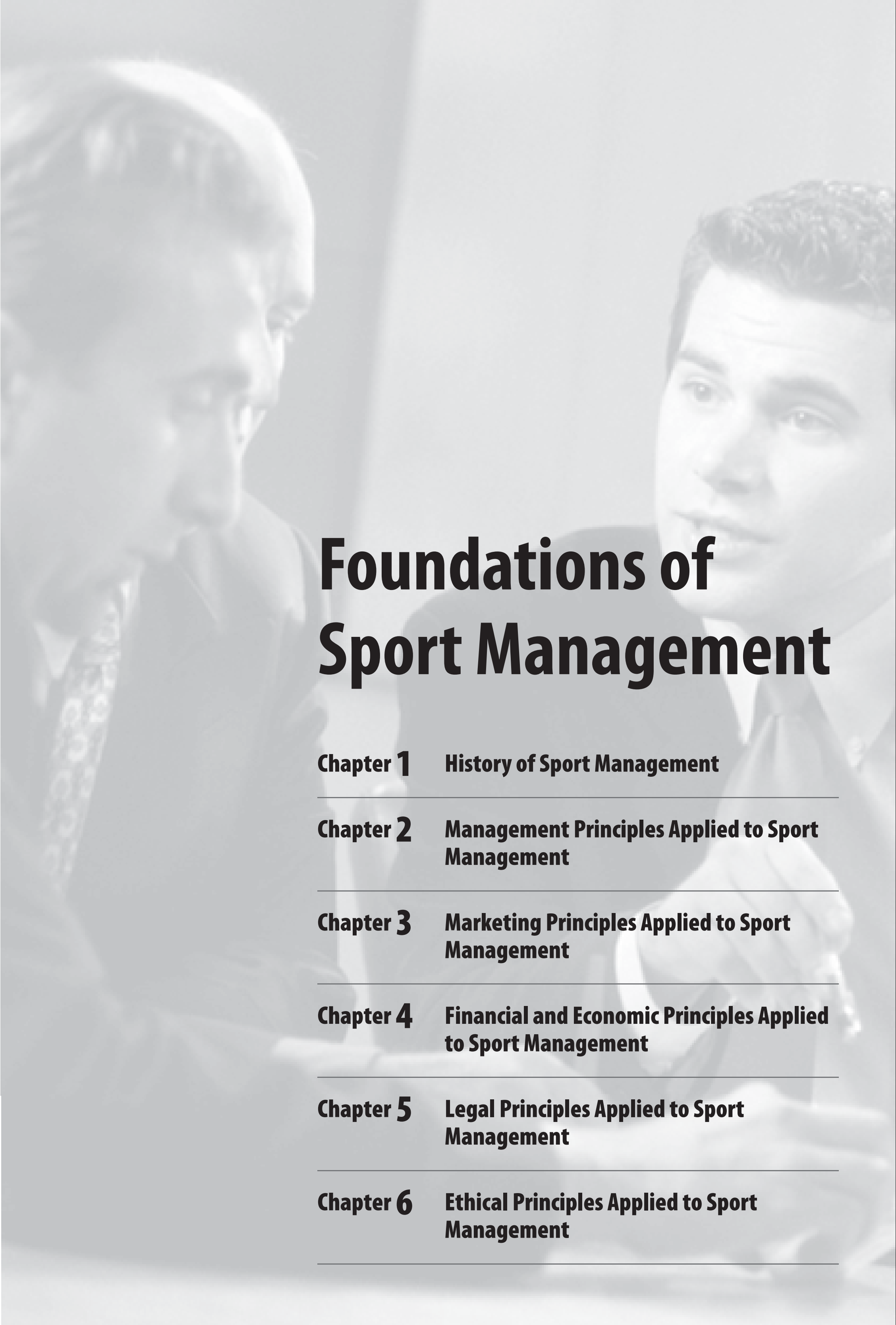

PART 1

Foundations of Sport Management

CHAPTER

1

History of Sport Management

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INTRODUCTION

The contemporary sport industry is complex and has unique legal, business, and management practices. As a result, many of the ways we organize this industry are unique, too. The organization of sport developed over the past 150 or so years and continues to evolve. Most recently, for example, sport managers have been tinkering with structures such as conference alignments, drafts, and playoff systems.

This chapter explores the roots of our modern **sport management structures**. The management structures of sport reviewed in this chapter are **clubs**, **leagues**, and **professional tournaments**. These structures help managers organize sport and are the basic building blocks of many of our sports today. The chapter also addresses the development of the sport management academic discipline, which came along as the need for trained sport management professionals became apparent.

The primary theme of this chapter is that sport management structures are conceived and evolve in response to broad social changes or to address specific issues within a segment of the sport industry, or both. The evolution of these structures illustrates that sport managers need to be creative in the ways they run their sport organizations. One particular management structure won't work in all situations. History suggests that sport managers who are flexible and adapt to broader changes in society and who have a keen sense of their sport are the most successful. This chapter gives a few examples of innovative and successful sport managers.

Many events have shaped the world of sport and the sport industry. While it is nearly impossible to create a time line that hits all the highlights, we have placed one at the end of this chapter for your reference. The time line includes the founding dates of many sport organizations as well as a number of "firsts" in the sport industry in terms of events. Try thinking about events or people you would add to this time line—it is a good conversation starter!

Two secondary themes run throughout this brief examination of the history of sport management structures: honesty and inclusion. The legitimacy of modern sport demands honest play, or at least the appearance of honest play. Nothing in sport is more reviled than the athlete who does not try. An athlete who does not put out an honest effort is a spoilsport. Players who throw games are sellouts. So critical is the perception of an honest effort that sport managers will kick people out of a sport for life if they tarnish the game by the mere possibility they bet on their team to lose (e.g., Pete Rose).

The appearance of an honest effort is one of the most important precepts organizing modern sport. It is more important, for example, than fair play or equality of competition. Although there are structures leveling the playing field (e.g., drafts, salary caps), disparities among teams remain, giving some teams advantages over others. The public is much more tolerant of players breaking the rules when trying to win than it is of players throwing games. The public's notion of what ensures an honest effort changes over time. One issue addressed throughout this chapter is how sport managers have changed or adapted sport to ensure the appearance of honesty as broader structures have changed.

Another issue this chapter explores is the tension between democratic inclusiveness and the regulation of participation. The desire to create a meritocracy is implicit in modern sport—if you are good enough, you should play. But, by necessity, in any form of organized sport there are rules limiting who is allowed to participate. For example, most contemporary sports leagues or teams have age and gender requirements. International governing bodies as well as local leagues have citizenship and residency requirements. Athletes who have just moved to a new nation or town are sometimes excluded from participating in sports.

Answering the questions "Who gets to play?", "Who is encouraged to watch?", and "Who is left out?" requires both an understanding of sport-specific issues and broader social issues. When it comes to who gets to play, what seems "fair" at a particular juncture in history often reflects broader social beliefs. For example, not long ago it would have been unthinkable for women to compete against men on the Professional Golfers' Association (PGA) tour. Although it is still unusual, women have competed in PGA tournaments; Michelle Wie has played against men in 14 tournaments, including eight PGA Tour events. Both Wie and Si Re Pak have made the cuts in Asian men's competitions as well.

Historically, the groups with the most power have often defined the limits of participation, usually to their benefit. Sport in the first half of the twentieth century, for example, developed along with the eugenics movement, legal racial segregation, and an ideology of white racial superiority in the United States and South Africa. For many generations, mainstream sport structures in the United States and South Africa either excluded or limited participation by people of color. These structures reflected and promoted an ideology of white racial superiority.

Notions of what makes for honest play and who should be allowed to play or watch sport change over time. Sport managers have adapted sport to reflect changes in the broader society.

THE CLUB SYSTEM: SPORTS AND COMMUNITY

England is the birthplace of modern sport and sport management (Mandell, 1984). The roots of most Western sports, including track and field, all the variations of football, and stick-and-ball games such as baseball, field hockey, and cricket, can be traced to England. The broad influence of England's sporting culture is the result of the British Empire's imperial power in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Britain had colonies all over the world and took her sports to all of them.

The continuing influence of the British sports tradition after the empire's demise has as much to do with how the English organized sport as it does with England's political and cultural domination. Even sports that originated outside England, such as basketball, gymnastics, and golf, initially adopted English sport organizational structures.

In the eighteenth century, the English aristocracy, made up of nobles and the landed gentry, began to develop sports clubs. Membership in these clubs was limited to the politically and economically powerful of English society. The earliest clubs simply organized one-time events or annual competitions and brought members together for social events. By the nineteenth century, clubs standardized rules, settled disputes between clubs, and organized seasons of competitions.

Thoroughbred racing was one of the first sports transformed by the club management system. Other English sports, such as cricket, rugby union, and soccer, also adopted a similar club management structure. The focus here is on thoroughbred racing simply because it is the earliest example of club management.

Thoroughbred Racing

Early races were local events, often associated with holidays or horse sales. By the mid-eighteenth century, thoroughbred racing and breeding had established a broad following among the English aristocracy. Local groups of breeders organized races. Horse owners arranged the events, put up purses, and invited participants to show off their best horses and demonstrate their prestige.

At this time horse racing was managed on a local level. The organization was essentially a volunteer system of management, controlled by the same wealthy men who owned the horses and estates. Despite the extreme stratification of eighteenth-century English society, horse races drew a broad and diverse audience. All levels of society attended races. The owners, the elite of the community, in keeping with tradition and meeting their social obligation to entertain the masses, did not charge admission.

Even though horse races were important for demonstrating prestige, they were rarely the primary business interest of the horse owners who controlled the sport. Consequently, seventeenth-century horse racing and sport remained largely separate from the growing capitalist economy. Horse racing existed primarily for the entertainment of wealthy club members and did not have to be an independent, self-supporting financial entity. This system gave horse racing the appearance of honesty. The public believed that the aristocracy—men of breeding, culture, and wealth—would not be tempted by bribes, influenced by petty feuds, or swayed to make unfair decisions.

The local club system governed the sport successfully as long as racing remained local. Soon, however, two factors combined to create a need for more systematic management: (a) the desire of owners to breed and train the fastest horses in England and (b) the increasing complexity of gambling.

As the elite gained prestige for owning the fastest horses, horses were bred for no other purpose than to win races. Speed was appreciated for its own sake, distinct from its religious, military, or economic purpose—a uniquely modern phenomenon (Mandell, 1984). Races usually consisted of a series of four-mile heats. The ideal horse combined speed with endurance.

By the 1830s rail transportation enabled owners to compete nationally. Local-level management governing area breeders, owners, and jockeys had worked well because of the familiarity among all involved, but national competition meant race organizers now managed participants they did not know very well, if at all. Thus, managing thoroughbred racing needed to become more systematic.

Gambling on thoroughbred horse races was common among all classes. Much as speed became appreciated for its own merits, betting on thoroughbred races began to be appreciated for its own value. Gambling not only provided exciting entertainment but also provided bettors with tangible evidence of their knowledge of horses and ability to predict who would win (Mandell, 1984).

Gambling also ensured honest competition. The crowd policed the jockeys. At that time, horse racing was a head-to-head competition. Races were a series of four-mile runs. The winning horse had to win two out of three races. If the crowd suspected a jockey had allowed the other contestant to win, the crowd would punish that jockey, often physically.

By the eighteenth century, innovations to the sport designed to draw larger audiences and enhance the ways spectators could wager also made the gambling system more complex. The English created handicapping, tip sheets, and sweepstakes; used the stopwatch to time races; standardized race distances; and added weights to horses. All of these innovations enhanced the public's interest in the sport. As the influence and importance of gambling grew and the systems of weights and handicapping leveled the playing field, the opportunity for a "fixed" race to go undetected also increased. All the enhancements and innovations made it difficult for the audience to detect when and how races were fixed. As a result, conventional methods could not be counted on to police the sport (Henriches, 1991).

The Jockey Club: The Birth of Club Governance

The roots of the management system in thoroughbred racing can be traced to around 1750, when a group of noble patrons in Newmarket established the **Jockey Club**. This group's responsibility was to settle disputes, establish rules, determine eligibility, designate officials, regulate breeding, and punish unscrupulous participants. The club organized, sponsored, and promoted local events (Vamplew, 1989). Like other local clubs, members of the Newmarket Jockey Club put up the purse money and restricted entries to thoroughbreds owned by club members.

The effective organization and management of thoroughbred racing in Newmarket made it a national hub for the sport. Local champions faced challenges from owners outside their region. The Jockey Club sponsored prestigious races that attracted horse owners from across England. As the need grew for a strong national governing body to establish rules and standards and to create a mechanism for resolving disputes, the Jockey Club from Newmarket emerged to serve those functions (Henriches, 1991).

Some of the lasting contributions the Jockey Club made to racing included sponsoring a stud book listing the lineage of thoroughbreds, helping ensure the purity of the breed; promoting a series of race schedules; announcing, regulating, and reporting on horse sales; and restricting the people involved with thoroughbred breeding and racing to the English elite. The Jockey Club served as a model for wider sport management practices in England.

Cricket, boxing, and other English sports adopted the management and organizational structures developed in thoroughbred horse racing. In each case, one club emerged as the coordinating and controlling body of the sport, not out of a formal process but by collective prominence. The Marylebone Cricket Club, for example, revised the rules of cricket in 1788 and became the international governing club for the entire sport (Williams, 1989). In 1814, the Pugilist Society was formed by a group of gentlemen to regulate bare-knuckle boxing and guarantee purses. Even sports such as association football (soccer) and rugby, which were organized much later, adopted the club organizational structure (Henriches, 1991).

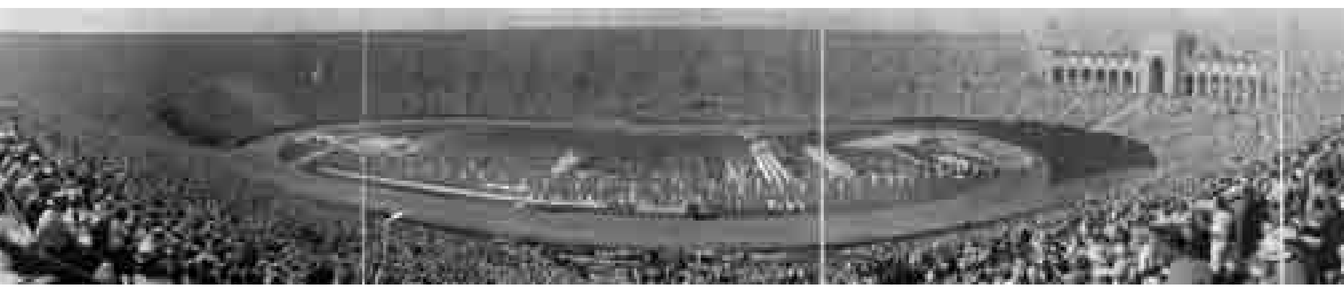
Club structure depended on the appearance of fairness, loyal support, and volunteer management for its success. The aristocrats who managed and sponsored sport were presumed to be honest and disinterested, giving spectators the sense that competition was fair. Fairness was cultivated through the reputation of sport organizers and their nonprofit motives. Loyalty to specific clubs was cultivated through membership.

The Modern Olympic Games: An International Club Event

The club structure is also the foundation for the **modern Olympic Games**. Indeed, the early games can be viewed as an international club event. Created at the peak of the club system, the modern Olympic Games resemble international club events much more than they do the ancient games for which they are named. The ancient Games, at least initially, were part of a larger religious ceremony and were initially only for male Greek citizens. These games existed for 1,169 years and over time became an international gathering of athletes. The games were discontinued in AD 393, although they were held in some form until AD 521 (Ministry of Culture–General Secretariat for Sports, 1998). Almost 15 centuries would pass before an international Olympic Games would be revived in another form.

Although 1896 marked the first official staging of the modern Olympic Games, Olympic-like festivals and revivals had been organized on a local level in England much earlier. The most important in the revival of the Games was the annual festival at Much Wenlock, Shropshire, started in 1850 by Dr. William Penny Brookes. As a logical extension to his annual games, Brookes organized the Shropshire Olympian Association in 1861, which led to the founding of the National Olympian Association four years later (Young, 1996).

The current International Olympic Committee's founding conference for the modern Olympic Games was held in 1894. **Pierre de Coubertin**, a young French physical educator who was influenced by Brookes' vision of an International Olympic Games, Professor William Sloane of Princeton University, and Charles Herbert, Secretary of the (British) Amateur Athletics Association, were the initiating forces behind this meeting, which they dubbed an "international athletic congress." More than 70 attendees representing 37 amateur athletic clubs and associations from at least a dozen



different nations came to the congress. The primary focus of the congress was the meaning and application of the concept of amateurism. De Coubertin, inspired by the English Olympic revivals, the Victorian notion of character development through sport, and an international peace movement, argued for an Olympic festival at the meeting. These Games, he suggested, would be held every four years, in rotating sites, and participants would be amateur athletes. He proposed that the first Games be held in Paris in 1900. So receptive were the attendees that they voted to convene the Olympic Games in 1896 in Athens, Greece.

The first modern Olympic Games were a nine-day event and drew 311 athletes from 13 nations. The participants were exclusively amateurs. Most entrants were college students or athletic club members, because the concept of national teams had not yet emerged. Clubs such as the Boston Athletic Association, the Amateur Athletic Association, and the German Gymnastics Society sent the largest delegations. Spectators filled the newly built Panathinaiko Stadium to watch the Games, which featured nine sports: cycling, fencing, gymnastics, lawn tennis, shooting, swimming, track and field, weight lifting, and wrestling (Ministry of Culture–General Secretariat for Sports, 1998). For several Olympic Games following (Paris, St. Louis), the event floundered and did not hit solid footing until, not surprisingly, London hosted the Olympic Games in 1908. The Olympic Games are discussed in more detail in the chapter on international sport.

The Club Structure Today

Many contemporary sports and events have organizational roots in the club sport system. These include U.S. collegiate athletics and European football. Although the club system for the organization of elite sports is fading in some places, it is still a popular way to organize sport and recreation.

Some clubs remain committed to serving their broad membership and managing an elite sports enterprise. Many European football clubs and the Augusta National Golf Club, host of the Masters Golf Tournament, are examples of contemporary club governance. Larger clubs such as Olympiakos or Panathinaikos in Athens, Greece, provide recreation for members in addition to managing their high-profile teams or events. Clubs often organize youth teams and academies, adult recreational leagues, and social events such as dinners and dances for their members. Some club sports, like association football in Europe, have large built-in memberships and loyal fan bases and consequently rarely have a problem attracting crowds for their matches.

These organizations are characterized by their nonprofit status and exclusive membership. Challenges to the exclusive male-only membership policies of the Augusta National Golf Club, for example, have made headlines and have been met with stiff resistance from the leadership of the club itself.

Once the dominant management structure of elite sport, the club system is slowly being replaced by other sport management structures. Clearly, the Olympic Games have changed dramatically from the early days and now resemble the tournament structure discussed later in this chapter. Even European football, once the prime example of the club system, is changing. Elite European club teams such as Manchester United, Real Madrid, and Olympiakos are increasingly controlled by wealthy individuals and run like entertainment businesses (King, 1997).

Clubs are also no longer local in nature. Today's large clubs feature players from all over the world. For example, in the 2010 World Cup, players on the French soccer team played on clubs in a number of different countries, not just clubs in France. A look at the roster of the Real Madrid team lists players from not only Spain but also Brazil, Germany, and Argentina.

The emerging European sport management system has its roots in the U.S. professional sport league system that appeared in the nineteenth century. The league system in the United States developed when the English club system proved poorly suited to the economic and cultural atmosphere of nineteenth-century United States.

Sport Structures in the United States: Sport Clubs Adapt to a Different Culture

In the early 1800s, upper-class sports enthusiasts in the United States attempted to develop sports along the lines of the English club system but found limited success. The wealthy elite formed clubs throughout the nineteenth century, complete with volunteer management, but these clubs were not able to establish a place in U.S. culture the way clubs had done so in England and throughout Europe.

Whereas European clubs emphasized sport to attract large and broad memberships, the most prestigious clubs in the United States were primarily social clubs that did not sponsor sporting events. Athletic clubs, such as the New York Athletic Club, did not gain prestige until late in the century when the profit-oriented league system had already established a foothold on the cultural landscape in the United States (Gorn & Goldstein, 1993).

Nineteenth-century thoroughbred horse racing in the United States, although occasionally wildly popular, repeatedly fell on hard times. One obstacle to the club system in the United States was the country's lack of the aristocratic tradition that had given the club system both its means of support and its legitimacy in Europe. Another was the political power of religious fundamentalism, which periodically limited or prohibited gambling.

Out of the shadow of the struggling thoroughbred horse racing scene, a uniquely American sport developed: harness racing. The league structure, which dominates sport in the United States, grew out of the success and failure of harness racing in the 1830s and 1840s. As such, it is worthwhile understanding this transition between clubs and leagues.

Harness Racing: The First National Pastime and Professional Sport

Nineteenth-century harness racing was the sport of the common person, an early precursor of stock car racing. In the 1820s, the horse and buggy was not only commonplace, it was the preferred mode of transportation of a growing middle class. Many early harness races took place on hard-packed city streets, and anyone with a horse and buggy could participate. The sport was more inclusive than thoroughbred horse racing. The horses pulling the buggies were of no particular breeding. It was relatively inexpensive to own and maintain a horse, and

horses that worked and pulled wagons by day raced in the evening (Adelman, 1986).

As the popularity of informal harness races grew, enterprising racing enthusiasts staged races on the oval tracks built for thoroughbred racing. Track owners—whose business was suffering—were eager to rent their tracks to harness racers. Promoters began to offer participants purse money raised through modest entry fees and paid track owners rent by charging admission (Adelman, 1986).

The nineteenth-century middle class in the United States, including artisans, shopkeepers, dockworkers, clerks, and the like, was far more likely to participate in this sport than were wealthy merchants. Because harness racing lacked the elitist tradition of horse racing, the public believed the sport was its own and was more willing to pay admission to subsidize the events. Promoters counted on spectator interest, and participation grew. By the 1830s, harness racing surpassed thoroughbred racing as the most popular sport in the United States (Adelman, 1986).

Although harness racing was not always as dramatic as thoroughbred racing, it was a better spectator sport. A traditional horse racing event was a four-mile race. The races were so grueling that horses raced only once or twice a year. Consequently, it was difficult for individual horses to develop a reputation or following among fans. In contrast, harness racing was a sprint. Horses recovered quickly and could compete almost daily. Promoters offered spectators as many as a dozen races in an afternoon. Horses of any breed could race, ensuring a large field of competitors. These dynamics gave the public more races, excitement, and opportunities to gamble (Adelman, 1986).

The management structure of harness racing was also distinct from thoroughbred racing. Track owners and race promoters managed the sport. Unlike members of Jockey Clubs, these entrepreneurs' livelihood depended on gate revenues, and therefore they catered to spectators. Ideally, promoters tried to match the best horses against each other to build spectator interest.

This desire for intense competition, however, created problems for harness racing promoters. Potential contestants often tried to increase their chances of victory by avoiding races with other highly touted trotters. To ensure a high level of competition and "big name" competitors, innovative promoters began to offer the owners of the best and most famous trotters a percentage of the gate (Adelman, 1986).

Unfortunately, this arrangement led some participants and promoters to fix races in an effort to promote and create demand for future races. Highly regarded trotters traded victories so as to maintain spectator interest. Harness races were sometimes choreographed dramas. This practice violated the notion of honesty critical to a sport's success. Once the word got out that some races were fixed, harness racing lost its appeal with the public. Unlike members of the Jockey Club, harness racing promoters and participants lacked the reputation to convince the public that their races were legitimate. Ultimately, spectators lost faith in the integrity of the sport, and the race promoters, no matter how honest, lacked the legitimacy to convince the public otherwise. By the start of the Civil War, harness racing had lost its appeal and its audience (Adelman, 1986).

LEAGUES

Harness racing's popularity and commercial promise led sports enthusiasts and managers to further refine and develop a sport management system that would work in the United States. The result was the profit-oriented league, which baseball organizers pioneered in the 1870s. Baseball was the first sport to successfully employ the league structure.

William Hulbert's National League

At first, baseball was organized according to the club system. Club leaders organized practices, rented field time, and invited other clubs to meet and play. Loosely organized leagues formed, encouraged parity of competition, and regulated competition between social equals. For example, the Knickerbockers played their games in Hoboken, New Jersey, to ensure that they competed only against upper-class teams who could afford the ferry ride over and back from New York.

Only the best teams, such as the Cincinnati Red Stockings of 1869–1870, were able to sustain fan interest. This Cincinnati team was the first openly all-professional team. The Red Stockings' road trips to play eastern teams drew thousands of fans and earned enough to pay the team's travel expenses and player salaries. Then after two seasons of flawless play, the team lost three games at the end of the 1870 season. Despite the Red Stockings' impressive record, they were no longer considered champions, and their popularity fell along with revenue. The team disbanded prior to the next season (Seymour, 1960).

In the late 1860s and early 1870s a rift developed along social/class lines. Teams that paid their players a salary conflicted with teams that did not. The business elite in local communities managed both types of clubs, but there were subtle and growing class and ethnic differences among the participants.

In 1871, a group of professional baseball teams formed the **National Association of Professional Baseball Players** and split off from the amateur club system. Any club that was willing to pay its elite players could join. The league, like other club sports, still depended on the patronage of its well-off members and consequently lacked stability. Members managed and participated in sporting activities haphazardly, and the break-even financial interests of individual clubs carried more authority than any association of clubs. It was common for teams to form, fall apart, and re-form within a season (Adelman, 1986; Leifer, 1995; Seymour, 1960).

In 1876, **William Hulbert** took over management of the National Association and renamed the body the **National League of Professional Baseball Players**. Hulbert became known as the "Czar of Baseball" for his strong leadership of the game and his role as a major figure in the development of sport management in the United States. He believed baseball teams would become stable only if they were owned and run like businesses. Teams, like other firms, should compete against one another and not collude (secretly work together), as was the case in harness racing. Hulbert called the owners of the best baseball clubs in the National Association to a meeting in New York City. When they emerged from the meeting, the groundwork had been laid for the new National League of Professional Baseball Players. The initial members of the league were from Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, Hartford, Louisville, New York, Philadelphia, and St. Louis (Abrams, 1998).

Hulbert also understood that unless there were strict rules to ensure honest competition, baseball team owners would be tempted by collusion. For the National League to succeed, authority needed to rest with the league, not with a loose association of teams. Hulbert revamped the management of baseball to center on a league structure and created strong rules to enforce teams' allegiance (Leifer, 1995; Seymour, 1960).

Learning from earlier experiences of owners and supporters abandoning a team or season when it began to lose money, Hulbert structured the National League to force team owners to take a financial risk. Previously, teams had simply stopped playing when they began to lose money, much like a Broadway show. Hulbert understood how ending a season early to decrease short-term costs eroded the long-term faith of the public. In Hulbert's league, teams were expected to complete their schedules regardless of profit or loss.

Tying owners to a schedule resulted in costs from fielding bad teams and benefits from having a competitive team. Hulbert understood that fans would see that teams were in earnest competition with one another. The public would have faith that owners needing to win to increase their profits would put forth an honest effort.

Hulbert established the league's credibility by strictly enforcing these rules. In the first year of National League play, two struggling teams, Philadelphia and New York, did not play their final series. Even though the games would not have had an impact on league standings, Hulbert banned the two teams from the league (Leifer, 1995; Seymour, 1960; Vincent, 1994). The message was clear: The integrity of the league would not be compromised for the short-term financial interests of owners.

Hulbert also understood that the integrity of baseball was suspect as long as the players' honesty was questionable. Baseball became popular at the height of the Victorian period in the United States. Large segments of Middle America followed strict cultural conventions. Many followed religious regimes prohibiting gaming and drinking—staples of the sporting subculture. Hulbert needed to create a cultural product that did not offend the sensibilities of the middle and upper classes. To appeal to this large market segment, Hulbert prohibited betting at National League ballparks. He also prohibited playing games on Sunday and selling beer at ballparks. The Cincinnati club objected to the no-liquor rule and was ultimately expelled from the National League (Hickok Sports, n.d.). Hulbert tried to clean up the atmosphere at ballparks further by banning "unwholesome groups" and activities from the game. He raised ticket prices to decrease the number of working-class patrons and make the games more appealing to the "better" classes (Abrams, 1998).

The credibility of the players, many of them working-class immigrants, benefited from the widely held Victorian notion that a strong athletic body was a sign of strong moral character. The National League owners imposed curfews on the players to maintain their clean image. Hulbert policed the sport with a vengeance. Players caught gambling were banned from the league for life (Leifer, 1995; Seymour, 1960; Vincent, 1994)—a rule emphasizing the importance of the appearance of honest effort.

Central to the organization of American Victorian culture were notions of biological distinctions among ethnic and racial groups. The National League, not surprisingly, prohibited African Americans from participating. Although other major and minor leagues had blacks on their rosters in the mid- to late-1880s, by 1888 the ban would extend to all white baseball leagues.

Once the league established a solid structure and the appearance of honest play, Hulbert still needed to create a market for the game. It was relatively easy to attract spectators to championships and other big games between rival clubs, but team owners needed to find a way to attract audiences to regular-season games. Hulbert's dilemma was complicated by the fact that many of the independent clubs (not affiliated with his league) fielded superior teams. In the late 1870s, National League teams lost more often than they won in non-League play (Leifer, 1995).

Hulbert's solution was to create the pennant race, a revolutionary idea in 1876. The success of the National League depended on spectators viewing baseball as a series of games and not a single event. A genuine pennant race requires fairly even competition. In other words, for the league to be a successful business, even the best teams had to lose a substantial portion of their games (Leifer, 1995).

League rules were designed to cultivate pennant fever. Hulbert kept his league small by limiting it to eight teams. A team was either in the league or not. Although local rivalries had been important in the past, Hulbert's league limited membership. As such, the National League was small enough to ensure that no team was so far out of first place that winning the pennant seemed impossible.

Other innovations that Hulbert brought to the sport significantly influenced the history and development of sport management. For example, to protect their teams from being raided by other National League teams during the season, owners agreed to respect each other's contracts with players for one year. Other leagues could pay the National League a fee to participate in this "reservation" system and protect themselves from raids by National League teams. The practice not only helped distribute talent more evenly but also kept player salaries down. This practice eventually developed into the "reserve system," which included a "reserve clause" in player contracts and a "reserve list" of protected players on each team roster. These rules also limited the movement of players, enhancing the sense of a local team and, thus, fan loyalty.

The league structure enjoyed a significant boost from newspapers, another rapidly expanding U.S. institution. Although the initial response to the National League by the media was generally unfavorable (Vincent, 1994), newspapers with teams in the League warmed to the idea of a pennant race. In the 1870s, most major cities supported a dozen or more newspapers. One effective way to attract readers was to cover local sporting events. Newspapers played up the concept of the hometown team in a pennant race to hold the attention of sports fans between games. Reports on injuries, other teams' records, players' attitudes, and coaching

strategies were given considerable coverage before and after games. Presenting baseball in terms of an ongoing pennant race sold newspapers and underscored Hulbert's desire to promote continuing attention to and attendance at regular-season games (White, 1996).

The National League also appealed to fans' loyalty and pride in their towns and cities. League rules prohibited placing more than one National League team in or near any current National League city and prohibited teams from playing non-League teams within the same territory as a National League team (Seymour, 1960). The prohibition required discipline on the part of team owners because non-League games, especially against local non-League rivals, generated strong short-term profits. By avoiding "independent" clubs in National League cities, the League promoted the notion that National League teams represented the community exclusively. Independent teams, languishing from this National League prohibition, moved on to non-League cities, and spectators increasingly identified the National League teams with their cities (Leifer, 1995). The notion of a team's "territory" persists in the management of major and minor league baseball as well as in all other league sports (e.g., NBA, NFL, NHL).

National League teams had an early form of revenue sharing. Home teams were required to share their gate revenues with the visiting team. This practice allowed even the least talented teams to draw revenue when they played away from home. Gate sharing redistributed wealth around the National League, enabling teams to compete financially for players (Leifer, 1995).

Leagues Today

The National League's successful strategy seems fairly straightforward when compared with the business strategies used by today's professional sports leagues that take into account naming rights, licensing agreements, and league-wide television deals. But successful contemporary commercial sports leagues still depend on consolidated league play with strong centralized control and regulation. League play is in large part designed to encourage the fans' faith that teams operate on an equal footing, both on the field and off, and that owners, managers, and players are putting forth an honest effort.

The audience has changed over time, however. The need to see teams as independent firms has faded. Recent start-up leagues such as the WNBA and MLS have experimented with a single-entity structure, in which each team is owned and operated by the league, although the WNBA has since moved away from this model. The public's perception of locus of honest effort resides more with the players than it does with the ownership structure.

Not all professional sports are organized in the league structure. Sports such as golf or tennis developed and continue to operate today using a different organizational structure. Sometimes referred to as professional tournament sports, their development is chronicled in the next section.

PROFESSIONAL TOURNAMENT SPORTS: MIXING BUSINESS AND CHARITY

Professional tournament sports such as tennis and golf have their roots in the club system. Early tournaments were usually sponsored by private clubs for the benefit of their membership. By the turn of the century, professionals—usually club employees who taught club members the game—were often excluded from club tournaments. Without support from wealthy patrons to sponsor tournaments, professional athletes in some sports needed other alternatives if they were going to compete. This was the case with golf.

Professional Golf

Many early golf professionals were European men brought to the United States by country clubs to help design, build, and care for golf courses and teach the finer points of the game to club members. By its very nature, golf was an exclusive game, one that catered to upper-class white males. Although these golfers were technically professionals, they were much different from the tournament professionals of the contemporary Ladies Professional Golf Association (LPGA) and Professional Golfers' Association (PGA). The early golf professionals were club instructors and caddies. They made extra money by giving exhibitions. Golf manufacturers hired the best-known professionals as representatives to help publicize the game and their brands of clubs at exhibitions and clinics.

Numerous attempts were made to organize golf leagues prior to the 1930s, but professional leagues failed to capture public interest or attract golf professionals. Professionals shunned these risky tournaments in favor of the stability of exhibitions and clinics, and when they competed they vied for prize money they had put up themselves. Professional tournaments did not stabilize until the professionals found someone else—in the form of community and corporate sponsors—to put up the prize money.

One entrepreneurial type of tournament, which ultimately failed, was an attempt to generate a profit from gate revenue for country club owners. In the first half of the twentieth century, spectator attendance was the primary revenue stream for most sports. Following the proven approach of boxing promoters and baseball owners, individual country club owners produced golf events themselves, selling tickets to the events and operating concessions.

The failure of the privately owned tournaments to catch on had less to do with the energy and creativity that owners put into the events or with broader social issues than it did with the nature of the sport. Individually owned golf courses were rare, and even if there were a consortium of course owners, as was the case in baseball, players operated independently. The players did not need teams, managers, or promoters, and therefore were difficult to control.

Corcoran's Tournaments

Fred Corcoran, the architect of the professional golf tournament, understood the unique qualities of golf. Golf, he wrote, "operates upside down" in comparison to other sports. "The players have to pay to tee off, and they use facilities constructed for the use of the amateur owners who, occasionally, agree to open the gates" to professionals (Corcoran, 1965, p. 246).

To manage this "upside down" sport, Corcoran took his lead from Hollywood and advertising executives. Corcoran used athletes and golf tournaments the same way newspapers used news—to sell advertising space to the public. Corcoran never promoted golf strictly as entertainment. The golf tournament, for Corcoran, was the medium through which a celebrity, a local politician, a manufacturer, a charity, a town, or a product gained exposure. He sold the event. As a result, the contemporary professional tournament, unlike other sports operating 50 years ago, was less dependent on ticket sales and more dependent on sponsorship from community groups and corporations.

In 1937, a consortium of golf manufacturers hired Fred Corcoran as tournament director for the men's PGA circuit. He served in that capacity for more than a decade, making arrangements with public and private clubs to host professional tournaments. Then, in 1949, the golf equipment manufacturers hired him again to organize the women's tour (Corcoran, 1965; Hicks, 1956). Corcoran organized the players into associations with rules governing play and eligibility. In essence, the players governed themselves.

One of Corcoran's first contributions to the professional golf tour was the creation of the financially self-sufficient tournament. Prior to 1937, the PGA, through entry fees, had guaranteed to pay the players' purse to entice communities to sponsor tournaments. Corcoran, who had spent a decade organizing amateur tournaments in Massachusetts, understood the potential revenue a tournament produced for a community. Corcoran was able to convince communities to take responsibility for providing the purse by demonstrating how the revenue generated by 70 professional golfers eating in restaurants and sleeping in hotels would be three times greater than the minimum $3,000 purse (Corcoran, 1965).

Corcoran enhanced the tremendous growth in competitive golf by sharing status with celebrities like Bing Crosby. In addition to being a famous movie star and singer, Crosby was a sports entrepreneur associated with horse racing and golf. In 1934, Crosby orchestrated the first celebrity professional and amateur (pro-am) tournament preceding a men's golf tournament to raise money for charity. The combination of a celebrity and a pro playing together on a team in a mock tournament was extremely successful. Amateur golfers, celebrities, and community leaders paid exorbitant fees to participate. Although these funds were directed toward charity, there were also spin-off professional golf benefits. The appearance of celebrities not only enhanced the athletes' status but also increased attendance, thereby increasing the proceeds for charity and the exposure for professional golf. The celebrity pro-am has been the financial core around which most professional golf tournaments have been built (Graffis, 1975).

The financial power of this type of charity event became clear during World War II. During the war, golf was used to raise money for the Red Cross. Using a celebrity pro-am format, Bing Crosby teamed up with movie costar Bob Hope, professional golfers, and various other celebrities, including Fred Corcoran, to raise millions of dollars for the war effort and the Red Cross (Graffis, 1975). At the end of the war, Corcoran kept the pro-am tournament format and used civic pride and charities such as hospitals and youth programs to draw crowds.

Tying professional golf to charity was good business in addition to being good for the community. Donations to charitable organizations were fully tax deductible. Local businesspeople not likely to benefit directly from a golf tournament were more easily persuaded to contribute to the tournaments with tax deductions as incentives. In addition, a good charity attracted the hundreds of volunteers and essential in-kind donations needed to run a tournament. Further, a charity with broad reach and many volunteers acted as a promotional vehicle for the tournament. Thus, Corcoran transformed a potentially costly, labor-intensive event into a no-cost operation. By appealing to the altruism of a community to host a tournament, Corcoran obtained a tournament site, capital, and event management for no cost.

A consortium of golf equipment manufacturers paid Corcoran's salary to organize the golfers into an association and to help arrange tournaments. Golf manufacturers understood that the costs of retaining player representatives would be reduced with a solid tournament circuit in place. Manufacturers could retain player representatives at a fraction of the cost and increase players' values as marketing tools. The better players earned their salaries through prize money. The cost of sponsoring a player to play on tour was far less than hiring a player full-time as a representative and paying expenses.

It was clear to Corcoran that if manufacturers could use their association with tournaments to sell golf products, then celebrities could use it to add to their status, and local community groups could use it to raise funds or gain political influence. Tournaments could also be sold as an advertising medium for non-golf-related merchandise. As tournament director of the PGA and the LPGA, Corcoran orchestrated the first non-golf-related corporate sponsorship of professional golf tournaments. Corcoran arranged for Palm Beach Clothing to sponsor men's tournaments. A few years later he orchestrated a transcontinental series of women's tournaments sponsored by Weathervane Ladies Sports Apparel (Corcoran, 1965).

Corcoran's adaptation of Crosby's celebrity tournaments to tournaments funded by advertising for clothing foreshadowed the immense corporate involvement in contemporary professional tournaments. Still, professional golf was not able to take full advantage of corporate interest in athletes until the late 1950s. Until that time, the major media wire services, Associated Press and United Press International, followed a policy of using the name of the city or town to distinguish a tournament. They argued that using the name of the corporate sponsor was a cheap way to avoid paying for newspaper advertising. In the late 1950s, the newspaper industry reversed its policy and agreed to call tournaments by the name of their corporate sponsors. By sponsoring a national sporting event, a corporation now gained tax-free exposure to a target market in the name of charity (Graffis, 1975). In the end, professional golf, charities, and corporations all benefited from this arrangement.

Tournaments Today

Variations of the tournament structure just described can be found today in golf, tennis, track and field, and in multi-sport events like the Olympic and Paralympic Games. Like Corcoran, today's tour promoters do not sell the event solely as entertainment. Instead, they promote tournaments as a medium through which a person, community, or corporation can buy exposure. Gallery seats, pro-am tournaments, and the pre- and post-tournament festivities are the foci of interaction, access to which can be sold. Although communities, politicians, and radio and movie personalities have found tournaments a worthwhile investment, the corporate community has benefited the most handsomely. The golf tournament has evolved into a corporate celebration of itself and its products (Crosset, 1995).

Associations such as the PGA have been viewed as private groups. They set the rules of eligibility. However, challenges to that idea, as seen with Casey Martin's successful attempt to have the PGA accommodate his disability, suggest that these associations cannot be as exclusive as private clubs. In Casey Martin's case, he used the fact that Qualifying School (Q-School) was open to the public as a means of applying the Americans with Disabilities Act public accommodation provisions to force the PGA to allow him to compete using a cart.

In another trend that is pushing tournament management away from nonprofit private associations, today's tournaments are just as likely to be created by marketing agencies or broadcast media as by player associations. For example, the X-Games and the Alli Dew Tour are the products of corporations. The X-Games are owned by ESPN, which is a subsidiary of the Disney Corporation. The Alli Dew Tour is owned in a partnership between NBC Sports and MTV. It is not yet clear how corporate-owned tournaments will affect older associations or if "made-for-TV" tournaments will be able to sustain their legitimacy with the public. However, a decade in to the X-Games and Dew Tour type tours, the public seems to be willing to follow them.

The first section of this chapter has focused mainly on the historical aspects of professional sports, particularly teams and leagues. Most certainly the sport industry includes many more segments other than these two. This fact becomes obvious simply by looking at the broad range of chapters in this introductory textbook. Many of the basic tenets covered in this chapter are applicable across other segments as well. To learn more about the historical developments in segments such as intercollegiate athletics, high school and youth sport, recreational sport, and many more areas, the reader can turn to the chapters designed to cover those specific industry segments in-depth. Each chapter has a section devoted to the important historical events for that industry segment.

WOMEN IN SPORT MANAGEMENT

A book like this one serves to bring together information across different sport industry segments so that the reader is exposed to as broad a landscape of the industry as possible. However, as is the case with many disciplines, parts of the history and the names of some important contributors are sometimes overlooked.

Female sport managers have contributed to the growth of the sport industry as a whole, yet all too often their contributions as sport leaders are not formally recognized (Hums & Yiamouyiannis, 2007). This section introduces the reader to a selection of these women and their contributions.

Perhaps the first female sport managers lived in the time of the ancient Olympic Games. While we know women were not allowed to participate in those early Games, because participation was limited to free Greek male citizens, this does not mean no competitions for women existed. As a matter of fact, around the same time period of the ancient Olympic Games, a competition was held for women known as the Heraea Games. These Games, which also took place at the grounds of Olympia but not at the same time as the Olympic Games, consisted of footraces for unmarried girls. The event was organized by a group known as the Sixteen Women. These women, who were considered respected elders of their communities, gathered from nearby locations every four years to administer the Games (Hums, 2010). After the Heraea Games were discontinued, centuries would pass before we would see more women organizing such events.

A woman who could be recognized as the first significant modern female sport manager was Effa Manley (O'Connor-McDonogh, 2007). As co-owner of the Newark Eagles in the Negro Baseball League, Manley was responsible for the day-to-day operations of the ballclub and was active in league management (Berlage, 1994). For her contributions to professional baseball, in 2006 Manley became the first woman elected to the Baseball Hall of Fame in Cooperstown, New York (MacNeil Lehrer Productions, 2010). She most certainly paved the way for women such as Kim Ng, Assistant General Manager for the Los Angeles Dodgers and the only woman to have interviewed for a General Manager (GM) position with a Major League Baseball (MLB) team. Ng is paving the way for others. Prior to working for the Dodgers, Ng was Assistant General Manager with the New York Yankees and she was succeeded by Jean Afterman, a former player agent who is now the Yankees Assistant General Manager.

Today other women hold high executive positions in North American professional leagues, including Heidi Ueberroth, the President of International Business Operations for the NBA; Rita Benson LeBlanc, Owner/Executive Vice President of the New Orleans Saints; and Jeanie Buss, Executive Vice President of Business Operations for the Los Angeles Lakers. As with many men in the sports business, lineage or marriage often plays a role in getting to the top. Five of *Forbes*' top ten women in sports business were in the business through heritage or marriage (Van Riper, 2009). It is a point not lost on Jeanie Buss in her comments about Ng's chances of becoming the first female GM in MLB:

> *"I'm lucky," she said, "because I have a certain power base because of who my dad is. I'm also a realist. I want to see in my time frame a successful female GM in one of the major leagues. It's going to be tough. She's going to get one chance, and it has to have all the pieces in place. I don't know Kim personally, but from what I know, she really does things the right way. She knows her job; she's done the work. She deserves an opportunity. But like I said, she's going to get one shot, and then people would love to say the experiment is over if it's not a success" (Brown, 2008, p. 44).*

No writing on women in sport would be complete without including the contributions made by women's tennis superstar Billie Jean King. While perhaps best remembered for her victory over Bobby Riggs in the 1973 "Battle of the Sexes," King also established the Women's Tennis Association and was a founder of *WomenSports* magazine, World Team Tennis, and the Women's Sports Foundation, which has done a great deal of work to promote leadership and management opportunities for women in sport (Lough, 2007; Women's Sport Foundation, 2008).

A number of women played important roles in the development of intercollegiate athletics, especially Christine Grant and Judy Sweet. Grant, former Women's Athletic Director at the University of Iowa and former President of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), championed Title IX and gender equity efforts for female athletes. Sweet was one of the first women to serve as athletics director of a combined men's and women's intercollegiate athletics program in the United States (at University of California, San Diego) and was the first female President of the NCAA (Hums & Yiamouyiannis, 2007).

In terms of recreational sport, three women attended the founding meeting of the National Intramural Association (NIA), with Annette Akins being named Vice President. This organization was the forerunner of the National Intramural and Recreational Sport Association (NIRSA), the primary sport organization in campus recreation. Since then, three other women have served as NIRSA Presidents, including Mary Daniels from Ohio State University and Juliette Moore from the University of Arizona. Moore was the first African-American woman to hold that post (Bower, 2007). Vicki Highstreet from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, served as NIRSA's President in 2009.

Finally, a number of women have contributed to the modern history of the sport management industry in terms of their contributions in sport-related businesses. Some of these women are Lesa France Kennedy, CEO of International Speedway Corporation; Stephanie Tolleson, Former Senior Corporate Vice President at International Management Group (IMG); Buffy Filipell, founder of TeamWork Online; and Becky Heidesch and Mary Lou Youngblood of Women's Sports Services, which operates two online career placement services accessed by WomenSportsJobs.com and WSSExecutiveSearch.com (Lough, 2007).

The list of names of women who contributed to the modern history of sport management is certainly much longer than this abbreviated introduction suggests. What is important to note is that these businesswomen, and so many others whose names are not listed here, have influenced the sport industry as we know it today.

THE BIRTH OF SPORT MANAGEMENT AS AN ACADEMIC FIELD

It is clear that as the sport industry evolved, it increasingly took on business characteristics of other industries. The early sport managers discussed in this chapter came to their sport management positions with some background in sport or some background in business. Very few brought the combination of the two to the workplace. However, to be a successful sport manager in today's industry, preparation in both sport and business is becoming a necessity. Because of this need, the academic field of sport management began to develop, and you are majoring in sport management today! How did this field come into existence, and what makes it unique?

Sport clubs, leagues, and tournaments are three of the more prevalent structures currently used to manage and organize sport. Management systems, including amateur bodies such as the National Collegiate Athletic Association and the United States Track and Field Association or professional organizations such as the World Boxing Association and the National Basketball Association, employ some variation of these structures to produce sporting events. But contemporary sport management is far more complex than its historical antecedents. Furthermore, the growing popularity of newer sports such as mountain biking, snowboarding, and rock climbing and the increasing power of global media are encouraging the evolution of new management structures.

The continuing growth of the sport industry and its importance to numerous sponsors and institutions created demand for the systematic study of sport management practices. Since the late 1960s, the academic field of sport management has focused on the unique and special issues facing the people who conduct the business of sport.

As the sport management profession began to grow and prosper, it became apparent that although similarities existed between running a general business and running a sport organization, there were also intricacies peculiar to the sport industry. Early on, sport managers learned from hands-on experiences gained in the industry. However, as the sport industry became more complex, the need to train sport managers in a more formal fashion became a necessity. The formal study of sport management emerged from this need.

The concept of a sport management curriculum is generally credited to two people: **James G. Mason**, a physical educator at the University of Miami–Florida, and **Walter O'Malley** of the Brooklyn (now Los Angeles) Dodgers, who discussed the idea in 1957 (Mason, Higgins, & Owen, 1981). The first master's program in sport management was established at **Ohio University** in 1966 and was based on Mason's and O'Malley's ideas (Parkhouse & Pitts, 2001). Shortly after the Ohio University graduate program began, Biscayne College (now St. Thomas University) and St. John's University founded undergraduate sport management programs (Parkhouse & Pitts, 2001). The University of Massachusetts Amherst started the second master's program in 1971.

The number of colleges and universities in the United States offering sport management majors grew rapidly. By 1985 the National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE) indicated there were more than 40 undergraduate programs, 32 graduate programs, and 11 at both levels offering sport management degrees. Today, the total number of sport management programs is just over 300 (North American Society for Sport Management, 2010c). Approximately a dozen Canadian universities offer programs as well. The growth of sport management as an academic field was prompted by the sport industry's need for well-trained managers, but it also was pushed by universities' and colleges' need to attract students. Some schools wishing to increase enrollments in a highly competitive market added sport management programs to their curricula in the 1980s.

Given the rapid growth of the academic field, concern developed among sport management educators over what constituted a solid sport management curriculum capable of producing students qualified to work as managers in the sport industry. The first group of scholars to examine this issue formed an organization called the Sport Management Arts and Science Society (SMARTS), which was initiated by the faculty at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst. This group laid the groundwork for the present scholarly organization, the **North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM)** (Parkhouse & Pitts, 2001).

The purpose of NASSM is to promote, stimulate, and encourage study, research, scholarly writing, and professional development in the area of sport management, both the theoretical and applied aspects (North American Society for Sport Management, 2010a). NASSM and NASPE monitor sport management curricula. Currently, the NASSM/NASPE guidelines for approved sport management programs include content areas such as sport marketing, legal aspects of sport, management and leadership in sport, ethics in sport management, budget and finance in sport, communication in sport, and the sociocultural context of sport (Parkhouse & Pitts, 2001). Currently the movement to program accreditation is the topic of debate. NASSM is holding discussions about moving to this level of program evaluation via the Commission on Sport Management Accreditation (COSMA).

Sport management professional organizations also exist in a number of nations outside North America. Two of these organizations are the Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand (SMAANZ) and the European Association of Sport Management (EASM). In addition, 2010 marked the establishment of the African Sport Management Association, with great hopes for collaborations among these various international organizations. As sport management becomes more global in nature, universities implementing successful country-specific curricula outside North America are producing successful sport managers as well. Universities in Belgium, England, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Spain, and the Netherlands, for example, are preparing future sport managers (North American Society for Sport Management, 2010b). Programs are also thriving in Japan. As the sport industry evolves, sport management curricula will continue to change to meet the needs of this global industry.

SUMMARY

It is impossible in one chapter to cover the complex history of sport thoroughly. This chapter discussed the historical origins of three basic sport management structures: clubs, leagues, and tournaments. Sport management structures that developed over the past 150 or so years organized sporting events in different ways to meet the particular needs of participants, spectators, and sponsors at particular points in history. The club structure, the league structure, and the tournament structure each arose in response to changes in broad social structures and addressed specific issues within a segment of the sport industry. The evolution of each of these three management structures illustrates that managers need to be creative in the ways they manage sports.

Throughout this text you will see mentions of some of the innovators and contributors to the management of sport. Keep an eye open for historic figures such as John Montgomery Ward, Albert Spalding, Judge Kennesaw Mountain Landis, and Marvin Miller in baseball. Other notable sport managers include Peter Ueberoff in the Olympic Games, David Stern in basketball, Pete Rozelle and Paul Tagliabue in football, Gary Bettman in hockey, Roone Arledge in sport broadcasting, and agents C. C. Pyle and Mark McCormack. These people, along with many others, have contributed to making sport one of the most popular forms of entertainment.

In contemporary sport, we can still see the three basic management structures (clubs, leagues, and tournaments) operating. But the management structures operate within highly complex organizational systems. As a result, the sport industry demands well-trained managers. Sport management developed as an academic field to meet this demand. To maintain quality control in this fast-emerging field of study, the NASSM/NASPE curriculum guidelines have been established. As the sport industry continues to evolve globally, the academic field of sport management will evolve as well in order to produce the future leaders in the industry.

KEY TERMS

clubs, Fred Corcoran, Pierre de Coubertin, William Hulbert, Jockey Club, leagues, James G. Mason, modern Olympic Games, National Association of Professional Baseball Players, North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), National League of Professional Baseball Players, Ohio University, Walter O'Malley, professional tournaments, sport management structures

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SPORT MANAGEMENT TIMELINE

BC 776	First ancient Olympic Games
AD 393	Last ancient Olympic Games
1750	Establishment of Jockey Club in Newmarket
1851	First America's Cup (sailing)
1869	Cincinnati Reds become first professional baseball club
1871	National Association of Professional Baseball Players founded
1875	First running of Kentucky Derby (horse racing)
1876	National League of Professional Baseball Players established
1892	Basketball invented
1894	International Olympic Committee founded
1896	First modern Olympic Games in Athens, Greece
1900	Women first compete in Olympic Games
1903	First Tour de France
1904	Federation International de Football Association (FIFA) founded
1906	Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States issues first constitution/bylaws
1910	Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States changes name to National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA)
1911	First Indianapolis 500

SPORT MANAGEMENT TIMELINE *(Continued)*

1912	International Association of Athletics Federation (IAAF) began
1916	First PGA Championship
1917	National Hockey League established
1920	National Football League began
1920	National Federation of State High School Association (NFSHSA) founded
1924	First Winter Olympic Games in Chamonix, France
1924	International Association of Assembly Managers (IAAM) established
1930	First FIFA World Cup (soccer) in Uruguay
1930	First Commonwealth Games
1933	First NFL Championship
1939	First NCAA basketball tournament/Baseball Hall of Fame inducts first class
1943	First women's professional baseball league (All-American Girls Professional Baseball League)
1946	National Basketball Association (NBA) (originally known as Basketball Association of America) established
1947	Jackie Robinson integrates Major League Baseball
1950	First Formula One Championship (F1)
1950	Ladies Professional Golf Association (LPGA) founded
1950	National Intramural-Recreational Sports Association (NIRSA) began
1951	First Asian Games/Bill Veeck sent Eddie Gaedel up to bat
1959	First Daytona 500
1960	First Paralympic Games in Rome, Italy
1960	Arnold Palmer signed as IMG's first client
1961	International Olympic Academy officially inaugurated in Olympia, Greece
1966	Marvin Miller appointed Executive Director of Major League Baseball Players Association (MLBPA)
1967	First Super Bowl
1971	Nike Swoosh designed by Carolyn Davidson
1972	Title IX passed
1974	Women's Sports Foundation founded by Billie Jean King
1975	Arbitrator declares MLB players Andy Messersmith and Dave McNally free agents
1976	First Winter Paralympic Games
1978	First Ironman Triathlon
1982	First NCAA women's basketball tournament

SPORT MANAGEMENT TIMELINE *(Continued)*

1985	North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) established/First Air Jordan shoes debut at retail
1985	The Olympic Partner (TOP) Program created
1990	Americans with Disabilities Act signed into law
1991	First FIFA Women's World Cup (soccer)
1992	NBA players first played in the Summer Olympic Games
1994	NFL salary cap came into effect
1996	Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA) founded
1998	NHL players first competed in the Winter Olympic Games/first BCS games played
1999	World Anti-Doping Agency established
2001	Beijing China awarded Olympic and Paralympic Games for 2008/U.S. Supreme Court ruled golfer Casey Martin allowed to use a cart in PGA events
2003	Nike acquires Converse
2004	William Perez succeeds Phil Knight as President and CEO of Nike/ATHOC (Athens Organizing Committee) becomes first Organizing Committee for the Olympic Games to jointly manage both Summer Olympic and Paralympic Games/Nextel takes over sponsorship of NASCAR's Winston Cup
2005	Adidas acquires Reebok/NHL labor problems cause first postponement of an entire major professional league season
2005	National Hockey League suspends operations for 2004–2005 season
2005	MLB Players Association and owners announce new drug testing agreement including suspensions and release of player names
2005	United Nations designates 2005 as the International Year of Sport and Physical Education
2006	Germany hosts successful World Cup, featuring a "Say No to Racism" campaign
2007	Barry Bonds becomes new MLB home run king amid steroid allegations
2008	Beijing, China, hosts the Summer Olympic Games
2008	Arena Football League announces cancellation of 2009 season
2008	Final year for Yankee Stadium
2009	Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, awarded 2016 Summer Olympic Games, marking the first time the Games will be held on South America
2009	Members of Sri Lanka national cricket attacked by gunman in Pakistan resulting in cancellation of remainder of tour
2010	NCAA conference realignment: Big 10, Big 12, and Pac-10
2010	South Africa hosts first World Cup on African continent