

CURRENT PRACTICES IN DIVISION I MEN'S BASKETBALL EVENT STAFF MANAGEMENT: THE EFFECT OF
ARENA AND MANAGEMENT FACTORS ON EVENT STAFFING PRACTICES

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A thesis submitted to the faculty of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in the Department of Exercise and
Sport Science.

Chapel Hill
2012

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ABSTRACT

HUNTER CULBERTSON: Current Practices in Division I Men's Basketball Event Staff Management: The Effect of Arena and Management Factors on Event Staffing Practices
(Under the direction of Richard M. Southall, Ed.D.)

There are currently 345 NCAA Division I men's basketball teams. Each of these teams competes at a home arena operated by an event management organization to accommodate the wants, needs, and desires of everyone in attendance of the event. To ensure proper security and customer service, an event manager must recruit, train, and supervise a coordinated team of event staff. While general event management recommendations have been discussed throughout the literature, an assessment of current practices in collegiate athletic event staffing has not been fully explored. Event staffing methods and organizational culture perceptions were surveyed, collected, and analyzed in this study. In addition to establishing current practices, differences in event staffing methods were analyzed based on attendance figures, conference affiliation, cultural perceptions, and the internal/external status of event management organizations. Also, differences in organizational culture perceptions between internal and external organizations were analyzed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

There are currently 345 collegiate basketball teams competing at the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I level. Each of these teams competes at a home arena operated by an event management organization to accommodate the wants, needs, and desires of everyone in attendance of the event. These attendees include student-athletes, coaches, support staff, administrators, officials, media, PA announcers, scorers, broadcasters, staff, sponsors and spectators. Every attendee of an athletic event expects and desires a secure arena and a satisfactory level of customer service. To ensure these universal expectations, an event manager must recruit, train, employ, and supervise a coordinated team of event staff.

A successful event manager will ensure that the arena is staffed with an adequate number of event staff numbers trained in crowd management. According to Ammon, Southall, and Nagel, (2010) crowd management is “an organizational strategy designed to assist facility or event administrators in providing a safe and enjoyable environment for their guests by implementing the facility or event’s policies and procedures” (p. 160). To be successful, an event staff must, as a group, manage the movement of a crowd, assist in emergencies, and assist guests with specific concerns related to enjoyment, safety, and/or involvement in the event through effective communication (Ammon et al., 2010).

While general recommendations for managing an event have been discussed throughout event management literature, an assessment of current practices in collegiate athletic event staffing has not been fully explored. Many collegiate event managers rely on personal experience and facility

specific historical practices to develop an event staffing model in preparation for home basketball contests. A collection of the current practices pertaining to event staffing specifics would be useful to event managers across the nation. To address this identified need, this study investigated staff training and training evaluation policies and procedures at university venues.

In addition to establishing current practices, this study examined which arena factors correspond with different staffing methods and event managers' staff management methods and rationale. Organizational culture theory was used to study guiding organizational values and assumptions. Schein (2004) defines organizational culture as consisting of artifacts, espoused values, and underlying assumptions. Consistent with this theoretical framework, a modification of O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell's (1991) Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) served as the quantitative instrument to assess the espoused values or underlying assumptions that guide decision-making within sampled arena-management organizations. Specifically, this research is intended to determine the extent to which different espoused cultural values correspond with different staffing models.

Recognizing there may not be a cause-effect relationship between an organization's culture and its staffing decisions, other factors have been used to categorize sampled arenas. With this in mind, it is hypothesized that the average attendance and competitive level of an arena's basketball team may emerge as significant factors in relation to different staffing methods. In addition, the anticipated attendance of an event is another easily identifiable factor for employing different strategies in staffing a facility for an event. Also, while each of these schools compete at the Division I level, schools competing in the Bowl Championship Series (BCS) automatic qualifier (AQ) conferences are often considered to have more sophisticated event management strategies. Therefore, schools have been separated based on their membership in a BCS AQ conference and potential differences in staffing elements will be examined.

Sport facilities may be owner managed by a unit within the university's athletic department or privately managed by a group outside of the athletic department such as a professional sports team or a private event management firm. In some cases, university management has been associated with inexperience, political patronage, burdensome public regulation and policies, and lack of resources to attract events, meet customer needs, and purchase needed equipment, technology, or supplies. As a result of these issues, many universities have chosen to outsource event management to private firms (Covell, Walker, Siciliano, & Hess, 2007).

Many universities are joining a current trend of providing state of the art competition facilities for recruited student-athletes with top of the line spectator amenities to please fans, alumni, and boosters. To accomplish this, universities may move their men's basketball contests to professional sport arenas or shared facilities more attractive than their own arenas, which may be operated by organizations outside of the athletic department. Based on this trend, differences in event staffing practices were also analyzed based on the management organization's presence within or outside of the institution's athletic department structure. To understand how these organizations may differ in their guiding values and assumptions, differences in organizational culture were also assessed based on the internal or external status of the arena management group.

Statement of the Problem

This research is examining the decision-making process of staffing a college basketball arena to accommodate all attendees of men's basketball home games. Specifically, the research problem is, "When making decisions on how to staff their arenas, what specific situational factors correspond with similar or different event staffing strategies?" The event-management field has not been the subject of a great deal of research, and this project will hopefully shed some light on current industry practices which may be disseminated throughout the community of collegiate event managers. As universities decide to either outsource or maintain internal control of arena

operations, there is little empirical evidence to guide these decisions. This research will provide useful evidence on how external event management organizations differ from their internal counterparts in terms of event staff specifics and cultural values.

Purpose of the Study

This study has three specific purposes. One purpose was to gather data to establish current practices regarding event management staffing numbers, training, training evaluation, leadership experience and education, and event staff compensation at Division I college basketball arenas. A second purpose was to determine how those event staff elements differ based on average attendance, competitive level, and type and culture of the organization managing the event operations. Finally, this study gathered sampled event managers' organizational cultural perceptions regarding their athletic department or external management company and determined if there are significant differences in cultural perceptions between internally and externally operated arenas.

Significance of the Study

This study is significant to those working in the field of facilities and event management. There are many different styles of event management and each has its own advantages and disadvantages. The first significant area of research is to determine how organizations are currently staffing their arenas, how they are training their staff, and the extent to which they are evaluating that training. The primary question studied in this area of the project is the management organization of the arena. As new and renovated arenas continue to be the trend in college athletics, many athletic departments will decide the most efficient way to operate a facility. Should the athletic department operate the arena itself or outsource the arena operations to an external management company or arena?

There are differing opinions on the answer to that question. One option is the university maintaining control over its own arena to limit costs and ensure its vision and tradition is upheld in

the operating style. The organizational culture aspect of this study will assess differences in cultural values between internal and external management organizations. If external management organizations are found to differ on importance placed on specific guiding values, institutions may be encouraged to maintain management of their arenas. The second option is outsourcing to private arena management, because these groups may be more experienced in arena management and could be provide better guest services and/or security (Covell, et al., 2007). Comparing staffing practices between internal and external management groups has provide evidence of both similarities and differences of the event staffing strategies of these two options.

With all of these different possibilities, this research answers three questions essential to making this decision. How are Division I basketball arenas being staffed, do external and internal management groups employ different event staffing methods, and are they guided by different values and assumptions? By evaluating the arenas' quantifiable staffing variables and grouping the arenas into the management organization categories, the researcher was able to determine if the means of these observable staffing variables varied based on who is running the sampled facilities. It is a perception that many universities employ more volunteer staff while private entities pay their event managements staff, but this research tested that perception.

The other categorical factors are necessary because they also play a significant role in affecting arena staffing. If the study only included the arenas' management organization, the other two identified factors would undoubtedly be considered confounding variables. Grouping the arenas by these factors and comparing means has allowed event managers to see how average attendance and competitive level also affect staffing numbers. As many old and small arenas become antiquated by industry standards, athletic departments weigh the decision to build a new sometimes larger arena. This study should provide them with some useful information about how staffing needs for smaller arenas compare to larger arenas when evaluated. The study has also

investigated whether BCS AQ conference schools have staffing policies significantly different from those employed by schools outside of these conferences. This tested the perception that members of these “power” conferences operate their arenas uniquely based on increased exposure, demands, and pressure to employ exceptional event operations strategies.

Training and training evaluation was identified as an area of focus when evaluating these event staffing elements. The research information on how much training event staff is actually receiving at many different arenas. The amount of training and training analysis discovered is useful in determining whether or not undertrained staff members is a common theme in Division I basketball event management. In the business world, evaluating the effectiveness of training or the return on investment in training programs is an important element of training implementation (Buelow, 2008). Assessing the presence and level of training evaluation and training enhancing procedures, such as pre and post discussions, has provided evidence regarding the thoroughness of Division I basketball event staff training policies. Comparing these elements across categories of arenas will allow event managers and institutions to see what situational factors correspond with more fervent adherence to business training recommendations.

Grouping staff procedures by average attendance and competitive has also shown that staffing needs, training, and compensation differ based on an arena’s expected crowd, percent of capacity, and/or increased standards of BCS AQ conference schools. The staffing portion of this research is significant primarily because the researcher has collected and will disseminate trends and current practices in the management of people at college basketball arenas and significant factors corresponding with different management practices.

Research Questions

Research Question (RQ) 1: What are the current event-management and event-staffing practices across NCAA Division I basketball arenas when considering:

1A: Level of education and years of experience of the event manager

1B: Amount of event staff fitting into the following categories: law enforcement officers, emergency medical services (EMS) personnel, ticket takers, bag checkers/searchers, entry gate supervisors, non-law enforcement security personnel, greeters and guest information staff, ushers, usher supervisors, concourse supervisors

1C: Percentage of event staff receiving compensation

1D: Spectator: event staff ratio

1E: Amount and type of training administered to event staff

1F: Training evaluation methods

Research Question 2: Do the mean numbers of these event staff and management elements significantly differ between groups of arenas when the arenas are categorized by:

2A: Average attendance

2B: Average percent of capacity

2C: Membership within a BCS AQ conference

2D: Event management organization's relationship to institution's athletic department

2E: Organizational culture perceptions of event managers

Research Question 3: Are there significant differences between the perceived organizational culture values of event managers employed by institutions' athletic departments and the perceived values of event managers employed by external management organizations?

Assumptions

This research took place with the assumption that all of the arena managers responded honestly and accurately when completing the Organizational Culture Profile and Event Management Profile. Also, the researcher assumes that each of the sampled arenas fit into one and only one of the management organization categories.

Limitations

Non-response bias is a limitation of this study worth noting. The surveys were sent to 442 event managers at 342 schools. Event managers at 122 separate schools returned useable surveys. The response rates were 35.7 percent when calculating based on the sampled schools and 27.6 percent when considering all event managers contacted. While these are good response rates, the reported “current trends” cannot be 100 percent accurate with any schools left out. Among those event managers who completed the survey, hasty completion may have create slightly inaccurate results. There are a lot of moving parts to an arena management plan, and event managers who rushed through the survey due to time constraints may have returned estimates rather than exact numbers.

Even with the good response rate, these results may not be generalizable to all Division I basketball arenas due to unique sets of circumstances which necessitate specific event staffing methods. The results are also not generalizable to event management at sports or divisions outside of Division I college basketball. Previous tests of validity and reliability for the OCP instrument could be used because its content and methodology has been slightly modified. Similarly, the Event Management Profile is a new instrument with no current measures of validity and reliability.

Delimitations

To delimit this study, only arenas identified as the regular season home competition facility of an NCAA Division I basketball were included. If Division I men’s basketball teams host their regular season home competitions at more than one arena, the arena hosting the majority of their contests was considered their home arena. The very specific definition of event staff delimited the results so that qualification as an event staff member is not open to interpretation.

Definition of Terms

Division I: The NCAA is separated into three divisions, each with its own governance and organizational structure and post season championships. Division I is considered to be the top tier of the three divisions competitively and financially. There are certain requirements a school must meet to compete at the Division I level. There are currently 345 institutions sponsoring a men's basketball team at the NCAA Division I level.

Division I men's basketball arena: Any facility where an NCAA Division I men's basketball team hosts the majority of its regular season home basketball competitions.

Event Staff: Personnel working at an NCAA Division I men's basketball arena to operate and secure the facility and event and provide customer service to everyone in attendance. For the purpose of this study, the term event staff refers only to individuals working NCAA Division I men's basketball games in the following game day positions, as identified by survey respondents: ticket takers, bag checkers/searchers, entry gate supervisors, non-law enforcement security personnel, greeters and guest information staff, ushers, usher supervisors, and/or concourse supervisors. Overall event managers, such as the director of operations, law enforcement staff, and emergency medical personnel will also be analyzed in this study, but are not included in the event staff umbrella definition.

Non-law enforcement security personnel: Event staff members with arena security responsibilities and authority who do not possess law enforcement jurisdiction. These individuals are typically in-house or outsourced security guards who have security authority within and around the facility but do not have jurisdiction to make arrests.

Event management organization: The entity primarily responsible for overseeing operation of the arena during Division I men's basketball competition, including supervision of the event staff.

Internal management organization: An event management unit, department, organization, or individual which is located within the organizational structure of the institution of higher education or the institution's athletic department.

External management organization: An event management group, department, organization, or individual which is outside of the organizational structure of the institution of higher education and the institution's athletic department.

Event Manager: The individual responsible for overseeing event operations at NCAA Division I men's basketball games. Their duties include making staffing strategy decisions; recruiting, training, and compensating event staff; and supervising the event staff. The individual completing each survey will be designated as the event manager for the corresponding arena.

Competitive Level: The level the home basketball team competes at within NCAA Division I men's basketball. BCS AQ conference schools will be any school sponsoring a basketball team that competes in the Southeastern Conference, Atlantic Coast Conference, Big East Conference, Big 10 Conference, Big 12 Conference, or Pacific 12 Conference. Non-BCS AQ conference schools will be any Division I basketball team competing in a conference other than the six listed.

Paid staff: A staff member who receives actual monetary compensation in exchange for their time working at the competition or attending training sessions. Entry to the game, free attire, free gifts, and free food is not considered compensation.

Unpaid staff or Volunteer: A staff member who receives no monetary compensation in exchange for their time working at the competition or attending training sessions. An individual may receive free entry to the game, free attire, free gifts, and free food and still be considered unpaid staff.

Spectator to event staff ratio: Reported average attendance and reported event staff numbers will be used to calculate this figure. Average attendance will be divided by the total number of event staff reported by the event manager.

Percent of capacity: Reported average attendance divided by the reported arena capacity will represent the percent of capacity number.

Training hour: A full 60 minutes, paid or unpaid, devoted to training an event management staff member to prepare that individual to work at a competition. This can be voluntary or mandatory.

Type of training: Training will be separated as conducted by the responding event management organization or by an entity outside of the event management organization.

Training evaluation: The level of training evaluation reported by an event manager along a five point scale including reaction, learning, transfer, business impact, and return on investment. This method of evaluating training results is further explained in Chapter II.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Organizational Culture: The Theory, the Application, and the Assessment

When examining the choices event managers make when staffing their arenas, training their staff, and evaluating their training, it is helpful to understand what values the organization and its leader use to guide these decisions. What do members of the organization view as the most important guiding principles, norms, and assumptions when deciding how to make decisions and perform their job functions? Does arena security take precedence over all other values, at the risk of sacrificing guest services with longer lines and increased feelings of privacy invasion? On the contrary, does the event management organization stress guest services and patron satisfaction even if it compromises the security of the event?

Across the country, many college basketball arenas are moving toward a professional basketball arena model or teams are playing in professional basketball arenas. With this movement toward professional and professional-like arenas, are arena event managers embracing a professional event management model or maintaining a traditional collegiate event atmosphere? How do these values differ based on the organization running the arena? Are the underlying assumptions and behavioral norms present at an event operations organization outside of a university's athletic department significantly different than those held by athletic department event managers, and do these differing values correspond with different event staff specifics? The answer to each of these questions is an important element to understanding how and why college basketball arenas around the country are operated and staffed differently. To answer these

questions, the culture of an organization must be examined to provide a look into how these organizations work and what makes them make certain decisions.

The concept of culture at its essence is abstract, so understanding an organization's unique culture and measuring that culture are not easy tasks (Schein, 2004). Nevertheless, these are useful endeavors into understanding and explaining how organizations operate and make decisions. Understanding culture is useful to explain hidden and complex aspects of living within a group or organization and why people may act in seemingly ineffective ways or refuse to change to a more efficient method. When deciphering why different types of organizations operate their arenas differently, understanding their culture is essential (Schein, 2004).

To understand the concept of organizational culture, discussing how these cultures form is helpful. Members of a group or organization develop a culture when they have a shared history (Schein, 2004). The founders and leaders of a group establish and impose visions, goals, beliefs, values, and assumptions on the group and require compliance from the group members. If these elements of a culture create success within the organization, a culture is usually formed which will last as long as the success lasts. New members are socialized into the culture and over time the guiding assumptions become unconscious and truly form the underlying culture of the organization. Once a culture is created, it covers all of a group's functioning and influences how an organization deals with its operations and the external environment. The elements of a culture fuse together to create one cohesive pattern and to create a group identity (Schein, 2004).

Organizational culture has been defined in a number of different ways and attempting to assess it through quantitative methods has been controversial. The culture of an organization has been described as observed behavioral regularities in social interaction; group norms; espoused values; formal philosophy; rules of the game or the way we do things around here; climate; embedded skills; habits of think, mental models, and linguistic models; shared meanings, root

metaphors or integrating symbols; and formal rituals and celebrations (Schein, 2004). Steven Ott describes organizational culture as being made up of values, beliefs, assumptions, perceptions, behavioral norms, artifacts, and patterns of behavior. It is a socially constructed, unseen, and unobservable force behind organizational activities that moves members to act; provides meaning, direction, and mobilization for members; and controls organizations, either approving or prohibiting specific behaviors (1989).

Ott (1989) outlines the following four essential functions of organizational culture, agreed upon across the literature:

(1) It provides shared patterns of cognitive interpretations or perceptions, so organization members know how they are expected to act and think, (2) it provides shared patterns of affect, an emotional sense of involvement and commitment to organizational values and moral codes – of things worth working for and believing in – so organizational members know what they are expected to value and how they are expected to feel, (3) it defines and maintains boundaries, allowing identification of members and nonmembers, (4) it functions as an organizational control system, prescribing and prohibiting certain behaviors (p. 68).

Ott's (1989) functional definition of organizational culture is "a social force that controls patterns of organizational behavior by shaping members' cognitions and perceptions of meanings and realities, providing affective energy for mobilization, and identifying who belongs and who does not" (p. 69). Elements of this definition are applicable to this study, as it is an investigation into what cognitions and perceptions correspond with differing mobilization or actions of event managers.

According to Schein (2004), there are three layers of culture. The most superficial level of a culture is made up of artifacts, which are organizational structures and processes. At the university and athletic department level, artifacts may come in the form of fight songs, alma maters, mascots, mottos, and symbolic historic figures and alumni. The intermediate level consists of espoused beliefs and values. These are strategies, goals, and philosophies overtly stated by an organization, often coming in the form of mission statements and principles of operations. The deepest and often invisible layer of culture is made up of underlying assumptions or unconscious beliefs, perceptions,

values, thoughts, and feelings which subconsciously guide organization members' decision making (Schein, 2004).

In an attempt to assess the sampled event managers' perceptions of their organizations' cultures, the designed survey asked them to identify whether value statements are characteristic or uncharacteristic of their organization. These value statements may fit into either the espoused values or underlying assumptions levels of organizational culture. This depends on how taken-for-granted these statements have become throughout the development of the organizations culture, but both levels are crucial elements of an organization's culture.

Schein's (2004) formal definition of organizational culture is:

A pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relations to those problems (p. 17).

This is the most effective definition to use when attempting to understand how different cultures correspond with different operational decisions, because the pattern of basic assumptions guides an organization's decision making. Consequently this definition of organizational culture will serve as the theoretical framework for studying culture and its effect on event staffing decision making.

Schein (2004) identifies two problems groups must deal with through their cultural identity: "survival, growth, and adaption in their environment; and internal integration that permits daily functioning and the ability to adapt and learn" (p. 18). The understanding of organizational culture that will be applied to this study is that over time organizations develop a pattern of beliefs, values, and assumptions which transition into the belief that this is just the way we do things around here. The primary purpose of the measurement of organizational culture in this study is to understand the values and assumptions which correspond with just the way things are done, and guide the daily functioning of an organization. The study will also assess whether certain organizations believe

values involving adapting and innovating to survive in a changing environment are characteristic of their group.

A variation of the Organizational Culture Profile developed in 1991 by O'Reilly, et al. was used to assess how characteristic event managers perceive identified values and assumptions to be of their organization's cultural values. According to O'Reilly, et al. (1991), quantitative measurement of organizational culture is controversial, but focusing on perceptions of central values allows examination of an individual's sense of identity relative to an organization's central value system. To measure this central value system, a range of value statements must be identified, and then an assessment must be made as to how much intensity and consensus there is among organizational members about those values (O'Reilly, et al., 1991).

When using values, norms, or assumptions to evaluate a culture, two important characteristics of a culture involve members' approval or disapproval for certain values as well as the intensity of such agreement or disagreement among members (O'Reilly, et al., 1991). Because this study will only be surveying the event manager, consensus about values will not be measured. However, the leader's perception of how intensely held or characteristic a value is within the organization will be assessed along a five point Likert-scale ranging from "not characteristics" to "extremely characteristic".

In sport-event management, an event manager will typically make the final decisions regarding the staffing numbers measured in this study. This study's instrument was designed to answer three fundamental questions of interest. What organizational values does the event manager view as the most characteristic or uncharacteristic of their organization? Do these perceptions differ based on the organization's relationship to the athletic department? Do event managers who differ on intensely held cultural values also differ on measurable event staff variables?

Based on the fundamental characteristics of a strong culture, O'Reilly, et al. (1991) developed an instrument consisting of 54 value statements which can "generically capture individual and organizational values" (p. 494). This set of value statements was developed to assess the extent to which these values characterize an organization. The criteria O'Reilly, et al. (1991) used to develop the final list of items were:

(1) generality – an item should be relevant to any type of organization, regardless of industry, size, and composition; (2) discriminability – no item should reside in the same category for all organizations; (3) readability – the items should be easily understandable to facilitate their having commonly shared meanings; and (4) nonredundancy – the items should have distinct enough meanings that they could not substitute for one another consistently (p. 494).

After developing the list, the researchers studied eight accounting firms, administering the survey to key personnel with broad experience and intimate knowledge of the organization's culture. They used a Q-sort methodology, forcing respondents to place the 54 items into nine categories, ordering them in a normal distribution with few values at the extremes – extremely characteristic or extremely uncharacteristic – and more values in the middle. The respondents were instructed that values could be expressed in the form of norms or shared expectations about what is important and to sort the 54 values into nine categories with the most characteristic values at one end of the scale and the most uncharacteristic values at the other end of the scale. The reliability alphas of these eight studies ranged from .84 to .90, with an average of .88 (O'Reilly, et al., 1991). The 54 item list used in the 1991 study can be found on in appendix A.

The organizational culture assessment instrument that has been developed for the current research project is a significant modification of the OCP developed in 1991. The first modification is the subtraction and addition of value statements. This study is intended to be specific to college basketball arena operations management organizations, and the survey instrument should be designed to accommodate that intention. The abridged purpose of this study is to uncover how division one basketball arenas are staffed across the country and why event managers choose to

staff their arenas the way they do. Including organizational value statements that are specific to event management is essential to accomplishing this purpose. Similarly, some of the values included in the 1991 OCP are irrelevant to this industry and may lead to confusion and frustration among the participants, so they have been subtracted. The second modification is the methodology of administering the survey.

Due to the scope of this study, a forced choice Q-sort methodology could cause some serious issues and negatively affect the validity, reliability, and response rate of this survey. The OCP Q-sort methodology has primarily been administered in person with a survey administrator who educated the respondents, answered questions, and ensured everyone sorted the statements correctly. One element of this study's purpose is to establish current practices in event staffing across the country at division one basketball arenas. This is an investigative study into how all division one arenas operate their events. Due to this study's broad scope, an on-line survey instrument will be sent to arena management leaders at all 345 NCAA Division I basketball schools.

Although a forced choice Q-sort methodology could be administered through an on-line survey, many participants would have become frustrated with the requirement to select specific numbers of statements to fit into each category. Many would go down the list and decide how characteristic a statement is only to have to go back and forth again and again to change their decisions in order to fit perfectly into the normal distribution. The lack of a survey educator would significantly hurt the response rate and validity of the instrument as many respondents would become frustrated with the cumbersome and time consuming nature of the methodology and either give up on the survey or fill it out incorrectly just to get it finished. Due to these foreseeable issues, the concept of the OCP will be administered with a combination of original and industry specific value statements assessed through a seven point Likert-scale methodology with choices ranging from extremely uncharacteristic to extremely characteristic for each statement.

Organizational Culture in Higher Education

Regardless of whether the operation of a college's basketball arena is supervised by the athletic department or an organization outside of the department, the institution's culture will have some effect on the management organization's culture. The student-athletes, coaches, team support staff, and athletic department employees supervising the sport are all members of the academic institution as a whole. Students, alumni, and boosters who are also integral elements of an institution's culture will attend the games, affect, and be affected by the operations of the arena. It is important to examine previous research and definitions of organizational culture in higher education at the institutional level. This examination will help guide the research and discussion involving organizational values and culture of the arena management groups.

In 1988, Tierney published one of the original and seminal articles studying the organizational culture of a higher education institution, entitled "Organizational Culture in Higher Education: Defining the Essentials." According to Tierney (1988), institutions are influenced by external forces including demographic, economic, and political conditions as well as internal forces arising from the history of the organization in the form of values, processes, and goals held by those "most intimately involved in the organization's workings (p. 3). From this perspective, culture is "what is done, how it is done, and who is involved in doing it" (Tierney, 1988, p. 3).

As decision-making contexts obscure, costs of operations increase, and resource allocation becomes increasingly difficult, understanding an institution's identity helps to explain its operations and resource allocations decisions (Tierney, 1988). Leaders who have an understanding of their organizations' culture are more capable of making and implementing decisions that will speak to the needs and wants of the organization's constituencies and understand the reasons for differences in performance and responsiveness across the institution (Tierney, 1988). As a result, understanding

an organization's guiding values and assumptions will help everyone involved understand why group members decide to act a certain way.

Tierney (1988) outlined a six-item framework for understanding the organizational culture of a college or university and conducted a case study of a college: "Family State College" to illustrate the framework. The first element was the environment within which the institution resides. Family State College was located in a fading industrial town and had always been career-oriented to cater to the working class students in nearby towns. The school's relationship to its environment created a close identification with the town's working-class and institutional decisions and changes were based on the specific needs of that clientele (Tierney, 1988). In order for its survival, and institution's culture was dictated partially by the physical surrounding environment but primarily by the social environment of the clientele it served. This is one basis for including value statements pertaining to adapting and evolving with the environment in the assessment tool.

The mission was the second element of Tierney's (1988) institutional culture framework. Family State College spoke about its mission in terms of curriculum and programs offered to cater to the clientele of the university. The college worked to create new curricular models to continue to attract and serve the working-class student. Family State College used its mission for curriculum development rationale and as a standard for self-criticism and performance evaluation. It was clear that the mission was to attract a specific clientele and serve that clientele in the best way possible (Tierney, 1988). Similarly, arena management organizations often stress guiding principles and mission statements highlighting customer service. This element of culture was assessed in the OCP survey through value statements pertaining to patron treatment, security, and guest services.

The next element in Tierney's culture framework is the socialization of institutional members. The entire school was socialized to reflect concern and care for students, which was personified by the president's open door and the accessibility of all administrators (Tierney, 1988).

Socialization at the event management level may come in the form of informal interactions between employees and formal training. Legitimate care and concern for event patrons is a value that may or may not be included in the socialization of event staff. The thoroughness and effectiveness of event staff training may explain the prevalence of an informal or formal socialization process for the organizations' members.

The distribution of information throughout an institution is another important element of its culture. At Family State College, communication was essential to the distribution of information. Communication took place through formal and informal channels to pass information along effectively to all members of the institution. Strategy, or a formal sequence that accommodated informal activity, is the next element of the Tierney's (1988) culture framework. At Family State College, initiatives began at the department level and ended up at the college senate. Subcommittees advised on the initiatives and the senate voted on them. Throughout the process, widespread discussion and dialogue throughout the institution was always encouraged. Initiatives and decisions on changes were not made solely based on adapting to the environment, but base on a combination of adaptation and staying true to historic symbols and traditional guiding principles (Tierney, 1988). Information, communication, strategy, and protocol are all elements of organizational culture which will be measured in the OCP and Event Management Profile instruments used in this study. These elements affect the way decisions are made by leaders, communicated to an entire staff, and implemented at events. They will be measured through questions involving staff training and value statements like evolving with new trends or staying true to tradition.

The final element of Tierney's (1988) institutional culture framework is Leadership. The leaders within the institution ultimately guide and shape the culture. At Family State College, the President's use of symbols and frames of reference, formally and informally, articulated the

college's values. The President made a point to be seen and involved at every level of the institution. He walked around campus routinely and was intimately involved with the daily routines of the institution. He also had an open door policy, making himself available to every constituency within the institutions and reinforcing the personal customer service value of the institution (Tierney, 1988). The element of leadership will be of a central focus in the current project. The leaders of the management organizations will be completing the surveys, so the perception of characteristic or uncharacteristic organizational values will ultimately belong to these leaders. The leaders also make the decisions on staffing their arenas and training and compensating that staff and their responses to the survey will make up the data.

To tie this entire framework together, Tierney (1988) points out that all of the constituencies believed they were working together to contribute to a common good – the education of working class students. People were hired and accepted based on their cultural fit and socialization occurred quickly through symbols, communication, and values (Tierney, 1988). The common good which arena management groups' members contribute to will be assessed through the value statements included in the OCP culture. Their recruitment, socialization, and communication will also be measured through specific values as well as the training elements of the Event Management Profile instrument.

Kuh and Whitt (1988) described a cultural framework similar to Tierney's (1988) in their book, *The Invisible Tapestry: Culture in American Colleges and Universities*. The framework described for understanding the culture of an institution of higher education included the external environment, the institution itself, subcultures, and individual actors. First, numerous groups within the external environment have an interest and influence on a university, including governmental, occupational, professional, and accreditation agencies. They can control or influence the culture of an institution with requirements, restrictions, or withheld benefits. Institutions are also externally

influenced by the media, geographic region, surrounding community, and philanthropic interests of the economic elite (Kuh & Whitt, 1988).

Secondly, the internal culture of the institution originates based on its original mission, religious or ethnic heritage, and circumstances under which it was founded. Over time that culture develops and evolves as a result of patterns of interactions between students, faculty, leaders, alumni, and other constituents. Elements of an institution's internal culture include institutional memory, the academic program, distinctive themes or deeply held beliefs and values, and specific characteristics such as size, structure, and governance (Kuh and Whitt, 1988).

The culture is also affected by subcultures which Kuh and Whitt (1988) categorize as enhancing cultures, orthogonal cultures, or countercultures. Enhancing cultures hold the institution's core values more intensely than the rest of the members. Orthogonal cultures accept the core values while also accepting a separate set of non-conflicting values. Countercultures accepting conflicting values, challenge the core values of an institution, and pose a threat to the institution's culture. The common threads of academic institutional culture discussed by Kuh and Whitt (1988) are its historical roots, the academic program, the personnel core, its social environment, artifact cultural manifestation, distinctive themes, and individual actors such as founders and charismatic leaders (Kuh and Whitt, 1988).

In *The Four Cultures of the Academy*, Bergquist (1992) described the culture of an academic organization as understood within the context of the institution's educational purposes and comprised of ceremonies, symbols, assumptions, and modes of leadership directed toward that purpose and derived from its historical culture. He outlines four distinct cultures within American higher education. Each culture has unique meanings, values, missions, and characteristics.

The first culture is the collegiate culture, which finds meaning in the disciplines and accomplishments of the faculty. This culture values faculty research, scholarship, a "quasi-political"

governance process, and rationality (Bergquist, 1992, p. 4). Its mission is “generation, interpretation, and dissemination of knowledge and development of specific values and qualities of character among young men and women who are the future leaders of our society” (Bergquist, 1992, p. 4-5). Emphases are placed on academic freedom, independent work, and autonomy; and members are held accountable based on publication, academic ranks, and tenures (Bergquist, 1992).

The second culture is the managerial culture, which finds meaning in organization, implementation, and evaluation of purpose driven work. This culture values fiscal responsibility, supervision, and measurable objectives and goals. Its mission is “inculcation of specific knowledge, skills, and attitudes in students to become successful and responsible citizens (Bergquist, 1992, p. 5). The Cultural leaders stress the important of competent teaching and knowledge of instructional technologies. Leaders hold members accountable through clear, operational, and goal centered objectives (Bergquist, 1992). This culture is similar culture to what I expected to find in most event management organizations.

The development culture finds meaning in the creation of programs and activities furthering professional and personal growth of every member of an institution. Members value personal attention and service, research, effective curriculum planning, and the desire to personally mature while helping others mature as well. The mission of this culture is “encouragement of potential for cognitive, affective, and behavioral maturation among all students, faculty, administrators, and staff” (Bergquist, 1992, p. 5).

The final culture, the negotiating culture, finds meaning in the establishment of fair and equitable policies and procedures for the distribution of resources, benefits, and opportunities. The members of this culture value fair bargaining, mediation, and negotiation. Their mission is “either the undesirable promulgation of existing (and often repressive) social attitudes and structures or the establishment of new and more liberating social attitudes and structures” (Bergquist, 1992, p. 6).

Organizational Culture in Collegiate Athletic Departments

There have only been a few studies looking at organizational culture specific to collegiate athletic departments. A recent study of intercollegiate athletic department cultures was Southall, Wells, and Nagel's (2005) *Organizational Culture Perceptions of Intercollegiate Athletic Department Members*. This study, which utilized Martin (1992) and Martin and Siehl's (1983) multiple-perspective organizational culture theory, describes intercollegiate athletic departments as organizations that most often contain one dominant culture, but also have enhancing, orthogonal, and counter sub-cultures.

Southall, et al. (2005) sought to discover the most intensely held organizational values of sampled intercollegiate athletic departments and to determine if there were significant differences in these values based on membership in a categorical sub-group. Similarly, the current research attempted to uncover important guiding values held by arena management leaders and assess significant differences between those values based on membership in two exclusive groups, internal and external management organizations.

While Southall et al. (2005) distributed a 54 item OCP survey to Athletic Directors at 6 universities, who distributed it to their athletic department members; the researcher has revised the OCP in an attempt to make the survey specifically relevant to arena event managers. In addition, due the volume and breadth of the requested sample, it was not possible to provide an in-person survey administrator to ensure participants understand the specific requirements of a Q-sort survey. As a result, the researcher used Likert-scale methodology to avoid non-response bias and lack of validity based on confusion and frustration that would have ensued during an on-line Q-sort survey. Similar to Southall, et al.'s (2005) distribution of an Organizational Member Questionnaire (to gather demographic and group membership specifics), the Event Management Profile survey will gather event-staff demographic information.

Southall, et al. (2005) used a nine point scale ranging from extremely characteristic to extremely uncharacteristic with 4.5 representing a neutral value, one representing an extremely uncharacteristic value, and nine representing an extremely characteristic value. The four most intensely held values were high pay for good performance (2.62), having a good reputation (7.17), not being constrained by many rules (3.10) and having high expectations for performance (6.9).

Using a series of MANOVA, significant multivariate effects were found for two of the categorical variables: university responding and revenue generation of sport. Using between subjects ANOVA, significant differences existed for three factors between the sample athletic departments: attention to detail, philosophical orientation, and supportiveness. There was also a significant difference in regards to innovation between revenue and non-revenue sport coaches. They also tested for interaction effects between categorical variables, and significant differences were found for University x Male or Female Sport, University x Revenue, and University x Revenue x Male or Female Sport (Southall, et al., 2005).

Similarly to Southall et al.'s (2005) procedures, the current study utilized t-tests to compare differences between mean OCP scores based on management organization type and between mean reported event-staff numbers based on organization type, average attendance, percent of capacity, competitive level, and organizational values. There is only one sport of interest in the current study and individual universities were not compared with one another. Instead, universities will be grouped by the external or internal status of the arena management organization, competitive level of the basketball team, the average attendance, and the percent of capacity. However, the statistical analyses used provide a road map for comparing differences in mean responses to the survey. Mean OCP values and mean event staff numbers were compared across groups of arenas separated by categorical values, and the presence of significant differences were assessed using independent samples t-tests.

While Southall, et al.'s (2005) research provided a framework for quantitatively assessing organizational culture, qualitative organizational culture research studies have also been conducted on athletic departments. Such studies, while utilizing different methodologies, provide insights into how athletic departments' organizational cultures. In 2010, Schroeder conducted a qualitative analysis of the culture of a single athletic department based on Schein's integrative, leader-centered model consisting of artifacts, espoused values, and basic assumptions.

Schroeder (2010) identified artifacts as a superficial tier that can be seen, heard, or felt such as mascots, fight songs, and facilities. Espoused values are norms that provide day-to-day operating principles guiding member behavior which may come in the form of mission statements, handbooks, and written policies. Some of the statements included in the current survey may be included in this level of culture for some organizations and not included for others. Basic assumptions are subconscious guides for members to react to the environment and base their decisions on. These are the aspects of the current survey that respondents view as just the way things are done around here.

Schroeder (2010) presents a five element structure of organizational culture within an athletic department with examples from his qualitative analysis of a single athletic department. The five elements of his intercollegiate athletic department cultural model are the institutional culture, the external environment, the internal environment, leadership and power, and the interaction of these elements. His case study took place at a private, Christian, liberal institution on the west coast competing in the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA). The institution had an enrollment of 1200 students and was code named Pacific Christian College (PCC). The Athletic Director, president, provost, admissions staff, athletic-admissions liaison, department chairs, faculty leaders, sports information director, coaches, and student-athletes were all interviewed (Schroeder, 2010).

The first element of the athletic department cultural model, institutional culture, was influenced by the institution's mission, academic programs, institutional control, admissions standard, and size. It established cultural parameters, affected conference affiliation, and affected the manner in which the athletic department is situated within the university structure. PCC needed to attract a student body willing and able to afford its high tuition. To accomplish this goal, the institution increased its academic rigor and admissions standards, becoming a premiere liberal arts college. The institution maintained a balanced between academic commitment, personified by a selective student body, small student-faculty ratio, and interdisciplinary education; and its Christian heritage, personified by the required faculty statement of faith, mandated chapel session, and 12 units of Christianity (Schroeder, 2010). Because the current study separated arena management organizations based on whether they are within or outside of the institution's athletic department, the decision to determine the differing cultures of these types of organizations was enforced by this element of Schroeder's model. The institution's culture will most likely have more effect on the culture of a management organization that resides within the athletic department.

The influential external environment may be made up of media, professional leagues, fans and boosters, post-season organizations, and sponsors. These groups pressure and influence department values and alter stakeholder perceptions. The power of these external forces is amplified by constant media coverage and athletic departments' financial reliance on these groups. Intercollegiate athletic governing bodies can constrain and influence department cultures with their own set of rules, regulations, punishments, and financial decisions (Schroeder, 2010).

The PCC participants identified society's fascination with sport, boosters, fans, alumni, and the media as external factors influencing the athletic department's culture. The societal fascination became a source of spirit that attracted prospective students, drew communities to campus, and connected PCC to the community, charities, alumni, boosters, and a limited amount of sponsors.

These connections provided the basis for critical financial support. As a result, the athletic director spent a significant amount of time cultivating relationships like these. The media affected the department's culture by providing increased exposure in the form of newspaper coverage, radio, highlights, interviews, and some national coverage (Schroeder, 2010). Again, the influence of external forces highlighted by Schroeder justified the decision to group management organizations into external and internal groups and evaluate their corresponding cultures.

The internal environment of an athletic department is made up mostly of artifacts, missions, history, and subcultures. This environment moderates the manner in which external forces are balanced against the institutional culture. Symbols and guiding values are rooted in the department's history and remain emphasized if they are historically successful. Values included in the current instrument which have been a successful part of an organization's history should be identified as very characteristic of the department (Schroeder, 2010). At PCC, there was a clear link to the institutional culture outlined in the mission statement of the department which was to "honor Jesus Christ in all that we do, support and enhance the mission of Pacific Christian College, provide the opportunity for a life changing experience, and compete at the highest level of our capability" (Schroeder, 2010, p. 109). Success was celebrated with artifacts and ceremonies including a hall of fame, plaques, banners, trophies, celebrations, banquets, and an intangible sense of tradition (Schroeder, 2010).

Leadership affects organizational culture by negotiating and managing the cultural balance between the other elements. Leadership and power in athletic departments comes from the athletic director and senior staff, the university president, dominant boosters and alumni, and power coaches. The PCC administration and coaches communicated with athletic leaders and made decisions influencing the culture. The athletic director was regularly involved with the provost and the chair of the kinesiology department. The admissions-athletics liaison communicated with

coaches about recruiting and admissions. The Athletic Director visited with the university Vice President for advancement twice a month to coordinate fundraising efforts. The University President attended contests and ceremonies, embodying institutional cultures when doing so. Coaches had other roles as teachers, athletic department staff, and university staff. The teacher-coach model demonstrated development of students, faith, and education culture. The leadership of the athletic department and of the institution was clearly cohesive and sometimes combined, leading to a cohesive culture (Schroeder, 2010). The responsibility of the leaders in the current study to make the management decisions and report on culture and event staffing provided an assessment of leadership's effect on and perception of their organizations' cultures.

The interactions of each of these elements can be seen in the form of tensions or cooperation between administrators, coaches, and athletes as they negotiate the organization's values and assumptions. Also, the institutional culture and the external environment will undoubtedly draw the department's values in their direction. Leaders will manage the interaction of all of these elements and move the department's culture along the cultural continuum by embodying, changing, or destroying it.

Three basic assumptions emerged out of the qualitative analysis of PCC, two linking athletic department culture to the institutional culture and one capitalizing on its connections to the external environment. The linking assumptions were "a divine relationship between faith and athletic abilities" and that "sport was a laboratory in which athletes could grow spiritually by exploring Christian values" (Schroeder, 2010, p. 113). The assumption which allowed the athletic department to capitalize on the external environment was an emphasis on winning based on a history of success and celebrated with artifacts. The subsequent athletic success enhanced marketing, booster and alumni donations, and community relations (Schroeder, 2010). The Schroeder article's primary function in this review was to justify the internal versus external tradeoff

in an athletic department's culture, personified in the current study by the status of an arena's management organization. It also provided a basis for including value statements and questions pertaining to an organization's history, adapting to the environment, and leadership styles, experience, and education.

Event Management Fundamentals

After extensive searching, the researcher was unable to find any research studying the decisions arena and stadium event managers make when staffing their arena or why these managers choose to operate their arena in a certain way. Research in event management is a relatively new field, and an exploration of event staffing numbers, recruitment, training, and compensation appears to have not yet been conducted. This section will focus on establishing the need for this type of research as well as the fundamentals of athletic event management used to develop the event staff elements of interest.

Arenas are staffed to accommodate the wants, needs, and desires of spectators, participants, and sponsors in multiple levels of the event's festival frame including parking, entrance, concourse, seating, and the field/court (Ammon, et al., 2010). It is the responsibility of an event manager to provide outstanding guest service and appropriate security throughout this frame for everyone in attendance through effective recruitment, training, and supervision of staff capable of doing their jobs effectively. This research concentrated on members of the event staff most often directly supervised by the event manager. The researcher eliminated parking as a category in order to delimit the event staff of interest to those within the arena.

The first step in event staff planning is to determine the scope of the event and the management organization's responsibilities within the event. Based on this assessment, an event manager should develop functional areas, operations titles, and an organizational structure for an event. Event staff training should include pre-event briefings, checklists, coordinating event logistics,

and event planning, including emergency contingency planning. There should be one overall briefing for all event staff members, one briefing between the overall event manager and all supervisors, and at least one briefing conducted by all supervisors with their individual staff members. Everyone, including volunteers, should be trained on how to effectively do their job. Post event debriefings for feedback, addressing problems, and making changes are also essential (Ammon, et al., 2010). These elements were assessed in the event management profile with questions regarding training, staffing ratios, compensation of staff, and the presence of briefing and debriefing meetings.

Elements of crowd management also influenced the development of event staff areas of interest in this study. Ammon, et al. (2010) defined crowd management as an “organizational strategy designed to assist facility or event administrators in providing a safe and enjoyable environment for their guests by implementing the facility or event’s policies and procedures” (p. 160). These policies and procedures are implemented through an adequate number of effectively trained event staff members. This staff must act and communicate to manage the movement of the crowd, assist in emergencies, and assist guests with customer service involving specific concerns related to their enjoyment and/or safety.

The components of an effective crowd management plan include training qualified and knowledgeable staff including searchers, ticket takers, ushers, and security personnel. These security personnel are often a combination of law enforcement officers and trained civilian security. The second component is the implementation of an emergency or evacuation plan. Every member of the crowd management staff should be trained on these contingency plans, should know their duties and authority, and should be prepared to assist guests with special needs. Trained security staff and law enforcement officers, not ushers, should be thoroughly trained on proper protocol for ejecting disruptive, unruly, or intoxicated patrons (Ammon, et al., 2010).

To implement this plan, staff members involved with unique crowd management challenges must be trained effectively before the event takes place. They must understand their duties and how elements of the event and facility affect those duties. The plan should be flexible, should allow for change if needed, and input and feedback from event staff should contribute to necessary change (Ammon, et al., 2010). In order for these necessary elements of a crowd management plan to be implemented, it is clear that an event manager must have adequate numbers of staff, an acceptable spectator to staff ratio, and must utilize effective training techniques. Evaluating the effectiveness of administered training is an important way to ensure the skills leaders desire to teach to their employees are actually being transferred and retained. The necessity for these elements serves as the basis for the specifics included in the current research questions and measured in the Event Management Profile.

In *Managing Sport Organizations*, Covell, et al. (2007) briefly cover the elements of managing a sports facility as an organization. The sport facility manager is responsible for operating the building itself as well as the planning and execution of events within the building. Event managers are charged with directing laborers, security, customer service, medical staff, ticket takers, and other areas of part-time workers. This is more justification for the specific event staff categories included in this research project. In addition, Covell, et al. (2007) recommend that event staff be incredibly customer service oriented to cultivate an atmosphere of service and to create “raving fans” whose perpetual loyalty will foster great financial returns and attendance numbers (p. 218). This further justified the need to assess the prevalence of effective guest services training and an adequate customer service staff to patron ratio.

According to the authors, sport facilities may be owner managed or privately managed and owner management is sometimes associated with inexperience, political patronage, burdensome public regulation and policies, and lack of resources to attract events, meet customer needs, and

purchase needed equipment, technology or supplies. As a result of these potential associations, many owners, including universities, have chosen to move to private management (Covell, et al., 2007). It is a trend emerging more commonly in the last ten to fifteen years and is one of the major reasons for this study. As many universities outsource the management of their arenas to private companies, are these private companies actually providing different management practices than those universities who have retained the operational responsibility of their arenas? If there are differences, what values and assumptions correspond with those differences, and do the values held by private arena management companies conflict with those held by university operations departments?

Training: Importance and Evaluation

An element of event staffing examined more thoroughly in this research was staff training and the evaluation of the effectiveness of that training. Due to the nature of this research, it was necessary to focus on a few broad elements of staff training. These elements are the amount of training received, the potential of outsourcing that training, the presence of pre and post training discussions, and the level of training evaluation conducted post training. Simple questions pertaining to training hours and training outsourcing were used to explore the first two areas. Specifics regarding effective training practices will be discussed in this section as well. However, to assess the level of training evaluation, it was necessary to research training evaluation literature.

Buelow (2008) provides a model for measuring the amount of training evaluation conducted by management organizations. This model outlines a method for calculating a training protocol's return on investment (ROI). Many of the required detailed assessment and calculations not appropriate for this current study. However, surveying event managers to ascertain the level of training evaluation they conduct was an effective way to measure the level of importance these leaders place on ensuring the training they employ is actually producing results.

Buelow (2008) identifies five levels of analyzing training results, each more sophisticated than the previous level. The first level involves measuring the participants' reactions to the training experience typically with a paper survey at the conclusion of the class. The second level of evaluation is measuring the participants' learning. This usually comes in the form of a written test or a physical demonstration of the new skills after the training to measure the amount of immediate learning of the desired training activities. According to Buelow, these first two levels are a minimum standard for professional training evaluation (Buelow, 2008).

The third level of training analysis is the amount of training transfer. This occurs when an organization measure behavioral change on the job, including specific application of unique knowledge and skills specifically developed in the training program. This should be measured after the training has been implemented and in day to day activities in the field. This level requires surveys, interviews, observation, focus groups, and/or special assignments related to the training (Buelow, 2008). Secret shopping would be an ideal example of this level of analysis and could be done very effectively in the arena management industry.

The fourth and fifth levels of training analysis involve more sophisticated business calculations related to the cost effectiveness of training. The fourth level is to calculate the business impact of a training program on specific business results desired by the organization. It will yield results such as cost savings, output increases, improved response time, customer retention, customer satisfaction, and profitability (Buelow, 2008). Customer retention and customer satisfaction may be the only areas of business impact easily measured in the event management industry, although implementing a training program that effectively trains volunteers to work in place of paid workers will yield cost savings as well.

The final identified level of training analysis is calculating the Return on Training Investment by isolating the effects of training and converting these effects into monetary values. An analyzer

must calculate the true cost of training and conduct a comparison between those costs and value of the effects of the training to create a benefit to cost ratio (Buelow, 2008). This is more easily done in the corporate business sector than in the athletic event operations industry. To explore this element of event staff training, the final survey included questions with terminology from Buelow's levels of training analysis. The survey also included an open response "other" choice to see if there are other methods arena managers use to evaluate training results which do not fit into this model.

A specific technique that has been shown in research to improve the effectiveness of training is to include pre-training and post-training discussions. Brinkerhoff and Montesino (1995) conducted one of the original studies to explore the impact of these pre-training and follow up discussions on the transfer of desired skills. In their study, *Partnerships for Training Transfer: Lessons from a Corporate Study*, Brinkerhoff and Montesino (1995) divided 91 employees of a Fortune 200 company into two groups. Each group went through the same training program, but one third participated in an experimental group with pre and post training discussion.

The elements of the pre-training discussion were course content, how the content tied to the job of the trainee and why it was important, one or more concrete expectation for applying the content, and expressions of encouragement to use the content. The elements of the post-training follow up discussion were to what extent the trainee had learned the skills, identifications of envisioned barriers to use the new skills, agreement on a specific opportunity in the future to use the new skills, and an emphasis on the expectation to use the new skills (Brinkerhoff and Montesino, 1995).

Six weeks after the training, a survey was administered to every trainee with questions to gauge the transfer of training, encounters with positive and negative transfer-affecting factors, respondent demographics, and improvements to aspects of the course. Using a t-test analysis, the researchers found significant differences between the amount of self-reported training transfer of

the experimental group and the control group. The experimental group also reported more instances of transfer-facilitator factors and fewer inhibitors than the control group. The results of this study indicated that there is significantly higher training usage and a more positive perception regarding training transfer forces among the group that participated in the training discussion. The authors recommended building strong trainer-manager-trainee partnerships before, during, and after the training through these meetings (Brinkerhoff and Montesino, 1995). Based on this evidence, the current survey included questions to ascertain the presence of pre and post training discussions. Such discussions have been shown to increase training effectiveness, so their presence or absence was a useful element to study in this project.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to establish current practices in Division I men's basketball arena event management, evaluate situational factors that correspond with different event staffing practices, and explore how organizational cultures differ between internal and external event management organizations. The primary questions included what are the staffing numbers, ratios, and training strategies being implemented by event managers across the nation? Do these event staffing elements differ based on average attendance, competitive level, management organization's relationship to the athletic department, and/or organizational culture perceptions of the event managers? Are there significant differences between perceived organizational culture values of internal event managers and those of external event managers? To answer these questions, two on-line survey instruments were e-mailed to event managers at each arena currently hosting a Division I men's basketball team's regular season home events. The responses were analyzed using descriptive statistics and independent sample t-tests.

Population

The population of interest in this study is all of the organizations responsible for overseeing event operations and event staffing at a corresponding arena currently hosting a Division I men's basketball team's regular season home contests. There are currently 345 Division I men's basketball teams competing at 345 separate facilities, each managed by a unique organization.

Sample

Two on-line survey instruments were distributed via e-mail to the individual responsible for supervising the event management and event staff at 342 arenas hosting teams. The surveys were sent to 442 event managers at 342 schools. Event managers for 122 different schools returned usable surveys. The response rates were 35.7 percent when calculating based on the sampled schools and 27.6 percent when considering all event managers contacted. This is a voluntary response sample based on voluntary completion of a survey sent to the entire population. Management organizations that could not be contacted or did not respond are part of the population but not the sample.

Variables

There are a number of different variables in this study. Research question one is answered through data collection and descriptive statistics. It does not test a hypothesis, and so does not have variables. The independent and dependent variables for research questions two and three are listed below.

Research Question 2

Independent: Average attendance, percent of capacity, competitive level, management organization, organizational culture perceptions.

Dependent: Level of education of event managers, years of experience of event managers, number of law enforcement officers per event, number of emergency medical personnel per event, number of event staff per event, spectator: event staff ratio, number of training hours received by event staff, and training evaluation.

Research Question3

Independent: Internal or external status of the management organizations.

Dependent: Numerical value corresponding to how characteristic a respondent perceived a value to be of their organization and its members.

Instrumentation

Two surveys were developed to collect the data needed to answer the research questions and ultimately fulfill the purpose of this study. The first survey was a modification of O'Reilly et al.'s (1991) 54-item Organizational Culture Profile used to assess person-organization fit within accounting firms. The instrument was administered by forcing respondents to sort 54 items into nine categories from least characteristic to most characteristic, with a required number of statements per category, creating a normal distribution. In their 1991 study, the reliability alphas of the eight firms studied ranged from .84 to .90 with an average of .88. The OCP was also used by Southall in 2000 and by Southall, et al. in 2005 to assess the organizational culture of athletic departments and their members. These studies used identical surveys and forced choice instrumentation as O'Reilly, et al. Please see Appendix A for the original OCP instrument used by these studies.

The OCP instrument was modified for the current research project for two main reasons. First, including specific organizational values relevant to arena management provided a more useful picture of members of this population's organizational cultures than using only value statements identical to those in the previous studies. As a result, eight new statements were added to the end of the OCP to address values specific to the event management industry. To prevent non-response, certain values were also omitted to keep the survey from becoming too long. Secondly, the responses were not forced and the respondents were allowed to choose along a five point Likert-scale for each organizational value statement. Administering Q-sort forced choice methodology through an on-line survey to this many subjects could have become problematic, and many more

subjects may have failed to respond due to frustration regarding requirements for specific numbers of responses into nine different categories.

The resulting OCP instrument was a 53-item instrument consisting of values such as embracing professional arena characteristics, qualities and amenities. The instructions included with the survey were “Important values may be expressed in the form of norms or shared expectations about what’s important, how to behave, or what attitudes are appropriate. Please read each value statement and decide how characteristic you perceive each of these values to be within the culture of your organization. Please select a number along the scale for each question corresponding with how characteristic you believe it is for members of your organization to use the value as a guiding principle in their action and decision making.” Please see Appendix B for the modified OCP used in this study.

The second survey is an original survey which will be referred to as the Event Management Profile. This survey consists of event manager and arena demographics and event staffing specifics used to answer the study’s research questions. This instrument includes quantitative questions with free responses to ascertain event manager years of experience in the field, average attendance, number of law enforcement officers, number of emergency medical personnel, number of event staff, percentage of event staff receiving compensation, and hours of training administered to staff. The term event staff is clearly defined in the survey and detailed instructions are included.

There are also multiple choice questions regarding the event management organization’s relationship to the athletic department, educational level of the event manager, and level of staff training evaluation. The event staff portion was constructed based on a review of event management literature, personal experience in the field of athletic event management, and with assistance from experts in the field. The training specific questions were developed based on a review of staff training literature. It will also be pilot tested to ensure validity and reliability. Please

see Appendix C for the complete Event Management Profile. Both surveys were shared with experts in the event management industry and event management research and their suggestions were utilized.

Distribution and Collection Procedures

The websites of all 345 Division I basketball teams, corresponding athletic departments, and external facilities when necessary were examined to distribute the surveys. Athletic department websites almost always listed the facility hosting its men's basketball team's home games. The researcher investigated the websites to determine if each facility is owned and operated by the athletic department or an entity outside of the athletic department. If it is owned and operated by the athletic department, the materials were sent to the athletic department staff member who directly supervises the event management of the men's basketball contests. If the arena is owned and operated by an external organization, then the materials were sent to this organization's staff member who directly supervises the operations of these events. The e-mails consisted of a cover letter explaining the project and offering a report of the results and a link to the surveys. It was sometimes difficult to determine if an athletic department staff member or an external organization staff member supervises event operations at college basketball games played at an externally owned arena. Likewise, it was not always clear which individual within an organization was the appropriate event manager. To address this, multiple e-mails were sent if the event manager was unclear, and the cover letter and survey included a disclaimer instructing the event manager to only fill out the survey if he/she supervises event operations at these events.

After two weeks, one reminder e-mails was sent in an effort to recover as many completed surveys as possible and February 27th was set as the deadline for completion. After this deadline, the results were tabulated and SPSS software was used to compute descriptive statistics and run the appropriate statistical tests. The statistical analyses will be explained in the next section.

Data Analysis

Once tabulated and organized, the survey responses were analyzed using descriptive statistics and series of t-tests. Research question one was answered through the use of descriptive statistics, including means, medians, modes, standard deviations, ranges, and individual data points. Tables and charts are included in chapter four to organize the data and to present a collection of the current practices in Division I men's basketball event staffing.

To answer research question two, series of independent sample t-tests were used. For RQ 2A and 2B, arenas were grouped based on average attendance and average percent of capacity. The average attendance question is an open response question, and the arenas were split using a median split at 2500. Similarly, the arenas were grouped based on percent of capacity, using a median split at 50 percent. The means of each dependent staffing variable were compared between groups of arenas categorized by average attendance and percent of capacity to determine if there are significant differences. The arenas were grouped into two categories for both RQ 2B, BCS AQ and non-BCS AQ, and RQ 2C, externally managed and internally managed. To answer these questions, series of t-tests compared the means of each dependent staffing variable between groups of arenas categorized by competitive level and management organization to determine if there are significant differences.

For RQ 2D, a principle component analysis (PCA) was run to identify significant groupings of the cultural statements. The PCA was ineffective and did not produce multiple components. For each cultural item, management organizations were placed into two groups; those who responded 1, 2, or 3 and those who responded 4 or 5 on the Likert-scale. For each item, the means of the dependent staffing variables were compared between the groups of management organizations categorized by their perceptions of the value's importance to their organization.

When analyzing the data to answer research question three, the management organizations were separated based on their internality or externality of the organizations. Independent samples t-tests were used to analyze differences in the mean OCP responses for each cultural value between internal and external organizations.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The on-line survey instruments were distributed via e-mail on February 2nd, 2012 to the individual responsible for supervising the event management and event staff at 342 arenas hosting teams. The surveys were sent to 442 event managers at 342 schools. When it was unclear who was the appropriate event manager, the surveys were sent to multiple people at one school, but no school returned more than one survey. Event managers for 122 different schools returned usable surveys. The response rate was 35.7 percent. This is a voluntary response sample based on voluntary completion of a survey sent to the entire population. This sample is representative of the population as a whole. The sample consists of schools from 29 conferences and one independent school. BCS AQ schools make up 21.3% of the sample, while Non-BCS AQ schools make up 77% of the sample. The population consists of 32 conferences and is made up of 21.1% BCS AQ schools and 78.8% Non-BCS AQ schools. Potential non-response bias must be considered when analyzing a voluntary response sample. Event managers who choose not to participate could create different results by participating. Three management organizations could not be contacted based on limited contact information.

The Sample

Event managers for 122 different schools volunteered to participate in this survey by completing useable surveys. Ninety-four (77%) of the responding arenas are operated by a unit within the athletic department, and 28 (23%) of the arenas are operated by an organization outside of the

athletic department. Ninety-four (77%) of the responding arenas host Non-BCS AQ conference schools, 26 (21.3%) host BCS AQ conference schools, and two did not identify a conference. Schools from 29 different athletic conferences responded, plus one independent school. Please see Figure 1 for a breakdown of the athletic conference membership of this sample. Seventy-one (58.2%) of the sampled event managers have obtained a Master's Degree, while 51 (41.8%) have obtained a Bachelor's degree as their highest level of education. The mean years of experience among sampled event managers is 11.18 years, ranging from one to 36 years. Please see Table 1 and Figure 2 for the reported management and arena demographics.

Figure 1
Number of Responding Schools by Conference

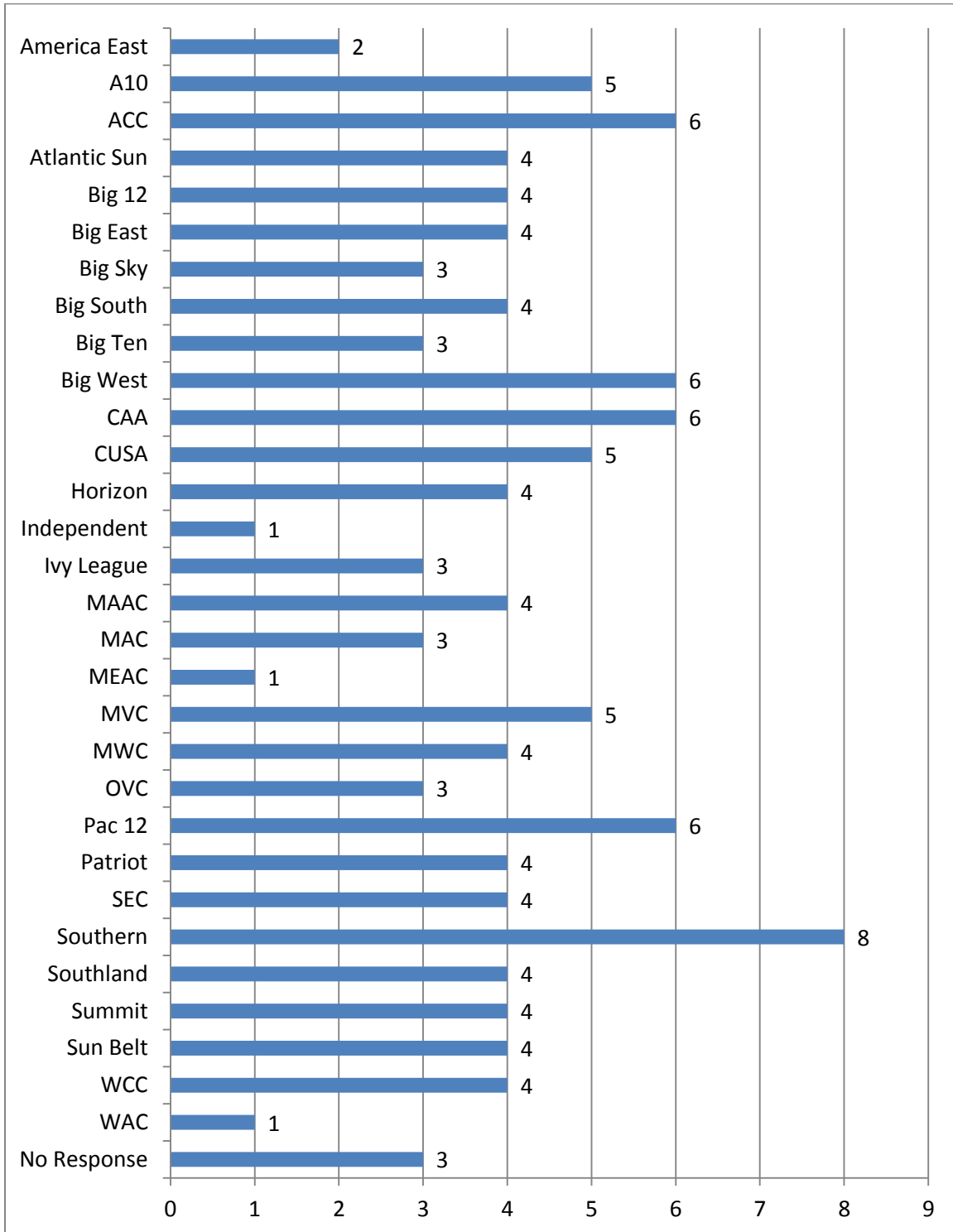
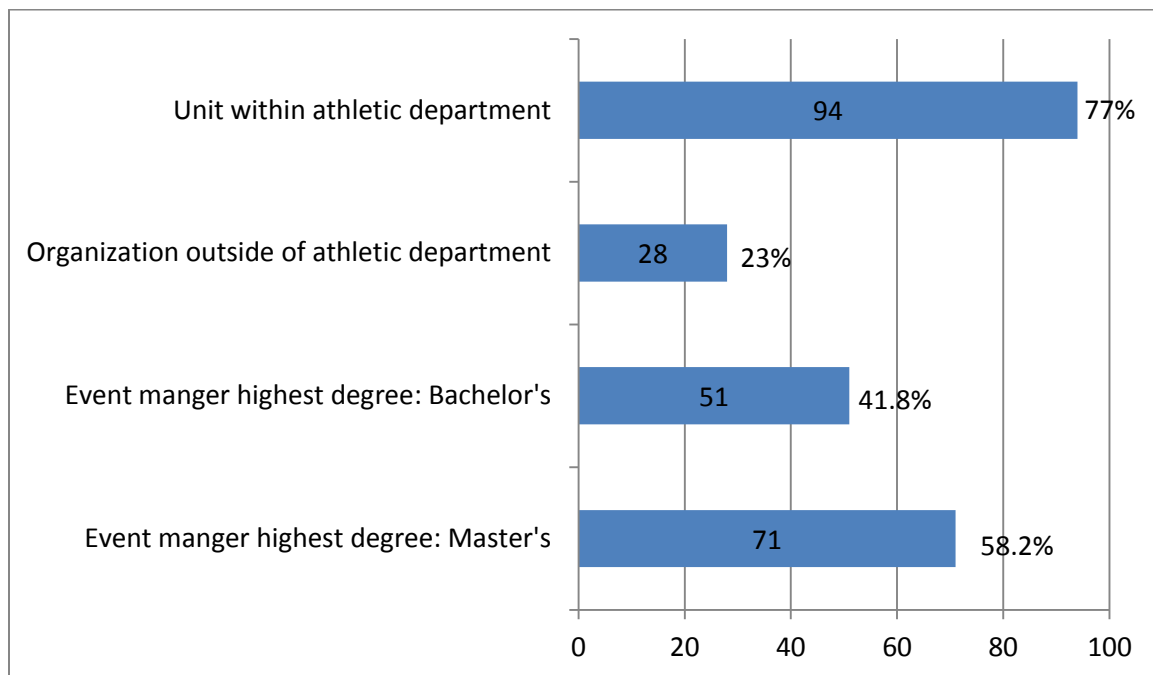


Table 1
Arena and Event Demographics

Reported Statistic	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	25 th Percentile (%)	50 th %	75 th %
Event Manager's Years of Experience	11.18	10	1	36	6	10	14
Average Attendance	4006	2500	650	19800	1637	2500	5000
Capacity	7458	7076	1200	22700	4000	7076	9925
Average Percent of Capacity	52.2%	50%	5.4%	100%	33%	50%	68%

Figure 2
Management Demographics



Research Question 1

Sampled event managers reported the average number of law enforcement officers, emergency medical personnel, and staff members fitting into the umbrella definition of “event staff.” Event staff only included ticket takers; bag checkers; gate, usher, and concourse supervisors, security personnel, greeters/informational staff, and ushers. Event managers were instructed not to

include full time members of the event management team, such as themselves, when reporting event staff numbers. Event managers also reported the percentage of their event staff members who received compensation, the hours of training their organization administered to event staff, and answered a series of questions about staff training techniques and training evaluation. The researcher calculated the spectator: staff ratio by dividing the reported average attendance by the reported number of event staff for each arena. Tables 2 and Figures 3 through 6 report the current practices in event staffing and event-staff training within the sampled arenas.

Table 2
Current Practices in Event Staffing

Reported Statistic	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	25th Percentile (%)	50th %	75th %
Law Enforcement Officers	6.39	4	0	35	3	4	9
Emergency Medical Personnel	2.79	2	0	15	2	2	4
Event Staff	42.13	30	5	300	20	30	50.5
Percent of Event Staff Paid	74%	95%	0	100%	38.75%	95%	100%
Event Staff Training Hours	2.97	2	1	20	1.5	2	4
Fan: Staff Ratio (Avg. Attendance / Event Staff)	102.6	88.6	25	375	66	88.5	131.5

The range of values within the reported event staff compensation and event staff training hours is quite large. Two smaller arenas, each reporting only 12 event staff members, reported paying 0 percent and 2 percent of their event staff members respectively. However, with a median as high as 96.5 percent it is clear that the majority of the sampled arenas pay a large percentage of their event staff and do not rely heavily on volunteers. In fact, the most common response was 100 percent. Twenty-six arenas reported one hour of training for their event staff, while one school

trained their staff for 20 hours. The staff receiving 20 hours worked at a large professional arena hosting a BCS AQ conference school. The most common training hour response was two hours, which was also the median. The mean is higher at 2.97 hours, and a standard deviation of 2.93 hours reveals that there is significant variation in the amount of training administered.

Figure 3
Event Staff Briefing and De-briefing

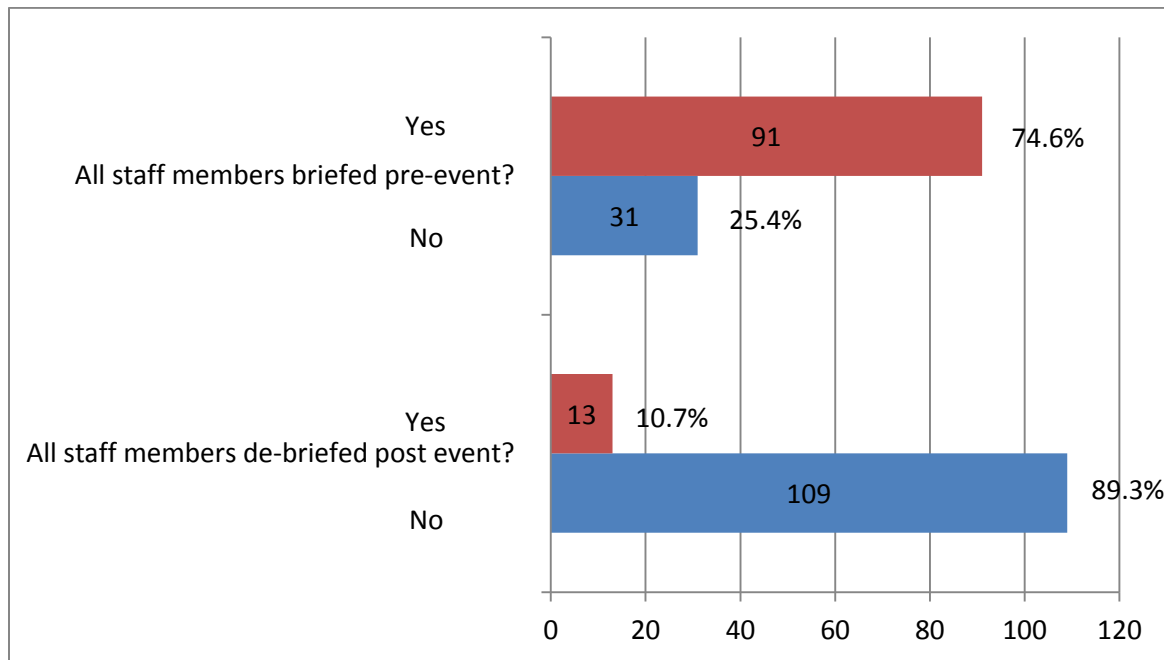
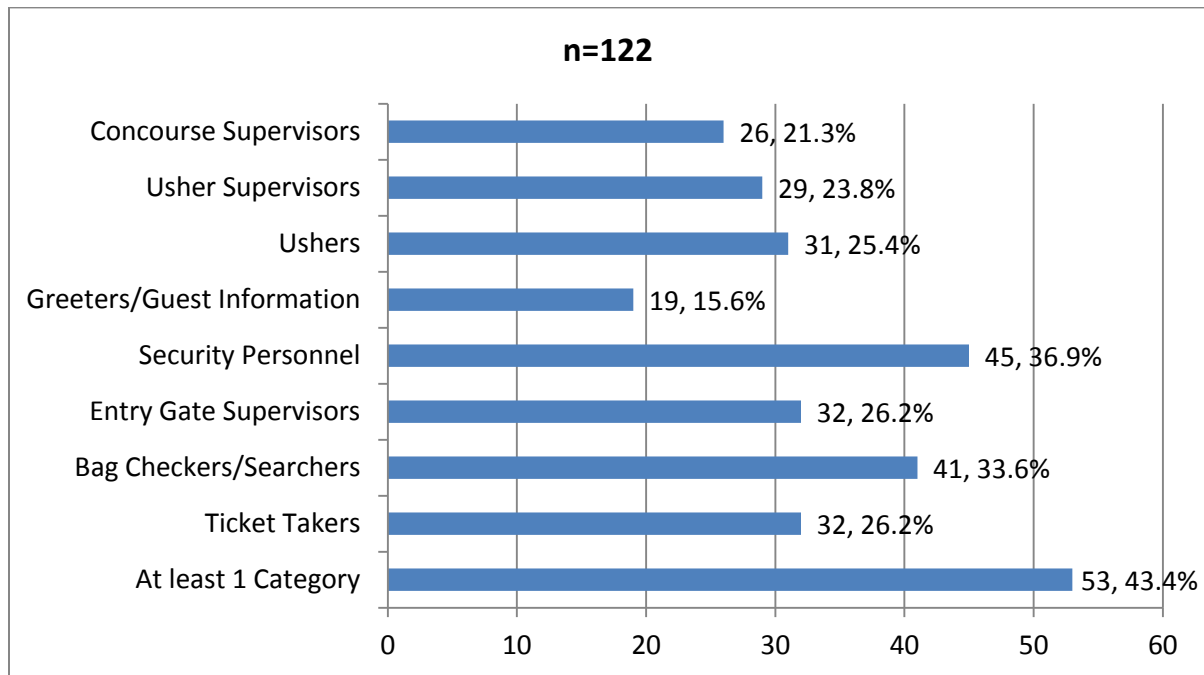


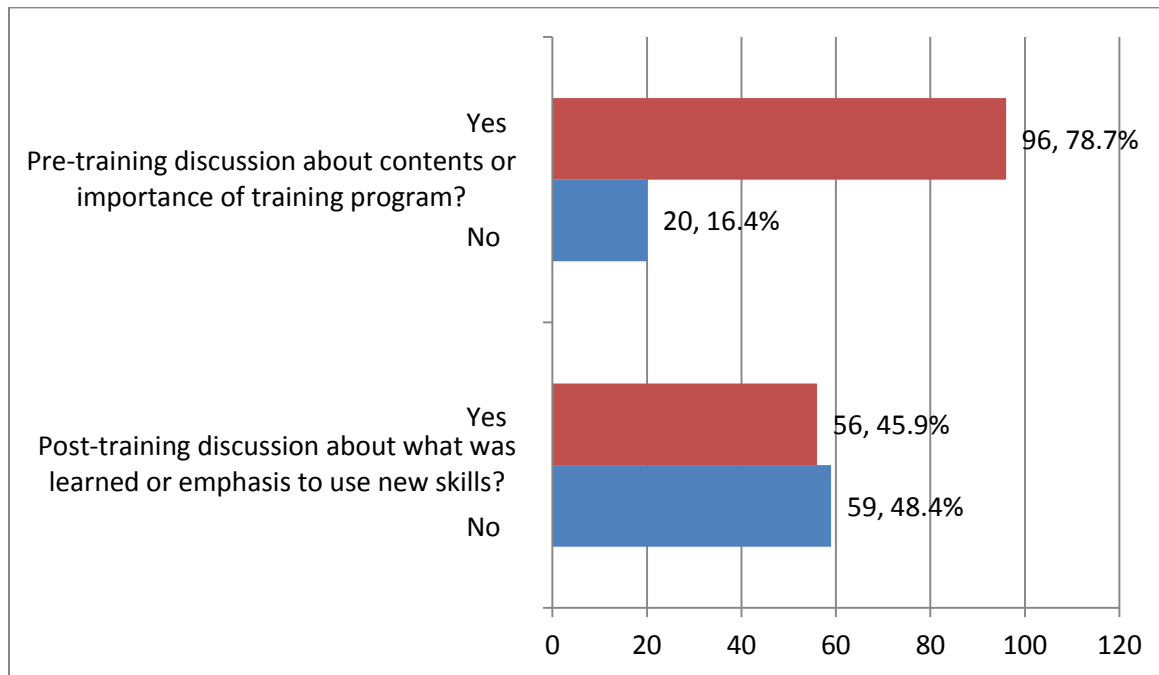
Figure 3 shows the number and percent of event managers who administer briefings and de-briefings before and after an event. It is worth pointing out that approximately one quarter of sampled event managers do not conduct a pre-event briefing for all members of their staff, and 89.3% of event managers do not conduct a post-event debriefing for all members of the staff.

Figure 4
Event Staff Categories Receiving Outsourced Training



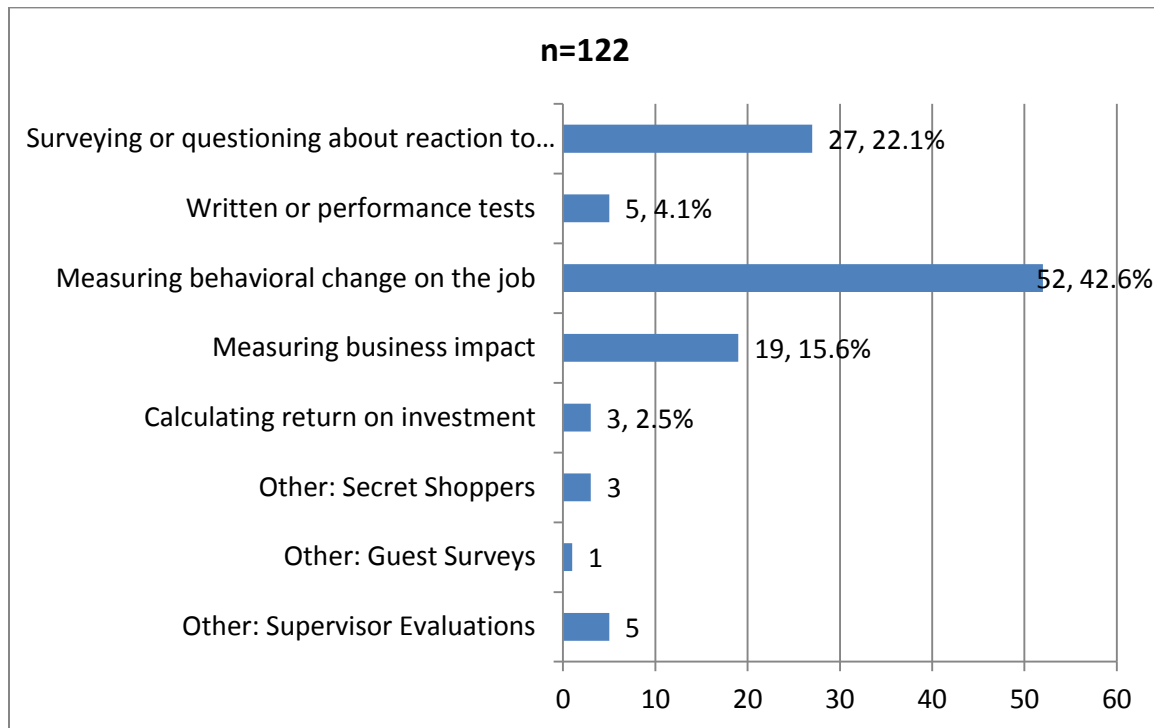
As shown on Figure 4, 43.4 percent of the sampled event managers outsource the training of some area of their event staff. The most commonly outsourced area is non-law enforcement security, at 36.9 percent. Bag checkers/searchers are a close second at 33.6 percent outsourced. There may be an overlap between these two areas. Based on personal experience, security personnel often conduct bag checks and pre-entry searches. Figure 5 shows the number and percent of event managers who included pre and post training discussions, which have been shown to enhance the effectiveness of training (Brinkerhoff and Montesino, 1995).

Figure 5
Pre and Post Training Discussions



Of the 122 sampled event managers, 81 (66.4%) evaluated their event-staff training in some way, 36 (29.5%) did not evaluate their event-staff training, and five (4.1%) did not respond to the question. Figure 6 shows the number and percent of event managers who utilized a specific event-staff evaluation method. The most common form of training evaluation was measuring behavioral change on the job, selected by 42.6 percent of sampled event managers. Some options for conducting this training evaluation method include observing their event-staff, completing staff evaluations, or utilizing a secret shopper service to observe staff behavior undetected. It is particularly interesting that 19 event managers measured the business impact of staff training. The definition of business impact in the survey included customer retention and customer satisfaction. Event managers may have utilized this evaluation method through customer surveys and by monitoring attendance numbers and repeat attendees. Three of the event managers have calculated a return on investment for training programs, which is an interesting discovery.

Figure 6
Event-Staff Training Evaluation Methods



Secret shoppers, guest surveys, and supervisor evaluations were not choices in the survey, but were entered into a free response box after selecting other as an option for training evaluation.

Research Question 2A

Research question 2A asked if the mean numbers of the reported arena, event staff, and management demographics and methods significantly differed between groups of arenas when they are categorized by average attendance. The researcher utilized a median split of the reported average attendance numbers to create two groups with similar numbers. Arenas were placed into one of two groups, based on the median split at an average attendance of 2500: those with an average attendance of 2500 or below and those with an average attendance above 2500. The number of arenas in each group varied between the different dependent variables, because a small amount of arenas did not respond to every survey question. Using IBM SPSS 19, t-tests were run to

compare the reported demographic and event-staffing elements between these two groups of arenas. Table 3 shows the group sample numbers, means, differences between the means, and p-value for each identified dependent variable.

It is not surprising or particularly useful that there are statistically significant comparisons when looking at raw event staffing numbers. Higher average attendance typically means more law enforcement officers, more EMS personnel, and more total event staff members. The spectator: staff ratio is also much larger for arenas hosting more than 2500 fans (120.35) compared to arenas hosting 2500 fans or fewer (86.08). This shows that while event staff numbers go up to accommodate the anticipated crowd, they do not do so proportionally to spectator numbers. Spectators attending arenas with fewer in attendance will see more event staff members per capita. The dependent variables of interest in this research question are percentage compensated, hours of training, training evaluation, and staff briefings.

Table 3
Average Attendance t-tests: 2500 or Below & Above 2500

Test Variable	2500 or below: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Above 2500: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Difference	P Value
Average Attendance	1796.02 (63)	6366.49 (59)	4570.48	.000*
Capacity	5031.63 (63)	10050.42 (59)	5018.79	.000*
Average Percent of Capacity	42.25% (63)	62.94% (59)	20.72%	.000*
Years of Experience	11.35(63)	11.01(59)	.341	.806
Law Enforcement Officers	3.79(63)	9.15(59)	5.36	.000*
Emergency Medical Personnel	2(63)	3.63(59)	1.63	.000*
Event Staff	23.57(63)	61.95(59)	39.14	.000*
Percentage Paid	65.87%(62)	83.09%(56)	17.22%	.006*
Pre-Event Briefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.35(63)	1.15(59)	.197	.012*
Post-event Debriefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.9(63)	1.9(59)	.009	.868
Outsource any Training? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.65(63)	1.47(58)	.185	.040*
Hours of Training	2.32(60)	3.72(52)	1.40	.016*
Level of Training Evaluation	2.06(53)	2.09(53)	.038	.905
Fan: Staff Ratio	86.08(63)	120.35(63)	34.27	.000*
*Significant at .05 alpha level				

The mean percentage of paid event-staff for arenas with an average attendance of 2500 or below was 65.87 percent (SD=36.69), while arenas averaging over 2500 spectators paid an average of 83.09 percent (SD=28.58) of their staff. Comparing these two means using an independent sample t-test produced a p-value of .006, which is significant at a .05 alpha level. In this voluntary sample, it is clear that arenas with higher attendance employed significantly more paid staff, while arenas with lower attendance relied more on volunteers. It is important to note at this point that this research project involves a great deal of hypothesis testing using t-tests. The large number of t-tests does create an inflated probability of type one error. This inflated probability is a limitation of

the study. Large differences in the dependent variable means between these groups and very low p-values are useful and valuable discoveries. However, the volume of t-tests should be considered.

The mean hours of event-staff training for event-staff at arenas averaging fewer than 2500 spectators was 2.32 hours (SD=1.71), and staff members at arenas averaging more than 2500 spectators were trained an average of 3.72 hours (SD=3.77). This is a difference of 1.4 hours of training, with a p-value of .016. Event managers expecting larger crowds clearly trained their staff significantly longer, on average, than those expecting smaller crowds in this sample. The level of training evaluation and presence of post-event debriefings were not significantly different. However, event managers at arenas averaging more than 2500 spectators conducted pre-event briefings more often than event managers at arenas averaging fewer than 2500 spectators. When asked if all members of their event staff participated in a pre-event briefing, yes corresponded with the value one and no corresponded with the value two. The mean responses were 1.35 (SD=.481) for arenas averaging fewer than 2500 fans was and 1.15 (SD=.363) for arenas averaging more than 2500 fans. The t-test comparison produced a significant p-value of .012, meaning event managers with smaller average attendance figures answered no significantly more often than event managers with larger average attendance figures. Both groups averaged a 1.9 for conducting post-event debriefings. It is obvious that not many of the sampled event managers debriefed their staff after the conclusion of an event.

Research Question 2B

Research question 2B asked if these management, staffing, and training variables differed based on the average percent of capacity of the sampled arenas. Average attendance is a good metric for event-staffing needs, but percent of capacity may be just as important. Arenas may require different staffing needs based on how close to capacity they are. After calculating the percent of capacity based on reported average attendance and reported capacity, the researcher

divided arenas into two percent of capacity groups using a median split. The split came at 50 percent of capacity. The sample numbers within the subsequent groups are very close together, but again vary between dependent variables based on the number of responding event managers. Table 4 shows the means, differences, and p-values for each dependent variable based on membership within the two groups: 50 percent of capacity or below and above 50 percent of capacity.

Table 4
Percent of Capacity t-tests: 50 percent or Below & Above 50 percent

Test Variable	50% of capacity or below: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Above 50% of capacity: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Difference	P Value
Average Attendance	2214.5(62)	5857.88 (60)	3643.38	.000*
Capacity	7022.45(62)	7909.6(60)	887.15	.265
Average Percent of Capacity	32.9%(62)	72.2%(60)	39.19%	.000*
Years of Experience	9.15(62)	13.29(60)	4.15	.002*
Law Enforcement Officers	5.48(62)	7.32(60)	1.83	.07
Emergency Medical Personnel	2.29(62)	3.30(60)	1.01	.010*
Event Staff	29.97(62)	54.7(60)	24.73	.001*
Percentage Paid	69.43%(60)	78.81%(58)	9.38%	.135
Pre-Event Briefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.31(62)	1.2(60)	.106	.179
Post-event Debriefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.91(62)	1.89(60)	.02	.725
Outsource any Training? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.6(62)	1.53(59)	.07	.433
Hours of Training	2.75(59)	3.21(53)	.45	.416
Level of Training Evaluation	2.2(54)	1.94(52)	.26	.407
Fan: Staff Ratio	89.1(62)	116.62(60)	27.48	.004*
*Significant at .05 alpha level				

When analyzing these results, it is important to first note the large difference between the mean average attendance of arenas below 50 percent of capacity and arenas above 50 percent of

capacity. With a difference of 3643 spectators, and a p-value of .000, it is clear that arenas with higher averages for percent of capacity also have significantly more people in attendance. If these numbers were closer together, differences in event staffing numbers may be attributed to an arena closer to capacity, rather than just more fans in attendance. Several of the event-staffing numbers do differ significantly between these two groups, including EMS personnel, total event staff, and fan: staff ratio. These should all be expected based on the much larger crowds. Unlike the average attendance comparison, there are no significant differences in compensation of event staff, training hours, staff briefings, or training evaluation.

Research Question 2C

Research question 2C examines event-staffing differences between BCS AQ conference schools and Non-BCS AQ conference schools. Two of the responding event managers did not identify a school or conference competing at their arena. Therefore, only 120 of the surveys were analyzed to answer this research question. Ninety-four of the responding event managers were at arenas hosting Non-BCS AQ Conference schools and 26 were at arenas hosting BCS AQ Conference schools. The sample numbers vary based on responses to each survey question. Table 5 contains the results of these comparisons.

Table 5
Conference Membership t-tests: BCS AQ & Non-BCS AQ

Test Variable	BCS AQ Conference Schools: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Non-BCS AQ Conference Schools: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Difference	P Value
Average Attendance	8646.69 (26)	2764.56 (94)	5882.25	.000*
Capacity	12529.08 (26)	6132.04 (94)	6397.03	.000*
Average Percent of Capacity	69.46% (26)	47.48% (94)	21.98%	.000*
Years of Experience	12.44 (26)	10.85 (94)	1.59	.351
Law Enforcement Officers	10.69 (26)	5.31 (94)	5.38	.000*
Emergency Medical Personnel	4.85 (26)	2.21 (94)	2.63	.000*
Event Staff	87.73 (26)	30 (94)	57.73	.000*
Percentage Paid	89.96% (26)	70.03% (94)	19.93%	.000*
Pre-Event Briefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.15 (26)	1.28 (94)	.12	.159
Post-event Debriefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.85 (26)	1.91 (94)	.06	.403
Outsource any Training? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.46 (26)	1.58 (93)	.119	.284
Hours of Training	5.26 (23)	2.41 (87)	2.85	.015*
Level of Training Evaluation	2.32 (25)	2.03 (80)	.295	.426
Fan: Staff Ratio	117.67 (26)	98.41 (94)	19.27	.106
*Significant at .05 alpha level				

There are several t-tests in this comparison that produced statistically significant results. BCS AQ Conference schools had higher attendance, bigger capacity, higher percent of capacity, more law enforcement officers, more EMS personnel, and more event staff. Each of these comparisons produced a p-value of .000, showing very significant results. The mean average attendance at BCS AQ arenas was 5882.25 higher than the mean attendance at Non-BCS AQ arenas. This huge gap most likely accounts for the differences in the event staffing numbers. Event-staff members working at BCS AQ arenas were also more often paid (89.96%, SD=20.03) than individuals working at Non-BCS AQ arenas (70.03%, SD=35.79), with a statistically significant p-value of .000.

Similarly, BCS AQ staff members received 5.26 hours of training, on average, producing a p-value of .015 when compared to Non-BCS AQ staff members' 2.41 mean training hours. It is also important to note that the event managers' years of experience, staff briefing practices, outsourcing of training, and the level of training evaluation did not differ based on conference membership.

Research Question 2D

Perhaps the most enlightening research question separates event managers by their relationship to the athletic department. The 122 responding event managers identified the organization responsible for event management at their arena as either a unit within the athletic department or an organization outside of the athletic department. They were separated based on this identification and differences in staffing and demographics were analyzed. These results can be found in Table 6.

The first important comparison to note is the difference in average attendance. While externally operated arenas averaged 1396.2 more spectators than internally managed arenas, this difference was only approaching significance ($p=.069$). This provides a solid motivation for comparing the remaining elements, because their differences may not be drastically affected by attendance numbers. Athletic departments were more likely to outsource the training of some areas of their event staff ($p=.003$). External event managers briefed their event staff more often, producing an approaching significance p-value of .084. External event managers administered an average of 4.8 training hours ($SD=5.02$). Athletic department managers administered an average of 2.49 ($SD=1.85$) training hours to their staff. This difference of 2.3 hours produced a significant .04 p-value. External organizations averaged over one additional EMS individual ($p=.013$). External organizations also paid 85.42 percent ($SD=30.69$) of their event-staff, while athletic departments paid 70.83 percent ($SD=34.46$) of their staff. This 14.6 percent difference was statistically significant, with a p-value of .043. Areas where there were no significant differences include percent of

capacity, managers' years of experience, law enforcement officers, total event staff, level of training evaluation, and spectator: staff ratio.

Table 6
Management Organization t-tests: Internal & External

Test Variable	Unit within the athletic department: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Organization outside of the athletic department: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Difference	P value
Average Attendance	3685.87 (94)	5082.14 (28)	1396.27	.069
Capacity	6587.37 (94)	10384.11 (28)	3796.74	.000*
Average Percent of Capacity	52.89% (94)	50.08% (28)	2.82%	.577
Years of Experience	11.8 (94)	9.13 (28)	2.67	.103
Law Enforcement Officers	6.18 (98)	7.07 (28)	.891	.462
Emergency Medical Personnel	2.52 (94)	3.68 (28)	1.16	.013*
Event Staff	39.16 (94)	52.11 (28)	12.95	.123
Percentage Paid	70.83% (92)	85.42% (26)	14.6%	.043*
Pre-Event Briefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.29 (94)	1.14 (28)	.14	.084
Post-event Debriefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.87 (94)	1.96 (28)	.09	.068
Outsource any Training? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.63 (93)	1.32 (28)	.313	.003*
Hours of Training	2.49 (89)	4.80 (23)	2.31	.040*
Level of Training Evaluation	1.93 (82)	2.58 (24)	.66	.064
Fan: Staff Ratio	100.63 (94)	109.45 (28)	8.82	.444
*Significant at .05 alpha level				

Research Question 2E

Research question 2E tests the null hypothesis that there is no difference in demographic and staffing methods between event managers with different perceptions of their organizations' cultures. The 53 item OCP was completed by 115 event managers, each selecting how characteristic they believed each item was of their organization. In an attempt to answer this research question, a principle component analysis was run to group the items together into components and compare

between groups of event managers with different perceptions within each component. After multiple efforts, the principle component analysis did not produce useable results. Only one component was revealed, rendering the analysis ineffective. The other option to answer this research question was to compare staffing methods between event managers who felt differently about each individual culture item. Due to the very large number of t-tests this would have created, it would not have been statistically sound to do so. However, the researcher has chosen six cultural items of particular interest to use as comparisons. The selected items are adaptability and evolving with new trends, stability and tradition, being innovative, stressing thorough training to all workers, maintaining a collegiate amateur model, and embracing professional arena characteristics.

The literature suggests that culture does affect how organizations act and make decisions (Schein, 2004). While this analysis will not completely answer this research question, it will provide an exploratory look into how staffing methods differ between organizations whose leaders perceive specific cultural items differently. For each of the 6 culture items, organizations were split up into two groups. The first group consisted of event managers who selected not characteristic (1), slightly characteristic (2), or moderately characteristic (3) for a given item. The second group consisted of event managers who selected very characteristic (4) or extremely characteristic (5) for that same item. Differences between these two groups were analyzed using independent samples t-tests.

Tables 7 through 12 show the demographic and staffing method means, mean differences, and t-test p-values with comparing organizations based on the leaders' perceptions of the six identified values.

Table 7

Adaptability and evolving with new trends t-tests: 1, 2, or 3 & 4 or 5

Test Variable	Not, Slightly, or Moderately Characteristic: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Very or Extremely Characteristic: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Difference	P Value
Average Attendance	3981.58 (45)	4069.58 (69)	88	.901
Capacity	7299.84 (45)	7569.49(69)	269.65	.754
Average Percent of Capacity	51.46%(45)	52.79%(69)	1.33%	.766
Years of Experience	11.36(45)	10.85(69)	.508	.731
Law Enforcement Officers	5.93(45)	6.70(69)	.762	.490
Emergency Medical Personnel	2.6(45)	2.96(69)	.357	.408
Event Staff	38.49(45)	45.68(69)	7.19	.352
Percentage Paid	74.07%(45)	75.14%(66)	1.07	.872
Pre-Event Briefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.27(45)	1.25(69)	.02	.810
Post-event Debriefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.91(45)	1.88(69)	.027	.649
Outsource any Training? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.64(45)	1.51(69)	.137	.149
Hours of Training	2.99(43)	3.07(63)	.083	.889
Level of Training Evaluation	1.86(43)	2.13(60)	.273	.395
Fan: Staff Ratio	111.08(45)	96.34(69)	14.74	.159
*Significant at .05 alpha level				

Grouping event management organizations by the event managers' perceptions of adaptability and evolving with new trends did not reveal any significant differences in demographics or event staffing methods.

Table 8
Stability and tradition t-tests: 1, 2, or 3 & 4 or 5

Test Variable	Not, Slightly, or Moderately Characteristic: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Very or Extremely Characteristic: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Difference	P Value
Average Attendance	3306.06(32)	4361.93(82)	1055.86	.167
Capacity	6718.56(32)	7793.8(82)	1075.27	.249
Average Percent of Capacity	46.36%(32)	54.84%(82)	8.48%	.080
Years of Experience	9.22(32)	11.8(82)	2.58	.064
Law Enforcement Officers	5.31(32)	6.91(82)	1.6	.182
Emergency Medical Personnel	1.84(32)	3.17(82)	1.33	.000*
Event Staff	33.81(32)	46.43(82)	12.61	.132
Percentage Paid	69.19%(32)	77.13%(79)	7.94	.266
Pre-Event Briefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.25(32)	1.24(82)	.006	.946
Post-event Debriefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.88(32)	1.9(82)	.027	.671
Outsource any Training? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.69(32)	1.51(82)	.175	.085
Hours of Training	3.25(30)	2.94(76)	.309	.633
Level of Training Evaluation	1.55(29)	2.19(74)	.637	.067
Fan: Staff Ratio	98.78(32)	104.2(82)	5.42	.634
*Significant at .05 alpha level				

Event managers who viewed stability and tradition to be more characteristic of their organization had more years of experience (11.8, SD=8.138) than those who viewed this cultural value as less characteristic (9.22, SD=5.879). This difference produced a p-value of .064, which is approaching significance. Also, managers with higher perceptions on stability and tradition employed significantly more EMS personnel. The remainder of the comparisons did not reveal any statistically significant differences.

Table 9
Being innovative t-tests: 1, 2, or 3 & 4 or 5

Test Variable	Not, Slightly, or Moderately Characteristic: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Very or Extremely Characteristic: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Difference	P Value
Average Attendance	3666.04(57)	4431.17(58)	765.14	.262
Capacity	6867.02(57)	8066.69(58)	1199.67	.148
Average Percent of Capacity	49.79%(57)	55%(58)	5.21%	.229
Years of Experience	11.75(57)	10.27(58)	1.49	.300
Law Enforcement Officers	6.16(57)	6.72(58)	.57	.598
Emergency Medical Personnel	2.79(57)	2.83(58)	.038	.927
Event Staff	39.12(57)	46.71(58)	7.58	.311
Percentage Paid	74.37%(57)	74.69%(55)	.322%	.960
Pre-Event Briefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.3(57)	1.21(58)	.091	.264
Post-event Debriefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.91(57)	1.88(58)	.033	.567
Outsource any Training? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.53(57)	1.6(58)	.077	.409
Hours of Training	2.62(55)	3.46(56)	.843	.152
Level of Training Evaluation	1.94(54)	2.12(50)	.176	.577
Fan: Staff Ratio	104.21(57)	100.26(58)	3.94	.699
*Significant at .05 alpha level				

While comparing organizations based on the perception of an innovative culture did not produce any statistically significant mean differences, there is one difference worth noting. Event managers who perceived innovation as more characteristic of their organization administered 3.46 hours of training on average (SD=3.856). Event managers who perceived this value to be less characteristic administered 2.62 hours of training (SD=1.716). This comparison produced the only p-value (.152) that was even beginning to approach significance.

Table 10
Stressing thorough training t-tests: 1, 2, or 3 & 4 or 5

Test Variable	Not, Slightly, or Moderately Characteristic: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Very or Extremely Characteristic: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Difference	P Value
Average Attendance	3453.21(70)	5105.74(43)	1652.53	.027*
Capacity	6466.77(70)	9170.09(43)	2703.32	.002*
Average Percent of Capacity	51.27%(70)	54.86%(43)	3.59%	.428
Years of Experience	11.19(70)	10.8(43)	.383	.799
Law Enforcement Officers	6.3(70)	6.79(43)	.491	.662
Emergency Medical Personnel	2.39(70)	3.53(43)	1.15	.008*
Event Staff	36.16(70)	53.81(43)	17.66	.023*
Percentage Paid	68.71%(70)	85.44%(41)	16.73%	.008*
Pre-Event Briefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.31(70)	1.16(43)	.151	.060
Post-event Debriefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.91(70)	1.86(43)	.054	.372
Outsource any Training? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.59(70)	1.51(43)	.074	.446
Hours of Training	2.25(68)	4.47(37)	2.22	.005*
Level of Training Evaluation	1.67(63)	2.69(39)	1.03	.001*
Fan: Staff Ratio	103.57(70)	102.37(43)	1.2	.915
*Significant at .05 alpha level				

Grouping management organizations by the event managers' perceptions on stressing thorough training as a cultural value produced the most significant differences. Event managers who viewed thorough training as a more characteristic value managed arenas with higher capacity and average attendance. They also employed more EMS personnel and total event staff. These managers paid 16.73 percent more of their event staff, on average, than managers who viewed thorough training as not, slightly, or moderately characteristic. This comparison produced a

significant p-value of .008. Predictably, the differences in hours of training and training evaluation were also statistically significant, as shown above in table 10.

Table 11

Maintaining collegiate amateur model t-tests: 1, 2, or 3 & 4 or 5

Test Variable	Not, Slightly, or Moderately Characteristic: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Very or Extremely Characteristic: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Difference	P Value
Average Attendance	3522.79(38)	4425.82(68)	903.03	.228
Capacity	7308.37(38)	7457.46(68)	149.09	.869
Average Percent of Capacity	46.95%(38)	56.66%(68)	9.7%	.037*
Years of Experience	11.63(38)	10.95(68)	.683	.669
Law Enforcement Officers	5.79(38)	7.32(68)	1.53	.193
Emergency Medical Personnel	2.53(38)	3(68)	.474	.306
Event Staff	39.76(38)	43.44(68)	3.68	.648
Percentage Paid	66.39%(38)	78.41%(66)	12.01%	.098
Pre-Event Briefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.16(38)	1.34(68)	.18	.033*
Post-event Debriefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.92(38)	1.88(68)	.039	.535
Outsource any Training? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.5(38)	1.6(68)	.103	.310
Hours of Training	3.26(36)	2.48(64)	.780	.092
Level of Training Evaluation	1.8(35)	2.2(61)	.397	.242
Fan: Staff Ratio	104.18(38)	103.94(68)	.804	.943
*Significant at .05 alpha level				

Two comparisons produced statistically significant results, average percent of capacity and the presence of a pre-event briefing. Event managers who perceived a collegiate model to be more characteristic worked at arenas that were closer to reaching capacity and more often conducted pre-event briefings for the staff. While not statistically significant, it is worth noting that managers who viewed the collegiate model as less characteristic trained their staff for 3.26 hours (SD=2.29)

compared to the 2.48 training hours (SD=2.151) conducted by the opposite group. The difference of .78 hours produced a .092 p-value. A somewhat surprising result of this comparison is that event managers perceiving a collegiate amateur model to be more characteristic of their organization paid 12.01% more of their event staff than their counterparts, producing a .098 p-value.

Table 12

Embracing professional arena characteristics t-tests: 1, 2, or 3 & 4 or 5

Test Variable	Not, Slightly, or Moderately Characteristic: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Very or Extremely Characteristic: Mean Number (Number of Respondents)	Difference	P Value
Average Attendance	3384.58(60)	4883.94(50)	1499.36	.033*
Capacity	6056.75(60)	9275.66(50)	3200.9	.000*
Average Percent of Capacity	52.97%(60)	51.45%(50)	1.52%	.738
Years of Experience	12.38(60)	9.17(50)	3.21	.022*
Law Enforcement Officers	6.4(60)	6.74(50)	.34	.760
Emergency Medical Personnel	2.45(60)	3.12(50)	.67	.117
Event Staff	34.17(60)	52.2(50)	18.03	.018*
Percentage Paid	73.1%(60)	76.08%(48)	2.98%	.654
Pre-Event Briefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.28(60)	1.22(50)	.063	.452
Post-event Debriefing? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.92(60)	1.88(50)	.037	.528
Outsource any Training? (1=yes, 2=no)	1.58(60)	1.54(50)	.043	.652
Hours of Training	2.51(56)	3.37(46)	.86	.085
Level of Training Evaluation	1.8(54)	2.29(45)	.49	.127
Fan: Staff Ratio	104.21(60)	102.84(50)	1.37	.896
*Significant at .05 alpha level				

Table 12 contains four significant differences when comparing means based on event managers' perceptions of embracing professional arena characteristics. Event managers who perceived embracing professional qualities and amenities as more characteristic of their

organization had fewer years of experience, worked at arenas with higher capacities and average attendance, and had more staff. The 2.98 percent difference in percentage of event staff receiving compensation was very minimal and an insignificant difference. These event managers also administered 3.37 hours of training ($SD=3.149$) to their event staff compared to 2.51 hours ($SD=1.775$) of training administered by those who perceived this value to be less characteristic of their organizations' cultures. Comparing the training hours across these two groups produced a p-value approaching significance at .085.

Research Question 3

Research question three asks if there are significant differences in event manager's perceptions of their organizations' cultures based on membership in two distinct groups: employed by the athletic department or employed by an external management organization. Event managers for 116 arenas responded to the online organizational culture profile instrument and also identified themselves as members of the aforementioned groups. The event managers could select not characteristic (1), slightly characteristic (2), moderately characteristic (3), very characteristic (4), or extremely characteristic (5) for 53 cultural items.

A principle component analysis was run to try to group the 53 OCP items together so that differences in the component means could be compared between the two identified groups. The analysis was not effective as it only created one component. The researcher ran descriptive statistics as well as 53 separate t-tests for each cultural statement, comparing differences between internal and external event managers. Only six of the 53 cultural value statements produced a statistically significant p-value when comparing internal to external management organizations. Two additional items were approaching significance. Due to the large number of t-tests and small number of significant comparisons, it must be pointed out that these findings have a very inflated probability of type one sampling error. However, the researcher will still report the findings. Please see appendix

G for a complete listing of the means, standard deviations, and differences between the means for all 53 items when comparing between internal and external groups.

The six cultural items that produced a p-value of .05 or below when comparing between internal and external managers were adaptability and evolving with new trends, paying attention to detail, having high expectations for performance, high pay for good performance, stressing thorough training for all workers, and embracing professional arena characteristics, qualities, and amenities. Internal manager's mean response to adaptability was 3.63 (SD=.835) and external managers' mean response was 4.00 (SD=.920), $p=.049$. Internal managers' mean response to paying attention to detail was 4.11 (SD=.863) and external managers' mean response was 4.52 (SD=.580), $p=.024$. Empirically, one can see that external managers, on average, viewed adaptability and paying attention to detail as more characteristic of their organization than internal managers did.

External managers viewed high expectations for performance as more characteristic of their organization, 4.42 (SD=.758) compared to internal managers at 4.02 (SD=.933), $p=.049$. External managers also viewed high pay for good performance as more characteristic of their organization, 2.81 (SD=1.132) compared to internal managers at 2.26 (SD=.895), producing a p-value of .012. Internal managers perceived high pay for good performance to be the least characteristic cultural value of their organizations. External event managers only rated three cultural items lower than they ranked high pay for good performance. These items were risk taking (2.78), sacrificing guest services for security (2.62), and sacrificing security for guest services (2.69).

Stressing thorough training for all workers and embracing professional arena characteristics had the two largest mean differences between internal and external event managers. Internal event managers averaged 2.91 (SD=1.019) for stressing thorough training, while external managers averaged 3.65 (SD=.892). This resulted in a difference of .746 and a .001 p-value. Predictably, external event managers also rated embracing professional arena characteristics (3.92, SD=.974)

much higher than internal event managers rated this value (3.02, SD=1.236). This comparison created the largest mean difference (.893) and a .001 p-value.

The two cultural comparisons which created p-values approaching the .05 alpha level were getting the most out of limited resources and maintaining the collegiate amateur model. Internal event managers rated getting the most out of limited resources at 4.34 (SD=.696), and external event managers rated this value at 4.04 (SD=.720). The resulting .299 difference had a corresponding p-value of .060. Internal managers rated maintaining a collegiate amateur model at 3.85 (SD=.925), while external event managers rated this value lower at 3.41 (SD=1.182). The .436 difference resulted in a .067 p-value.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Due to the relative uniqueness of this research project, it was predominantly exploratory in nature. The aim was to collect general arena and management demographics, event staffing numbers, quantifiable training methods, and cultural perceptions of event managers. Due to the exploratory nature, the surveys were general in nature and sent to event managers at 342 different basketball facilities, including members of all 32 conferences. The purpose of the study was to establish an initial database of current practices in NCAA basketball event management by collecting general quantitative data regarding even staffing at as many Division I basketball arenas as possible. The purpose was also to analyze this data to see if demographics and staffing methods differed between groups of arenas when categorized by average attendance, average percent of capacity, conference membership, management organizations' internality or externality, and event managers' cultural perceptions. The cultural perceptions were also analyzed and examined to see if there were differences between external and internal event managers' perceptions of their organizations' cultures.

Research Question 1

The collected arena demographics are informative in regards to event managers' level of education and years of experience. The sample had a median of 10 years of experience with a mean of 11.18 years. 58.8 percent of event managers reported having a Master's degree, and all managers reported having at least a Bachelor's degree. The demographics also showed that many of the arenas are not operating at full capacity, with a median of 50 percent and mean of 52.2 percent. The

percentages of paid staff across the sample were higher than the researcher initially expected. Based on personal experience, the researcher expected to see lower percentages due to volunteer ushers and ticket takers. The 95 percent median and 74 percent mean reveal that volunteers are not heavily relied upon by most event managers. The spectator: staff ratio numbers might indicate sufficient coverage by event staff. Most event managers might agree that one staff member for every 102.6 (mean) or 88.6 (median) spectators would be an acceptable number. This is not a metric that has been studied much, and the researcher was unable to find published industry standards. It would be useful to further study industry leaders' opinions on acceptable spectator: staff ratios.

The event-staff training hours, staff briefing and de-briefing practices, training discussions, and training evaluation practices are areas worth discussing more in-depth. Without standards to compare to, it is difficult to draw definitive conclusions regarding these items, but this exploratory project will hopefully begin conversation and future investigation into which current practices are also best practices. On average, event managers administered 2.97 hours of event-staff training, with a median of two hours. The event management community may view this number as appropriate for the work being done, but a standard deviation of 2.93 hours showed that training hours varied widely amongst the event managers as a whole. Seven event managers reported eight or more hours of training, with four in the double digits (12, 15, 15, and 20). On the other end of this spectrum, 26 (23.2%) event managers reported one hour of training. These numbers suggest that there are groups of arenas going above and beyond in the training of the staff as well as groups administering minimal training.

The area of pre-event briefing and post-event debriefing practices provide information that staff may be under-prepared at many arenas and do not have the opportunity to discuss success and failures or provide/receive feedback immediately following an event. Thirty-one event managers (25.4%) report not conducting pre-event briefings for all members of their staff and 109 (89.3%)

reported not conducting post-event briefings for all event-staff members. According to Ammon, et al. (2010), pre-event briefings and post-event debriefings are essential event management communication elements for all staff members. It is clear that more event managers should be conducting these discussions to maximize effectiveness. It should be pointed out that the survey questions asked if all staff members participated in pre-event and post-event briefings or debriefings. The amount of “no” responses may have been lower if the question asked about briefings or debriefings for any or some portion of staff members. It may be particularly difficult to debrief all staff members post-event, as some entry gate personnel are often released prior to the conclusion of an event.

Brinkerhoff and Montesino (1995) conducted a staff training study in which staff members who participated in pre and post training discussions showed higher self-reported training transfer. It would be helpful to share these findings with any individuals who train and supervise employees. The high number of event managers who conducted pre-training discussions (96, 78.7%) is very encouraging. Similarly to the event debriefings, many fewer event managers held discussions after training programs (56, 45.9%). Discussing the training after its conclusion may seem redundant, but the research showed that specifically emphasizing what was learned and an expectation to use those new skills produced better training transfer (Brinkerhoff and Montesino, 1995).

According to Buelow (2008), measuring trainees’ reactions to a training program and measuring their learning through tests or demonstration comprise a minimum standard for professional training evaluation. However, 36 (29.5%) of the sampled event managers responded that they do not evaluate the effectiveness of training programs received by their event staff in any way. 27 (22.1%) of the event managers selected surveying or questioning about trainees’ reactions as a form of evaluation, and only 5 (4.1%) selected administering written or performance tests.

Level three of Buelow's (2008) training evaluation methods is measuring behavioral change on the job. This was by far the most often selected form of evaluation, with 52 (42.6%) of event managers selecting this item. This shows that most event managers who do evaluate training programs prefer to do so by observing their event-staff members while they work. Twenty-two (18%) event managers selected measuring business impact or calculating a return on investment, which are considered to be more sophisticated methods of training evaluation (Buelow, 2008). It is encouraging to find that almost a fifth of the surveyed managers conduct this thorough analysis of training effectiveness. Three event managers specifically reported utilizing secret shoppers in an open ended "other" selection. This is a method that could most likely be utilized by more managers across the country. However, it is not possible to draw conclusions about the prevalence of secret shopper analysis as it was not a choice in this survey.

Research Question 2A

Grouping and comparing arenas based on average attendance produced somewhat predictable results. The raw staffing number comparisons produced expected significant differences, including event staff, law enforcement officers, and EMS personnel. However, the amount of event staff clearly does not increase proportionally to the amount of spectators, based on the significantly higher spectator: staff ratio at schools averaging above 2500 spectators.

The significant differences between these groups of arenas when analyzing training hours and percentage of staff receiving compensation demonstrate that event managers at arenas averaging more than 2500 spectators have an increased emphasis on training and utilizing paid staff members or have more resources to do so. There is typically a different relationship between a manager and a paid employee and a relationship between a manager and a volunteer employee. While volunteer staff members are still valuable members of all event management teams, these

findings show that event managers responding to larger crowds are willing and/or able to pay a larger percent of their staff.

The amount of training was also significantly higher at arenas averaging over 2500 spectators. Generally, more fans create more responsibility, pressure, and required knowledge. However, event-staff members should be thoroughly trained in security, customer service, and emergency management, regardless of the crowd size (Ammon, et al., 2010). The 2.32 mean hours of training at arenas averaging fewer than 2500 fans is evidence that these event management team members are being trained, but individuals working with more than 2500 spectators receive a significantly higher amount of training (3.72 hours). Event managers at the arenas with higher average attendance also conducted pre-event briefings significantly more often than their counterparts. This could demonstrate their increased emphasis on staff communication and preparedness, considering the larger crowds.

Research Question 2B

Comparing arenas above 50 percent capacity to arenas below 50 percent capacity produced some significant findings similar to the research question 2A findings. The event staffing numbers, including event staff, EMS personnel, and spectator: staff ratio, were significantly higher at arenas closer to capacity. However, the lack of significant differences between percent compensated and training hours is evidence that the expected crowd has more impact on these two variables than the percent of capacity. Expecting an arena to be fuller in comparison to its total capacity does not correspond with event managers paying significantly more members of their staff or administering significantly more training. This expectation also did not correspond with a significantly higher prevalence of staff briefings or debriefings.

Research Question 2C

The significant differences between BCS AQ conference schools and Non-BCS AQ conference schools may be attributed to the higher attendance and capacity at BCS AQ arenas, as well as more financial resources. The BCS AQ conference schools accommodated an average of 5882 more fans than Non-BCS AQ schools. The findings are very similar to the average attendance comparisons, confirming the researcher's perception that members of these "power" conferences are willing and/or able to pay more of their staff (19.93% more than Non-BCS AQ members) and administer more training (2.85 more hours than Non-BCS AQ members).

This research suggests that event managers at Non-BCS AQ conference schools may be behind the industry standards for event staff training, compensation, communication, and evaluation, established by event managers at the larger and more crowded BCS AQ conference arenas. The likelihood of conducting pre-event briefings and the level of training evaluation did not differ at a statistically significant amount. However the BCS AQ schools did conduct pre-event briefings more often and had a higher average training evaluation level, along Buelow's (2008) five point scale.

Research Question 2D

When comparing arenas based on the internality or externality of the event management organization, the average attendance and percent of capacity were not statistically significantly different. This finding legitimizes the comparisons of all event staffing elements between these two groups, as they do not operate events with significantly more people. However, it must be noted that empirically, the external organizations in this sample did manage events with a greater average attendance. The difference of 1396 average fans was approaching significance. Also, the 3474 difference in capacity was statistically significant, meaning the external organizations did manage

much larger arenas. Large professional arenas that do not sell out during collegiate games may have caused the significant difference in capacity but not attendance.

Event managers at several different conferences, both BCS AQ and Non-BCS AQ conferences alike, identified the event management organization as external. These conferences included the Atlantic 10, Atlantic Coast Conference, Atlantic Sun, Big 12, Big East, Big Sky, Colonial Athletic Association, Conference USA, Horizon League, Missouri Valley Conference, Mountain West Conference, Southeastern Conference, Southern Conference, Sunbelt Conference, and West Coast Conference.

External organizations trained (2.31 additional hours) and paid (14.6% additional percent compensated) their staff at a statistically significantly greater amounts. The external participants also reported conducting pre-event briefings more often than their internal counterparts, a difference approaching significance. The decision to Separate management organizations based on their externality or internality was based in part on university and athletic department organizational culture research. Tierney (1988), Kuh and Whitt (1988), and Schroder (2010), all developed institution or athletic department cultural frameworks consisting of competing influences from the internal and external environment. The significant differences between internal and external staff management practices provide further evidence for the dichotomous influences internal and external environments may have on a school or athletic department's culture.

Considering the broad range of conference membership amongst external organizations and the non-statistically significant difference in average attendance, these findings may provide initial evidence that external organizations place more emphasis on training and communication and are more willing and/or able to pay their staff members. However, this research's exploratory nature, the possibility of a non-response bias, and the potential presence of confounding variables combine to make such sweeping generalizations problematic. The findings offer a glimpse into the

current practices and some initial evidence for comparisons and conversations, but do not provide proof that either management category is ahead or behind of the other.

Research Question 2E

After an unsuccessful principle component analysis was run, research question 2E was investigated by comparing event managers whose perceptions of six selected cultural values differed. Grouping managers based on their perceptions of adaptability, stability and tradition, and being innovative did not produce statistically significant differences in event staffing numbers or practices. Managers who viewed stability and tradition as very or extremely characteristic of their organization's culture did have 2.58 additional years of experience than managers with lower ratings for this value, a difference approaching significance. This finding might suggest that an emphasis on stability and tradition becomes stronger over time, or that organizations whose cultures place more emphasis on this value are more likely to hire event managers with more experience.

While the differences were not statistically significant, there are some empirical differences worth noting. The means, mean differences, and p-values can be found on tables 7 through 12. The managers rating stability and tradition as more characteristic worked at arenas with higher capacities, average attendance, and average percent of capacity; had more event staff, paid a higher percentage of their event staff; conducted a higher level of training evaluation; but administered .309 fewer training hours than their counterparts. Managers who rated being innovative as higher also worked at arenas with higher capacities, average attendance, and average percent of capacity; administered .843 more training hours; and had 1.49 fewer years of experience than those rating innovation as less characteristic.

A culture that stressed thorough training clearly corresponded with increased training, staff compensation, communication, and training evaluation in this sample. Based on the findings, ensuring that thorough training is characteristic of a manager's organization should translate to

more training hours for staff. The 2.22 additional training hours administered by event managers who perceived thorough training to be a very or extremely characteristic cultural value was significant at the .05 alpha level. These findings validate the theoretical notion that organizational culture is “a social force that controls the patterns of organizational behavior...” (Ott, 1989, p. 69). Group leaders establish and model cultural values and require compliance from the group members (Schein, 2004). In this sample, leadership’s perception of a culture emphasizing thorough training clearly affected organizational behavior. However, due to the exploratory and general nature of this study, one cannot assume that these staff members were trained more effectively and cannot compare the specific training techniques.

Maintaining a collegiate model and embracing professional arena characteristics were two cultural values that did not produce particularly enlightening or useful comparisons. It was clear that embracing professional arena characteristics was rated higher by event managers at arenas with higher capacities and with fewer years of experience. Those two comparisons were statistically significant. Also, event managers who rated embracing professional characteristics higher administered .86 more training hours, but generalizations cannot be made with a p-value only approaching significance at .085.

Research Question 3

The research question 3 findings must be considered very initial and exploratory findings with a small likelihood of generalizability. Because a principle component analysis to group the 53 cultural items together was unsuccessful, 53 separate t-tests were run and the inflated probability of type one error must be considered. However, within this sample of event managers, there are some interesting findings. There were eight individual cultural items that seemed to be viewed differently between internal and external event managers. Comparing differences between internal and external event managers’ perceptions only created p-values below .05 for six values. The type one

error probability may not be as big of an issue for this research question, considering the null hypothesis (there is no difference) was only rejected for six of 53 items. These findings may suggest that the cultures of internal and external management groups differ in a few ways.

The sampled external event managers viewed adaptability and evolving with new trends, paying attention to detail, high expectations for performance, high pay for good performance, stressing thorough training for all workers, and embracing professional arena characteristics as more characteristic than the sampled internal event managers did. All of these comparisons produced p-values below .05. These findings show that, within this sample, external event managers believe their organizations' members will adapt and evolve, pay more attention to detail, have higher expectations for performance, feel as if they are more fairly compensated, place more emphasis on training, and, predictably, embrace professional arena qualities more readily than their internal counterparts.

The cultural values that produced differences approaching a .05 p-value were getting the most out of limited resources and maintaining the collegiate amateur model. Based on their responses, sampled internal event managers viewed getting the most of limited resources and maintaining the collegiate amateur model as more characteristic of their organizations' cultures. While these differences were not significant and may not be generalizable to the entire population, they provide an initial look into the possibility that external organizations may not feel as much pressure to stretch limited resources as far as they can or to maintain a collegiate model.

While this study is exploratory in nature, the differences in external and internal cultural perceptions for items like adaptability, high pay, high expectations, stressing thorough training, maintaining collegiate models, and embracing professional characteristics do provide initial evidence validating the use of organizational culture theory. Southall and Nagel (2005) found that there were different subcultures within the larger conference and athletic department cultures of a

sampled athletic conference and its members. Differences in Organizational Culture Profiles were found between different universities, male/female sport coaches, and revenue/non-revenue sport coaches. The current research shows that there are at least some differences between the cultures of internal and external management organizations. These differences provide initial evidence for the possibility of two event management subcultures within the broader collegiate basketball event management culture. The internal/external competing cultural influences described in the Tierney (1988), Kuh and Whitt (1988), and Schroder (2010) university and athletic department cultural framework were also validated by these findings.

It is crucial to note that the Organizational Culture Profile instrument used in this study was modified from its original creation. A study administering the instrument as it was originally intended would be very beneficial. Originally, participants were required to place each item into a category ranging from very uncharacteristic to very characteristic. They were forced to only place two items at the extremes and a specific number of items in each other category, creating a normal distribution. Participants in the current study chose along a five-point Likert scale for each item. The organizational culture findings for internal and external event management organizations may have been very different if the original forced choice methodology could have been administered. The fact that a principal component analysis was ineffective in the current research highlights the importance of the Q-sort forced choice methodology used by O'Reilly et al (1992), Southall (2000), and Southall et al. (2005). Future researchers should administer the OCP instrument through the previously utilized forced choice methodology to obtain more valid and reliable results.

Implications and Limitations

The overarching implications of this study appear to be that external event management organizations at BCS AQ arenas with higher capacities and attendance numbers utilize more thorough event-staff training, training evaluation, compensation, and communication techniques

than internal event organizations Non-BCS AQ arenas with lower capacities and attendance numbers do. While many of the findings seem to support this implication, this research is exploratory and general in nature. The results may not be generalizable due to a voluntary sample non-response bias. The main variables of interest, percent of staff compensated and training hours, had large variances and moderate differences, even when they were statistically significant. This is important because membership in any of the identified categories does not definitively correspond with a given event management organization utilizing techniques similar to organizations in this sample.

This research did not involve in-depth analysis into specific training programs or event management techniques. The purpose of the research was predominantly to establish an initial collection of current quantifiable practices in event-staff management and analyze differences in those practices between pre-determined groups of arenas. The initial practices have been compiled for 122 arenas hosting Division I NCAA Men's Basketball competitions. Moving forward, this database can be used for comparisons and references within the event management field.

Conclusions and Call for Future Research

While this research provides an exploratory look into current event staffing practices and the methods used by different groups of event management organizations, there are some initial conclusions and takeaways. Based on the research, event managers should put more emphasis on briefing and debriefing all event-staff members. This is an essential form of event supervision and communication that some organizations are lacking. The wide range in amount of training demonstrates that many event managers should consider conducting much more training than they currently are, based on the large discrepancy between their training hour responses and the responses of many of their colleagues. Event managers should also strive to foster a culture within their organization that corresponds with desired actions and practices.

Analyzing the differences between groups of arenas within this sample revealed that BCS AQ arenas are conducting greater amounts and possibly more sophisticated methods of event-staff training, training evaluation, compensation, preparation, and communication. Similarly, the external organizations within this sample reported greater amounts and potentially more sophisticated methods of the same elements. While BCS AQ arenas are accommodating larger crowds and most likely have greater resources, Non-BCS AQ arenas should endeavor to emulate BCS AQ arena's staffing practices and look to them for comparisons and best practices. Also, 36.2 percent of the sampled internal arenas currently outsource the training or supervision of some category of their event-staff. It would be inappropriate to use the current findings to recommend that universities completely outsource the management and operation of their arenas. However, these findings indicated that it might be beneficial for more University event management units to consult with or consider partnering with external event management companies, for at least some aspects of their event operations.

The current research has laid the groundwork for a quantitative database of arena and management demographics and event-staffing practices across Division I Men's Basketball. This database can and should be expanded to include more arenas and decrease the voluntary non-response bias. However, to more thoroughly investigate event staffing practices, training methods, training evaluation methods, and staff compensation, researchers should conduct more specific and in-depth analysis within individual athletic departments and external management organizations. Select organizations with a variety of profiles (internal, external, professional arena, university concert hall, new, old, small, large, etc.) should be examined through a combination of quantitative and qualitative analysis.

The qualitative analysis should include examination of event management handbooks and manuals as well as staffing and training programs and protocols. Researchers should also interview

event managers regarding the development of their staff assignments, training, compensation, and communication techniques; management philosophies and ideologies; and specific causes or foundations of staff management practices. Researchers would be able to provide a more thorough understanding and collection of current practices in staff management and training by looking into how event managers make these decisions. This would build on the current research's database of what and how much event managers are doing.

Future researchers should also work to establish industry standards and best practices in event staffing and event staff management. With no industry standards to compare the current findings to, the findings can only be described as current practices in event-staff management. A more thorough survey to all event managers as well as industry experts, leaders, and researchers at the collegiate, professional, and international level could be useful to establish these standards. To establish standards or best practices, the survey should be structured so that participants could respond with what they think should be done in addition to what they are currently doing.

Appendix A

O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell's Organizational Profile Item Set

Instructions to participants: Important values may be expressed in the form of norms or shared expectations about what's important, how to behave, or what attitudes are appropriate. Please sort the 54 values into a row of nine categories, placing at one end of the row those cards that you consider to be the most characteristic aspects of the culture of your organization, and at the other end those cards that you believe to be the least characteristic.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. Flexibility | 31. Achievement orientation |
| 2. Adaptability | 32. Being demanding |
| 3. Stability | 33. Taking individual responsibility |
| 4. Predictability | 34. Having high expectations for performance |
| 5. Being innovative | 35. Opportunities for professional growth |
| 6. Being quick to take advantage of opportunities | 36. High pay for good performance |
| 7. A willingness to experiment | 37. Security of employment |
| 8. Risk taking | 38. Offers praise for good performance |
| 9. Being careful | 39. Low level of conflict |
| 10. Autonomy | 40. Confronting conflict directly |
| 11. Being rule oriented | 41. Developing friends at work |
| 12. Being analytical | 42. Fitting in |
| 13. Paying attention to detail | 43. Working in collaboration with others |
| 14. Being precise | 44. Enthusiasm for the job |
| 15. Being team oriented | 45. Working long hours |
| 16. Sharing information freely | 46. Not being constrained by many rules |
| 17. Emphasizing a single culture throughout the organization | 47. An emphasis on quality |
| 18. Being people oriented | 48. Being distinctive-different from others |
| 19. Fairness | 49. Having a good reputation |
| 20. Respect for the individual's right | 50. Being socially responsible |
| 21. Tolerance | 51. Being results oriented |
| 22. Informality | 52. Having a clear guiding philosophy |
| 23. Being easy going | 53. Being competitive |
| 24. Being calm | 54. Being highly organized |
| 25. Being supportive | |
| 26. Being aggressive | |
| 27. Decisiveness | |
| 28. Action orientation | |
| 29. Taking initiative | |
| 30. Being reflective | |

Appendix B

Modified Organizational Culture Profile

Instructions: Important values may be expressed in the form of norms or shared expectations about what's important, how to behave, or what attitudes are appropriate. Please read each value statement and decide how characteristic you perceive each of these values to be within the culture of your organization. Please select a number along the scale for each question corresponding with how characteristic you believe it is for members of your organization to use the value as a guiding principle in their actions and decision making.

****When rating your organization's values, consider the group of individuals responsible for supervising the event staff. For example, your arena event management staff or athletic department operations unit.**

1. Flexibility

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

2. Adaptability and evolving with new trends

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

3. Stability and tradition

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

4. Being innovative

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

5. A willingness to experiment

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

6. Risk taking

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

7. Being careful

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

8. Autonomy

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

9. Being rule oriented

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

10. Paying attention to detail

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

11. Being precise

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

12. Being team oriented

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

13. Being people oriented

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

14. Fairness

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

15. Respect for individual's rights

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

16. Tolerance

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

17. Informality

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

18. Being calm

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

19. Being supportive

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

20. Decisiveness

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

21. Taking action

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

22. Taking initiative

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

23. Being demanding

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

24. Taking individual responsibility

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

25. Having high expectations for performance

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

26. High pay for good performance

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

27. Security of employment

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

28. Offers praise for good performance

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

29. Preventing conflict

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

30. Confronting conflict directly

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

31. Developing relationships

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

32. Fitting in

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

33. Working in collaboration with others

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

34. Enthusiasm for the job

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

35. Working long hours

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

36. Not being constrained by many rules

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

37. An emphasis on quality

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

38. Being distinctive – different from others

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

39. Having a good reputation

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

40. Being socially responsible

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

41. Being results oriented

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

42. Having a clear guiding philosophy

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

43. Being competitive

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

44. Being highly organized

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

45. Treating all patrons the same

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

46. Ensuring special treatment for VIP patrons

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

47. Sacrificing guest services for increased security

(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

48. Sacrificing security for guest services (shorter lines, less perceived invasion of privacy)
(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

49. Getting the most out of limited resources
(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

50. Spending whatever is necessary to ensure highest level of security and customer satisfaction
(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

51. Stressing thorough training for all workers
(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

52. Maintaining collegiate amateur model
(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

53. Embracing professional arena characteristics, qualities, and amenities
(1) Not Characteristic....(2) Slightly Characteristic....(3) Moderately Characteristic....(4) Very Characteristic (5) Extremely Characteristic N/A

Appendix C

Event Management Profile

Arena and Management Demographics:

****Do you supervise the event operations at the Division I men's basketball games hosted at your arena? Specifically, do you recruit, train, and/or supervise the event staff at Division I men's basketball games at your facility, including ticket takers, bag checkers/searchers, security personnel, ushers, gate supervisors, and/or usher supervisors?**

If no, survey respondent will receive this message:

"Please forward the e-mail you received from Hunter Culbertson the individual with the responsibilities listed above at your arena. Please respond to the e-mail if you are not the correct individual to let the researcher know. Any contact information for the correct individual would be greatly appreciated."

If yes, the remainder of the survey will be administered:

Arena Name: _____

College/University Competing at Your Arena: _____

Athletic Conference Affiliation: _____

1. The organization responsible for overseeing event operations at intercollegiate home basketball games at your arena is:
 - a. A department within the university athletic department
 - b. An organization outside of the university athletic department
2. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
 - a. High School Diploma
 - b. Bachelor's Degree
 - c. Master's Degree
 - d. PhD or Doctoral Degree
3. How many years of experience working in a management/supervisory role in athletic event operations at the intercollegiate, professional, or international/national amateur do you have?

Numerical open response into a field
4. What is the average attendance of regular season intercollegiate men's basketball games held at your arena?

Numerical open response into a field

5. What is the capacity of your arena?
Numerical open response into a field

Event Operations:

Please answer the following questions for a typical home regular season intercollegiate men's basketball game at you arena:

1. What is the average number of law enforcement officers at an event?
Numerical open response into a field
2. What is the average number of emergency medical personnel at an event?
Numerical open response into a field

****When answering the following questions pertaining to "event staff," include security and guest services staff defined below only. Do not include full time event operations employees, such as yourself, whose full time job is to oversee event operations. Please count only the following:**

- Ticket Takers
- Bag Checkers/Searchers
- Entry Gate Supervisors
- Security Personnel (not including law enforcement officers)
- Greeters and Guest Information Staff
- Ushers
- Usher Supervisors
- Concourse Supervisors

3. What is the average number of "event staff" at an event?
Numerical open response into a field
4. What percentage of your "event staff" receives direct monetary compensation (salary, hourly wage, stipend, or a per shift payment, directly to them) in exchange for working at the event?
Numerical open response into a field
5. Do all members of your "event staff" participate in a pre-event briefing session?
yes/no
6. Do all members of your "event staff" participate in a post-event debriefing session?
yes/no

7. Do you outsource the training and supervision of any of the aforementioned categories of “event staff” to another organization?
 - 7a. If yes, please select the categories of “event staff” trained by an organization outside of your own. Select all that apply
 - ☐ Ticket Takers
 - ☐ Bag Checkers/Searchers
 - ☐ Entry Gate Supervisors
 - ☐ Security Personnel (not including law enforcement officers)
 - ☐ Greeters and Guest Information Staff
 - ☐ Ushers
 - ☐ Usher Supervisors
 - ☐ Concourse Supervisors

8. For all event staff trained and supervised directly by your organization, how many hours of training do they receive, on average, prior to working an event? Please include fractions of an hour if it is less than one hour.
 Numerical open response into a field

9. When training your staff, do you have a pre-training discussion about the contents and/or importance of the training to be administered?
 yes/no

10. When training your staff, do you have a post-training discussion about what was learned, barriers to use new skills, and/or an emphasis on the expectation that the trainee would use the new skills?
 yes/no

11. Do you evaluate the effectiveness of the training received by your event staff?
 - 11a. If yes, in what way do you evaluate that training? Select all that apply:
 - ☐ Surveying or questioning participants about their reaction to the training
 - ☐ Administering written or performance tests to demonstrate learning after the training program
 - ☐ Measuring behavioral change on the job, including specific application of knowledge and skills delivered in the training program
 - ☐ Measuring the business impact of the training on specific business results, such as cost savings, output increases, improved response time, customer retention, customer satisfaction, and profitability
 - ☐ Calculating a financial return on investment for your training
 - ☐ Other: Please describe other ways you evaluate the effectiveness of training

Appendix D

Recruitment E-mail

Dear Event Manager,

My name is Hunter Culbertson, and I am a graduate student in the sport administration program at UNC Chapel Hill. I am interning with UNC Athletic Operations and working on my master's thesis before pursuing a career in intercollegiate athletics. For my thesis project, I am collecting and analyzing current practices in Division I men's basketball event staff management and the effect of organizational culture on staffing practices.

I believe this collection of practices will be very valuable to everyone in the collegiate event management field. The greater the participation, the more significant the report will be. In appreciation of your time, I will be happy to provide you with a summary of my results at the conclusion of the research. If you would like a copy of the results please e-mail me at hunterculbertson@gmail.com

I realize the day-to-day activities of working in event management keep you extremely busy, but if you could please spare 5-10 minutes to complete this online questionnaire, it would be greatly appreciated. Please Click the link below to access the survey. By clicking the survey link you are consenting to take part in the research study. -

https://uncodum.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_1SngBx4AFvTu2Fu

Due to the timing of my research, please complete your survey by Monday February 27th if you choose to participate.

****Please read the remainder of this e-mail for important consent information, contact information, and if you are unsure if you qualify as a participant:

****This survey is intended to be completed by an individual who supervises the event operations and event staff of NCAA Division I men's basketball games hosted at your facility**.**

If you are not this individual, please forward this e-mail to the person with those responsibilities at your arena. Please also respond to my e-mail to inform me. Contact information for the correct individual would be greatly appreciated.

You may skip any question, or part of any question, that you do not wish to answer. If you have any questions or concerns, please contact me. You may also contact my advisor or the UNC Institutional Review Board (IRB # 11-2470). All contact information is listed below.

Data included in the final report, presented, or published will only be reported in the aggregate.

While conferences may be identified by name; individual arenas, organizations, or universities will only be identified with anonymous placeholders.

Thanks so much for your time and assistance.

Sincerely,

Hunter Culbertson
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill
Master of Arts Candidate, Sport Administration
(704) 519-7962
hunterculbertson@gmail.com

Additional Contact Information:

Richard Southall – Advisor
Associate professor – UNC CH EXSS
(919) 962-3507
southall@unc.edu

UNC Institutional Review Board (IRB)
(919) 966-3113
irb_questions@unc.edu

Appendix E

Reminder E-mail

Dear Event Manager,

If you have already completed the survey I e-mailed out two weeks ago, I would like to thank you for doing so. Your participation in this research is very appreciated. If you have not already done so, please e-mail me indicating an interest in the results of the research. I will be happy to e-mail out a summary of the results in early April.

If you have not yet had an opportunity to complete the survey, I would like to invite you again to participate in this research. Currently working in Collegiate Event Management myself, I understand how busy your days can be. However, if you could take 10 minutes out of your day to complete my survey, I would sincerely appreciate it. I believe the research will be very useful to the entire collegiate event management industry.

For my thesis project, I am collecting and analyzing current practices in Division I men's basketball event staff management and the effect of organizational culture on staffing practices.

Please Click the link below to access the survey. By clicking the survey link you are consenting to take part in the research study. - https://uncodum.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_1SngBx4AFvTu2Fu

Due to the timing of my research, please complete your survey by Monday February 27th if you choose to participate.

****Please read the remainder of this e-mail for important consent information, contact information, and if you are unsure if you qualify as a participant:

****This survey is intended to be completed by an individual who supervises the event operations and event staff of NCAA Division I men's basketball games hosted at your facility**.**

If you are not this individual, please forward this e-mail to the person with those responsibilities at your arena. Please also respond to my e-mail to inform me. Contact information for the correct individual would be greatly appreciated.

You may skip any question, or part of any question, that you do not wish to answer. If you have any questions or concerns, please contact me. You may also contact my advisor or the UNC Institutional Review Board (IRB # 11-2470). All contact information is listed below.

Data included in the final report, presented, or published will only be reported in the aggregate.

While conferences may be identified by name; individual arenas, organizations, or universities will only be identified with anonymous placeholders.

Thanks so much for your time and assistance.

Sincerely,

Hunter Culbertson
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill
Master of Arts Candidate, Sport Administration
(704) 519-7962
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Additional Contact Information:
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southall@unc.edu

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Appendix F

Internal and External Management Cultural Comparisons

1= Not Characteristic, 2= Slightly Characteristic, 3 = Moderately Characteristic,
4 = Very Characteristic, 5 = Extremely Characteristic

Value	Internal Mean	Internal Standard Deviation	External Mean	External Standard Deviation	Difference
Flexibility	4.05	.741	4.18	.670	.133
Adaptability and evolving with new trends	3.63	.835	4.00	.920	.375
Stability and tradition	3.83	.955	4.04	.744	.208
Being innovative	3.38	1.009	3.70	.993	.329
A willingness to experiment	3.40	1.034	3.41	.888	.010
Risk taking	2.76	.927	2.78	1.121	.019
Being careful	4.19	.756	4.19	.834	.008
Autonomy	3.49	.811	3.74	.859	.247
Being rule oriented	3.85	.878	4.00	.920	.148
Paying attention to detail	4.11	.863	4.52	.580	.405
Being precise	4.06	.822	4.15	.534	.091
Being team oriented	4.25	.852	4.34	.694	.155
Being people oriented	4.34	.806	4.58	.643	.240
Fairness	3.91	.734	4.12	.711	.210
Respect for individuals' rights	4.27	.769	4.15	.613	.119
Tolerance	3.97	.837	3.93	.550	.040
Informality	3.34	.810	3.04	.898	.304
Being calm	4.03	.633	3.92	.891	.111
Being supportive	4.08	.665	4.30	.609	.217
Decisiveness	3.73	.867	4.04	.808	.310
Taking action	3.85	.896	4.11	.801	.261
Taking initiative	3.72	.958	3.96	.854	.247
Being demanding	3.17	.887	3.00	1.058	.170
Taking individual responsibility	3.76	1.017	4.00	.784	.239
Having high expectations for performance	4.02	.933	4.42	.758	.400
High pay for good performance	2.26	.895	2.81	1.132	.543
Security of employment	3.55	.912	3.69	.838	.141
Praise for good performance	3.74	1.045	3.85	.818	.113
Preventing conflict	3.72	.697	3.63	.629	.091
Confronting conflict directly	3.49	1.061	3.81	.736	.326
Developing relationships	4.13	.770	4.26	.656	.134
Fitting in	3.74	.710	3.64	.757	.101
Working in collaboration with others	4.02	.792	4.22	.641	.199
Enthusiasm for the job	3.92	.810	4.12	.711	.196

Value	Internal Mean	Internal Standard Deviation	External Mean	External Standard Deviation	Difference
Working long hours	4.28	.816	4.42	.857	.139
Not being constrained by many rules	2.92	.936	3.19	.981	.274
An emphasis on quality	4.10	.728	4.31	.618	.205
Being distinctive/different from others	3.26	.920	3.31	.970	.046
Having a good reputation	4.11	.784	4.31	.679	.193
Being socially responsible	4.06	.684	4.16	.688	.103
Being results oriented	3.73	.798	3.96	.824	.234
Having a clear guiding philosophy	3.74	.855	3.85	.967	.111
Being competitive	3.63	1.003	3.38	1.013	.256
Being highly organized	4.03	.855	4.00	.866	.034
Treating all patrons the same	3.88	.818	4.04	.916	.155
Ensuring special treatment for VIP Patrons	4.02	.831	4.08	1.093	.053
Sacrificing guest services for increased security	2.77	1.045	2.62	1.169	.158
Sacrificing security for guest services (ex. shorter lines)	2.68	1.147	2.69	1.123	.010
Getting the most out of limited resources	4.34	.696	4.04	.720	.299
Spending whatever is necessary to ensure highest level of security and guest services	2.74	1.257	2.96	.999	.217
Stressing thorough training for all workers	2.91	1.019	3.65	.892	.746
Maintaining the collegiate amateur model	3.85	.925	3.41	1.182	.436
Embracing professional arena characteristics, qualities, and amenities	3.02	1.236	3.92	.974	.893

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