

AN INVESTIGATION COMPARING DIVISION I-A, I-AA, AND I-AAA
UNIVERSITY ATHLETIC DEPARTMENTS AND THEIR SPENDING AS IT
RELATES TO TITLE IX AND NCAA REGULATIONS

THESIS

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by

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Life has a way of taking you on a journey that you never thought was possible. No matter how great the adventure, one must always remember that it was never done alone.

I want to especially thank my Dad who has worked two jobs, so that I could graduate debt free. No one could have a Daddy as special as you! - I Love You! Mom, thanks for always being there for me! You are my rock and I could not have made it through this experience without you by my side. - I Love You! Colton, thanks for being so patient and caring. - I Love You! And last, but definitely not least, to Luke, you make my life complete, thanks for holding my hand and always being there for me. - I Love You!

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA universities are required by law to establish gender equity within their athletic programs. It has become evident that over the last few years the revenues and expenditures for such athletic programs in many institutions have shown a substantial increase. With this increase, it is imperative to investigate whether or not these institutions have been able to maintain the parity required by Title IX.

Intercollegiate athletics have been and always will be a topic that attracts supportive interest and involvement, as well as heated opinions and controversy. The need for spectators to be involved in the game has left many athletic programs across this nation vulnerable to legal and ethical scrutiny. This investigation will address fiscal planning, spending, and their incorporation, as well as implementation of Title IX. The purpose of this study is to gather factual information to determine whether or not expenditures of Division I-A, Division I-AA, and Division I-AAA have followed the provisions of Title IX. Universities' athletics (men and women), expenditures, and gender are the areas affected by Title IX. Each of these components operates independently within the athletic department, but must also function within the overall parameters set by the university.

The president of each university governs the athletic department, the budget, and the academic progress of its athletes. The president must address contemporary athletic parameters set by the university.

The president of each university governs the athletic department, the budget, and the academic progress of its athletes. The president must address contemporary athletic programs as a separate business entity within an educational setting (Cowan, 2005).

This supervision imposed by the president and the athletic conference includes athletic policies, eligibility rules, and length of seasons, travel policies, and time demands placed on students. He or she must also oversee all of these concerns, which must be equitable for both male and female athletes. The ultimate goal for any athletic program and university system is to build a competitive program, keep it financially balanced, and stay within NCAA regulations and Title IX.

Many college athletic departments are now relying on various forms of outside revenues to build or expand existing programs into premier programs, including the broadcast media, corporate sponsorship, ticket sales, fundraising, licensed products, and concessions. These forms of revenues are earned through joint participation with the university and the outside source. Each of these brings in funds that are then distributed to the various sports at the discretion of the Athletic Director. The division of income also includes unearned revenue, such as donations for scholarships that also enhance the financial independence of athletic programs. All of these monetary resources, according to Title IX, must be equitably distributed between male and female sports. Not only is the outside funding regulated through Title IX, but also the expenditures. Financially providing for each sport also falls under the same guidelines. Expenditures in an athletic

program include coaches' salaries, facilities, equipment, and travel to name just a few. The effort for both athletic director and the university is to facilitate an athletic program that is competitive, demonstrates fiscal accountability, while adhering to all Title IX regulations.

The intention is to determine how and where each university studied spends its budgetary funds, and to point out if the expenditures of men's and women's athletic programs of specified universities are in compliance with Title IX requirements, while at the same time, establishing whether or not all revenues and expenditures are equitably divided.

Purpose of Study

Title IX requires that expenditures for men's and women's athletic programs be within 5 percent of the ratio of men to women in the general population. The purpose of this study is to determine whether or not the expenditures and incomes of Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA athletic departments conform to Title IX requirements and gender equity in college sports. Athletic Departments conform to Title IX requirements and gender equity in college sports by comparing the data on participation, scholarships, operating budgets, recruiting budgets, and coaching budgets from NCAA reports and investigations.

Significance of the Study

Many Division I athletic programs are exploring the major areas of fiscal responsibility, commercialism, university academics, earned and unearned revenue sources, expenditures, gender equity, organizational structure, and transparency of athletics operations (New Task Force, 2005). The NCAA Task Force has created a new direction by fixing the determinants and stopping the trend where one sports program overrides the other. Their number one concern is to focus on the future of intercollegiate athletics. This positive trend will allow athletic programs of universities to flourish. This study is to determine how and where each of the universities' athletic departments spends their budgets. Patty Viverito, chair of the NCAA Committee on Women's Athletics stated, "...that expenses are escalating at such a pace in intercollegiate athletics that they offset any gains overall for women" (NCAA Study, 1997). It is imperative for institutions to demonstrate that the expenditures of men's and women's athletic programs are in compliance with Title IX requirements, as well as demonstrate whether or not these expenditures are spent equitably and appropriately. Information such as this will give universities the opportunity to reorganize their programs according to Title IX specifications if necessary. Overall, this study is designed as an efficient means to supply universities and their administrators with valuable and instructive information.

Hypotheses

1. There is no significant difference in the operating expenditures and incomes between NCAA men's and women's Division I-A and I-AA athletic programs.
2. There is no significant difference in the operating expenditures and incomes between NCAA men's and women's Division I-A and I-AAA athletic programs.
3. There is no significant difference in the operating expenditures and incomes between NCAA men's and women's Division I-AA and I-AAA athletic programs.

Limitations of the Study

1. The results from the institutions investigated are not generalizable to other universities.

Delimitations of the Study

1. All institutions investigated were selected from Division I athletic programs.
2. All institutions investigated were categorized by Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA athletic programs.
3. All institutions investigated included both male and female programs.

Assumptions

- 1 The data provided by the institutions investigated is current and accurate.

Operational Definitions

1. Corporate sponsorship – usually requires a university to allow a corporation the right to commercially enhance its name or product through increased visibility and or sales; in return the university receives monetary compensation (Verner, Hecht, & Fansler, 1998; Howard, & Crompton, 1995).
2. Expenditure – the act or process of paying out or spending, in order to make use for a specific purpose (Orszag, & Orszag, 2005).
3. Fixed Income – are those which pay a set or fixed amount of money to their owner/holder at specific times (About.com, 2005)
4. Fundraising – when focus is on obtaining donations from individuals (Howard, & Crompton, 1995).
5. Javits Amendment – states the legitimate and justifiable discrepancies for nongender related differences in sports (Lopiano, 2002).
6. Private donation – considered primarily as a one-way transfer that is entirely voluntary to the donor's specific organization of choice (Verner, Hecht, & Fansler, 1998).
7. Revenue – the total income produced by a given source; the gross income returned by an investment (Orszag, & Orszag, 2005).

8. Trademark – a word, phrase, symbol, design, or combination; conveys, identifies, and distinguishes the quality of the products or services from others (Bacal, & Johnson, 2003-2004).
9. Trademark License Agreement – the licensor, or university, permission is granted to the licensee in order to maintain certain products with a licensor's mark (Bacal, & Johnson, 2003-2004).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Controversies are developing, regarding the expenditures and incomes of Division I athletic programs. In the quest to be nationally recognized many athletic programs may be losing focus on the importance of gender equity and Title IX, while trying to meet the ever growing financial needs of their athletic programs. This complex issue can be better explained by comparing of universities' athletic program's fiscal policies, and a deeper look into their inner workings. Over the past few years, this issue has been brought to the forefront through the media, university presidents, and athletic directors. This heightened awareness has caused an explosion of articles and related investigations as to whether or not universities should be in control of their fiscal accountability. There are several distinct factors that play a role in describing what encompasses a university's fiscal process. These major determinants can be compartmentalized into several categories including, university academics, university athletics, earned and unearned revenue sources, expenditures, and gender equity (Duderstadt, 2003). Within each of these groups are the many contributing points of interest that focus on fiscal responsibility

University Academic Views of Athletic Programs

Role of President

First is the role a university athletic governing body plays in overseeing the athletic department and its budgetary concerns. In most situations, governing control is essential in the process of reforming and maintaining intercollegiate athletics. However, political and economic dynamics greatly influence the president in his or her decisions regarding the institution and its programs (Kuga, 1996). The components demonstrate the difficulty that encompasses all universities in their attempt to administer and cohesively combine academic and athletic programs. The overall purpose of these endeavors is to regain academic integrity that has been tainted by the practices and behaviors of individuals in charge of managing and operating athletic programs (Knight, 1992). Research points out that universities are investing enormous amounts of their resources to their athletic programs with the belief that “success in sports may enhance the academic reputation of the institution, improve fundraising, or make athletics a profitable enterprise” (Cowen, 1992, p. 2). The common arguments for this increase can be attributed to receiving better quality applications, higher donations, keeping the alumni happy, attracting better high school recruits, and maintaining the legacy, tradition, and history of the universities programs. In a study of high-visibility athletic programs, “students prefer universities with high-visibility athletic programs in part because they associate increased prestige with academic degrees from those schools” (Lucas & Lovaglia, 2005, p. 2). Results of their study supported their predictions and are seen as having value despite certain limitations, such that it does connect the visibility of

intercollegiate athletic programs to the prestige of their academic programs (Lucas & Lovaglia, 2005). Yet, the startling fact remains that Division I-A athletic program deficits are increasing year after year (Cowen, 2003).

Compatibility of Academic and Athletic Programs

In years past, presidents have delegated the responsibility of day-to-day management to the athletic director. The function of this position for many universities was to generate visibility, maximize revenues to counter the increasing costs, and promote a following that supports team loyalty among students, alumni, and fans. At the same time, it was also important to maintain financial, moral, and ethical values in the management process of the athletic program (Cowen, 2003). Today, athletic directors are hiring coaches not just based on their coaching abilities and success ratio, but also on their fundraising and public relations skills (Barber & Eckrich, 1998). This fact alone demonstrates the shift that university athletic programs are taking.

University presidents must acknowledge and confront the rising conflict of interest with athletics as a business and as a part of education. This incompatibility has become apparent with the creation of a commercial entertainment entity within an educational setting. The educational value of sport must constantly be legitimized, while the business aspect of sport is gaining visibility by leaps and bounds. Overpowering the educational environment is the reality that CBS is paying \$215.6 million per year to televise the NCAA men's basketball tournament, thus supporting the notion that intercollegiate athletics has become a business (Eitzen, 1997). A more pronounced involvement of university presidents and faculty has lead to the promotion of the

governance of intercollegiate athletics. Guardianship of athletic policies that encompass eligibility rules, time demands placed on student-athletes, length of seasons, travel policies, and other areas as well, is just the beginning goal to improve governance in intercollegiate athletics (Kuga, 1996).

The Special Committee on Athletics (1990), stated that maintaining consistency with these goals and policies would ensure greater academic credibility, higher graduation rates, and control over financial and ethical integrity. In order to maintain competitive and fiscally sound programs, athletic departments must gain approval from university presidents and trustees as a way to successfully institute capital projects, such as new facilities. Also, university presidents help in the hiring of top coaches and athletic administrators and the endorsement of fund-raising efforts to extend the overall development of the university campaigns (Gladden, Milne, & Sutton, 1998). The ultimate goal for all presidents of intercollegiate athletic programs would be to harmoniously meld both the education and business entities of athletic programs to benefit the student-athlete, the program itself, and the university as a whole.

University Athletics Revenue Sources

Ticket Sales

The students are an important factor to consider when discussing ticket sales. They are considered to be among the biggest fans and are constantly getting involved with the campus's athletic events. It is known that in today's sports market ticket sales are probably the oldest and most common revenue generator (Supovitz, 2005). Prices of tickets may range from just a few dollars to several hundred dollars (Supovitz, 2005).

Many athletic programs are increasing ticket prices. The profit generating schools are receiving more revenue for fewer seats. With Indiana University's Memorial Stadium, 3.5 million dollar renovation ticket prices increased four times the original amount when aluminum bleachers for 900 were converted into 300 cushioned seats. Ohio State University brought in a large sum of money when they paid for about 80 percent of their 194 million dollar stadium expansion with 81 contemporary suites and 2,500 state of the art club seats. Many college facility operators explore ideas in which to surpass other universities when trying to increase revenues, such as innovative seating arrangements, amenities, and VIP treatment (Barnum, 2004).

Colleges are attempting to change the composition of their ticket holders to improve ticket sales. This entails additional donations beyond the original price for premium seating, as well as designating larger portions of their stadiums for high dollar contributors. Money gained from this new ticket venture is used to either expand or renovate their stadiums into a state of the art facility.

College athletics has become an enormous business and universities are doing everything they can to increase support. Not only must fans pay for tickets, but also many athletic programs are requiring these ticket holders to make donations in order to keep their seats. It has been noted that fans who give more donations or few donations at a higher price, tend to get the best seats in the athletic facility (Lederman, 2004). Todd Turner, the former Athletics Director at Vanderbilt, North Carolina State, and Connecticut stated that, due to the escalating expenditures from Division I-A athletic programs, "generating new sources of income, or expanding existing ones, has become critical" (Lederman, 2004, p. 2). At the University of Michigan, football fans are being

required to make an annual donation of 125 to 500 dollars a seat, or move to the end-zone section. If moved to the end-zone section, a new season ticket holder will be required to contribute 50 dollars a year. This change will produce, at minimum, \$9.5 million a year in added revenue (Lederman, 2004). Tennessee formulated a new policy that by 2006, many longtime ticket holders will be required to pay an annual donation of 500 to 1,000 dollars a seat. This money was being generated is specifically for the planned renovation of Tennessee's eighty year old football stadium.

John Currie, the Associate Athletics Director for External Operations at the University of Tennessee, implied that asking several thousand people to make donations in order to keep their prominent seats is considered more equitable than raising the ticket prices or siphoning the taxpayer's funds (Lederman, 2004). For Texas Tech's men's basketball athletic event, the program has created personal seat licenses, where fans make a large payment in return for a long-term right to purchase premium seating in the new arena (Lederman, 2004). Many college sports administrators believe that asking fans to help cover the expenditures of new or upgraded facilities makes good financial sense. They feel that this is a way for universities to reward their biggest supporters.

Most intercollegiate athletic programs distribute their season tickets based on a points system. This points system includes how much and how long fans have made donations to a university foundation or sports scholarship fund. The University of Kansas men's basketball developed a new ticketing policy in 2003. This points system did not technically require a donation for specific seats, but fans will have to make a small contribution to keep their seats. This is considered market demand, which will

enable Kansas to generate about seven million dollars a year in supplementary revenue (Lederman, 2004).

Many schools require an annual donation to gain the privilege of buying high-status seats. Out of the 65,000 season tickets at Darrell K. Royal Texas Memorial Stadium at Joe Jamail Field, 1,200 are “club” seats that require a \$1,250 donation for the right to even buy season tickets. However, because this heightened demand, mostly all of the season ticket holders between the end-zones, except at the top of the upper deck, are donors (Lederman, 2004). At Kansas State University, nine of the twenty-eight sections in the lower deck and various sections in the upper deck require a yearly donation of 75 to 1,000 dollars a seat (Lederman, 2004).

Merchandise Sales

The financial impact that the ticket holder brings to the sporting event is important. This develops when the individual ticket holder willingly pays a higher fee for the ticket, thus producing an increase in sales beyond the original admission ticket price. This escalating profit also comes from the sales of merchandise, concessions, program sales, and parking (Supovitz, 2005). Intercollegiate licensed products have become notable revenue generators. It has been estimated by the NCAA that, “the biggest sellers among Division I universities generate about \$6 million to \$7 million annually. That’s a lot of team apparel, blankets, coffee mugs, pens, clocks, stuffed mascots, trash cans, and license plate holders” (Schools Prosper, 2004, p. 1). The heart of any merchandising is the relationship between the owner of the trademark and the producer of the specific goods. A trademark may be a word, phrase, symbol, design, or a combination of the four.

A trademark conveys, identifies, and distinguishes the quality of the products or services from others (Bacal & Johnson, 2004). Through a trademark license, licensor, or university, permission is granted to the licensee in order to maintain certain products with a licensor's mark. In return, a monetary or royalty payment is reimbursed. A university's logo is to be used for official university business and marketing. Special approval must be purchased through the collegiate licensing corporation in order for businesses to reproduce logos for commercial use (Bacal & Johnson, 2004). The University of California, Los Angeles, is considered the first school to enter into a licensing agreement, having done so in 1973 (Covell, 2000).

Between the years of 1997-1998, the NCAA earned 17.2 million dollars in royalties (Budget Supports, 1997). There are two distinct strengths that encourage continued collegiate licensing product sales. First, the selling season is longer and intercollegiate athletic programs produce a revolving field of different sports from which teams are able to sell the merchandise. Second, athletic programs exist throughout the United States, thus allowing regional product diversification and greater area coverage (Covell, 2000). With decreasing institutional funding and the escalating amount of expenditures, college athletic programs financially have had to become more self-sufficient. Nearly 300 intercollegiate athletic departments have established licensing programs and are shifting their focus to the interest of the fans to increase licensing revenues (Covell, 2000). According to Mazzeo, Cuneen, and Claussen (1997), "41 percent of Division I-A schools, including Notre Dame, Southern California, Ohio State, and Texas, administer their own licensing programs" (p. 42). These programs have the advantage of withholding a larger portion of sales revenues. All other Division I-A

universities relinquish all rights to independent licensing agencies when running their licensing programs. There are several advantages to using an independent licensing agency, including the greater opportunity for national distribution of products, exposure to a larger number of licensees, increased expertise in sales and design, broader trademark enforcement protection, and the ability to keep the expenses low source. However, there is a disadvantage. It was illustrated in a 1993 study, that universities using an independent licensing agency were not utilizing their complete licensing-revenue potential. The study noted that almost half of all independent college-licensing directors spent less than 10 percent of their licensing issues (Irwin & Stotlar, 1993).

Concession Sales

Another area where universities maintain control is the food and beverage sales at their facilities. Food and beverage items purchased by spectators at a sporting event include the net income for concession revenues. Most college athletic facilities either provide concession services or have created an agreement with a food and beverage company (Supovitz, 2005). The NCAA and Coca-Cola entered into a partnership that encompassed an expansive 11 year sponsorship deal. What made this agreement more lucrative for Coke was the access it had to 87 championships in 22 sports (NCAA Mega-Deal, 2004). It has been estimated by the NCAA that 88 percent of 360,000 college athletes participate in team, sporting events, other than football and basketball. This sponsorship deal was for \$500 million (NCAA Mega-Deal, 2004). It is was predicted that Coke had spent approximately a total of \$3.14 billion on marketing, advertising, and other expenditures over a 12 year period. This allowed Coke to gross a total of \$21

billion in revenues in 2003 (NCAA Mega-Deal, 2004). Coke is considered one of the NCAA's three corporate sponsors. The other two major sponsors are General Motors and Cingular (NCAA Mega-Deal, 2004). Corporate sponsorship, not only exists in the food and beverage industry, but also through other independent endorsements involving college campuses.

Electronic Media

Electronic media, consisting of radio, television, and the internet, is an additional area where corporate sponsors have aligned themselves with universities. Electronic media broadcast sporting events to millions of viewers, which in turn helps to produce an increasing revenue worth billions of dollars through purchased items such as tickets, team merchandise, concessions, programs, and parking.

College football broadcasts began in the fall of 1922. The first live broadcast was the University of Chicago against Princeton. This game was played in Chicago and broadcast hundreds of miles away at a radio station in New York (Catsis, 1998). On New Year's Day, the National Broadcasting Company (NBC) launched its first coast-to-coast broadcast, with coverage of the Rose Bowl game from Pasadena, California (Catsis, 1998). The Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS) began its operations during this year (Catsis, 1998). Barely ten years after the introduction of radio, it had become an important part of the American way of life. By the mid-1930's many broadcasters were paying fees for the rights to cover sporting events (Catsis, 1998). In 1945, the Blue Network, formally part of NBC, became the American Broadcasting Company (ABC) 1945 also marked radio's first coverage of basketball (Catsis, 1998). In the late 1940's,

the early resistance to radio sports coverage began to melt. By the mid-1950's, radio sports broadcasting had reached a level of sophistication that has changed little since then (Catsis, 1998). Radio sports are stronger than ever, basing most of their popularity and strength on the coverage of local teams and local events.

However, all of the networks mentioned previously have become leaders in sports broadcasting in the radio, and later, in television. NBC inaugurated television coverage in 1939 (Catsis, 1998). Television has since become the central medium for national sports events. In September 1951, live television became a coast-to-coast reality (Catsis, 1998). In 1936, the organizing committee for the annual Orange Bowl, volunteered to pay CBS \$500 to ensure a network radiobroadcast of the game. In 1969, NBC paid the Orange Bowl committee \$500,000 for television broadcast rights (Catsis, 1998). Entertainment and Sports Programming Network (ESPN), made its debut as a total sports cable network, on September 7, 1979. Within a year, the network was operating 24 hours a day, covering college basketball and football. The rapid success of ESPN was followed by the creation of regional sports cable networks (Catsis, 1998; Mullin, et al., 2000A). This occurred during a time when sports viewing options were becoming more available. Audiences are consistently watching telecasts, featuring their preferred teams and sporting events (Catsis, 1998; Mullin, et al., 2000A).

With an expansion of viewers from all over, there is an increase in the revenues, therefore allowing universities to become more prominent in the minds of fans (Mullin, et al., 2000A). When university athletic programs are given the opportunity to participate in a televised game, it affords positive exposure for the university. At the same time, this airing allows the university to promote its campus' beauty and opportunities, with

informational clips throughout the game. These informational clips about the institution, help in procuring an interest among potential fans, students, faculty, and alumni. The institution may be promoted in a college football, basketball, baseball, softball, swimming, tennis, or track and field sporting event. The broadcast usually includes continuous promotions of upcoming game announcements, ticket information, the availability of licensed merchandise, and the means by which colleges can generate future revenue.

An intercollegiate sporting event broadcast can also persuade alumni to donate money to the university's annual fund or to help in recruitment of high school students considering which college to attend (Mullin, et al., 2000A). Popular sports, such as football and basketball are being showcased by many colleges and athletic conferences. These negotiated contracts between a university and the television broadcaster are helping to benefit newly emerging sports, including from women's volleyball, softball, and track and field. Until 1984, the NCAA allocated all contract negotiations for college football telecasts, through its own television plan. Individual universities were granted the right in 1984, by the Supreme Court, to complete jurisdiction over all aspects of contract negotiations for television broadcasts (Baird, 2004; Bennett & Fizel, 1996). In 1989, the NCAA sold exclusive broadcasting rights to the Men's Division I basketball tournament to CBS. The NCAA and its 1,200 member institutions generated over one billion dollars, when a contract was created where CBS was given the rights to televise the 1991-1997 Men's Division I basketball tournament (Bennett & Fizel, 1996). CBS was persuaded to televise the Women's Division I basketball final four, which helped lay the foundation for a 1995 agreement between ESPN. ESPN increased coverage of

Women's Division I college basketball and expanded their revenue, with the millions of new fans watching.

University Athletics Unearned Revenue Sources

Not only are universities depending on their fan base for a growth in budgetary income from licensing, but also in the increase of private donations. Beginning in the mid-1960's, the amount of unearned revenue from private donors has almost tripled (Verner, Hecht, & Fansler, 1998). This income is derived from areas such as corporate sponsorships, private donations, alumni donations, student fees, and assessments. Private donations are an important aspect of fundraising. There is no concrete evidence when using these methods for increasing the athletic budget. These types of donations are a revenue source that fluctuates and cannot be considered a fixed income. However, using the private sector as a means for increasing the athletic budget is a substantial idea. In light of this growth, many universities feel the need for a better understanding of this uncharted area of unearned revenue sources. The reason for this recommendation of change is the diminishing support from the universities' general funds.

Corporate Sponsorships

Two types of methods are normally used to acquire unearned revenue. The first is through corporate sponsorship, which usually requires a university to allow a corporation the right to commercially enhance its name or product through increased visibility and or sales. In return the university receives a monetary compensation (Verner, Hecht, & Fansler, 1998). In 1997, Nike and two prominent Division IA schools, the University of

North Carolina and the University of Colorado, entered into separate contract agreements involving equipment and apparel. UNC received "...\$7.1 million through 2001, including a 400,000 annual donation to the chancellor's academic enhancement fund, and 200,000 a year to be shared for one men's and one women's basketball tour" (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000B, p. 153). In addition to product recognition, Nike received "...licensed-apparel sales and advertising rights, eight season tickets each for football, and men's and women's basketball, and tickets to postseason, tournaments and bowl games" (Mullin, et al., 2000B, p. 153).

That same year Nike also aligned itself with the University of Colorado agreeing to a:

"...six-year \$6 million equipment and apparel contract, which will pay the school more money based on the football team's performance. If the football team wins the Big XII Conference title, the university earns an additional \$10,000; if the team wins the national title, it gets another \$100,000. A men's basketball title would earn the university \$200,000, a women's national title \$50,000. Nike receives licensed-apparel sales and advertising rights, as well as permission to redesign the university's logo." (Mullin, et al., 2000B, p. 153).

Overall, universities and sponsors benefit from this type of partnership. However beneficial this union may be, some believe it is an escape for universities in a quest for large amounts of money at the expense of the athlete, while others applaud this creative means to enhance athletic programs bottom line for both the student-athlete and the

university. The Athletic Director of the University of Colorado, Dick Tharp, stated, “you don’t sell your integrity or the university’s in making a deal, [but] you can, in fact, balance the opportunity of gaining sponsorship and taking advantage of the dollars involved without selling the soul of the institution.” (Mullin, et al., 2000B, p. 153).

Private Donations

The second source of unearned income is private donations. A private donation is considered primarily as a one-way transfer that is entirely voluntary to the donor’s specific organization of choice. It is considered fundraising when universities’ athletic departments focus on obtaining private donations from individuals. Along with corporate sponsorship booster/foundation and alumni contributions have also shown a prominent increase. For example, in 1965 individual donations accounted for only 5 percent of the annual revenue among Division I schools whereas, in 1990 it rose dramatically to 15 percent (Verner, Hecht, & Fansler, 1998), thus, emphasizing its importance as a genuine source of intercollegiate revenue.

Alumni giving is found to be prevalent for both private and public institutions. Brooker and Klastorin (1981), suggested that private schools have more donors and receive larger donations, than the public institutions. Donors to the public institutions may feel that legislation and taxes given to these facilities should support the financial needs. Alumni donations established for an athletic program have also been linked to the university’s overall economic conditions in many ways. Grimes and Chrissanthis (1994) noted, “that for every one dollar increase in per capita income, the institution receives more than one dollar increase in academic contributions” (p. 36).

They also noted that NCAA sanctions greatly inhibit an institutions ability to distribute alumni contributions to academics. Baade and Sundberg (1996) discovered a significant determinant in the fact that low or poor winning percentages did not completely stop alumni giving. The study supported the idea that bowl and tournament appearance seemed to legitimize a team's record. It also noted that, most athletic teams are not considered to have had a good season, unless they have an appearance in post-season play. Lewis Cryer, the commissioner of the Pacific Coast Athletics Association stated, "a program can raise money whether or not it is winning," but he added "it is just easier for a winner" (Sigelman & Bookheimer, 1983, p. 349).

An interesting twist on this fact that "...coeducational colleges and universities largely ignore[d] women as a viable donor constituency for the better part of 40 years" (Matthews, 1991, p. 73). It has often been thought that women face a variety of challenges that have affected their ability to make substantial contributions, such as divorce, interruption of income to care for children and elderly, and sex discrimination leading to less pay and compensation. However, when all is said and done data highlight the fact that, "... because women outlive men, women are thought to control 60% of the nation's wealth in the United States" (Staurowsky, 1996, p. 403). This fact alone suggests that universities have only touched the tip of the fundraising potential and demonstrates that more contributions are available to make a substantial impact to the intercollegiate athletic programs (Staurowsky, 1996).

University Athletic Program Expenditures

It has been quoted in an old adage, "...you gotta spend money to make money"(College Athletics MoneyGoRound, 2004, p. 4). University spending has increased by 10 percent, while Division I intercollegiate athletic program spending has grown at a rate of 25 percent. Approximately forty colleges declare that their athletic programs are self-sufficient (Sylwester & Witosky, 2004). Athletic budgetary expenses consist of nine distinct costs: facilities, coaches' salaries and contracts, athletic scholarships, and several other expenses. These expenditures are increasing at a significant rate. The elite colleges are striving to outdo each other through upgrades, especially within the athletic facilities. Some believe that commercialization has diminished the joint venture between athletics and the university community (Putler & Wolfe, 1999). Others see these athletic budget increases as a means to securing recruits, supporting alumni, and promoting athletic and academic foundations (College Athletics MoneyGoRound, 2004).

Facilities

Universities that participate in the larger conferences now have budgets that range from \$15 to \$20 million. This growth is partially due to the increases in facility improvements or new construction (Padilla & Baumer, 1994). Wakefield, Blodgett, and Sloan (1996), implied that, "the physical environment of the stadium may have a significant effect on the extent to which spectators will desire to stay and return to the stadium" (p. 15). There has been a noticeable expansion of athletics facilities on college campuses in recent years. The University of Massachusetts pays an average of \$800,000

a year on a facility that it does not own and actually cost \$50 million to build (Zimbalist, 1999). Many college athletic departments have felt continuous pressure, due to the limitations of space and resources.

Coaches' Salaries and Contracts

Not only are universities spending their athletic budgets on building new or upgrading facilities, but also on coach's and athletic administrator's salaries. It was discussed by the Big XII Conference that, "...there is much dispute and contention about the propriety of the increased compensation packages, the facts of the matter are that they have increased dramatically over the past two decades" (Big XII AD Salaries, 2004, p. 1). In the year 2002, the average Division IA head football coach's base salary was \$388,600, which had increased 83 percent from 1998. This escalating number does not include the myriad of supplemental payments, such as cars, houses, camps, bonuses, shoe, apparel, and television deals (Sylwester & Witosky, 2004). It has been noted that, in several states, some intercollegiate coaches and athletic administrators are the highest paid state employees (College Athletics MoneyGoRound, 2004). Many Division I college campuses, either the football or men's basketball coach, is guaranteed to be the best compensated employee at the university through their salaries and other benefits.

Salaries at the upper-echelon Division I-A universities are escalating at an "arms race" (College Athletics MoneyGoRound, 2004, p. 1). Colleges are competing for the best coaches and are willing to pay phenomenal prices. In 1995, "Florida State's Bobby Bowden became the first college coach to break the million-dollar barrier in annual salary" (Socrates, 2005, p.1). Also according to Socrates (2005) Sports Illustrated said "that 27 coaches exceeded a million dollars last year". Mack Brown at the University of

Texas is considered one of the 10 highest paid football coaches. In 2005, Brown signed a 10-year contract worth more than 25 million dollars. Mack Brown's current salary is approximately 2.16 million dollars, also including the \$100,000 paid in raises for each year. On his 53rd birthday, Mack Brown received a one-time 1.6 million dollar bonus. This bonus made him the highest paid football coach as of December 30, 2004, with earnings of 3.6 million dollars for that year (Kirkendall, 2005).

In contrast, Shirley Ann Jackson, the highest paid college president, of Jackson of Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, made \$891,400 for 2001-2002. Also, in the wage comparison is the fact that full professors at a University offering a doctoral degree maintain an average salary of \$104,411 (Coaches' Salary Growth, 2005). Some believe, as with any product or interest, today's coaching salaries are no different than the concept of normal supply and demand. A good representation of this fact is that, "no one complains when an entertainer gets a gazillion (sic) per year. Or marquee TV sports commentators. But let an up-and-coming college coach score his first million dollar contract and everyone bemoans the fact that he earns thrice what the college president does" (Socrates, 2005, p. 3).

This statement reinforces the argument that places college athletics in the entertainment industry rather than the academic environment. Kentucky's head coach, Tubby Smith, has one of the most lucrative contract deals in college basketball. His contract consists of an eight year 20 million dollar package, where he would bring in a base salary of \$200,000. This money does not include the \$1.7 million brought in from television, shoe, and apparel deals. He also was given two cars, a \$1 million dollar payout if fired, and is paid various incentives if specified criteria, regarding play and

academic standards are met (Fish, 2003). Two wage examples of athletic administrators' wages are, Lew Perkins, at Kansas University, who brings in a \$420,000 salary per year and Bill Byrne, at Texas A&M University, who earns \$350,000 a year (Big XII AD Salaries, 2004).

Head coaches and athletic administrators are not the only ones bringing in large amounts of money. Assistant coaches' salaries are also experiencing an enormous increase. The two coordinators at the University of Texas, Greg Davis and Gene Chizik, "...each will receive \$240,000 in base pay; \$20,000 from summer football camps and speaking engagements; and \$15,000 in revenue from an endowment set up for coordinators" (Halliburton, 2005, D1). Mack Brown's nine assistant football coaches will collectively divide an increase in their paycheck of \$80,100 annually. Texas A&M University's and Nebraska's Defensive Coordinators, Carl Torbush and Kevin Cosgrove, both earn a salary of \$250,000 a year (Halliburton, 2005).

Athletic Scholarships

Research has demonstrated that profits in college football are far different than those in professional football. This is primarily due to the limitations placed on paying the players. Restricting the compensation has definitely enabled universities athletic departments to enjoy financial bounties. However, universities must recognize that players do bring in substantial revenue to the athletic departments. In 2001, the Ohio State football team, after all expenses netted 20.3 million for the athletic department. If this figure were divided among the 100 member squad, each player would receive \$203,000, less their scholarship. Coaches of top universities generally receive salaries

that are 4 percent to 8 percent of a teams total football revenue. This information is important because it is at this juncture that athletic administrator's across the nation do a balancing act. Justifying the money paid to coaches requires finessing. Players are compensated, not in a monetary form, but in resources that are valuable to them. As a player a top rated coach and a state of the art facility can be seen as a means to reach the next level, professional athlete. This is an ingenious idea by athletic departments that enhance their program and more than pacifies the player. Facilities, salaries, and scholarships are all intertwined to further develop a top ranked player (Baird, 2004).

Gender Equity In Athletics

The emergence of Title IX was considered the beginning of change for women's sports. Title IX affects expenses through mandates that require gender equity in athletic programs. Sigelman and Wahlbeck (1999), pointed out a statement presented by Cantú that, "In 1974, women's teams at one Big Ten school received only \$40,000 out of a total athletic budget of \$6 million, and at a large southwestern university, the budget for ten varsity women's teams totaled \$200. Nationwide, 50,000 men attended school on athletic scholarships, compared to fewer than 50 women" (p. 519).

Title IX was adopted in 1972 and officially became the law in 1975. Since the enactment of Title IX, a growing number of over 100,000 women are participating in intercollegiate sports. Although there has been progress in women's sport programs, women still do not have equal prospects or possibilities when it comes to opportunities for participation, resources, and an emphasis on parity in salaries between men and women coaches (Trail & Chelladurai, 2000). All athletic programs are covered under

Title IX, in which it bars sex discrimination for any college receiving federal funds. Title IX obligates schools to offer equal participation opportunities, appropriate percentage of scholarships available, as well as an equal share of the program's general operating procedures for male and female athletics. This includes factors such as equipment, facilities, publicity, and scheduling of practice and game times to name only a few (Paying for the Playing Field, 2002). It is not required of Title IX to maintain equal budgetary expenses on both men's and women's teams. The only provision that requires that the same amount of money be spent proportional to participation is scholarships. However, it does require athletic programs to provide equal treatment and other benefits. Therefore, it is important to delve deeper and look behind the money to find out exactly what it buys.

There are three basic factors of Title IX as it applies to athletics: participation, scholarships, and other benefits. In the NCAA Gender Equity Report (2000), it was stated, "Women's athletic programs continue to lag behind men's programs on every measurable criteria, including participation opportunities, athletic scholarships, operating budgets, and recruiting expenditures. For example, while women in Division I colleges represent 53% of the students, they receive only 41% of the participation opportunities, 43% of the total athletic scholarship dollars, 32% of recruiting dollars, and 36% of operating budgets" (Greenberger, 2002, p. 1).

There is a reasonable explanation as to why Title IX does not require equal amounts of money to be spent on men and women's sports. The Javits Amendment stated that legitimate and justifiable discrepancies for nongender related differences in sports could be taken into account. Two examples of this type of spending are pointed out

in, the differing costs of equipment and event management expenditures. School officials can try to justify the differences in the provision of funds for women athletes in any way they want, but the fact remains that, Division I athletic programs were spending two dollars on men's sports for every dollar spent on women's sports (Title IX and Men's "Minor" Sports', 2002). The NCAA Gender Report (2000) also stated that, "of the \$3.57 million average increase in expenditures for men's Division I-A sports programs from 1998-2000, sixty-eight percent of this increase, \$2.46 million went to football. This exceeds the entire operating budget for women's Division I sports in 2000 by over 1.69 million" (p. 10).

When Title IX was passed thirty years ago, athletic scholarships were not given to women. Today, Title IX stipulates that scholarships be equally distributed to both male and female athletes. Marcia D. Greenberger, Co-President of the National Women's Law Center investigated thirty universities, in order to determine if there were any athletic scholarship violations under Title IX. This investigation showed that between the thirty universities, there was an athletic scholarship budgetary gap for men and women's sports, ranging from 4 percent to 17 percent. The percentages mentioned above can be translated in the average amount of money a female athlete receives in athletic scholarship dollars to what an average male athlete receives. The dollar values ranged from \$993 to \$6,545 per year at each of these colleges.

The study also illustrated a deficit of \$4,000 to over \$26,000 during a female athlete's four-year intercollegiate career. The National Women's Law Center (2002), established a chart organizing the athletic scholarship budgetary expenses for the 30 schools challenged in the investigation. The chart showed that, "...the average male

athletic scholarship is \$7,875 and the average female athletic scholarship is \$5,744, with female athletes receiving on average \$2,131 less per year than male athletes. If the 30 schools we are looking at today awarded female athletes their fair share, the young women at these schools alone would receive a total of at least \$6.5 million more in athletic scholarships” (Greenberger, 2002, p. 2).

Of the 30 universities scrutinized, three of them were in the Big XII Conference: Kansas State University, Oklahoma State University, and The University of Texas at Austin. Each of these three schools exhibited a gap between the average male and female scholarships. The gap was shown in dollar amounts for each university: Kansas State University, \$507,742, Oklahoma State University, \$136,606, and The University of Texas at Austin, \$423,399. Not only were the expenditures for women’s athletic scholarships unequal, but also salaries for intercollegiate coaches.

Salaries for coaches vary by sport, but also by gender. Athletic directors control the number of women coaches in their program and the salary based on a criteria scale. The difference between male and female coaches lies in the legitimacy of the standards that are placed on women coaches versus their male counterparts (Knoppers, Bedker-Meyer, Ewing, & Forrest, 1989). Abney and Staurowsky (1996) reported information regarding discrepancies in the Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act went into effect and required all institutions to publicize all information by gender, such as participation rates and expenditures associated with coaching salaries, grants-in-aid, recruiting costs, and equipment. Some researchers believe that women’s sports could potentially attain equal opportunities if administrators used a male sports model of athletics as the norm, rather

than the model guided by the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women, AIAW (Blinde, 1989).

After reviewing Nyquist's study (1979), Blinde (1989) stated that this process has begun in the areas of pressure recruiting, winning seasons, athletic scholarships, and the enforcement of rules. On the negative side to this change, some question its appropriateness and suitability. Stanley and Wise (1983) reported that male and female athletes, in areas of biological, social, and cultural issues do not experience the world identically. Boutilier and SanGiovanni (1983) pointed out that sports programs outlined by men's values, their perceptions, and experiences alienate women from achieving their own sporting experience. Both of these statements were used as substantial evidence to support Blinde's (1989) study described previously.

Summary

Overall, it has been noted that expenditures and revenues play an important role in the success or failure of Division I athletic programs. Through an examination of the research, it is evident that the fiscal process for institutions such as these is comprised of academics, university athletics, earned and unearned revenue sources, expenditures, and gender equity. Each of these entities is separate in its service. Yet, they overlap in function in order to facilitate an athletic program that is successful on multiple levels. Many research articles support the notion that fiscal accountability is an issue that needs to be addressed. However, as with any research, there are varying points of view. Pros and cons, as well as statistical differences, made this subject matter the major concern of athletic departments.

In closing, there are several contributing points of interest that specifically highlight fiscal responsibility of Division I athletic programs. This heightened awareness has brought about a myriad of opinions and suggestions as to how and why Division I athletic programs should change. NCAA president, Myles Brand, stated that 2005 would be the year that Division I would take fiscal responsibility seriously. Brand has noted that fiscal responsibility, "...is not simply cost containment; it is a value-based budgeting principle that urges the institution to fund athletics according to the value it adds to the university mission. Such a concept is difficult to legislate, however, and will require collective leadership from college and university presidents and chancellors to effect significant change" (NCAA Membership Report, 2004, p. 39). These comments come from both inside and outside the university, as well as through media. This controversial issue that includes education and commercial entities will not be solved overnight, nor will the solutions encompass only one aspect of the program. Research suggests that it has taken years to create a program of such magnitude and it will take years to either restructure or reinvent a whole new way to address Division I athletics.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Subjects

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Texas State University-San Marcos has reviewed and approved this study. This analysis accumulates statistical information about each of the institutions being studied. All institutions investigated were selected from NCAA Division I athletic programs. The institutions were categorized according to general population figures, specified sports programs, and gender equity. Each university's athletic department was selected based on the criteria that there were both men's and women's athletic programs, competing in their specific Division, whether it is I-A, I-AA, or I-AAA.

Data Collection Procedures

After performing a random sampling on all of the sanctioned NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA institutions, 90 institutions were researched through The Chronicle of Higher Education located online at <http://chronicle.com/>. Thirty institutions selected randomly from each NCAA Division, I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA, were accessed, in order to investigate each of their gender equity reports. Due to the Freedom of Information Act 2000 (FOIA), all universities are required to disclose this information. The FOIA "...gives people a general right of access to information held by or on behalf

of public authorities and promotes a culture of openness and accountability of public sector bodies” (Freedom, 2005). Each university was investigated based on the following criteria, to help determine whether or not the institution’s Athletic Departments complies with Title IX. Statistical data pertaining to gender equity in college sports was categorized by specific headings within the database. These specific facts and figures from the institution’s Athletic Departments were listed under five headings as follows: (a) Men’s and women’s participation; (b) Men’s and women’s operating budget; (c) Men’s and women’s scholarships; (d) Men’s and women’s recruiting budget; (e) Men’s and women’s coaching budgets. This allowed the researcher to compare and determine, whether or not the institution’s Athletic Department is in compliance with Title IX requirements and gender equity in college sports. After the information had been gathered, it was then organized and categorized, so that the statistical data could easily be compared.

Instrumentation

1. Internet Website/Database: The Chronicle of Higher Education – website/database used to investigate and gather statistical information from each of the specified institution’s Athletic Departments to examine whether or not the institution’s Athletic Departments complies with Title IX.

Design and Analysis

This study was to gather valuable information that would either identify the flaws or applaud universities in their equitable division of monetary funds. By investigating the factors and characteristics that influence NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA universities, it allows the institutions to determine how their men's and women's budgets are divided. This study was analyzed by looking at both dependent and independent variables. The Independent Variables were the investigated institutions in Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA. The Dependent Variables were the expenses and incomes from the NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA men's and women's operating budgets (Appendix B). There are several comparisons that were made by using both the dependent and independent variables. These comparisons were drawn from measuring male and female participants, and the expenditures and incomes of each institution for their athletic department, sports, and gender equity. By performing these comparisons it demonstrated which institutions equitably divided their funds. In closing, this measurement was completed by using, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) will be the statistical test used to determine the F-ratio to compare multiple population means.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The analysis for the dependent variables is reported in the parameters stated under the gender equity law of Title IX with subsequent discussion of the results that were significant to the stated hypothesis. The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not expenditures of NCAA Division I-A, Division I-AA, and Division I-AAA have followed the provisions of Title IX. The institutions were categorized according to general population figures, specified sports programs, and gender equity. Each university's athletic department was selected based on the criteria that there are both men's and women's athletic programs, competing in their specific Division, whether it is I-A, I-AA, or I-AAA.

Hypotheses

Hypotheses were tested to determine if there were significant differences in the expenditures and incomes between NCAA men's and women's Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA, athletic programs. An analysis of variance was used to analyze the data to determine if differences existed between divisions and gender in expenditures and incomes. The alpha level was set at 0.05 for all tests as the criterion value to determine the truth of the null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis 1

H_{O1} = There is no significant difference in the expenditures and incomes between NCAA men's and women's Division I-A and I-AA athletic programs.

Results of Hypothesis 1

Expenditures:

Comparison of the means (see Table 1) revealed that there is a significant difference between NCAA Divisions I-A and I-AA on the criteria (men's and women's expenditures) tested. The F-ratio for this experiment is 64.99. Assuming that the null hypothesis is true, the probability (P-value) that this F-ratio (64.99) would occur due to the random variability within a distribution of sample means is $9.95E-25$. The probability ($P=9.95E-25$) that this F-ratio would occur, if the null hypothesis is true, is less than alpha (0.05). Therefore, there is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis, in the data comparisons between Divisions I-A and I-AA.

Table 1: Expenses for NCAA Division I-A and NCAA Division I-AA

NCAA Division I-A and NCAA Division I-AA						
Anova: Single Factor						
SUMMARY						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
I-A Expense (Men's Total)	30	3.99E+08	13291273	3.83E+13		
I-A Expense (Women's Total)	30	1.71E+08	5711532	7.5E+12		
I-AA Expense (Men's Total)	30	97296663	3243222	1.46E+12		
I-AA Expense (Women's Total)	30	56360035	1878668	6.7E+11		
ANOVA						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	2.33E+15	3	7.78E+14	64.99321	9.95E-25	2.682809
Within Groups	1.39E+15	116	1.2E+13			
Total	3.72E+15	119				

Incomes (Revenues):

Comparison of the means (see Table 2) revealed that there is a significant difference between NCAA Divisions I-A and I-AA on the criteria (men's and women's revenues) tested. The F-ratio for this experiment is 41.26. Assuming that the null hypothesis is true, the probability (P-value) that this F-ratio (41.26) would occur due to the random variability within a distribution of sample means is $3.21\text{E-}18$. The probability ($P=3.21\text{E-}18$) that this F-ratio would occur, if the null hypothesis is true, is less than alpha (0.05). Therefore, there is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis, in the data comparisons between Divisions I-A and I-AA.

Table 2: Revenues for NCAA Division I-A and NCAA Division I-AA

NCAA Division I-A and NCAA Division I-AA						
Anova: Single Factor						
SUMMARY						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
I-A Revenue (Men's Total)	30	6.41E+08	21362482	2.73E+14		
I-A Revenue (Women's Total)	30	56998431	1899948	3.47E+12		
I-AA Revenue (Men's Total)	30	71028816	2367627	2.95E+12		
I-AA Revenue (Women's Total)	30	31066883	1035563	1.01E+12		
ANOVA						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	8.67E+15	3	2.89E+15	41.25819	3.21E-18	2.682809
Within Groups	8.12E+15	116	7E+13			
Total	1.68E+16	119				

Null Hypothesis 2

HO₂ = There is no significant difference in the expenditures and incomes between NCAA men's and women's Division I-A and I-AAA athletic programs.

Results of Hypothesis 2

Expenditures:

Comparison of the means (see Table 3) revealed that there is a significant difference between NCAA Divisions I-A and I-AAA on the criteria (men's and women's expenditures) tested. The F-ratio for this experiment is 65.78. Assuming that the null hypothesis is true, the probability (P-value) that this F-ratio (65.78) would occur due to the random variability within a distribution of sample means is 6.44E-25. The probability (P=6.44E-25) that this F-ratio would occur, if the null hypothesis is true, is less than alpha (0.05). Therefore, there is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis, in the data comparisons between Divisions I-A and I-AAA.

Table 3: Expenses for NCAA Division I-A and NCAA Division I-AAA

NCAA Division I-A and NCAA Division I-AAA						
Anova: Single Factor						
SUMMARY						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
I-A Expense (Men's Total)	30	3.99E+08	13291273	3.83E+13		
I-A Expense (Women's Total)	30	1.71E+08	5711532	7.5E+12		
I-AAA Expense (Men's Total)	30	77011770	2567059	1.24E+12		
I-AAA Expense (Women's Total)	30	67420198	2247340	1.1E+12		
ANOVA						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	2.37E+15	3	7.91E+14	65.77893	6.44E-25	2.682809
Within Groups	1.4E+15	116	1.2E+13			
Total	3.77E+15	119				

Incomes (Revenues):

Comparison of the means (see Table 4) revealed that there is a significant difference between NCAA Divisions I-A and I-AAA on the criteria (men's and women's revenues) tested. The F-ratio for this experiment is 65.78. Assuming that the null hypothesis is true, the probability (P-value) that this F-ratio (65.78) would occur due to the random variability within a distribution of sample means is $6.44\text{E-}25$. The probability ($P=6.44\text{E-}25$) that this F-ratio would occur, if the null hypothesis is true, is less than alpha (0.05). Therefore, there is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis, in the data comparisons between Divisions I-A and I-AAA.

Table 4: Revenues for NCAA Division I-A and NCAA Division I-AAA

NCAA Division I-A and NCAA Division I-AAA						
Anova: Single Factor						
SUMMARY						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
I-A Revenue (Men's Total)	30	6.41E+08	21362482	2.73E+14		
I-A Revenue (Women's Total)	30	56998431	1899948	3.47E+12		
I-AAA Revenue (Men's Total)	30	58202268	1940076	1.88E+12		
I-AAA Revenue (Women's Total)	30	67420198	2247340	1.1E+12		
ANOVA						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	8.41E+15	3	2.8E+15	40.19012	6.97E-18	2.682809
Within Groups	8.09E+15	116	6.98E+13			
Total	1.65E+16	119				

Null Hypothesis 3

HO₃ = There is no significant difference in the expenditures and incomes between NCAA men's and women's Divisions I-AA and I-AAA athletic programs.

Results of Hypothesis 3

Expenditures:

Comparison of the means (see Table 5) revealed that there is a significant difference between NCAA Divisions I-AA and I-AAA on the criteria (men's and women's expenditures) tested. The F-ratio for this experiment is 9.03. Assuming that the null hypothesis is true, the probability (P-value) that this F-ratio (9.03) would occur due to the random variability within a distribution of sample means is 2.02E-05. The probability (P=2.02E-05) that this F-ratio would occur, if the null hypothesis is true, is less than alpha (0.05). Therefore, there is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis, in the data comparisons between Divisions I-AA and I-AAA.

Table 5: Expenses for NCAA Division I-AA and NCAA Division I-AAA

NCAA Division I-AA and NCAA Division I-AAA						
Anova: Single Factor						
SUMMARY						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
I-AA Expense (Men's Total)	30	97296663	3243222	1.46E+12		
I-AA Expense (Women's Total)	30	56360035	1878668	6.7E+11		
I-AAA Expense (Men's Total)	30	77011770	2567059	1.24E+12		
I-AAA Expense (Women's Total)	30	67420198	2247340	1.1E+12		
ANOVA						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	3.02E+13	3	1.01E+13	9.026455	2.02E-05	2.682809
Within Groups	1.29E+14	116	1.11E+12			
Total	1.59E+14	119				

Incomes (Revenues):

Comparison of the means (see Table 6) revealed that there is a significant difference between NCAA Divisions I-AA and I-AAA on the criteria (men's and women's revenues) tested. The F-ratio for this experiment is 6.27. Assuming that the null hypothesis is true, the probability (P-value) that this F-ratio (6.27) would occur due to the random variability within a distribution of sample means is 0.000558. The probability ($P=0.000558$) that this F-ratio would occur, if the null hypothesis is true, is less than alpha (0.05). Therefore, there is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis, in the data comparisons between Divisions I-AA and I-AAA.

Table 6: Revenues for NCAA Division I-AA and NCAA Division I-AAA

NCAA Division I-AA and NCAA Division I-AAA						
Anova: Single Factor						
SUMMARY						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
I-AA Revenue (Men's Total)	30	71028816	2367627	2.95E+12		
I-AA Revenue (Women's Total)	30	31066883	1035563	1.01E+12		
I-AAA Revenue (Men's Total)	30	58202268	1940076	1.88E+12		
I-AAA Revenue (Women's Total)	30	67420198	2247340	1.1E+12		
ANOVA						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	3.26E+13	3	1.09E+13	6.267194	0.000558	2.682809
Within Groups	2.01E+14	116	1.74E+12			
Total	2.34E+14	119				

Descriptive Statistics and Discussion of Results

The purpose of this study is to determine whether or not expenditures of Division I-A, Division I-AA, and Division I-AAA has followed the provisions of Title IX.

Through this research the aim is to point out areas of noncompliance and highlight reform trends that can be used to better their athletic departments and the university as a whole.

Data were collected from the Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA institutions selected from a random sampling on all of the sanctioned NCAA universities. All institutions

investigated were researched through the Chronicle of Higher Education. There were a total of 90 institutions (Division I-A: 30, Division I-AA: 30, and Division I-AAA: 30).

Thirty institutions picked randomly from each NCAA Division, I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA, will be accessed, in order to investigate each of their gender equity reports.

The 2003-4 NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA operating budgets can be used to find the mean, standard deviation, and sum of mean values for both males and females.

The expenditure mean values and standard deviations for the male NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA are \$13,291,273.00 (± 6082471.38), \$3,243,222.00 (± 1186241.6), and \$2,567,059.00 (± 1092918.8), respectively (see Table 7 & Chart 1, 2). For the females,

the expenditure mean values and standard deviations for NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA are \$5,711,532.00 (± 2692667.08), \$1,878,668.00 (± 804954.83), and

\$2,247,340.00 (± 1028956.5), respectively (see Table 7 & Chart 1, 2). The expenditure sum of means values for both males and females for all three Divisions are

\$19,101,554.00 and \$9,837,540.00, respectively (see Table 8 & Chart 3). The revenue

mean values and standard deviations for the male NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA are \$21,362,482.00 (± 16234064.3), \$2,367,627.00 (± 1689539.9), and

\$1,940,076.00 (\pm 1348868.9), respectively (see Table 9 & Chart 1, 2). For the females, the revenue mean values and standard deviations for NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA are \$1,899,948.00 (\pm 1831447.89), \$1,035,563.00 (\pm 990375.88), and \$1,330,503.00 (\pm 1492836.5), respectively (see Table 9 & Chart 1, 2). The revenue sum of means values for both males and females for all three Divisions are \$25,670,185.00 and \$4,266,014.00, respectively (see Table 10 and Chart 4).

The following tables (see Tables 7, 8, 9, & 10) and charts (see Charts 1, 2, 3, & 4) are used to illustrate the statistical differences for both males and females in NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA universities. The tables and charts also report the mean, standard deviation, and sum of means for both the expenditures and revenues.

Chart 1: Means (\$) for NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA Comparison of Expenditures and Incomes (Revenues)

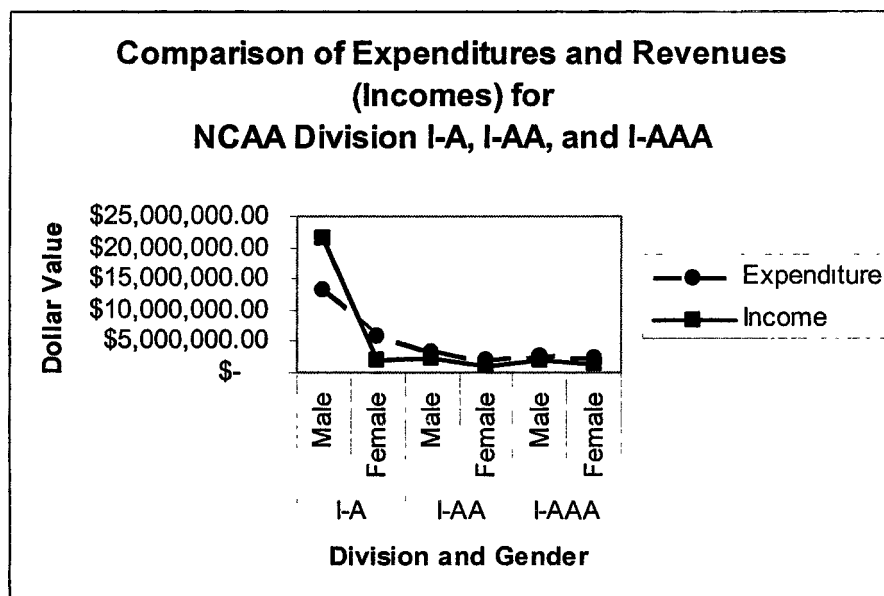


Chart 2: Standard Deviations for NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA

Comparison of Expenditures and Incomes (Revenues)

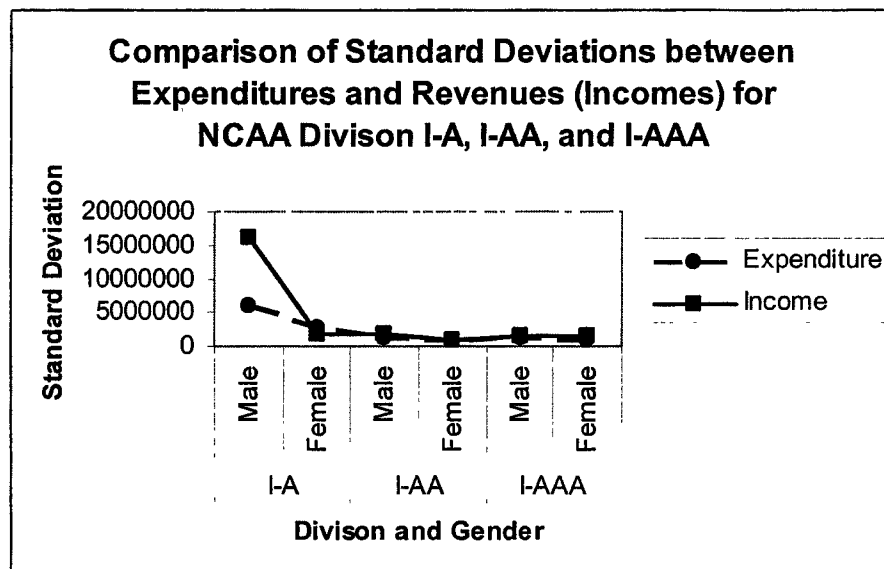


Table 7: Means and Standard Deviations for NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA Expenditures

Expenditures						
	I-A		I-AA		I-AAA	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Mean	\$13,291,273.00	\$5,711,532.00	\$ 3,243,222.00	\$1,878,668.00	\$2,567,059.00	\$2,247,340.00
Std. Deviation	6082471.38	2692667.08	1186241.6	804954.83	1092918.8	1028956.5

Table 8: Sum of Means for NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA Expenditures

I-A, I-AA, I-AAA		
	Male	Female
Sum of Means	\$19,101,554 00	\$9,837,540 00

Chart 3: Sum of Means for NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA Expenditures

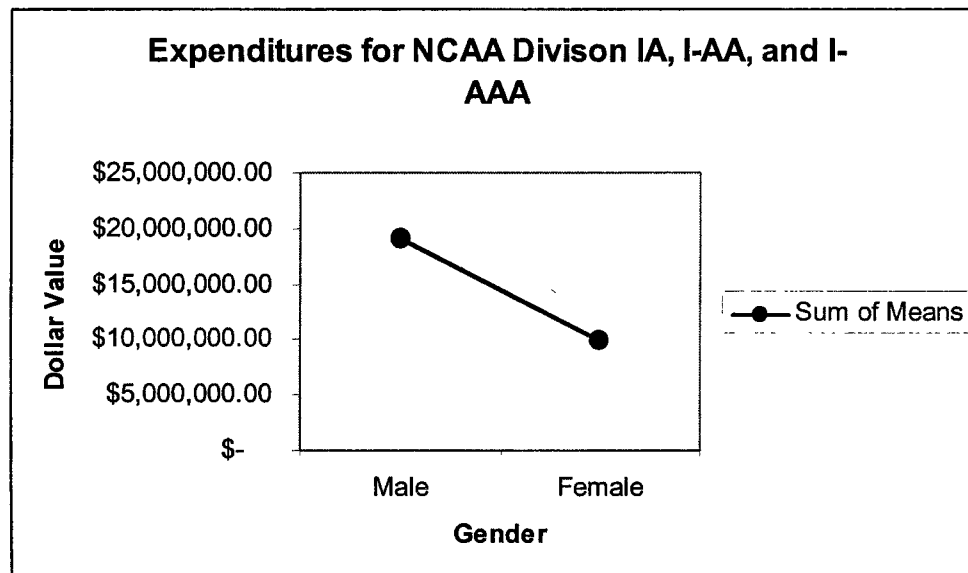


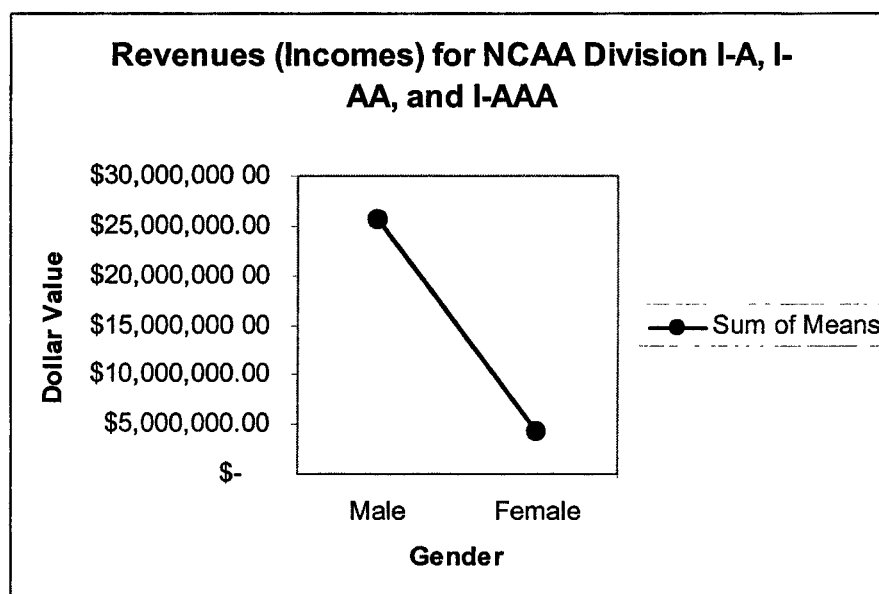
Table 9: Means and Standard Deviations for NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA Incomes (Revenues)

Incomes (Revenues)						
	I-A		I-AA		I-AAA	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Mean	\$21,362,482.00	\$1,899,948.00	\$ 2,367,627.00	\$1,035,563.00	\$1,940,076.00	\$1,330,503.00
Std. Deviation	16234064.3	1831447.89	1689539.9	990375.88	1348868.9	1492836.5

**Table 10: Sum of Means for NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA
Incomes (Revenues)**

I-A, I-AA, I-AAA		
	Male	Female
Sum of Means	\$25,670,185.00	\$4,266,014.00

**Chart 4: Sum of Means for NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA
Incomes (Revenues)**



CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not the expenditures and incomes of Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA athletic departments conformed to Title XI requirements and gender equity in college sports. Through a random sampling of all sanctioned NCAA Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA, 30 institutions were accessed for investigation through The Chronicle of Higher Education. The research data was compiled from NCAA reports and investigations then compared based on participation, scholarships, operating budgets, recruiting budgets, and coaching budgets.

Conclusions

Title XI is an expansive law that encompasses many areas within an athletic department, not just specifically women's sports. Parts of the athletic programs that are affected by this law are universities' academics, athletics (men and women), expenditures, and gender. All of these components operate separately, but must function cohesively for an athletic program to be successful and in compliance. This study was to collect information and determine how each of these categories followed the stated guidelines of Title XI. However, within the limitations of this research it was concluded that the statistical analysis of the data revealed significant discrepancies.

The data investigated did not break down the financial totals into individual sports. For example, it listed under the heading of men's sports football and basketball, where as for women's sports, it lists only women's basketball. The obvious omission of other women's sports leads to questions regarding the reporting of this information. Through the examination of the data it was discovered that the numerical totals were extremely elevated and could not possibly represent only the sports listed. After further study, it was determined that within this stated total, other funds were being reported, but the categories from which they came were not disclosed. Areas where these funds are believed to be drawn from are scholarships, recruiting, and coaching salaries. The null hypotheses were rejected due to the variances in the reporting of the operating budget, expense and revenue, as other categories such as coaching salaries, recruiting budgets, and scholarship budgets have been incorporated without being identified.

The comprehensive investigation of this statistical report has highlighted in the collegiate Division I-AAA little to no difference in the monies allocated to the men's and women's athletic teams. At this level there are minimal changes, but it should be noted that in some cases the women's operating budget exceeds the men's budget. For example, the University of Maryland, Eastern Shore lists the percentage of their operating budget for women at 60.54 percent. The findings can be attributed to the fact that Division I-AAA does not include, nor support a football program. Unlike Division I-A and Division I-AA, who both support football programs, a significant difference in the distribution of funds to their men's and women's programs is reported. In men's athletic programs football and basketball garner 72 percent of the entire men's budget. (Title IX and Men's "Minor" Sports', 2002). In Division I-A thirty schools were accessed and

none of these institutions reached 50 percent for dividing their operating budget equitably. The closest school to attain the 50 percent ratio was Ohio University with its women's share of total operating budget at 39.78 percent. The equitable division of the operating budget has not only caused women's sports to disagree, but also some men's sports. In some cases across the country men's non-revenue sports are being cut with Title IX being stated as the reason (Lopiano, 2002). Institutions are not willing to disperse the money equally allowing some sports, such as football, to spend the majority of the budget. Yet, through legislation in collegiate basketball it has been proven that smaller coaching staffs, lower scholarship limits, and recruiting cutbacks does not hold back the popularity of a game. Athletic departments must be fiscally responsible to aid men's non revenue sports, as well as meet compliance regulations. (Lopiano, 2002).

The data reported by The Chronicle of Higher Education was selective in the information it disclosed regarding men's and women's funding. One example of this limited reporting can be found in the coverage of women's scholarships, and the exclusion of men's scholarship. With the omission of information it is difficult to compare data based on Title XI requirements. Yet, some conclusions can still be derived from the data analysis. In Division I-A the percentages of the proportional totals of the scholarship budget for women were closer, and that thirteen exceeded the proportional total. In Division I-AA and Division I-AAA, the deficits in meeting the proportional totals of scholarship budget for women were higher. The National Women's Law Center announced in 2000 that women in Division I-A and I-AA were still receiving less scholarship money than men. The center stated that male athletes were receiving approximately \$505 million per year, while the women athletes were only receiving \$372

million per year. After proper calculations, a deficit of \$133 million was discovered (Title IX and Women's Athletic Opportunity, 2002).

However, the information compiled by The Chronicle of Higher Education does contain relevant data that support Title IX and the goal of gender equity between men's and women's athletic programs. The data regarding the recruiting budget notes that Division I-A, Division I-AA, and Division I-AAA all demonstrate a higher percentage of funding distribution to women's sports, rather than to the men's programs. The statistics reported in the database also point that more money is spent on coaching salaries when the university is larger or the division is higher. The numbers also denote, based on the total coaching salaries in Division I-AAA, only five of the thirty universities accessed, showed that the women's coaching salaries reached at least 50 percent of the men's coaching salaries. In Division I-A, not one of the thirty universities accessed met the 50 percent equitable ratio. Oklahoma State University demonstrated a significant deficit with the women's share of the total coaching salaries, standing at only 19.39 percent. Mississippi demonstrated similar results with 20.64 percent allocated to the women's share of the total coaching salaries. Overall, The Chronicle of Higher Education was a source that enabled an in-depth look at the parity of Title IX in men's and women's coaching budgets, operating budgets, recruiting budgets, and scholarships within collegiate Divisions I-A, I-AA, I-AAA.

Recommendations

The Chronicle of Higher Education database revealed that Division I-AA averaged more female money, than Division I-AAA. This statistic may be attributed to the varying number of sports for each University. This statistical discovery demonstrates how operating budgets and athletic programs can be manipulated to garner or gain desired outcomes. However, this particular study did not give enough information to look beyond the athletic programs as a whole.

It is recommended that future studies should be conducted in order to determine whether or not the expenditures and incomes of Division I-A, I-AA, I-AAA athletic departments are closer in their efforts to conform to Title IX requirements and gender equity. To improve on this research there may be a need to add to the number of schools investigated. To increase the strength of this research project including more than one database would allow all areas to have numerical data so that comparisons would be comprehensive. Promoting the accuracy of such a study and topic is essential to continue ongoing research. Ultimately, through continued monitoring and research of gender equity, college institutions could eventually demonstrate complete compliance in all areas of women's sports.

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APPENDIX

NCAA DIVISION I-A, I-AA, AND I-AAA MEN'S AND WOMEN'S

OPERATING BUDGETS (EXPENSES AND INCOMES)

2003-4				
NCAA Division I-A	Expense (Men's Total)	Expense (Women's Total)	Revenue (Men's Total)	Revenue (Women's Total)
Arizona State University	\$18,658,444	\$7,644,823	\$22,925,592	\$1,042,015
Arkansas State University	\$4,810,897	\$1,852,563	\$2,215,502	\$75,209
Auburn University	\$21,168,468	\$8,193,515	\$42,223,075	\$364,250
Ball State University	\$6,158,792	\$3,569,074	\$1,658,435	\$146,035
Boston College	\$17,895,370	\$7,197,187	\$19,569,700	\$699,393
Brigham Young University	\$14,340,549	\$5,507,100	\$16,595,438	\$4,768,133
California State University, Fresno	\$10,635,553	\$4,975,908	\$15,182,310	\$2,099,262
Central Michigan University	\$5,389,389	\$3,038,095	\$5,389,389	\$3,038,095
Indiana University, Bloomington	\$15,584,190	\$7,035,474	\$24,795,969	\$201,713
Mississippi State University	\$10,844,235	\$4,133,490	\$16,306,859	\$214,750
Ohio University	\$5,447,330	\$3,597,674	\$5,537,037	\$3,632,121
Oklahoma State University	\$17,415,975	\$4,363,291	\$27,375,402	\$787,759
Pennsylvania State University	\$18,614,433	\$8,976,152	\$44,655,681	\$4,013,316
Temple University	\$12,396,264	\$5,490,295	\$12,396,264	\$5,490,293
Texas Christian University	\$9,278,508	\$3,129,400	\$14,608,168	\$4,743,157
Tulane University	\$4,818,000	\$1,718,000	\$9,644,480	\$3,352,520
University of California, Los Angeles	\$19,709,852	\$8,321,864	\$25,697,078	\$789,704
University of Central Florida	\$7,617,959	\$3,863,050	\$2,226,962	\$851,595
University of Georgia	\$13,523,784	\$7,225,512	\$46,643,428	\$327,630
University of Hawaii, Manoa	\$8,217,718	\$4,360,917	\$8,432,304	\$4,295,858
University of Idaho	\$5,267,543	\$2,490,828	\$5,768,165	\$2,473,641
University of Louisiana at Lafayette	\$4,246,580	\$1,174,822	\$2,219,000	\$45,815
University of Miami (Florida)	\$20,370,369	\$8,044,778	\$29,716,334	\$3,250,905
University of Michigan	\$21,231,672	\$10,954,967	\$49,032,662	\$394,250
University of Nebraska, Lincoln	\$19,675,363	\$8,370,224	\$33,636,254	\$1,343,225
University of Nevada, Las Vegas	\$9,656,681	\$4,664,636	\$8,203,891	\$815,058
University of Notre Dame	\$20,973,124	\$9,563,321	\$43,309,293	\$1,223,086
University of Pittsburgh	\$17,217,446	\$5,114,999	\$25,916,589	\$473,257
University of Texas at Austin	\$23,802,310	\$11,422,849	\$63,418,546	\$5,998,387
Wake Forest University	\$13,771,388	\$5,351,164	\$15,574,653	\$47,999
Total	\$398,738,186	\$171,345,972	\$640,874,460	\$56,998,431

2003-4				
NCAA Division I-AA	Expense (Men's Total)	Expense (Women's Total)	Revenue (Men's Total)	Revenue (Women's Total)
Alabama A&M University	\$3,251,174	\$1,348,822	\$3,942,279	\$1,357,021
Bethune-Cookman College	\$4,822,061	\$2,311,159	\$3,660,542	\$805,230
California State University, Sacramento	\$2,709,907	\$2,502,439	\$1,415,030	\$1,021,803
Charleston Southern University	\$2,427,347	\$1,494,498	\$2,717,027	\$1,602,682
Columbia University-Barnard College	\$4,688,746	\$2,213,065	\$1,167,524	\$116,820
Dartmouth College	\$4,241,942	\$2,971,518	\$4,229,622	\$3,282,015
Delaware State University	\$2,767,036	\$1,221,633	\$2,767,036	\$1,221,633
Drake University	\$2,869,893	\$3,012,356	\$870,308	\$233,211
Elon University	\$3,458,550	\$1,639,113	\$554,397	\$83,019
Florida A&M University	\$859,769	\$346,416	\$2,769,021	\$17,174
Florida International University	\$5,200,653	\$2,999,451	\$7,096,938	\$2,996,523
Georgia Southern University	\$3,879,146	\$2,005,033	\$1,256,683	\$570,164
Iona College	\$2,946,462	\$1,831,068	\$231,139	\$57,066
Lafayette College	\$4,664,086	\$2,855,025	\$3,915,468	\$1,461,834
Marist College	\$3,106,233	\$2,621,876	\$3,106,235	\$2,621,874
Mississippi Valley State University	\$1,252,178	\$731,698	\$669,784	\$204,781
Morgan State University	\$2,635,712	\$1,453,690	\$2,246,586	\$1,260,730
Portland State University	\$3,570,524	\$2,162,578	\$1,171,997	\$966,722
Sam Houston State University	\$2,305,841	\$1,430,630	\$886,288	\$298,676
Samford University	\$4,798,254	\$2,713,271	\$5,354,897	\$2,866,595
South Carolina State University	\$2,144,486	\$1,638,876	\$2,222,096	\$1,608,901
Southeast Missouri State University	\$2,736,991	\$2,054,103	\$1,930,230	\$649,014
Southern Utah University	\$1,903,531	\$1,205,400	\$1,507,136	\$726,382
Southwest Missouri State University	\$5,181,765	\$3,546,817	\$4,670,956	\$2,843,439
Texas State University-San Marcos	\$2,969,533	\$1,948,233	\$625,592	\$208,070
University of Arkansas, Pine Bluff	\$1,328,378	\$730,403	\$845,564	\$24,794
University of Montana	\$4,761,646	\$2,425,634	\$4,922,858	\$1,486,328
University of Tennessee at Martin	\$2,132,169	\$1,258,012	\$557,878	\$97,360
Virginia Military Institute	\$4,331,095	\$471,422	\$2,638,196	\$251,243
Wofford College	\$2,351,555	\$1,215,796	\$1,079,509	\$125,779
Total	\$97,296,663	\$56,360,035	\$71,028,816	\$31,066,883

2003-4				
NCAA Division I-AAA	Expense (Men's Total)	Expense (Women's Total)	Revenue (Men's Total)	Revenue (Women's Total)
Belmont University	\$1,986,936	\$1,968,054	\$705,697	\$1,968,054
Coppin State College	\$846,808	\$1,134,485	\$846,808	\$1,134,485
Creighton University	\$3,375,305	\$2,500,398	\$2,419,566	\$2,500,398
George Washington University	\$4,341,455	\$4,970,444	\$4,150,757	\$4,970,444
High Point University	\$1,771,547	\$1,453,941	\$1,947,111	\$1,453,941
Indiana University-Purdue University, Fort Wayne	\$1,296,294	\$1,142,769	\$459,349	\$1,142,769
Lamar University	\$1,840,914	\$1,331,104	\$824,771	\$1,331,104
Loyola Marymount University	\$3,666,208	\$4,477,337	\$3,925,428	\$4,477,337
Old Dominion University	\$2,648,307	\$2,825,794	\$859,084	\$2,825,794
Oral Roberts University	\$2,696,777	\$2,639,244	\$2,830,442	\$2,639,244
Quinnipiac University	\$3,412,723	\$3,743,051	\$3,600,348	\$3,743,051
Santa Clara University	\$3,186,150	\$3,145,362	\$3,032,625	\$3,145,362
Seton Hall University	\$5,184,498	\$3,964,619	\$5,662,617	\$3,964,619
Southeastern Louisiana University	\$3,090,930	\$1,535,429	\$2,517,609	\$1,535,429
St. Bonaventure University	\$2,183,998	\$1,611,498	\$1,005,928	\$1,611,498
St. Francis College, New York	\$1,014,240	\$921,708	\$1,014,240	\$921,708
Stetson University	\$2,723,386	\$2,588,685	\$2,709,452	\$2,588,685
University of Arkansas, Little Rock	\$4,011,811	\$1,818,155	\$1,683,062	\$1,818,155
University of California, Santa Barbara	\$2,591,051	\$2,647,720	\$769,400	\$2,647,720
University of Evansville	\$2,784,360	\$2,695,496	\$2,784,360	\$2,695,496
University of Illinois at Chicago	\$2,381,620	\$2,316,989	\$1,070,679	\$2,316,989
University of Maryland, Eastern Shore	\$742,431	\$1,139,242	\$907,092	\$1,139,242
University of Missouri, Kansas City	\$2,071,063	\$1,859,578	\$1,804,094	\$1,859,578
University of New Orleans	\$1,612,144	\$1,139,953	\$457,221	\$1,139,953
University of North Carolina, Asheville	\$1,018,303	\$1,015,366	\$385,053	\$1,015,366
University of North Carolina, Charlotte	\$3,197,915	\$2,625,584	\$2,228,615	\$2,625,584
University of Texas, Pan American	\$1,307,850	\$1,228,676	\$465,466	\$1,228,676
University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee	\$3,295,750	\$2,453,623	\$3,002,722	\$2,453,623
Virginia Commonwealth University	\$2,831,014	\$1,995,768	\$498,097	\$1,995,768
Wichita State University	\$4,099,982	\$2,530,126	\$3,634,575	\$2,530,126
Total	\$77,011,770	\$67,420,198	\$58,202,268	\$67,420,198

VITA

Shannon Leigh Atkins, daughter of Jacqueline and Robert Atkins was born on January 27, 1981, in Bryan, Texas. She attended A&M Consolidated High School in College Station, Texas, where she lettered in Cross Country, Track, and Basketball, as well as graduating in the top 10 percent of her class in 1999. Ms. Atkins was awarded the Presidential Scholarship to Concordia University at Austin, and selected as a starter for the Lady Tornado basketball team. Shannon transferred to Texas Lutheran University, and in December 2003 she received a Bachelor of Arts Degree in Kinesiology, with an All-Level Teaching Certification in Physical Education and Health. In 2004, Shannon was accepted to the Graduate program at Texas State University – San Marcos.

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This thesis was typed by Shannon Leigh Atkins.

