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Editorial Note

The fall 2011 issue of the *Journal of International Business Disciplines (JIBD)* has been the result of a rigorous process in two stages:

- Stage 1: all papers that were submitted to the 2011 IABD conference went through blind reviews, and high quality papers were recommended for publication in the *Business Research Yearbook (BRY)*.
- Stage 2: approximately ten percent of the articles published in the *BRY* were selected for possible publication in *JIBD*, the respective authors were contacted and asked to resubmit their papers for a second round of reviews. These manuscripts went through a rigorous review process by the editorial board members and external reviewers. In the end, four articles were recommended by the editorial board for publication in the November issue of *JIBD*.

JIBD is committed to maintaining high standards of quality in all of its publications.

Ahmad Tootoonchi, Chief Editor
Journal of International Business Disciplines

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**ASSESSING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF EXPORT PROMOTION PROGRAMS: A
RESEARCH NOTE ON LOUISIANA PROGRAMS**

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the effectiveness of services provided as part of export promotion programs with respect to increasing export trade activities of businesses in Louisiana. The objectives of the study are to determine if there is an increase in: (a) the number of Louisiana businesses that participate in export trade activities; and (b) the percentage of Louisiana businesses that engage in export trade activities. Data for the study was compiled from various databases of the U.S. Census Bureau, Division of Foreign Trade; available data covers the period 1997-2008. Results show an increase in both the number of businesses in Louisiana that engage in export trade activities and the percentage of Louisiana businesses that export. The results suggest that programs designed to encourage new businesses to export are having an impact. The findings imply that some businesses that currently engage in export trade activities did not do so in the past.

INTRODUCTION

More and more countries are implementing export promotion programs with the goal of increasing their export trade activities. A rationale for these programs is that export trade plays a significant role in the economic vibrancy of a nation. A nation's successes in global trade can significantly improve its balance of trade positions, and reflect positively on its economic strength and international competitiveness (Cavusgil & Michael, 1990; Shamsuddoha, Ali & Ndubisi, 2009). According to the U.S. Government Accountability Office (GAO, 2009), rationales for the export promotion programs include macroeconomic considerations such as job creation and economic growth. Thus, it is no surprise that many of the more developed countries tend to be those with active export promotion programs and consequently, favorable balance of trade. Adopting similar strategies, most of the emerging economies are taking significant steps to expand their export trade activities, including export promotion programs.

Export promotion programs are designed with a variety of objectives, depending on the export trade goals of the country and the particular needs of the businesses that the respective programs are intended to help (Brewer, 2009; Seringhaus & Rosson, 1990). However, typical activities include providing foreign market information to firms, organizing trade visits abroad, providing information on financing for international transactions, providing logistical information and

support for exporting, organizing trade exhibitions overseas, providing contact details of potential customers, agents or distributors, and conducting 'how to export' workshops (Brewer, 2009; Kotabe & Czinkota, 1992).

However, a major issue with respect to export promotion programs, is how to objectively measure their effectiveness in terms of achieving their prescribed goals - particularly, when the goals relate directly to increasing the overall export trade activities of the given country. As noted by Seringhaus (1987, p. 61):

What researchers should determine and management wants to know, is whether or not such assistance has any impact on exporting activity and to what extent such impact manifests itself.

According to Brewer (2009), the issue of objective and effective measurements of these programs is important both for countries where the public expenditures are significant, and also for nations that do not currently have such programs, but, may be thinking about implementing them.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Brewer (2009) argues that there is a general perception that export promotion programs are effective and beneficial, particularly to small and medium-size businesses - at least from a theoretical point of view. This perception is derived largely from research that show that there is a need for information (and knowledge development) with respect to the internationalization process in general, and export development in particular (Johanson & Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975; Liesch & Knight, 1999). Since the need exists, programs that are designed to provide the needed information must therefore, be beneficial to the firms. In a study of the effectiveness of the various export promotion programs provided by the Australian Trade Commission, Brewer (2009) concluded that the programs are essentially ineffective, even though, they are generally perceived as achieving their objectives. Brewer's conclusions were based on the fact that the number of firms in Australia that engage in export activities did not increase (but, rather decrease), following the commencement of the export promotion program (2002/2003 - 31,174 firms); reported data show that the only increase in the number of firms was achieved at the very end of the program (2006/2007 - 31,765 firms).

However, based on their review of the literature, Shamsuddoha, Ali and Ndubisi (2009) noted that few studies have examined the impact of export promotion programs on firm export performance in a rigorous and systematic manner (e.g., Donthu & Kim 1993; Katsikeas, Piercy & Ioannidis, 1996; Francis & Collins-Dodd, 2004; Gencturk & Kotabe, 2001; Rusmevichientong & Kaiser, 2009; Singer & Czinkota, 1994). Donthu & Kim (1993) reported a positive relationship between firms' usage of export assistance and export growth, and Katsikeas, Piercy and Ioannidis (1996) found that national export promotion policy is positively influencing export performance.

There are other studies that have examined the direct relationship between the usage of export promotion programs and export performance (e.g., Francis & Collins-Dodd, 2004; Gencturk &

Kotabe, 2001; Singer & Czinkota, 1994). Generally, results from these studies show a positive relationship between usage of export promotion programs and: (a) firms' efficiency and competitive position in exporting (Gencturk & Kotabe, 2001), (b) export competence and export strategy (Francis & Collins-Dodd, 2004), and (c) the achievement of "various export outcomes" (Singer & Czinkota, 1994). Detailed and comprehensive reviews of the literature are presented by Brewer (2009) and Shamsuddoha, Ali and Ndubisi (2009).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the paper is to present an analysis of the effectiveness of the export trade promotion programs and services with respect to businesses that export from the state of Louisiana. Through the Louisiana Economic Development Department, the state of Louisiana provides various incentive programs to businesses. The Department is responsible for "strengthening the state's business environment and creating a more vibrant Louisiana economy." Included in the various incentive programs are services that are designed to promote export trade activities. In addition, there are export promotion services that are provided by the World Trade Center of New Orleans and the U.S. Trade and Development Agency. The paper examines the effectiveness of these services with respect to increasing the export trade activities of the businesses in the state.

METHODOLOGY

Data for the study was obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau, Division of Foreign Trade. Data was compiled from various databases of the U.S. Census Bureau for the period 1997-2008 (see Table 1).

TABLE 1. LOUISIANA - TOTAL NO. OF FIRMS, NO. OF EXPORTERS, KNOWN VALUE OF EXPORTS, PERCENT OF FIRMS THAT EXPORT, 1997-2008

Year	Total Number of Firms	Number of Exporters	Known Value of Exports (\$million)	Percent of Firms that Export
1997	82,330	2,546	3,860	3.09
1998	82,138	2,488	3,469	3.03
1999	81,903	2,698	3,464	3.29
2000	81,669	3,373	14,698	4.13
2001	81,295	3,310	14,659	4.07
2002	81,684	3,048	16,666	3.73
2003	82,308	3,104	17,576	3.77
2004	83,068	3,131	19,092	3.77
2005	82,663	3,123	17,736	3.78
2006	81,421	3,314	22,590	4.07
2007	83,159	3,661	29,581	4.40
2008	82,301	3,941	40,833	4.79

Source: U.S Census Bureau – compiled from various databases. (See Appendix I).

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

To examine the impact of the various export promotion programs that are being provided to businesses in Louisiana, the number and percentage of businesses in the state of Louisiana that engage in export trade activities were analyzed. Specifically, the objectives of the analysis are to determine if there is an increase in:

- (a) the number of Louisiana businesses that participate in export trade activities; and
- (b) the percentage of Louisiana businesses that engage in export trade activities.

As the results show, there is an increase in the number of businesses in Louisiana that engage in export trade activities; there is also an increase in the percentage of Louisiana businesses that export (see Table 1, Figures 1 and 2).

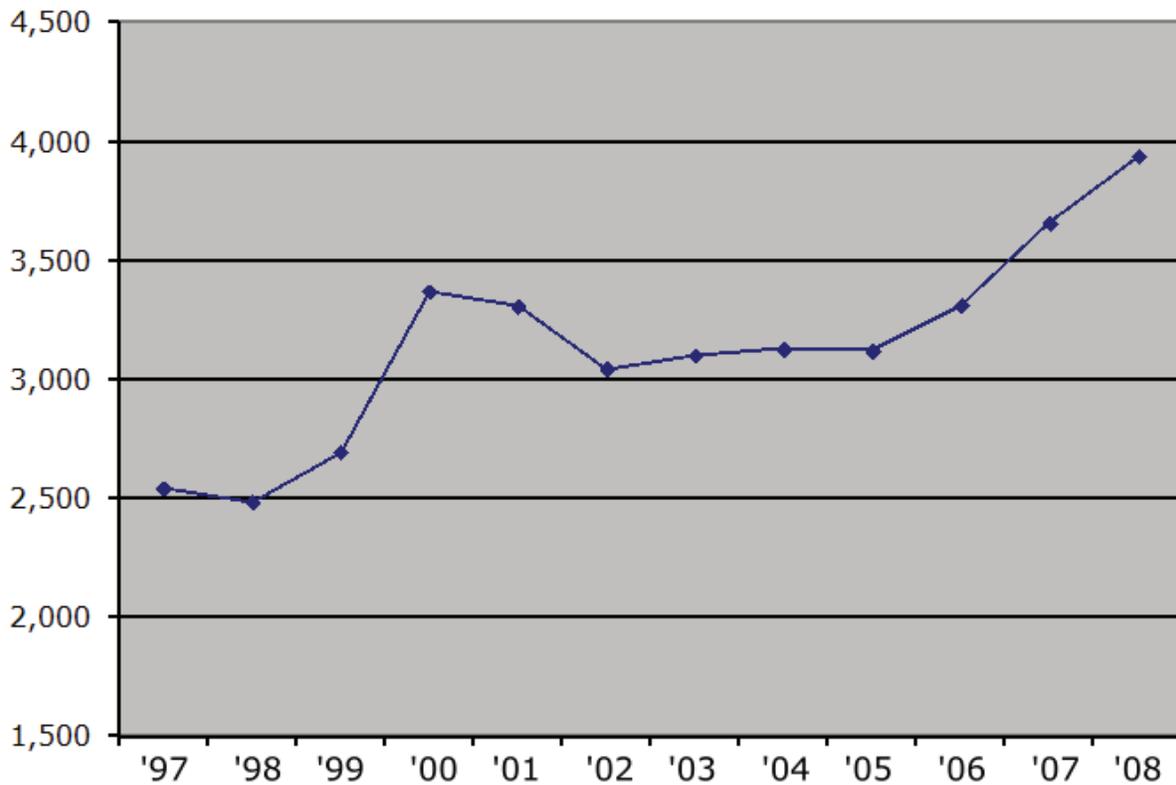


FIGURE 1. NUMBER OF FIRMS EXPORTING BY YEAR (1997-2008)

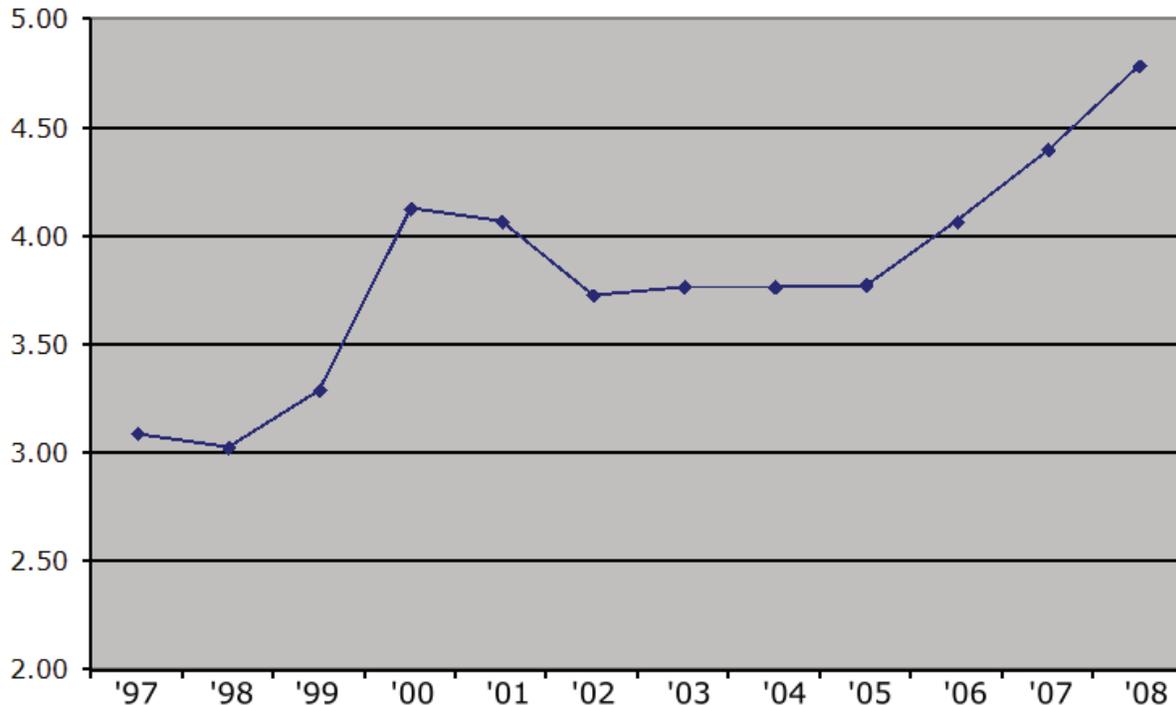


FIGURE 2. PERCENT OF FIRMS EXPORTING BY YEAR (1997-2008)

DISCUSSION

An increase in the number of businesses that export implies that programs designed to encourage new businesses to export are having an impact. However, the impact is more clearly discernable if the percentages of businesses that export also increase. An increase in the percentage of businesses that export suggests that there are businesses in Louisiana that currently engage in export trade activities, but, did not do so in the past.

However, there may be an alternative explanation for the results, there is the possibility that the increases in both the number of firms that export and the percentage of the total that export could be the result of new businesses that were created in (or moved to) Louisiana during the period of the analysis (1997-2008). The argument is that the new businesses may be more export-oriented and thus, are more likely to engage in export trade activities than businesses that were already established in the state. Therefore, the increases are due, primarily, to the new firms and not because the export promotion programs are effective in getting established firms to start exporting. However, even though, this explanation is plausible, it is highly unlikely. An increase in the percentage of the total number of firms that export is very likely due to services provided under the various export promotion programs. A direct cause and effect relationship cannot be established from the data; nevertheless, there seems to be a strong association between the export promotion programs and the exporting activities of the firms.

CONCLUSION

The results of the analysis presented in this paper show that a major goal of the various export promotion programs provided by the state of Louisiana, the United States Trade Office, and the World Trade Center of New Orleans are being achieved with respect to businesses in Louisiana. There is an increase in both the number and the percentage of businesses in Louisiana that engage in export trade activities for the period 1997-2008. Though a direct, objective and efficient measure of the impact of export promotion programs is difficult to develop, the analysis presented here represents a reasonable and common-sense approach to assess programs' impact.

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APPENDIX I. DATA SOURCES AND LOCATION ONLINE

Information	Data Source: U.S. Census Bureau	Located at:
Total Number of Firms	Statistics of U.S. Businesses: 2008: Louisiana - All industries	http://www.census.gov/epcd/susb/2008/la/LA--.HTM
<p>ONLINE SEARCH: Use the following generalized search term to search for data on U.S. export companies: <i>Profile of U.S. Exporting Companies 2006-2007*</i></p> <p>Data for each period was excerpted from search results: <i>Exhibit 6a</i> <i>Exports by State of the Origin of Movement, Number of Exporting Companies, Value, and Percent Difference Between the 2008 and 2009 Results*</i></p>		
Number of Exporters 2008-2009	2008 and 2009 Results	http://www.census.gov/foreign-trade/Press-Release/edb/2009/exh6a.pdf
Number of Exporters 2007-2008	2007 and 2008 Results	http://www.census.gov/foreign-trade/Press-Release/edb/2008/edbrel.pdf
Number of Exporters 2006-2007	2006 and 2007 Results	http://www.census.gov/foreign-trade/Press-Release/edb/2007/edb-6a.pdf

* *Insert appropriate values – e.g., 1998-1999, 2000-2001, etc.*

**DEVELOPING INTERNATIONAL SPORTS MARKETS: PROFESSIONAL SPORTS
SELLING TO NEW SEGMENTS WITH NEW PROMOTIONS**

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ABSTRACT

Sports' leagues struggle to maintain and grow. To do so many are returning to marketing fundamentals; creating satisfied customers with better products directed at undeveloped segments. This strategic marketing focus is examined as it is applied to a Major League Soccer product targeted at the yet-enigmatic American soccer sport market. The paper examines the demographics of American sports fans and soccer fans, motivations, and behavioral intentions of those fans as related to shirt sponsorships. The findings are intriguing as respondents didn't think the shirt ads were unprofessional; instead, they felt these sponsorships made MLS clubs look more like prestigious international counterparts. Soccer fans felt more strongly about these questions than sports fans or non-fans. Our research showed that shirt sponsorships helped connect sponsors and teams. Finally, non-fans were most likely to believe that shirt sponsorships would spread beyond MLS followed by soccer fans and sports fans.

INTRODUCTION

The proliferation of alternative and competing entertainment options during the last two decades has heightened competition for attendance, television revenue, and sponsorship dollars for sport organizations and leagues. While the pressure has been hard on new leagues, even established leagues have experienced declining attendance. Major League Baseball's attendance dropped again for the third straight year, down for 2010 by another 1 percent from 2009 (Bennett, 2010). The NHL's 2009 ticket sales were down from the previous year by 2.2 percent (Mickle, 2010). The NFL's attendance for regular season is again down for the third straight year; down to 1998 levels (McCarthy 2010). NBA attendance has fallen by 2 percent from the 2008-2009 season, according to experts at *Street & Smith's Sports Business Journal* (2010).

The trend has reinvigorated a focus on executing sound marketing and generating new revenue streams and markets. Some teams and leagues have a history of innovative marketing, like the NFL's Dallas Cowboys who spent \$1.3 million to create a traveling exhibit to reach fans unable to make it to games (Bernstein 2001) and the San Francisco 49ers who proposed hosting regular luncheons for business executives (Brockington, 2003). Today, that focus is perhaps even stronger with more teams and leagues looking for growth opportunities. It's not surprising then to read in *Street & Smith's Sports Business Journal* that NFL commissioner, Roger Goodell brought in Disney CEO, Bob Iger to the league meeting to send a signal to owners for the need to continue to innovate its marketing efforts (2010).

Although the sport industry continues to become more business-like and thus grow in its strategic needs, the study of strategy in sport by researchers has yet to fully catch up. Some work has discussed strategic marketing issues such as marketing orientation and developing new market segments (e.g. Brindley & Thorogood 1998), but it is still sparse. In particular, knowledge of strategic issues regarding entering new markets with the right promotional efforts is inadequate. With sports looking internationally to develop markets like the NBA playing more regularly in Europe and China and signing international corporate sponsors (Lombardo, 2010), now is the time to explore how new markets respond to new [to American professional sports] marketing efforts.

The purpose of this paper is to explore the strategy of growing revenue in sports and the challenge of developing new international markets. Data were collected from American soccer fans about a traditionally non-American, at least as far as major league sports are concerned, promotional effort: shirt sponsorships. From these respondents, we explore what this segment thinks and feels, and their behaviors. Finally, we conclude with recommendations for sports marketers and future research directions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

While it is a topic central to firms striving to gain a competitive advantage and improve organizational effectiveness, the study of strategy has received little attention among sport marketing researchers. Strategic planning guides the organization so that it might effectively manage within its environment. Getting new markets to respond favorably to shirt sponsorship efforts in this competitive environment is just such an issue.

Shirt sponsorship has been a common practice and robust revenue stream for football clubs in the United Kingdom and much of Europe since the 1970s and has since grown to be accepted throughout most of the world. Some of the earliest shirt sponsorship deals in European football were established during the 1970s and included Jagermeister buying the shirt sponsorship of German club, Eintracht Braunschweig and English club, Kettering, placing "Kettering Tyres" on their shirts, and Hitachi purchasing the shirt sponsorship for Liverpool FC (Moor, 2009; Preston, 2008).

For European soccer leagues, shirt sponsorship constitutes a substantial source of revenue. In 2010, the top 20 teams in the English Premier League (EPL) generated more than \$155 million from shirt sponsorships (Thomaselli, 2010). For the most popular English clubs, shirt

sponsorships can be worth more than \$33 million per year (Gillis, 2009). In 2008, the best professional teams in the six major leagues across Europe generated more than \$460 million in revenue, with clubs in the German Bundesliga and the English Premier League leading the way (Szczepanik, 2008).

While shirt sponsorship is well-established globally, the most tradition-rich and prestigious professional sports leagues in America have yet to accept shirt sponsorships for uniforms worn during actual matches. These include the National Football League (NFL), Major League Baseball (MLB), the National Basketball Association (NBA) and the National Hockey League (NHL). It needs to be noted that the NFL and the NBA currently sell ads on practice jerseys and Major League Baseball allows teams to wear sponsored-jerseys in some international competitions such as the World Baseball Classic (Thomaselli, 2010). However, sport marketing researcher David Carter said (Sandomir, 2009), “For newer domestic leagues (in America), or even those that lack heritage, the ability to move forward with jersey sponsorship will be far easier and will happen sooner. The barriers will be reduced slowly in leagues that have rich traditions and storied histories.”

In the United States, professional team sports leagues, that have adopted shirt sponsorship, include Major League Soccer (MLS) (Bell, 2006), the Women’s National Basketball Association (WNBA) (Medina, 2009), Women’s Professional Soccer (WPS) (Women’s Soccer Insider, 2010), the United Football League (UFL) (Janoff, 2010), and the National Basketball Association Development League (Thomaselli, 2010). All these leagues are relatively new and they lack the tradition and history of more established professional sports in the USA. Dave Checketts, owner of Major League Soccer’s Real Salt Lake, said “For the other sports (in the USA), there is a group of owners who would not let (shirt sponsorship) happen...but the aura of soccer is different from other sports” (Bell, 2006).

In 2007, MLS became the first professional sports league in the USA to embrace shirt sponsorship (Bell, 2006). Since then, 15 teams have developed shirt sponsorships. Shirt sponsorships can be lucrative for MLS clubs. HerbaLife considered the extent which David Beckham could give the company additional brand exposure when they purchased the jersey-front for the Los Angeles Galaxy. After fans bought 300,000 copies of Beckham’s shirt, it became apparent that this deal benefitted the Galaxy, HerbaLife, and Beckham (Schwartz & Badenhausen, 2008). Mahmoud (2008) suggests that HerbaLife earned the equivalent of \$175,000 in television exposure to its brand from a 2007 ESPN broadcast of a game featuring David Beckham wearing a Los Angeles Galaxy jersey with the company’s brand. Marketing data show that Real Salt Lake was earning better than average returns on investment from its shirt sponsorship deal with XanGo (Lieberman, 2009). Similarly, Thomaselli (2009) said reports that Atlantic Health, a corporation that bought the shirt sponsorship to practice jerseys worn by the NFL’s New York Jets, earned more than \$200,000 in free exposure when the team was featured on the HBO network “Hard Knocks” television series.

Team	Shirt Sponsors
Los Angeles	HerbaLife
Chivas USA/Los Angeles	Comex, Corona
Columbus	Glidden
San Jose, California	Amway
Seattle	Xbox 360
Salt Lake	Xango
Houston	Amigo Energy, Greenstar
Chicago	Best Buy
New England	United Healthcare
Toronto	BMO Bank
New York	Red Bull
Washington, DC	Volkswagon
Philadelphia	Bimbo
Portland	Alaska Airlines
Montreal	BMO Bank
Vancouver, BC	Bell Telephone

FIGURE 1. MLS SHIRT SPONSORSHIPS

Why have American sport leagues been so slow to accept shirt sponsorship? Part of the answer lies in the notion that in the United States professional sports has often been historically viewed as a “memory place” that should be free of commercial intrusion (Boyd, 2000). For example, the first stadiums in the United States were typically named for a feature of the community (e.g., Three Rivers Stadium in Pittsburgh) or a noted community leader (e.g., Wrigley Field in Chicago) or a noble cause (e.g., Veterans Stadium in Philadelphia), not a corporation. Some of the first professional sports teams in the United States were named to reflect the types of workers in the region in a community (e.g., the Pittsburgh Steelers) or the heritage of a region (e.g., the Minnesota Vikings) instead of being named for a corporation (Allen, 2010). If one follows this line of thinking, it may not be so surprising that shirt sponsorships are criticized in America because to many people they represent a bigger intrusion of commercialism onto the sports landscape. Paul Lukas, who monitors trends associated with sports uniforms in America, said (in Jackson and Lukas, 2009), “An ad patch on my favorite team’s jersey...would be the latest in a long series of drip-drip-drip maneuvers that have led to a tremendous degree of cynicism about sports...This type of marketing takes a very real toll in terms of fan attitudes to the point where watching sports becomes more of a chore and less of a pleasure.”

In another article, Lukas (2009) opined, “The case can be made that (American professional sports) teams are also civic entities—that’s why we care about them so much. They carry the names of our cities and states...and we rally around them, we live and die with them...Simply selling off the team’s jersey sends a terrible message that our civic institutions are for sale.” Similarly, Johns (2009) wrote about how fans in Seattle might react to shirt sponsorships for the region’s sports teams, saying “I shudder to think that the Seahawks jersey could someday bear Honda across the front. I’m not eager to see the Mariners become billboards for Bank of America.” Another criticism of shirt sponsorship in America is that only those sports which are less-prestigious as the NFL, NBA, MLB or NHL or in dire financial circumstances would

embrace the concept. Scoop Jackson of ESPN wrote (Jackson and Lukas, 2009; Marcus, 2009), “The WNBA has been...financially strapped for years... The fact that they decided to add sponsorships to their jerseys is relevant to their continued (economic woes).” Harris (2009) described the circumstances surrounding the first-ever sponsorship deal signed by the Phoenix Mercury of the WNBA. He quotes Todd Davis, the chief executive of LifeLock who sponsored the Mercury’s jersey, as saying “Mercury fans...will embrace the sponsorship because it gives the team financial stability...but there would be a pretty big backlash if you tried to put a sponsor on the front of the (Arizona) Diamondbacks or (Phoenix) Suns.” In the following section, we pursue the validity of the statement with a study of American sport fans.

METHODOLOGY

The aim of this paper is to describe the results of a pilot research project that examined attitudes of Americans about shirt sponsorship in Major League Soccer (MLS). Some of the key issues we explore center around whether the American public may be opposed to all shirt sponsorship in America professional team sports. We also wanted to learn more about the extent to which Americans might approve of shirt sponsorships in soccer and to try to explain how these perceptions contrasted to the rest of the world in which shirt sponsorships have been embraced for many years.

Drawing from the academic and popular literature about shirt sponsorship and media accounts about reactions to the introduction of shirt sponsorship in the USA, we developed an online survey that participants could take at www.psychdata.com. The survey included 59 questions and on average took the 533 respondents less than 30 minutes to complete. The initial sections of the survey asked participants some demographic information. Participants were then asked to self-identify if they were a soccer fan, a sports fan but not necessarily a soccer fan, or a non-sports fan. This question is somewhat unique and it became critically important in the data analysis since it allowed us to examine potential differences in survey responses between these distinct groups of fans. The survey also presented questions about the specific conditions under which they might accept shirt sponsorship, and the extent to which their media use and purchase decisions might be influenced when teams adopted shirt sponsorship. This line of questioning ties into a study done by Markovits and Smith (2007) in which they surveyed college athletes and other students at the University of Michigan about the ways in which they participate in and follow sports. Similarly, a 2010 report by the SportFive consulting group differentiated between English football fans who were very interested in football and casual fans when determining the extent to which there was growing interest in the sport (Hasenbein & Hinke, 2010).

We recruited potential participants through notices on academic list serves that discuss sports management issues. These efforts yielded few participants. Each of the researchers also recruited students on their own university campus, thus the majority of respondents who took part in this study were college students. We intentionally chose to recruit college students for the survey both because: (a) we had the most access to them, and (b) young people, particularly college students, are demonstrating more interest in becoming soccer fans (Markovits & Smith, 2007) and are a sought-after demographic for MLS and other leagues alike (Howard, 2009; Bachman, 2009). In fact, college students are a sought-after market for other US professional leagues and teams as well. Over the past several years, teams such as Major League Baseball’s Philadelphia

Phillies treat college students as their target market for the beginning months each season until they shift to families as primary schools release for the summer (George, 2006).

Procedure

Participants were college students from American universities solicited via e-mail with an invitation to respond to a survey designed to “determine the attitudes about large advertisements on Major League Soccer uniforms.” The American university criterion was used to allow researchers to test the effect of shirt sponsorship on “American markets.” After reading an informed consent form, participants responded to a set of demographic questions. Following this, participants self-selected into three categories of sports avidity and completed a series of measures related to our research questions. Finally, participants were invited to enter a drawing for a free MLS team jersey of their choice. Data collection began in June 2009 and concluded in December 2009.

Measures

Demographic measures include: basic self-report questions measuring participant gender, geographic location, education, income, and ethnicity were asked. Additional issues were also investigated.

Experience with sports and soccer measures included experience with soccer as both a participant and a spectator. As for being a sport spectator, we asked respondents to self-identify as non-sports fans, sports fans but not soccer fans, or soccer fans. Respondents were also asked an abbreviated version of the Trail and James (2001) sports consumption scale, with three response items tailored for soccer in general (“soccer is boring,” “no opinion” or “soccer is exciting”) as well as Major League Soccer specifically. Five questions were asked about interest in different soccer leagues, including college and international soccer using six-point Likert-type scale.

Fan behaviors’ measures include: attending soccer games, watching games on television (or following soccer using other media outlets such as magazines, newspapers, or the Internet), and purchasing soccer-related merchandise were measured using categorical responses. In addition to these self-reported behavioral measures, a series of five-item Likert-style questions were asked regarding whether or not respondents felt that the presence of shirt sponsorships on MLS jerseys would affect their willingness to attend games, follow MLS teams, or discuss teams and league action with friends. Responses of “1” indicated “strongly disagree” while responses of “4” indicated “strongly agree,” and a neutral response was coded as “0.”

Opinions of/approval of MLS shirt sponsorship measures were perhaps the most central questions to our study as respondents were asked a series of questions related to their response to MLS shirt sponsorships. Questions were worded to capture prevailing fan opinions. These questions related to general impression of MLS jersey ads (“are ugly,” “make the league look unprofessional,” “look more like the jerseys worn by international soccer clubs,” “show me that corporations think the teams are valuable,” and “setting a trend other professional sports in the USA will follow”), conditional acceptance of MLS shirt sponsorships (“if it lowers ticket

prices,” “if it helps my team attract or retain the best players,” “if it prevents my team from seeking public funds”), and sponsor attitudes (“allow me to identify a team with a product/product with a team,” “make me more likely to purchase the sponsor’s products or services,” “make me want to avoid buying the sponsor’s products or services,” “make me want to learn more about the sponsor,” “are a waste of money”). Responses of “1” indicated “strongly disagree” while responses of “4” indicated “strongly agree,” and a neutral response was coded as “0.”

RESULTS

Participants

A total of N=533 student participants completed our online survey. These students were recruited from several American universities. About 43% of the respondents (n=229) were male, and almost half of the respondents (47.8%) were freshmen or sophomore college students in South Dakota, New Jersey, Georgia, Pennsylvania and Texas. Most of the respondents (62.5%) were from middle-income families (annual household income ranges from \$25,000 to \$150,000). A majority of the respondents (84.5%) were Caucasian. About half of the respondents (49.9%) played in a soccer league as a youth. More than a half of the respondents (52.5%) thought that soccer was exciting in general, but only 35.4% of the respondents described Major League Soccer (MLS) as exciting; 49.8% had no opinion about MLS. Because we sought to investigate if a person’s status as a fan affected their attitude toward the MLS or shirt ads, participants were asked their fan status (“not a sports fan,” “sports fan but not a soccer fan,” or “soccer fan”). Table 1 shows the self-reported fan status among respondents; this measure was used to create three groups of fans so we could assess the relative influence of self-identified fandom on our dependent measures.

TABLE 1. FAN STATUS (n=533)

	Frequency	Percent
Not a sports fan	83	15.57
A sports fan, but not a fan of soccer	256	48.03
A soccer fan	194	36.40

Effect of shirt advertising on perceptions of MLS - We first examined the effect of shirt advertising on perceptions of the league. Overall, answers revealed a positive response toward shirt sponsorship. Respondents did not think that shirt advertisements were ugly (M = 2.26, SD = .838) or unprofessional (M = 2.21, SD = .870), and reported that the presence of shirt advertisements made the teams look more like their international counterparts (M = 2.68, SD = .845) and appear more valuable to corporations (M = 2.90, SD = .765).

We next investigated if a person’s status as a fan affected their attitude toward the MLS or shirt ads. Soccer fans were the least likely to perceive the presence of shirts advertisements as unprofessional (M = 2.08, SD = .873) as compared to the other fan groups. Both soccer fans and general sports fans also felt most strongly that the presence of ads on jerseys made the MLS teams look more like their international counterparts; all of these differences were significant.

See Table 2. Furthermore, results related to aesthetics of the ads and corporations' motivations for advertising were not significant.

TABLE 2. ANOVA RESULTS FOR THE EFFECT OF SHIRT ADVERTISING ON PERCEPTIONS OF MLS

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
<i>Ads on MLS shirts are ugly</i> ¹			1.16	.314	.007
Soccer fans	2.20a	.866			
Sports fans	2.34a	.840			
Non fans	2.24a	.699			
<i>Ads on MLS shirts are unprofessional</i> ²			3.44	.033	.017
Soccer fans	2.08a	.873			
Sports fans	2.32b	.865			
Non fans	2.25b	.838			
<i>Ads on MLS jerseys are more like int'l soccer</i> ³			5.19	.006	.031
Soccer fans	2.78a	.870			
Sports fans	2.67a	.801			
Non fans	2.28b	.815			
<i>Ads on MLS jerseys imply corporations see value in teams</i> ⁴			1.78	.170	.010
Soccer fans	2.97a	.739			
Sports fans	2.87a	.753			
Non fans	2.74a	.871			

Note: Different subscripts within groups indicate honest significant difference at the $p < .05$ level or higher using Tukey HSD method.

¹ Degrees of freedom are (2,350); ² Degrees of freedom are (2,390)

³ Degrees of freedom are (2,329); ⁴ Degrees of freedom are (2,359)

Benefits of MLS shirt advertisements - We then looked at factors that might impact a respondent's attitude toward the presence of shirt advertisements: what would it take to get the respondent to accept shirt advertisements? Overall, we found that respondents supported the presence of shirt advertisements if it resulted in lower ticket prices ($M = 3.04$, $SD = .784$), attracting and/or retaining top players ($M = 3.04$, $SD = .852$), and prevented teams from seeking public funds ($M = 2.98$, $SD = .910$). All results were significant at the .05 level. For all three measures, soccer fans felt significantly more strongly about these outcomes than sports fans and non-fans. Table 3 contains the means, standard deviations, F-test and observed power statistics for each of these analyses comparing our self-identified fan groups.

TABLE 3. ANOVA EFFECT OF SPORTS STATUS ON CONDITIONAL ACCEPTANCE OF MLS SHIRT ADVERTISING

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	η^2
<i>Lower ticket prices¹</i>			6.35	.002	.032
Soccer fans	3.21a	.697			
Sports fans	2.92b	.824			
Non fans	2.96b	.815			
<i>Attract and retain top players²</i>			9.30	~.001	.049
Soccer fans	3.25a	.737			
Sports fans	2.85b	.907			
Non fans	3.00a,b	.877			
<i>Prevent from seeking public funds³</i>			7.63	.001	.045
Soccer fans	3.20a	.833			
Sports fans	2.80b	.974			
Non fans	2.85b	.760			

Note: Different subscripts within groups indicate significant difference at the $p < .05$ level or greater using Tukey HSD method.

¹ Degrees of freedom are (2,387); ² Degrees of freedom are (2,390)

³ Degrees of freedom are (2,329)

Effect of shirt advertising on fan behaviors - We next sought to investigate the effect of MLS shirt advertisements on critical fan behaviors, such as attending MLS games and watching games on television. Overall, respondents did not feel as if the presence of advertising on MLS jerseys would entice them to watch games on television ($M = 1.68$, $SD = .745$), attend games in-person ($M = 1.59$, $SD = .705$), purchase team merchandise ($M = 1.85$, $SD = .830$), follow MLS teams in the mainstream media ($M = 1.79$, $SD = .816$), or discuss MLS teams with friends ($M = 1.92$, $SD = .850$). Thus, it doesn't look like the presence of jersey advertisements has any positive effects on these behaviors. However, it should be noted that participants in our study did not seem heavily engaged in these activities; 91 percent of respondents do not attend MLS games ($n = 485$), 59 percent of respondents don't watch games on television ($n = 315$), 95 percent of respondents do not purchase MLS merchandise ($n = 505$), and 76 percent of respondents do not follow MLS in mainstream mass media ($n = 406$). Finally, while the overall patterns suggest non-agreement with the measured intended behaviors, we find that across all five fan behavior measures in our study, soccer fans were more likely to engage in them as a result of shirt advertisements as compared to sports fans and non-fans. Table 4 contains details.

TABLE 4. ANOVA EFFECT OF SPORTS STATUS ON FAN BEHAVIORS

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	η^2
<i>Watch games on television</i> ¹			5.80	.003	.032
Soccer fans	1.84a	.781			
Sports fans	1.56b	.692			
Non fans	1.67b	.753			
<i>Go to games in-person</i> ²			8.63	~.001	.047
Soccer fans	1.78a	.730			
Sports fans	1.45b	.642			
Non fans	1.54b	.743			
<i>Buy team merchandise</i> ³			8.15	~.001	.043
Soccer fans	2.07a	.861			
Sports fans	1.71b	.767			
Non fans	1.78b	.848			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	η^2
<i>Follow team in the mass media</i> ⁴			10.4	~.001	.056
Soccer fans	2.04a	.864			
Sports fans	1.64b	.752			
Non fans	1.62b	.741			
<i>Discuss MLS team with friends</i> ⁵			5.61	.004	.031
Soccer fans	2.10a	.860			
Sports fans	1.77b	.803			
Non fans	1.94a,b	.909			

Note: Different subscripts within groups indicate significant difference at the $p < .05$ level or higher using Tukey HSD method.

¹ Degrees of freedom are (2,357); ² Degrees of freedom are (2,353)

³ Degrees of freedom are (2,364); ⁴ Degrees of freedom are (2,356)

⁵ Degrees of freedom are (2,356)

Effect of MLS shirt advertisements on fan’s attitudes toward sponsors - We next examined the effect of shirt advertisements on fan attitudes toward sponsors, including offering support for the advertiser’s business, connecting teams with products (and vice versa), and purchasing the advertised products or services. Overall, respondents felt that MLS jersey advertisements helped to establish goodwill with the corporate sponsor ($M = 2.94$, $SD = .851$), were slightly more likely to connect a product with a team ($M = 2.76$, $SD = .732$) and connect a team with a product ($M = 2.72$, $SD = .771$); however, there did not seem to be an effect of advertising on purchasing a sponsor’s product or services ($M = 2.27$, $SD = .860$), and respondents disagreed slightly that the presence of ads would prevent purchasing products or services ($M = 1.99$, $SD = .817$). Respondents felt slightly that ads on MLS jerseys would increase information-seeking behaviors about sponsors ($M = 2.37$, $SD = .824$). None of these opinions differed significantly as a result of sports fandom groupings. Table 5 contains the means, standard deviations, F-test and observed power statistics for each of these analyses.

TABLE 5. ANOVA EFFECT OF SPORTS FANDOM ON FAN BEHAVIORS

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	η^2
<i>Advertiser goodwill</i> ¹			2.56	.079	.015
Soccer fans	3.05a	.834			
Sports fans	2.83a	.893			
Non fans	2.96a	.721			
<i>Identify a product with a team</i> ²			.550	.577	.003
Soccer fans	2.78a	.726			
Sports fans	2.73a	.752			
Non fans	2.84a	.682			
<i>Identify a team with a product</i> ³			1.27	.283	.006
Soccer fans	2.67a	.777			
Sports fans	2.72a	.772			
Non fans	2.86a	.749			
<i>Purchase advertised products/services</i> ⁴			1.94	.145	.011
Soccer fans	2.36a	.844			
Sports fans	2.17a	.845			
Non fans	2.35a	.926			
<i>Avoid purchasing products/services</i> ⁵			.048	.953	~.000
Soccer fans	1.97a	.839			
Sports fans	2.00a	.801			
Non fans	1.98a	.821			
<i>Information seeking about sponsors</i> ⁶			1.85	.158	.011
Soccer fans	2.44a	.811			
Sports fans	2.28a	.834			
Non fans	2.48a	.809			

Note: Different subscripts within groups indicate honest significant difference at the $p < .05$ level or higher using Tukey HSD method.

¹ Degrees of freedom are (2,347); ² Degrees of freedom are (2,404)

³ Degrees of freedom are (2,406); ⁴ Degrees of freedom are (2,349)

⁵ Degrees of freedom are (2,347); ⁶ Degrees of freedom are (2,348)

Effect of MLS shirt advertisements on acceptance of shirt advertising in other professional sports - Finally, we examined whether or not the presence of shirt advertisements in MLS might affect people's perceptions of allowing such ads on other major professional sports in the United States. Overall, respondents agreed slightly that MLS jersey advertisements were setting a trend for other professionals to follow, $M = 2.61$, $SD = .877$; moreover, a significant difference was found between different types of fans, $F(2,357) = 3.22$, $p = .041$, $\eta^2 = .018$. Non-sport fans were most likely to think that a trend was being set ($M = 2.85$, $SD = .85$) followed in order by soccer fans ($M = 2.65$, $SD = .877$) and sports fans ($M = 2.51$, $SD = .884$), although the latter two groups did not differ significantly from one another.

DISCUSSION

Our study was designed to take an exploratory look at how different self-identified classifications of sports fans, particularly the coveted college student market, felt about the emergence of shirt sponsorship in American professional sports. Understanding fans attitudes and behavioral intentions is the first step toward anticipating responses that impact sport revenue. Because fan revenues are such a vital part of a sport team's and league's overall revenue stream, their opinions and intentions are studied in this paper. We examined how fans and non-fans alike were responding to the presence of jersey advertisements in MLS, and whether or not fans felt these ads would influence their perceptions of MLS and its advertisers.

When asked whether they felt MLS shirt sponsorships were ugly, respondents replied no. Nor were the ads seen as unprofessional; instead, they felt these sponsorships made MLS clubs look more like prestigious international counterparts. Soccer fans and sports fans felt most strongly that shirt sponsorships made MLS teams look like international clubs. Respondents said they would support shirt sponsorships if this practice lowered ticket prices, helped a team recruit players, or not have to seek public funds. Soccer fans felt more strongly about these questions than sports fans or non-fans.

We asked respondents about the extent to which shirt sponsorships may affect fan behavior. However, since many of our respondents did not live in areas close to MLS franchises, it is hard to infer what this data is really telling us. For example, 91 percent of respondents had never attended an MLS match. Broadly, the data suggest that soccer fans are more likely than sports fans or non-fans to attend games, purchase team merchandise, follow the league in the media, and discuss MLS with friends because the league allows shirt sponsorships.

In addition to having respondents from far enough outside MLS teams' geographic market to accurately gauge fan behavior, our measure of fan behavior might not have captured the full behavioral spectrum. This study's measures sought to determine what positive effect a shirt sponsorship brought to the team and league. Results were only slightly positive. However, as one reviewer noted, there is a research stream that might lead marketing researchers to hypothesize that fans would behave negatively immediately toward the team. In the future questions could be different – measuring the negative effects of using shirt advertising rather than the positive effects. For example, future studies might ask, “Would advertising on sports' jerseys dissuade you from buying the team's jerseys” or “from watching the team on television” or “attending games in-person.”

Respondents told us how they felt shirt sponsorships affected their attitudes towards team sponsors and helped connect sponsors and teams. Interestingly, respondents said that shirt sponsorships did not make them more likely to seek more information about a team sponsor or purchase a sponsor's goods. However, keep in mind that many of the study's respondents were not located near an MLS team and could not, therefore, easily access MLS team merchandise. This might have affected some results.

One of our major goals was to discern if shirt sponsorship was only a trend that would be confined to international teams and the MLS or if it might be spreading to other more high-

profile professional team sports such as the NFL, Major League Baseball, the NHL and the NBA. When taken as a whole, respondents said MLS was setting a trend other pro sports in the USA would follow. But when you sort out the opinions of all three groups, significant fractures emerge: Nonfans were most likely to say shirt sponsorships would spread beyond MLS followed by soccer fans and sports fans.

IMPLICATONS

This study looks at the effect that shirt sponsorship of teams in a professional league has on fans' thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Managerially, more than ever, these answers are sought: competition from other forms of entertainment is diluting the consumer base, consumers have less disposable income and are weathering current economic hazards, and marketing signage is turning some viewers off. Our study shows that American fans overall accept shirt sponsorship on professional soccer jerseys. The MLS and even other professional sports team managers are seemingly in a position to introduce the idea of shirt sponsorships, at least in a limited way.

That's not to say that the issue is resolved, on the contrary. One implication, for researchers is whether these findings extend to other more entrenched professional sports in the U.S. Industry; experts suggest that shirt sponsorship is a viable revenue stream. Fan advocates are not so favorable. Our research generally supports that idea that fans are not wholly against shirt sponsorships on MLS jerseys, and anticipate the coming of shirt sponsorships in other American professional sports.

This study provides a small aspect of one look into the much broader issue of how avid sports fans in the United States feel about one issue related to the increasing intrusion of commercialism and sponsorship into sports. Some obvious lines of follow-up research might investigate such issues as the extent to which other intrusions into the game-day experience (e.g., more sponsored segments within games, such as: "This kickoff is sponsored by Brand X") as well as the extent to which sports fans are able to recall the increased numbers of sponsored messages that are directed towards them. Finally, studies might need to be done to advise potential sponsors about how they can engage avid fans and get their brand embraced by them, rather than instead alienating them.

LIMITATIONS

As with all research, the study has limitations. First, this was a pilot study that we hoped would serve as a litmus test that would provide preliminary insights. We are now administering a follow-up study that probes more deeply into the relationships between sponsorship and fan avidity. Secondly, many of our respondents were college students who lived too far away from an MLS franchise to be avid fans of a Major League Soccer team. In future studies, we hope to reach more avid fans who attend sports games and consume information about their team in the mass media.

Respondents for this survey were a convenience sample comprised largely of college-aged students, and some of whom were not located in or near major MLS markets. While we are confident that our study still contained a large cross-section of sports and soccer fans as

represented by our descriptive statistics, we acknowledge that this sample is but a small portion of the larger US sport fan base. However, the lack of representation from MLS markets in our sample confirms the MLS Commissioner Don Garber's comments that "we're not trying to create soccer fans. We're trying to convert soccer fans into fans of MLS" (Marcus, 2009). This low prevalence of fan behaviors (i.e. about 10 percent of our sample attended MLS games, and only about 40 percent watched MLS games on television) suggests that our respondents, while many self-identified as soccer fans, were not necessarily fans of a particular MLS franchise. Replication of this research should carefully consider a broader cross-section of sports fans and make careful efforts to include respondents from MLS markets.

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EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN PUBLIC RELATIONS INSTRUCTION: CONTENT ANALYSIS OF INTRODUCTORY TEXTBOOKS AND CODES OF ETHICS

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the ethics chapters in five introduction-to-public relations textbooks and the codes of ethics of four major public relations associations contained within those chapters to assess the prevalence of language that either uses the same terms Daniel Goleman employs for his 25 competencies of emotional intelligence or uses words that strongly suggest the terms Goleman employs to determine the connection between the language of emotional intelligence and the language of the ethical practice of public relations. Results show that such a connection exists, with the emotional intelligence competency of trustworthiness being the most prevalent.

INTRODUCTION

Though Bar-On (2004) contends that Charles Darwin in his 1872 work *Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals* was the first to see the value of healthy intra- and interpersonal skills, Goleman's seminal work on emotional intelligence (1995) is generally seen as having dramatically altered the discussion as to what portends success. The notion that what had broadly been known as "people skills" could be put on the same playing field as critical thinking, erudition, language skills, and other traditional measures of intelligence was novel to say the least. Yet the concept has had great appeal, not only in psychology (Cox, 2008; Murphy, 2009; Singh & Woods, 2008) and sociology (Donohoe & Greene 2009), but with researchers in fields as diverse as medicine (Carr, 2009; Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007; Stratton, Saunders, & Elam, 2007), education (Deniz, Tras, & Avdogan, 2009; Howard, 2009; Moore, 2009; Rietti, 2008), sports (Lane et al., 2009), marketing (Kidwell, Hardesty, & Childers 2008), human resources (Deutschendorf, 2009), speech pathology (Robertson, 2007), workplace satisfaction (Dong & Howard, 2006), and management (Parthasarathy, 2009; Schoo, 2008).

Though public relations, with its emphasis on relationship-building, may seem a natural fount for research into emotional intelligence, this wellspring has remained virtually untapped. Emotional intelligence is a source of effective public relations in the everyday experience of working professionals, and, for the purposes of this study, the 25 competencies of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2006, pp. 26-27) are integral to an understanding of the codes of ethics of the Arthur W. Page Society, the International Association of Business Communicators, the International Public Relations Association, and the Public Relations Society of America; and are consistent

with the material presented in the ethics chapters of five introductory public relations textbooks (Cameron, Wilcox, Reber, & Shin, 2008; Cutlip, Center, & Broom, 2006; Lattimore, Baskin, Heiman, & Toth, 2009; Newsom, Turk, and Kruckeberg, 2000; and Seitel, 2007).

Especially in crisis situations (Seitel, 2007, pp. 39-42; Wilcox, Cameron, Ault, & Agee, 2007, pp. 260-267), organizations have found that the same principles of honesty, integrity, openness, trust, respect, and empathy that make for healthy personal relationships also result in sound, long-term relationships between an organization and its various publics. Perhaps the most frequently lauded crisis-management situation is the 1982 Tylenol murders (Seitel, 2007, pp. 39-42). Johnson & Johnson Company responded quickly to the fatal tampering, giving the media full access to information and doing everything possible to inform and protect consumers. The company acted with honesty, integrity, openness, trust, respect, and empathy.

In order to foster those competencies in others, one must first be fully aware and in control of one's internal emotional environment (Goleman, 2006, pp. 49-129). Emotional intelligence, like no other concept, brings the interpersonal and intrapersonal into play, seeing them as equally important in nurturing and maintaining positive relationships with others.

Heath and Coombs (2006) in a discussion of proactivity present eight principles of effective public relations that are all directly related to competencies of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2006, pp. 26-27):

- Be community oriented;
- Seek to put the best available information into play;
- Carefully analyze information that is in-play and invite analysis of information;
- Express evaluations, listen to others' evaluations, and invite evaluations—genuine dialogue;
- Seek outcomes that feature “win-win” alternatives;
- Be open, candid, and honest;
- Listen, give regard, and respond in ways that demonstrate a commitment not merely to defending a position but also to fostering dialogue that can lead all interested parties to achieve a mutually satisfying, beneficial outcome; and
- Seek to establish mutually beneficial relationships (p. 378).

Community orientation speaks to the competency of service orientation, while the second principle entails the competencies of trustworthiness, conscientiousness, and communication, and the third adds the competency of collaboration and cooperation. Genuine dialogue entails the competencies of understanding others, communication, and trustworthiness, and possibly developing others, leveraging diversity, political awareness, and building bonds. Orchestrating win-win outcomes calls upon the competencies of influence, leadership, and perhaps conflict management and change catalyst. Openness, candor, and honesty are aspects of the competency of trustworthiness, while true listening and genuine regard for others are subsumed under the competencies of understanding others, developing others, and building bonds. Finally, the establishment of mutually beneficial relationships entails all of the above in addition to emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment, self-confidence, self-control, adaptability, innovation, commitment, initiative, optimism, and team capabilities. The ethical practice of public relations is inherently linked to the competencies of emotional intelligence.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the ethics chapters in five introduction-to-public relations textbooks and the codes of ethics of four major public relations associations contained within those chapters to determine the prevalence of language that either uses the same terms Goleman employs for the 25 competencies of emotional intelligence or uses words that strongly suggest the terms Goleman employs (see Table 1). Through such a content analysis of the ethics chapters in five introductory public relations texts, which include the codes of ethics of the Arthur W. Page Society, the International Association of Business Communicators, the International Public Relations Association, and the Public Relations Society of America, a strong relationship is sought between the 25 competencies of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995 & 2006) and the ethical instruction of public relations.

Thayer, Evans, McBride, Queen, and Spyridakis (2007) identify two levels of content analysis—manifest and latent. In the former, the researcher tallies “words, phrases, or other ‘surface’ features of the text itself” (p. 269). The latter involves interpreting the underlying meaning of the text. Latent analysis is the more difficult of the two levels of analysis because the researcher must have a clearly stated idea about what is being measured. For example, to measure the amount of chauvinist language in Hemingway’s novels, it is necessary to first define “chauvinist language.” That definition should ideally follow the work of other researchers who have already developed proven lists of chauvinist words and phrases (p. 270).

In this study, Goleman provides definitions of each of the 25 competencies (2006, pp. 26-27), which serve as guides for both the manifest and latent examples of each competency found in the texts. The competency of service orientation was somewhat expanded for the purposes of this study. Specifically, “customers” were taken to mean the general public, since, for the most part, specific customers were not cited in the texts and therefore any service to the community as a whole was considered a means of anticipating, recognizing, and meeting the needs of customers, potential or actual.

TABLE 1. OPERATIONAL FRAMEWORK: MANIFEST AND LATENT EXAMPLES OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE COMPETENCIES

<p>Emotional Awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">* Goleman’s Definition: recognizing one’s emotions and their effects.* Manifest: “deeply troubling questions for the individual practitioner” (Cameron, 208)*Latent: “Open, two-way communications remains paramount—even in the face of frustration and failure.” (Cameron quoting Judith T. Phair, 213)
<p>Accurate Self-Assessment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">*Goleman’s Definition: knowing one’s strengths and limits.* Manifest: “Several studies have shown that the members of PRSA and other organizations have a much higher awareness of ethics and professional standards than nonmembers.” (Cameron, 208)*Latent: “[E]thics in public relations really begins with the individual—and is directly related to his or her own value system as well as to the good of society.” (Cameron, 209)

Self-Confidence

- * Goleman's Definition: a strong sense of one's self-worth and capabilities.
- * Manifest: "[P]ractitioners must never allow a client or an employer to rob them of their self-esteem." (Cameron, 209)
- * Latent: "We shouldn't allow ourselves to accept the lowest common denominator of behavior..." (Cutlip quoting Frank Wylie, 140)

Self-Control

- * Goleman's Definition: keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check.
- * Manifest: "the right course of action based on moral principle, rather than cost, self-interest, or expedience" (Cutlip, 121)
- * Latent: "Ethical professional practice requires placing public service and social responsibility over personal gains..." (Cutlip, 125)

Trustworthiness

- * Goleman's Definition: maintaining standards of honesty and integrity.
- * Manifest: "must have the will to be ethical, intending not to injure others, but rather to be honest and trustworthy" (Lattimore, 74)
- * Latent: "Some practitioners have been arbitrarily fired for refusing to write news releases they thought would be false or misleading." (Lattimore, 75)

Conscientiousness

- * Goleman's Definition: taking responsibility for personal performance.
- * Manifest: "have the moral resolve to say yes or no" (Lattimore, 73)
- * Latent: "When public relations practitioners participate in organizational decision, they bear a heavy ethical responsibility—not only to themselves and their organizations but also to their profession and the public." (Lattimore, 76)

Adaptability

- * Goleman's Definition: flexibility in handling change.
- * Manifest: "Always giving the majority preference prevents the organization from adapting to a change impetus initiated by publics and other stakeholders." (Cutlip, 120)
- * Latent: Present all sides of an issue." (Cameron, 209)

Innovation

- * Goleman's Definition: being comfortable with novel ideas, approaches, and new information.
- * Manifest: "The most recent PRSA Code revisions...changed dramatically how PRSA intended to think about and educate public relations professionals about ethics." (Lattimore, 76)
- * Latent: Yvon Chouinard, founder of Patagonia, "tithes 10 percent of pretax profits or one percent of sales to environmental groups. In 1996, Patagonia gave more than \$1.1 million to 200 groups....Internally, Chouinard looks for employees who have families, and half of his staff are women. For new mothers, Patagonia has lactation consultants, a nursing room and an on-site nursery next to the cafeteria, separated by a plate glass window." (Newsom, 225)

Achievement Drive

- * Goleman's Definition: striving to improve or meet a standard of excellence.
- * Manifest: "We must aspire to a better level of ethics, and we must persevere to achieve that goal." (Cutlip quoting Frank Wylie, 140)
- * Latent: "Don't hesitate to stand up and rectify things immediately." (Lattimore, 75)

Commitment

- * Goleman's Definition: aligning with the goals of the group or organization.
- * Manifest: PRSA invested \$100,000 in "revamping its code of ethics." (Seitel, 109)
- * Latent: "a commonly accepted sense of professional conduct that is translated into formal codes of ethics" (Seitel, 111)

Initiative

- * Goleman's Definition: readiness to act on opportunities.
- * Manifest: "Often the public relations professional will be the only member of management with the nerve to pose [ethical questions]....Sometimes this means saying no to what the boss wants to do. Public relations professionals must be driven by one purpose—to preserve, defend, sustain, and enhance the health and vitality of the organization." (Seitel, 112)
- * Latent: "having the courage to stand up for ethical codes" (Newsom, 220)

Optimism

- * Goleman's Definition: persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks.
- * Manifest: "[W]hen everyone in the room—lawyer, human resources, treasurer, and president—all agree with the CEO's rock-headed scheme to disguise bad news, it is the public relations professional's duty to strike an independent tone." (Seitel, 122)
- * Latent: [W]hen a rude and obnoxious journalist demands information, a practitioner's responsibility is to treat even the most obnoxious reporter with fairness." (Seitel, 122)

Understanding Others

- * Goleman's Definition: sensing others' feelings and perspectives, and taking an active interest in their concerns.
- * Manifest: "We build understanding, credibility, and relationships among a wide array of institutions and audiences." (Seitel, 110)
- * Latent: What "can occur is that an organization should try to act in such a way that even when its actions negatively affect one or more [of] its publics (such as through the closing of an unprofitable facility), those who are affected will understand and accept the decision, even if they don't like it." (Newsom, 222)

Developing Others

- * Goleman's Definition: sensing others' development needs and bolstering their abilities.
- * Manifest: "Public relations' benefits are apparent in the billions of dollars raised to construct buildings, endow professorships, and provide scholarships in universities; [and] in campaigns to eradicate disease and substance abuse, reduce poverty, improve nutrition, house the homeless..." (Cutlip, 124)
- * Latent: "At least one session at the association's annual conference is devoted to ethics. The international headquarters of IABC...encourages and supports efforts by IABC student chapters, professional chapters, and districts/regions to conduct meetings and workshops devoted to the topic of ethics and the IABC Code." (Lattimore, 81)

Service Orientation

- * Goleman's Definition: anticipating, recognizing, and meeting customers' needs.
- * Manifest: "We serve the public interest by acting as responsible advocates for those we represent." (Seitel, 110)
- * Latent: "Today, many corporate executives realize that just as an individual has certain responsibilities as a citizen, so, too, does a corporate citizen have responsibilities to the society in which it is privileged to operate." (Seitel, 114)

Leveraging Diversity

- * Goleman's Definition: cultivating opportunities through different kinds of people.
- * Manifest: "Professional communicators are sensitive to cultural values and beliefs and engage in fair and balanced communication activities that foster and encourage mutual understanding." (Lattimore, 80)
- * Latent: The IABC Code focuses on "the worth of human beings in the many cultures of the world" and is "sensitive to other cultural values and beliefs." (Lattimore, 79)

Political Awareness

- * Goleman's Definition: reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships.
- * Manifest: "consistently allows the minority to have just as much impact on an issue as the majority: an important consideration for activist groups and demographic minorities alike" (Cutlip, 121)
- * Latent: "The fate of the yes-man is as inevitable as it is painful. Although your boss may think you're the greatest guy in the world for a while, you're going to lose your internal credibility because you never really state your professional opinions. And you're talking to a person who dotes on strong opinions and does not think highly of people who fail to offer them." (Cameron quoting J. Kenneth Clark, 209)

Influence

- * Goleman's Definition: wielding effective tactics for persuasion.
- * Manifest: "PR does work to change people's views..." (Newsom, 225)
- * Latent: "Conduct public relations as if the whole company depended on it. It does. Corporate relations is a management function. No corporate strategy should be implemented without considering its external and internal public relations impact. The PR practitioner is a policy maker, not just a publicist." (Newsom, 224)

Communication

- * Goleman's Definition: listening openly and sending convincing messages.
- * Manifest: An "ongoing dialogue in the public sphere is necessary to reach consensus so that the actions of an organization gain legitimacy." (Newsom, 222)
- * Latent: "We provide a voice in the marketplace of ideas, facts, and viewpoints to aid informed public debate." (Lattimore, 77)

Conflict Management

- * Goleman's Definition: negotiating and resolving disagreements.
- * Manifest: "Avoid real, potential, or perceived conflicts of interests among clients, employers, and the public. A public relations firm should inform a prospective client that it already represents a competitor or has a conflicting interest. A firm, for example should not be doing public relations for two competing fast-food restaurant chains." (Cameron, 206)
- * Latent: "Building good relations with press [in China] is one way to head off potential lawsuits." (Cameron, 212)

Leadership

- * Goleman's Definition: inspiring and guiding individuals and groups.
- * Manifest: "highly principled employers" (Cameron, 208)
- * Latent: "Most national organizations place heavy emphasis on educating their members on professional standards..." (Cameron, 205)

Change Catalyst

- * Goleman's Definition: initiating or managing change.
- * Manifest: The "organization's public relations efforts can change the beliefs, attitudes, opinions and even behaviors of publics." (Newsom, 222)
- * Latent: "The most recent PRSA Code revisions...changed dramatically how PRSA intended to think about and educate public relations professionals about ethics." (Lattimore, 79)

Building Bonds

- * Goleman's Definition: nurturing instrumental relationships.
- * Manifest: "To facilitate dialogue, promote understanding and build mutually beneficial relationships are admirable—even noble—pursuits." (Cutlip, 119)
- * Latent: "Public relations' benefits are apparent in...the lessening of ethnic, racial, and religious discrimination and conflict..." (Cutlip, 124)

Collaboration and Cooperation

- * Goleman's Definition: working with others toward shared goals.
- * Manifest: "collaboration, working jointly with different people, and allowing for both listening and give-and-take" (Seitel, 121)
- * Latent: "Because the local community often provides critical elements such as utilities, tax breaks, cooperative zoning plans and chamber of commerce promotion, a community has a right to expect environmental protection, a fair tax return, employment of local people and corporate contributions of funds and executive time to community projects." (Newsom, 226)

Team Capabilities

- * Goleman's Definition: creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals.
 - * Manifest: "An employee of an organization should not share information with a public relations firm that is in competition with other firms for the organization's business." (Cameron, 206)
 - * Latent: "[A]nything less than total honesty [with the media] will destroy credibility and with it, the practitioner's usefulness to an employer." (Cameron, 209)
- (Competencies are arranged in the order in which they are presented in Goleman (2006), not alphabetically.)

Importance of Study

Since this exploratory study is designed to establish a clear link between the competencies of emotional intelligence and the ethical codes of the three major public relations professional organizations, and between these competencies and the language used in the ethics chapters of five textbooks, the way is paved for further study into the intra- and interpersonal dynamics of the practice of public relations. The effective practice of public relations already employs Goleman's 25 competencies of emotional intelligence. Indeed, if a company wished to hire a public relations professional who would ethically and efficiently serve the needs of the company and its publics, the best way to ferret out such a person from a plethora of job candidates would be to look for someone with these competencies. Though the field of public relations has been intuitively employing Goleman's competencies, it is the purpose of this study to make a clear connection between Goleman's competencies of emotional intelligence and the use of these competencies in the instruction of and practice of public relations.

Research Question

This study is designed to answer the following question: What is the relationship between the instruction of public relations, given the language employed in the ethics chapters of five introductory public relations textbooks and the codes of ethics of the Arthur W. Page Society, the International Association of Business Communicators, the International Public Relations Association and the Public Relations Society of America as presented in these texts on the one hand, and Goleman's 25 competencies of emotional intelligence on the other?

Definitions

At least three of the terms germane to this paper—emotional intelligence, ethics, and public relations—have meant many things to many people. It is beyond the scope of this paper to explore the myriad definitions that have been assigned to these terms over the years. The definitions given below do not, nor do they intend to, encompass the full, rich diversity of meanings given these words, but only to arrive at working definitions for the purposes of this study.

Code of ethics: A set of principles that all members of an organization, an institution, a company, or a profession swear to uphold. For the most part, codes of ethics have little or no enforcement provisions. To be in good standing, a member is supposed to adhere to the code's principles, but if he or she does not, he or she may not suffer any consequences (Wilcox et. al, 2007, p. 81).

Emotional competencies: According to Goleman (2006, p. 24), "An emotional competence is a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work." Goleman (2006, p. 16) also provides the following definition: "a personal trait or set of habits that leads to more effective or superior job performance—in other words, an ability that adds clear economic value to the efforts of a person on the job."

Emotional intelligence: Much has been written about emotional intelligence, but in brief, it refers to those intra- and interpersonal skills (Goleman's 25 competencies) that make for a successful career and personal life (Goleman, 2006, pp. 26-27).

Ethics: Though "morality" and "ethics" are often used interchangeably, the two actually concern different areas of social conduct. The former is primarily concerned with behavior that either adheres to or is in opposition to spiritual or religious teachings, whereas the latter concerns standards of behavior set by a profession, an organization, or an individual (Lattimore et. al, 2009, p. 74). Ethics concerns what is good and bad, fair and unfair, professional and unprofessional, proper and improper behavior for an individual, a profession, a company, or an organization.

Public relations: If ever there was a term that means wildly different things to different people, "public relations" is it. Public relations practitioners are often thought of as flacks and spin doctors; as such, public relations is the purview of those who "know how to lie and twist or spin issues during press conferences and other public forums to take the heat off of the organizations they represent" (Heath & Coombs, 2006, p. 7). Granted, such unscrupulous people are found in public relations, but they do not define the field. Rather, public relations is "the management

function that entails planning, research, publicity, promotion, and collaborative decision making to help any organization's ability to listen to, appreciate, and respond appropriately to those persons and groups whose mutually beneficial relationships the organization needs to foster as it strives to achieve its mission and vision" (Heath & Coombs, 2006, p. 7). Cutlip, Center, and Broom (2006, p. 5) offer a more succinct definition, which served the purposes of this study: "the management function that establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and the publics on whom its success or failure depends."

LITERATURE REVIEW

A search of academic databases, such as JURN, specializing in the arts and humanities, and PsychINFO, the largest database for peer-reviewed articles in behavioral sciences and mental health, yielded no journal articles that specifically address the role of emotional intelligence in the practice of or instruction of public relations. This is surprising on three counts: (1) sixteen years have elapsed since the publication of Goleman's groundbreaking work on emotional intelligence (1995); (2) the effective practice of public relations and the core of emotional intelligence are both relationship-centered; and (3) many hundreds of articles on emotional intelligence have been published, including in the related fields of marketing and consumer behavior (Kidwell, Hardesty, & Childers 2008).

Goleman (2006, pp. 26-27) presents three areas of personal competence and two areas of social competence that comprise EI: self-awareness ("knowing one's internal states, preferences, resources, and intuitions"), self-regulation ("managing one's internal states, impulses, and resources"), motivation ("emotional tendencies that guide or facilitate reaching goals"), empathy ("awareness of others' feelings, needs, and concerns"), and social skills ("adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others"). These five areas are then divided into 25 competencies: emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment, self-confidence, self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, innovation, achievement drive, commitment, initiative, optimism, understanding others, developing others, service orientation, leveraging diversity, political awareness, influence, communications, conflict management, leadership, change catalyst, building bonds, collaboration and cooperation, and team capabilities (pp. 26-27). All these competencies are seen in the ethical practice of public relations and in the instruction of the same. Certainly any accomplished professor must be emotionally aware, a good judge of him/herself, self-confident, not prone to emotional outbursts or other inappropriate emotional responses, trustworthy, conscientious in preparing lessons and in grading, flexible enough to adapt his or her lesson plans to meet student needs, innovative in teaching methods, focused on achieving a high level of student comprehension, committed to the subject at hand, a self-starter, optimistic, understanding of the needs of his/her students, interested in developing the talents of his/her students, dedicated to serving students to the best of his/her ability, able to make the most of a diverse group of students, politically aware of a classroom's shifting dynamics and power plays, influential in shaping young minds, able to communicate theories and practices to students who have different learning styles, able to prevent and to quickly resolve conflicts, a leader whom the students admire and respect, a catalyst for change in his/her students' thinking, a person who builds lasting bonds among students and between students and him/herself, a facilitator of collaborative and cooperative projects, and a promoter for team spirit. Because these competencies so aptly convey the mark of a good teacher and especially a good public

relations educator, the bulk of this paper addresses the role of EI in the instruction of public relations, realizing that the same skill set also serves the public relations practitioner. After all, the public relations educator is selling ideas to his or her students, convincing them that learning is desirable and that the profession of public relations is a worthwhile endeavor, while the public relations professional is selling his or her clients and the public on an image of an organization.

Project Management as a Model for the Use of Emotional Intelligence in Public Relations

Though no published works in the researcher's review of the literature have established EI as integral to the practice of public relations, there exist models that have been employed in other disciplines that can be applied to public relations and the instruction of public relations courses. The researcher has chosen the field of project management, as both the public relations practitioner and the public relations professor can be viewed as project managers, individuals who must be adept on at least three fronts that are also integral to effective project management: (1) seeing the big picture and having one's sights set on the final outcome; (2) attending to the myriad details that ensure the success of the project, program, campaign, or class; and (3) effective leadership skills to make sure that tasks are completed in a timely and competent manner.

As an additional similarity between project management and public relations, Mersino (2007) points out that, while researching his book *Emotional Intelligence for Project Managers*, he also found a dearth of previously published material linking EI with his field:

The February 2006 issue of *PM Network* ran a cover story on emotional intelligence. It was interesting that this article appeared eleven years after Daniel Goleman's first book was published. When I began researching this book I found that there had been a previous *PM Network* [article] on emotional intelligence featuring Daniel Goleman in 1999. Other than these two examples and a few others, I have not found many people looking at the linkage between emotional intelligence and success in project management (p.12).

Mersino (2007) contends that high levels of emotional intelligence in project managers can help them to: (1) develop stakeholder relationships that support the project's success; (2) anticipate and avoid emotional breakdowns; (3) deal with difficult team members and manage conflict; (4) leverage emotional information to make better decisions; (5) communicate more effectively; (6) create a positive work environment and high team morale; and (7) cast a vision for shared project objectives that will attract, inspire, and motivate the project team (p. 12). These seven benefits, with slight modification, are directly applicable to both the practice of public relations and the successful instruction of public relations courses: (1) develop stakeholder (client, shareholder, employee, community) relationships that support the campaign's success/develop student-student and student-teacher relationships that support the class's success; (2) anticipate and avoid emotional breakdowns with stakeholders/students; (3) deal with difficult clients/students and manage conflict; (4) leverage emotional information to make better decisions vis-à-vis clients/students; (5) communicate more effectively with clients/students; (6) create a positive

work/classroom environment and high team/student morale; and (7) cast a vision for shared campaign/course objectives that will attract, inspire, and motivate the team/the students.

Mersino (2007, p. 13) writes, “Relationships are the key to success as a PM.” This is just as true for the practice of public relations. It has long been the researcher’s experience, both as a public relations practitioner and as a public relations professor, that the field should be renamed public relationships, since “relations” connotes a static environment, whereas relationships are dynamic and ever-changing. Also, the word “relationships” addresses what the researcher contends is the heart of ethical, effective public relations—the long-term best interests of all parties involved, not the short-term gains of a particular client or the success of a particular project. Relationships are the building blocks of EI—both the relationship of self to one’s own emotions and the relationship of self to others and the emotions of others. Truly, the highest form of public relations is the same as a high level of emotional intelligence.

Emotional Intelligence as an Indicator of Success in Business

Cherniss (2010) summarizes 19 studies that show dramatic results when those employees with high emotional intelligence are compared with those of average or below-average EI. The researcher has selected the following studies as they are especially noteworthy:

* The U.S. Air Force used EI measures to select recruiters, increasing its “ability to predict successful recruiters by nearly three-fold” for a savings of \$3 million annually.

* Seasoned partners in a multinational consulting firm “who scored above the median on 9 or more” of 20 EI competencies “delivered \$1.2 million more profit from their accounts than did other partners,” a 139 percent gain.

* In jobs of medium complexity such as sales clerks and mechanics, top performers are 12 times more productive than those at the bottom and 85 percent more productive than average performers. In more complex jobs such as account managers and insurance agents, top performers are 127 percent more productive than average performers. “Competency research in over 200 companies and organizations worldwide suggests that about one-third of this difference is due to technical skill and cognitive ability while two-thirds is due to emotional competence....In top leadership positions, over four-fifths of the differences is due to emotional competence.”

* At L’Oreal, the high-end cosmetics firm, sales agents selected on the basis of emotional competencies outsold salespeople selected using the company’s conventional selection procedure by an average of \$91,370. The former also had 63 percent less turnover during the first year.

* At a major beverage firm, 50 percent of division presidents hired using standard methods left the company within two years, whereas only 6 percent of those hired on the basis of EI competencies did the same.

* Following EI training of supervisors at a manufacturing plant, “lost-time accidents were reduced by 50 percent, formal grievances were reduced from an average of 15 per year to 3 per year, and the plant exceeded productivity goals by \$250,000.”

* “For sales reps at a computer company, those hired based on their emotional competence were 90 percent more likely to finish their training than those hired on other criteria.”

* “For 515 senior executives analyzed by the search firm Egon Zehnder International, those who were primarily strong in emotional intelligence were more likely to succeed than those who were strongest in either relevant previous experience or IQ....[E]motional intelligence was a better predictor of success than either relevant previous experience or high IQ. “ Specifically, executives scoring high in EI were responsible for 74 percent of successes but only 24 percent of failures.”

As can be seen from the above examples and from others cited by Cherniss (2010), emotional intelligence has been linked to success in a wide variety of professions and industries—from military recruiting to cosmetic sales.

Emotional Intelligence in Education

The emotional intelligence of college students, measured by their empathy scores, is lower than their counterparts of two or three decades ago, according to a study by the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research (Bryner, 2010). The findings are based on a review of 72 studies of 14,000 American college students conducted between 1979 and 2009. These troubling findings point to the pressing need for EI education from early childhood on. Before students can be taught how to use their emotional intelligence to cope with the pressures of academia, however, those doing the teaching must be trained in the use of their own emotional intelligence. As Palomera, Fernandez-Berrocal, and Brackett (2008) write, “emotional competence of teachers is necessary, both in general for their own well-being and for effectiveness and quality in carrying out teaching-learning processes in the classroom, and in particular for the socio-emotional development of students.”

As Howard (2009) notes in his study of the relationship between emotional intelligence and communication apprehension:

Educators with high emotional intelligence are by definition those who foster a comfortable learning environment, a setting in which all students are encouraged to participate freely without fear of criticism or derision. Such a setting fosters mutual trust, and people who trust each other are more comfortable in expressing their feelings, insights, and ideas with one another than are those who do not trust each other. (p. 414).

Palomera, Fernandez-Berrocal, and Brackett (2008) envision the teacher of tomorrow—who is actually needed today—who is not only competent in her field but has the intra- and interpersonal skills to cope with the pressures of the job and to create a learning environment in which students are comfortable and feel respected and valued: “...today’s teacher should be able to demonstrate: good intellectual, moral, emotional and social development and be able to

promote the same among a diverse student body, in addition to knowing how to work with the entire educational community, how to investigate within their own setting, and provide proper school management.” For this tall order, nothing short of professionals with high emotional intelligence is required.

Emotional Intelligence in Public Relations Instruction

A search for curricula that specifically address emotional intelligence in public relations yielded no results. The closest matches were an online course in emotional intelligence taught by Jodell Raymond (2010), who has experience in public relations, sales, marketing, and written communications, and an article on the value of EI during crises in the Public Relations Society of America’s journal (Loomis, 2007), given that part of PRSA’s mission is to educate its members as to developments in the field. This dearth of findings again speaks to the need for this study. Though much has been written over the years about emotional intelligence and even about its use in the classroom, nothing prior to this paper has yet been penned about the value of EI in public relations instruction.

METHODOLOGY

Each instance of a specific use of the same term Goleman uses and each instance of a word or group of words that strongly suggests one of his EI competencies was tallied. Some language does not fall neatly into one discreet EI competency but rather is suggestive of more than one. When this was the case, the researcher’s subjective evaluation came into play, making for a somewhat hybrid qualitative-quantitative approach to the entire study, rather than a purely quantitative approach that would have been the case if the researcher only coded one-to-one correspondences between EI competencies and the terms used in the textbooks and in the codes. Textbooks were selected using the following criteria: (1) last published within the past ten years, with most texts published within the past three years; (2) staying power, i.e., the number of editions, the most being 10 (Seitel, 2007); (3) diversity of writers, i.e., writers from around the country and of different backgrounds and institutions; and (4) the researcher’s familiarity with the textbooks and the researcher’s use of the textbooks in classroom instruction.

Assumptions and Limitations

This is the first research effort to examine the inclusion of emotional intelligence in courses that provide students with an introduction to the field of public relations. This study assumed that material presented in the textbooks and in the codes of ethics represent the ethical code of public relations professionals and educators. That is, since the ethical principles espoused in the textbooks and codes of ethics are presented as the standards all public relations professionals strive to uphold, the researcher has assumed that they are in fact the standards that public relations professionals strive to uphold. In particular, since these codes are discussed in introduction-to-public relations classes and since the textbooks are required reading for those classes for which they are assigned, it is assumed that these ethical standards are imparted to students.

A limitation of this study is the number of textbooks employed. Many public relations textbooks could have been evaluated, but time did not permit this. Rather, a sample of some of the most commonly used textbooks was evaluated. Since this is a first effort, there are no prior research results to affirm or refute or extend the results obtained in this study. This means that the results can conservatively be used to make generalizations only about the textbooks and the codes of ethics that were examined. Although it is possible to ground generalizations about the nature of the courses in which these textbooks were used, such generalizations need to be viewed as tentative at best. The selection of textbooks indicates the focus of the course but not as much as would data gathered from observing how the course was taught, the assignments used, and the nature of the supplemental readings assigned by the course educator. The textbooks that were selected are assumed to be widely used; however, this assumption is based on the assertions of the textbook publishers and was not independently verified. The findings of this study conservatively should be used to make inferences about the textbooks that were examined. The findings do provide a foundation and a viable content analysis coding scheme for examination of other textbooks that compete with those selected for this study. As this is the first known study of emotional intelligence and the instruction of public relations and as this topic warrants more study, much work can be undertaken in the future.

RESULTS

Of the 25 competencies of emotional intelligence that were tallied in the ethics chapters of the five textbooks, trustworthiness is the clear front runner with 183 instances (see Table 2). In second place is conscientiousness with 147 instances, followed by service orientation with 114 and communication with 105. The link between trustworthiness and conscientiousness is to be expected, since trustworthiness is defined as “maintaining standards of honesty and integrity” and a person of integrity would necessarily take “responsibility for personal performance,” the definition of conscientiousness (Goleman, 2006, p.26).

Competencies that received low scores, specifically, adaptability (5) and innovation (9) are not *prima facie* ethical characteristics, and so it is little wonder that they do not figure prominently in ethics chapters. It is possible that they are discussed in more depth in other chapters of introductory texts, say, chapters that deal with publicity campaigns or product redesigns or company makeovers. That is, just because they did not figure prominently in this study does not mean that they are not key competencies in an emotionally intelligent public relations practitioner’s toolbox. This warrants future study. This said, in general, for those competencies that are usually associated with ethical behavior, results indicate a strong relationship between the texts and Goleman’s competencies.

TABLE 2. CODING RESULTS IN TABULAR FORMAT

	Cameron	Cutlip	Lattimore	Newsom	Seitel	Total
Emotional Awareness	6	0	0	1	2	9
Accurate self-assessment	7	3	16	10	3	39
Self-confidence	12	4	6	5	6	33
Self-control	5	15	12	2	12	46
Trustworthiness	45	27	50	21	40	183
Conscientiousness	27	40	45	9	26	147
Adaptability	1	1	0	0	3	5
Innovation	3	1	1	2	2	9
Achievement drive	2	9	1	0	10	22
Commitment	6	29	7	4	11	57
Initiative	6	3	3	2	4	18
Optimism	0	10	0	2	5	17
Understanding others	6	20	9	8	3	46
Developing others	9	11	5	4	3	32
Service orientation	18	43	21	11	21	114
Leveraging diversity	3	11	4	0	4	22
Political awareness	9	2	4	5	2	22
Influence	23	19	9	6	9	66
Communication	33	14	32	18	8	105
Conflict management	9	13	6	8	10	46
Leadership	13	22	9	5	9	58
Change catalyst	8	13	2	7	4	34
Building bonds	11	4	8	5	1	29
Collaboration & cooperation	6	15	7	3	5	36
Team capabilities	5	15	10	1	3	34

Cameron = Cameron, G.T., Wilcox, D.L., Reber, B.H., and Shin, J.H. (2008). *Public Relations Today: Managing Competition and Conflict*. Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.

Cutlip = Cutlip, S.M., Center, A.H., and Broom, G.M. (2006). *Effective Public Relations*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.

Lattimore = Lattimore, D., Baskin, O., Heiman, S. T., & Toth, E.L. (2009). *Public Relations: The Profession and the Practice*. Boston: McGraw Hill.

Newsom = Newsom, D., Turk, J.V.S., & Kruckeberg, D. (2000). *This is PR: Realities of Public Relations*. Belmont, California: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.

Seitel = Seitel, F.P. (2007). *The Practice of Public Relations* (10th edition). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.

DISCUSSION

According to the Edelman Trust Barometer, a survey taken in 2009 of 4,875 college-educated consumers in 22 countries (Weisul, 2010), only 38 percent of U.S. respondents said they trusted

business to do what is right. Given the near-destruction of the global economy by unscrupulous bankers and by the job losses, home foreclosures, and general malaise that resulted from these practices, it is little wonder that Americans' trust in the banking system has plummeted to 29 percent (Weisul, 2010). CEOs "came in dead last in a ranking of credible spokespeople" (Weisul, 2010).

The above crisis in trust points to poor emotional intelligence skills, specifically, accurate self-assessment, self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, commitment, understanding others, developing others, service orientation, political awareness, communication, conflict management, leadership, building bonds, and collaboration and cooperation (Goleman, 2006). Richard Edelman, president and CEO of the public relations firm Edelman, which commissions the Edelman Trust Barometer, said, CEOs need to be "genuine, spontaneous, and talk about things beyond the numbers. They need to be talking not just to elites but to customers and employees" and "do a better job talking about what employees want to hear about, which is pay and benefits" (Weisul, 2010). Edelman's comments are another way of saying CEOs need to beef-up their EI skills of trustworthiness, understanding others, developing others, political awareness, influence, communication, leadership, building bonds, collaboration and cooperation, and team capabilities. Clearly, big business and especially financial institutions have a serious image problem. But public relations practitioners must not fail to realize that it is far more than this. If public relations is always seen as maintaining a good face to the public, its activities are mere window-dressing. Public discontent does not arise from nowhere; there are concrete reasons grounded in reality that are disturbing to the public. It is not enough for bankers, for example, to say that they care and that they're honest and trustworthy; they must really care and must truly be people of integrity or the public will continue to find them out of touch, self-absorbed, unconcerned about the common man, and suspect.

Emotional intelligence picks up where image-building leaves off. Image-building is about convincing the public that a corporation is acting in an eco-friendly, socially conscious, or financially prudent manner, even if it isn't. But emotional intelligence is about actually being a friend to the environment, to society, and to workers. Emotional intelligence goes beyond two-way communication in that it adds both an intrapersonal level and an emotive and empathic understanding. Emotional intelligence operates in an environment of an emotionally healthy practitioner and an emotionally healthy relationship between the practitioner (and the organization he or she represents) and the appropriate publics. This dynamic is more than simply listening to the various publics for the concerns they voice; it also entails understanding the emotional climate in which these concerns and criticisms arise. Understanding of others, after all, has been sorely lacking in the lavish displays of wealth and privilege paraded in front of millions of Americans who are unable to put food on their tables and roofs over their heads. In order to have ethical, emotionally intelligent practitioners of public relations in corporate and government arenas, it is first necessary to incorporate emotional intelligence into the instruction of public relations courses. What is learned in the classroom can then eventually be used in the field. This study is a first step in bridging the gaps between lessons learned in public relations courses, as evidenced in the language employed in the ethics chapters of introductory texts, and the ethical practice of public relations in our society.

A Fifth Tradition of Public Relations

Lattimore, Baskin, Heiman, and Toth (2009) present four traditions of public relations: rhetorician and press agent, journalistic and publicity, persuasive communication campaign, and relation building and two-way communication. The results of the content analysis presented here, as well as the low esteem in which the public holds business and government, beg for a new model for the practice of public relations. A fifth tradition of emotional intelligence that goes beyond two-way communication may be necessary. Further studies along the lines of this study could bear that out.

Emotional intelligence goes beyond two-way communication in that it adds both an intrapersonal level and an emotive and empathic understanding. Emotional intelligence operates in an environment of an emotionally healthy practitioner and an emotionally healthy relationship between the practitioner (and the organization he or she represents) and the appropriate publics. As Goleman (2006) relates, “Over and over, I heard what became a familiar litany. People like the high-performing business consultant with the low GPA told me they found emotional intelligence, not technical expertise or book learning, to be what mattered most for excellence” (p. 5). This dynamic is more than simply listening to the various publics for the information they may impart and the concerns they voice; it also entails understanding the emotional climate in which these concerns and criticisms arise. Understanding of others, after all, has been sorely lacking in the lavish displays of wealth and privilege paraded in front of millions of Americans who are unable to put food on their tables and roofs over their heads because of the greed and negligence of auto manufacturers, financial institutions, and the mortgage industry.

In order to have ethical, emotionally intelligent practitioners of public relations in corporate and government arenas, it is first necessary to incorporate emotional intelligence into the instruction of public relations courses. What is learned in the classroom can then eventually be used in the field. This study is a first step in bridging the gaps between lessons learned in public relations courses, as evidenced in the language employed in the ethics chapters of introductory texts and the ethical practice of public relations in our society.

Future Studies

As an exploratory work in the new area of emotional intelligence in the instruction and practice of public relations, this study is but a beginning of what could prove to be a long career for this researcher and the material for many more studies by countless other researchers. This study alone could be performed again with multiple coders or with a computer-assisted program. Also, as stated in the results chapter, low-scoring competencies in the content analysis, such as adaptability and innovation, might be far more prevalent in chapters on campaigns, product launches, viral marketing, brand revamps, and crisis management, as these competencies are not *prima facie* ethical characteristics. This suggests the possibility of content analyses that deal with chapters other than those concentrating on ethics.

Questionnaires assessing students’, educators’, or practitioners’ emotional intelligence; qualitative workplace observations of practitioners in action; and content analyses of company

manuals and training videos to determine the role of emotional intelligence in the corporate setting are all possible studies that may proceed from this work.

The nature of this research project was essentially descriptive in nature, which is what a first research effort should be. This means that there are a number of directions that future research can take. In fact, future research is called for, as it is desirable to research this topic using a number of methodologies to determine if it is possible to affirm, reject, or extend what has been uncovered by this researcher's effort. What follows are but a few suggestions for future research. Because this research effort was limited to the ethics chapters of the five books, references to emotional in other chapters were not discovered or described. A more elaborate research effort should be undertaken that includes the coding of the content from all the chapters in these books. Such an effort would require that the contents be converted (scanned) into text files and coded with the assistance of a computer. This would require the identification of the content analysis software that was best suited for the task.

Since descriptions of the discipline and practice of public relations are not limited to textbooks intended for use by undergraduates, it seems desirable to look at the top-selling general circulation public relations titles. Online book retailers could be consulted to identify the most frequently purchased titles and then a computer-aided content analysis could be conducted to see if emotional intelligence themes are contained in these books. The profession of public relations has a number of publications intended for those who are currently practicing in the field. A review of the contents of these publications for the last several years should be undertaken to see if articles, advice pieces, and editorials make reference to themes associated with emotional intelligence.

The methodology of content analysis is not the only means of gathering data regarding the topic of EI. It seems desirable to survey those individuals who work in the profession of public relations to learn their feelings about EI. Focus groups could be used to learn what those in the field see as the needs of the profession as well as their expectations for the background of their new hires. Though this work is but a first step in what could prove to be an encompassing re-visioning of the instruction of and practice of public relations, it is the researcher's hope that future studies will work to establish emotional intelligence as the fifth tradition of public relations.

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TEAM PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS WHICH INFLUENCE WINS IN THE NATIONAL HOCKEY LEAGUE

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the influence of team performance characteristics on wins in the National Hockey League using a multiplicative model. Six of the thirteen independent variables are significant at the 99% level: power play percentage, whether a team scores first, save percentage, blocked shots, shootout shooting percentage, and faceoff percentage. Three of the thirteen independent variables were significant at the 95% level: major penalties, hits, and total shots. Variables that were not significant were: penalty minutes, shootout save percentage, giveaways and takeaways.

INTRODUCTION

Recently, Stair *et al* (2008) analyzed victories in the National Football League as a function of team performance variables. The authors suggest that such analysis is the precursor to spending decisions in the National Football League based on statistical analysis. It seems reasonable to assume that success in the National Hockey League is similarly correlated with various measures of team performance. Team offensive prowess, goaltending proficiency, and face-off wins are just a few examples of team performance characteristics which might be heavily correlated with team victories. This paper examines NHL team performance in various statistical categories and the resulting influence on overall team success. The results of this study should aid team officials when assembling a roster.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The majority of scholarly research examining production in the National Hockey League deals

with factors affecting either an individual player's salary or on-ice production. Curme and Daugherty (2004) found that French Canadian players are subject to an earnings penalty on Canadian NHL teams not located in Quebec. Lavoie (2000) similarly found that salary discrimination was pervasive, but not strong against French Canadian players in English Canada. Jones, Nadeau, and Walsh (1997) constructed a model of salary determination for both skill players and physical players. They found skill and physical players are valued and compensated differently, and each is compensated for proficiency in their respective roles. Colin, Jones, Nadeau, and Walsh (1999) found that a player's salary is not affected by his ethnicity. Idson and Kahane (2000) found that team attributes do affect individual salaries on the team. Voyer and Wright (1998) found that the best predictor of individual player performance in the NHL regular season is points scored per game in junior hockey. White and McTeer (1991) investigated the effects of a mid-season trade on a player's performance. Using data from selected trades since 1927, they found that a player's performance during a given season significantly improved after a trade. All of these papers focus on the individual player.

The research linking team success in the NHL to team performance variables is more limited. Heyne, Fenn, and Brook (2006) constructed a model that measures how team performance variables are correlated with team success. Using data from the five seasons spanning 1999-2004, they found that goals allowed, assists, total face-offs won, total face-offs lost, penalty minutes, major penalties, even-strength goals, power-play goals, short-handed goals, plus/minus, total saves, save percentage, and total shots were all correlated with an NHL team's success. They also suggest including giveaways, takeaways, hits, blocked shots, and penalty-kill and power-play percentages in future studies.

While Heyne, Fenn, and Brook (2006) produced a strong initial analysis of factors contributing to an NHL team's success, improvements can be made to their model. They included variables such as total goals allowed, even-strength goals, power-play goals, and short-handed goals. Obviously, the fewer goals a team gives up, the greater are its chances of winning. And, of course, the more goals a team scores, the greater are its chances of winning. The inclusion of these variables provides little insight concerning a team's efficiency in various aspects of the game. The model in this paper eliminates those variables related to total goals for and against and includes several new variables such as power-play percentage, penalty-kill percentage, and face-off percentage. It is important to note that Heyne, Fenn, and Brook did, in fact, suggest the inclusion of these percentages in any future research.

DATA

All data used in this model were collected from the National Hockey League's official website (www.NHL.com). The data cover six NHL regular seasons spanning from 2005-2011.

MODEL AND EXPECTED RESULTS

The NHL uses a unique scoring system to rank teams over the course of a season. Unlike other professional sports that rely simply on total wins or winning percentage, the NHL assigns point values (2 points for a win, 1 point for an overtime or shootout loss, and 0 points for a regulation loss) to each game. At the end of the regular season, the total number of points a team has

accumulated determines which teams qualify for the playoffs. Thus, the dependent variable for this model is team points.

We checked linear and non-linear functional forms. Several of the independent variables exhibit a non-linear relationship with the dependent variable. R^2 was higher for the non-linear functional form. For these reasons we chose a multiplicative functional form for this model. We checked several dummy variables for seasons, conferences, and teams. None were statistically significant so they are not included in the final model.

Our thirteen independent variables can be categorized as follows: (1) offensive performance variables, (2) defensive performance variables, (3) shootout variables, (4) penalty variables, (5) an offensive and defensive interaction variable, and (6) miscellaneous variables.

Offensive Performance Variables

Power-Play Percentage (PP%): This variable is the percentage of power-play opportunities on which a team scores a goal. The higher this percentage is, the more successful a team is on the power-play and the more goals they will score when given the advantage. Thus, as the power-play percentage increases, so too should a team's total points. Hence, the anticipated sign on this variable is positive.

Score First (SC1): This variable represents the number of games in which the team scores the first goal. Scoring first not only produces the one goal advantage, but it also provides momentum for the team that scored first. Thus, the hypothesized sign for this variable is positive.

Defensive Performance Variables

Save Percentage (SAV%): This variable represents the percentage of shots that a team's goalies successfully block. Because a team's save percentage is not kept officially, it was calculated as follows: $\text{Save Percentage} = (\text{Total Shots Allowed} - \text{Total Goals Allowed}) / \text{Total Shots Allowed}$. Though this rudimentary formula does not take into account empty net goals, the relatively low number of such goals would have a very minor influence on the percentages. The higher this percentage, the fewer goals a team should give up, and the higher its total points should be. Thus, the anticipated sign for this variable is positive.

Blocked Shots (BLK): This variable is the number of shots blocked by skaters other than the goalie over the course of a season. The hypothesized sign for this variable is positive, because as the number of blocked shots increase, so too should total team points.

Shootout Variables

Games that remain tied after one overtime period are decided by a shootout where individual players from each team get to take a free shot at the goal with only the goalie defending. Teams that win in a shootout receive two points. Teams that lose in a shootout receive one point.

Shootout Shooting Percentage (SOS%): This variable represents the percentage of shootout

attempts in which the team successfully scores a goal. As this percentage increases, so too should a team's total points. Thus, the anticipated sign for this variable is positive.

Shootout Save Percentage (SOSV%): This variable is the percentage of shootout attempts in which the team's goalie successfully stops the other team from scoring a goal. As this percentage increases, a team's total points should also increase. Therefore, the expected sign for this variable is positive.

Penalty Variables

Penalty Minutes (PM): This variable represents the total number of penalty minutes accumulated by a team over the course of a season. The more time a team spends in the penalty box, the more times it must spend short-handed, a severe disadvantage. Though not all penalties leave a team short-handed, most do. Therefore, as a team's total penalty minutes increases, total points should actually decrease. Thus, the anticipated sign is negative.

Major Penalties (MAJ): This number is the total number of five-minute major penalties a team draws over the course of a season. While these penalties can be issued for various reasons, the vast majority of them are the result of fights between players from opposing teams. Thus, they are usually coincidental in nature, meaning that both teams send a player to the penalty box for five minutes without having to play short-handed for any period of time. The fact that major penalties don't leave a team short-handed removes the negative influence found with regular penalty minutes. Therefore, could it be true that major penalties actually have a positive influence on total team points? Fights may result in changes in momentum during the course of a game. Teams playing poorly prior to a fight may be given an emotional spark when seeing one of their teammates involved in a fight. In many cases, the team responds by playing much better after the fight. However, both teams are equally capable of receiving an emotional lift from a fight, regardless of which team was the instigator. An increase in major penalties could lead to either an increase or decrease in a team's total points. Therefore the sign could reasonably be either positive or negative.

Miscellaneous Variables

Face-Off Percentage (FO%): This variable is the percentage of face-offs in which the team successfully gained possession of the puck. By winning face-offs, a team not only gains control of the puck and has an opportunity to score, but it also prevents the other team from doing the same. As face-off percentage increases, total team points should also increase. Hence, the expected sign on this variable is positive.

Giveaways (GV): This variable represents the number of times a team turns the puck over throughout a season. As this total increases, total points should decrease. Therefore, the hypothesized sign of this variable is negative.

Takeaways (TK): This variable represents the number of times a team steals the puck from its opponent over the course of a season. As this number increases, so too should a team's total points. The expected sign for this variable is positive.

Hits (H): This variable is the number of times a team checks its opponent throughout the course of a season. While physical aggressiveness varies from team to team, teams that check more often generally control the flow of the game. And in some cases, the more physical team can intimidate its opponent. Thus, it would be reasonable to suggest that as a team's hits increase, so should its total points. Therefore, the hypothesized sign for this variable is positive.

Offensive/ Defensive Interaction Variable

Total Shots (TS): This variable combines total shots for and total shots against. It is an axiom in many sports that defense wins championships. Therefore, teams that play more defensive style of hockey may tend to have more wins than teams that play more offensive style of hockey. More offensive minded teams should shoot quicker and more often. This should also allow the opponent to take more shots against the team. Therefore teams consistently involved in games where there are more total shots tend to be more offensive minded. Teams consistently involved in games where there are fewer total shots are therefore more defensive minded. If defense wins championships, then this variable should have a negative sign. More defensive minded teams should experience lower total shots in their games and accumulate more points from more victories.

To test for seasonal, conference, and team effects, our model also originally included several dummy variables. Our data covers six seasons; we checked a dummy for five of them. Since there may be differences between the Eastern and Western Conferences of the NHL, we checked a dummy for the Eastern Conference. Also, we checked dummy variables for several teams, including the Stanley Cup champion each year. All of these dummies were insignificant. Therefore, they were excluded from the final model.

REGRESSION RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The final regression results included here do not contain several of the variables discussed in the previous section of this paper. We found that multicollinearity existed between save percentage and penalty kill percentage. Therefore we dropped penalty kill percentage from the model. We also found, not surprisingly, that multicollinearity existed between shots for, shots against, and total shots. Therefore we dropped total shots for and total shots against. We maintained total shots because we think it is a proxy for whether a team is offensive minded or defensive minded.

Because there are a maximum number of points a team can accumulate in the regular season (164), theoretically the multiplicative functional form should provide the best fit to these data. The estimated equation (with the t-statistics in parentheses) is:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Points} &= 5.6004\text{E-}10 (\text{PP}\%)^{0.30} (\text{SC1})^{0.39} (\text{SAV}\%)^{5.55} (\text{BLK})^{-0.16} (\text{PM})^{-0.03} (\text{MAJ})^{-0.06} \\ \text{T stats} & \quad (-5.98) \quad (5.82) \quad (6.33) \quad (7.32) \quad (-2.94) \quad (-0.65) \quad (-2.60) \\ & (\text{SOS}\%)^{0.08} (\text{SOSV}\%)^{0.06} (\text{FO}\%)^{0.50} (\text{GV})^{-0.01} (\text{TK})^{0.03} (\text{H})^{0.09} (\text{TS})^{-0.38} \\ & (3.75) \quad (1.22) \quad (2.64) \quad (-0.01) \quad (0.72) \quad (2.09) \quad (-2.10) \\ \text{Adjusted R}^2 &= 0.69 \end{aligned}$$

In the explanation that follows, for the independent variables that are not measured as percentages, the estimated exponents are the elasticities of team points with respect to the independent variables. For the independent variables that are already measured as percentages, we do not discuss elasticities, since elasticities in that case would require calculating the percent change in something that is already a percentage. In that case, we report the change in team points for a 1 percent increase from the minimum observed value of the independent variable and the change in team points for a 1 percent decrease from the maximum value of the independent variable assuming all the other independent variables remain at their mean value. A comparison of those results will give some indication of how curvilinear the relationship between the independent variable and team points is.

Offensive Performance Variables

The estimated exponent of Power Play Percentage (PP%) is positive, as predicted, and significant at the 99% level. Actually, it had the third highest t-statistic in the model. The estimated exponent of Power Play Percentage indicates that the effect of Power Play Percentage on team points increases at a decreasing rate.

In the six years of data we collected, the greatest Power Play Percentage was 25.5 by the Detroit Red Wings in the 08-09 season, and the smallest was 11.8 by the Chicago Black Hawks in the 2006-2007 season. The mean was 18.01. A one percent increase in Power Play Percentage from 11.8 to 12.8 will increase team points by 2.001 points. On the other hand, a one percent decrease in Power Play Percentage from 25.5 to 24.5 will decrease team points by only 1.21.

The estimated exponent of Score First (SC1) is .39 and is significant at the 99% level. This exponent has the second highest t-statistic of all the independent variables. The effect of scoring first on points also increases at a decreasing rate. In the six years of data we collected, the maximum number of times a team scored first in a season was 56 by the San Jose Sharks in the 2007-2008 season. The minimum number of times a team scored first was 29 by the Phoenix Coyotes in the 2006-2007 season. The estimated exponent of score first is the estimated score first elasticity of team points. It indicates that a one percent increase in scoring first will increase team points by 0.39 percent.

Defensive Performance Variables

The estimated exponent of Save Percentage (SAV%) is positive, as predicted, and significant at the 99% level. In fact, this variable had the highest t-statistic in the model. In the five years of data we collected, the minimum Save Percentage was 88.41 by the Tampa Bay Lightning in the 2006-2007 season. The maximum save percentage was 92.95 by the Boston Bruins in the 2010-2011 season. This means that as a team's save percentage increases, so too should total points. The relationship between team points and save percentage increases at an increasing rate, but only slightly. If the team with the lowest save percentage increases its save percentage by one percent it will gain 5.142 points. If the team with the highest save percentage experiences a reduction in save percentage by one percent, it will lose 6.141 points.

The estimated exponent of blocked shots (BLK) is unexpectedly negative and significant at the 99% confidence level. This indicates that more shots blocked by a team means that team will have fewer victories. Perhaps this variable is picking up offensive opportunities by the opposing team. If the opposing team has more offensive opportunities, that may result in more shots blocked. The estimated exponent of this variable is the blocked shots elasticity of total points. It indicates that a one percent increase in blocked shots will decrease total team points by 0.16 percent.

Penalty Variables

The estimated exponent of Penalty Minutes (PM) is negative and not significant.

The estimated exponent of Major Penalties (MAJ) is negative and significant at the 95% level. This variable has a very large range in the NHL. The minimum number of major penalties assessed to a team in the six seasons analyzed was 7 by the Detroit Red Wings in the 2005–2006 season. The maximum number of major penalties assessed during a season was 82 against the Anaheim Mighty Ducks in the 2008–2009 season. The estimated coefficient of this variable indicates that a one percent increase in major penalties results in a 0.06 percent decrease in team points. This indicates that teams that get in fights more frequently in the NHL win fewer games.

Shootout Performance Variables

The estimated parameter on the natural log of Shootout Shooting Percentage (SOS%) is positive and significant at the 99% level. As predicted, as a team's shootout shooting percentage increases, its total points increase, as well. The minimum shootout percentage in our data was a woeful 5.9 percent by the Carolina Hurricane in 2006-2007. The maximum shootout percentage was 58.3 by the San Jose Sharks in 2006-2007. A 1 percent increase from the minimum results in a 1.01 increase in total points. On the other hand, a 1 percent decrease from 58.3 percent to 57.3 percent results in a 0.133 decrease in total points.

The estimated exponent of Shootout Save Percentage (SOSV%) is positive, as expected, but not significant.

Miscellaneous Variables

The estimated exponent of Face-Off Percentage (FO%) is positive and significant at the 99% level. The minimum observed face-off percentage during the six seasons was 44.2 by the Edmonton Oilers during the 2010-2011, season. The maximum face-off percentage was 55.6 by the San Jose Sharks in 2009-2010, season. A 1 percent increase in face-off wins from 44.2 to 45.2 results in a 0.973 increase in total points. A 1 percent decrease from 55.6 to 54.6 percent results in a 0.876 decrease in total points.

The exponent for Giveaways (GV) is negative and not significant, meaning that a team's total giveaways do not have a significant influence on total points.

The estimated parameter on Takeaways (TK) is positive, as predicted. This coefficient, however, is not significant, indicating that a team's total takeaways do not significantly impact total points.

The estimated exponent of Hits (H) is positive and significant at the 95% level. The estimated exponent of this variable is the hits elasticity of total points. It indicates that a one percent increase in hits will increase total team points by 0.09 percent.

Offensive/ Defensive Interaction Variable

The estimated exponent of Total Shots (TS) is negative, and significant at the 95% level. The elasticity of (TS) indicates that a one percent increase in (TS) will decrease total team points by 0.38 percent. According to our logic, more total shots for and against in a game occurs *with more offensive-minded teams*. The sign of the estimated coefficient being negative would indicate that more offensive minded teams win less. This indicates that defense not only wins championships, but also more regular season games in the NHL.

CONCLUSIONS

Six of the thirteen independent variables are significant at the 99% level: power play percentage, whether a team scores first, save percentage, blocked shots, shootout shooting percentage, and faceoff percentage. Three of the thirteen independent variables were significant at the 95% level: major penalties, hits, and total shots. Variables that were not significant were: penalty minutes, shootout save percentage, giveaways and takeaways.

Two of the variables that are significant at the 99% level are power play percentage, and whether a team scores first. These are the only two offensive variables that have a significant positive impact on team points. The defensive variables found to have a significant impact on team points in a positive direction were hits and save percentage. We thought blocked shots would also have a positive impact on team points; however its coefficient was negative and significant. This may indicate that teams desperately blocking shots by sliding across the ice are not playing sound defense otherwise.

We also found that major penalties have a significant negative effect on team points. This may indicate that teams that fight frequently are negatively impacting their performance. Or it may indicate that teams that lose frequently become frustrated and tend to fight more often. We also found that total shots have a negative impact on team points. We believe that teams involved in games with more total shots can be thought of as offensive minded teams. This seems to indicate that teams that emphasize defense win more regular season games.

The importance of save percentage also helps explain the insignificance of other variables. Quite simply, failure to save a shot results in a goal for the opposing team. On the other hand, a takeaway or giveaway doesn't necessarily mean that the play will result in a goal for the opposing team, since they still must get the puck past the goaltender. Thus, it can be said that the goaltender has the ability to influence the outcome of a game more so than any forward or defenseman.

While shoot-outs were initially seen by some as a sort of gimmick instituted by league officials to increase the popularity of the NHL after the 2004-2005 lockout, the results of this model show that the new tie-breaking format is significant in determining a team's total points. Thus, general managers should note a player's shootout shooting percentage when assembling a roster. Though shootout performance obviously isn't the sole factor in determining a player's value, there is no doubt that it should be considered in a general manager's decision about a player.

More research needs to be done concerning team production in the National Hockey League. Rather than simply analyzing team statistics and overall team success, the effects of individual player characteristics on overall team success could be explored further. This would provide general managers with an empirical basis for their roster moves. Also, due to the extreme significance of goaltending, research could be done relating junior and college statistics of goaltenders to success in the NHL. This would, again, give general managers empirical support for their decisions to draft or trade for goaltenders. This type of analysis is now being used as the basis for spending decisions designed to increase wins in Major League Baseball, and the National Football League. Future research needs to be done to indicate how teams in the NHL can spend efficiently to influence team performance characteristics and victories.

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