interview findings underpins the differences in attitudes, testimony to which are the NNU Captain's choice of 'participation' as his number one reason for taking part in sport. If the NNU Captain's view in the participation / winning issue is more generally applicable, there may be implications that the NCAA needs to address. There is a parallel situation in terms of the needs addressed by the administration within both BUSA and the NCAA not matching the needs of the athletes in many cases at both UCW and NNU. This issue is addressed in the final chapter of the thesis.

**Summary**

The evidence suggests that 'amateurism' is the dominant motivational force driving many aspects of student-sport at UCW. Collectively, the importance placed by administration and the basketball coach on 'participation' is established in their responsibilities as full-

time lecturers within the academic department. Further examples provided on the 'amateur' approach are the influence of "muscular Christianity" and associated 'amateur' value system influencing the current system, and the institution's value of sport associated with 'participation' rates in student sport at the institution. Other trends revealed in the discussion was the importance placed by participating athletes on 'winning'. The findings of participating athletes that valued 'winning' highly in their experiences in student sport was not supported in examples such as: the ineffective management by the Directors of Student Sport, club positions and the overall affect on the quality of experiences the athletes valued in their competitions. Recent developments within key documents of BUSA and UCW highlighted factors such as 'commercialism' and 'professionalism' affecting the student-sport experience from both a national and local institution perspectives, which further supports a more balanced approach to student-sport.

Within NNU, the emphasis placed on 'commercialism' was seen in attitudes of the administration and the basketball coach, a feature which perhaps reflect the effect of the "Lombardian Ethic" of a 'winning' mentality, which is at the centre of NCAA enterprise. Support for students-athletes at NNU and their academic studies included NCAA (2002c) manual mission statements on the importance given to academic study for athletes competing in the NCAA, the interview comments by the athletes themselves and the reference to a balanced experience and not a 'winning' only mentality that emerged in the interview findings. The experience of the present researcher as a former athlete at NNU in benefiting from the support given for academic studies through serving as the President of the Student Associate Athletic Scheme, access to academic tutors and mandatory study sessions, eligibility requirements, monitoring of assessment marks, and the availability of academic resources provided additional testimony of a supportive environmental setting regarding the importance of academic studies. Examination of the findings also revealed a disparity between NNU administrators and athletes attributed towards the importance of winning. Further trends were revealed in the review of key documents and the key strategic points listed by the NCAA (2006a) in regards to the Academic Progress Rate (APR) and the fiscal reforms on big-time collegiate spending. The next and final chapter draws on the importance of winning within university sport in both countries from the three levels of analysis identified within the study (country, national organisation, local institution) according to the specific aims of the study.

# Chapter 7: Conclusions

This bi-national study involving two university level institutions linked to national sport governing body organisations comprised an examination of the level of importance of 'winning'. To this end, a number of aims were specifically formulated. Collectively these aims served to inform discussion surrounding the importance of winning within two countries (England and the United States), two national associations (BUSA and NCAA) concerned with university sport, and two selected universities (UCW and NNU) and representative personnel in each university (administrative officers, coaches and athletes. Thus, the extent of the importance of winning was examined at three levels: country, national organisation and local institution. The following section draws conclusions on each aim in turn.

**The Specific Aims**

**Aim 1: Conceptualization of the importance of 'winning'.**
The ideals of amateurism embodied largely within late 18$^{th}$ and 19$^{th}$ century developments in upper class pursuits and English private boarding schools and linked with muscular Christianity ideals and values of the ideology of athleticism, fair play, gentlemanly conduct and 'godliness' fostered a participation first, winning second ethos that came to be widely accepted and perpetuated by various newly founded sport governing agencies (including in the earlier part of the 20$^{th}$ century university sport) in England. The concept of 'amateurism' developed in 19$^{th}$ century England became a significant global, social and cultural phenomenon. However, the propensity of sport to attract spectator audiences lent itself to commercial enterprise and participant athlete professionals, demonstrated in a variety of sports, for example boxing, cricket, pedestrianism, rugby league and soccer. The increasing influence of commercialism and professionalism had particular resonance in the United States and for this present study because it culminated in the 20$^{th}$ century in a shift away from emphasis on participation for its own sake to participation with emphasis on winning. It was a shift, which created a template of 'winning first, participation second', testimony to which are the 'Lombardian Ethic' and the virtue of 'single mindedness' in the United States.

The conceptualisation of the amateur (participation)-commercial/professional (winning) ethos continuum in each country's sporting culture values provided a context for the importance placed on winning at the national governing body/local institution levels

within the study. BUSA's philosophy of management by students is grounded in the belief that placing responsibility on students is character building. This participation first ethos is deeply embedded in the organisational strategy of management by students and is reinforced by involvement of a veritable 'army' of volunteers in administering one of the largest sporting programmes in Europe. One significant consequent of such an approach based in traditional 'amateur' ideals has been a perceived inherent lack of 'commercial' pressure within the BUSA framework of structure and policies etc. The 'amateur' stance taken by BUSA is also seen at the local institution level, exemplified in UCW's structures, policies and programmes, and seen in the interview comments of the UCW Director of Student Sport (2003) in her comments that, "student sport is there for everyone regardless of whether you play for England or whether you've never picked up a cricket bat before and you just want to be apart of the team." Whereas in the United States, the NCAA adheres to a 'professional' approach that is show-cased through the 'big-time' Division I athletic departments that drive the winning ethos of the Association. NCAA is an efficiently run business enterprise with significant 'commercial' pressures in various aspects of its operational structures and policies that promotes a 'winning' first, participation second mentality amongst participants (administrative personnel, coaches and athletes). The NCAA is a prominent organisation within American society in providing 'entertainment' through mass-market sports (e.g. grid-iron football and basketball), which, through associated television contracts, generate almost three-quarters of its income revenue. Thus, somewhat inevitably under such economic circumstances, commercially inspired motives affect all levels of participation and participants. The ensuing pressure emanating from these commercial motives is readily apparent at the local institution level as seen at NNU, where the Athletic Department is driven by a 'professional' approach, albeit on a much smaller scale than the 'big-time' Division I Athletic Departments, and evidence is seen in the interview comments by the NNU Coach (2003):

> "…we are one of the sports known as a revenue sport. Our university counts on the revenue we generate to aid the university with its progress. To be competitive at the NCAA Division II level, you are financially driven to have an equal playing field. You need money to get the players, and you need the players to win. Scholarships to get the players have always been the most important thing."

The amateur (participation)-commercial/professional (winning) ethos continuum was a persistent theme at all three levels (country, national organisation and local institution) in documentary analysis of sports-related values in England and the United States.

However, the empirical evidence gathered from the case study participants at UCW and NNU challenged the 'participation'/'winning orthodoxy within each system. At UCW athletes were disposed to emphasise the importance of winning and NNU athletes seemed to present a more balanced or traditionally 'amateur' approach. This emerging blurring of perceptions and attitudes towards the participation/winning orthodoxy is represented in figures 5.42 and 5.43 (refer to Chapter 5), where a proportionately higher percentage (64%) of UCW athletes than NNU athletes (48%) believed 'winning' was 'very important' in their sport experiences whilst at the institution.

**Aim 2: Identify key contributions within the historical and socio-cultural developments of sport in both England and the United States in contextualising the situations at national and local levels**

The review of literature on the country perspectives of historical socio-cultural shaping factors on sport in England and the United States revealed a range of influences with varying and differing impacts. In England, these influences included historical developments, dispositions within society, the political culture and established and emerging social institutions.

The historical developments encapsulated an 'amateur' ethos, which embraced the concept of 'muscular Christianity' that evolved in 19th century English Public Schools. 'muscular Christianity' was enshrined within an 'ideology of athleticism' with associated intrinsic, extrinsic and instrumental values such as enjoyment and participation for its own sake, educational goals, exemplified in character development and the inculcation of the 'stamp of the gentleman' and moral codes of behaviour in line with emerging Victorian values and 'fair play', playing to the rules of the game as preparation for the rules of life to come. Influence of these values is still seen at the local institution level, where the UCW Director of Sport (2003) attributed the major influence on his attitude to winning by the, "private boarding school" he attended. Other historical developments were economically, technologically and socially driven by the industrial and post-industrial revolutionary developments in work practices, 'urbanisation', transportation and communication innovations and improvements, increasing compartmentalisation of work and leisure time, reducing working weekdays, and increasing discretionary income. Collectively, these developments variously contributed to the emergence of forms of institutionalised sport beyond local levels. Conformity with the work (labour time) clock and uniform standardisation of railway timetables and sporting event times were significant determinants in spreading organised forms of sport across the regions to

national levels. Institutionalised sport became a significant social phenomenon for participants (the athletes) and audiences (spectators) alike.

Major dispositions within society influencing sport and attitudes to it included: an unwillingness to accept defeat, epitomised in World War II by the so-called 'Dunkirk Spirit'; which have lasting affects when there is an apparent reluctance to evolve from these 'traditional' values. Influences emanating from the political culture were seen in so-called traditional values as significant forces affecting government level enterprise, illustrations of which were identified in the judicial system , where around 90% of court cases are administered by unpaid magistrates, a practice that has been in operation for over six centuries; in the 'unwritten' constitution with its roots in political history; the traditional influences on current political structure; the two-fold tier of Houses of Commons and Lords form of government; liberty based upon property rights; and a class structure that was dominated by the aristocrat society up to the Industrial Revolution and increasingly throughout the 19$^{th}$ century by an emerging middle class bourgeoisie of owner employers when the focus shifted towards the effects of commercialism and professionalism in contemporary sport.

Historical developments in sport  in the United States partially mirrored those in England and especially so in terms of post-Industrial Revolution shaping determinants on institutionalised forms of sport during the late 19$^{th}$ century. As in England, industrialisation brought urbanisation, compartmentalised work and leisure time with increasingly more of the latter, higher standards of living, and increased discretionary income. The concentrated urban populations formed an emerging market of sport consumption, fuelled by 'watch time' slots' conformity,  the  telegraph and print media, which contributed to the further development of formally organised  sports and created interest on a national and international level. Transportation improvements centred on the railroad during this period, which allowed supporters of clubs to follow their teams on away games.  A significant difference between English and American sport values was the rejection of the English model based upon 'muscular Christianity' and amateur ideals of athletics in an American ideological culture of freedom and equality. As an alternative to the 'amateur' system prevailing in university sport at the time, the dominant culture value, based upon competition, was widely accepted within the United States. It was a culture, which was extensively influenced by entrepreneurial commercialism that emerged within post-Industrial Revolution America. Unlike in England, where the

amateur ethos-related values largely persisted, American society in general and university level sport in particular were not deeply influenced by such values and in the latter institutional settings a different approach was adopted.

In addition to the major disposition to the culture of 'freedom' and 'equality', which was incorporated into the Constitution of the United States and serves as the foundation of United States' society, others included the contribution and role of the 'Lombardian Ethic' within sport in the country. The 'Lombardian Ethic' was based upon the belief that competition was placed above all other values; its central tenet was determined by the belief that winning is the reason for competing. The colonial settlers, instilled values that are prominent in United States' culture today: the hard-work ethic and self-improvement are regarded as significant contributors to the temperament of American people, which became underpinned by the virtue of 'single mindedness' narrowly focusing on occupational success with other values subordinated to it. Furthermore, another influence on the importance of winning is seen in the political system with the interaction between 'State' hegemony and US society, on which Sage (1998) observes that it is not possible to be unaffected by it. Hence, within the 'State', capitalism, commercialism and class structures have a pervasive influence on society.

The literature review of historical and socio-cultural factors that have contributed to shaping organised sport in both countries, lends evidence to the significance of the above inter-related shaping determinants in the amateur (participation)-commercial/professional (winning) ethos continuum debate. The post-Industrial Revolution impacts on contemporary sport in the 19$^{th}$ century served as the starting point for this study. It is around this time that 'amateurism' and 'commercialism' had significant roles in the development of two contrasting university sport systems in England and the United States. These shaping factors provide a contextual rationale, which underpin the institutional ethos, organisational framework and policies in university sport at national (BUSA/NCAA) and local levels (UCW and NNU).

**Aim 3: Critically examine the organisational structure along with relevant policies of BUSA and the NCAA in order to provide the contextual settings of the two local institutions as a precursor to comparison of 'ethos' within the two institutions**

The extent of the importance of winning within the two national university organisations (BUSA and NNU) was evident from the literature review information in terms of ethos, organisational structures and policies. Similarly, information derived respectively from

UCW and NNU documentary and empirically generated data sources provided a basis for gauging the extent of the importance of winning at 'local' university level in accordance with four identified perspectives: (Social Factor, Infrastructure, Environment, Attitudes).

From a 'national organisation' point of view, BUSA is an organisation, which represents a persistently 'amateur' ethos institution with an organisational strategy that has facilitated student-run management at all levels since its inception with the formation of the University Athletic Union and its focus on providing a wide range of sports and championships. BUSA employs only 13 full-time staff members but relies on a cohort of volunteers to administer one of the largest sporting programmes in Europe. It is a non-profit organisation with over 55% of its revenues in 2002 generated from a paying to play philosophy of student-athlete subscriptions; sponsorship in 2002 accounted for only 5% of the total income revenue. These are indicators of absence of any real 'commercial' pressure, which might affect the organisation's ethos. BUSA has a governance structure that includes representation of student athletes at the top levels (e.g. the General Council) vertically down to positions assuming volunteer coaching roles within the member clubs of the AU. A further example of the decentralisation structure of BUSA was seen in the interview comments by the UCW Director of Sport (2003) where he indicates that the, "the organisation and management of those sports is down to the university, so the structure is controlled by BUSA in one sense, but the organisation and administration of BUSA has within this institution, has no influence over that". The merger process between the UAU and BUSF to form BUSA in 1995 was initiated by a student-composed Report, an acknowledgment of student empowerment within the organisation. The fundamental goal of Athletic Unions lies in offering the best possible service for the student– athletes. The AUs are administered on a democratic basis and are generally oriented to the philosophy of maximising student participation.

In the United States, the creation of the NCAA as a nation-wide organisation emanated from a need to control alleged and actual brutal tactics within college football and serve as a form of social control agency because of the prevalent win at all cost attitude. The importance of ethics in intercollegiate sport today is seen at the local level in the interview comments by the NNU Athletic Director (2003) where he acknowledges the NCAA has,

"a huge influence on the control of ethics. They don't leave much to chance. It is all laid out, I have a manual that is probably 2-inches thick on rules and regulations. Every coach has to pass a test in the beginning of August, they have to pass a test on all recruiting rules."

The Association has accepted a dominant culture value that fosters 'fierce' competition within all of its levels. NCAA operates under a professional administration, comprising full-time employees at its national headquarters, and as a business enterprise, with over $357 million (£181 million) in revenue in 2002. Commercially inspired values were instilled from the beginning of inter-collegiate athletics events, with a series of rowing contests between Harvard and Yale that drew an estimated 1,000 spectators. Examples of the importance of 'commercialism' can be seen in the 'professional' approach adhered to that is epitomised in the athletic scholarship and full-time coaching positions created with a focus primarily on a 'winning' mentality. Further examples are seen in: the organisational deviance of the Athletic Department from values instilled by the university; intercollegiate athletics providing a source of national entertainment in the United States; Athletic Departments directly linked to expanding market forces as a result of the organisational deviance from the institutions' values and mission statement; a belief prominent within the NCAA affiliated member institutions that 'those who spend the most wins the most' illustrated by a grant-in-aid system, inflating cost of football programmes and competitive attitudes within football coaches; and commercialised mass-market sport (e.g. men's football and basketball) through the role of television contracts as illustrated by the agreement between the Central Broadcasting System (CBS) in 2002 for the exclusive rights of the NCAA Division I Men's Basketball Championship over an eleven-year agreement for a minimum of £3.25 billion.

**Aim 4: Compare perceptions of (administration personnel, coaches, and athletes) at UCW and NNU regarding sports programmes delivery, from Social Factors, Infrastructure, Environment and Attitudes perspectives**

The data generated on the Social Factor, Infrastructure, Environment and Attitude perspectives within the 'local institutions' (UCW and NNU) may provide only a snapshot representation of the situation in the wider context in both countries. However, for both UCW and NNU participants, the data supported by the literature (refer Chapters 2-3) do provide evidence on a number of factors. At UCW, 'Social Factors' identified as contributing to the importance of winning included the institution's value attached to sport associated with 'participation' rates, and administrative personnel's acknowledgement of importance that societal impact has on individual sport values, with

'fair play' and 'equity' issues as important features. Evidence supporting 'equity' in athletes' experience was seen in figure 5.6, which shows that 20% of UCW athletes chose "social interest" over "playing sport", whereas only 8% of NNU athletes in figure 5.7 were so disposed. Additional evidence is seen in the interview comments of the UCW Coach (2003) where he acknowledges that,

> "…in terms of student life here a lot of their (athletes) priority is not on being an athlete, it's on being a student and when we get them on court we have to spend a lot of time on the court with them trying to motivate them to get this culture of wanting to win."

UCW athletes thought wider societal values had a 'major influence' on their personal values related to winning where 38% accepted this viewpoint (refer to figure 5.8 in Chapter 5), a feature that was suggested by Malcolmson (1984) (refer Chapter 2). The 'amateur' value was accepted as a persistent theme within all aspects of English student sport within this study, although evidence contradicting the literature-derived information and responses by administrative personnel was revealed in the interview comments of practising athletes, who acknowledged a strong pre-disposition towards 'winning'.

Social factors influencing the importance of winning on the participants at NNU embraced: a 'winning' ethos (seen in the responses of administration and the basketball coach); interview comments by athletes referring to a 'balanced' experience over a winning at all cost mentality; disparity found in expressions by NNU administration/coach on the importance of winning as the primary motive of NNU athletic department as opposed to the athletes view of a 'balanced' experience; and administration acknowledgement of success measured on the 'wins' and 'losses' of the teams. Further support of the disparity of values on winning between administration and athletes is seen in the acknowledgement of NNU Player 1 (2003) in his interview comments that,

> "…our coach definitely places an emphasis on winning. It is a lot more enjoyable and probably a lot less stressful when we are winning. He has pressure from the president and the athletic director to get this program winning now!"

Other supporting examples were seen in the administration intimation of 'co-dependence' between society and the NCAA; forces such as 'external regulation' and 'institutionalisation' affecting the institution's sport programme delivery; societal values based on 'fierce' competition; and evidence seen in (Chapter 5) figure 5.7, where 92% of NNU athletes chose 'playing' over 'social interest'.

The differentiation revealed in the 'Infrastructure' section in place at UCW and NNU lends additional support to the thesis of contrasting ethos that emerged in the 'Social Factors' section. The infrastructure established at UCW under BUSA regulation represents an inclusive participation consistent with traditional 'amateur' ideals. Evidence for this assertion was seen in: relatively inefficient management within the roles of the AU, exemplified by the Director of Student Sport and club officers' inability to provide competitions that satisfied athletes; the responsibilities of the Director of Sport and basketball coach centred on academic affairs rather than on sport *per se*, administration acknowledging the limited organisational empowerment of BUSA over the member institutions, a situation, which lies in the separation of the Athletic Union from the institution and driven primarily by student elected positions; the Director of Student Sport and the 'amateur' approach to the position with previous experience limited to a degree in Sport Studies and the student elected vote as the only requirement in obtaining the position; administration acknowledgment of a wide range of sports opportunities that exist within the Union, ranging from elite to participative social experiences. Further support is seen in the interview comments by the UCW Coach (2003) where he acknowledges, "…within the BUSA organisation people changing roles every year. The university sport in this country with the exception of five or six Ivory Tower University's is still more of a social thing." At NNU, the influence of the Infrastructure was seen in: administrative control of the Athletic Department; the financial grant-in aid system in offering 'full-ride' scholarships to athletes, which in turn promotes an 'elite' model within the Department; the commercialised prizes at stake, an example of which is the basketball coach's reference to his team as the 'revenue' sport for the Athletic Department; and the administration recognition that the 'NCAA' organisational policies have a 'huge influence' on the athlete's experience, which also can be seen in the Athletic Director's comments on the NCAA manual being '2-inches thick', thus symbolising the importance placed by the NCAA on regulation procedures.

Clearly, the athletes' are influenced by their experiences within their relative 'Environment', where the organisational policies of BUSA/NCAA and the administrators and coaches variously involved in sport in the two universities affect these experiences. The UCW Athletic Union is centred primarily on an 'amateur' ethos, which influentially impacts on all aspects of student athlete experiences. The ethos is seen in a range of features: separation of the Athletic Union from the academic department of the School of

Sport and Exercise Science; academic studies identified as the most important sphere of endeavour by UCW administrators; the broad spectrum of opportunities available for student –athletes; some two-thirds of athletes believing (see figure 5.24, Chapter 5) there was an 'above average' to 'very high' mass-participation ethos within the Union; student subscriptions as the main revenue source for the Athletic Union, thus, reinforcing a 'paying to play' philosophy; and a strictly limited commercial ethos (refer figure 5.26 in Chapter 5). Further support of the amateur (participation) ethos over the winning ethos at UCW was seen in the UCW Director of Sport's (2003) opinion that,

> "…I would say more participation. Maybe 65% of athletes are here to participate as opposed to 35% to win.  There are only a handful competing at the toughest level and the rest of them are participating."

In contrast, the NNU Athletic Department has a significant commercial enterprise orientation that drives a 'winning' ethos: administration recognises the success of the Athletic Department, which depends largely on the basketball team and the amount of games they win; the basketball coach accepts that winning is very important and the Department does not need to apologise for it as the basketball team is the 'revenue' sport at the Institution; and among the athletes themselves, a small minority (10%) believed there was a 'very high' pre-disposition towards a social ethos (refer figure 5.29 in Chapter 5 ), only 8%  believed a 'very-high' mass-participation stance was taken by the Department (refer figure 5.25 in Chapter 5), and 72% indicated an 'average' to 'above average' commercial environment at NNU existed (refer figure 5.27 in Chapter 5). Further support of the commercial (winning) ethos emanated from the interview comments by the NNU Athletic Director, 2003 where he said:

> "…Ultimately though, men's basketball portrays the image of the athletic department and they are judged on wins.  There is an old saying that went when I taught at the high school level, 'the school year went as the football team, if the football team started well, then we would have a great school year.  If the football team had a lousy year, then the school year would be rather lousy.' The attitudes on this campus are based on men's basketball."

With regard to dominant 'Attitudes', at UCW administration acknowledged 'academic study' as the main reason why students enter the university and views on 'success' associated with high participation rates contrasts with a majority of athletes placing emphasis on winning competitions (64% of athletes preferred playing over academic studies, refer figure 5.30 in Chapter 5) with 40% of athletes having a 'very high' level of ambition within their sport (refer figure 5.46 in Chapter 5). Further support of administration's acknowledgement of an 'amateur' approach within the department was

seen in the UCW Coach's (2003) interview comments, where his primary responsibilities are:

> "as a full-time lecturer I want to make sure these players leave with a good degree. I would say that the academic background is more important. If they all start failing exams, I would have to look at my job as a basketball coach and wonder if I am spending too much time towards basketball and not enough towards my full-time position as a lecturer"

Dominant 'Attitudes' revealed within the NNU Athletic Department included: administration recognition of success measured in the amount of 'wins' and the income generation of the associated teams; a contrast in views of the coach (emphasis on winning) seen in NNU Player 1 (2003) interview comments where he acknowledges that:

> "Our coach definitely places an emphasis on winning. His first year back we win 5 games, he has pressure from the president and athletic director to get this program fixed now! He takes the pressure from them and puts it on us."

The NNU coach's emphasis on winning was in contrast to the majority of athletes (64%) believing a 'degree' is more important than 'winning a championship' (refer figure 5.35). Of note here, however, is the extent of the importance placed by NNU athletes (48% believing it was 'very important'), compared with 64% of UCW athletes, as the importance attached to winning by the NNU athletes demonstrates a polar view to the commercial/professional (winning) continuum that was evident in the literature review of the country and national organisation levels.

Some of the empirically generated data revealed different country and national scenarios over local institutional scenarios from those portrayed by the literature relating to the research topics (Social Factors, Infrastructure, Environment, Attitudes). From the local perspective at UCW, examples of polar trends from the amateur (participation) continuum that emerged included ineffective management within the student positions of the AU and the dissatisfaction of the participating athletes regarding the quality of competitions offered contrasted with perceived efficacy in administration and relevance of competition at BUSA level. Another example of contrasting scenario is the importance placed by UCW athletes on prioritising winning over both participation and social interest, which is seen in the interview comments by the UCW Captain (2003) where he acknowledged: "Winning. Winning is success. Anything else I couldn't really consider success" (UCW Captain, 2003). UCW Player 2 also commented that:

"…success for me is winning but winning competitively. If I got beat every week I'd die, I'd hate it. I love competition. I think that's what most players want."; "Winning. Winning is success. Anything else I couldn't really consider success" (UCW Player 2, 2003).

At NNU, the empirical evidence produced information contradictory to suggestions in the literature regarding the commercial/professional (winning) ethos with examples such as the level of support provided for academic studies within the Athletic Department at NNU, which was demonstrated through student management positions, academic tutors' support and the focus of the Department on eligibility requirements of the athletes. Moreover, the interviews within basketball players revealed perceptions of a 'balanced' experience, which should include academic studies and competition in sport, thus, representing a contrast in views of administrators and the basketball coach on the significance placed on winning as the primary motive of the Athletic Department. An example of the balance experience associated with UCW athletes are seen in the NNU Captain's (2003) comments that: ""…Some kind of complex formula between having fun and winning. I guess just enjoying myself." To some extent, these tendencies challenge the notion of the respective the amateur (participation)-commercial/professional (winning) ethos continuum of the countries and national organisations epitomised in figures 5.42 and 5.44 (see Chapter 5), where proportionately a higher percentage 64% of UCW athletes than NNU athletes (48%) believed 'winning' was 'very important' in their sporting experiences whilst at the institution. Such challenges to claimed or perceived orthodoxy serve to suggest that further studies are needed to more clearly ascertain the level of importance of winning within the national and local university institutional settings.

**Aim 5: From three levels of analysis (country, national organisation, and local institution) compare the extent of importance of winning in the two case study university institutions**

The starting point for the study was the 19th century post-Industrial Revolution and the impacts it had on developments of, and in, sport. Shaping determinants included urbanisation, social institutionalisation, discretionary income, technological, transportation and communication innovations. As institutional forms of sport emerged within England and the United States during the late 19th century, 'amateurism' and 'commercialism' came to influence the respective development of both university national sports systems. Despite some trends linked with professionalism and

commercialism in some sports (e.g. soccer, rugby league and boxing), the development of English university sport during the post-Industrial Revolution period adhered to an 'amateur' ethos that was instilled alongside the concept of 'muscular Christianity' in the Public Schools of the 19th century. It was these 'muscular Christian'-based values that remained within English upper class society; they were variously adopted or adapted by the emerging entrepreneurial and educated middle classes. Consequently, the values and norms based on moral codes of behaviour and character development of the Victorian era, were conducive to the development of university sport based upon 'amateur' ideals, which remained through the transition of sport into, and through the 20th century, which was increasingly exposed to 'professionalism' and 'commercialism'.

This was not the case for the development of university sport in the United States during the post-Industrial Revolution period of the later part of the 19th century. The aristocratic upper class and landed gentry who promoted the 'amateur' values that university sport would develop from in England, had little or no influence on American society during this time. It was the dominant value of 'competition', which was accepted by Americans, as exemplified in the political culture and institutions such as the 'State' with its hegemony over corporate based consumer capitalism, commercialism and class structures. The development of contemporary sport of the United States into the 20th century was influenced by both 'commercialism' and 'professionalism', and it was these values that were central to the creation and evolution of university sport in the country.

With the template for university sport established as a result of the shaping influences of the post-Industrial Revolution period of the later part of the 19th century and the role that both 'amateurism' and 'commercialism' had within England and the United States, the national organisations (BUSA/NCAA) included in this study mirrored, in several instances, the values highlighted in the socio-historical development of sport in both countries. From the examination of the overall ethos, the organisational structure and key policies of BUSA, it is clear that an 'amateur' approach has been, and is persistently pervasive. BUSA involves student-run management at all levels within the organisation; its central organisational strategy relies in the empowerment of the member institutions, more specifically the Athletic Unions and the management of student-sport in these Unions in promoting sport experiences on all levels (e.g. performance, social). The organisation has adopted purposefully an 'amateur' approach to the management of sport both structurally and financially with students as the driving force of the organisation.

The concept of 'paying to play' is fundamental to the financial operations of BUSA, part testimony to which is that over half of the income generation stems from student subscriptions. With no real commercial pressures influencing the organisation, the participants at all levels are influenced by the 'amateur' approach adopted by the organisation. BUSA promotes a sympathetic approach, which values success in the participation rates of students taking part in the competitions. The NCAA, on the other hand, inspires a performance, arguably 'elitist' approach, which is demonstrated by its 'athletic scholarships', the low (only 7%) over-all participation rate of students taking part in NCAA sponsored events, and the 'prize' at stake within the NCAA system, with examples such as the television contractual agreements running into millions of dollars. As a result of the intrusion of 'commercialism' within university sport in the United States, the 'prize' is the central motivation within university sport today, with outside pressures influencing the drive to adhere to a 'winning' ethos that permeates all levels of the NCAA. With considerable amounts of money involved, it is understandable and, perhaps necessary, that the NCAA is run as a business corporation. The rewards, which are so great, have made winning an important and, perhaps, the central objective of the organisation.

In addressing the overall situation at the two 'local' institutions, at UCW student sport resembles amateur-participation ethos features that were contextualised from the country and national organisation perspectives, examples of which are seen in the separation of the Athletic Union from the institution, students taking on management and coaching roles within the student-sport structure with administrators acknowledging 'participation' rates as the measure of success within student-sport, the infrastructure provided for training times, and athletes 'paying to play' within the institution. However, features that surfaced from the practising athletes at UCW represented tendencies that challenged the amateur-participation ethos continuum that existed within BUSA/UCW, some examples of which are athletes acknowledgement of a high importance in regards to winning as their primary motive in their student-sport experience at the institution.

Additionally, recent developments within (BUSA) show that the Association has implemented (2005) a structural change to the governing body and has provided a strategic vision for 2006-2009. Nevertheless, in spite of the change in structure of governance, the underlying philosophy of the organisation remains intact. The governance of student sport in the UK remains decentralised through the associated

member institutions and the Athletic Unions that oversee the management of the sporting competitions. Although, evidence emerged within the strategic vision of BUSA (2006b) that the Association has a clear emphasis on delivering beyond the current competitions programmes with the new emerging 'corporate culture', increased prominence is to be placed on examining ways to increase income from external sources and reducing costs of both the members of the Association and the organisation itself. As the participating athletes accounted for over half of the annual income for BUSA in 2002, the Association has recognised the need for a greater emphasis on 'commercialism' to relieve the pressure of member subscriptions for the management of student-sport (BUSA, 2006b). The strategy outlines potential solutions to the increased role of 'commercialism' such as promotion of events to appeal to a wider audience than purely the student community and improved commercialisation through the use of media outlets, such as the Internet for additional sponsors. The strategic points listed by BUSA (2006b) may well have an overall affect on the student sport experience at member institutions, such as UCW, in the ethos of the associated Athletic Unions in the management of competitions.

The review of documents at BUSA and UCW indicated examples of 'commercial' and 'professional' trends that are emerging within both the national organisation and local institution. As BUSA evolves over the next three years, its strategic vision (BUSA, 2006b) provides benchmarks with a clear emphasis on the increased role of 'commercialism' to develop the Association and provide a solid 'financial' basis for providing a higher quality experience for student sport in the UK. As finance, prizes and prestige come more to the fore, a more professional rather than amateur ethos and approach may come to have resonance in university sport environment. Already at UCW, the basketball programme, a model, arguably seen to be at the very least as 'semi-professional' has been introduced (2002); it is evolving into an established model for student sport across the University. This trend at UCW serves as an indicator for the importance of the 'professional' model that may well be associated with other member institutions and the associated Athletic Unions.

The Kruskal-Wallis Test intra-group comparisons of the UCW participating teams do have implications for the examination of the extent of importance of winning. Significant differences in ethos were revealed between the basketball and football teams with the basketball programme adhering to a more 'professional' approach as opposed to the 'amateur' student-led system of the football club. The 'professional' approach within the

basketball club typified by full-time experienced coaching and a 'scholarship' programme for recruitment of high-level athletes both domestically and internationally (factors, which may well have influenced basketball players' responses to the questionnaire items on attitudes to winning) is one more example, which challenges the amateur-participation orthodoxy that is pervasive at the country and national organisation levels.

At NNU, the Athletic Department demonstrates values associated with the winning-commercial ethos. Illustrations are seen in the 'professional' approach epitomised in the 'athletic scholarship', full-time coaches and the influence their attitudes towards 'winning' have on the athletes, the administrative personnel's acknowledgement of 'winning' as a main goal of the Department, and the 'prize' as the central force driving the organisation. However, features emerged from the empirical data that challenged the winning-commercial orthodoxy that was evident in the country and national organisation perspectives. A pervasive theme that emerged from the empirical evidence of practising athletes at NNU was a desire for a more 'balanced' experience, one that perhaps is indicative of a greater degree of parity between winning and participation attitudes, rather than the pervasive emphasis on winning first, participation second experience US general societal values and the national organisation (NCAA).

Recent developments within the NCAA indicate the strategic points listed by the Association to enhance the student sport experience in the United States over the next 3-5 years. A key listed development is a 'historically based' standard for the Academic Progress Rate (APR), which is a team based compilation that measures student athlete retention rates and eligibility. Notably important are the measures and emphasis the NCAA is placing on academic studies in the student sport experience. Although, the primary ethos of the Association remains with a 'commercial' approach, developments such as the APR may well have a significant impact on affiliated institutions (such as NNU) and their Athletics Departments. Additional items listed in the document centre on the 'control' of spending by the big-time Athletic Departments in Division I. The document reveals that spending in big-time college sports has significantly outpaced expenditures in higher education itself for several years (NCAA 2006a). The Presidential Task Force set up by the Association noted that spending patterns must change through fiscal reform efforts that will assist individual Presidents by providing clear, concise and

comparable financial data to help with expenditure cost in big-time athletics. This measure further supports the view that the Association is aware of the prevalent 'winning at all cost' mentality in collegiate sports. This trend to manage or control 'commercialism' within inter-collegiate athletics may well have an affect on the future of student sport at the affiliated member institutions.

The Kruskal-Wallis intra-group comparisons of NNU participating teams provided further examples of the blurring in perception and attitudes challenging the winning-commercial orthodoxy. Key factors centred on the difference in mean averages of the basketball and cross-country participants. As previously discussed (refer chapter 5) by the NNU Coach in his interview comments, the basketball programme at NNU serves as the 'revenue'sport for the department. The levels of financial support between the programmes are significantly different as noted by Sanders (2006), with examples included in the amount of funding provided for the 'athletic scholarship' and the level of support provided by the Athletic Department, such as the support through dedicated full-time coaching positions. Further factors that may well influence the participants' experience within the cross-country programme, as noted in Chapter 5, were the mentality and structural make-up of the team itself. As basketball and baseball are team sports and the cross-country running competitions involve individuals competing for team points, the mind-set of the participating athletes may well differ with cross-country runners having a more 'individual' perspective than basketball and baseball peers. Evidence lending support to this viewpoint can be seen in tables 5.3 and 5.4, where the mean rank for the basketball participants on items concerning financial support for playing, sport department's influence on winning attitudes, significance of off-season structures and the influence on participants' winning attitude and the importance of additional personal training is significantly higher than the cross-country team participants. The contrasting mean averages of these participating teams may well be influenced by the financial support and relative make-up of the teams themselves.

**Answering the Overall Purpose**

The study's overall purpose was to examine the extent of the importance of winning in university sport in England and the United States by specifically investigating historical and socio-cultural developments of sport in society in general in the two countries, looking into organisational structures and policies of relevant national associations for

university sport, and considering organisational structures, policies and programmes in two universities. Collectively, these country, national and local institutional investigations provided a context for the overall purpose of the study, for which conceptually an amateur (participation)-commercial/professional (winning) ethos continuum was adopted as a form of 'yardstick' to measure the extent of the importance of 'winning'. The starting point for the study was the post-Industrial revolution period that included socio-historical sport values that featured 'amateurism' influences in England (e.g. 'muscular Christianity' movement, 'amateur-gentleman', and concept of 'fair play') and the United States, which was influenced by a more 'commercial' approach with examples such as the 'Lombardian Ethic' and the dominant cultural attitude of 'competition'. The socio-historical sport values of England and the United States inherently affected the ethos, structure and delivery of student sport within both the national governing bodies (BUSA-NCAA) and associated local institutions (UCW-NNU).

To some extent, these governing bodies mirrored the forces emanating from each countries sport values. BUSA's 'amateur' ethos is seen in examples such as: student management and the volunteer approach to manage one of the largest sporting programmes in Europe; decentralised approach through the associated Athletic Unions of the member institutions; and the concept of 'paying to play' that is seen in the participating athletes member fees accounting for over half of the income revenue of the Association. Further examples of the amateur-participation orthodoxy is seen at the local institution level, where UCW case study participants provided examples in both the questionnaire and interview responses (e.g. institution's value attached to sport associated with 'participative' rates, administration's acknowledgement of importance of 'fair play' and 'equity', athletes choosing social interest over playing sport in the questionnaire results) that supported this view. The winning-commercial orthodoxy revealed in the United States socio-historical values were mirrored in many aspects at the NCAA-NNU institutions, where examples provided in the NCAA featured the 'athletic scholarship', the low over-all participation rate of students taking part in NCAA competitions and the 'prize' which is at stake through the television contracts and the millions of pounds that is generated through mass-market sports (e.g. grid-iron football, basketball). Further examples were seen at the local institution level, where NNU participants revealed a: 'winning' ethos seen in the responses of administration and the basketball coach; forces such as 'external regulation' and 'institutionalisation' affecting sport programme

delivery, and full-time coaches and the influence their values on 'winning' have on their athletes.

The factors on the importance of winning according to the amateur-commercial orthodoxy at the country and national organisation levels were supported in many aspects by the empirical data generated by the primary research instruments (questionnaire, interview) in the case study institutions. However, a 'blurring' of perceptions and attitudes emerged primarily from the participating athletes at both institutions that challenged the established orthodoxy, where in many cases, UCW athletes acknowledged a strong disposition towards winning first, participation second ethos and the NNU athletes wanted a more 'balanced' experience in their student-sport experience, highlighting a trend for a participation first, winning second ethos. Further evidence challenging the amateur-winning (commercial) continuum emerged in the review of the recent developments (documents) of the institutions involved in the study (BUSA-UCW) and (NCAA-NNU) in 2006, that highlighted a stronger disposition towards a 'corporate' culture within BUSA and the NCAA's benchmarks established to improve graduation rates within intercollegiate sport. The empirical evidence revealed in athlete responses, supported by the recent developments of both national and local institutions provides a more rounded viewpoint to the importance of winning in university sport in England and the United States, and such qualifiers should be taken into consideration for future studies.

**Evaluating the Research Process**

Evaluation of this research highlights a number of limitations. A noteworthy limiting factor relates to availability of primary and secondary source archival-type literature. For the historical socio-cultural dimension, literature on American university sports and the NCAA is diversely rich, whereas documentation on the history of English university sports and BUSA is limited in nature and scope. There is a clear potential here for further research into the historical developments of university level of sport in England (and indeed in the UK) to rectify the present relative imbalance in the quantity of source material presented on English and American university sport structures including BUSA and the NCAA.

The use of a multi-method approach in examining the extent of the importance of winning in university sport at UCW and NNU within the overall setting of the socio-historical context of sport in England and the United States and the university sport governing bodies, BUSA and NCAA, is both relevant and appropriate. However, one aspect of the multi-method approach, which contains possible limitations, is the use of the case study as a research instrument. Case studies may provide an impoverished basis for generalisations (Stake, 1995). Moreover, this study focused only on two national/local institutions, UCW/BUSA and NNU/NCAA within the university sport context and hence, raises the issue of extent of reliability and validity in relation to the overall picture of university sport (BUSA and NCAA) in England and the United States. However, Stake (1995) notes that strength of a case study approach is that of particularisation, where a researcher takes a particular case(s) and comes to know it well, not primarily as to the commonalities and differences of others, but what it is, what it does.

Cross-cultural or comparative perspective research is potentially problematic, because of cultural terminological and conceptual as well as cultural differences. These problems are particularly pertinent in empirical data generation and the choice of research instruments utilised to collect data. In the present study, the trans-Atlantic divide provides a context for terminological and conceptual differences, which can cause problems for meaningful comparisons. Efforts were made to minimise any cultural bias that the researcher might be impose. To this end, a multi-method (documentary analysis, questionnaires, interviews and observations) set of procedures was adopted together with the use of relevant contextualising literature in the research design. The use of the approaches in this investigation represents an attempt to see whether the case study results are robust enough to be applied in a cross-cultural context.

It is recognised that the study focus narrowly limited to two university level institutions cannot be seen to be representative of national situations. Moreover, categories within the study, research design, collection of primary and secondary source documents, the use of a case study approach (UCW and NNU) and the nature of their academic traditions and levels of sports performance excellence do not set either institutions amongst 'top-flight' institutions in their country. 'Top flight' academic institutions and those with notable outstanding achievements in the sports arena inevitably may well (and do) attract students with different academic and sports performance related profiles and with, perhaps, differentiated attitudes and levels of motivation. However, from the outset, the

study was not intended to be a definitive representative situational position statement. Rather the intention was to focus on two institutions to illustrate the perceived representation of levels of the extent of importance of winning within the selected settings. As such the case studies at UCW and NNU were not intended to be a stand-alone examination of the situation in the delivery of university sport in England and the United States but rather were selected in order to identify tendencies that are representative of the national perspective.

The piloting of data collection instruments such as questionnaires and interviews is important in the process of reliability and validity (Cohen et al., 2000). A 'pilot' questionnaire was administered to the UCW Men's Field Hockey team and the interview schedule was piloted with a selected administrator (UCW Sport Centre Manager). Because of constraints of geographical distance, neither the questionnaire nor the interview schedule was piloted in the NNU setting. However, in the light of informed personal experience within the US. institutional setting as a participant observer, knowledge and understanding of the relevant socio-cultural context, terms used and issues addressed in the UCW 'pilots' were suitably adapted to the cultural context of NNU research sample groups and individuals. It also needs to be emphasised that any terminological modifications did not alter the essential meaning of the questions posed and issues raised. There was no indication in NNU questionnaire and interviews schedules' responses that difficulties and or problems were encountered in the administration process. Nevertheless, it is acknowledged NNU 'pilot' questionnaires and interview schedules might have brought some added value to issues surrounding reliability and validity.

**Recommendations for further study**

A number of specific areas for further study are identified here:

- research into influences on the development of university sport and especially on historical and socio-cultural developments shaping university sport in the United Kingdom
- further investigation on the strategies, development and delivery of university sport programmes investigating female athletes and their perception on or attitudes to the importance of winning
- extension of this study to include a wider range of university level institutions to investigate further administrative structures and policies for university sport in BUSA and the NCAA

Further studies encompassing a larger sample of institutions within England and the United States would provide a more comprehensive investigation into the importance of winning within university sport in each country. The institutions chosen for this study were not considered 'elite' level institutions of sporting achievement on the national stage within their respective country. A range of institutions could be included drawing levels of university sport programme and delivery on all levels that exist in both England and the United States. Such extension would provide further evidence and so serve to enhance the reliability and validity of findings, as well as facilitate a more in-depth examination of the importance of winning within university sport in England and the United States.

**Concluding Comments**

Sport on all levels plays a significant role in, and has an impact on, society today. The importance of winning within university sport in England and the United States is managed through different systems that serve important, but different functions within their respective society. BUSA has one of the largest sporting programmes in Europe but relies on a cohort of volunteers, primarily students, in the management and administration of university sport within the country. BUSA's ethos essentially envelopes an 'amateur' approach, typified by widespread participation and recreational enjoyment as central features affecting the experiences for the student athletes that take part. The NCAA is a business-oriented organisation that operates on financial budgets into the millions. As a result of the prominence that inter-collegiate sport plays on the national stage, the competitions serve as a major form of entertainment for American society and induce commercial pressures that foster a 'winning' attitude within the organisation.

In general, this study's empirical data confirms the literature on historical and socio-cultural developments and current situation of sport in the two countries, the two national student sport associations and the two universities in terms of the existence of an amateur (participation)-commercial/professional (winning) ethos continuum. The study's conclusions lend support to a tendency in English university sport adhere to the amateur (participation) end, whilst in United States university sport, the tendency is towards the commercial /professional (winning) part of the continuum. However, the investigation of perceptions and attitudes of participants, primarily athletes in UCW and NNU as well as the review of the most recent university sport national associations strategic policy documents suggest that a degree of 'qualification' is required on the positioning on the continuum. It is clear that at individual athlete and local and national institutional levels,

there is some 'blurring' occurring with some tendencies at both polar ends of the continuum to shift to a greater degree of parity between 'participation' and 'winning' attitudes.

The contributions of this study suggest that a continuum exists between the university sport systems between England and the United States in regard to the importance of winning. This study has identified, highlighted and progressed the amateur (participation) aspects of the continuum associated with university sport in England and the commercial/professional (winning) end linked to intercollegiate sport in the United States. However, the empirical findings from the participants at both UCW/NNU does reveal a 'blurring of edges' within the continuum and highlights the ever changing needs of athletes within university in regards to the importance they place on winning within their sporting experiences. The original knowledge gained from this study that contributes to the research community is also closely associated with the use of 'triangulating evidence' and 'comparison' of university sport in both countries (England-United States) in analysing the importance of winning through the amateur-commercial continuum in the study from three different levels: historical and socio-cultural aspects of sport in each country; documentary and critical literary analysis of national governing bodies of university sport; and the empirical research gathered at the associated local institutional case studies selected for the study. The contribution of evidence from this study is a useful starting point into university sport systems and the impact on quality student-athlete experiences.

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**Appendix A**

Sample: UCW Questionnaire Transcript

    I.       Questionnaire: UCW Basketball Player

**Appendix B**

Sample: NNU Questionnaire Transcript

    I.       Questionnaire: NNU Basketball Player

**Appendix C**

Sample: UCW Interview Transcript

     I.       Interview: UCW Director of Sport (2003)

**University College Worcester**
**PhD Thesis**
**Interview with Malcolm Armstrong**

**Interviewer:** Josh Cooprider: PhD Research student at University College Worcester.

**Interviewee:** Malcolm Armstrong: Head of Physical Education and Sports Studies at University College Worcester

**Date and Time:** Friday 10[th] October 2003 at 10.30am

**Transcription of Interview:**

*Q.     Can you state your name and position with UCW?  Can you explain your main responsibilities and duties under your position?*

A.     Malcolm Robert Armstrong, I am the Head of Physical Education and Sports Studies here at University College Worcester.  I am responsible for the academic department, all the undergraduate programmes, Masters programmes, research profile of the institution 37 academic staff and nearly 850 students of sports science.  In addition to that I line manage the sports centre and recreation facilities although they are run with a separate Head of Sport Recreation Manager, Susie Hart.

*Q.     What is your background as an administrator?*

A.     Well, I've been a professional of sport all my life.  I started off as a Head of Physical Education in a high school, I spent 5 years there and then national coach and then senior national coach for rowing for Great Britain and then 6 years in world class competition mainly coaching at that stage then following a research degree in sports psychology in the mid 1970's I moved into University world of higher education initially as a lecturer in sports science and then, over 20 years ago now, the youngest head of department in the country – I guess by now I'm probably the oldest.

*Q.     You mentioned in a previous question you were the head of the academic side of things here at UCW, so you have no affiliation with actual student run sport?*

A.     Student sport here in this institution is run by the students for the students under something called the Students Union, they are affiliated to the institution but free and independent of us.  They receive a grant from the institution towards their ?? [45].  That is the tradition in all UK HEI's

*Q.     How does UCW rank in size compared to other Universities in England?*

A.     If it gets university status in September 2004, which is likely as it has degree awarding powers already - it's just a matter of the Secretary of State for Education ticking a box now under the white paper, it will be the smallest University in the UK.

*Q.     Do you think social values and sport are interdependent?*

A.     There is no question about it.  It depends a little bit on what you mean by social values of course, and also what you mean by sport, because they are 2 very bid

concepts which can range from family values, religious values, cultural values under the banner of social values and sport can range from leisure and recreation to competitive elite sport but however you might define those 2 broad categories, it is fairly clear that there must be a relationship between the two.

*Q.    I will rephrase myself; do you think social values and elite sport are interdependent?*

A.    Certainly, societies attitude towards for example, losing or winning or concepts like fair play and equity they are all societal values and there has to be… the extent to which they are valued or otherwise in a society will have an impact on sport, for example: if a society chooses not to value winning the world cup then it probably won't want to put any of the finances and systems into place in order to win the world cup, another society might value that.  A good example might be the eastern block countries, before the breakdown of the iron curtain, they would put huge amount of resources in to winning Olympic medals because that particular society at that time valued it in that way.

*Q.    Do you think your society places a pressure on an attitude towards winning or participation of sport?*

A.    I think my answer to that question is probably mixed, I certainly think that there are elements of UK society that puts emphasis on winning.  If you think of some of the press, the newspaper and so on, there is a huge pressure on something like the England Soccer Team to do well if they go to the world cup, and they get lampooned, is the only word I can use, if they don't do well.  So there are elements there where winning and losing are very important.  There is also a kind of attitude, a hangover from the past, where a good looser is seen as much ?? [101] as a good winner.  And there are also some views around that competition isn't perhaps such a good thing; that you ought to have everything with out competition, although that is kind of a 1970's thing.  Certainly, the present Government is recognising the importance of winning and money is being put into sport with the lottery and so on to try and improve the performance of UK teams.

*Q.    Do you think your society places this pressure or attitude on Higher Education Sport?*

A.    No.  I don't think there is any pressure on University sport to do well.

*Q.    Why do you think there is a difference between professional football or rugby in this country and then UK HEI and placing the attitude of winning on it?*

A.    First of all, traditionally HEI in the UK has only accepted a small proportion of 18 to 21 year olds.  When I was at University in the 1960's only 5 0r 6% of 18 year-olds went to University.  So in a way they were a minority group and what they did for sport didn't matter because there was such a small number of people playing sport in University, now-a-days with participation rates around 35%-38% of 18 year olds sport has a higher profile but it's seen as nothing to do with main stream sport which is professional clubs, professional sport, mainly soccer, I would say an over

emphasis on soccer at the expense of other superb sports which are less inclined to be driven by the market place and more inclined to be driven by the needs of ??[137] and most of the sports we are very successful at are world sports like rowing, is where the small numbers of people compete at a high level. So, the reason why University sport is seen as not in the main stream is because of numbers. The amount of publicity is very small with the exception of one or two which one can only describe as typical British events: The boat race between Oxford and Cambridge, which is a University sport, in theory any way that would have a world audience, but that's because it is such a historical event rather than the sport itself. Although it has a certain amount of appeal, a 150-year-old race between these two universities. So there are occasions for university sport and that is probably the best example of all, the second may be the varsity match that ?? [155] bigger audience but apart from that – there were student games at Sheffield, I don't know what the audience for that was, but it certainly wouldn't have gone into prime time TV.

*Q.  Do you find all of the Elite athletes going to a club at 14/15 and never playing University sport, and that is why there is no publicity because there are no top elite athletes playing University sports.*

A.  No, there are elite athletes playing university sports – there's no doubt about that. We've had some world-class athletes in the University here so they are there – but often it is for a series of sports which may not get the national publicity. If you looked at for example the popular press (not the broad sheets) you will see on any normal day 95% of the coverage will be on Soccer, and 5% on other… even while the world Rugby cup is going on at the moment you will see maybe a page of the Rugby Union cup but there still be 150 pages on David Beckham and what he's wearing this week. So it's to do with what sells newspapers so because people aren't interested in University sports which gets some world class athletes it doesn't sell those kinds of newspapers so it doesn't get the press. And that's the same on TV, the tradition for sport in the UK is almost held by 4 or 5 sports that command vast audiences and they haven't usually been developed strongly in universities, soccer is the better example, because soccer is run by professional clubs with their own academies – Liverpool, Manchester United, they have their own academies, they talent spot at 14 or 15 year of age and the kids go through the academy structure in that way.

*Q.  Do you think that one of the ways you could spear head university sports becoming part of the national scene is if you could get Soccer and you could get Rugby a lot more developed at University so instead of these kids at 14/15 going to a club they could come to university in a couple of years and develop at University. Do you think this could spear head University Sports getting more into the national scene here?*

A.  It's possible, but you've got to remember that those things require budgets and money and it's all to do with how you can generate income if you think of a basket ball game in America is a University basket ball game, a home crowd there would be about 85,000, to watch a basket ball game. We couldn't even get 35,000 to watch a professional soccer game, let alone a minor sport like basketball so it's about income and resources. It would be very difficult for a university to take on something like soccer and try and develop it because the income coming in to the university wouldn't pay for the running of the team because it is not run in a professional way,

it's not seen as the way of developing athletes.  In the states, the way to develop athletes is through high school and university so that you don't have that competition.


*Q.   So you think that is where the difference lies…*


A.   It's the value of sport in education, it is the way that sport is rooted in the whole of American culture, and the high school culture – it starts right there.  I've seen primary school in "Muntsee" (?spelling) a little town in mid America and the will have the winners league on the board in this little primary school and all the cups the kids have won.  You won't see that if you go to a UK primary school.  So, culture, sport is right in there, it's equal/as important to all other aspects


*Q.   What have been the major contributors in the personal development of your perception in social values? E.g. Religion, Family and friends.*


A.   There's no doubt about it, that the major influence for me in the early days was my parents.  My Father was a cyclist, a competitive cyclist and he was always interested in that, and he ensured that I went to a school where sport was valued highly.  Of course, that was a private school, we played sport every Wednesday afternoon and every Saturday, which is almost like a traditional American model of the public school system, developed many sports of course and soccer and rugby and those sports were mainly driven by English schools and were taken over to America and became American Football.  So my major influence was the school.  No doubt about that – every Wednesday and Saturday I played sport from the age of 11 to 18 and then we would train in the gym 2 or 3 time per week and we were very good, we were racing at the Henley Royal Regatta against Taybore Academy and Washington High school and we were as competitive as the Americans.  That was a very small chosen few.  And then I went on to study Sports Science at University.I suppose the other thing is, if you talk about socio-cultural factors, I think a lot of it comes down to personality of the individual, and I like to win a draughts even if it's a family friendly game.  I don't like being beaten.


*Q.   Do you think the social values of your ?? directly affect your approach towards university sports.*


A.   Oh yeah I am sometimes amazed and sometimes disappointed at the talent that is available in my own university here I look at the number of athletes and the talent and potential that they have who are either participating just getting started in sport – doing something, even being active at one level to achieving their talent and potential at the other end.  So my major disappointment is that somehow or other this institution, among, like all others the UK we somehow don't want to get hold of talent and celebrate success it's not seen as really…it's almost seen as being a bit too ?? really.  Success – let's not tell anybody we've beaten ?? at basketball, we just beat them and forget about it.  It is a fantastic achievement that the University should celebrate.

*Q. Do you think this come back to a certain type of British attitude, a major attitude that is present in British society?*

A. Well I think one of the key things is that if you compare the development of Sports science as an academic discipline and one of the interesting things about English universities is that a first degree in sport only emerged in the mid 1970's it was a Bachelor of Education degree in PE which was the degree that I did. Sports science is a relatively new discipline in the UK people have always said oh it's not academic you know – you shouldn't do it. Now it's a recognised discipline, but because of the view that academic lecturing subjects it's also seen by the university as recreation and play as opposed to having a major purpose integrating and socialising and making universities inclusive. Whilst winning is important, participation can be equally as important. We do have one of the highest death rates from coronary heart disease in the world here in the UK so we do need to do something about it, we have increased levels of childhood obesity and increasing levels of asthma amongst young children and higher levels of diabetes so there is a lot of work to be done there. It is arguable that physical education has totally failed in the United Kingdom. You could say the opposite, but it is arguable in a sense that we've got very low levels of participation everybody's tired, nobody wants to use a bike. If you go to Holland, which is only just over the north sea, everybody cycles to work. Very interesting ??

*Q. How much influence does BUSA have on the university structure here at UCW?*

A. Well that's a very good question, in some ways BUSA has considerable influence in that it decides what competitions it will run , so if there's going to be a fencing competition, or a squash competition, or a basketball competition, BUSA decides that so the league structure is decided by BUSA, which sports it will operate within is decided by BUSA but the organisation and management of those sports is down to the university, so the structure is controlled by BUSA in one sense, but students sit on BUSA and can influence that structure so in that way. But the organisation administration BUSA has, within this institution, has no influence over that what-so-ever.

*Q. What are the primary objectives of UCW student sport towards the athletes?*

A. That's a very difficult question for me to answer…

*Q. In your opinion then…*

A. I suppose the primary objective is to get as many of them playing as possible, and then to do as well a possible in the league they are in. I think another objective is to try and get some decent facilities that they can play in or on as the case may be, so I think they have 3 or 4 fairly, in that sense, simple goals.

*Q. Would you say in that order?*

A.  I think it's different in different teams, for example let's compare the attitude of the Rugby team, who play to win and do very well, with (and I'll invent a sport for the sake of argument) the tiddlywinks team.  So I think there are differences between the teams in the institution.  Some teams are more professional.

*Q. Can you give me a percentage of which teams are here to win, and win championships…*

A.  Well I would say most of the first teams if you look at for example soccer, which has 5 teams at the moment, I would say that the attitudes are quite different on the different teams, the kids are having a kick about on the 5th team and ?? the 1st team.  And that's quite right and proper.  It should be played at all sorts of levels.  So most of the first team players are as excited about winning, or enthusiastic about winning, they might not necessarily want to put the work in that is required because the active training is very difficult to suddenly begin to impose on an 18/19 year old if they haven't had the discipline since 14/15/16 years old.  When I was talking to you about my own background that was rooted in hard work.  The reason we won races is because we trained hard and I'm not sure now that what's going on in present high schools necessarily supports that view.  Most of the work in the UK for competitive sport is done through the ?? strategy of the school.

*Q. Do you feel that UCW student sport places an emphasis on winning towards the athletes?  If so what factors cause this emphasis?*

A.  Yes I do, I think there has been an increasing recognition amongst the student of the importance of winning and I think the factor that caused it would be the improved level of talent in coming to University.  As a sports science department has grown and we've attracted more high calibre students I don't mean just intellectually, but physical fitness, I think they have interacted within the institution and raised the expectation levels themselves.  It is no longer acceptable for the basketball team to put 5 people out in division 43b. So, I think the calibre of the athlete and the interaction, the social interaction with those students and their own aspirations is probably what has brought about the change in culture there amongst those teams where winning is seen as important.

*Q. Do your decisions have a direct impact on the experience Student athletes will have within UCW Student Sport?*

A.  My decisions don't – remember my job is to run the academic department so although I do think they look to the academic department for role models but my decisions theoretically will have no impact, althought they could for example, one decision which I took about 6 years ago to stop all lectures at 11.00 on a Wednesday morning in sports science, thus enabling as many students as possible to participate in BUSA, so that was a major decision that I took to support student sport, so in that sense that can be seen as being very supportive of student sport encouraging students

to participate.  No other department does that.  Although it's interesting, in the UK there has always been a tradition in every university of not teaching past lunchtime on Wednesday's so that all students can recreate on Wednesday afternoons.  And that tradition is still held, the whole of BUSA ??.  So it's still a strong lobby if you think about it – we don't have to keep Thursday afternoons free for music or Friday afternoons for Also having said how lax the attitude is towards sport, on the other hand there is this…and this goes back 100 of years to the public school system it was built on where we had a tradition of [playing sport on a Wednesday and Saturday's.  Those boys, and it was mainly boys and young men went into the universities and they took their traditions with them of the Wednesday afternoon sport.  And that's still in there.  It's quite interesting how the public school model has actually formed a basis of some of the structures…that's also to do with the attitude towards winning and losing.

*Q.  Do you think that traditionalism has a major part in why University sports are the way it is today?*

A.  Traditionalism, attitudes and the way that sport is perceived by society I think that all affects – even here today you still get quips about sport science, the stereotypes.  Even though our students come in with the best grade point average of the university.  So it's always a problem, they are identified by their subject ??  there is still an attitude there's no doubt about that.  Some of which is intensified by the students themselves.

*Q.  How much does administration and coaches determine the importance of winning for athletes at UCW?*

A.  Well in a sense it's ??

*Q.  In your opinion*

A.  Well, in  my opinion, coaching is the key to ??.  The administration just needs to be well organised – that's not difficult.  You need ggood coaching you don't necessarily need massive subjects providing you've got the facilities in which to play.  The sports are very good – those that we have the facilities for.

*Q.  Where would you rate the importance of winning towards your developing of student sport?*

A.  Me personally, high – I think it is very important.

*Q.  Where would you rate the importance of academics amongst athletes at UCW?*

A.   The importance of academics to a sports student is no different that it is for any other student.  Academic study is why they come to university.


Q.   *So you think the majority of athletes coming here are student athletes rather than athlete students?*


A.   There student athletes.  They can't come here with out certain standards and they can't survive here without the academic standards, because they'd be thrown out.


Q.   *Do you think athletes come here and pick this university because it's a sports university and they want to be on a better sports team or do you think their first decision in coming here is because of academics?*


A.   That's very hard, they come here because of the reputation of the Department which is to do with the learning and teaching they have received, it's to do with the facilities, the student teams it's a whole range of reasons.  You'll find that students don't pick Worcester for one particular reason – they hear sports has got a good reputation at Worcester.  They'll say that they heard the course is good, the lecturers are good the basketball team is good. So students don't come for one particular reason they come for a generic reason – sport's good at Worcester.


Q.   *So when people say 'sports' over here in reference to UCW they are combining academics and …*


A.   Yes, it's a combination.


Q.   *In your opinion what are the strengths and weaknesses in Student Sport at UCW*


A.   The strengths are there are a small number of teams who are taking an increasingly mature and technical approach to their success.  They are building year on year and that and they are understanding what is required to perform well.  So that's a real strength against a small number of sports and the number of sports who are taking that more positive view are better organised.  The weakness is not all sports are like that and of course lack of continuity because of the structure of the student sports officers, changing every year.  Students having control of their own budget and I think that allows for manipulation of the budget which I don't think is acceptable for sports.


Q.   *So would you like to see, down the road, that student run sport changes to administration led sport like the American system?*

A. I would like to se a combination of the 2 because I think University is about being independent and making decisions for yourself, acquiring skills, and I think being involved in sports related decisions as a student is important. So I think there are certain strengths of student engagement in key decisions – are you going to hire a coach or not, how good the coach will be, how much are we going to train – I think they are important decisions for the students to be involved with rather that being locked into a system. I think that is part of what University is about, I would like to see a system that is rather better administrated, certainly, there's a richer, ?? facilities and resources are there. Students involved in the decision making process for sure, but perhaps not quite in the ad hoc way they are at the moment.

Q. *Obviously most of this comes down to if there were more money in the system you could do a lot more things – that's common sense, how can you create more money within the University sport system toward better facilities?*

A. Well sports facilities are very expensive; the only real way would be through partnership. If the university can strike up good relationships with local clubs and so on an so forth then a facility that can be built, for example a soccer stadium which would be suitable for the city of Worcester, could be used by the university on Wednesday afternoons. The only way to get decent facilities is through partnership.

Q. *Is success measured by the amount of student athletes taking part in sport or by the amount of wins within student sport?*

A. Well for me I would probably incline towards number of wins, but that's because I'm quite competitive…

Q. *What do you think for the people already listed in sport what do you think the theme in general, what would you say?*

A. Well, student may well measure success in one way, but certainly the university might measure success in the number of students, Sport becomes more powerful in this university the more students are playing they have a stronger voice so in a university with 8,000 or 9,000 students if there is only 200 students playing sport the powers that be see that as a minority, so why should we spend £25,000 on a new swimming pool? But if you have of the 9,000, 5,000 playing sport there's that stronger voice. Success in terms of steering the budget could be the students actually doing something and want to improve the facilities.

Q. *What is success for you as an administrator, towards the student athletes involved in you system?*

A.   Well, success for me is the students graduating with their degree, because that's my job.  Success is seeing a fully rounded individual who is capable of getting a decent degree getting a good degree and having 3 great years playing on the university team and maturing and learning as a result of that.  Success for me is defined by the academic success of the student, but obviously, managing to balance the academic studies with personal performance are doing well.  A fully balanced, rounded graduate.

*Q.   What was your motivation for assuming this position?*

A.   My motivation for this position is wanting to have a major influence in education in sports science, and I think I do that.

*Q.   What is the ideal experience for a student athlete here at UCW; what would you like graduates to look back and say they got out of this experience?*

A.   Well, first of all I'd like them to think they had been challenged intellectually, because, obviously that's the reason they come to university.  Secondly, I'd like them to look back and say – I learned a lot there as a person in terms of how to look at the world, how to reflect as an individual, I learned a lot about myself at university – what my body can take, and how much training it can take and what my own attitudes are.  We used to have a saying in world class rowing "You've got to lose a few races before you can win any".  I certainly think that students should lose a few and win a few and I think they should not forget that sport should be enjoyable.  Most important of all – I'd like to see them still involved in sport.  My vision for when I retire is to see the 5,000 students I've seen as undergraduates out there in the world working in sport changing sport, and using sport for a number of purposes including social and the improving of people who have got talent.

*That concludes my interview with Malcolm Armstrong.*

**Appendix D**

Sample: NNU Interview Transcript

      I.       Interview: NNU Athletic Director (2003)

**Interviewer:** Josh Cooprider: PhD Research student at University College Worcester.

**Interviewee:** Rich Sanders, Athletic Director at Northwest Nazarene University.

**Time & Location:** Interview conducted on Friday, August 29[th] 2003 at 9:00am. Interview took place in the office of Rich Sanders at Northwest Nazarene University, (USA).

**Transcription of Interview:**

Q. *Can you state your name and position with NNU? Can you explain your main responsibilities and duties under your position?*

A. My name is Rich Sanders, I am the Athletic Director at Northwest Nazarene University, in Nampa Idaho. We are an NCAA Division II institution, competing in the Great Northwest Athletic Conference that includes nine other institutions, two in Alaska, Alaska Fairbanks & Alaska Anchorage, Seattle Pacific & Seattle University, Saint Martens, Western Oregon, Humboldt State and Central Washington. I oversee all personnel, matters in the Athletic Department, I have between 20 and 30 members on staff, we also have between 150 to 200 athletes that we are responsible for. I oversee an operating budget of approximately a half of million dollars, we probably fundraise another two hundred thousand dollars, we have salaries of staff that we oversee of another half of million dollars, and then scholarships budgets is probably somewhere around another half of million dollars. My primary purposes is personnel, budgets, fundraising, dealing with our booster club which is the Crusader Athletic Association, and then the daily process of dealing with the NCAA and the athletes with things such as eligibility, and lastly dealing with our staff. We have an office staff of 2 full-time positions, one, which does the day-to-day operations, and another one who handles all of our budgets and finances. I have been the Athletic Director one full year.

Q. *What is the size of NNU compared to a typical university in the United States?*

A. We are a small private Christian liberal arts institution. Our enrolment is approximately 1200 undergraduate students. We compete in a conference where we have schools with enrolments such as University Alaska-Anchorage with an enrolment of over 20,000 students, and then there are several schools with enrolment over 10,000 students. I think there are two schools beside us with enrolment around 1500 hundred students. In the conference, we are bottom three in size, I would say in the Nation, we would be considered a small university.

Q. *Do you think social values and sport are interdependent?*

A. I think in the U.S. system and the NCAA, they have to be intermixed.  In the last week, I went through a telephone conference with the NCAA on ethics in sport.  We had a situation where the incident was not very bad involving an athlete, but they covered it up.  Covering up the incident and not being truthful was huge.  This incident is going to cost this person 20% of his athletic season because of his ethical stand.  They have got to be intertwined, at our institution because we are a private Christian institution, I think our social values are set a lot higher than the norm.  Our students sign contracts not to smoke, drink, and use tobacco, pre-marital sex, so at our institution social values are huge. I have spent the last two weeks meeting with each team individually, the student-athletes with our institution and sign another document with our athletic department that they will live up to these standards and we challenge them that their word means something and when they sign those documents.  In our institution, they have to go together.

Q. *How much do you think the surrounding community plays a role in affecting the social values of the athletes at NNU?*

A. Idaho in general is a very conservative state.  It is a Republican state, it is very conservative.  Our school's religious denomination is Nazarene, which is a spin-off of John Wesley.  There are a lot of retired Nazarenes, we had 9 Nazarenes churches just in Nampa.  There are the expectations of the community for our athletes.  Our athletes are known throughout the community.  There are a lot of eyes watching them so, yes they are monitored and there are high expectations of our kids.  I would say this community does affect the social values.  It is a special area, a safe place to live and the people are great.  I think it is a very conservative area.  I would say yes, the community does make a difference.

Q. *What have been the major contributors in the personal development of your perceptions and social values?*

A. My background, the number one is my father.  My father is very strong Christian man.  When I grew up I wanted to please him.  I think you can relate to that Josh, we have similar situations with our fathers.  I think for both of us, our fathers are number one.  I am still fifty years old, and when I see my father I still want to please him, I don't want to embarrass him, I want him to be proud of me.  Because of his strong Christian beliefs, I grew up in the Church, which formed a lot of my foundations and beliefs.  My best friend was the preacher's son, so I was always active in Church groups and stuff.  I had a lot of great role models.  When I got into athletics, my coaches were my next role models, my next layer of fathers.  My high school football coach just passed away last summer.  That was tough for me to take.  When I get back to the Tri-cities, I try to see all of them.  My former coaches are all great friends.  Lastly, I would say my father, the Church, and then my coaches I had growing up.

Q. *Do you think the social values you have formed directly affect your approach towards university sports?*

A. I am kind of a freak in this day and age, I am almost fifty years old and I have never drank any alcohol, because of my background.  I get a little frustrated with athletes that can't come in a 1-year period and make a stand.

I think you have to make sacrifices if you want to be good in athletics. I think a part of that is putting some things away, putting some things aside and making some decisions. Personally, my upbringing raises my expectations of people that it is possible to do. To me when I was growing up and playing, athletics were the most important thing and I would do anything to get better. I would do anything my coach asked. I think it has changed a little bit since my days. I think I might have a simplistic view of it, but I think people should be able to sacrifice and put things aside for the betterment of the team and to be a better athlete. My upbringing is huge for the expectations of our athletes and of our program. I am not naïve enough to know that 18-22 year olds are going to be social individuals, are going to experiment, they are going to make mistakes. So I am not so hardcore off to one side where I am not realistic, I can forgive athletes for making mistakes. I try to keep expectations high. I think that is also a major reason why I am here. I taught at a public high school for fourteen years. Then I started working at the university level, but in the back of my mind, this situation where I am working at a private Christian university was always my goal. It was a place where I could see myself fitting. People that you are working with day-to-day are more towards where I was brought up and what I expected of people. It is a great place to work here because of the kind of people we have to work with.

*Q. How much influence does the NCAA have on the current university structure at NNU?*

A. It has a huge influence. We were in an organization called the NAIA, which was pretty much you could do about anything you wanted to do. It was up to you to make sure you were doing things correctly. The NCAA still stresses self-governance, they want you to patrol and make sure you monitor your program. They don't leave much to chance. It is all laid out, I have a manual that is probably 2-inches thick on rules and regulations. Every coach has to pass a test in the beginning of August, they have to pass a test on all the recruiting rules, it is an hour and thirty minute test, they have to get at least an 80% or they can't recruit. The calendar tells you when you can go out and talk to kids, when you can't talk to them. How many times you can talk to them in a week. It is laid out very specific. Ultimate responsibility is laid on the president of the university. Then to the Athletic Director. It is required we are monitored by a non-athletic group also. We have an athletic council that is made up of professors from all different divisions on campus. They monitor are youth. We have compliance position, which we make sure all our kids are eligible, they have to have a certain number of courses they are taking, and they have to make progress. Through each year they have to make certain progress towards graduation. We are required to have a student-athletic association, which you were very active in Josh. That is a mandate from the NCAA, it is something you have to do. They demand you have to have a senior woman administrator, in the States, it is still pre-dominantly male ran. There has to be a woman in a position of administration. Those are all mandated from the NCAA. We go to rules seminars, we are required to go once a year. We are required to go to the NCAA national convention once a year where you vote on legislation. We can spend two hours just talking about it, it is very detailed and expensive to fill all of the positions. Moving to this level, it creates more

staff positions that you need, a lot of paper work, and there is a little bit of fear where you always look at the handbook and ask yourself can I do this.

*Q. How big of role does the president of NNU have towards the Athletic Department?*

A. Huge. One big change this past year is that it is the first year that the Athletic Director reports directly to the president. In the past, our athletic director went through our academic dean, which was kind of a roadblock because it wasn't really the academic dean's interest. I report directly to the president. I meet with him on a weekly basis. Him and I make the decisions on all personnel hiring, everything goes through him. Then the board of trustees of the university make the final decision on what the president and I come up with. The president is very hands on. He is a former athlete at our university, and is very interested. Ultimately, if anything goes wrong, the NCAA is coming to him. He is very interested, he puts a lot of it on our shoulders, but we keep him informed on a day-to-day basis of the positive things going on and the negative things that occur. He is also instrumental in the budget. We did a lot of hiring this year, we improved a lot of salaries, and benefits, and he was instrumental in it. Our budget guy says yes there is that much money, or no there is not enough money. The president is the one who can override this and he did. The president has to be in on the decision or it is not going to go.

*Q. What are the primary objectives of the NNU Athletic Department towards your student-athletes?*

A. I think the primary objective is that they need to get a good education. Athletics are a tool to get kids to school. We want them to have a great experience here. I think the teammates and relationships you are going to develop are going to be life long. On the athletics side, we want to challenge people, ultimately we want to be successful. We have made a jump to a higher level of competition, so it a little tougher to be as successful as we want in terms of wins and losses. You and I are going to have a life-long relationship because of the four years we spent together. A lot of it when it is all said and done, you and I are going to forget the wins and losses, but we are going to remember the trips to Hawaii and all things off the floor are going to be remembered than the things on the floor. I think the relationships, development, at our institution many times we are introducing athletes to Christianity, hoping people will make some decisions, maybe inform kids that direction. I think it is developing the individual both academically, socially, spiritually, and athletically obviously.

*Q. Do you think the athletes look at the development in these areas and try to improve on them as well?*

A. I think your normal kid coming in that is recruited, athletics is the number one priority. Then you probably have family and the girlfriend, and then you got a lot of times the academic part lags and suffers. I think that our institution is not typical of that. We have pretty incredible students. Some programs here have to monitor the kid's mid-term grades, have team study halls, some kids here have to be trained academically to be able to survive.

*Q. Why do you think athletes coming in have such a hard time with academics?*

A. I think sports take a precedent starting at an early age, this is largely due to the way the American system is. A lot of these kids are two or three sport athletes in high school and sports fill the major role in their lives. Kids are playing two or three sports during the school year, they are playing all summer, and their focus is on athletics. They do whatever they can to get by academically. Our conference has raised the academic standards higher than what the NCAA requires. Our conference requires freshman to have a 2.0 where the NCAA only requires a 1.75, which is horrible. Our conference has a lot of private schools, which is known for their academics. I think our conference is not typical, I think some of our institutions within the conference have higher expectations. On the national stage, student-athletes focus on athletics compared to academics is way out of proportion. Many high school kids want to compete, they want to get scholarships, and it is hyped so much. Looking back on it, I spent a lot more time practicing than I did studying, luckily I was a decent student. So, I think we are fighting that all of the time. Then of course in our conference, we travel like crazy. We have four or five days on the road. I think that forces our students to be a little better at monitoring their studies. I think the American system is out of whack towards athletics rather than the academics.

*Q. **Do you feel the NNU Athletic Department places an emphasis on winning towards the student-athletes?***

A. I think right now it depends on which program you are looking at. I think it depends on whom you are talking to as well. Our booster club, which is all of our fans who contribute money to the athletics programs, you would see a huge emphasis towards winning. I think institutionally, we realize in our conference how much money you put into a program affects how competitive you can be. Even at that, our president of NNU has high expectations on the basketball program. Our men's basketball program is the main program and everyone wants it to be successful. Since we have made this move to NCAA Division II it has been a challenge. We have built into our coach's contracts expectations on winning. But I think we are realist, where we are funded now, we should be at least in the middle of the pack with the funding we have available. Some of our other programs like women's soccer and softball, where they are funded right now, there is no way we would expect them to be middle of the pack right now. Right now they are just trying to keep their feet on the ground, we realize they are going to be in the bottom third because they don't have enough recruiting money, they don't have enough scholarships, their operating budget is low. I think from the inside out we are pretty realistic. Obviously every coach wants to win every game or they wouldn't be a coach then. From that side of it there are some frustrations that develop because the coach wants to win every game along with the athletes. It is kind of which group you are looking at and who you are talking to. I think institutionally if our soccer program goes 3-18 this year, I am not firing the coach because he probably did a good job getting those three wins because every other program here at NNU is getting funded better then the soccer program.

*Q. Do you think the driving force behind the emphasis towards winning relates to the financial situations of each sports program?*

A. It is a big factor. I have coached enough where I understand the situation. You could have situations where you have all the money you need and you are losing and then we have a problem. I think the other side of it is institutionally there is also a dilemma between participation and winning because in are system the media covers your events. If our soccer team goes out and goes 0-20 for the season and that keeps coming over and over again, now the institution is asking questions about what kind of message they are sending out to prospective students. Our institution is run off of tuition, so if you are putting a negative product out there, are you hurting your enrolment, are you keeping kids away because it looks like you have a losing program. It is a dilemma because we can't afford to fund where we need to right now. We are offering it, we want to have students come to school to help us with enrolment and compete in the sport, but are you hurting yourself or helping yourself. Gonzaga University is a great example, their basketball team has been very successful in the last 5 years and because of this their enrolment has gone up considerably primarily because of the basketball team and the success they are having. Would it work for all schools, I think winning is the key in some areas, too much losing is going to hurt your programs. We are all worried about image, basically we are marketing for students, and so it is kind of a catch-22. We don't have enough money to fully fund all of our programs, our primary focus is men's and women's basketball, we have somewhat of a tier, they are funded the best, then you have volleyball and baseball, and then the rest of them are kind of in that third group.

Q. *Do your decisions you make have a direct impact on the experiences the athletes will have within the NNU Athletic Department?*

A. Yes. This year was a great example. I hired four or five head coaches, obviously that is probably the biggest impact I have on the athletes. I am picking the individual who is going to work with them day-to-day. I think we did a good job this year. We are working with the president on the budget, budget is going to affect what kind of experience they are going to have. How much fundraising they are going to do as a program, our baseball team fundraises over 50 thousand dollars a year. I approve schedules, so I control where the teams go and what they do, so I have some control in that. We approve scholarships, so the number of people receiving money is under my guidance. Facilities, how the facilities look, what the locker room situation is. Most of my decisions directly or indirectly affect their experience. I am fund raising, so how the booster club supports it, season ticket sales, all of those things in one form or another will have an affect on the athletes as well. But the coach is probably the biggest one.

Q. *What is the booster club, and what is their role with university sports at NNU?*

A. We call it the Crusader Athletic Association (CAA). It is primarily an alumnus, people that have gone to our institution, it could be local businessmen, lawyers, and they come back through fundraising events and help raise the money for scholarships. We have a golf tournament here in October. My goal is to raise 20 thousand dollars of that golf tournament. The CAA will re-invest that money back into scholarships. We provide fund-raising dinners and bring guest speakers to the athletes. A lot of

different ways, through the years we have done 3-on 3 basketball tournaments for fundraising. Mostly the CAA's interest is in men and women's basketball teams. They are going to do some fundraising to help our program get to a higher level. It is an interesting concepts, part of my job is concentrated on fundraising. I am expected to fundraise, I am actually the executive director of the Booster Club. The president of NNU recommended that I fulfil that role. The primary purpose for the CAA is to raise money. Most of the time it is a positive thing. A joke that is common towards booster clubs at universities is that there is "A fine line between a booster club organization and a lynch mob. " At a lot of big universities the booster club organization ends up running coaches out, putting pressure on the administration to fire them. We have not had that problem.

Q. *Where would you rank the importance of winning towards your goals within the Athletic Department?*

A. Where we are at right now, I think they would rank in the middle tier of goals we are trying to accomplish as a department. I think men's basketball we would really like to get it to a high level of winning. That is probably our top priority. Our women's program is already there. Our other programs right now we realize, I would love for all of them to win every game, but it is not realistic with our funding level. We are trying to get men's basketball very competitive and with the other ones it is going to be a slow, slow process. I think we made some big strides this year, but like I said if they get to winning 33% of games it will be a great coaching. I would say right now my goal this year was getting some good coaches in place. The next goal is to start working on funding, hopefully some winning is going to come from that. Our expectations are for all of our coaches to have winning seasons.

Q. **Where would you rank academics among the athletes at NNU?**

A. This may contradict on what we talked about earlier, but I think at our institution it is a pretty high level. Our conferences give out GPA awards and I think your senior year, men's basketball had the highest GPA in the conference. Women's soccer had the highest GPA in the conference last year. I think we were #2 overall in the conference for total GPA's for athletes. I think we have highly motivated student-athletes, if you have to pay 22 thousand dollars to go to school, I think you will try to get an education out of it. I think we put a good product, every program has got some challenges, which has some students at the lower end, but I think overall we have very highly motivated athletes who figure out how to study on the road when they are missing classes. Since I have been here, our graduation rate in men's basketball is probably around 90%. I think in our institution academics is very good, but we have about a 10% group that we have to work with. They struggle, they come in with poor educational background, not very motivated and hopefully with the coaches' help they can at least get a degree.

Q. *What do you think the role of the scholarship does with athletes and how it affects their competitiveness towards winning?*

A. I think there is a lot of ego involved with scholarships. With high school athletes in the States, there is a lot of prestige to receive a scholarship. At our level, it costs 20 thousand dollars for room, board and tuition. We have another school in our conference, Humboldt State that only costs 5 thousand dollars for the same package. State schools tend to be a lot cheaper than private ones like ours. We have to give our athletes 14,000 more dollars just to get them to the same level as if an athlete had no scholarship at a State school. Men's basketball has 8 full scholarships, they have a total of 160,000 dollars just in scholarship money. We are probably giving between a half million to a million dollars that we are giving our to are student-athletes. It is a competitive market in the U.S., if I am going to recruit a high school athlete to come play for us, there are probably 4 or 5 other schools that are competing for that same athlete. For us to compete in basketball, we need to get the maximum, which are 10 full scholarships. That is going to be a 200,000-dollar commitment.

Q. *Do you think with the money involved with the coaches' salaries and the scholarships for athletes enhance the importance of winning within universities sports?*

A. If everybody in the country was equal and tuition was the same, it would probably even the playing field out a lot. Right now it is pretty cut throat, our basketball coaches will spend 2-3 months on the road travelling and recruiting high school and junior college basketball players to come play at NNU. Basically, you are trying to outbid other coaches and sell the athletes on coming to your school. It is very cutthroat, that is where most of the violations from the NCAA come from. Illegal inducements from big schools happen when they slide money under the table to these athletes. If every school were a thousand dollars, the scholarships wouldn't be as crucial because most people could handle that themselves. That is kind of the concepts with the NCAA Division III schools. Most of those schools in our area are around 25-30 thousand dollars to go to, so it eliminates a lot of the athletes. For us we have recruited athletes for the basketball team from Turkey, Cameroon, and Africa, you played with a guy from France. We are not only recruiting in the Northwest, we are recruiting nationally and now even internationally. There is a lot of time and money spent on recruiting scholarships.

Q. *In your opinion, what are the strengths and weaknesses within the NNU Athletic Department?*

A. Strengths, I think we have got a network of people who care about the athletes starting with the coaches, athletic department, booster club and the institution as a family. Right now we have a young energetic staff, I think we have a coaching staff the kids really enjoy and like to play for. We have very good facilities for our level, we are improving those. We are in a good community that supports this the athletes. We are at about the right size community where we get support. The bigger schools, the Seattle market, they get lost, and nobody comes out to the ball games. The pocket we are in, our attendance is as good or better than anybody. In basketball we have crowds of 4,000 and average around 2,000 fans per home game to watch our institution. That might be a different concept in what they have over there.

Weaknesses, I think our location is a weakness, even though it is strength on one side, we are kind of isolated.  Our nearest competitor in our conference is about 7 hours by land.  Fairbanks, Alaska would be about 3,000 miles if you travelled that by land, then we go into California, so our travel.  Then we are isolated, we don't have a large population base here, and so we have to go out of the area to bring people in.  Our funding is not where it needs to be yet.  We don't have enough money for scholarships, we don't have enough money for operating budgets.  We moved to a new level.  We moved from NAIA to NCAA, so we are trying to make that adjustment, so right now it is a weakness.  We have a poor tradition out of our sports right now.  You go back to the winning, we have some of the sports with good traditions, some of them perennial losers, so that hurts them.  Another thing that is interesting, we have through the years predominantly produced a lot of teachers and preachers from our institution which our not in the high-income level in the U.S.  So, I think our alumni base, we don't have a lot of sugar daddies or guys you call with a lot of money that can give back to the program.  With our business program expanding, hopefully that will improve.  A lot of your big institutions have a lot of lawyers, doctors and successful business people who give back to the institution.  A weaknesses and strength, our recruiting window is narrow to what type of kid we can have here.  That is good because we have great people to work with.  It also requires our coaches to work a lot harder to find those kids.  That would be a quick run through of some of the strengths and weaknesses.

*Q. Do you think success is measured by the number of student-athletes taking part in sport or by the number of wins by the sport teams in the Athletic Department?*

A. I think right now success in men's basketball is wins.  Probably women's basketball but again it is probably not as crucial.  The institutional outlook right now, the number of kids participating in track right now is success as opposed to how they do.  The school sees track as an enrolment fundraising, a student generator, and I think track, soccer, softball, and even baseball they have been doing better every year, but those teams bring 25-30 students in.  You take 25-30 students times $20,000, they see that as ways to generate income.  Men's basketball is definitely judged on whether or not it wins or loses.  There is an old saying that went when I taught at the high school level, and it went, "The school year went as the football team, if the football team started well, then we would have a great school year.  If the football team had a lousy year, then the school year would be rather lousy.  The attitudes on this campus are based on men's basketball.

*Q. What is success for you as an administrator towards the athletes involved in your system?*

A. Obviously, I want our athletes to have great coaching.  I want our coaches to challenge them, to make them better.  When they leave, I want them to leave here loving their days at NNU.  Having great memories about the program, and again it might not all be around winning and losing, it might be an

experience with a coach, team-mates, they wanted to be challenged, they hopefully had the experience in getting to travel in the U.S., we have had guys come here who have never even travelled, we are taking them to Hawaii and other places where they are seeing the U.S. Broadening our athletes outlook on life is ultimately important. Everybody wants to win, so developing the intangible things towards our athletes is very important. Spiritual growth is important as well. I am looking at proving programs and facilities to enhance the experience for our athletes as well. I see myself as a mentor, we have a lot of young coaches, I have been in coaching for many years, and hopefully I can put some of that wisdom out to them. A lot of our coaches have gotten to a high place pretty fast, in that I went the slow way up, in that I learned some things in dealing with parents. Some of these young coaches are learning that fast and hard. That is where I try to help them.

*Q. What is your motivation for assuming this position?*

A. When I was a head coach the last four years, the individual assuming the athletic director position was by nature real quiet, basically he was not very involved. I think I was a little frustrated with that and I think I saw some things that I could bring like mentoring young coaches. I think I have a good ability with the community and I enjoy going out and shaking hands and talking to folks and working with the community so that was something that interested me. The challenge of coming to this new level of the NCAA to see where we could go. It was an opportunity to an Athletic Director at an NCAA Division II school. I think that also intrigued me. It was a scary first year, I didn't know what I was getting into. I think the scariest part of the job is balancing the budgets. The personnel part is the most overwhelming part of it, I think the chance to take it to another level is what intrigued me the most.

*Q. What is the ideal experience for a student-athlete at NNU?*

*A.* The ideal experience first of all would be to have success in their sport. To have team success and to have individual success. I think support by the student body is a way to have a great experience. Our students are pretty good at coming out and supporting our teams. Support from our booster group I think increases the experience, the travel, getting to see parts of the country, obviously getting a great education, when you get done with that athletic experience hopefully you are going to walk off that platform with a diploma in your hand that is going to open some more doors for you. I think the life long friendships that you are going to develop with your coach and your teammates are on of the most important things you can take from this experience as well. You can't put a price tag on that. In short, that would be an ideal experience in my mind.

**Appendix E**

Sample: Consent for Research Participation at UCW & NNU

**Appendix F**

Sample: Permission to Conduct Research at Collaborating Institution:  UCW

**Date:** Thursday, May 9<sup>th</sup>, 2003

**To:** University College Worcester Graduate School

**From:** Malcolm Armstrong
Head of School of Sport and Exercise Science

**Re:** Permission to Conduct Research

**To Whom It May Concern:**

Josh Cooprider has been granted permission to conduct research at University College Worcester for the duration of his PhD program. Josh is pursuing a Doctor of Philosophy in Sport Administration.

Josh will be working in conjunction with the Director of Sport (Malcolm Armstrong) and the following resources will be available on campus to help aid in his research:

- Access to library
- Computer access
- Interviews with players, coaches, and administration
- Questionnaires handed out and completed by players, coaches and administration
- Gathering documents from the athletic department
- Documents such as budget expenses allowed for sport teams etc...

Sincerely,

Malcolm Armstrong

**Appendix G**

Sample: Permission to Conduct Research at Collaborating Institution:  NNU