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Imagining the Fields: A Sociology of Sport Management and Sociology of Sport

Adam Love
University of Tennessee - Knoxville

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Adam Love entitled "Imagining the Fields: A Sociology of Sport Management and Sociology of Sport." I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Education.

Joy T. DeSensi, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation and recommend its acceptance:

Damon P. S. Andrew, Lars Dzikus, Ronald E. Taylor

Accepted for the Council:

Carolyn R. Hodges

Vice Provost and Dean of the Graduate School

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A Dissertation Presented for the Doctor of Philosophy Degree

University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Adam Love

May 2008

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There is a long list of individuals who deserve my gratitude for the help and support they have provided during my time in graduate school. While each of them deserve more than the words written in this section, I will do my best to convey my appreciation to some of those who have most directly contributed to my dissertation.

I want to begin by saying thank you to my family. While I cannot take the space to thank each of my family members individually, I want them all to know that their love and caring have had an important impact on my life. Most importantly, I want to thank my wife, Lauren, who is an unbelievable inspiration. In addition to the support and love she shares with me each day, she has had an important role in discussing and providing feedback on many of the ideas I have written about in this dissertation.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this dissertation is to explore the relationship between sport management and sociology of sport, with a specific focus on connections between the fields. To accomplish this purpose, I completed three distinct "projects": (a) a historical project aimed at exploring key influences on the development of the fields, (b) a social network project aimed at exploring the structure of the coauthorship network in the fields, and (c) an interpretive project aimed at considering the qualities that define research in sport management and sociology of sport. Ultimately, it seems that scholars have a significant amount of flexibility in terms of how they present their research to the field of sport management, to the field of sociology of sport, and/or to both fields. However, a relatively small number of scholars appear to consistently produce research in both fields and seek connections between the two fields. I suggest that there are a number of issues facing each field, such as a lack of diversity in sport management research and concerns with relevance and applicability in sociology of sport, as well as common interests between the fields, such as advancing the study of sport as a valuable area of academic inquiry, that might be addressed by considering and building upon the connections that exist between sport management and sociology of sport.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

What is sport management? What is the sociology of sport?[1] How are the two fields similar to one another? In what ways are they different? As someone who has both a bachelor's and master's degree in sport management, I have been led to routinely ponder these questions during my doctoral studies in the sociology of sport. In other words, from a personal standpoint, I am considering what might be the relationship between my previous academic experience and knowledge and my current course of study. Because of my frequent consideration of these issues, I have chosen to explore such questions as the focus of my dissertation.

Given my background, I certainly enter the dissertation process with a number of pre-existing ideas about the fields. In conducting my research, I admittedly bring an "agenda" in that I have a specific interest in and am paying particular attention to what might be connections between my two primary areas of academic study. Following Gordon (1975), Berkhofer (1995) writes that "the pose of objectivity is worse than

[1] A relevant issue I considered during the research process is the term that should be used to refer to the sociological study of sport. The name "sociology of sport" appears to be the most used term for the area of study. However, more informally and occasionally in academic writing the field is referred to as "sport sociology." In addition, scholars focusing on the field are usually referred to as "sport sociologists" rather than as "sociologists of sport." Some of this variation may be a result of convenience ("sport sociology" is quicker to say than "the sociology of sport") or a desire to avoid repetitive use of one term. However, the varying usage of names may not be solely a product of convenience for everyone. The only specific comments about the use of "sport sociology" vs. "sociology of sport" I have found were made by Dunning (2004) in discussion about renaming the *International Review of Sport Sociology* to the *International Review for the Sociology of Sport* in 1984. Dunning argues that the title "sport sociology" is a German construction (from S*portsoziologie*) and that the correct English wording is "sociology of sport." However, Lars Dzikus (personal communication), a native German speaker and Assistant Professor in sport studies, pointed out that the field is also commonly referred to as *Soziologie des Sports* in the German language, which raises some uncertainly about Dunning's argument. Further, given the field's long quest for legitimacy within sociology during its development, it may make sense that scholars have commonly used the name "sociology of sport" in formal writing to emphasize the field's standing as a subdiscipline of sociology. In this dissertation, however, I will use the terms sport sociology and sociology of sport somewhat interchangeably to refer to the area, as has been done by many scholars in the field.

explicit partisanship, because those who claim neutrality are misleading people about their actual positions, and…they lack a viewpoint from which to be critical of their own culture" (p. 215). In my case, it would be misleading to position myself as a disinterested investigator examining the fields of sport management and the sociology of sport. Also, in this case the "culture" of which I am being critical consists of the fields in which I have studied and am, in turn, a part of.

Because of these considerations, I seek to engage in self-reflexivity throughout the research process. The act of self-reflexivity is also important because it is a crucial component of conducting research from the critical paradigm. Whereas traditional researchers often attempt to adhere to neutrality and impartiality,

> research in the critical tradition takes the form of self-conscious criticism – self-conscious in the sense that researchers try to become aware of the ideological imperatives and epistemological presuppositions that inform their research as well as their own subjective, intersubjective, and normative reference claims. (Kincheloe & McLaren, 2005, p. 305)

Along somewhat similar lines, Bourdieu (1999; Bourdieu, Chamboredon, & Passeron, 1991; Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992), whose work helped inspire my thinking in several parts of this dissertation, was adamant that scholars should engage in self-reflexivity throughout the research process. Specifically, as explained by Karakayali (2004), Bourdieu urged sociologists to "turn their objectifying gaze upon themselves and become aware of the hidden assumptions that structure their research" (p. 352). Thus, given the nature of this dissertation and the importance of self-reflexivity, I will briefly discuss

some important items from my background and my experiences with sport management and the sociology of sport to give the reader a deeper insight into my work.

One of the most notable factors initially shaping my views of sport is the fact that, by and large, my experiences with sports throughout my life have been positive. This positive view comes largely from having a reasonable amount of competitive success in sports ranging from American football to track and field while growing up (I even had the opportunity to participate in some track and field at the collegiate level). In other words, I have generally benefited from the status quo and have been relatively successful under the way in which sports are organized in our society. Had I not been relatively "good" at sports, it is likely that I would not share such a positive interest in them (it is also likely that I would have chosen a different major when I entered college!). However, many scholars in the sociology of sport, such as Harris (1998), warn us against holding an overly functionalist view in which sports are naturally good for everyone. As Jones and Armour (2000) point out, though, "for those of us who have benefited from all that sport can offer, this may be a challenging thought" (p. xvi).

Despite my generally positive experiences in sport, however, I am interested in researching sport from a critical perspective rather than the "functionalist view" that Harris warns against. This leads me to reflect upon the process through which I, a white male from a middle-class background, have become interested in critical research that seeks to challenge the status quo. While not providing a total explanation, I do believe I have come to recognize some important factors that have influenced my critical consciousness. The first factor has to do with the environment in which I grew up. For example, I attended a "diverse" high school (at least diverse by the standards of primarily

white Spokane, Washington), which provided the opportunity to interact and play sports with students of a number of races and ethnicities. Thus, through such interaction at a relatively young age, I perhaps gained some appreciation for the perspectives of individuals coming from traditionally marginalized groups. In addition to racial and ethnic diversity, there was a significant amount of economic diversity present in my high school, with some students from relatively wealthy and some from relatively poor backgrounds, again giving me the opportunity to interact with a diverse group of individuals. Another important factor having to do with the environment in which I was raised is that fact that my mother has taught at an "alternative" high school for nearly my entire life. Her school is "alternative" in that it serves as sort of a last resort for students who have been expelled from "normal" schools, and it is disproportionately highly populated by students of color and students from low income backgrounds. To be very brief, such experience has helped my mother gain an appreciation of the perspectives of traditionally marginalized individuals, which in turn, has had an impact on my thinking.

In addition to my experiences while growing up, I look back on my first encounters with the sociology of sport in college as having a significant impact on my critical consciousness. Specifically, I recall writing a research paper as a junior in college in which I focused on the use of Native American symbols as nicknames and mascots for sports teams. In this project, I specifically focused on the perspectives of Native Americans in presenting an argument that sports teams should abandon the use of such symbols. I believe this project was my first instance of explicitly challenging an "overly functionalist view" of sports in an academic setting. This consideration of my initial encounters with the sociology of sport as an undergraduate sport management student

leads me to make connections between my experiences and those of the undergraduate sport management students that populate the classes I teach today.

During my time as a Ph.D. student, I have had the opportunity to teach two different undergraduate sport studies classes each year, in which approximately two-thirds of the student population has usually consisted of sport management majors. In fact, these classes are a requirement for undergraduate students pursuing a degree in sport management.[2] I have often asked myself the question of *why* sport management students should take such classes in which I attempt to provide a sociological perspective on issues in sports. Do the courses merely *force* students to receive a dose of social responsibility training before being turned loose into the sports industry? Or, rather, are there important connections between what is taught in sport management classes and the content of a sport sociology course? Am I teaching students information that can be helpful to their potential careers as sport managers? Again, given my background and experiences in the fields, I do believe that there are important and useful connections between sport management and the sociology of sport, which is a topic I will elaborate upon throughout this dissertation.

During the early stages of thinking about this dissertation, an initial consideration of the connections between the fields came from my experiences with various textbooks. For example, in Coakley's (2007) popular *Sports in Society* textbook, with which I have

[2] The two classes that I have taught are "Socio-Cultural Foundations of Sport and Leisure" (Sport Studies 335) and "Social Issues in Sport" (Sport Studies 336). Sport Studies 335 is a required class for all undergraduate students majoring in sport management. Sport Studies 336, meanwhile, is classified as a "pick 5" option for sport management majors at the University of Tennessee. This means that SS 336 is in a group of upper-division classes of which sport management majors must take five from the group. Although SS 336 is not technically required for sport management majors, the majority of sport management students do take the class.

become very familiar having used it in a number of classes, he lists a primary purpose of the text as being to "evoke critical questions from students as they think about sports in their lives and the world around them" (p. x). In "a letter to students" at the beginning of their popular *Contemporary Sport Management* textbook, meanwhile, Parks, Quarterman, and Thibault (2007) state that the goal of the text is "to introduce students to sport management, both as an academic major and as a professional endeavor" (p. ix). Relying on such descriptions, one might envision the sociology of sport as a critical field and sport management simply as a business-focused enterprise without any such critical consciousness. (Include more about tension between the fields here?) Whereas sport management is a professional endeavor that trains thousands of undergraduate and graduate students across the United States who wish to work as practitioners in sport, sociology of sport does not train such large numbers of students entering the sports industry. Unlike sport management, sport sociology is not necessarily geared toward providing a foundational knowledge base for any specific career in sport or physical activity (Sage, 1997). Due to such differences, I understand how some individuals may view sport management and the sociology of sport as fields with highly contrasting purposes and goals.

However, I argue that there are in reality a number of apparent connections between the fields, as well as a variety of issues facing the fields that may be addressed by specifically considering the relationship between sport management and the sociology of sport. As an example of one apparent connection, Parks, Quarterman, and Thibault (2007) include a chapter entitled "Thinking Critically about Sport Management," as well as a chapter entitled "Sociological Aspects of Sport," written by Mary Jo Kane in their

sport management textbook. The existence of chapters about critical thinking and the sociology of sport in a notable sport management textbook, however, is just one example of apparent connections that exist between the two fields. In addition, the sport management program standards established by the National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE) and the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), include "socio-cultural dimensions of sport" as a required content area for program approval at both the bachelor's and master's level. The fact that those setting the standards for education in the field of sport management see the importance of sociological issues lends further support to the need to specifically examine what such connections might be. In the next section of this chapter, I will expand on these apparent relationships by discussing some literature in which scholars have commented on current problems that I believe might be addressed by considering the connections between the fields. Overall, such apparent existing connections and the calls of scholars for increased interdisciplinary perspectives in the fields are an important part of the significance of this study, which involves explicitly investigating the relationship between sport management and the sociology of sport.

Introduction to the Problem and Rationale for the Study

Calls for Paradigmatic Plurality and Interdisciplinary Perspectives in Sport Management

As I previously discussed, I enter this project believing there are connections between the fields of sport management and sociology of sport based on my previous experiences. In this dissertation, what I hope to do is specifically identify such

connections both empirically and theoretically. One reason it is important to specifically consider such possible connections is that certain scholars in both fields have recently made calls for reform involving issues that could potentially be addressed by considering the relationship between the fields. For instance, in the field of sport management, a number of scholars have recently called attention to the need for a greater diversity of research perspectives and theoretical approaches in the field.

Notably, in her acceptance address given for receiving the 2004 Earl F. Zeigler Award, which is the most prestigious award presented by NASSM, Wendy Frisby urged sport management scholars to embrace critical social science as a lens of inquiry (Frisby, 2005). Emphasizing the need for greater plurality in approaches to research, Frisby stated that she was "offering critical social science as *a* paradigm, not *the* paradigm in sport management research" (p. 3). Reflecting on the fact that she received very few manuscripts operating from a critical stance during her time as editor of the *Journal of Sport Management* (*JSM*), Frisby wondered if sport management scholars have left critical work to their colleagues in the sociology of sport. Following Frost (1997), however, Frisby questions how sport management professors can claim to want their students to be strong critical thinkers when they are not themselves engaging with critical social science theory. Further, commenting on the positivist orientation most common in sport management studies, Frisby raises concern about an over-reliance on mainstream approaches to research that depict sport organizations as rational, goal-seeking entities. Overall, Frisby's call for critical social science as a lens of inquiry highlights potential connections that could be made between research methods in sport management and those present in the sociology of sport.

Shortly following Frisby's (2005) address, the *JSM* published a special issue in 2005 entitled, "Expanding Horizons: Promoting Critical and Innovative Approaches to the Study of Sport Management," edited by John Amis and Michael Silk. In their introduction to that special issue, Amis and Silk (2005) describe their motivation as guest editors as being "to provide a thoughtful space for the presentation, explication, and demonstration of innovative ways of thinking about and/or carrying out sport management research" (p. 355). Echoing Frisby's call for paradigmatic plurality, Amis and Silk emphasize that they "are not advocating any one paradigmatic, epistemological, or methodological approach over any other (p. 356). Further building on Frisby's comments, and following Hinings and Greenwood's (2002) critique of organization theory, they problematize the fact that when sport management scholars organize their research around the attempt to understand and thus design effective organizations, they usually fail to consider the question of *for whom* are these organizations effective. Much like Frisby's comments about sport management scholars often leaving critical work to those in the sociology of sport, Amis and Silk lament the fact that approaches to sport management that critique the industry are often farmed off to colleagues in other disciplines. My efforts in this dissertation to consider the relationship between sport management and the sociology of sport are in part a response to such calls for paradigmatic plurality and increased interdisciplinary interaction.

One of the articles appearing in that special edition of the *JSM* is a paper entitled, "Inventive Pathways: Fresh Visions of Sport Management Research," by Skinner and Edwards (2005). In their paper, Skinner and Edwards follow a number of other scholars (Cunningham & Mahoney, 2004; Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Fink, Pastore, & Riemer,

2003; Murray & Howat, 2002; Shilbury, 2001) in stating that positivistic and quantitative approaches have dominated sport management research. They are critical of the fact that such approaches assume "social reality, which is external to and independent of the mind of the observer, might be rendered comprehensible to the social scientist through observation and precise measurement" (Skinner & Edwards, 2005, p. 405). As a response to the dominance of positivistic and quantitative research in sport management, Skinner and Edwards advocate sport management researchers to "embrace ethnographic research designs underpinned by critical and postmodern thought in order to advance our understanding of sport management practice and organizations" (p. 405). Again, their critique is not entirely focused on the positivistic paradigm (and quantitative research) itself, but rather, they are critical of positivism as being *the* paradigm for research in sport management. This view is reflected in their statement that "there is no single or right way to understand social reality" (p. 415). Overall, the arguments of Skinner and Edwards for a greater diversity of approaches to research in sport management again draw attention to the potential benefits that may be gained from sport management scholars engaging with research paradigms more common to the sociology of sport.

Issues of Relevance and Applicability in the Sociology of Sport

In the sociology of sport, meanwhile, similar to calls for increased diversity of research approaches in sport management, Harris (2006) has recently advocated that more interaction take place between sport sociologists and scholars involved in other areas of kinesiology. Although not specifically referencing sport management, she argues that knowledge generated from socio-cultural studies of a variety of topics related

to sport has the potential to contribute insight to other subdisciplines of kinesiology. Harris, who comments that sociology of sport has been located on the fringes of kinesiology, believes that sport sociology research has the potential to be more central in the broader discipline of kinesiology because many scholars in other subdisciplines have a strong interest in the topics that sport sociologists investigate. She admits, though, that to some extent, sport sociologists have contributed to their own marginalization by failing to give attention to areas such as applied research. Specifically, Harris suggests that by engaging in applied work, sport sociologists could better contribute to the preparation of kinesiology students for careers as physical activity professionals in a variety of recreation and school/community-based programs. While she does not specifically use the term sport management practitioners (although the physical activity programs she mentions are certainly one area of sport management), I suggest that the term "physical activity professionals" could be replaced with "sport management professionals" as a group that could benefit from the application of sport sociology research. Regardless, Harris' commentary again brings attention to some potential areas of connection between the sociology of sport and sport management.

In addition to Harris (2006), a number of other sociology of sport scholars have given consideration to the issues of the relevance and applicability of sport sociology knowledge. In an early overview of the field, Lüschen (1980) was critical of the fact that sociology of sport has done little to contribute rational insight into sport policy, sport practice, and physical education. More specifically, Melnick (1980) issued an early call for sport sociologists to give attention to applied issues with his paper, "Toward an Applied Sociology of Sport." In this paper, Melnick outlined some key issues in the

development of the sociology of sport, such as a "frenetic desire for academic respectability" (p. 1), that worked against its becoming more applied. He also pointed out a growing gap between researchers and practitioners, suggesting that a "humanistically oriented, applied sociology of sport can help close this gap" (p. 11). Yiannakis (1989) later followed the lead of Melnick with a paper entitled "Toward an Applied Sociology of Sport: The Next Generation." In this paper, Yiannakis laments the fact that sport sociologists have done little, either conceptually or methodologically, to further the early work concerning application in sociology of sport by pioneers such as Melnick (1980), Voight (1974), and Lenk (1973). Yiannakis, however, goes beyond these earlier calls by presenting a model for the relationship of theory to application and by making specific suggestions, such as starting a journal of applied sociology of sport, about ways in which the mutual interests of applied sport sociologists and sport practitioners can be addressed. The work of those such as Melnick and Yiannakis appears to point to another possible connection between the sociology of sport and sport management, in that sport managers and sport management students are the type of practitioners with whom they are concerned.

Yiannakis later built upon his initial article by co-editing a book entitled "Applied Sociology of Sport" with Susan Greendorfer. In that book, which contains articles on topics ranging from broad conceptual issues to specific examples of application, Yiannakis and Greendorfer (1992) attempt to "articulate a theoretical framework for the conceptual development of an applied sociology of sport" (p. vii). Among those for whom the book is intended are "sociologists of sport who wish to extend their work into the realm of practice, policy, and advocacy; and professionals in sport-related jobs who

want to incorporate knowledge and insight from existing research into their work" (p. viii). Such a statement again highlights possible connections between sport managers and sport sociologists interested in producing research directly applicable to professionals in sport-related jobs.

Although their specific focus is on sport pedagogy research, Martinek and Hellison's (1997; Martinek, Hellison, & Walsh, 2004) calls for "service-bonded inquiry" reflect a number of the same ideas as the commentaries of those such as Yiannakis and Melnick. Like Melnick (1980), Martinek and Hellison (1997) point to a growing gap between producers and users of knowledge and ask the question, "do we continue to journey down the path producing knowledge for only a select enclave of scholars, or can we also venture down the path that brings relevance to real life conditions?" (p. 108). In its attempt to integrate service and scholarship, the concept of service-bonded inquiry addresses a number of similar issues connected to the relationship between theory and practice that are present in considerations of the applicability and relevance of sociology of sport.

Following earlier work on applicability and relevance of sport sociology research, Jones and Armour (2000) bring the issues back to attention with their edited book "Sociology of Sport: Theory & Practice." In the first chapter of this anthology, Armour and Jones (2000) attempt to provide rationale for the relevance and importance of sociology for the sports student and the sports practitioner. Making specific reference to the field of sport management, they focus on the value of sociology of sport research for coaches, physical education teachers, and sport managers/administrators. Additionally, Yiannakis (2000) contributes a chapter entitled "From Theory to Application in the

Sociology of Sport" to Jones and Armour's (2000) anthology. In this paper, Yiannakis goes as far as to suggest that in the United States, sport sociologists "have not only failed to demonstrate the relevance and uses of their field, but have also managed to alienate sport sociology from much of the world of sport" (p. 115). However, he argues that a shift in funding, from internal institutional support to external sources, "has placed a greater emphasis on the production of research with applied consequences, thus giving greater legitimacy to applied research, and applied work in general" (p. 114). Due to this shift in funding, sport sociologists are in a way being "forced" to give greater attention to issues of applicability. Also commenting on the trend of increased pressure being placed on academics to secure external funding for research, Harris (2006) suggests that "funding agencies often favor crossdisciplinary or interdisciplinary approaches" (p. 85). Thus, some sport sociologists may benefit from considering connections with the field of sport management in order to address issues such as increasing pressure for external funding.

Related to the increasing pressures to secure external funding is the general competition for resources that takes place within any university. All institutions have a limited budget from which to distribute resources to the many colleges and departments across a campus. In turn, all academic fields are, to some extent, in competition with one another for university funding. Regardless of the department in which they are housed, scholars in both sport management and the sociology of sport share a common interest in promoting sport as an important subject of academic inquiry. Thus, the more effectively that the fields of sport management and the sociology of sport are able to demonstrate their importance, impact, and relevance, the more they benefit from bringing increased

legitimacy and value to the academic study of sport and, in turn, the more effectively they may compete for funding and other resources.

Overall, I believe that explicitly investigating the relationship between the fields and considering where connections exist may be a valuable way of addressing some of the issues I have outlined that currently face sport management and the sociology of sport.

Research Questions and Purpose of the Study

My primary research question in this dissertation is: What is the relationship between sport management and the sociology of sport? In order to shed light on that question, I am conducting three distinct "projects" in the course of completing this dissertation. The first project involves a historical consideration of the development of sport management and the sociology of sport in an attempt to provide a context from which to better understand the relationship between the fields. In this project, I consider questions such as: What historical processes and conditions have influenced the development of the fields of sport management and the sociology of sport? In the second project, I utilize social network analysis to examine the structure of coauthorship patterns present within and between the fields, considering the question of: How have networks of scholars influenced the development of the fields? My final project involves analyzing select examples of research from each field to explore the question: What qualities and criteria distinguish sport management and the sociology of sport from one another?

In my discussion and analysis of these three research "projects," I will shed light on where connections between the fields of sport management and sport sociology may have existed in the past, where connections may have been lost, and where connections

might be (re)established. Further, another purpose in pursing this study for my dissertation involves providing insight and rationale for developing a framework from which scholars may better pursue interdisciplinary research that might be able to utilize perspectives and knowledge both from sport management and the sociology of sport. In doing so, scholars in both sport management and the sociology of sport may be able to address various issues and problems currently facing the fields.

Significance of the Study

Earlier in this introduction, I suggested that a number of apparent connections exist between sport management and the sociology of sport. Some of the most easily recognizable connections are the presence of "sociology of sport" chapters in sport management textbooks and the inclusion of sport sociology as a content area in sport management curriculum standards. In addition to these connections, I outlined how the field of sport management has faced criticism from various scholars who have called attention to the problems associated with an over-reliance on positivistic assumptions and the need for increased diversity of research approaches and interdisciplinary perspectives in the field. In the sociology of sport, meanwhile, a number of scholars have discussed issues of applicability and relevance, pointing out problems associated with the lack of attention given to such issues by sport sociologists. The significance of conducting this study comes both from these apparent connections that exist between sport management and the sociology of sport and from issues currently facing the fields that may be addressed by specifically considering the connections between the fields. It is important, therefore, to explicitly and empirically study the relationship between sport management

and the sociology of sport in order to shed light on such connections, which is what I seek to do in this dissertation.

Overall, this study may help provide insight about ways in which scholars can address certain problems/issues currently facing the fields, such as pressure for external funding, competition for academic resources, and the advancement of sport as a legitimate and important area of academic inquiry. It will also be of assistance to sport management scholars seeking to stimulate a greater diversity of research perspectives in the field and to sport sociologists addressing issues of applicability and relevance. Therefore, this study may help to provide insight for developing a framework from which scholars may better pursue interdisciplinary research and consider the impact of such research on sport and society by utilizing and integrating perspectives from sport management and the sociology of sport.

In addition, this study also has great significance for me at a personal level. First, the study is personally significant because it provides an opportunity for me to deeply reflect upon the two primary areas of study during my academic career. It has also helped me gain familiarity with a variety of approaches to exploring the relationship between the fields. In these ways, this dissertation provides me an opportunity to both reflect on my previous studies and consider the directions of the academic career ahead of me. In the spirit in which Mills (1959) encouraged individuals to connect personal experiences to broader societal issues, I hope that my consideration of these personal subjects can help illuminate some broader issues that may be useful to scholars in the fields.

Scope of the Study

Throughout this introduction, I have discussed the value and importance of having a diversity of research approaches and perspectives in an academic field. In that spirit, I wish to reinforce that the arguments made in this dissertation are not intended as a mandate for all scholars involved in the fields of sport management and the sociology of sport. Rather, following the approach of Harris (2006), I hope to offer suggestions that might sway *some* scholars in the fields to give further consideration to the connections between sport management and the sociology of sport in order to address some of the issues I previously outlined. Rather than arguing that all sport management scholars must adopt critical social science as a lens of inquiry, I suggest that engaging with research perspectives from the sociology of sport may be a valuable way for sport management scholars to increase the diversity of research perspectives found in that field. Rather than arguing that all sport sociologists should collaborate with sport managers, I suggest that considering perspectives from sport management may be a valuable method for sport sociologists to address issues of applicability and relevance. These are points I will continue to stress and elaborate upon throughout this dissertation.

Organization of the Study

In order to explore the relationship between the fields, I am submitting sport management and the sociology of sport to a sociological analysis. In the following chapter, therefore, I attempt to provide an overview of research in the sociology of science and other work in which scholars have attempted to analytically reflect on the social impacts on various academic disciplines. Included in this overview is a discussion

of literature that has attempted to "take stock" of the fields of sport management and the sociology of sport. As previously mentioned, this dissertation will include three "projects" that seek to shed light on the relationship between the fields: (a) a "historical" project in which I aim to provide a historical context from which to better understand the relationship between the fields, (b) a social network project in which I examine coauthorship patterns present within and between the fields in order to understand how networks of individuals have influenced their development, and (c) an interpretive project in which I analyze select examples of research from each field to explore what qualities in the intent, methods, and purposes of scholars distinguish sport management and the sociology of sport from one another. In chapter three, then, I will outline the specific procedures utilized and theoretical approaches that inform my work. In the following chapter, which is divided into three sections corresponding to my three "projects," I will discuss some of the findings from my work. Finally, in chapter five I will provide some synthesis between the various analyses I have conducted, making some final conclusions about the relationship between the fields of sport management and the sociology of sport.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

When thinking about the areas of literature to review for this chapter, I first attempted to consider this dissertation at a quite general level. Thus, at a general level, what I am attempting to do is present an analytical reflection of the development, state, and practices of sport management and the sociology of sport, giving specific attention to connections between the fields. In this task, I am ultimately considering the social contexts within which the fields have grown and the social factors impacting the development of the fields, and, therefore, I consider this study a "sociology" of sport management and sociology of sport. In this review of literature, therefore, I discuss the work of various scholars in the sociology of science who have examined social factors influencing the development and practices of various academic fields. I begin with a general overview of examples of research in the sociology of science before moving on to discuss some specific commentaries attempting to "take stock" of sport management and the sociology of sport. I also address the relationship between sociology, history, and philosophy.

The Sociology of Science[3]

Put simply, the sociology of science involves investigating science as a social and cultural activity. As Ben-David and Sullivan (1975) succinctly state, the "sociology of science deals with the social conditions and effects of science, and with the social structures and processes of scientific activity" (p. 203). Primarily beginning in the 1960s and 1970s, there has been a significant amount of scholarly work that can be placed in the category of the sociology of science. In *Science of Science and Reflexivity*, a book based upon his final lecture course at the Collège de France, Bourdieu (2001/2004) gives specific attention to discussing the sociology of science, in a way performing a "sociology" of the sociology of science. In chapter one of his book, Bourdieu notes the enormous growth, in terms of the amount of literature, that has recently occurred in the sociology of science and, along with that, the difficulty presented for anyone trying to give a summary or review of this literature. Therefore, like Bourdieu, I cannot hope to cover the entire literature. Rather, I hope to discuss some important examples of work in the sociology of science that might give the reader a better understanding of scholarship in that area.

[3] Some scholars may point out that much of the literature I include in my discussion of the "sociology of science" should instead be labeled as being a part of the "sociology of scientific knowledge." Commenting on the two fields of research, Collins (1983) states that "the relationship between the largely American specialty 'the sociology of science' (most often associated with Robert Merton) and the largely British specialty 'the sociology of scientific knowledge' seems to have been perceived by nearly all participants as one of competition or perhaps opposition" (p. 266). He suggests that work in the sociology of science seeks to "turn on the elucidation of the set of normative and other institutional arrangements that enable science" (p. 266), while the sociology of scientific knowledge "is concerned precisely with what comes to count as scientific knowledge and how it comes so to count" (p. 267). He goes on to argue that the sense of a necessary opposition between the fields is false. Bourdieu (2001/2004), meanwhile, seems to include work from both the sociology of science and the sociology of scientific knowledge in his discussion. At times, Bourdieu seems to use the term "new sociology of science" to refer to what Collins classifies as the sociology of scientific knowledge. Therefore, although I use the term sociology of science, my discussion in this review of literature includes a range of work that may be given different labels by different individuals. Regardless, I hope to note a number of distinctions between different traditions in these lines of research.

In addition to noting the difficulties presented by the volume of literature in the area, Bourdieu (2001/2004) prefaces his discussion by noting that the sociology of science is a "field in which the history of the discipline is a stake (among others) in struggles" (p. 9). He explains that,

> each of the protagonists develops a vision of this history consistent with the interests linked to the position he [sic] occupies within the history; the different historical accounts are oriented according to the position of their producer and cannot claim the status of indisputable truth. (p. 9)

Further considering the effects of reflexivity and his role in producing an overview of the sociology of science, Bourdieu states,

> what I have just said puts my listeners on their guard against what I am going to say, and puts me on my guard too, against the danger of privileging one orientation or against even the temptation to see myself as objective on the grounds for example that I am equally critical of all positions. (p. 9)

Bourdieu's comments provide an opportunity for me to further reflect upon my role in this research project and also reinforce the importance of engaging in self reflexivity in such a project. In line with Bourdieu's comments, other scholars who may have an initially hostile reaction toward the relationship between sport management and the sociology of sport may be "put on guard" against my comments. However, my engagement in self reflection gives them a better position from which to interpret my comments, thus aiding scholarly discourse. In addition, self reflexivity puts me "on guard" against privileging either the field of sport management or the sociology of sport

in my discussion, while also helping me avoid the temptation of seeing myself as an objective or disinterested observer of the fields.

Having noted these complications involved in reviewing literature in the sociology of science, I will now discuss some examples of work in the field. In his sociology of the sociology of science, Bourdieu (2001/2004) begins by outlining a social history of the field in which he discusses the main positions in the sociology of science, or as he calls them, different "moments" or "strands."

Structural-Functionalist (Mertonian) Sociology of Science

The first such strand in the sociology of science is the structural-functionalist or Mertonian tradition, which Bourdieu (2001/2004) describes as primarily a "sociology of researchers and scientific institutions conceived in a structural-functionalist perspective" (p. 10). Bourdieu seems to praise this line of research for its "contributions to our knowledge of the scientific field" (p. 9-10) and its attention to the "contingent aspect of scientific practice" (p. 10). However, he is critical of this tradition of inquiry for the "concessions" it gives to the official vision of science. In other words, Bourdieu is critical of the way in which Merton justifies or rationalizes scientific practices and takes certain aspects of scientific practice at face value.

In his presidential address at the 1957 meeting of the American Sociological Association, Merton (1957) discussed the issue of priority in scientific discovery and examined the factors pushing scholars to aggressively assert and defend their claims to discovery. Merton's functionalist perspective can be seen is his discussion of the "institutional norms" of science, as he states, for example, "when the institution of

science works efficiently…recognition and esteem accrue to those who have best fulfilled their roles, to those who have made genuinely original contributions to the common stock of knowledge" (p. 639). In commenting on the reward system in science, meanwhile, Merton writes, "like other institutions, the institution of science has developed an elaborate system for allocating rewards to those who variously live up to its norms" (p. 642). Commenting on maintenance of and deviation from established norms, he states, "it would seem that the institutional emphasis [on priority] is maintained with an eye to its functional utility," however "once it becomes established, forces of rivalrous interaction lead it to get out of hand" (p. 658). Such a statement seems to infer that norms are formed solely based on functional utility, and that it is deviant individual behavior (such as rivalries) that may cause problems in regards to such norms.

Another example of the structural functionalist tradition in the sociology of science is Cole and Cole's (1967) study about the operation of the reward system in science. Cole and Cole, both of whom were at Columbia University with Merton, analyze research published by 120 physicists to examine the relationship between quantity and quality of publications. The researchers find that although quantity and quality of research tend to be related, quality of output is more significant than quantity in eliciting forms of recognition, such as receipt of awards, appointment to prestigious academic departments, and being widely known to one's colleagues. Similar to the comments of Merton discussed earlier, Cole and Cole draw conclusions that demonstrate their functionalist perspective, such as when they write, "the reward system operates in such a way as to encourage the creative scientists to be productive and to divert the energies of the less creative scientists into other channels" (p. 388). A problem with such

functionalist analyses is that “this research takes the indices of recognition, such as citation, at face value, and everything takes place as if the statistical inquiries aimed to verify that the distribution of ‘rewards’ is perfectly justified” (Bourdieu, 2001/2004, p. 11).

In a critique that seems relevant to the work of both Merton and Cole and Cole, Bourdieu (2001/2004) argues that “structural functionalism sees the scientific world as a ‘community’ which has ‘developed’ for itself just and legitimate regulatory institutions and where there are no struggles – or at least, no struggles over what is at stake in the struggles” (p. 11). He poses the question: Is a scientific community really “functional” and for whom? This is a question that sociology of science research in the structural functionalist tradition fails to consider. Bourdieu sums up his critique of this “moment” in the sociology of science by stating,

> the scientific analysis of science as Merton practices it justifies science by justifying scientific inequalities, by showing scientifically that the distribution of prizes and rewards is in accordance with scientific justice since the scientific world proportions scientific rewards to scientists’ scientific merits. (p. 13)

Before concluding his discussion of the structural functionalist tradition, Bourdieu offers a broader critique of Merton’s general approach to sociology, writing

> it is also in order to ensure the respectability of sociology that Merton tries to make it a real scientific “profession”, modeled on the bureaucracy, and to endow the structural-functionalist spurious paradigm that he helped to construct with Parsons and Lazarsfeld with the spuriously reflexive and empirically validated

> crowning discipline which is the sociology of science treated as an instrument of sociology. (p. 13-14)

Overall, while there are certainly many limitations and criticisms of Merton and the structural functionalist approach to the sociology of science, I believe that it is important to have an understanding of such scholarship because of its influence and, as Bourdieu puts it, the contribution made "to our knowledge of the scientific field" (p. 9-10). In addition, I will return to discussing the influence of structural functionalism in the 1950s and 1960s as I explore the development of sport management and the sociology of sport as distinct areas of academic study later in this dissertation.

Kuhn's "Normal Science" and "Scientific Revolutions"

The second "moment" in Bourdieu's (2001/2004) discussion of the sociology of science is that exemplified by Kuhn's (1962) examination of "normal science" and "scientific revolutions" in his book, *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*. In Bourdieu's (2001/2004) view, the main contribution of Kuhn's work "was to show that the development of science is not a continuous process, but is marked by a series of breaks and by the alternation of periods of 'normal science' and 'revolutions'" (p. 14). In Kuhn's (1962) words, normal science "is predicated on the assumption that the scientific community knows what the world is like" and in turn, "often suppresses fundamental novelties because they are necessarily subversive of its basic commitments" (p. 5). Scientific revolutions, meanwhile, are "tradition-shattering complements to the tradition-bound activity of normal science" (p. 6), and "the successive transition from one paradigm to another via revolution is the usual developmental pattern of mature science"

(p. 12). A number of factors, however, work against the occurrence of scientific revolutions. For example, scientific revolutions require the reconstruction of prior assumptions and the reevaluation of prior facts, which is difficult, time consuming, and generally resisted by the established scientific community. The idea of scientific revolutions and "paradigm shifts" are interesting concepts to consider as I explore the process through which research conducted in the fields of sport management and sociology of sport has developed.

In regards to his take on Kuhn's work, Bourdieu (2001/2004) seems positive about Kuhn's focus on drawing attention to the discontinuities present within scientific development. Bourdieu's main critique of Kuhn's work, however, is that "because he is content to describe the scientific world from a quasi-Durkheimian perspective, as a community dominated by a central norm, he does not seem to me to put forward a coherent model for explaining change" (p. 15). Noting the significant impact and popularity of Kuhn's work, Bourdieu argues that such popularity is due not so much to the content of the message itself, but "to the fact that it appeared in a historical context in which an educated population, that of students, was able to appropriate it and transform it into a *specific* revolutionary message, against academic authority" (p. 17). In other words, it seems he was attributing the impact of Kuhn's work to the fact that it provided a strong challenge to the "official" version of science in a time (the 1960s) when many individuals were seeking to challenge authority and the status quo.

Despite Bourdieu's critique and the variety of factors influencing the reception of Kuhn's work, it is undeniable that he has had a significant impact upon the way many scholars look at scientific practices and, thus, I want to provide some further discussion

of the impact of his work. As Glesne (2006) states in her introductory text to qualitative research, Kuhn's book "began a philosophical revolution in the practice of science" (p. 7). As she explains, "before its publication, people tended to believe that scientific research built upon itself, progressively increasing the 'body of knowledge' until we could come to know how the world worked" (p. 7). However, "Kuhn demonstrated how science was often an ideological battleground where ideas and explanations competed, and those that 'won' were often those of the scientists with the most power" (Glesne, 2006, p. 7). In Kuhn's (1962) words, "we may have to relinquish the notion, explicit or implicit, that changes of paradigm carry scientists and those who learn from them closer and closer to the truth" (p. 171). Such a conclusion is certainly at odds with a positivist philosophy that regards "the progress of science as a continuous movement of accumulation" (Bourdieu, 2004, p. 14), and is an important aspect of the contribution and impact of Kuhn's work. In addition, Kuhn's concept of the scientific revolution is relevant as I consider such issues as the "critical shift" in sociology of sport and the "postmodern shift" in American cultural studies.

The "Strong Program" and Laboratory Studies

Bourdieu (2001/2004) finishes his review of studies in the sociology of science with a discussion of the "strong program" (p. 18), exemplified by Bloor's (1976) book, *Knowledge and Social Imagery*, while also noting other studies involving ethnographic observation of the laboratory setting. Bloor (1976) lays out four major methodological principles of the "strong program," which he sees as the principles that must be followed to construct a conclusive sociological theory of scientific knowledge: 1) causality: the

explanation proposed must be causal; 2) impartiality: the sociologist must be impartial as regards the "truth" or "falsehood" of the assertions made by the actors; 3) symmetry: this principle states that "the same types of causes" must be used to explain both beliefs judged to be "true" by the actors and those judged to be "false"; and 4) reflexivity requires the sociology of the sciences to be subject in principle to the same treatment it applies to the other sciences. Such principles have inspired and guided a number of case studies and ethnographic studies of laboratory processes.

In one example of an ethnographic laboratory study, Latour (Latour & Woolgar, 1982) spent two years working as a technician at a biological laboratory. Collins (1983) identifies Latour and Woolgar's "descriptions of how a scientific 'fact' is first generated from the day-to-day contingent acts of laboratory life" (p. 277) as being a major contribution of their research. They describe, for example, the process by which a series of seemingly disconnected acts of measurement are given unity by scientists as they are viewed as all pointing to the existence of the same "fact." Latour and Woolgar also describe the process of the transformation that takes place in the language used in talking about a "fact." For example,

> Forms such as "Johnson suggests that 'x' exists" are translated into "it has been confirmed a number of times that 'x' exists," and finally, when full facticity is reached, into "x can be used as…" Researchers may even stop referring to the fact, since it comes to seem a part of common sense. (cited in Collins, 1983, p. 277)

Such considerations of how scientific "facts" are generated in the research process and how language is used to explain such "facts" are important contributions of this tradition in the sociology of science.

The contribution of laboratory studies is also well summed up in the words of Knorr-Cetina (1992):

> Scientific objects are not only "technically" manufactured in laboratories, but are also inextricably symbolically or politically construed, for example, through literary techniques of persuasion such as one finds embodied in scientific papers, through the political stratagems of scientists in forming alliances and mobilizing resources, or through the selections and decision translations which "build" scientific findings from within. (p. 115).

In other words, Knorr-Cetina draws attention to ways in which scientific legitimacy is created in the writing process as well as through networks of scholars interacting with one another. Considerations of networks of scholars interacting with one another are of particular interest to me in this dissertation.

In further discussing the shift that occurs in terms of what actually takes place during the research process to what is written in the final publication, Bourdieu (2001/2004) refers to the words of Medawar (1964), who writes that in the published account,

> findings appear more decisive and more honest; the most creative aspects of the research disappear, giving the impression that imagination, passion, art have played no part in them and that the innovation results not from the passionate activity of deeply committed hands and brains but from passive submission to the sterile precepts of the so-called 'scientific method.' (p. 21).

Such a statement again draws attention to the reasons I feel that writing self-reflexively into this dissertation will give other scholars a better standpoint from which to interpret my arguments, thus aiding scholarly discourse.

Pierre Bourdieu: Habitus, Capital, and Field

While much of my discussion in this literature review has been informed by Bourdieu's critique and analysis, I have not yet explicated Bourdieu's approach to the sociological analysis of science. Thus, I will now expand on Bourdieu's approach, particularly his concepts of *habitus*, *capital*, and *field*, which are central to his perspective on the sociology of science. Bourdieu, who served as Chair of Sociology at the Collège de France, was one of the most influential sociologists of the late 20th century. In fact, Giulianotti (2005) praises Bourdieu as "one of the world's leading post-war sociologists" (p. 153). In addition, Bourdieu was one of the first "major social theorists" to take sport as a "serious sociological issue" (Tomlinson, 2004, p. 161). Therefore, my interest in Bourdieu's perspective originates from both his status as a prominent sociologist and social theorist as well as the specific attention he devoted to sport.

Habitus is one key theoretical principle underlying Bourdieu's framework. Tomlinson (2004) notes that one of the most succinct definitions of *habitus* offered comes in a footnote of Bourdieu's (1979/1984) *Distinction.* As Bourdieu explains, *habitus* "expresses first the *result of an organizing action*, with a meaning close to that of words such as structure; it also designates a state of being…in particular a *predisposition, tendency, propensity* or *inclination*" (p. 562). A key in this is that in Bourdieu's concept of *habitus*, structure and action are embraced as interrelated elements; "the habitus is not

only a structuring structure, which organizes practices and the perception of practices, but also a structured structure" (Bourdieu, 1979/1984, p. 170). The determinist aspect of this structuring process should not be overstated, however, as Tomlinson (2004) explains, "habituses can of course change, lose position and influence, and this can only be, logically, a consequence of the interrelatedness of the practices of agents with the extant habitus" (p. 167). Thus, the concept of *habitus* may be useful in an investigation of an academic discipline by helping one to think about, for example, the interrelatedness of the practices of agents.

With the concept of *capital*, meanwhile, Bourdieu is referring to a form of power. Specifically, *capital* is "the capacity individuals and groups might have to impact upon, change, or control situations" (Tomlinson, 2004, p. 168). With respect to science, Bourdieu (1975) conceptualizes scientific authority as a particular kind of *social capital* that gives scholars "power over the constitutive mechanisms of the field" (p. 23). He conceptualizes a researcher's choice of methods as a "political investment strategy" directed toward "maximization of strictly scientific profit," such as recognition from one's peers (p. 23). Further, for any given scholar, what is at stake in struggles in the scientific field is "the power to impose the definition of science…best suited to his [sic] specific interests, *i.e.* the definition most likely to enable him [sic] to occupy the dominant position in full legitimacy" (p. 23). It is the possession of *capital* that gives one the power to impose a given definition in the scientific *field*. As is apparent in many of the definitions offered by Bourdieu, the concept of *capital* is closely related to the concept of *field*.

In Bourdieu's words, "a field may be defined as a network, or a configuration, of objective relations between positions" (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 97). One can see the connections that such a concept has to the scientific field in any given academic discipline. Further, the positions in a *field*

> are objectively defined, in their existence and in the determinations they impose upon their occupants, agents or institutions, by their present and potential situation (situs) in the structure of the distribution of species of power (or capital) whose possession commands access to the specific profits that are at stake in the field, as well as by their objective relation to other positions. (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 97)

Recognizing the potential for conflict and change within a *field,* Bourdieu further states that "as a space of potential and active forces, the field is also a *field of struggles* aimed at preserving or transforming the configuration of these forces" (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 101). With specific respect to scientific fields, Bourdieu (1975) notes that

> as a system of objective relations between positions already won (in previous struggles), the scientific field is the locus of a competitive struggle, in which the specific issue at stake is the monopoly of scientific authority, defined inseparably as technical capacity and social power, or, to put it another way, the monopoly of scientific competence, in the sense of a particular agent's socially recognized capacity to speak and act legitimately (*i.e.* in an authorized and authoritative way) in scientific matters. (p. 19)

Bourdieu's critical analysis, among other things, provides a way of analyzing the role of conflict in shaping any given scientific field.

Having explained Bourdieu's concepts of *habitus*, *capital*, and *field*, I will conclude this section by further discussing how these concepts relate to one another and noting some the ways in which such concepts inform my research. As stated simply by Scott and Marshall, "a person's effectiveness or 'capital' within a particular institutional 'field' results from the degree of asymmetry or conflict between the field and their habitus" (Scott & Marshall, 2005, p. 43). Therefore, an implication of this perspective is that for a scholar entering a given scientific discipline, their ability to gain "capital" will be impacted by the way in which their "habitus" relates to that of the "field" in question. In applying these concepts to my exploration of how networks of scholars have influenced the development of sport management and the sociology of sport, I consider processes through which certain individuals have been able to gain capital and influence the development of the fields. In addition, "the structure of the distribution of capital determines the structure of the field" (Bourdieu, 2001/2004, p. 34). Therefore, as I examine coauthorship patterns present within and between sport management and the sociology of sport, I am able to identify individuals who possess a significant form of capital (publications in the most prestigious journals in the fields), and in turn, I am able to gain insight into the structure of the fields.

Michel Foucault and Archaeology

While many people may not place Michel Foucault's work under the category of the sociology of science, I discuss his work in this section because, like research in the sociology of science, Foucault's research, in part, attempts to analytically reflect on the development of various disciplines, such as with psychiatry in his book *Madness and*

Civilization. At a general level, a major project of Foucault's work involves undermining or creating uncertainty about modernity and dominant portrayals of science and reason. The contention that Foucault, along with other scholars such as his mentor, Georges Canguilhem, was trying to raise at a philosophical level was that "at the physical level of life itself, there is random error that is integral to life itself" (Scheurich & Bell McKenzie, 2005, p. 845). Further, "knowledge, rather than opening onto the truth of the world, is deeply rooted in the 'errors' of life" (Foucault, 1985/1998a, p. 477). Such contentions are very apparent in Foucault's three archaeological works – *Madness and Civilization: A History of Insanity in the Age of Reason* (1961/1988), *The Birth of the Clinic: An Archaeology of Medical Perception* (1963/1994a), and *The Order of Things: An Archaeology of Human Sciences* (1966/1994b) – as well as in his reflexive discussion about archaeology as a method in *The Archaeology of Knowledge* (1969/1972). My interest in the perspectives of Foucault originates from his general influence as a scholar, and his particular influence in the sociology of sport. As Andrews (2000) states, "of all French post-structuralists, Foucault's is the theorizing most evident within sociology of sport research" (p. 121). My discussion of the archaeological method in this paper comes both from my readings of Foucault's work[4] and descriptions of his methods given by other scholars.

Scheurich and Bell McKenzie (2005) discuss how Foucault's archaeology (as well as his genealogical works) "might be used as critical 'qualitative' (defined broadly) methodologies" (p. 841). An important point to understand about Foucault's

[4] I would like to emphasize that I believe Foucault's writings are very complex, and I am still in the process or working to more fully comprehend his work. I certainly do not claim to be an expert in Foucault's work or a "Foucaultian" scholar. However, what I do claim is that I have been inspired by Foucault's writings and that his concepts of *savoir* and *connaissance* have inspired some of my work in this dissertation.

archaeological method is that it has only the "faintest allusion to the academic discipline of archaeology," although there are some connections between the two (Scheurich & Bell McKenzie, 2005, p. 845). Foucault (1966/1998b) explains that

> by 'archaeology,' I would like to designate not exactly a discipline but a domain of research, which would be the following: in a society, different bodies of learning, philosophical ideas, everyday opinions, but also institutions, commercial practices and police activities, mores – all refer to a certain implicit knowledge [*savoir*] special to this society. This knowledge is profoundly different from the bodies of learning [*des connaissances*] that one can find in scientific books, philosophical theories, and religious justifications, but it is what makes possible at a given moment the appearance of a theory, an opinion, a practice. (p. 261)

In this description, Foucault highlights the two concepts that are central to his archaeological method – *savoir* and *connaissance*, which refer to two arenas of knowledge. *Savoir* includes the "different bodies of learning, philosophical ideas, everyday opinions…institutions, commercial practices, and police activities," to which he is referring. *Connaissance*, meanwhile, includes only formal bodies of knowledge, such as the "scientific books, philosophical theories, and religious justifications." In other words, *savoir* is what makes possible at a given moment the appearance of a particular *connaissance*. For example, in *Madness and Civilization*, Foucault is, among other things, exploring how the appearance of psychiatry (as a formal discipline or *connaissance*) was made possible by a set of changes in concepts, practices, procedures, institutions, and norms, in other words, a change in the much broader *savoir* (Scheurich & Bell McKenzie, 2005). Thus, I apply Foucault's concepts by considering what

conditions present in the *savoir* of the 1960s and 1970s made possible the development of the academic fields (*des connaissances*) of sport management and the sociology of sport.

History, Philosophy, and Sociology

When reading through this discussion of literature in the sociology of science, one might notice that much of the research appears to be historical in nature. In addition, some of the research may seem to address philosophical issues at the heart of scientific practice and knowledge. A person making such observations, I would say, is correct. Thus, in this section, I will briefly discuss the relationship between history, philosophy, and sociology, offering some insight about how historically and philosophically informed research can enhance a sociological project.

In a discussion about how history can inform sociology, Griffin (1995) recognizes that "an important segment of the discipline [of sociology] now places real importance on the power of history to elucidate the sociological enterprise" (p. 1245), and that "sociological theory, methodology, and research arguably are more self-consciously informed by historical questions and perspectives than at any time in the life of the discipline in this country" (p. 1247). Despite this increased attention given to history, he argues that sociologists have still not done quite enough and, in turn, must "take history even more seriously than we do now" (p. 1247). Griffin reviews three exemplar studies by sociologists that he considers to be "simultaneously sociological and historical," suggesting that history and sociology are united by a common purpose of exploring how individuals act in contesting or challenging their environments to either change or reproduce the social structures in which they are enmeshed. He answers the question of

"why should sociologists take time more seriously," by stating that "by taking history more seriously, we also take 'time' more seriously" (p. 1247). This is important because "time is an inescapable part of the structural and cultural context in which people exist, think, and act" (p. 1248). Ultimately, Griffin argues that by incorporating history into their analysis, sociologists can offer "historically informed and historically grounded sociological explanations and interpretations" (p. 1247). In my sociological exploration of sport management and the sociology of sport, I hope to offer a historically informed account of factors influencing the development of the fields.

Specific to the context of sociology of sport, meanwhile, Thorpe (2006) identifies what she calls a "troubling absence of systematic contextualization in sport sociology" (p. 205). She begins by noting that many sociologists have proclaimed history as important to sociological analysis and explanation. For example, Mills (1959) wrote that history was the "shank of social study" and was critical to grasping the "problems of our time" (p. 143). Yet, despite such commentaries about the relevance of history to sociology, "many practitioners continue to theorize social processes, patterns, and trends, with scant regard to history" (Thorpe, 2006, p. 206). In considering the relationship between history and sociology, she argues that sociology should take history more seriously and give greater attention to context. In this way, her comments closely echo those of Griffin (1995), providing further credence for the importance of sociologists taking history seriously.

Ultimately, a major point to take from the analyses of Griffin (1995) and Thorpe (2006) is that history and sociology are not mutually exclusive categories. To argue that research must be either sociological *or* historical—rather than potentially containing elements of both—would be to falsely dichotomize the two fields. Such is also the case

with philosophy and sociology. For instance, despite the influence of his work in sociology and the sociology of sport, "Foucault was not a sociologist nor a social scientist, but a philosopher and a specialist of the history of sciences and knowledge" (Callewaert, 2006, p. 74). In other words, Foucault illustrates the interconnected nature of the three fields, as he was a philosopher by training, conducted research in the history of sciences, and had a significant impact on the field of sociology. Reviewing research in the sociology of science, in some ways, highlights the fact that such fields are overlapping rather than mutually exclusive. As Bourdieu (2001/2004) states, "the sociology of science occupies a very special position within sociology, on the ill-defined border between sociology and philosophy" (p. 31). Such evidence of the connected nature of various disciplines is key to my dissertation, as I view sport management and the sociology of sport as connected, overlapping fields rather than mutually exclusive categories.

Social Network Analysis and the Sociology of Science

As I will be using social network analysis in my examination of the fields of sport management and sociology of sport, I will now discuss some prior uses of social network analysis in the sociology of science. In his handbook on social network analysis, Scott (2000) identifies the sociology of science as "one of the principle research areas in which a number of studies have invoked the idea of the social network" (p. 121). Specifically, he cites Crane's (1972) study of the "invisible college" as one of the earliest pieces of research using "the idea of networks of communication among scientists as a way of explaining the growth of scientific knowledge" (p. 121). Further commenting on the

utility of social network analysis in the sociology of science, Scott explains that such investigations can point "to the important role played by scientific cliques and circles in the promotion of particular ideas and approaches" (p. 122). Similarly, in my analysis of sport management and the sociology of sport, I hope to explore how groups or "cliques" of scholars have influenced the promotion of particular approaches to research.

In a study focusing on the field of sociology, meanwhile, Ennis (1992) examined the patterning of specialties among American sociologists in 1990. In the American Sociological Association Membership Directory, each sociologist may choose up to four "areas of interest" from a list of 54 specialty areas. Based on the areas of interest listed, Ennis identified patterns and clusters that existed in the network of sociologists. In his analysis, he found seven clusters focusing on "deviance and control, setting and context, political and macrosociology, theory and culture, numbers, stratification and work, and social psychology/gender/medical sociology" (p. 259). Ennis found that only three of the 54 specialty areas were isolates. Notably, one of these isolated areas was the sociology of sport (along with military sociology and biosociology). Overall, while Ennis' work presents a view of the structure of American sociology, a limitation is that it presents a static view. By reviewing journals over a period of 20 years, I hope to provide a more dynamic view of sport management and the sociology of sport in my dissertation.

Moody (2004), meanwhile, examined the structure of the network in sociology by analyzing collaboration trends from 1963 through 1999. Therefore, unlike Ennis' (1992) study, Moody offers a more dynamic look at the field over time. In his analysis, Moody found that coauthorship in the social sciences has become more common over the time span in question. He also proposed three possible models for the large-scale network

found in sociology. The first, "theoretical fragmentation" or the "small-world" model, refers to a structure in which there are many distinct clusters in a network that are connected to each other by a small number of links. The second possible model was the "star production or "scale-free" model, which would represent a small number of very prominent scientists forming the core of each specialty's collaboration network. In this model, theoretical integration depends on ideas generated by star producers, as collaborators follow the lead of those responsible for connecting the entire network. The third model proposed by Moody was the "permeable theoretical boundaries and generic methods" or "structural cohesion" model, in which "authors with particular technical, empirical or theoretical skills will mix freely with those who have worked in different research areas, in an attempt to establish a new position by combining previous work" (p. 217). Notably, Moody concluded that this third model best described the social network in sociology. Specifically, he found that "high levels of intergroup contact, weak internal structure, and strong overall connectivity point toward a generalized cohesion *within* the sociology coauthorship core" (p. 231), and that "while authors might specialize, their skills marry well with others creating an integrated collaboration network" (p. 235). Such potential network models are important to consider as I explore the network structure present in sport management and the sociology of sport.

Freeman (2004) used a social network perspective to examine the development of social network analysis in what she labeled "an exploration of the field from a sociology of science perspective." Specifically, she explored the "patterning of links among the people who were involved in the development of the field" (p. 9). To better explain Freeman's work, I will provide a brief review of her discussion about the contributions to

social network analysis made by Robert Merton and Paul Lazarsfeld at Columbia University. She begins by noting that despite the fact Merton and Lazarsfeld are often mentioned together (see above where Bourdieu notes the work of Merton and Lazarsfeld in constructing the structural functionalist paradigm), they were actually "unlikely collaborators" (p. 90). In fact, due to division between faculty members in the sociology department at Columbia in the late 1930s and early 1940s, the decision was made to hire "two young sociologists who were about as different as possible" (p. 92). Freeman discusses how Lazarsfeld grew up in a professional-class family in Austria, while Merton was raised in a working-class family in a south Philadelphia "slum." As far as their academic work is concerned, Merton was trained primarily as a social theorist, while Lazarsfeld was trained as a mathematician and worked primarily as a sociological methodologist. Freeman goes on to describe an initial contact between the two in which Lazarsfeld had invited Merton over for dinner, only to receive an urgent call requesting him to perform an audience-reaction test to a radio program. Merton accompanied Lazarsfeld to the testing and, upon pointing out some theoretical shortcomings present in the questioning, Merton was asked by Lazarsfeld to conduct the second round of questioning, thus beginning their long history of collaboration. Such information contained in Freeman's book is representative of the type of input that can be provided by a social network approach and a sociology of science perspective.

The Sociology of Sociology of Sport?

Up to this point in the review of literature, I have discussed a variety of research that seeks to provide an analytical reflection on the development of various academic

fields. So what of such research in sport management and sociology of sport, the fields on which I am focusing in this dissertation? In this section and the following section (the sociology of sport management?), I will outline work that has been done in analytically reflecting on the two fields in question. What I hope to do in this section is give a general overview of the content and arguments presented in these papers. In my more in-depth discussion of the development of the fields later in this dissertation, I will draw further and more specific information from many of the sources mentioned here. Therefore, although there may be some overlap between the information discussed in the final two sections of this chapter and the information contained in my results, I wish to take this opportunity to introduce some of the literature from which I will be drawing upon in my analysis and discussion later in the dissertation.

In a 1997 special issue of the *Sociology of Sport Journal* (*SSJ*), guest editors John Loy and George Sage specifically call for a "sociology of the sociology of sport" (p. 315). That issue of the *SSJ*, which contained just three papers, represents perhaps the largest organized effort to date of reviewing the sociology of sport from an explicitly sociological perspective. A number of other scholars, however, have also provided overviews or attempts at "taking stock" of the field.

In their introduction to that special issue of the *SSJ*, Loy and Sage (1997) called for "contributions that provide critical, comparative, sociohistorical analyses of the problems, patterns, and prospects related to the growth and development of the sociology of sport in North America during the last third of the 20th century" (p. 315). The editors state that while they were pleased with the three papers published in the journal, much to their surprise, they were not overwhelmed with manuscripts. In addition, the editors

expressed their disappointment in the fact that a number of promised papers were not submitted. Such comments suggest that further sociological analysis of the field is needed, which is an issue I address in this dissertation.

In the first article contained in this "sociology of the sociology of sport," Sage (1997) examines the linkages between physical education, sociology, and the sociology of sport. He begins by discussing the connections that existed between physical education and sociology as both emerged as distinct fields of study in the mid-19th century. For example, in an attempt to alleviate some of the social problems arising during the industrialization of society, "leaders in both physical education and sociology joined forces for the promotion of playgrounds and public parks" (p. 319-320) in urban areas. However, as sociology sought to adopt a more "scientific" approach in the early 1900s, the fields grew apart from each other, "as sociologists evidenced little interest in play, games, sport, or leisure and recreation in general" (p. 320). Sage then goes on to detail the rise of the sociology of sport, focusing on the role of physical education in the development of the field, which I will further draw from in my discussion later in this dissertation.

Rowe, McKay, and Lawrence (1997), meanwhile discuss the break with functionalism and the establishment of a "critical tradition" in Australian sociology of sport over the previous decade. Similar to the state of sociology in the United States, the systematic and in-depth analysis of sport in Australian sociology is rare. Somewhat unlike the United States, however, Australian sport sociologists are frequently contacted for comment by members of the print and electronic media. While this state of affairs might appear to suggest that sociology of sport enjoys a higher status in Australia than in

the United States, the authors state that "this public visibility is yet to be translated into status and influence within universities and the discipline of sociology" (p. 357). Although my dissertation focuses on the development of the fields in the United States, such comparisons between the state of sociology of sport in the U.S. and other international contexts provides additional insight on issues facing the field.

The "sociology of the sociology of sport" *SSJ* special issue is rounded out by Ingham and Donnelly's (1997) 56-page article, which provides perhaps the lengthiest review of the sociology of sport written to date. They begin by discussing the origins of the field and early currents of thought, such as structural functionalism and positivism, influencing the sociology of sport. The authors next go on to detail the "critical shift" that occurred in the field, which they attribute to emerging from an engagement with Marxism (often through the work of C. Wright Mills). Ingham and Donnelly next note a turn to cultural studies and the work of Antonio Gramsci. In this discussion, they note a "postmodern shift" within American cultural studies that has impacted the sociology of sport, however, they state that such issues "must await a later sociology of the sociology of sport for analysis" (p. 384). Given the span of more than 10 years that have passed since Ingham and Donnelly's analysis, the impacts of a possible "postmodern shift" are one issue I hope to shed light on in this dissertation. They conclude by considering if "unity" can result from the "disunity" or diversity of research approaches and perspectives present in the sociology of sport.

As I had previously mentioned, while the three articles from Loy and Sage's special issue of the *SSJ* represent the only formal "sociologies" of sport sociology, a number of other scholars have written papers attempting to "take stock" of the field. One

of the earliest "overviews" of the sociology of sport is Snyder and Spreitzer's (1974) paper published in *The Sociological Quarterly*. While the authors do analyze the growth and development of the field, their main objective appears to be presenting an argument that sport, as an area of sociological study, can provide important insight to many dimensions of social life. In their words, "as one dimension of leisure, sports represent a serious topic for scholarly research to round out our understanding of the human person as a social being" (p. 467). Commenting on the sociology of sport's quest for legitimacy within the discipline of sociology, Snyder and Spreitzer suggest that rather than arguing that sport is worthy of sociological study simply because sports are social activities, "a more fruitful approach to legitimacy for a new specialty is simply for the practitioners in that area to produce research that will be interesting to social scientists at large" (p. 480). This quest for legitimacy is an important point I will return to later in this dissertation.

Another early overview of the sociology of sport was written by Loy, McPherson, and Kenyon (1978), and published as a monograph by the Canadian Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. In addition, a revised version of that monograph (Loy, Kenyon, & McPherson, 1980) was later published in the journal, *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*. While Snyder and Spreitzer (1974) focused on the legitimacy of sociology of sport within sociology, Loy, Kenyon, & McPherson (1980) also give attention to the field of physical education, concluding that "the sociology of sport has yet to be perceived as a legitimate subfield within either physical education or sociology" (p. 106). Among the reasons they attribute this to are that sociology of sport: 1) lacks a "critical mass" of scholars, 2) lacks a high level of academic status in either sociology or physical education, and 3) contains an ideological

orientation somewhat at odds with the mainstream in both physical education and sociology. All three of these points bring up issues that merit further discussion in this project.

Shortly following the work of Loy, McPherson, and Kenyon (1978), Lüschen (1980) provides an overview that "addresses questions of instutionalization and integration" in sociology of sport and also analyzes the field's "methodology and substantive contributions" (p. 315). As I have already mentioned in chapter one, Lüschen is critical of the fact that "sociology of sport has little influence on sport and physical education practice" (p. 339). He urges scholars to "show a stronger concern for methodology" by moving for "more integration and standardization with the main field of sociology" (p. 339). Finally, Lüschen considers the theoretical issues specific to the field, making some important points about the uniqueness of sociology of sport among areas of sociology.

Focusing on sociology of sport in the United States, Coakley (1987) attempts to update and extend previous analyses of the field. He specifically outlines major events in the history of the sociology of sport, such as the founding of scholarly organizations, conferences, and journals. Echoing comments found in a number of previous overviews of the field, Coakley concludes that "sociology of sport still lacks full legitimacy in both physical education and sociology," and that the field also does not have a critical mass of scholars, as "growth since the late 1970's has not been significant" (p. 11). Additionally, Coakley provides a content summary of papers published in the first 14 issues of the *SSJ*, which is, in part, relevant to the analysis of coauthorship patterns I conduct in this dissertation.

An overview by Heinilä (1990), meanwhile, focuses on examining the scholarly diversity and heterogeneity found in the sociology of sport. It is notable that this is one of the first instances of explicit attention being given to examining the diversity or disunity of research in the sociology of sport, because the issue has received significant attention since that time (e.g. Ingham & Donnelly, 1997). Heinilä, however, does not devote any attention to discussing issues of legitimacy, although the issues of disunity he addresses are certainly related to the topic of legitimacy.

A decade after Lüschen's (1980) paper for the *Annual Review of Sociology*, Frey and Eitzen (1991) provided a relatively broad overview for that same publication. Notably, while Lüschen described sociology of sport as being on the verge of expanding and gaining acceptance in mainstream sociology, Frey and Eitzen (1991) argue that such a promise "has not been realized" (p. 518). Again echoing many of the previous overviews, they are critical of the fact that the field still does not have a "critical mass" of scholars and that much sociology of sport research is not properly guided by theory. They also review three main theoretical perspectives prominent in sociology of sport research—structural functionalism, conflict theory, and cultural studies.

Following Frey and Eitzen's (1991) overview, meanwhile, Washington and Karen (2001) produced another paper for the *Annual Review of Sociology* one decade later. Like many of the previous overview articles, Washington and Karen lament the fact that sport is still a "relatively neglected and undertheorized area of sociological research" (p. 187). After providing a review of topic areas of research in the sociology of sport, the authors note the uniqueness of sport, arguing that "sport constitutes its own relatively autonomous field" (p. 205) and the sociologists must "make sports more central to our

analysis of society" (p. 206). They also advocate that sport sociology research build off the work of Bourdieu in highlighting how sport constitutes an autonomous field.

In one of the most recent in-depth overviews of the field, Dunning (2004) attempts to conduct a "stocktaking" regarding the development of the sociology of sport. He begins by discussing the 1960s institutionalization of the field, noting that it is "one of the key moments in a much longer-term and still ongoing process" (p. 3). He goes on to discuss theoretical trends and shifts in the field, up to the current high level of diversity present in the sociology of sport. Related to the earlier concerns pointed out by Heinilä (1990), Dunning notes how "paradigmatic fragmentation" in the subdiscipline "has weakened sociologists relative to specialists in other subjects," thus "making it difficult for us to resist the intrusion into our field of representatives of higher status" (p. 19). Such concerns are important, and I will attempt to give further treatment to that issue later in this dissertation.

There are certainly many other publications that could have been included in this review of research that analytically reflects on the development and state of the sociology of sport (e.g., see Greendorfer, 1981; Gruneau, 1978; McPherson, 1975; Sage, 1979). I end my review at this point, however, due to concerns for length and repetition of themes/topics. Among the themes present in many of the overviews of the sociology of sport are a quest for legitimacy in both sociology and physical education, concern with a lack of attention given to theory and method in research, and the recent diversity or disunity present in research in the field. These issues are among the topics I will further discuss in my exploration of the development of sociology of sport later in this

dissertation. Having reviewed this literature, there also appears to be a need for further sociological analysis of the sociology of sport.

The Sociology of Sport Management?

While there have been a number of papers written by scholars addressing the development and state of sport management, there has been no organized effort to conduct a "sociology" of sport management equivalent to that of the Loy and Sage (1997) edited special issue of the *SSJ* in sociology of sport. In fact, the only study I have found specifically referencing work in the sociology of science that has examined the field of sport management is Quatman's (2006) doctoral dissertation, which examines sport management from a social network perspective. Specifically, Quatman generates a network model of coauthorship patterns in sport management in order to identify socio-structural barriers present in the network. Having used a "panel of experts" to assemble a list of productive researchers in the field of sport management, Quatman contacted 254 individuals identified as productive sport management researchers asking them to complete a questionnaire about research and collaboration and send her a copy of their curriculum vitae. From the 71 completed questionnaires and curricula vitae received, she assembled a network model of collaboration in sport management from 1985 to 2005. Among the notable findings in her study are the structural dominance of one particular institution in the network and the existence of a gap between scholars in the United States and those in Canada. While Quatman's study is the only example I have found of a scholar explicitly employing a sociological approach to examine sport management, a number of other scholars have made attempts to "take stock" of the field.

Just prior to the formation of the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), Sheffield and Davis (1986) provide an overview of the development of sport management in which they call the field, "one of the brightest emerging areas within the framework of physical education" (p. 125). They identify sport management as a "prediscipline" (p. 128) and examine the field's evolution toward a disciplinary branch of study. In order to evolve into an established discipline, Sheffield and Davis urge sport management scholars to engage more rigorously in the application of scientific methods and draw from the strengths of both physical education and business management. Such concerns with scientific method and drawing on research from "parent" disciplines are among the topics I will pay further attention to later in this dissertation.

In the first ever issue of the *Journal of Sport Management* (*JSM*), Zeigler (1987) attempts to "consider sport management from the standpoint of its past, its present, and its possible future" (p. 4). At the time, he believed that such an overview of the field was needed because of factors such as the recent founding of NASSM, the increasing amount of criticism (from sources such as the media) aimed at sport, and the increasing complexity of management theory and practice. In his analysis, Zeigler urged sport managers to "relate significantly to the developing social science of management" (p. 22). This argument bears a number of similarities to the concerns about a lack of theory-based research mentioned in a number of early overviews of the sociology of sport.

Also published in that initial issue of the *JSM*, Paton (1987) provides a review of the quantity and quality of management research in sport and physical education. After reviewing research and textbooks in the field, Paton concludes that "the trend has been toward a more theoretical approach" and toward a "clearer delineation of management

theory applied to sport and physical education" (p. 27). Somewhat similar to Zeigler, however, he also stresses that future research must continue to build the theoretical base in sport management. Additionally, he addresses concerns about a lack of diversity of subject matter in sport management research, urging that more attention be given to conducting research on noneducational institutions, such as professional and amateur sport organizations.

In a speech given as recipient of the Zeigler Award in 1991, Chelladurai (1992) provides comments on the state of the field in the early 1990s. While noting the rapid growth and progress that has occurred in the field, stating that sport management "is flourishing and will continue to flourish in universities and colleges, and society at large" (p. 215), he also highlights some problems facing the field. Specifically, he notes that "because of the lack of an extensive body of knowledge unique to our field, our academic colleagues in areas such as exercise physiology, sport psychology, and sport sociology tend to think less of us" (p. 216). Pointing to the connections that do exist between these fields and the importance of interdisciplinary interaction, however, he stresses that the success of sport management "is predicated on our reliance on and use of the knowledge generated by other subdisciplines" (p. 216).

Stier (2001a; 2001b), meanwhile, provides a more recent broad overview of the field, beginning with the initial instutionalization of sport management. He cites James G. Mason as being the "father of sport management" (2001b, p. 43), having founded the first academic sport management program at Ohio University in 1966. Questions about these early institutional origins of the field are issues I will further consider in my analysis later in this dissertation. Stier (2001a) goes on to chart the growth of sport management from

the time of Mason's original program at Ohio University in 1966 to the 167 sport management programs in the U.S. and 35 in other countries around the world that exist in 2001. Stier does not comment, however, about the development of theory or research in sport management during that span of growth.

Pitts (2001), in an address given for winning the Zeigler Award in 2000, reflects on how, "as a field of study, sport management has achieved quite a lot in a relatively short period of time" (p. 8). Given its state of development, however, Pitts argues that "it is time to examine all of the elements of our field of study, make adjustments where they are needed, and reevaluate predictions and goals" (p. 8). Specifically, she points out that a major void exists in that "there is no historical research on sport management in order to determine its academic roots" (p. 6). These comments are notable, because part of my objective in this dissertation is to respond to such issues. By specifically engaging in a historically-grounded sociological examination of the field, I hope to provide scholars with some insight that may be of assistance in "making adjustments where they are needed" and "reevaluating predictions and goals" for the field.

The most recent broad overview of the status of sport management that I can find is that conducted by Costa (2005). In this study, Costa employs a Delphi method in which she questions a group of 17 experts on their views of the field of sport management. She utilizes three distinct rounds of questioning in which findings from each round are fed back to the panelists; in that way, each round of questioning builds upon the previous rounds. Through her questioning of experts, Costa found a general agreement that sport management must strive for "stronger research, additional cross-disciplinary research, a stronger link between theory and practice, enhanced infrastructure,

and improved doctoral training" (p. 131). The panelists, however, were only "moderately confident" about the field's ability to accomplish such goals. Additionally, the experts disagreed about issues such as what constitutes quality research, the use of quantitative and qualitative methods, and the relative importance of basic and applied research.

Beyond the broader overviews of the field I have just discussed, a number of scholars, have conducted analyses focusing on specific aspects of the field of sport management. For example, Mahony, Mondello, Hums, and Judd (2004) examined the current state of sport management doctoral programs, finding that there is a lack of trained sport management faculty available to fill open positions in the field. Due to the fact that hiring an ill-prepared faculty member may harm the academic prestige of sport management, the authors suggest that this is the most critical issue currently facing the field. Dittmore, Mahony, Andrew, and Phelps (2007), meanwhile, conducted an analysis of doctoral dissertations completed in sport management between 1999 and 2003. In their study, the investigators found that of the 144 dissertations completed during this period, more than 46 percent were clustered in the areas of sport marketing and human resource management in sport. Such findings raise questions about whether "developing strong lines of research in a limited number of areas [is] better for the field than being spread too thin by trying to cover all possibilities?" (p. 30). Pitts and Danylchuk (2007), meanwhile, seek to assess the body of knowledge in sport management by examining textbooks in the field. Among their notable findings were that more than 48 percent of textbooks were clustered in the subjects of management and marketing, while 79 percent of all textbooks were authored by males.

While there are certainly additional articles that could be included in this review (e.g., see Cuneen, 2004; Parkhouse, 1980; Pedersen & Schneider, 2003), I will end my discussion at this point due to concerns for length and repetition. Given the comments of those such as Pitts (2001), it seems that further analysis of the field of sport management is merited at this time. While I have provided a brief review of research attempting to "take stock" of sport management in this section, my discussion of results will involve a more in-depth analysis of the development of the field.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In the previous chapter, I explained that I classify this dissertation as a "sociology" of sport management and sociology of sport due to the fact that I am ultimately considering the social contexts within which the fields have grown. In conducting this study, I seek to imagine the relationship between the fields and what might be connections between the fields. By stating that I am "imagining" the fields, I am borrowing from C. Wright Mills' (1959) idea of the "sociological imagination." In his conception of the sociological imagination, Mills encouraged sociologists to make links between the personal, social, and historical dimensions of life. In my case, the relationship between sport management and sociology of sport is a "personal" issue in that these are the two primary areas of study in my academic career. Thus, in the process of "imagining" the fields, I am making links between a personal issue (the relationship between the fields) and the broader context and conditions in which the fields have grown.

In this chapter, I discuss the methods I have used in performing my analysis of sport management and sociology of sport. Within this sociology of the fields, I have conducted three distinct projects. Each project involves an explicit exploration of the relationship between sport management and the sociology of sport through the use of empirical evidence. In the first of those projects, I will explore the historical development of sport management and the sociology of sport. In this effort, I was inspired by the calls of scholars such as Griffin (1995) and Thorpe (2006) to pursue historically-informed sociological research. I was also guided by Foucault's concepts of *savoir* and *connaissance* as well as more general critical considerations, such as who

benefits and who is potentially harmed by particular arrangements present within the fields. In the second project, I utilize a social network perspective to examine patterns of coauthorship within sport management and the sociology of sport. In addition to insights from social network analysis, my work in this project is informed by Bourdieu's concept of *capital*. My final project consists of an interpretive, qualitative analysis of research by selected scholars whom I have identified as possessing significant amounts of *capital* and being in key positions in the fields. Here, I will again make use of a number of critical considerations as I examine the intent, methods, and purposes of scholars in select examples of research to bring further understanding to possible connections and disconnections between sport management and the sociology of sport.

A Historical Project

The first "project" within this dissertation involves a historical exploration of the development of sport management and the sociology of sport. As I previously mentioned in chapter 2, by incorporating history into my sociological analysis of the fields, I hope to offer "historically informed and historically grounded sociological explanations and interpretations" (Griffin, 1995, p. 1247). Ultimately, such historical considerations will provide a better understanding of the context in which the fields developed, thus helping to contextualize the analysis I conduct in the other "projects" specific to this dissertation.

The empirical aspect of this project consists of my review of a variety of papers that have been written at various times throughout the history of the development of the fields. Much of the material that I review in this project consists of "overview" articles in which individuals have attempted to "take stock" of either sport management or the

sociology of sport by discussing the development or state of the field. Many of these papers I have already briefly mentioned in chapter 2. Such papers not only provide specific discussion of the development of the fields, but also provide insight to the fields by shedding light on the primary concerns and issues facing the fields at the times they were written. For example, an "overview" article written in 1985 can provide both historical discussion of the development of the field up to that point while also noting some of the most pressing issues at the time of that article's publication. In addition, I have reviewed several of the early programmatic calls made by scholars urging the development of the fields of sport management and the sociology of sport as well as commentaries in which scholars have made suggestions about the direction of the fields. One of my primary focuses in reviewing such materials has been to specifically note connections and disconnections between the fields at various points during their development.

Foucault's Savoir and Connaissance

One of my inspirations in thinking about how to approach this project is Foucault's archaeological work and, more specifically, his concepts of *savoir* and *connaissance*. While by no means would I categorize this dissertation as a "Foucaultian" analysis of the fields or as an archaeology of sport management and the sociology of sport, I have attempted to consider some ways in which general conditions present in society and higher education have influenced the development of the fields. As I previously discussed in chapter 2, Foucault's concepts of *savoir* and *connaissance* refer to two areas of knowledge. To briefly recap these concepts, s*avoir* refers to a broad set

of conditions such as "different bodies of learning, philosophical ideas, everyday opinions…institutions, commercial practices, and police activities" (Foucault, 1966/1998b, p. 261), while c*onnaissance* includes only formal bodies of knowledge, such as "scientific books, philosophical theories, and religious justifications" (p. 261). In other words, *savoir* is what makes possible at a given moment the appearance of a particular *connaissance*. Along somewhat similar lines of thinking, in this historical project, I have attempted to discuss some of the more general conditions that contributed to the development of the specific fields of sport management and sociology of sport.

General Critical Considerations in the Research Process

Another important influence in my historical exploration of the development of the fields, as well as in the approaches I take in other parts of this dissertation, is a number of more general considerations associated with critical theories, which I will briefly outline here. However, such a discussion is difficult to provide due to the fact that there is not necessarily one dominant "critical theory." Rather, there are many critical theories. As Kincheloe and McLaren (2005) explain, critical traditions have drawn inspiration from theorists such as "Marx; Kant; Hegel; Weber; the Frankfurt School theorists; Continental social theorists such as Foucault, Habermas, and Derrida; Latin American thinkers such as Paulo Freire; French feminists such as Irigary, Kristeva, and Cixous; or Russian sociolinguists such as Bakhtin and Vygotsky" (p. 303). Because of this, it is quite difficult to offer any concise description of critical theory. However, it may be possible to draw some commonalities between various critical approaches. I will

briefly explain some of these commonalities to critical approaches that have informed my thinking in this dissertation.

Kincheloe and McLaren (2005) attempt to draw such commonalities as they discuss the project of critical enlightenment, in which a critical theorist would analyze competing power interests between groups and individuals, "identifying who gains and who loses in specific situations" (p. 307) and attempting to uncover the "winners and losers in particular social arrangements" (p. 308). During the process of creating this dissertation, such critical considerations have inspired me to take into account who might be the "winners" and "losers" in the ways in which the fields of sport management and the sociology of sport have taken shape. Similarly, I attempt to give consideration to questions about who benefits and who is potentially harmed by trends taking place within the fields.

A Social Network Project

The second "project" involved in this dissertation seeks to bring understanding to the relationship between sport management and the sociology of sport by examining collaboration patterns found within and between the fields. In this project, I utilize a social network perspective to explore the network of scholars having published in some of the top journals from each field. Specifically, my analysis includes three of the oldest and most prestigious journals sponsored by sociology of sport organizations – *International Review for the Sociology of Sport* (*IRSS*), *Journal of Sport and Social Issues* (*JSSI*), and *Sociology of Sport Journal* (*SSJ*) – and three of the oldest and most respected journals from sport management organizations – *Journal of Sport Management*

(*JSM*), *Sport Marketing Quarterly* (*SMQ*), and *Sport Management Review* (*SMR*). Two of the sport sociology journals (*JSSI* and *SSJ*) and two of the sport management journals (*JSM* and *SMQ*) are published by organizations in North America, while the other journal from each field is published outside of North America. Thus, my exploration of the fields is largely centered on North America. Although *SMQ* is specific to the field of sport marketing (a sub-field of sport management), I have chosen to include the journal due to the length of time it has been published (since 1992), its perceived high status in the field, and the fact that sport marketing represents one of the largest areas of sport management research. My analysis consists of all articles published in each journal from 1987 until 2007. I choose 1987 as a starting point because that is the year in which the *Journal of Sport Management*, which is the oldest journal devoted specifically to the field of sport management, was founded. For those unfamiliar with the journals under investigation, I will next provide a brief background on each of the six journals included in this study.

The *IRSS*, which is edited on behalf of the International Sociology of Sport Association (known as the International Committee for the Sociology of Sport prior to 1994), has been published continuously since 1966. As noted in its editorial statement, the main purpose of the *IRSS* is to disseminate research on sport throughout the international academic community, bringing together contributions from such fields as anthropology, cutural studies, geography, history, political economy, semiotics, sociology, and women's studies, as well as interdisciplinary research. The *JSSI*, meanwhile, is the official journal of Northeastern University's Center for the Study of Sport in Society, and has been published continuously since 1977. The *JSSI*'s editorial statement indicates that

the journal publishes scholarship regarding the impact of sport on social issues from perspectives that include sociology, history, economics, media studies, gender studies, psychology, political science, cultural studies, anthropology, and ethnic studies. The *SSJ*, meanwhile, is the official journal of the North American Society for the Sociology of Sport and has been published continuously since 1984. In its editorial statement, the *SSJ* is described as being designed to stimulate and communicate research, critical thought, and theory development on sociology of sport issues.

In the field of sport management, meanwhile, the *JSM* is the official journal of the North American Society for Sport Management. The journal's editorial statement indicates that the *JSM* publishes scholarship examining a number of areas as they relate to the management, governance, and consumption of sport, such as: organizational theory, behavior, and strategy; sport operations; law and policy; economics, finance, and accounting; marketing, consumer behavior, sponsorship, advertising, and licensing; media, communications, and public relations; sport tourism; facility and event management; and gender and diversity. *SMQ*, meanwhile, which has been published continuously since 1992, lists its mission as being to publish research that advances the study and practice of sport marketing and is relevant to the professional interests of the sport marketing community. The *SMR*, meanwhile, is the official journal of the Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand and has been published continuously since 1998. The *SMR*'s editorial statement describes the journal as being concerned with the management, marketing, and governance of sport at all levels and in all its manifestations – whether as an entertainment, a recreation, or an occupation.

By tracking the coauthorship patterns of scholars publishing in some of the top journals from the fields of sport management and the sociology of sport, I am building a set of *relational data*. As Scott (2000) explains, relational data refer to the "contacts, ties and connections…which relate one agent to another" (p. 3), as opposed to attribute data, which consists of the "attitudes, opinions and behavior of agents" (p. 2). While variable analysis is appropriate for attribute data, *network analysis* is appropriate to relational data. As Scott (2000) argues, "while it is, of course, possible to undertake quantitative and statistical counts of relations, network analysis consists of a body of qualitative measures of network structure" (p. 3). What social network analysis offers is a methodology to analyze social relations and conceptualize the structure of social networks.

To aid in this analysis and visualization of the network in this study, I used the software program *Pajek*. The name Pajek comes from the Slovene word for spider, and the program is specifically designed for the analysis and visualization of large networks. Pajek is made freely available for noncommercial use by its developers, Andrej Mrvar and Vladimir Batagelj, both of whom are faculty members at the University of Ljubljana, Slovenia. Since its initial release in 1996, Pajek has been updated more than 100 times with subsequent versions of the program.

At a very basic level, a *network* consists of a *graph* made up of *vertices* (also called points or nodes), which represent actors or agents, connected by *lines* (also called edges), which represent ties between the actors. In the network I have constructed for this study, each vertex represents an individual having published in one of the journals under consideration, while each line connecting two vertices represents an occasion in which two individuals have coauthored a published article. In analyzing the network and

positions of various actors in that network, I consider social network concepts such as *density, degree, reachability, components, bridges, k-cores,* and *complete subnetworks*. I will elaborate on these concepts as I discuss patterns and themes found in the network in chapter 4. Next, however, I will provide a brief discussion of the background of social network analysis to provide some further insight into this type of research.

Background on Social Network Analysis

Although modern social network analysis developed relatively recently, the idea that the patterning of social ties is worth examining is probably quite old. Freeman (2004), for example, notes that lists of descent are stressed in documents as old as the Bible and in the education of Hawaiian nobles, who had to memorize dozens of generations of their forebears. While the recognition of the importance of ties linking social actors in the Bible was implicit, Freeman (2004) identifies explicit scholarly attention to such concerns dating as far back as Auguste Comte's definition of sociology (see Comte, 1853/2000). In addition to Comte, such notable scholars as Emile Durkheim, Herbert Spencer, and Georg Simmel showed early consideration of the ties that link social actors (Freeman, 2004). These early considerations of network concerns, however, lacked one or more of the features of modern social network analysis.

Freeman (2004) suggests that modern social network analysis consists of four features that together define the field: (a) an attention to structural intuitions based on ties linking social actors, (b) a grounding in systematic empirical data, (c) a use of graphic imagery, and (d) a use of mathematical and/or computational models. Among the first broader research efforts to include all four of the defining features of social network

analysis was led by Jacob Moreno, whose work sought to explore issues such as how group relations served as both limitations and opportunities for an individual's actions (e.g., see Moreno, 1934). Moreno called his approach *sociometry*, and he edited a journal by that same name from the mid 1930s to early 1950s. Due to a number of factors, however, the work of Moreno and his followers, as well as similar lines of research pursued by groups such as that led by W. Lloyd Warner at Harvard University in the 1930s and 1940s, failed to develop a unified paradigm for a social network perspective (Freeman, 2004). Social network analysis then went into what Freeman describes as a "dark age" until experiencing a "renaissance" at Harvard during the late 1960s and early 1970s. Since that time, social network analysis appears to have experienced a relatively steady growth. Otte and Rousseau (2002), for example, found that between 1984 and 1999, there has been an almost linear increase in the number of areas in which social network analysis is applied. Similarly, Knoke and Yang (2008) suggest that publications in the social sciences with "social network" as a key concept have "accelerated exponentially during the past three decades" (p. 2).

Despite its relatively significant growth overall, however, social network analysis has been used very sparingly in the study of sport. Besides the work of Nixon (1992, 1993a, 1993b), who employed social network analysis to explore the influences on athletes playing with pain and injury, there has been little explicit use of a social network approach in the sociology of sport. In sport management, meanwhile, Quatman's (2006) dissertation investigating the coauthorship network in the field is the only explicit use of a social network perspective that I have found. Given this, it is my hope that the work

done in this dissertation may also provide insight for scholars looking to apply a social network perspective to investigating issues in the realm of sport.

Notes on Data Collection

In the process of collecting data for my social network analysis, due to the different categories of articles published that exist in various journals, I had to make a number of decisions about what content from each journal to include. In *SMQ*, for example, the journal often includes one article per issue that is labeled as a "case study." The journal's editor at the time the case studies first appeared explained that the "case study" designation was created for articles that did not have as extensive data collection as typical articles published in the journal. Somewhat similarly, the *SSJ* occasionally includes "research notes" in its issues, while many journals include articles that are labeled as "perspectives" or "commentaries." I decided to include all such articles in my analysis because, despite the fact that such articles may not involve as extensive data collection as others, they still represent original contributions to the journal, add to the idea space of the fields, and may be subsequently used and cited by other scholars.

In addition, some issues of journals (such as volume 24, issue 1 of the SSJ) utilized a format in which there was an original article, followed by a commentary on that article by another scholar, further followed by a response from the original author. In such cases, I included the original article and the commentary on the original article in my analysis of the coauthorship network present in the fields. However, I chose to exclude the original author's reply to the commentary due to the fact that if I were to include the reply, it would have given the appearance that the original author had two

original contributions in a single issue of the journal. I felt that a more "accurate" picture of the structure of the fields could be obtained by not giving an author "double credit" for both an original article and their reply to a commentary about that article. Somewhat similarly, I also chose to exclude the relatively brief commentaries by editors that often appear in journals. While there is no doubt that journal editors are influential individuals, including all commentaries of editors in this analysis of collaboration patterns would have given the editors a "misleading" number of publications. For example, if an individual had edited a journal for five years and written one editorial commentary for each issue of their journal during that time span, it would give the appearance that that individual had a total of 20 publications appearing in a single journal over a span of five years.

Another category of items about which I had to exercise judgment as to whether or not to include were the introductions written by editors of themed special issues of journals. Many of these introductions are relatively brief commentaries that primarily serve to introduce the articles that appear in the remainder of the issue. In some cases, however, such introductions constitute much more in-depth commentaries that go well beyond just introducing other articles. In such cases where these introductions constitute an original commentary in their own right, I have chosen to include them in my analysis. However, when introductions to special issues do little else than introduce other articles appearing in the issue, I have excluded them from this analysis. Overall, the fact that any individual engaging in such a study of the coauthorship network in a field must make such decisions serves as a limitation of this study. Had someone made different choices than I about which articles to include and which to exclude in their analysis, they may

obtain a somewhat different picture of the structure of the field. While I have attempted to explain and justify my choices in this section, another individual may certainly be able to make equally defensible choices about including and excluding different types of scholarly articles. However, due to the fact that most articles appearing in journals do not fall into any special categories about which one would have to make difficult decisions as to whether or not to include, I believe that my analysis of the collaboration network in sport management and sociology of sport can provide a valuable picture of the fields.

Another complication I faced in collecting data for this project was the inconsistent use of names and possible name changes of scholars during their careers. I used a number of strategies, however, to address these complications and to attempt to verify that publications all belonged to the same individual when possible discrepancies existed. For example, when multiple scholars had the same last name, I would check the individuals' institutional affiliations for an initial indicator of whether two names referred to one individual or to two unique individuals. Sometimes, however, simply checking institutional affiliation did not resolve discrepancies with certainty. In such cases, I would check the websites of departments at which the individuals work for further information about them, such as a list of publications or curriculum vitae. For example, while I did not initially assume that an article coauthored by Andy Gillentine was written by the same person as another article coauthored by John A. Gillentine, subsequent investigation revealed that both articles were written by the same person. With respect to name changes over the course of a career, an example is provided by the case of Alison J. Doherty. Her first publication in the journals I was reviewing appeared in 1991 under the name Alison J. Armstrong. Later in her career, meanwhile, she had publications

appearing under the name Alison Armstrong-Doherty, before finally publishing under the name Alison J. Doherty most recently. Such issues related to inconsistent use of names and name changes were even further complicated by my lack of knowledge about non-English names.

While most individuals from Western countries are used to their "given" name appearing before their "family" name, the opposite is the norm in countries such as China, Japan, and Korea. Therefore, in the journals I was analyzing, all of which are published in the English language, there was some inconsistency in the listing of the names of scholars from countries in East Asia. While the names of scholars from East Asia would usually appear "Westernized" in English-language journals (with the "given" name preceding the "family" name) this was not always the case. In cases of inconsistent ordering of a person's name, I would again consult institutional affiliations to decrease the chances that an error would be made. In some cases, I also had the opportunity to consult with "international" graduate students at the University of Tennessee to identify a scholars' "given" and "family" name. Another complication concerning non-English names relates to the potential use of nicknames. For example, I was able to easily identify that a publication by C. Robert Hinings and a publication by Bob Hinings were likely written by the same person (which further inspection revealed that they were), because I know that Bob is a common nickname for Robert in the English language. I am less familiar, however, with similar practices related to non-English names. During the process of data collection, for example, I found that Kostas is a nickname substituted for the Greek name Konstantinos, and I was able to determine that a publication authored by Konstantinos Alexandris and one authored by Kostas Alexandris belonged to the same

person. Overall, such complications as well as factors related to inconsistent use of middle names/initials, name changes during the course of a career, and my lack of knowledge about non-English names certainly present complications and potential for errors during data collection. However, due to the strategies I used to verify and confirm names, I am confident that this study provides a relatively "accurate" portrayal of the collaboration network found in the fields.

Bourdieu, Capital, and Social Network Analysis

While I gave a relatively thorough discussion of Bourdieu's perspective on the sociology of science in chapter 2, I want to briefly re-emphasize his concept of *capital* and highlight its relevance to my analysis of the fields. With the concept of capital, Bourdieu is referring to a form of power. Stated succinctly, capital is "the capacity individuals and groups might have to impact upon, change, or control situations" (Tomlinson, 2004, p. 168). In performing a social network analysis of the coauthorship patterns found in sport management and sociology of sport, one important insight gained is an understanding of which scholars posses the most capital within the fields. Those individuals who have published frequently in the most prestigious journals in fields possess a particular form of capital, which gives them influence within the fields. As Bourdieu (2001/2004) further explains, "the structure of the distribution of capital determines the structure of the field" (p. 34). Thus, by utilizing Bourdieu's concepts of capital and field in conjunction with a social network analysis of sport management and the sociology of sport, I will be able to explore the structure of the fields, which is one of the key objectives of the sociology of science. In other words, as Ennis (1992) explains,

"a central project of the sociology of science is to use social structure to shed light on intellectual structure" (p. 259).

Therefore, using a social network perspective to examine coauthorship patterns in the top journals in sport management and the sociology of sport will provide insight about the ways in which a particular form of capital (that coming from the ability to publish in prestigious journals) is distributed amongst scholars in the fields. Having this information about the distribution of capital in the fields will provide some understanding of the structure of the fields and, in turn, provide insight about where connections and disconnections exist between sport management and the sociology of sport. In turn, with an understanding of collaboration patterns and the distribution of which scholars possess significant amounts of capital in the field, I will be able to identify for further analysis select examples of research by scholars that are potentially in key positions with respect to building on connections between the fields. Thus, in the next section of the chapter, I will briefly discuss the approach I take in this third "project" of my dissertation.

An Interpretive Project

The final "project" is this dissertation is a qualitative and interpretive project in that I will be making interpretations about the qualities associated with research appearing in sport management journals and sociology of sport journals. For this project, I have selected specific examples of research published by scholars who possess significant amounts of capital and are in key positions to potentially build on connections between the fields. In chapter 4, I will provide a more detailed discussion of the specific criteria used to select the specific scholars whose work I analyzed.

In my analysis, I specifically give attention to the methodological approaches, objectives, and values underlying the scholars' work. In doing so, I attempt to look beyond the titles that identify a journal as belonging to either the field of sport management or sport sociology in order to consider what qualities might distinguish the fields from one another. In considering qualities such as methods, objectives, and values, I make comparisons with respect to research produced by different scholars and research published in different journals in order to identify themes, patterns, and differences. I then attempt to group my observations in a manner that makes sense and offer explanations for the themes I have observed. The more detailed results of this analysis, as well as the other "projects" of this dissertation, will be discussed in chapter 4.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

As previously elaborated upon, this dissertation involves three distinct "projects" aimed at considering the relationship between sport management and the sociology of sport. In this chapter, I will discuss findings of each project somewhat separately before attempting to synthesize insight gained from all three projects in the final chapter. First, I discuss the "historical project" in which I consider important influences on and trends present in the development of the fields. Second, I outline key findings from the "social network project" in which I explored the network of collaboration found in the top journals of the fields. Finally, I will discuss some notable themes found in the "interpretive project" in which I conduct a qualitative analysis of select examples of research from key scholars in the fields.

A Historical Project

In this portion of the dissertation, I explore the historical development of sport management and the sociology of sport, with specific attention to potential connections between the fields. This project is, in part, inspired by commentaries, such as those from Griffin (1995) and Thorpe (2006), which call for sociologists to offer historically informed and grounded sociological explanations. Borrowing ideas from Foucault's concepts of *savoir* and *connaissance*, I pay specific attention to broader conditions and events that have contributed to the specific development of sport management and the sociology of sport. I hope that such a perspective will prove to be informative to other

scholars, while also helping me provide a more historically-informed sociological analysis of the fields as I conduct the other projects in this dissertation.

In this section, I begin by giving a chronology of some important events in the development of the fields, such as initial research, programmatic calls, and the formation of professional organizations, scholarly journals, and textbooks. I then discuss the influences of physical education as a "parent" discipline on the development of sport management and the sociology of sport, including its influence on theoretical perspectives and research in the fields.

A Chronology

A question I faced when thinking about how to provide some historical insight into the development of the fields is at which point in history to begin my discussion. Zeigler (1988) suggests that "a truly qualified professional in physical education and sport must start from the beginning to comprehend the role of his or her own specialized field in society" (p. 246). So, with specific respect to the fields of sport management and the sociology of sport, what point in time might constitute "the beginning"? Loy and Sage (1997) suggest, depending on one's viewpoint, it could be argued that the sociology of sport in North America dates from the publication of Thorstein Veblen's *Theory of the Leisure Class* (1899/1973), from Kenyon and Loy's paper *Toward a Sociology of Sport* (1965), or from the establishment of the North American Society for the Sociology of Sport (1978). The history of sport management, similarly, might be considered to date from such notable events as the establishment of the North American Society for Sport Management and the *Journal of Sport Management* in 1987 or from the founding of

James G. Mason's sport administration program at Ohio University in 1966. Such a variety of perspectives on the possible roots of the fields, combined with the issue that both fields are composed of individuals from a variety of backgrounds and perspectives that have come to identify themselves as either sport management scholars or sport sociologists from many different directions, adds great complexity to an attempt at describing the origins and development of the fields. Thus, rather than trying to write a comprehensive history of the development of the fields, I will begin with a brief discussion of *some* of the most important events—such as early research, programmatic calls, professional organizations, scholarly journals, and textbooks—that marked the development of sport management and sociology of sport as specific areas of academic study.

Although the more formal institutionalization of sport management and sociology of sport occurred during the second half of the 20th century, the beginnings of scholarly attention to sport began much earlier. For example, Dunning (2004) notes early European works, such as Peter Beckford's (1796) *Thoughts upon Hare and Fox Hunting*, as the "inception" of a serious study of sport. Loy, McPherson, and Kenyon (1978), meanwhile, make reference to a work entitled, *Philosophy in Sport Made Science in Earnest; Being an Attempt to Illustrate the First Principles of Natural Philosophy by the Aid of the Popular Toys and Sports of Youth*, by British physician John Ayrton Paris (1847), as another example of early scholarly attention directed toward sport. With respect to the sociology of sport, Lüschen (1980) traces early acknowledgment of physical education within sociology as far back as Herbert Spencer's *Education* (1861). In terms of the development of sport management, Parks and Olafson (1987) point out

the long history of the practice of management in sporting events by drawing comparisons between present sport management and the management functions necessary to stage the original Olympic games in ancient Greece. With respect to academic attention given to sport management, Zeigler (1951) reports that courses in the organization and administration of physical education and athletics have been commonly offered at the university level as far back as 1890.

In the first half of the 20th century, scholarly attention directed toward sport continued to become more common and more sophisticated. With respect to the sociology of sport, Dunning (2004) cites Heinz Risse's (1921) book-length study, *Soziologie des Sports*, as the point at which "the sociology of sport first emerged as a specific, named endeavor" (p. 4).[5] Loy, McPherson, and Kenyon (1978), meanwhile, note the work of sociologist Willard Waller (1932) in his book, *The Sociology of Teaching*, as an example of early attention to sociological concerns about sport in North America. Interestingly, a particular passage from Willard's study stands out as having relevance for scholars interested in sport today:

> All coaches are professionals, and live by the prowess of their teams. All players are forced to be amateurs. It often happens that the preachments concerning the sporting code which drop so frequently from the lips of the coaches are more than neutralized in practice by the pressure which these men put upon their players to win games. A more serious indictment of a social system which allows the

[5] Risse was a student of Theodor Adorno, who, along with Max Horkheimer, founded the *Frankfurter Institut für Sozialforschung* (Frankfurt Institute of Social Research), which served as the institutional locus of the earliest formation of "critical theory." After he published *Soziologie des Sports* in 1921, however, Risse appears to have disappeared from the academic scene. Dunning (2004) suggests that this is perhaps not surprising given what happened in Germany during the 1920s, 30s, and 40s, when a majority of German sociologists were forced into silence or exile.

> livelihood of a man and his family to depend upon the athletic achievements of boys is that the coach is so pressed that he uses his human material recklessly. He trains his "men" (aged sixteen) a bit too hard, or he uses his star athletes in too many events, or he schedules too many hard games; all this he does from a blameless desire to gain a better position or a rise in salary for himself, but he often fails to consider the possible effects upon the physical well-being of the rising generation" (p. 114).

While these examples demonstrate scholarly attention to sport, however, the first "programmatic call" for a sociology of sport appears to be that issued by Popplow (1951) in his paper, "Zu einer Soziologie des Sports" (Toward a Sociology of Sport), published in the journal *Sport und Leibeserziehung* (Sport and Physical Education).[6] It does not appear, however, that Popplow's paper was translated into English, and it would not be until the 1960s that the first such programmatic call would appear in the English language.

With respect to sport management, Parks and Olafson (1987) note Walter O'Malley's 1957 letter to James G. Mason, in which he asked where one might be able to find a person academically trained to manage a sporting facility or serve as an administrator in a sporting organization, as the first recorded reference of the need for an approach that specifically brings together principles from sport with the managerial tools necessary for success in the business world. O'Malley's letter to Mason has been commonly cited in the sport management literature as being an important moment in the initial development of the field. Pitts (2001), however, discusses the existence of a

[6] Although Loy, McPherson, and Kenyon (1978) do note Popplow's (1951) paper in their essay about the development of the sociology of sport, Popplow's (1951) paper is not mentioned in Kenyon and Loy's (1965) "Toward a Sociology of Sport" paper published 14 years later in the *Journal of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*.

program at Florida Southern University entitled “Baseball Business Administration” that existed between 1949 and 1959 and consisted of courses similar to today’s sport management curriculum standards. Having been established in 1949, this program certainly would have pre-dated O’Malley’s letter to Mason. Because the subject of the “first” academic sport management program is the subject of some debate, I will further discuss the issue later in this section.

After these early developments in the organization of sport management and the sociology of sport, more formal signs of institutionalization followed, such as the establishment of academic organizations and scholarly journals devoted to the fields, during the latter half of the 20 century. I would like to emphasize, however, that this institutionalization of the fields was not an isolated occurrence but, as Dunning (2004) acknowledges, a key part of a “much longer-term and still ongoing process” (p. 3). Regardless, an important event in the institutionalization of sociology of sport was the formation of the International Committee for the Sociology of Sport (ICSS), which was the initial academic organization devoted specifically to the field. In 1966, the ICSS held its first international symposium in Cologne, Germany, and also began publishing the *International Review of Sport Sociology* (re-named the *International Review for the Sociology of Sport* in 1984), which was the first academic journal devoted specifically to the emerging field. With the founding of the ICSS and IRSS, Dunning (2004) writes that the sociology of sport can be said to have “come of age” (p. 5). In this coming of age, an important point to note is that the development of sport sociology was relatively “international” in nature. This is exemplified by the first executive board of the ICSS, which contained scholars from Cuba, Finland, France, the German Democratic Republic

(East Germany), the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany), Great Britain, Japan, Poland, the Soviet Union, Switzerland, and the United States (Loy, McPherson, & Kenyon, 1978).

As the institutionalization process continued in the field, however, notable events of organization were also occurring specifically in North America. For example, in 1967 the ICSS held its first international workshop on the subject of "Cross Cultural Research on Sport" at the University of Illinois in Urbana-Champaign. The North American Society for the Sociology of Sport (NASSS), meanwhile, held its first conference in 1980, in Denver, Colorado. Four years later, the first issue of the *Sociology of Sport Journal* (*SSJ*), which is the official journal of NASSS, was published with Jay Coakley serving as the journal's first editor. In terms of books dedicated to the field, Dunning (2004) identifies Loy and Kenyon's (1969) *Sport, Culture and Society* as the first edited collection published in English on the sociology of sport. Coakley (1987), meanwhile, credits Harry Edwards' (1973) *The Sociology of Sport* as the first American textbook to appear in the field.

With respect to sport management, meanwhile, the most widely cited "origin" of the field in higher education is the graduate sports administration program started by James G. Mason at Ohio University in 1966. Specifically, Stier (2001a) recognizes the Ohio University program as the first professional preparation program in sport management and refers to Mason as the "Father of Sport Management" (p. 42). An article written by Mason (1981), along with Ohio University colleagues Charles Higgins and Owen Wilkinson, claims that Mason actually prepared the curriculum for the program during the 1950s while at the University of Miami, however, he was not able to

inaugurate the program until moving to Ohio. As previously mentioned, Parks and Olafson (1987) cite Walter O'Malley's 1957 letter to Mason as the first recorded reference to a need for formal academic training in sport management. Further, Mason, Higgins, and Wilkinson (1981) credit the "creative mind" of O'Malley as being an important impetus in recognizing that "sports organizations and related recreation functions need professionally prepared persons to administer their affairs" (p. 44). While noting that the literature has repeatedly referred to Ohio University's program as the first academic program in sport management, however, Pitts (2001) questions the certainty of this claim. She states that there has been "no historical research on sport management in order to determine its academic roots" or to substantiate Ohio's status as the inaugurator of sport management in higher education (p. 6). As previously mentioned, Pitts goes on to discuss evidence that Florida Southern University offered a program entitled "Baseball Business Administration" between 1949 and 1959, which consisted of courses similar to today's sport management curriculum standards. Given that Mason prepared his program's curriculum at the University of Miami during the same time period in which another South Florida institution was sponsoring a program in baseball administration leads me to wonder if Mason may have been aware of such a program at a nearby college. While I have certainly found no evidence to substantiate a claim that Mason based aspects of his program on the Florida Southern program while he was planning his own sport management curriculum (Mason has not mentioned the program in any literature I have found), I would be remiss not to consider the possibility given the coinciding time frames and relatively close proximity of the two schools. In addition, given the fact that courses in the organization and administration of physical education and athletics have

been commonly offered at the university level as far back as 1890 (Zeigler, 1951), Mason's curriculum may not have been as innovative as some have suggested. By no means am I arguing the Ohio University program was not innovative and influential. Indeed, it was both. However, I am arguing that some scholars appear to have accepted and advanced an overly simplistic position by suggesting that O'Malley's letter and Mason's programs were *the* origin of the academic study of sport management.

Regardless of the specific origins of the first sport management program, it is clear that the development of the field has occurred rapidly in higher education. If we accept that the Ohio University program was the first of its kind, then the University of Massachusetts initiated the second graduate sport management program in 1971 (Stier, 2001a). Twelve years after the inauguration of Ohio's program, Parkhouse (1978) reported that there were 20 sport management programs in the country, including the first three undergraduate programs. In the 1980s, Sheffield and Davis (1986) reported a total of 13 graduate and 73 undergraduate programs in the U.S. in 1985, while Stier (2001a) reports that there were 58 graduate and 78 undergraduate programs in 1988. There does appear to be some possible contradiction in these figures, as it seems unlikely that 45 graduate programs (compared to just five undergraduate programs) would have been initiated in the span of three years. Regardless, the rapid growth of sport management appears to have continued into the 1990s, as by 1993 there were 193 institutions in the U.S. offering undergraduate and/or graduate programs (Stier, 2001a). Additionally, at the Ph. D. level, Stier (2001a) reports that by 1997, there were eight American institutions offering doctoral-level degrees in sport management. In 2001, Stier (2001b) conducted a survey and found there to be 167 sport management programs in the U.S. as well as 35 in

other countries around the world. I again have some uncertainly about these figures, as I question if the number of sport management programs in the U.S. potentially decreased from 193 in 1993 to 167 in 2001. While it is possible, however, that the growth of sport management has slowed somewhat, as of March 2008, the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) website (http://www.nassm.com) lists 232 institutions in the U.S. offering undergraduate and/or graduate programs in sport management, as well as 17 in Europe, 12 in Canada, eight in Australia, four in New Zealand, two in South Africa, and one in India. Regardless of some possible discrepancies in numbers between varying sources, it is apparent that sport management has experienced quite rapid growth in a span of about 40 years.

With respect to other developments in institutionalization, the founding of NASSM during the 1985-86 academic year was a landmark step in the development of sport management. The NASSM website describes how the organization quickly developed from an idea between a small group of scholars that first met in September 1985, to a meeting of over 175 individuals at the organization's first conference just nine months later in June 1986. Closely following the founding of NASSM was the publication of the first issue of the society's official journal, the *Journal of Sport Management*, in 1987. Charting the growth of journals in the field, Pitts (2001), reported that by 2001 there were 16 journals dedicated to sport management topics. The growth of journals in the field continues, as NASSM, in conjunction with the National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE), launched the *Sport Management Education Journal* in 2007. Pitts and Danylchuk (2007), meanwhile, charted the growth of sport management textbooks published from 1990 to 2006. They found a total of 129 books

representing 14 categories, of which management and marketing were the most prominently covered. Interestingly, they found a very recent surge in the publication of textbooks, with almost three-fourths of the 129 books having been published from the year 2000 onwards. Such findings show that the field of sport management appears to be continuing to develop and expand in many areas at a rapid rate.

As previously mentioned, an important theme in the growth of the sociology of sport was the international nature of its development. The earliest journals and professional organizations in the field developed largely outside of the United States. The formation of the ICSS and IRSS, for example, preceded the development of NASSS and the SSJ by a decade and a half. In sport management, meanwhile, the earliest organization (NASSM) and journal (JSM) devoted to the field appeared in North America. Journals published outside of North America, such as the *Sport Management Review* (the official journal of the Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand), which appeared in 1998, and *European Sport Management Quarterly*, which appeared in 2001, followed behind their North American counterparts. The current American "dominance" of the field is also evident in the previously mentioned figures showing 232 institutions in the U.S. offering undergraduate and/or graduate programs in sport management, compared to a total of 44 in the rest of the world.[7] As I discuss the results of the other "projects" of this dissertation, the international nature of the development of sport sociology in comparison to the largely American-centered nature of the development of sport management will be an important theme to consider.

[7] It is certainly possible that the figures listed on the NASSM website would have the potential to underrepresent the number of programs in countries outside of North America.

Another important consideration in the development of sport management and sociology of sport is the rate at which the fields have grown. As I described earlier, sport management appears to have grown from one recognized program in 1966 to more than 200 programs in the United States in the span of just over 40 years, with particularly rapid growth beginning in the 1980s. The sociology of sport, meanwhile, seems to have experienced a much slower development as a field. For example, based on membership data from formal organizations in physical education and the sociology of sport, Coakley (1987) reports that there appears to have been little growth in sociology of sport during the previous 10-year period. More specifically, the NASSS treasurer's report from 2005 indicates that there has been a decline in the number of professional memberships from scholars based in the United States, from a high of 188 in 1991 to 157 in 2005. Comparatively, based on the number of undergraduate and graduate programs in the field discussed above, the growth rate of sport management appears to have been relatively rapid during that same time span.

While I cannot hope to offer a comprehensive, definitive answer as to why such differences in growth rates exist in the two fields, considering some broader changes in physical education and higher education that occurred during the 1970s and 1980s can help to provide a better understanding of the context in which sport management's rapid growth has occurred. During the 10-year period from 1975 to 1985, the number of undergraduate degrees awarded in education in the United States decreased by 43 percent (Fielding, Pitts, & Miller, 1991). Due to the declining number of students in education-related majors, Fielding, Pitts, and Miller (1991) argue that "physical educators began to search for alternative program offerings," and that "sport management appeared to be a

logical choice" (p. 9). It is also notable that during the same 10-year period in which education experienced a 43 percent decline, there was a 57 percent increase in the number of undergraduate degrees conferred in business (Fielding, Pitts, & Miller, 1991). Thus, a need for students (by physical education departments) and the needs of students (for business-related education) can be seen as relevant factors in the context that allowed for the rapid growth of sport management in the United States, while at the same time, the sociology of sport experienced much more modest growth. In an effort to better contextualize the conditions under which sport management and sociology of sport developed and became institutionalized, as well as to provide further explanations for these differences in growth rates and international scope of development between the fields, I will next explore the two fields' common origins in physical education.

Physical Education as a "Parent" Discipline

An important similarity shared by sport management and the sociology of sport is that each area of study can be viewed as a hybrid sub-field with two general "parent" disciplines. Specifically, the sociology of sport is a sub-field of sociology and physical education, while sport management is to some extent a sub-field of business and physical education. Thus, a potential connection exists in that physical education is a "parent" discipline shared by each field. To explore the implications of this connection, I will begin with a brief discussion of the development of physical education as a discipline.

In the first half of the 20th century, teacher education was the dominant focus of physical education departments in higher education (Sage, 1997). During the second half of the 20th century, however, particularly beginning in the 1960s, physical education

faced increasing pressure from universities to demonstrate a basic academic body of knowledge (Sage, 1997). This pressure felt by physical education departments was part of the more general process of university expansion that took place in the 1960s, which had effects such as increasing the intensity of competition within and between disciplines, increasing the pressure on university faculty to publish, and expanding the need for publication outlets (Dunning, 2004). Such were the conditions leading to Franklin Henry's (1964) paper, "Physical Education: An Academic Discipline," published in the *Journal of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*.[8] At this point, I want to reinforce that the "disciplinization" of physical education and subsequent "institutionalization" of sport management and sociology of sport as distinct areas of academic study in institutions of higher education are part of a long-term and ongoing process. While it may be impossible to produce a definitive account of all the conditions impacting their development, the general processes of university expansion and pressure on physical education faculty to demonstrate a body of academic knowledge appear to be key conditions in understanding the context in which sport management and sociology of sport became institutionalized.

In his landmark paper, Henry (1964) outlines how individuals involved in physical education in higher education have, up to that point in time, primarily focused on preparing students to teach physical education (professional outcomes) rather than on developing a specific subject field of knowledge (academic outcomes). In discussing the field of knowledge that constitutes the academic discipline of physical education, Henry

[8] Henry's (1964) paper was a summary of the address he gave at the 1964 meeting of the National College Physical Education Association for Men.

defines a discipline as “an organized body of knowledge collectively embraced in a formal course of learning” (p. 32). He stresses, however, that academic and professional outcomes are not mutually exclusive, perhaps suggesting that physical educators need not sacrifice teacher preparation in order to build an academic body of knowledge. Henry describes physical education as a “cross-disciplinary field of knowledge” (p. 33), and suggests that the discipline is constituted of portions of a diverse variety of fields including “anatomy, physics and physiology, cultural anthropology, history and sociology, as well as psychology” (p. 32). Further describing what he defines as areas to be covered by the discipline, Henry lists topics such as “kinesiology and body mechanics; the physiology of exercise, training and environment; neuromotor coordination, the kinesthetic senses, motor learning and transfer; emotional and personality factors in physical performance; and the relation of all of these to human development, the functional status of the individual, and his ability to engage in motor activity” (p. 33). He also lists “the role of athletics, dance, and other physical activities in the culture (both historic and contemporary) and in primitive as well as ‘advanced’ societies” (p. 33) as areas to be covered by the discipline of physical education. Having discussed the many fields from portions of which physical education is constituted, Henry argues that “as each of the traditional fields of knowledge concerning man [sic] becomes more specialized, complex, and detailed, it becomes more differentiated from physical education” (p. 69). Henry’s overall suggestion is that, due to such factors, “there is an increasing need for the organization and study of the academic discipline herein called physical education” (p. 69).

Henry's influence on the field can been seen from the commentaries of scholars such as Sheffield and Davis (1986), who refer to Henry's paper as "the most often cited landmark in the rise of the disciplinary thrust within physical education" (p. 126). However, what does Henry's paper actually say about the possibility of the development of sport management and the sociology of sport? Much of his description of areas covered by physical education seems to fall under what we today may label exercise science. However, Henry does make specific reference to sociology as one of the fields from which physical education is comprised, while also mentioning topics, such as the role of physical activities in culture, that are of interest to sport sociologists. Given this apparent connection of physical education to sociology, it is perhaps not surprising that Kenyon and Loy's (1965) paper, "Toward a Sociology of Sport," appeared in the *Journal of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation* less than one year after Henry's paper. With respect to sport management, however, and unlike the case with sociology and physical education, Henry's paper does not appear to draw any explicit connections between business or administration and physical education. One possible explanation for this is the status of education-related majors as compared to business-related majors at the time Henry's paper was written. As previously mentioned, a shift in which the number of degrees awarded in education decreased and the number of degrees awarded in business increased in U.S. higher education from the mid-1970s through the mid-1980s (Fielding, Pitts, and Miller, 1991). However, Henry's paper was written prior to this shift toward business-related education, which may provide some understanding of why Henry does not appear to make connections between business and sports. Despite this, the establishment of Ohio University's sports administration program, widely credited as

being the first of its kind, was implemented by James G. Mason in 1966 during this period of disciplinization in physical education, which was followed by the rapid rise of sport management in subsequent decades.

The connection of sport management and sociology of sport to physical education is particularly important because it appears to be individuals in physical education (rather than those in the other "parent" disciplines) that were generally most prominent in the establishment of sport management and sport sociology as institutionalized "sub-disciplines" in higher education. Ingham and Donnelly (1997), for instance, find it notable that the individuals pushing for the formation of sport sociology as a recognized field in higher education were from departments of physical education rather than sociology. While many sociologists who gave attention to sport during the early years of the field made strong arguments that sport deserved to be taken seriously in sociological terms, their jobs (in sociology departments) did not depend on the legitimization or institutionalization of the sociology of sport. However, scholars such as Kenyon and Loy, who were affiliated with the men's Department of Physical Education at the University of Wisconsin at the time of their "Toward a Sociology of Sport" paper in 1965, perhaps had more to gain from the institutionalization of sport sociology in departments of physical education. In other words, as a result of the increasing pressure to demonstrate a basic academic body of knowledge placed on physical education by universities and Henry's (1964) call for the disciplinization of physical education, scholars in departments of physical education had a need to establish subdisciplines such as sociology of sport. A similar situation seems to have existed in sport management. For example, as recently as 1991, Fielding, Pitts, and Miller (1991) reported that 98 percent of sport management

programs were housed in physical education departments. Further demonstrating the influence of physical education on sport management, physical education courses accounted for a sizable part of sport management curriculum during the early years of the field (Parkhouse & Ulrich, 1979). Some of this may be due to factors similar to those impacting the development of the sociology of sport. Specifically, scholars in departments of physical education may have had more to gain from the institutionalization of sport management than did those in business departments who may have had an interest in sport. Thus, in addition to the general expansion of universities, the disciplinary thrust in physical education beginning in the 1960s is an important trend to recognize in understanding the emergence of sport management and sociology of sport from the "parent" discipline of physical education. This emergence from physical education also had important implications for the development of research in the fields, particularly with respect to theoretical perspectives, which is what I will discuss next.

Research Perspectives and Theoretical Trends: The Functionalist Orientation of Physical Education

The two fields' common roots in physical education appear to have had an important impact on the development of research in the fields, particularly with respect to theoretical and methodological perspectives found in the fields. Specifically, physical education appears to have had a generally functionalist orientation during the first half of the 1900s. Sage (1997) describes how during this period, a number of national committees and commissions were called on to establish the aims of America's educational system. The dominant message of such committees was that public schools

should prepare students with the skills necessary to "carry out their adult roles in a democratic capitalist society, and that students were to learn to adjust to the norms, values, and expectations of the dominant social order" (Sage, 1997, p. 323). Following Apple (1982, 1990) and Cremin (1964), Sage (1997) argues that, "curriculum derived from these reports largely involved reinforcing and reproducing the dominant social and cultural practices and traditions" (p. 323). In addition to the recommendations derived from national committees and commissions, America's educational system was influenced by functionalistic ideas borrowed from other disciplines in higher education. Specifically, structural-functionalism[9], which focuses on the contributions made by various social institutions to the maintenance of society, "was incorporated into educational pedagogy, not in any deliberate or direct way, but subtly through the professional discourse and belief system that pervaded all of the scientific disciplines and most educated enclaves during the first half of the 20th century" (Sage, 1997, p. 323). Given such influences on education in general, physical educators came to view sport "as a means for the socialization of American youth and the assimilation of American culture" (Sage, 1997, p. 321), and in turn, "most physical educators were content to evangelize about the 'social development' objective of games and sports." (Sage, 1997, p. 322).

[9] See, for example, Loy and Booth (2000) for a more detailed discussion of structural-functionalism and the status of functionalism as the once-dominant paradigm in general sociology. Somewhat interestingly, Loy and Booth question the status of structural-functionalism as ever being *the* dominant paradigm in the sociology of sport, which appears to stand in opposition to the views of Ingham and Donnelly (1997) and Dunning (2004). Having read each of these commentaries, however, it seems that the scholars may differ on what they consider "dominant" to mean. While stressing that structural-functionalism was not the only research paradigm present in the field, they do seem to agree that functionalism was the most common perspective in the early stages of the sociology of sport.

The influence of functionalism that was prevalent in physical education can be seen in Kenyon and Loy's (1965) original programmatic call for a sociology of sport in North America. In that paper, Kenyon and Loy state that "several contemporary sociological theories are relevant for studying the many ramifications of sport in modern society" (p. 68). Specifically, they suggest that "Parsons' theoretical scheme differentiating four levels of structural organization—primary, managerial, institutional, and societal—permits analysis of any social system in terms of the functional problems such systems must solve in order to survive" (p. 68). While their reference to Parson's perspective is not surprising given his influence in sociology at the time, this example demonstrates some of the direct influence that functionalism had on the early development of sociology of sport in North America.

In addition to the prevalence of functionalistic orientations in physical education, Ingham and Donnelly (1997) describe how the "orthodox consensus" of American sociology during the formative years of sociology of sport consisted of structural functionalism, which they describe as a theory of development where rationalization plus progress equals modernization, and instrumental positivism, the American variant of positivism, so named because of its "preoccupation with the refinement of statistical techniques and research instrumentation" (p. 365). Such positivistic influences can also be clearly seen in Kenyon and Loy's (1965) programmatic call for a sociology of sport. For instance, Kenyon and Loy (1965) suggest that the sociology of sport "is a value-free social science. It is not an effort to influence public opinion or behavior….[the sport sociologist's] function is not to shape attitudes and values but rather to describe and explain them" (p. 25). Such beliefs in the "value-free" nature of science and the neutral

status of the scientist show the influence of positivism on Kenyon and Loy's programmatic call for a sociology of sport. Along with its positivistic inclinations, Kenyon and Loy's (1965) call also demonstrates the "doctrine of neutrality" that was common in science at the time. David (2005) suggests that in the decades following World War II, scientists held to neutrality as a reaction to being blamed for such events as the "nuclear age" during the Cold War. This doctrine of neutrality asserted that "scientists only engaged in the production of objective knowledge, while it was 'society' that decided how such knowledge might or should be applied" (David, 2005, p. 18). Kenyon and Loy's (1965) paper displays a similar adherence to the doctrine of neutrality in arguing that sport sociologists should seek to "describe and explain" attitudes and values, rather than seeking to influence them. Overall, it would be tempting to simply come to the conclusion that because functionalism and positivism were dominant paradigms in sociology at the time sport sociology was becoming institutionalized, sport sociologists naturally adopted functionalism and positivism as guiding paradigms in an attempt to gain legitimacy from mainstream sociology. While this appears to be true to a great extent, such an argument may also be overly simplistic in some ways, which is what I will highlight next.

During the early development of sociology of sport, there were alternatives to structural-functionalism and positivism available, including perspectives from those individuals active in the ICSS, such as Bouet (1968), McIntosh (1963), and Stone (1955) (Ingham & Donnelly, 1997). In fact, Ingham and Donnelly claim, "the selection of structural functionalism…and instrumental positivism as the would-be paradigm for the sociology of sport must be seen both as deliberate and as a conscious yielding to the

natural scientific agendas of the new subdisciplinarians in physical education" (p. 374). To clarify, the "subdisciplinarians" to whom they were referring are such individuals as Kenyon and Loy. In other words, Ingham and Donnelly's argument is that in addition to the dominance of structural-functionalism and positivism in sociology, the adoption of such perspectives as the dominant "models" for inquiry in sociology of sport was due to the decisions of physical educators, such as Kenyon and Loy, who were influenced by the functionalist orientation of physical education and who had the greatest interest in establishing sport sociology as in institutionalized subdiscipline in departments of physical education. Considering such issues is important to understanding the complexity involved in understanding theoretical developments and trends present within the fields.

With respect to sport management, such positivistic and functionalistic influences also appear to be prominent in the development of research in the field. For example, the influence of functionalism is clearly visible in an article written by Zeigler (1987) in the first issue of the *Journal of Sport Management*, in which he cites Talcott Parson's definition of an organization as being "a mechanism by which goals somehow important to the society, or to various subsystems of it, are implemented and to some degree defined" (p. 9). In another example of Parsonian functionalism, Zeigler (1988) advocates the use of Parson's theory of action in which "four levels of social structure are postulated as (1) values, (2) norms, (3) the structure of collectivities, and (4) the structure of roles" (p. 250). He further states that "the functional interchanges between and among the subsystems of the social system should be understood…as should the means whereby a social system maintains its equilibrium" (p. 251). Attention to Mertonian functionalism,

meanwhile, is evident in an early call from Parkhouse and Ulrich (1979) regarding the development of the field, in which they provide some guidelines for the development of theory in sport management. Specifically, they advocate Merton's (1949) use of mid-range theories to guide research from which ideas about order and predictability can be derived. The influence of positivism, meanwhile, can be clearly seen in an article by Sheffield and Davis (1986), written during the relatively formative years of sport management, when they argue that "from the positivistic paradigm that characterizes traditional science and gives rise to experimental and quasi-experimental research, sport managers can develop statistically rigorous and empirically verifiable theory for projection and prediction" (p. 131). Further, a modernist viewpoint is evident in another piece by Zeigler (1973), in which he states "there is no doubt but that ultimately there will be grand theories of human behavior in organizational settings" (p. 140). Overall, it appears that the presence of functionalist and positivist perspectives were very strong during the early institutionalization of sport management and the sociology of sport, due in part to the influence of the "parent" discipline of physical education. In the next section of this chapter, I will discuss some more recent theoretical trends, including the "critical shift" in sociology of sport.

A Critical Shift

While a number of scholars have recently noted the continued dominance of positivistic approaches to research in the field of sport management (Cunningham & Mahoney, 2004; Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Fink, Pastore, & Riemer, 2003; Murray & Howat, 2002; Shilbury, 2001), a significant shift has taken place in the sociology of sport

from the early "orthodox consensus" of structural-functionalism and positivism. Ingham and Donnelly (1997) appear to be the first individuals to discuss at length the "critical shift" that has taken place in the sociology of sport. They associate this critical shift with sport sociologists' first encounters with Marx (often through the work of C. Wright Mills), as well as the work of Max Weber, the "Frankfurt School," Antonio Gramsci, and Raymond Williams and others at the Centre for Contemporary Cultural Studies (CCCS). They also note the role of feminism in creating a shift within the field. In terms of scholars within sport sociology leading the "counterhegemonic" movement, Ingham and Donnelly cite the work of individuals trained in graduate schools during the 1960s and 1970s, such as Bruce Kidd, Richard Gruneau, Susan Birrell, Nancy Theberge, and themselves (it is important to note that Ingham and Donnelly see themselves as significant individuals involved in the critical shift away from functionalistic and positivistic perspectives). In summing up the shift that took place during this "war of the paradigms" in what he admits are somewhat crudely polarized terms, Dunning (2004) states that

> the dominant, taken-for-granted professional/occupational self-image among sociologists of sport slowly changed from one in terms of which they saw themselves as technocratic servants of sport-forms which they accepted more or less uncritically as "good", into a self-perception as "critics" whose principal goal is, through research and research-related action, to contribute to the "purification" of the "pathological" sport-forms produced under capitalism and to secure more egalitarian articulations of sports into more egalitarian social frameworks. (p. 12)

Dunning, however, in looking at the counterhegemonic group of scholars (specifically mentioning Kidd, Gruneau, Ingham, and Donnelly) provides a somewhat different view of the movement than do Ingham and Donnelly. Again mentioning the influence of the "Cold War" during this time period, Dunning suggests that those leading the "critical shift" appeared to be less concerned than their predecessors about the dangers of the "Cold War," and "more concerned with struggling against the iniquities of capitalism which, in any case as Marxists or near-Marxists, they tended to see unidimensionally as *the sole* cause of global conflict" (p. 15). In turn, members of this group were "more inclined than their predecessors to take peace for granted and less inclined to believe that sport-forms which were as they saw it 'warped' and 'disfigured' by capitalist influences could contribute to peace" (p. 15). The variety of possible influences on and motivations of individuals involved in the "critical shift" in sport sociology is important to consider as scholars in the field continue to experiment with a range of paradigms from which to approach the sociological study of sport. In addition, if the field of sport management is to incorporate a greater diversity of research perspectives as some scholars have called for, it may be helpful to consider the process through which a diversity of research perspectives has developed in sport sociology.

Also relevant to the critical shift and increasing diversity of research perspectives in the sociology of sport are processes such as the "postmodern shift" and the "poststructuralist turn." Ingham and Donnely (1997), for example, note the "postmodern shift" taking place in American cultural studies, and its impact upon sport sociology scholars analyzing topics such as consumption, commercialization, and images of race (see, for example, *Sociology of Sport Journal*, *13*(4), 1996). Also noted has been the

"poststructuralist turn" and its effect on the field, which King and McDonald (2007) describe as "a period in intellectual history, starting in the late 1960s and early 1970s, that produced an intensified interest in linguistic, deconstructionist, and discursive theories" (p. 18). While I do not wish to uncritically conflate the terms postmodernism and poststructuralism, I do believe that both movements are related and share a number of connections. For example, such themes as "a conceptualization of cultural meanings and categories as inherently unstable; a skepticism of claims to scholarly objectivity or neutrality; and a critique of the notion of a universal and coherent modern subject" (King & McDonald, 2007, p. 18) would be associated with both the concepts of postmodernism and poststructuralism.

While the "postmodern shift" and "poststructuralist turn" appear to have further stimulated a diversity of research perspectives in the sociology of sport, some scholars have shown concern with such developments. For example, Morgan (1995) writes critically about the incorporation of postmodern themes into critical analyses of sport. His main concern with what he terms "postmodernist drift" is its attempt to "displace normative evaluation and argumentation in favor of the partisan championing of the beliefs of select 'marginalized' social groups" (p. 25). He argues that all beliefs, regardless of whether they are mundane or exotic, must be the subject of careful scrutiny and evaluation. Also speaking somewhat critically of postmodernism, Ingham and Donnelly (1997) note a tension between the work of Gramsci, which gained attention during the initial "critical shift" in sport sociology, and the work of Foucault, which gained attention during the "postmodern shift." Specifically, Ingham and Donnelly contrast Gramsci's (1971) concept of "effective reality" with Foucault's (1974) concept

of “effective history”; how does Foucault’s political charge of unmasking the political violence exercised through various institutions link to Gramsci’s criticism that excessive political realism causes one to work within the constraints of “effective reality,” concerned with only what is rather than what should be? Basically, they argue that Foucault provides “pessimism of intelligence” without “optimism of the will.” In other words, Foucault provides “negation without *telos*” and “cannot posit a theory of ethics and, hence, a political theory” (p. 390). Consideration of such issues associated with the influence of postmodern ideas is important because it relates closely to issues of relevance and application of sport sociology knowledge. For instance, how should sport sociologists go about changing sport (or should they change it at all)?

In addition to the important questions that such movements have encouraged scholars to consider, influences from the “critical shift” and “postmodern shift,” as well as the international nature of the development of the field, have created a great amount of diversity with respect to research in the sociology of sport. Specific discussions about changes occurring in the dominant perspectives of the field and a growing amount of diversity began to appear significantly in sport sociology overviews written during the 1990s. For example, Heinilä (1990) discussed how international exchange in the subdiscipline has “contributed more to scholarly diversity than to convergence” (p. 33). Also noting theoretical diversity in the field, Frey and Eitzen (1991) stated that there were three theoretical perspectives prominent in the work of sport sociologists: structural functionalism, conflict theory, and cultural studies. These overviews from the early 1990s appear to recognize a diversity of paradigms rather than one dominant theoretical perspective guiding the field. Demonstrating a more recent continuation of this diversity,

Harris (2006) conducted a content analysis of the three major sport sociology journals (*SSJ*, *IRSS*, and *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*) from 1995 through 2005, finding that the topics covered in the journals were spread over a "wide range" of areas (p. 78). The presence of such diversity in the field, however, has also brought concerns amongst a number of scholars.

Ingham and Donnelly (1997), for example, show concern with disunity and the "fragmented politics" and "fractured theories" that may accompany such theoretical incoherence (p. 392). Although they raise these concerns in an attempt to consider how a community of scholarship in sport sociology will be maintained, they do not argue that any one position should be hegemonic in the future of the field. In his attempt at "taking stock" of the field, meanwhile, one "threat" to the sociology of sport Dunning (2004) identifies is how "paradigmatic fragmentation" in the subdiscipline "has weakened sociologists relative to specialists in other subjects," thus "making it difficult for us to resist the intrusion into our field of representatives of higher status" (p. 19). From Dunning's comments, we may begin to see how issues of diversity, relevance, application, and legitimacy are connected. If "too much" diversity in the subdiscipline leads to a reduction of the perceived legitimacy of sport sociology, how might it harm the relevance of sport sociologists and reduce the likelihood of their knowledge being applied in sport? How might such diversity affect the community of scholars in sport sociology as the field continues to develop? It is my contention that considering connections with the field of sport management is one way in which *some* sport sociology scholars may be able to address concerns with legitimacy and relevance related to the high level of diversity (disunity?) present in the sociology of sport.

While a number of scholars have shown concern with too much diversity of research existing in sport sociology, however, the opposite concern has recently been voiced by a number of scholars in sport management. As I outlined in chapter 1, sport management scholars have drawn attention to the need for increased diversity in research topics pursued (Paton, 1987) as well as methodological and theoretical approaches (Amis & Silk, 2005; Frisby, 2005; Skinner & Edwards, 2005). For example, Frisby (2005) specifically called for sport management scholars to engage with critical social science as a paradigm for research. Skinner and Edwards (2005), meanwhile, specifically advocate the application of critical and postmodern thought to ethnographic research approaches. As outlined in this chapter, such perspectives are present within a significant amount of sociology of sport research. As I have also outlined in this chapter, the presence of such diversity and the influence of postmodernism in sociology of sport has been a cause of concern for some scholars. It is my contention that one way for sport management scholars to address calls for increased diversity of research perspectives, while also considering to issues that may come along with such diversity, is to consider connections with the sociology of sport and engage with research from the field. This possibility of and increasing space for critical approaches and a more diverse array of research perspectives in sport management is a topic I will further address in chapter 5.

Overall, I would like to reiterate that the preceding pages are not meant to be taken as a comprehensive view of the development of sport management and the sociology of sport. Rather, I have discussed what I feel are some key issues and influences present in the development of the fields. Providing an understanding of such issues is an attempt to offer a more historically-informed view of the current state of the

fields. In addition, considering broader conditions (*savoir*), such as the general process of university expansion and accompanying pressure placed on physical education departments, from which the bodies of knowledge specific to sport management and sociology of sport (*des connaissances*) developed will help to contextualize the remaining "projects" I conduct in this study. Given that, I will now briefly summarize some of the key themes in the historical development of the fields that are important to consider while reading the remainder of this dissertation. The sociology of sport began to develop a body of academic knowledge slightly earlier and in a more international context than did sport management, while the growth of sport management has occurred more recently but much more rapidly. Both fields developed in a context in which departments of physical education were facing increasing pressure to demonstrate a body of academic knowledge in the 1960s, while sport management's rapid growth can also be viewed in the context of the rise of business-related majors at American universities in the 1970s and 1980s. Physical education is a "parent" discipline of both sport management and sociology of sport, and given the dominance of functionalism in physical education, combined with the "need" of many physical education faculty members to establish such subdisciplines as institutionalized areas of study in departments of physical education, it is not surprising that functionalism had a strong presence in the early development of both sport management and sociology of sport. Since its early functionalist and positivist orientations, sociology of sport has been influenced by a "critical shift" and a "postmodern shift." Such developments have led to a great amount of diversity with respect to research in the field, but have also led to concerns about fragmentation, disunity, and a lack of influence, relevance, and

applicability. Sport management, meanwhile, has not experienced any such significant diversifying shifts, and a number of scholars have recently shown concern about a lack of diversity with respect to research perspectives in the field. In the next section of this chapter, I will begin to describe my social network approach to understanding the collaboration structure of the fields.

A Social Network Project

The network of actors contributing to the idea space present in the six journals I examined for this study is comprised of 1,966 unique individuals. Due to the size of the network and scope of the data collected, my objective in this chapter is to provide an overview of key trends, themes, and patterns I identified as being present in the collaboration network in the fields. I begin with a brief discussion of initial considerations about connections between the fields. I will then go on to note some general collaboration trends before providing a more specific discussion of themes and patterns found in the coauthorship network structure. Overall, this discussion of the results from my social network "project" follows and describes the process I went through in thinking about and analyzing the data I collected.

Initial Considerations about Connections Between the Fields

Prior to beginning my more detailed analysis of the fields using concepts from social network theory, it was possible to identify some notable individuals based upon an initial look at who had published articles, how many articles they had published, and in which journals they had published. Of the 1,966 scholars having published at least one

article in at least one of the journals under consideration in this study, 85 total scholars had published at least one article in a sport management journal and at least one article in a sociology of sport journal. This group of 85 scholars appeared to fall into a number of sub-categories, however. Twenty individuals, for instance, had just one publication in each field. Of the remaining 65 scholars, 56 had multiple publications in one field and only one or two publications in the other field. I classified the remaining nine scholars as those that had published "consistently" in some of the top journals in each field during the last two decades. Specifically, those individuals are George Cunningham, Donna Pastore, Allen Sack, Michael Sagas, Michael Sam, Trevor Slack, Nancy Spencer, Ellen Staurowsky, and Lucie Thibault. With my specific focus on considering the connections between the fields, these nine individuals were of immediate interest to me because of the fact they had published consistently in both fields. Thus, I paid specific attention to the positions of these scholars as I undertook my analysis of the network of scholars having published in the six journals I was exploring. Next, I will discuss some general collaboration trends present within the fields before going into a more detailed analysis of patterns found within the network structure.

General Collaboration Trends

In order to explore general collaboration trends present in sport management and the sociology of sport, I divided the publications under consideration in this study into three distinct time blocks. Because I am reviewing publications from a 21-year time span (1987-2007), I chose to group the publications into three time blocks so that each block would contain an equal period of seven years: 1987-1993, 1994-2000, and 2001-2007.

Table 1 provides distributions of the number of authors per publication in sport management journals, while Table 2 provides distributions of the number of authors per publication in sociology of sport journals. Upon looking at the distribution of authors per publication in each of these tables, a number of trends appear.

Based on the three sport management journals under consideration, it appears that the rate of collaboration in the field has significantly increased over time. Specifically, articles with two or more authors comprised 38.28% of publications from 1987-1993, 65.38% of publications from 1994-2000, and 75.57% of publications from 2001-2007. This general trend toward an increasing rate of coauthorship in sport management is consistent with Quatman's (2006) findings about the field.

In sociology of sport, meanwhile, there appears to be relatively little change in the rate of collaboration since 1987. Specifically, articles with two or more authors comprised 36.89% of publications from 1987-1993, 37.73% of publications from 1994-2000, and 41.70% of publications from 2001-2007. Although there appears to be some increase in the rate of coauthorship during the most recent time period, the increase is much less substantial than that found in sport management. Also, while the two fields began with similar rates of collaboration in period of 1987-1993, the proportion of coauthored articles has increased dramatically since that time in the field of sport management and increased only slightly in the field of sport sociology. Interestingly, these characteristics found in sociology of sport seem to be somewhat in opposition to Moody's (2004) findings about the field of sociology as well as findings related to all academic fields in general. For example, while coauthorship is more common in the natural sciences than the social sciences, it has been steadily increasing across all fields

(Endersby, 1996; Fisher et al., 1998; Hargens, 1975; and Laband & Tollison, 2000). Specific to the field of sociology, Moody (2004) notes a general pattern of increasing coauthorship found in articles published in the *American Sociological Review* (*ASR*). In fact, during each year between 1994-1999 (the most recent data included in Moody's study) more than half of the articles appearing in *ASR* had two or more authors.

This review of general collaboration patterns found in the fields brings to my mind two primary questions. First, what factors contribute to there being a higher rate of collaboration in sport management than in the sociology of sport? Second, what factors contribute to the relative lack of increase in collaboration found in sociology of sport compared to other fields? While it may not be possible to provide definitive answers to these questions, I can identify a number of factors that may to help explain such trends.

With respect to the first question, the structure and number of faculty in departments that house the fields is one factor that may contribute to the differing rates of collaboration. While departments of kinesiology or physical education may commonly employ multiple faculty members whose primary research area is in sport management, it seems to be less common for a department to employ multiple faculty with a primary specialization in sociology of sport. In fact, in order for a sport management program to gain approval under NASSM/NASPE guidelines, it must employ at least two full-time sport management faculty. Such arrangements in which departments employ multiple sport management faculty members certainly may help to promote collaboration. In contrast, it seems much less common for a department to employ more than one faculty member whose primary research interest is the sociology of sport. Therefore, unlike sport management, where faculty members with similar research interests commonly

have offices next door to one another, sport sociologists are more likely to be somewhat "isolated" in their departments, making collaboration more difficult.

In addition to the number of faculty employed by departments, the type of research conducted in each field may explain some of the difference in collaboration rates. Specifically, theoretical and historical studies tend to have lower rates of coauthorship than does quantitative work (Endersby, 1996; Fisher et al., 1998). Therefore, the presence of a large proportion of quantitative research in sport management may encourage higher rates of collaboration. For instance, it is somewhat common for one coauthor of a piece of quantitative research to be involved solely in the statistical analysis of data, while other individuals carry out the remainder of the research activity. Sport sociologists, meanwhile, may be involved in research that is more difficult to divide, such as ethnographic work, or research that lends itself to being written by a single author, such as theoretical or critical work. Further, and closely related to the type of research conducted in each field, is the influence of external funding on collaboration in the research process. As funded research appears to have been more common in sport management than the sociology of sport, it may be that the pursuit of funding works to encourage greater scholarly collaboration.

In addition to issues related to the number of faculty members employed by departments and the types of research present in each field is the consideration of the general views and opinions about collaboration found in each field. For example, sport management scholars such as Mahony (2008) have commented on the overall positive view of collaborative research that exists in the field. Does sport management have a more favorable stance toward collaboration than the sociology of sport? Is there a higher

regard given to single-authored work in sociology of sport? While I do not have definitive answers to these questions, they are additional issues to consider in thinking about the different rates of collaboration found in the two fields.

With regards to the second question, the distribution of faculty members in various departments may again play a role in sociology of sport's relatively small increase in collaboration. For example, sociology departments at most universities generally employ a number of faculty members who are likely to frequently interact with one another on a routine basis. The University of Tennessee, for example, lists 20 full time faculty members on the department of sociology website. Much like the number of sport management faculty members employed in a given department may influence their ability to collaborate on research, it is logical that sociologists working in departments with many other sociologists have more opportunities to collaborate than do sport sociologists. Again, the fact that sport sociologists are likely to be somewhat isolated on their campuses may serve as a barrier to collaboration in the field.

An additional insight provided by these general rates of collaboration is the extent to which we can expect the network of scholars to be connected. As Moody (2004) suggests, less collaboration and a lower number of authors per paper decreases the size of clusters formed in the network through common authorship on a single paper. Thus, we can generally expect portions of the network consisting primarily of those having published in sport management journals to be more densely connected than portions of the network composed mainly of those having published in sociology of sport journals. Given an understanding of some general collaboration trends found in the fields, I will

next perform some visualizations of the network in order to further search for patterns and themes in the network structure.

Patterns and Themes in the Coauthorship Network

General Visualizations of the Network

In order to provide further insight into the collaboration network found in the fields of sport management and sociology of sport, I will now discuss some of the more specific patterns found with respect to which scholars have coauthored together and how frequently they have done so. In these next sections of this chapter, I will attempt to describe the process through which I went in analyzing and breaking down the network into various sub-groups. In this analysis, I give specific attention to instances of sport management scholars collaborating with sociology of sport scholars and examples of scholars who have published in journals from both fields.

de Nooy, Mrvar, and Batagelj (2005) suggest that because the human eye is trained in pattern recognition, network visualizations are helpful in tracing and presenting patterns of ties in a network. They warn, however, that our eyes can be fooled and that a network can be drawn in many ways. Fortunately, there are a number of software programs that can help in the process of drawing a network. In this dissertation, I make use of the program Pajek (the Slovenian word for spider), which uses *vertices* to represent actors in a system and *lines* to represent the relations among the actors. The drawing commands included in Pajek attempt to make use of a number of basic principles of drawing aesthetics to generate an optimal layout of the network.

In order to provide an initial visualization of the network, I used the Fruchterman Reingold 2D layout energy command contained in the Pajek program to draw an image of the coauthorship network of the two fields. Because drawing a useful image of a network becomes increasingly difficult with a high number of vertices, I used a partition to limit the number of actors included in this initial visualization of the network. As previously mentioned, a total of 1,966 scholars had authored or coauthored at least one article in the sample of journals I examined. To begin narrowing this network, I created a partition to identify only those scholars who published two or more articles during the time span, which reduced the number of actors in the network to 589 – a more manageable number with which to work. Another justification for creating this partition is that any scholar having published just one article during this time span could not serve as a link between two scholars in the network who had not otherwise coauthored together. Thus, by eliminating individuals with only one publication, I do not lose any individuals who would serve as *bridges* that could link portions of the network together. An illustration of the network of scholars with at least two publications in the journals under consideration created using the Fruchterman Reingold 2D layout function is shown in Figure 1.

An initial inspection of this image reveals several patterns. For example, it is clear that there are a number of actors who are *isolates* or *outliers* from what appears to be a larger, connected main network. These isolates consist of two types of actors – those who have never coauthored (represented by vertices with no ties to other vertices) and those who have coauthored but are not collectively connected to the larger network (represented by subgroups of two or more vertices connected by lines but with no ties to

the main network). Additional insight about the structure of collaboration in the fields can be gained by considering the intensity of ties between actors (i.e., the number of articles two actors have published together) and the amount of capital possessed by each actor (the total number of articles an actor has published). In Figure 2, the strength of ties between actors is represented by the thickness of lines connecting vertices and numerical labels indicating the actual number of times two individuals have collaborated, while the amount of capital possessed by each actor is represented by the size of an individual's vertex. In this view, the positions within the network of the scholars with the most capital and those with the strongest ties begin to appear.

A final initial view of the complete network is provided in Figure 3. In this image, I have added a partition to color code the vertices according to the field in which the actors have published. The white vertices represent scholars having published only in sociology of sport journals, while the black vertices represent scholars having published only in sport management journals. The red (or dark gray) vertices represent scholars having published at least once in a journal from each field, while the yellow (or light gray) vertices represent scholars having published consistently (at least three times) in each field. A number of scholars having published only in sociology of sport journals appear to be scattered around the periphery of the network, which is not entirely surprising given the lower rates of collaboration found in the sociology of sport. A number of sport management scholars, meanwhile, and a lesser number of sport sociologists appear to be tied to the larger connected network in a number of more dense sub-groups. While these initial visual inspections of the entire network appear to yield a

number of interesting patterns, I will next use several methods to provide a more detailed view of the structure of the network.

Investigating Cohesive Subgroups

To compliment the information contained in the initial visual representations, it is beneficial to consider a number of structural attributes of the network. A consideration of these structural properties help as one attempts to break down and network and look for more detailed patterns. One structural attribute that refers to the extent to which points are connected in a network is the property of *density*. Specifically, density refers to the total number of lines present in a network, expressed as a proportion of the maximum possible number of lines that could be present between actors. An analysis of the network of 589 scholars having published at least two articles in the journals under consideration in this study showed the density of the network to be .0033, meaning that only .33 percent of all possible ties between actors in the system were present. It is not uncommon, however, to find such a low density score in a network of this size because density is inversely related to network size. As de Nooy et al. (2005) explain, "the larger the social network, the lower the density because the number of possible lines increases rapidly with the number of vertices, whereas the number of ties which each person can maintain is limited" (p. 63). As Scott (2001) explains, due to factors such as time constraints that limit the number of ties that each person can maintain, "larger graphs will, other things being equal, have lower densities than small graphs" (p. 74). In a network of scholarly collaboration, for example, there is a practical limit to the number of other scholars with whom any individual may coauthor during his or her career.

Because density is so dependent upon the size of the network, de Nooy et al. (2005) suggest that it is useful to consider the number of ties in which each actor is involved. Specifically, the measure of *degree* refers to the number of lines incident to a given vertex. In the network being explored in this study, the degree of a vertex would represent the number of unique individuals with whom a given scholar has coauthored. In addition to the degree of a single vertex, it is also possible to calculate a measure of the *average degree* of all vertices in the network, which unlike density is not dependent on network size. In this study, I calculated the average degree of all vertices in the network to be 1.97 with a standard deviation of 2.22. In other words, the actors in the network collaborated with an average of about two other scholars. The minimum vertex degree in the network was zero, representing those individuals who had not coauthored with another scholar in the network; a total of 159 individuals had a degree of zero, meaning that they had not coauthored. These individuals are among those appearing as isolates positioned on the periphery in the previously mentioned network visualizations. On the other hand, the maximum vertex degree found in the network was 17, which was the measurement associated with Dan Mahony. It is perhaps unsurprising that Mahony had collaborated with more unique individuals than anyone else in the network, given his positive stance toward collaboration that I mentioned in the previous section (see Mahony, 2008). A table containing full frequency distribution of degree scores for the network is shown in Table 3.

From this initial consideration of the properties of density and degree, we can begin to look for more specific patterns by breaking down or narrowing the number of actors in the network. We now know that 159 actors have not coauthored with anyone

else in the network, leaving a total of 430 individuals who have coauthored. What we do not know at this point, however, is the extent to which these 430 actors are connected. At this stage, it is useful to consider the concept of *reachability*, which concerns to extent to which it is possible to reach one vertex from another vertex through the ties that exist in a network. If we consider each line between vertices in a network to be a "road," then it is possible to "walk" from one vertex to another so long as they are connected by a line. Thus, in social network analysis, the term *walk* refers to a series of lines through which it is possible to reach one vertex from another. Because walks (literally) can be somewhat meandering, the term *path* is used to designate "a walk in which no vertex in between the first and last vertex occurs more than once" (de Nooy et al., 2005, p. 67). In other words, a path refers to a more efficient way to get from vertex to vertex than does a walk; while all paths are walks, not all walks are paths.

The concepts of walks and paths are important because they help us identify the *components* that are present in a network. Formally, a component is a "maximal connected sub-graph," meaning that all points in a component can "reach" one another through one or more paths, but they have no connections outside the component (Scott, 2001). An analysis of the 430 vertices remaining in the network revealed a total of 59 separate components of at least two vertices each. The largest of those components contained 250 vertices, which is the group constituting the larger or "main" network that appeared to exist in the initial visual images of the network. An image of this main network of 250 connected vertices produced using the Kamada-Kawai 2D layout energy command contained in the Pajek program to is shown in Figure 4.

From this image of the main portion of the network, a number of additional patterns begin to appear. Specifically, there appears to be a more densely connected portion of the network consisting primarily of individuals having published in sport management journals (shown in Figure 5). A less densely connected portion of the network, meanwhile, appears to contain mostly scholars having published in sociology of sport journals (shown in Figure 6). At this point, I have included vertex labels in Figure 6 as it is now practical to display them with the network reduced to this point. In addition, having narrowed the network down to this point, it is now helpful to consider the concepts of *bridges* and *cut-vertices*. A bridge refers to any line whose removal will increase the number of components present in the network, while a cut-vertex is any vertex whose removal will increase the number of components present in the network. Bridges and cut-vertices, therefore, represent individuals who may play important roles in connecting the network. In the "main" network of 250 actors, there are two bridges that appear to connect the "sport management portion" of the network to the "sociology of sport portion" of the network. These bridges are formed by a tie between Jacquelyn Cuneen and Ray Schneider, and a tie between Ray Schneider and Cheri Bradish. A detailed image of this portion of the network is shown in Figure 7. Institutional affiliations appear to be relevant in both of these collaborations. For example, Cuneen and Schneider are both professors at Bowling Green State University, and while Bradish works at a different institution, both she and Schneider received their Ph.D. degrees from Florida State University. Such commonalities in institutional affiliations will be a consistent theme in many of the collaboration groups I discuss in this section.

Although no other scholars act as connectors between such large groups of individuals, there are a number of smaller, distinct sub-groups that are connected to the larger network by individuals acting as cut-vertices. For example, a group of sport sociology scholars consisting of Eric Dunning, Mark Falcous, Joseph Maguire, Dominic Malcolm, Elizabeth Pike, Emma Poulton, Martin Roderick, Kenneth Sheard, David Stead, and Ivan Waddington, are connected to the main network by Michael Silk, who acts as a cut vertex. This collection of scholars could be labeled the "figurational" sub-group of the network, as many of the individuals in this group do research from the paradigm of figurational sociology, which is based on the work of Norbert Elias. Dunning, in fact, studied sociology under Elias at the University of Leicester, and the two of them went on to publish several books and articles together. With many of the members of this group, therefore, it appears that methodological or theoretical approaches to research are an important connection. Institutional affiliations, however, also appear to be important, as all of the scholars in this group were students at either Leicester (where Dunning was a faculty member) or Loughborough University (where Maguire is a faculty member).

Another distinct sub-group, comprised of Susan Birrell, Barry Brummett, CL Cole, Cheryl Cooky, Michele Dunbar, Cynthia Hasbrook, Samantha King, Mary McDonald, Michael Messner, and Eleanor Miller, is connected to the larger network by Margaret Carlisle Duncan, who acts as a cut-vertex. Again, institutional affiliations appear to be important connecting factors amongst the individuals in this group. Briefly, Birrell is a professor at the University of Iowa, where both Cole and McDonald received Ph.D. degrees. King, meanwhile, received her Ph.D. from the University of Illinois, were Cole is a professor. McDonald is a professor at Miami Univeristy, where Cooky received

her master's degree. Both Cooky and Dunbar received their doctorates at the University of Southern California, where they studied with Messner, who is a professor at USC. Brummett, Hasbrook, Miller, and Duncan, meanwhile, have all been professors at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee. Another commonality explaining connections between this group of individuals is that much of their research has explored issues related to gender and sport. In addition, while most of the individuals in the connected "main" group of 250 scholars are male, most of the individuals in this particular sub-group are female, which differs from most of the distinct sub-groups I have been able to identify, as I will discuss further.

Another distinct sub-group found in the larger group of sport sociologists consists of Michael Atkinson, James Curtis, James Gillet, William McTeer, Robert Sparks, Philip White, Brian Wilson, and Kevin Young. All paths from any member of this group to the rest of the network pass through either John Loy on one side or through Peter Donnelly on the other. There are again a number of common institutional affiliations present amongst members of this group. In addition, each of them currently work at institutions located in Canada, including McMaster University (Atkinson, Gillet, and White), the University of British Columbia (Sparks and Wilson), the University of Calgary (Young), the University of Waterloo (Curtis), and Wilfred Laurier Univeristy (McTeer), which is located in the city of Waterloo. In addition, Gillet, Wilson, and Young each received their Ph.D. degrees at McMaster, while McTeer and White received their doctorates from Waterloo.

Also present in this section of the network comprised primarily of individuals having published in sociology of sport journals is a small group of sport management

scholars. This group consists of Robert Copeland, Wendy Frisby, Larena Hoeber, Ronald McCarville, and Sally Shaw. They are connected to the main network through John Amis, who acts as a cut-vertex. One connection between members of this group is that all of them have either received graduate degrees or worked as professors at institutions located in Canada. This is also notable because, I will discuss, few of the individuals located in the most densely connected portion of the network composed primarily of those having published in sport management journals work at institutions outside of the United States. In addition, much of the research by individuals in this group is related to sports organizations and organizational theory.

In addition, although neither individual serves as a cut-vertex in the network, any path from the main sub-group consisting primarily of sport sociology scholars to the main sub-group consisting primarily of sport management scholars must pass through either Lucie Thibault or Trevor Slack. This is notable because both Thibault and Slack are among the nine individuals I identified as having published consistently both in sport management and sociology of sport journals. Some obvious connections appear to exist between the two scholars. For example, Thibault, who currently works at Brock University, received both her Master's and Ph.D. degrees at the University of Alberta, where Slack works as a professor. As is the case with institutional affiliations, both scholars list organizational theory and change as an area of research interest in the bios on their respective departmental websites. Also, the fact that both Thibault and Slack are from Canada and work at institutions in Canada appears to be notable, as a relatively small number of individuals in the main sub-group composed primarily of sport sociologists are American. In fact, of the group composed of Slack, Thibault, and the 70

individuals that they connect to the rest of the network, 53 have either earned Ph.D. degrees or worked at institutions located outside of the United States. Given the international nature of the development of the sociology of sport, it is perhaps not surprising that so many of the individuals who are positioned in this group are from outside of the United States. This is also a significant contrast from the main group of scholars having published primarily in sport management, which as I will further discuss later in this chapter, consists mainly of individuals affiliated with institutions in the United States. I will elaborate further on this point and implications of the relative status of sport sociology in the U.S., Canada, and other parts of the world in chapter 5.

While I have thus far been able to provide some discussion of themes found in the main sub-group of individuals having published primarily in sociology of sport journals, the main portion of the network composed of scholars having published primarily in sport management journals still appears too tightly packed to effectively analyze in detail. Thus, to further break down this main component of 250 actors, I will utilize the concept of *k-cores*. This concept involves identifying clusters of vertices in which each vertex has a particular minimum degree. Formally, a k-core is defined as "a maximal subnetwork in which each vertex has at least degree *k* within the subnetwork" (de Nooy et al., 2005, p. 70). For example, a 3-core refers to a portion of the network in which each vertex has a degree of at least three within that portion of the network. By helping to identify relatively dense subnetworks, the concept of the k-core helps us to find cohesive subnetworks. An analysis of the remaining network of 250 actors revealed two 3-cores, one comprised of five vertices (Grace Barnes, Michael Farrel, Merrill Melnick, Kathleeen Miller, and Don Sabo), and one of 59 vertices. An image of these two 3-cores

is provided in Figure 8. The 3-core comprised of Barnes, Farrell, Melnick, Miller, and Sabo is a group of sport sociology scholars who have worked at universities located in upstate New York, and have collaborated on research focusing on topics related to the impact of sports participation on high school aged students. These scholars represent the only remaining individuals having published solely in the sociology of sport at this raised level of connectivity. The other group of 59 individuals, meanwhile, is primarily comprised of scholars having published in sport management journals. Before further analysis, however, I will take one more step to narrow this group by considering the concept of complete subnetworks.

A *complete subnetwork* is any group of vertices in which each vertex is tied to every other vertex in the group, while a *clique* refers specifically to a maximal complete subnetwork containing three vertices or more (de Nooy et al., 2005). Although a clique could contain any number of vertices over three, it is rare to have very large cliques because each vertex must be tied to every other vertex in order for the group to be considered a clique. To further break down the largest 3-core containing 59 actors, I specifically searched for cliques containing three vertices, which are referred to as *triads*. This analysis found there to be 104 sets of triads, and further narrowed the network to a group of five scholars (Matthew Brown, Timothy DeSchriver, Chad McEvoy, Mark Nagel, and Daniel Rascher), and a group of 53 connected scholars involved in a number of triads. This breakdown of the network is shown in Figure 9. Institutional affiliations are again apparent among the smaller of those two groups, as Brown, DeSchriver, McEvoy, and Nagel all completed their doctoral studies at the University of Northern Colorado. Rascher, meanwhile, is a faculty member at the University of San Francisco,

where Nagel has worked as an adjunct professor. With respect to the larger group of 53 scholars, I will next provide some more detailed discussion of sub-groups found amongst this collections of individuals.

Sub-groups found in this connected network of 53 individuals seem to be arranged largely by institutional affiliation as well as by topic of research interest. For example, the group of Damon Aiken, Richard Campbell, Vassilis Dalakas, Marc Duncan, Lynn Kahle, Fredric Kropp, Gregory Rose, and Aviv Shoham, who are connected to the rest of the network through the cut-vertex of Aubrey Kent, is composed of individuals with a primary research interest in sport marketing who have had some affiliation with the University of Oregon. Specifically, Kahle is a professor at the University of Oregon's Warsaw Sports Marketing Center, while all the other individuals in this group received their Ph.D. degrees at Oregon. Given their affiliation with the Warsaw Sports Marketing Center, it is perhaps unsurprising that all these scholars have published exclusively in SMQ. The group is tied to the remaining portion of the main network through a collaboration between Campbell, Aiken, and Kent in an article related to fan behavior that appeared in SMQ. Kent has published in the JSM in addition to SMQ, which helps explain his connections to the larger network. It is notable that, as is the case with the male-dominated nature of many other sub-groups in the network, all of these individuals associated with the Warsaw Center are male.

Another sub-group found in this portion of the network is comprised of Jessica Braunstein, Heather Gibson, Eddie Lam, Dale Pease, Debbie Williamson, and James Zhang, and is connected to the rest of the network through Galen Trail, who serves as a cut-vertex. Institutional affiliations again appear to play a role in the makeup of this

collection of scholars. Specifically, Lam and Williamson were graduate students at the University of Houston at the time that both Zhang and Pease were professors at the institution. Braunstein, meanwhile, was a Ph.D. student at the University of Florida, where Zhang and Gibson are currently professors. In addition, Trail, before taking his current position at Ohio State, was a professor at Florida, which helps explain his collaboration with Zhang, Gibson, and Braunstein. Trail, meanwhile, along with Ronald Dick, Harry Kwon, and Matthew Robinson, is located in a group of scholars connected to the network by Jeff James on one side and Andrew Gillentine on the other. In this sub-group of individuals, although both Kwon and James have been professors at Florida State and Kwon and Trail worked together at Iowa State, the influence of institutional affiliation seems less apparent than in some other groups. There does appear to be a connection, however, in that all the scholars in this group appear to have consumer behavior as a significant research interest.

While there are no cut-vertices or bridges in the remaining network, some additional observations can be made about what appear to be relatively distinct sub-groups of individuals. For instance, all paths from the sub-group of Frank Ashley, Gregg Bennett, George Cunningham, Clay Daughtrey, Windy Dees, Marlene Dixon, Aubrey Kent, Michael Sagas, Brain Turner, and Brian Wigley to the main portion of the network must pass through either Packianathan Chelladurai or Janet Fink on one side or through Andrew Gillentine on the other. Institutional affiliation appears to be a connecting factor in this group as a number of individuals, such as Ashley, Bennett, Dees, Sagas, and Wigley have either been professors at Texas A&M University or received their doctorates from the school. Others, such as Dixon and Kent, received their Ph.D. degrees at Ohio

State, where Chelladurai is currently a professor and where Fink was previously on the faculty. Cunningham, meanwhile, received his Ph.D. at Ohio State and is currently a professor at Texas A&M, explaining some of the connections between scholars at the two institutions found in this group.

In another distinct sub-group, all paths from John Clark, Bettina Cornwell, Richard Irwin, Tony Lachowetz, Mark McDonald, George Milne, and William Sutton to the remaining individuals in the network must pass through either Artemisia Apostolopoulou or James Gladden. Of these individuals, only McDonald has published in any of the sociology of sport journals under consideration in this study. A significant link between many of these individuals is their connection to the University of Massachusetts-Amherst. Specifically, Clark, Lachowetz, and Apostolopoulou each received their Ph.D. degree from UMass, while Milne is currently a professor at the institution. McDonald and Gladden, meanwhile, both received doctorates from and currently serve as professors at UMass. Additionally, Sutton was previously on the faculty at UMass prior to taking a position at the University of Central Florida.

The remaining scholars within the network, who occupy a position between Chelladurai and Fink on one side and James on the other side, are Karen Danylchuk, Daniel Funk, Christopher Greenwell, Mary Hums, Michael Judd, Daniel Mahony, Michael Mondello, Anita Moorman, Makoto Nakazawa, Donna Pastore, Lynn Ridinger, and Harold Riemer. Institutional affiliations also appear to be important connecting factors between the individuals in this group, as most have had some affiliation with Ohio State and many with the University of Louisville. For example, Moorman is a faculty member at the University of Louisville, while Funk, Greenwell, Hums, and Mahony each

received their Ph.D. degrees from Ohio State then went on to accept faculty positions at Louisville. Danylchuk and Ridinger, meanwhile, also received their doctorates from Ohio State. Pastore and Chelladurai are professors at Ohio State, while Fink previously held a faculty position at the school. Having considered the institutional affiliations of individuals present in this collection of scholars as well as other sub-groups in this portion of the network, it appears that a relatively small number of institutions have a very significant influence on the field of sport management.

Overall, with respect to the importance of institutional affiliations, a key theme present in this project is the apparent strong influence of this factor on the coauthorship network. In fact, it appears to be rare for individuals within any given sub-group in the network to not have some type of institutional affiliation linking them together. Another key theme, meanwhile, has been the presence or lack of "international" contributions to the fields. As I previously stated, the majority of scholars positioned in the portion of the network comprised primarily of individuals having published in sport sociology journals contained a significant number of scholars from outside of the United States. This appears to be relatively consistent with the "international" nature of the development of the field. On the other hand, in the most densely connected portion of the network composed primarily of sport management scholars (consisting of 53 people), only one individual, Makoto Nakazawa, both earned a Ph.D. and currently works outside of the United States. Nakazawa is connected to the network through a collaboration with Funk, Gladden, James, and Mahony on a study examining the behavior of spectators in Japanese Professional Baseball. This general American dominance of the "sport management network" also is not surprising, given the American nature of the

development of the field. The implications of the international nature scope of the development of the fields is something I will give further attention to in chapter 5.

In addition, although I did not specifically collect demographic data on the individuals that comprise the network, I can still make some general demographic observations based on my knowledge of the fields. As previously mentioned, while there are a number of women producing prominent research in the fields, men still hold the majority of positions in the network. The disproportionate overrepresentation of men is consistent with some other recent observations from scholars in the fields. For example, in their review of sport management textbooks, Pitts and Danylchuk (2007) found that 79 percent of textbook authors were male. In a review of sport management dissertation topics, meanwhile, Dittmore, Mahony, Andrew, and Phelps (2007) found that there were significant differences between men and women in terms of the topics pursued. Specifically, they found that men were more likely to complete dissertations in marketing and finance, while women were most likely to focus on sociological areas. Because sport marketing has been identified as the most often sought area of expertise in advertised faculty positions (Mondello, Mahony, Hums, & Moorman, 2002), Dittmore et al. (2007) suggested that women may be at a disadvantage in the job market, which would also make it less likely for them to appear in the network composed of individuals having published in the most prestigious journals in the fields. With respect to race, there are a few notable scholars of color who are connected to the main network and have published a significant amount of research in the top journals in the fields. However, people of color appear to be significantly underrepresented in the connected "main" group of individuals in both sport management and the sociology of sport. In addition, while I

have frequently mentioned the amount of international diversity that exists in the sociology of sport, it is important to recognize that this diversity is primarily restricted to white scholars from Western nations.

Overall, I have used a number of methods from social network analysis to explore patterns found in the collaboration network and identify various sub-groups in that exist in that network. Upon identifying patterns and sub-groups, I have offered various explanations for the existence of certain sub-groups. Due to the extent of the network, however, I am unable to give detailed attention to all possible sub-groups and patterns that exist in its structure. Potentially, any given sub-group or individual playing a key role in the network could serve as a "case study" to which further analysis could bring additional understanding about the structure and development of the fields. Thus, rather than attempting to offer a fully comprehensive and definitive view of the collaboration network found in the fields, it is my hope that this study can serve as inspiration for further scholarly discourse and exploration of the structure of the fields. While I have offered explanations for many of the patterns I have found that I hope can provide insight into the network, it is likely that other scholars with experiences that differ from my own will be able to offer additional explanations for such patterns that will bring further insight to understanding the structure of the fields. In the next section of the paper, I will offer some final commentary about the positions of certain "key" individuals in the network, before moving on to my interpretive analysis of selected examples of research.

Specific Positions of Individuals Having Published in Both Fields

Having noted a number of patterns, themes, and sub-groups found in the network, I will now briefly discuss the specific positions in the network of certain key individuals having published consistently in journals from both fields. As mentioned previously, there were nine people who had published at least three articles in sport management journals and at least three articles in sociology of sport journals that I was investigating. Again, these individuals were George Cunningham, Donna Pastore, Allen Sack, Michael Sagas, Michael Sam, Trevor Slack, Nancy Spencer, Ellen Staurowsky, and Lucie Thibault. Given my interest in potential connections between sport management and the sociology of sport, these individuals are notable because they are among a relatively small collection of scholars who have consistently published research in the top journals in each field. They are also potentially influential scholars in that they possess a specific form of capital coming from their ability to publish in the most prestigious journals in the fields. Given Bourdieu's (2001/2004) conception of capital as being an important determinant in the structure of a field, exploring the positions of these individuals may provide insight about the position of potential connections between sport management and sociology of sport in the structure of the fields.

Of these nine scholars, I have already mentioned that Slack and Thibault appear to be in influential situations for building on connections between the fields given their positions as intermediaries between the largest sub-group of scholars having published primarily in sociology of sport journals and the largest sub-group of scholars having published primarily in sport management journals. I have also mentioned that three of these nine individuals, Pastore, Cunningham, and Sagas, are located in the most highly

connected portion of the network composed primarily of sport management scholars. While these three individuals do not serve intermediary roles in the sense that Slack and Thibault do, their positions may be important for building on connections between the fields in other ways. Specifically, they are located in close proximity to many of the most prominent scholars in the field of sport management. Thus, they are in positions to potentially influence other sport management scholars to take an interest in connections with the sociology of sport, as they themselves seek to diversify the range of perspectives and approaches found in sport management research.

Of the remaining four individuals having published consistently in journals from both fields, Michael Sam is the only one who is positioned in the largest sub-group consisting of individuals having published primarily in sociology of sport journals. His connection to that sub-group comes through collaborations with Steven Jackson. Both Jackson and Sam are faculty members at the University of Otago in New Zealand, and thus Sam is yet to collaborate with scholars outside of his home institution on publications in the top journals in the fields. Sam, however, is a relatively young scholar, having received his Ph.D. in 2004. Thus, he may be in a position to continue building on connections between the fields as his career progresses.

Allen Sack and Ellen Staurowsky, meanwhile, are both connected to the largest sub-group consisting primarily of those having published in sport management journals. Specifically, a bridge between Sack and Staurowsky connects a sub-group primarily containing scholars having published in sociology of sport journals: Richard King, Charles Springwood, Laurel Davis-Delano, Lawrence Baca, Anthony King, and Bonnie Parkhouse. A number of these scholars are linked by a collaboration on a paper

concerning the use of Native American nicknames and mascots. Staurowsky and Sack, meanwhile, have collaborated on research focusing on the topic of intercollegiate athletics. Both individuals have also been active in the Drake Group and are current executive board members of the College Sport Research Institute (CSRI); both the Drake Group and CSRI are organizations that seek reform in college sports. While Staurowsky and Sack currently connect only a small group of sport sociologists to the larger sport management network, their research presents another area of potential connection between the fields. A topic such as intercollegiate sports in the United States is an issue that is of interest to many sport sociologists as well as many sport management scholars, and thus may provide a content area in which scholars from the two fields may collaborate.

The final person in this collection of nine scholars having published consistently in both fields is Nancy Spencer. In the time period I considered, Spencer has published four articles in sport management journals and four articles in sociology of sport journals. Interestingly, all four of her articles in sociology of sport journals were single-authored. Her collaborative efforts with Artemisia Apostolopoulou, Jacquelyn Cuneen, and Janet Parks each appeared in sport management journals. Thus, Spencer is located in the portion of the network consisting primarily of scholars having published in sport management journals. Again showing the importance of institutional affiliations on collaboration, Apostolopoulou, Cuneen, and Parks each have been or currently are a faculty member at Bowling Green State University, where Spencer is a professor. Given the higher rate of coauthorship found in sport management as compared to the sociology of sport, it is perhaps not surprising that Spencer's collaborative research efforts have

come in sport management journals. However, this situation also presents an opportunity to consider why this is the case. In the final "project" of this dissertation, then, I have selected specific examples of research by key scholars in the fields on which to conduct a qualitative analysis further considering connections between the fields as well as what qualities might distinguish sport management and the sociology of sport from one another.

An Interpretive Project

In this final portion of the dissertation, I will perform an interpretive analysis on select examples of research from key scholars in the field. In order to explore the distinct qualities that define the fields, I attempt to look beyond the labels given to journals that identify them as belonging to either the field of sport management or sociology of sport. In this analysis, I pay particular attention to the methodological approaches, objectives, and values underlying the research I examine. Specifically, I chose to examine the research of Nancy Spencer, Lucie Thibault, and George Cunningham. First, I will provide a brief explanation of my reasoning for choosing the particular scholars and examples of research I have selected. Next, I will discuss some of the patterns and themes I have found in examining this research and offer relevant explanations to accompany my observations.

As previously mentioned, all of Nancy Spencer's collaborative efforts in the publications I examined appeared in sport management journals, while each of her articles in sociology of sport journals was single-authored. Thus, examining examples of her research may shed light on some factors that distinguish the two fields from one another and account for the higher rates of coauthorship in sport management. In

addition to having published consistently in both fields, Spencer served as president of the North American Society for the Sociology of Sport during the 2006-07 academic year. Thus, I chose to examine Spencer's research because, given her capital coming from publications in prestigious journals in both fields as well as her presidency of a key academic organization, she may be in a unique position to build on connections between the fields.

George Cunningham, meanwhile, was the only individual to have published at least one article in each of the six journals under consideration in this study. Thus, examining examples of his publications allows me to compare research coming from the same scholar but appearing in a range of journals from the fields. In addition, Cunningham's position in the largest sport management sub-group of the main network and his connections to a number of prominent sport management scholars also places him in an important position to possibly encourage collaboration between the fields.

Lucie Thibault, meanwhile, in addition to her position as a potential intermediary between the largest sport management sub-group and largest sport sociology sub-group of the network, began serving as editor of the *Journal of Sport Management* in 2006. This position, combined with her history of having published in both fields, places her in an influential position to build upon connections between the fields in the direct future.

One area in which I looked for patterns in this interpretive analysis was with respect to the methods used by each scholar in her/his research. Cunningham's methods were primarily quantitative, while Spencer's work was primarily qualitative and critical. Thibault's research, meanwhile, has ranged from empirically-based qualitative work involving interviews and observation to theoretical considerations of issues such as

globalization. While methodological themes certainly existed in relation to the work of each scholar, these themes did not seem to "define" work as falling under the category of either sport management or sociology of sport research. In other words, while quantitative work may be most common in sport management research and qualitative/critical approaches may be most common in sociology of sport, such methodological themes do not appear to be *the* factors that define either field. Although, as previously discussed, quantitative methods are much more common in research published in the field of sport management, such work still has a place in sociology of sport journals. Cunningham, for example, has recently utilized survey research and statistical analysis to examine the occupational experiences of racial-minority and white football coaches, and he has published such work in sociology of sport journals (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004). Spencer, meanwhile, has engaged in research examining the way female athletes are portrayed in advertisements, which has been published in *Sport Marketing Quarterly* (Cuneen, Spencer, Ross, & Apostolopoulou, 2007). Thus, while themes do exist in terms of what types of methodological approaches are more common in one field than the other, methodological themes do not seem to be the defining feature in determining the field to which a piece of research belongs.

Another set of issues I considered in this project were the objectives and values, both explicit and implicit, that appeared in the research. In looking at this issue, I found that, on one hand, a number of articles appeared to be aimed primarily at describing an issue and informing the reader without making explicit suggestions for a particular course of action that should be taken in light of the information being presented. Such articles appear to be aimed at generating knowledge primarily for the sake of contributing to

knowledge in the field. On the other hand, a number of articles appear to explicitly direct the reader toward a specific action or way of thought. Such articles may either attempt to make suggestions that are meant to be helpful to a practitioner or advocate a particular position or ideological orientation with respect to a given issue. While one might expect articles advocating a particular ideological position with respect to social justice issues to appear in sociology of sport journals and articles making suggestions aimed at the practitioner to appear in sport management journals, this is not always the case. Cunningham, for example, has done a significant amount of research focusing on the topic of diversity and discrimination faced by people of color working in various areas of college athletics. In such work, which has been published in journals from both sport sociology and sport management, he has advocated that athletic departments must adopt more proactive strategies and embrace cultures of diversity to address issues related to discrimination. Such an example shows that a concern with social justice issues is not just restricted to research published in sociology of sport journals. On the other hand, in an article appearing in the *IRSS*, Thibault, Slack, and Hinings (1991) investigate the impact of hiring professional staff members on the structure of voluntary sport organizations. Specifically, they pay attention to the impact of such hirings on decision making and specialization within the organization. Such an example shows that research with a primary focus on issues relevant to sporting organizations is not restricted to the field of sport management.

Despite the connections that I have suggested exist between the fields, I certainly want to stress that I have not come to the conclusion that there is no distinction between research in sport management and sociology of sport. With respect to research methods,

there are certainly certain methodological approaches that are most common in sport management, while different approaches are most common in sociology of sport. My argument, rather, is that a given methodological approach does not seem to be *the* factor that absolutely defines a piece of research as belonging to either one field or the other. Similarly, while themes appear to exist with respect to values and objectives underlying research, such factors do not seem to absolutely distinguish the fields from one another. Advocacy of a particular ideological orientation related to a given social justice issue appears to be more common in research appearing in sociology of sport journals than in sport management journals. However, a focus on social justice issues does not seem to be *the* factor that absolutely defines a piece of research as belonging to the field of sport sociology, nor would such a focus necessarily prevent a piece of research from being published in a sport management journal. On the other hand, an objective of making specific suggestions relevant to the practitioner in the sport industry is a characteristic most common of sport management research, but such a focus would not necessarily prevent a piece of research from being published in a sociology of sport journal.

Overall, an important implication of this argument is that scholars potentially have a significant amount of freedom in deciding how they define and present their research to the academic community. In other words, it seems that scholars have a considerable amount of choice in whether they position and present their work as being sport management research, sociology of sport research, or as research that builds on connections between the fields and has relevance to both fields. Next, in chapter 5, I will further build upon these points and draw some connections between the themes I have found in the various "projects" of this dissertation.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In his classic work, *Beyond a Boundary*, C.L.R. James (1963/1993) begins by posing the question: "What do they know of cricket who only cricket know?" (p. xxi). From there, James goes on to discuss the relationship between cricket and a range of Caribbean affairs including politics, economics, race, and postcolonial struggle. A point to be taken from James' work is that understanding sport can help one better understand other issues in society and that to understand sport it is important to understand its relationship to broader conditions in society. Making a somewhat similar consideration, one might ask: What do they know of sport management who only sport management know? The same question could also be posed with respect to the sociology of sport. In that spirit, I have suggested that there are a number of benefits that may result from sport management scholars and sport sociologists considering connections between the fields in order to broaden their own perspectives and the perspectives of research in their fields.

Also in the spirit of broadening one's understanding of a topic, I have conducted three distinct "projects" in this dissertation in order to explore the relationship between sport management and sociology of sport. From these projects, I have identified a number of themes associated with the development of and relationship between the fields. In this chapter, I will attempt to make connections between these themes and note some of the implications of my findings for the fields of sport management and sociology of sport.

International Development and Diversity of Research

In exploring the historical growth of the fields, one important theme I found was the international scope of the development of sociology of sport compared to the more American-centered development of sport management. In my social network project, meanwhile, I found that a majority of the scholars positioned in the "sociology of sport portion" of the network were trained at and worked at institutions outside of the United States. In contrast, the vast majority of scholars positioned in the "sport management portion" of the network were trained at and worked at institutions in the United States.

Another theme I identified had to do with the amount of diversity found in research perspectives from each field. In chapter 4, I suggested that functionalistic and positivistic perspectives were dominant during the development of both fields. While sociology of sport was influenced by a "critical shift" and a "postmodern shift" leading to an increased diversity of research perspectives in the field, it does not appear that sport management has experienced any such major diversifying forces. While such themes regarding the international nature of development and amount of diversity found in research in the fields are interesting to note, it is also important to consider what might be potential implications of such differences for the fields. It is my contention that there is a relationship between the diversity present in sport sociology research and the international nature of the development of the field.

First, it makes sense that the greater presence of individuals from a variety of different national backgrounds trained at institutions in various nations and conducting research in a number of different national contexts would lead to a higher level of diversity in a given field. Thus, the presence of more "international diversity" in sport

sociology during the course of its development has contributed to the presence of more "research diversity" in the field. In turn, as contributions from sport management scholars outside of the United States continue to grow in the future, this may help the field develop a greater plurality of perspectives with respect to research. In addition, Dunning (2004) suggests it is notable that many of the scholars most involved in the critical shift in sociology of sport (e.g., Peter Donnelly, Rick Gruneau, Alan Ingham, Bruce Kidd) were either Canadian nationals or Canadian/U.S. residents born outside of North America. He suggests this is notable because processes of radicalization (i.e., the critical shift) are "more likely to occur in dependencies than in centers of imperial power [i.e., the United States]," and "more likely to occur among migrants than among the native born and hence more established" (p. 14). Thus, not only is it possible that sport management will experience a rise in the diversity of its research as more scholars from outside of the United States become active in the field, but also as more students from outside of the United States train at and work at institutions in America.

Given these considerations, it appears that there may be an increasingly large space for "non-traditional" research perspectives opening up in the field of sport management. But is there a space of increasing size opening up for critical perspectives in particular? As previously mentioned in this dissertation, commentaries from a number of scholars (e.g., Amis & Silk, 2005; Frisby, 2005; Skinner & Edwards, 2005) may show that such a critical space may be increasingly opening in the field of sport management. I have already suggested that, because such critical perspectives are more commonly found in sociology of sport research, this may present opportunities for building on connections between the fields. In addition, I previously mentioned that Lucie Thibault, the current

editor of the *Journal of Sport Management*, has published consistently in journals from both fields and held somewhat of an "intermediary" position between the fields in the network. Given her research history and her position in the network, Thibault's editorship of the *JSM* provide another example of the potentially increasing space for critical research developing in sport management.

Overall, the apparently increasing space for critical perspectives developing in sport management leads me to wonder if a "critical shift" may be taking place in the field. If so, it may be beneficial for sport management scholars to look to connections with sport sociology in order to build off critical work in the field and apply that work to sport management. In addition, sport management scholars may benefit from considering the concerns and issues raised by the "critical shift" that occurred in sociology of sport to better understand the ways in which a rise of critical perspectives might impact their field.

In a final consideration related to the "international" scope of the development of the fields, I will briefly comment on issues related to the levels of prestige that sport management and the sociology of sport may have in different international contexts. Specifically, it appears that research in the sociology of sport may enjoy a higher status in Canada than it does in the United States. For example, sport sociologists in Canada have a considerably better chance of obtaining external funding for research do their American counterparts (Harris, 2006). Reasonably, it makes sense that the willingness of agencies to fund research in a given field is somewhat indicative of the status level of the field. The higher regard for sociology of sport in Canada than in the United States is also evidenced by membership data from the North American Society for the Sociology of Sport (NASSS). Specifically, in 2005, NASSS had a total of 237 members from the

United States and 73 members from Canada. Although these figures show that there are over three times more scholars from the United States than from Canada in NASSS, it is important to consider, for example, that the population of the U.S. is approximately 10 times greater than that of Canada. Although the comparison is not perfect, I would suggest that the over-representation of Canadian scholars in NASSS relative to the nation's population is evidence of the higher status given to sociology of sport in Canada. Such issues as the relative prestige of sport management and the sociology of sport will be an interesting topic for scholars to pay attention to as the fields continue to grow internationally. As I have previously suggested (and as I will further discuss later in this chapter), building on certain connections between sport management and the sociology of sport may be a way to enhance the prestige and influence of both fields.

The Importance of Institutional Affiliation

Another important theme I identified in the process of conducting this dissertation is the influence of institutional affiliations on collaboration patterns. Specifically, many of the individuals in any given sub-group present within the network of scholars comprising the fields were linked by the institutions where they received their Ph.D. degrees and/or the institutions at which they worked. In fact, it was relatively rare for individuals within a sub-group to not have links related to institutional affiliations. A similar influence of institutional affiliations on coauthorship patterns was identified by Quatman (2006). Such a trend is particularly relevant for sport sociologists who, as I have suggested, may often be somewhat "isolated" on their campuses. While sport management scholars often have departmental colleagues whose primary area of research

interest lies in sport management, sport sociologists are less likely to have colleagues in their departments with a primary research interest in the sociology of sport. I have also suggested that this situation is an important factor contributing to the lower rates of collaboration found in sport sociology compared to both sport management and the field of sociology in general. Even when sport sociologists do collaborate with colleagues on their campuses (who may identify themselves as sport management scholars) they may be more likely to frame their work as being in the field of sport management. For example, in chapter 4, I discussed how all of Nancy Spencer's collaborative work was published in sport management journals, while her sociology of sport publications were single-authored.

In this dissertation, I have suggested that there are certain issues facing each field that might be addressed by considering the connections between and common interests of sport management and sociology of sport. Because of that, I have looked for areas in which connections exist and suggested that scholars build such connections between the fields. One way of building on such connections would be increased collaboration between scholars from each field. With that being said, I do not believe it is realistic to expect scholars to completely break away from their tendencies of collaborating with institutional colleagues. However, by bringing attention to these tendencies and their influence on collaboration (and the potential barriers to collaboration that exist, particularly for sport sociologists), it may encourage some scholars to think more consciously about their collaborative efforts. If even a small number of additional scholars in the sociology of sport and sport management were to collaborate with one

another, it may have a significant impact on building connections and increasing the rate of exchange of information between scholars from the two fields.

Relevancy, Disunity, and Anti-Intellectualism

Another important set of considerations in the development of the fields has been the issues of relevance, applicability, impact of research. As I previously outlined, a number of sport sociologists (e.g., Jones & Armour, 2000; Lüschen, 1980; Melnick, 1980; Yiannakis, 1989) have given attention to such issues during the development of the field. I have also noted, however, that in the quest for academic legitimacy, a focus on the relevance and the impact of research upon practice has often been relegated to a secondary (or lower) level of concern. The situation in which sport sociologists often find themselves was articled by Bourdieu (1988) when he stated that sport sociologists are "doubly dominated," meaning they are "scorned by sociologists" and "despised by sportspersons" (p. 153). They are "scorned by sociologists" because of the fact sport is often not viewed as an important area of academic inquiry, and "despised by sportspersons" because their research often highlights the "problems" associated with the ways in which sports are organized. As the sociology of sport was influenced by the "critical shift" and "postmodern shift," as well as the accompanying diversity of research perspectives present in the field, such issues have remained important, as scholars such as Dunning (2004) have shown concern with the status of sport sociology compared to other fields.

While sport management has not faced such concerns related to disunity in research, the issue of relevance is certainly important in that field as well. To refer back

to a question I posed earlier: is an academic degree in sport management the best way to prepare someone to work in the sports industry? Although most sport management scholars would hope the answer to that question would be "yes," experience tells me that many practitioners in the sports industry do not feel strongly about needing to hire individuals with degrees in sport management. Many decision makers in the sports industry, for example, may be just as likely (or more likely) to hire someone with an MBA as they would be to hire someone with a master's degree in sport management. In order to continue to change that situation and build the prestige of the field, sport management scholars certainly have a vested interest in making their work relevant to those involved in sports. Thus, both sport management and sport sociology scholars have an interest in building the status of sport as a legitimate area of academic study and in establishing their status as important contributors to those involved in sports. In other words, scholars from both fields generally have a desire for their work to have more of an impact on the ways in which sports are organized and carried out in society. However, one issue that may harm their ability to make such an impact is anti-intellectualism.

Anti-intellectualism may take many forms. For example, building on Hofstadter's (1963) classic work, *Anti-Intellectualism in American Life*, Rigney (1991) suggests that there are three distinct forms of anti-intellectualism: religious anti-rationalism, populist anti-elitism, and unreflective instrumentalism. Although the topic merits a more extensive discussion, I will briefly suggest that anti-intellectualism is a relevant concern for scholars wishing to have an impact on the way in which sports are organized in our society. For example, some practitioners in the sports industry may resist the suggestions of scholars because they view them as being out of touch with what is actually taking

place in the industry. In the classroom, meanwhile, I have experienced many instances of students rejecting academic research because they feel that the scholar is "just making things up."

An example of government, politics, anti-intellectualism, and sport intersecting can be seen in a 2003 issue of the U.S. Department of State's journal, *U.S. Society and Values*. The journal, which has the role of "telling America's story," focuses on a variety of topics, ranging from art to education to the family. The second issue in the 2003 edition of the journal, however, focused specifically on the topic of "Sports in America." Perhaps not surprisingly, the individuals "telling America's story" in that issue of *U.S. Society and Values* were journalists and essayists rather than academics. The only real academic contribution to that journal was in the form of an interview with Andrew Zimbalist, a professor of economics at Smith College. However, that interview was conducted and written up by a state department writer. While the "Sports in America" journal is just one example, it is representative of the broader issue of scholars having relatively little impact on the ways in which sports are organized and carried out in society. Overall, while the objectives of sport management and sport sociology scholars may differ in many ways (and differ within each field), scholars in both fields share a common interest in advancing sport as an important area of academic inquiry and in establishing a status that will allow their work to have more of an impact on those involved in sports.

Prospects for Building on Connections

Another key theme I found in my exploration of the relationship between the fields is that scholars appear to have a significant amount of choice in how they present their work. While different patterns do certainly exist with respect to the methodological approaches, objectives, and values present in sport management research compared to sociology of sport research, it does not appear that such factors absolutely define research as belonging to one field or the other. For example, while advocacy of a particular ideological position regarding a social justice issue might be a characteristic more commonly found in sociology of sport research, it is not a quality that completely defines research published in the field or would prevent that research from being published in a sport management journal. Similarly, while making a suggestion regarding a particular course of action for a practitioner in the sports industry is a characteristic more commonly found in sport management research, it is not a quality that completely defines research published in the field or would prevent that research from being published in a sociology of sport journal. In other words, sport management and sociology of sport are not fields standing in opposition to one another. Rather, the fields share a number of connections and potential common interests, which I have attempted to outline in this study.

Some individuals might be concerned that by arguing that scholars have a great amount of flexibility in terms of presenting their work as being either sport management research or sociology of sport research, I am overly conflating research in the two fields or diminishing the unique contributions of scholars in each field. Further, some sport sociologists may worry that if research from the two fields is conflated, it will diminish

the status of sociology of sport due to the fact that sport management enjoys a higher status in the United States in terms of amount of programs and number of faculty members. These are important concerns, however, I will re-emphasize a few points from my work in an attempt to address these potential issues. Again, I am not attempting to present my argument as a mandate for *all* scholars in both fields. Rather, I am offering suggestions that might sway *some* scholars in the fields to give further consideration to the connections between sport management and the sociology of sport in order to address some of the issues I have outlined in this dissertation.

Building upon such connections not only has the potential to help members of each field address concerns and issues specific to that field, but also has the potential to strengthen the status of both fields. Common interests between the fields include securing external funding for research, effectively competing for academic resources within a university, and the advancement of sport as a legitimate and important area of academic inquiry. In addition, scholars in both fields have an interest in addressing issues related to anti-intellectualism, which may hinder their work from having an impact on the ways in which sports are organized and carried out in society. If scholars in each field are able to address these issues by considering connections between sport management and sociology of sport, there is great potential for both fields to benefit. Next, I will note limitations associated with my work and suggest directions for future research before offering some concluding remarks.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

In my "historical project," I attempted to offer a historically-informed sociological account of the fields by considering some of the broader conditions that influenced the development of sport management and the sociology of sport. I also explored some of the key issues facing the fields during their institutionalization processes. This work was also an attempt to better contextualize the other projects I conducted in this dissertation. Because of the extent of the history of sport management, sociology of sport, and physical education, my intent was not to write a comprehensive history of the fields. Rather, I aimed to focus on some of the key influences on the growth of the fields. Because other scholars focusing on different issues in the development of the fields may be able to highlight other important themes, there is certainly room for further work in this area. In addition, scholars in both fields may benefit from giving thorough consideration to historical processes in order to better contextualize their research and offer more historically-informed accounts and explanations.

In my "social network project," I aimed to provide an understanding of the structure of the coauthorship network comprising the fields. In this process, I had to make a number of decisions about which journals and articles to include in my analysis. If another scholar was to conduct a similar project making different journal choices – for example, examining journals with different rates of acceptance – s/he may obtain slightly different results. In addition, when describing these results, the explanations I offer about the network structure are influenced by my experiences in the fields. Other scholars with different experiences may be able to offer additional insight into themes present in the

collaboration network. Further, if one was to pay explicit attention to factors such as the rank of authors at the time of publication, additional explanations may appear. As I have noted previously, however, rather than offering a definitive account of the structure of the fields, it is my hope that this project can be a stimulus for further scholarly discourse on the topic. Additionally, it is my hope that this project may serve as motivation for other scholars in sport management and sport sociology to engage with social network analysis. While the amount of research being conducted from the perspective of social network theory has grown in many fields, it has still been utilized very little in sport. I believe that social network research has significant room to grow in both sport management and sociology of sport.

In the "interpretive project," my goal was to look beyond the labels defining journals as belonging to either sport management or sociology of sport in order to better understand the qualities that might define research in each field. In this project, I was certainly limited by the specific articles/examples of research I chose to examine. Additional insight might be gained by a systematic comparison of two specific journals. For example, a scholar might compare all research published in a given journal during a particular time span with the research published in another journal during that same time span. If more individuals are to seek connections between the two fields, it will also continue to be important for scholars to consider what qualities might define the fields from another.

A Conclusion

As previously mentioned, the topic of this dissertation was of a personal nature, as I attempted to consider the relationship between the primary area of study in my previous academic work and the primary area of focus in my current course of study. Given that, this dissertation was certainly beneficial on an individual level in helping me think about that relationship as well as the directions of my future academic career. In that future career, I hope to produce research that has relevance and impact in both fields as well as relevance and impact on the way sports are organized in society. As I have outlined in this dissertation, there are other scholars who appear to have established and built on connections between sport management and the sociology of sport. Given the size of the fields, however, it appears that relatively few scholars have consistently worked to consider connections between the two fields. Overall, as the fields continue to grow and struggle with some of the issues I have outlined in this dissertation, it is my hope that scholars will look to connections between sport management and the sociology of sport as one way to address such issues and advance the state of research in both fields.

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APPENDICES

TABLES

Table 1. Distribution of Authors per Publication in Sport Management Journals by Time Block

Number of Authors	1987-1993	1994-2000	2001-2007	Total
1	61.72%	34.62%	24.43%	33.95%
2	25.00	42.66	44.02	40.52
3	10.94	17.13	23.92	19.45
4	2.34	4.20	5.85	4.71
5	0.00	0.70	1.27	0.87
6	0.00	0.70	0.00	0.25
7	0.00	0.00	0.25	0.12
8	0.00	0.00	0.25	0.12
N	128	286	393	807

Table 2. Distribution of Authors per Publication in Sociology of Sport Journals by Time Block

Number of Authors	1987-1993	1994-2000	2001-2007	Total
1	63.11%	62.27%	58.30%	61.19%
2	27.43	26.57	27.95	27.29
3	7.28	7.51	9.17	7.56
4	1.94	2.64	2.40	2.35
5	0.24	0.81	0.87	0.66
6	0.00	0.00	0.87	0.29
7	0.00	0.20	0.44	0.22
N	412	493	458	1363

Table 3. Frequency Distribution of Degree Measurements (i.e., Number of Unique Coauthorship Partners per Scholar)

Degree Score	Number of Vertices	Percentage of Vertices
0	159	26.99
1	163	27.67
2	102	17.32
3	59	10.02
4	38	6.45
5	27	4.58
6	18	3.06
7	5	0.85
8	5	0.85
9	4	0.68
10	5	0.85
11	1	0.17
12	2	0.34
17	1	0.17

FIGURES

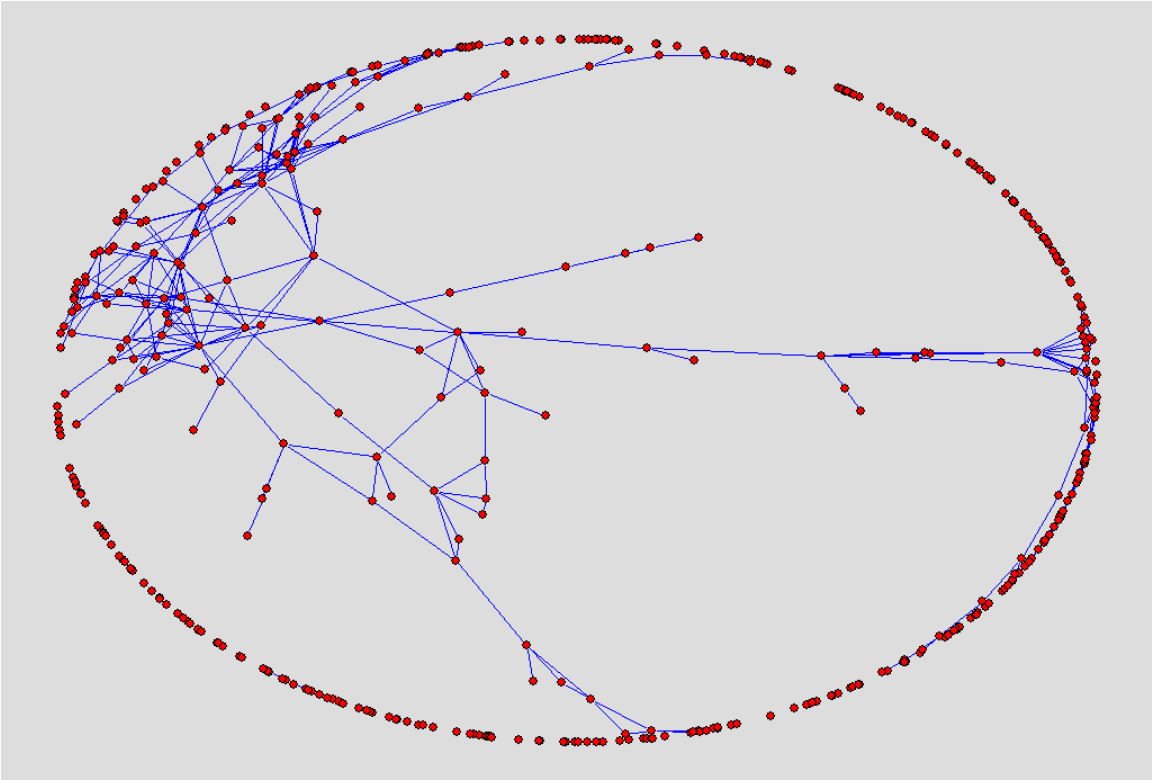

Figure 1. Full Network

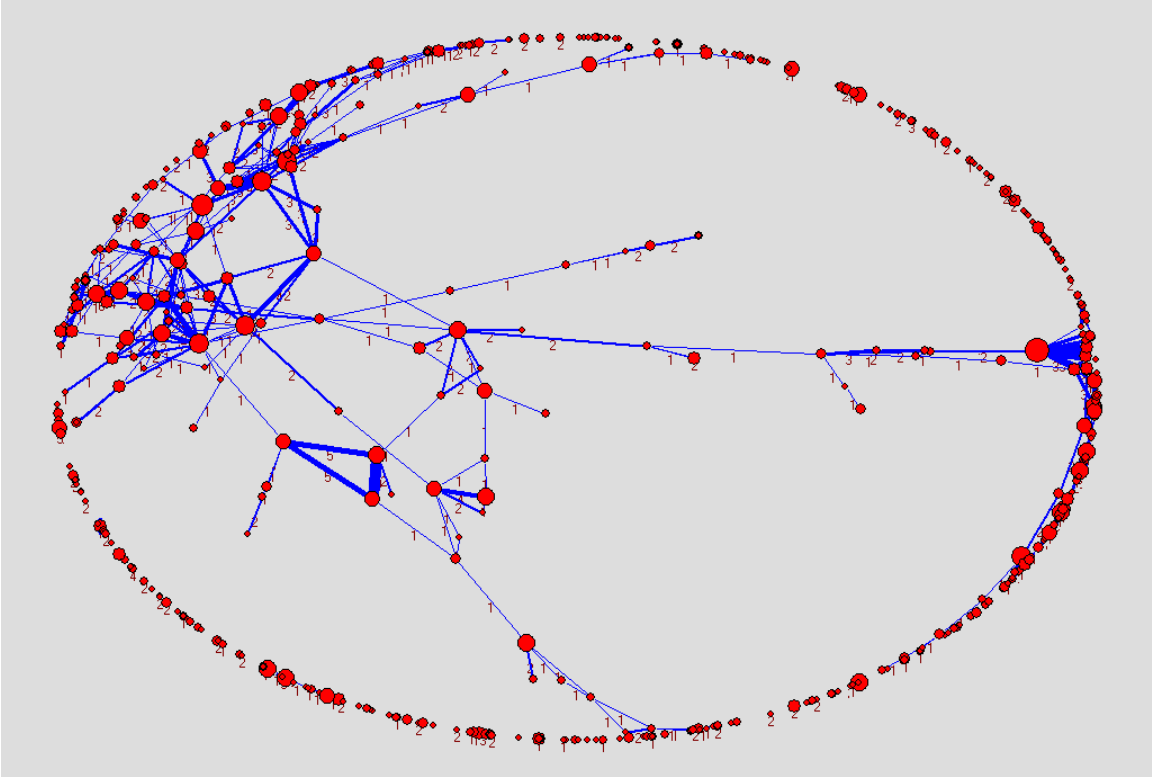

Figure 2. Full Network with Line and Vertex Values

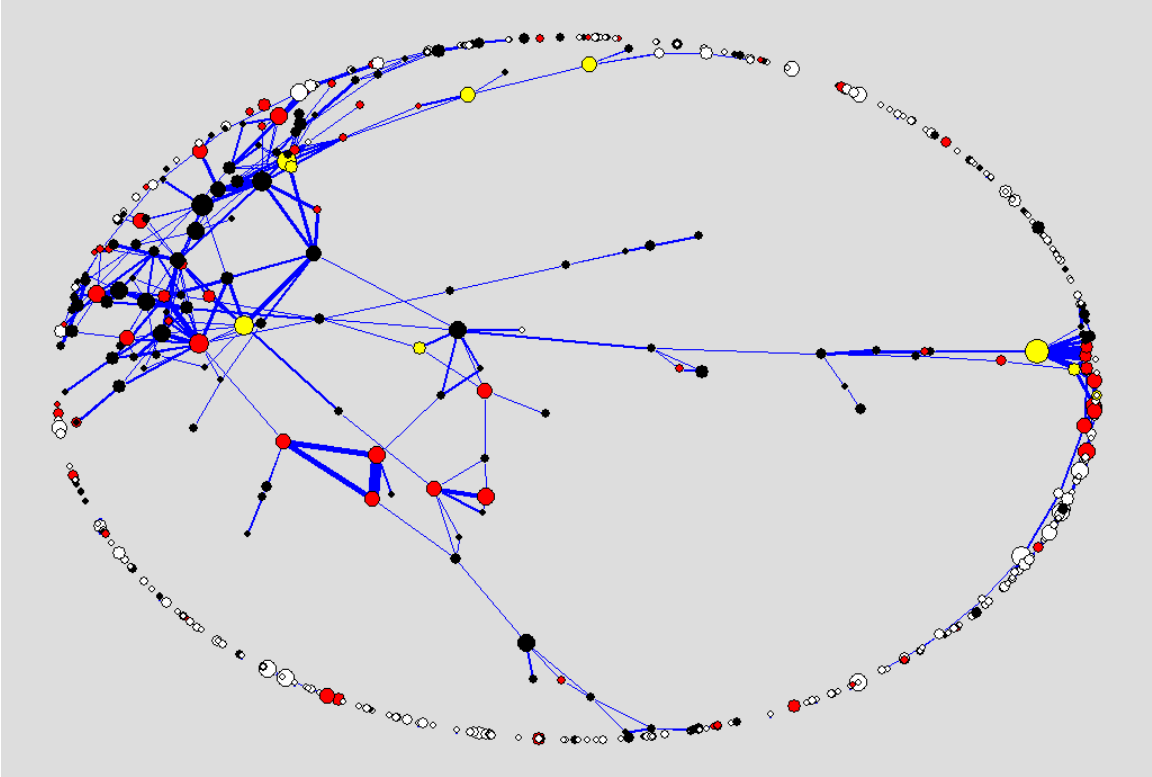

Figure 3. Full Network with Color-Coded Vertex Partition

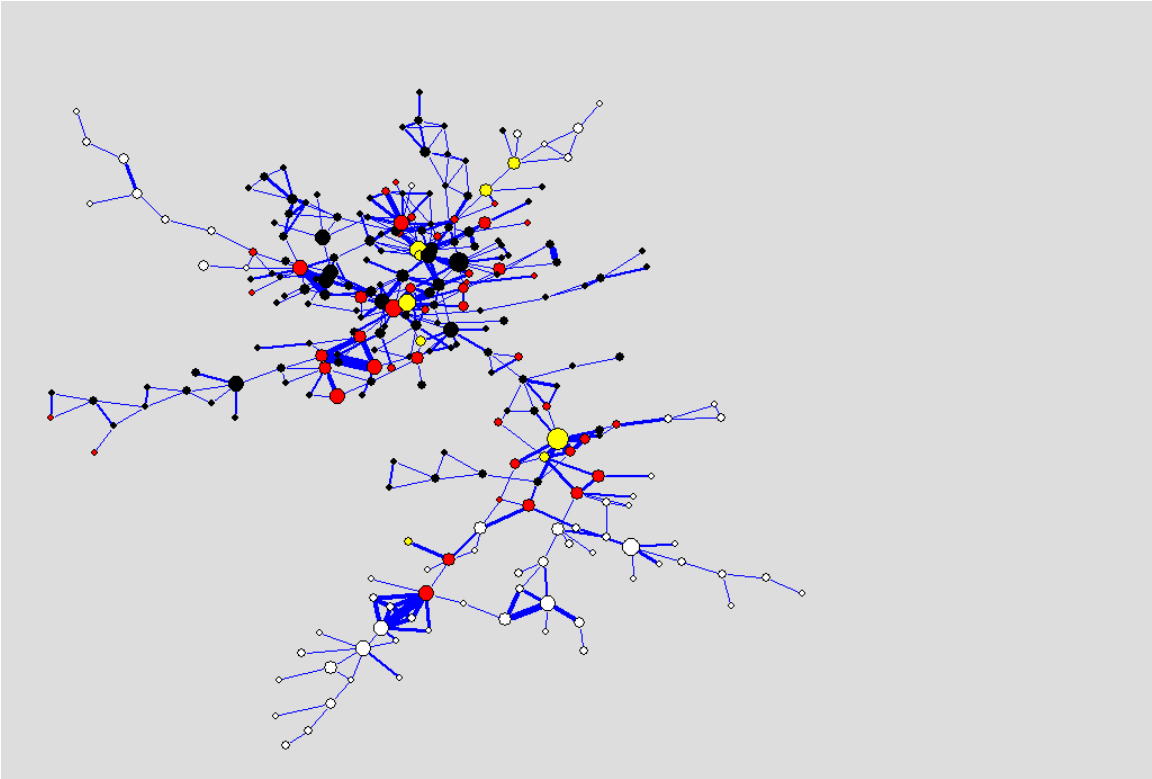

Figure 4. "Main" Network

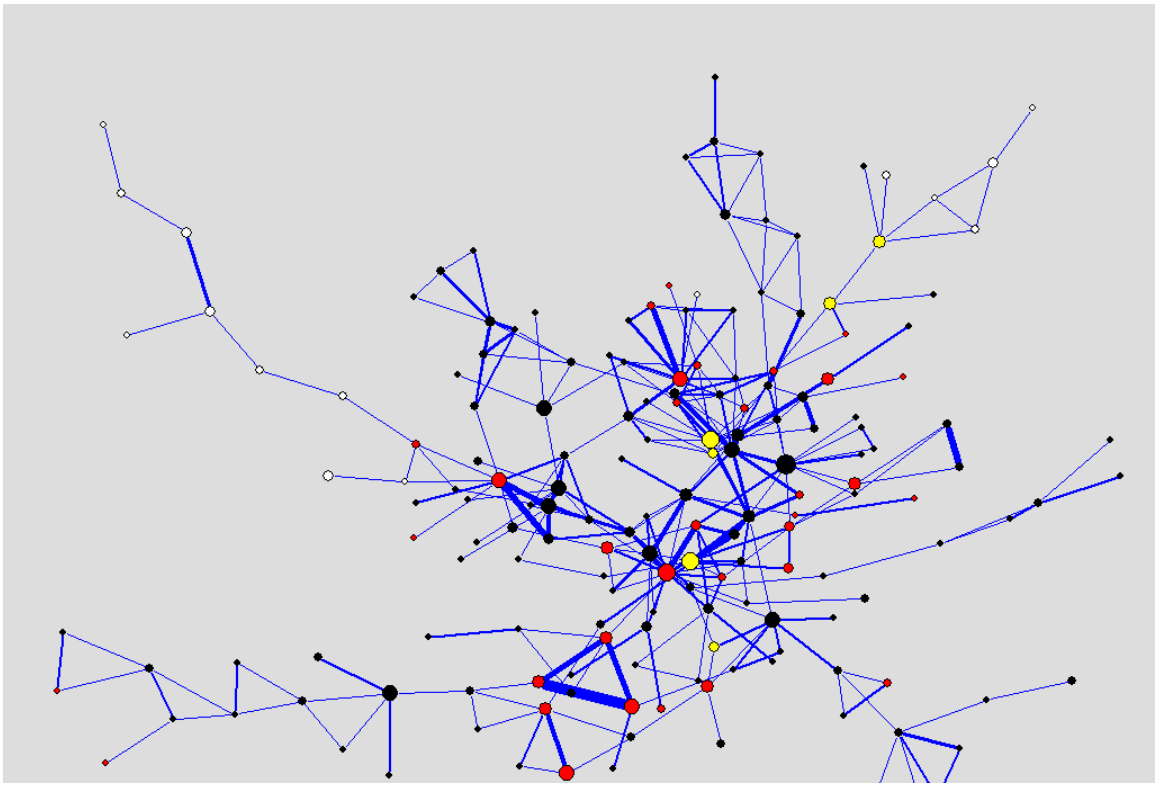

Figure 5. "Sport Management Portion" of Network

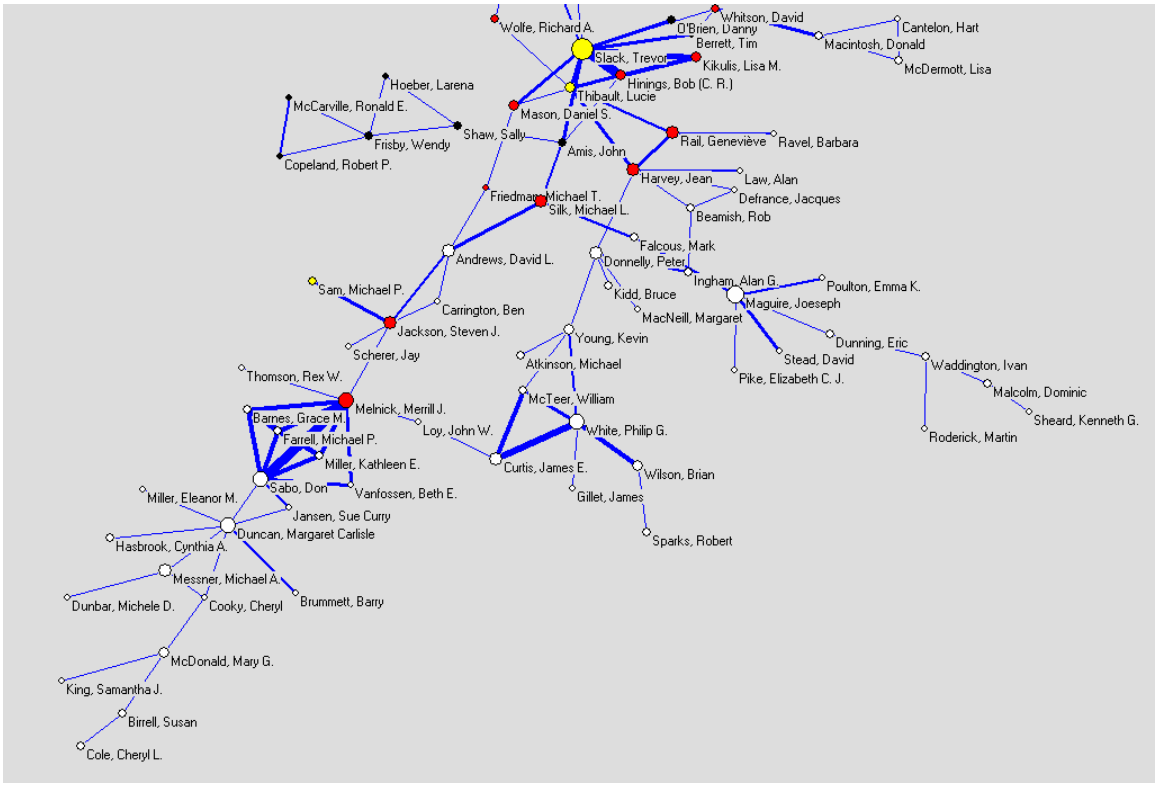

Figure 6. "Sociology of Sport Portion" of Network with Vertex Labels

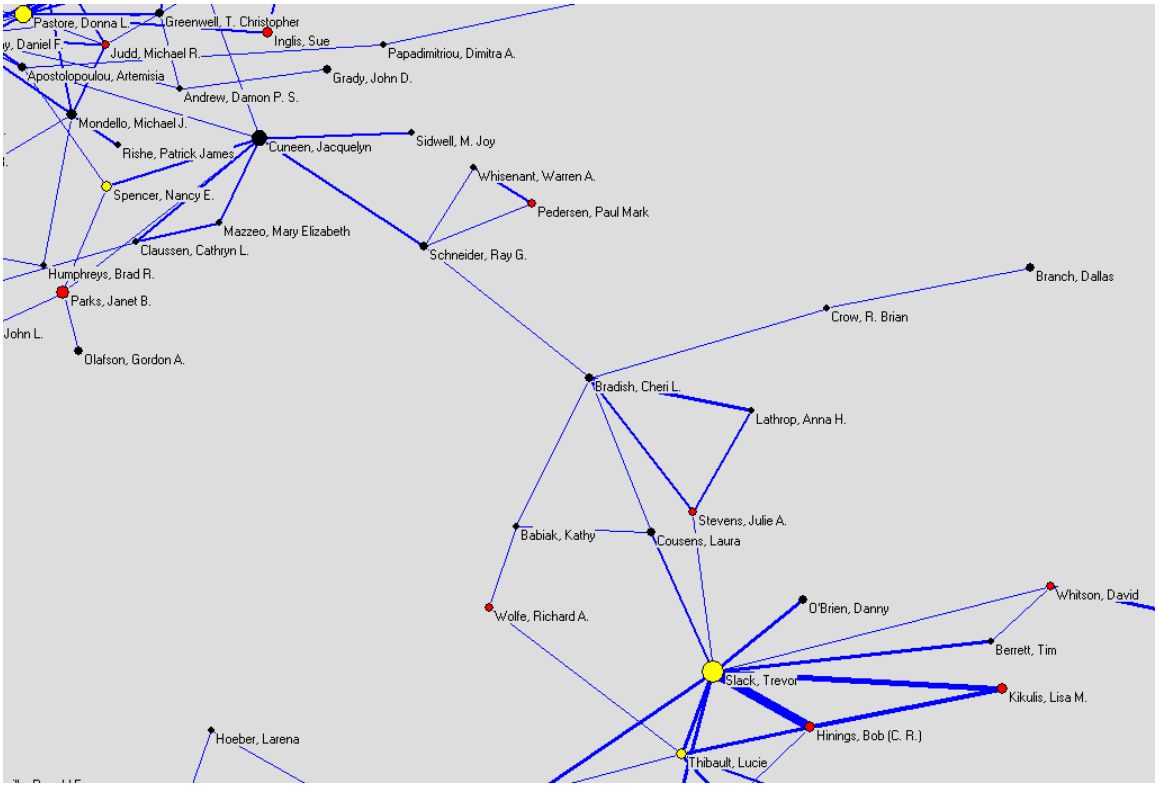

Figure 7. Bridges Connecting the Network

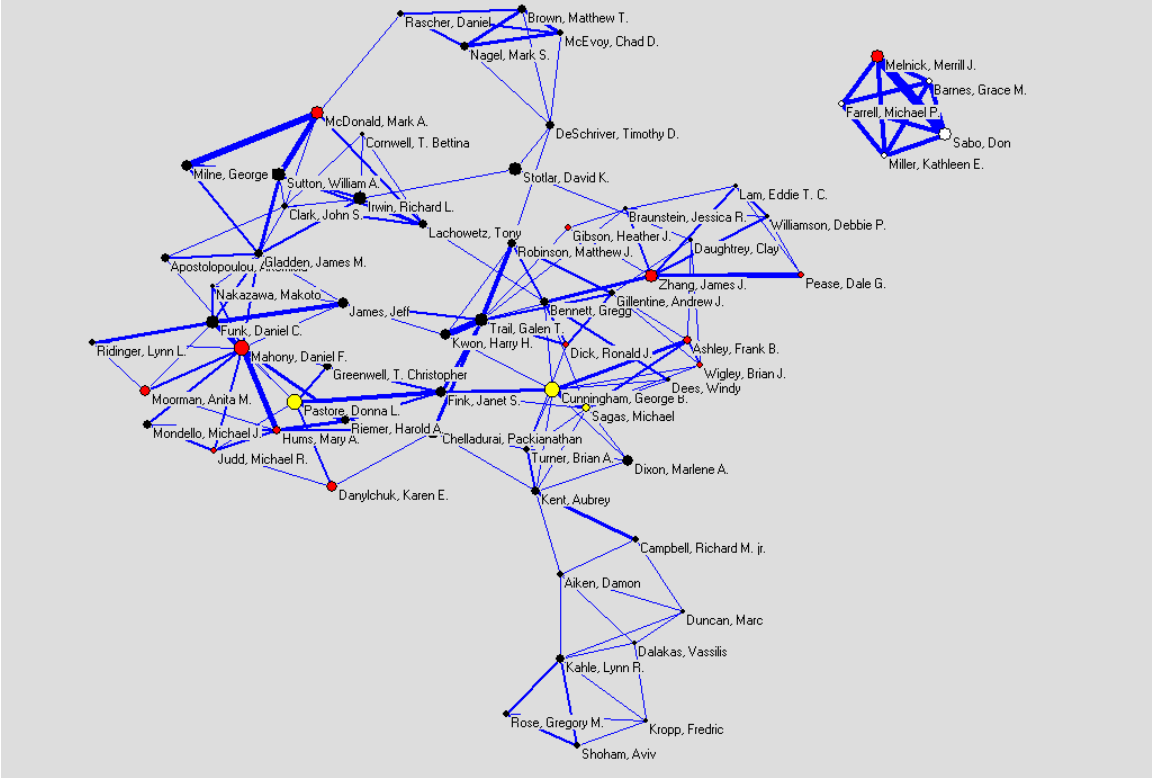

Figure 8. 3-Cores Found in Main Network

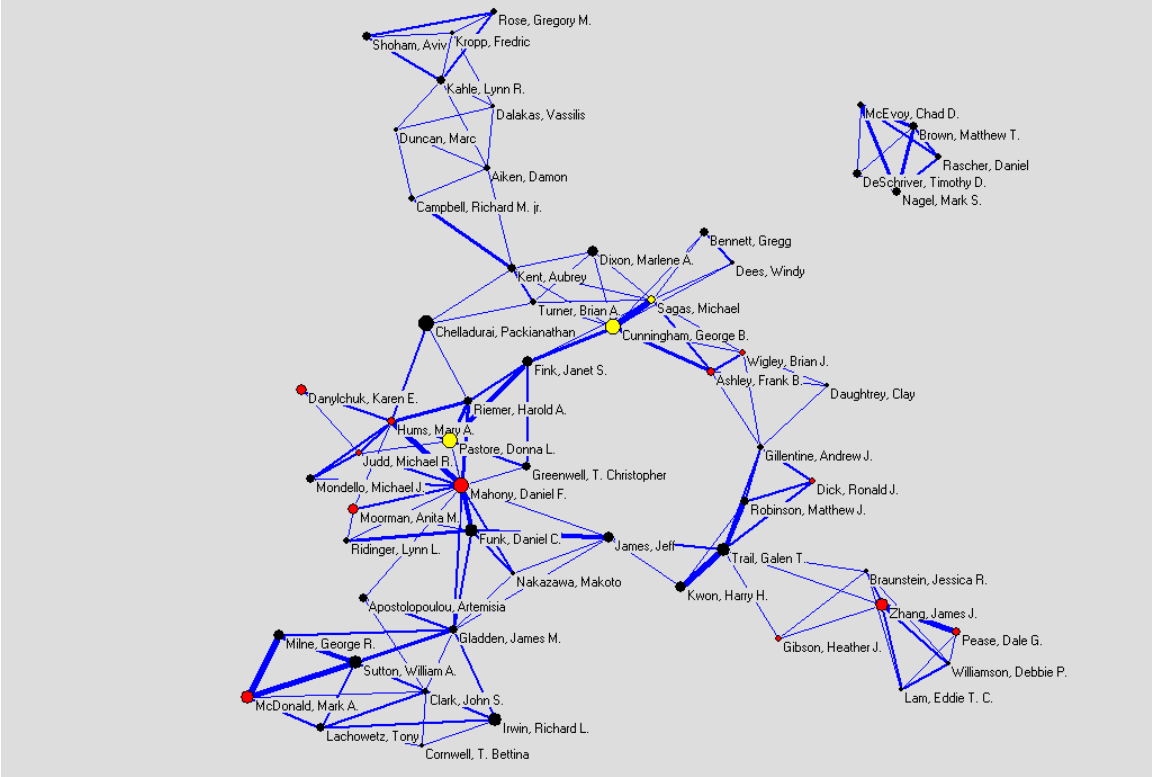

Figure 9. Triads Found in Main Network

VITA

Adam William Love was born on October 27, 1979 in Spokane, Washington, USA. He is the son of Mary Ann and William Love, and the brother of Hilary Love. After graduating from Lewis & Clark High School in 1998, he attended Washington State University and received a bachelor's degree in sport management in 2002.

Adam came to the University of Tennessee in 2002. While in graduate school, he married Lauren Clayton in July of 2006; both Adam and Lauren received master's degrees in education with a concentration in sport management in May of 2004. While in graduate school, Adam has served as a graduate assistant in the athletics department, worked in the Thornton Athletics Student Life Center, and served as a Graduate Teaching Associate, teaching classes in socio-cultural foundations of sport and leisure and social issues in sport. He was awarded a doctor of philosophy degree in education with a concentration in sociology of sport in May of 2008.