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Evolution of Salary Discrimination in the NBA

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Evolution of Salary Discrimination in the NBA

The start of the 2014-2015 NBA season set a new record of 101 players of international descent from 37 different countries and territories on NBA rosters (“NBA sets”, 2014). The NBA has done an excellent job continuing to evolve throughout the years, staying current and changing as society’s norms change as well. It has changed its rules, both on and off the court, to make the game more competitive and entertaining. It has also implemented rules with the intentions of making a player’s salary more equitable when compared to their deserved compensation. However, the NBA has not always demonstrated the practice of paying players equal salaries for equal production.

Studies conducted examining racial salary discrimination during the 1980s and 1990s found that white players received a salary premium over what their statistical performances would have suggested (Brown, Spiro & Keenan, 1991; Groothuis & Hill, 2011; Ha & Rascher, 1999; Hamilton, 1997; & Kahn, 1991). Other studies however, examining the same period have found conflicting results and concluded that there was no significant difference between the compensation of equally productive black and white players (Dey, 1997; Hill, 2004 & Jenkins, 1996). Research conducted on salary discrimination between foreign and U.S. players has produced conflicting results as well (Eschker, Perez & Siegler, 2004; Hoffer & Freidel, 2014 & Yang & Lin, 2012). Salary discrimination in the NBA has been shown to be an issue that continuously develops over time, demonstrating the importance of frequently testing for its presence and magnitude.

As all professional sports are, the NBA is a highly visible organization, with players’ statistics and salary information readily available to the public. The presence of any form of discrimination would immediately tarnish its reputation and greatly upset its players. The

purpose of this study was to determine whether there was salary discrimination, with regards to a player's country of birth and training, separating players based on whether they were born and trained in a foreign country or in the United States. Similar as to the methods implemented by previous research on the topic, this study used multiple regression analyses to determine if foreign-born and trained players and U.S.-born and trained players were compensated equally for equal statistical performance. These analyses also define which of the statistics being measured had the greatest influence upon a player's salary.

Literature Review

The National Basketball Association (NBA), similar to other professional sport leagues in the United States, has had periods involving various forms of unequal treatment among its players (Kahn, 1991). In the early stages of the NBA's history, the league was predominantly white, eventually giving opportunities to play to people of different race ("History of Basketball", 2015). However, despite the ability to play, people of different races, in regards to the color of their skin or their ethnicity, were still treated unequally (Kahn, 1991).

Salary Determinants

In order to test for a presence of salary discrimination, researchers compare players' salaries and their statistical outputs (Kahn, 1991). In their study on international players' salaries during the mid-1990s, Eschker, Perez & Siegler (2004) utilized points per game, rebounds per game, assists per game, steals per game and blocked shots per game because previous research had shown that these variables of a player's statistical output are the most accurate reflection of a player's on-court performance. Yang & Lin (2012) found that points per game, rebounds per game, assists per game, steals per game and blocked shots per game greatly contribute to raising a player's salary, demonstrating the connection between on-court performance and salary.

In their study on the determinants of NBA player salaries, Lyons, Jackson & Livingston (2015) found that field goal percentage and points per game were the most significant statistics when determining a player's salary, followed by rebounds, fouls and assists. Brown, Spiro and Keenan (1991) found that points per game were the best single measure of a player's performance and highlighted the importance of minutes per game, which exhibits how extensively a team relies on a player. Berri, Brook and Fenn (2011), in their study on the relationship between collegiate performance and NBA draft position, concluded that players who were proficient at scoring were the most likely to be drafted early in the draft, which again demonstrates the importance of offensive statistics, mainly scoring, when determining the value of a player.

However, there are also non-statistical variables that have significant effects on determining the value of a player. One of the most common non-statistical variables that research has found to have a significant effect is a player's height (Dey, 1997; Groothuis & Hill, 2011; Yang & Lin, 2012). In a sport where the objective is to place a ball in a hoop that is ten feet off the ground, taller players can have a significant advantage over shorter players and teams are ready to pay a premium for it. Besides height, Groothuis and Hill (2011) state that management may also be keen to paying a premium for unquantifiable personal characteristics such as a player's personality, character and leadership ability. Despite a team's ability to easily compare players' statistics between one another, research has found that players of equal statistical performance have not always received equal compensation (Brown, Spiro, & Keenan, 1991; Groothuis & Hill, 2011; Hamilton, 1997; Ha & Rascher, 1999; Kahn, 1991).

Customer Discrimination

The act of not equally compensating employees for equal work, in this case not paying players equal pay for equal statistical performance, is known as discrimination (Brown, Spiro & Keenan, 1991). In Kahn's (1991) review of the literature on discrimination in professional sports, he states that labor market discrimination can be the result of employer prejudice, co-worker discrimination or customer preferences. In regards to the NBA, a vast majority of the research done on salary discrimination has concluded that customer preferences are the main cause behind the salary discrepancies between players of equal performance (Brown, Spiro & Keenan, 1991; Ha & Rascher, 1999; Johnson, 1999; Kahn, 1991; Kanazawa & Funk, 2001; & Hamilton, 1997).

Researchers have provided a number of reasons why employer and co-worker discrimination are not the causes behind the salary discrimination that has been found in the NBA. Hamilton (1997), references Kahn and Sherer's argument that discrimination in the NBA due to employee or co-worker prejudice is unlikely to continue or exist because of the competition from non-discriminating teams and because of the fact that there are no segregated, all-white teams in the league. It is also very unlikely that the salary discrimination would ascend from co-worker prejudice because NBA players have no control over their teammates' salaries.

Another argument countering the idea that the salary discrimination may arise from employer prejudice is the race of a team's coach and or general manager had no effect in Ha and Rascher's (1999) customer discrimination analysis. Ha and Rascher (1999) concluded that the customers' preferences to watch white players had significantly affected the coaches and general managers' employment decisions. Hamilton (1997) also found that the race of a team's general manager does not affect a player's salary. These findings clearly illustrate that employer

discrimination is not the cause for the presence of salary discrimination that researchers have found in the NBA.

The reason teams cater to fans' preferences is that failure to do so would result in a loss of revenue (Brown, Spiro & Keenan, 1991 & Kahn, 1991). It has been found that the number and quality of white players on a team has a significant impact on a team's attendance and broadcast revenues (Ha & Rascher, 1999; Johnson, 1999; Kahn, 1991 & Kanazawa & Funk, 2001). Since the presence of white players can lead to increases in a team's revenues, teams have greater incentives to sign more white players. This means that the revenue produced by white players is greater than the revenue produced by black players, which leads to white players having higher salaries than comparable black players do (Johnson, 1999).

In the NBA, during the periods in which these studies took place and still today, there is a significantly greater percentage of black players in the league than there is white players (Brown, Spiro & Keenan, 1991; Hamilton, 1997 & Kahn, 1991). This scarcity of white players in the league may help explain the substantial impact on revenues that white players have for their teams (Kahn, 1991). Since there is a smaller number of white players, and an even small number of white star players, the impact they have on a team's revenue is even greater due to their high demand and short supply. The scarcity of white players in the NBA coincides with the fans' preference for white players and causes them to receive salary premiums over what their on-court performances would suggest (Brown, Spiro & Keenan, 1991).

The racial composition of a city has also been found to significantly affect the racial composition of the team residing in that city (Burdekin, Hossfeld & Smith, 2005; Brown, Spiro & Keenan, 1991 & Ha & Rascher, 1999). This has led to cities with higher percentages of a white population to also have higher percentages of white players on their teams. By matching

the racial composition of a team to the racial composition of its host city, teams are able to increase their attendance revenues (Burdekin, Hossfeld & Smith, 2005 & Ha & Rascher, 1999). These findings further demonstrate that the cause for the salary premiums for white players is because of the customer discrimination by the fans.

Customer discrimination can also be seen in markets outside of the NBA, unrelated to teams' attendance and broadcast revenues. In his discussion on types of discrimination in professional sport, Hamilton (1997) mentions that studies of the baseball card market conclude that cards of white players sell at a premium over cards of non-white players. This clearly indicates that fans have a preference for white players in sport. It also shows that the cause for salary discrimination is not employer discrimination because trading cards are not subject to such a form of discrimination (Hamilton, 1997).

Customer discrimination is the most malicious form of discrimination under an economic theory of discrimination because it is the least likely to be solved by the market (Kuziemko & Rapp, 2001). Due to the market's inability to solve customer discrimination, it can easily lead to long-term inequality in the form of wage differentials or differential skill requirements for the same job (Brown, Spiro, & Keenan, 1991). However, despite the difficulty associated with eliminating customer discrimination from the market, researchers believe that it may have disappeared from the NBA during the 1990s, or at least the resulting salary discrimination may have disappeared. Hamilton (1997) credits this possible disappearance to the rise of black superstars such as Michael Jordan, Shaquille O'Neal and David Robinson. The number of black coaches and general managers increased as well, moving from two to five coaches and from one to seven general managers (Hamilton, 1997). During the 1990s, both television and attendance revenues increased at the same time that the participation of black players increased and the

participation of white players decreased, indicating that fans may no longer have a preference for white players (Burdekin, Hossfeld & Smith, 2005).

White versus Black Salary Discrimination

A vast majority of the research performed between the mid-1980s and the early 1990s has found that salary discrimination based upon a player's race was present during that period (Jenkins, 1996). This meant that two players of different races would receive unequal salaries, despite the fact that they would have equal statistical outputs. After controlling for performance statistics, studies conducted measuring the magnitude of salary discrimination in the 1980s found significant discrepancies between black players' salaries versus white players' salaries (Brown, Spiro, & Keenan, 1991). One of the studies, by Koch and Vander Hill, found that white players' salaries were 9% greater than black players' salaries (Brown, Spiro, & Keenan, 1991). Another study, conducted by Kahn and Sherer, estimated the difference to be at 17% and found that the proportion of white players on a team's roster significantly affects a team's attendance (Brown, Spiro, & Keenan, 1991). Brown, Spiro and Keenan (1991), using data from the mid-1980s as well, found similar results as Koch and Vander Hill and Kahn and Sherer, stating that the difference equaled 14-16%.

In their study on NBA fans' preferences towards race using data from the 1980s and 1990s, Burdekin, Hossfeld and Smith (2005) found that teams in markets with a predominantly white population had a disproportionately high number of white players on its teams. This shows that despite a player's talent, teams were discriminating against players based on their race. Teams did this because the marginal revenue produced by white players was higher than that of black players because fans were more willing to attend games and watch games on television when there were more white players on the teams (Burdekin, Hossfeld & Smith, 2005; Ha &

Rascher, 1999 & Johnson, 1999). Burdekin, Hossfeld and Smith (2005) find this to be consistent with the customer-discrimination hypothesis that states that teams lose revenue when they adopt color-neutral hiring practices. This meant that teams could increase their revenues simply by increasing the number of white players on their team. This led to teams in markets with high proportions of white populations having higher proportions of white players on their teams in order to increase their revenues. Ha and Rascher (1999) concluded that there was a significant positive relationship between the proportion of white citizens within a market and the proportion of white players on that market's team, which in turn had a significant effect on attendance.

A study conducted on racial discrimination in the NBA, using local non-cable broadcast data from the 1996-1997 season from the Nielson Media Research Company, authors Kanazawa and Funk (2001) agreed with previous studies that found that white players were paid more than comparable black players but could not find significant evidence that whiter teams lead to higher attendances. They concluded that white players have a greater impact on television ratings than they do attendance because more fans watch or listen to broadcasts than actually attend games, (Kanazawa & Funk, 2001). They believed that this better explained the salary discrimination between black and white players, still citing customer discrimination as the primary cause (Kanazawa & Funk, 2001). Regardless of whether the higher number of white players on a team has a larger effect on attendances or television ratings, the fact is the greater number of white players on a team lead to higher revenues for the team. As previously stated, teams paid salary premiums to white players because they knew their presence would lead to increases in revenue.

However, studies conducted examining the NBA during the 1990s have produced conflicting results. Groothuis and Hill's (2011) study examining pay discrimination and exit discrimination with the NBA, using data from 1990-2008, found that black players from the

United States have the highest career earnings on average than any other player demographic. However, white players were found to have a career pay premium much greater than their performance levels or draft position would suggest (Groothuis & Hill, 2011). This means that when comparing black players' and white players' career earnings to their statistical performances, white players received greater pay for statistical performances that were less than their black counterparts.

Various other studies examining the NBA from the late 1990s into the late 2000s have concluded that salary discrimination against black players has disappeared from the league (Gius & Johnson, 1998; Hill, 2004; Johnson, 1999 & Yang & Lin, 2014). Some credit this to the significant changes made to the league during the late 1980s, which include the establishment of new franchises, the addition of a salary cap and an increase in the level of free agency (Yang & Lin, 2014). With the implementation of the salary cap, teams had to become better at selecting whom they were going to pay and how much they were going to pay them. Due to the establishment of new franchises and an increase in the level of free agency, a player's salary moved closer to their actual value as teams faced greater competition when signing players. Yang and Lin (2014) also note that in today's NBA, black players are actually paid more than their white counterparts are. However, even though Yang and Lin (2014) say that this may be due to racial discrimination, they state that black players have dominated the NBA player market, starting over and outperforming white players, who tend to be bench players.

Despite these similar findings of studies performed examining salary discrimination in the 1980s, the presence of salary discrimination based upon race in the NBA may not have been as large as previously thought, or even have existed at all. A study conducted in the late 1990s by Jeffery A. Jenkins (1996) using only players that have signed new contracts between 1983 and

1994, concluded that there was in fact no presence of salary discrimination based on race in the NBA during that period. Jenkins (1996) felt that previous studies had allowed for confounding variables to interfere with the results, since a player may be under- or over-performing based on their already predetermined salary. Even though the majority of studies conducted have concluded that there was salary discrimination based upon race in the NBA during the 1980s and early 1990s, the presence of Jenkins' findings demonstrate the importance of using different methodologies to examine a subject in order to view it from every possible angle.

Another study performed in the mid-1990s by Matthew S. Dey (1997) used the same regression models as Brown, Spiro and Keenan when conducting their research of the mid-1980s. Dey's (1997) study used data from the 1987-1993 NBA seasons and found results similar to that of Brown, Spiro and Keenan that there was a salary premium for white players, which would suggest that salary discrimination persisted into the 1990s. However, when Dey (1997) introduced a variable accounting for a player's height, the premium disappeared. This proposes that the premium salary that Brown, Spiro and Keenan found for white players may have actually been a premium for centers because they were more likely to be white (Dey, 1997).

In 2004, a similar study was conducted by James R. Hill (2004) using data from the 1990-2000 seasons that found that there was no presence of salary discrimination in the NBA during that period. As Dey (1997) did in his study, Hill (2004) accounted for a player's height and concluded that the salary premium for white players is actually a salary premium for height as well because white players were on average two inches taller than black players were during that period. Two other studies using salary data from the 1996-1997 NBA season also concluded that there was no longer a presence of salary discrimination within the NBA (Gius & Johnson,

1998; Johnson, 1999). Again, stressing the importance of using different forms of methodology in order to fully examine a topic.

Foreign versus Domestic Salary Discrimination

Although scholars believe that salary discrimination based upon race has disappeared from the NBA, there still may be a form of salary discrimination present. Not only has the popularity of the NBA grown a substantial amount within the United States, it has established itself as a global brand. Today, there are millions of fans worldwide who follow their favorite NBA players and teams very closely. It is a global league and its players reflect that. There are more players of international decent in the league today than there ever has been. Eschker, Perez and Siegler (2004) credit the increase of international players in the NBA to the decision made in 1989 by the Federation Internationale de Basketball (FIBA) to eliminate the distinction between amateurs and professionals, which meant that international players could play in the NBA without disqualifying themselves from representing their home countries in the Olympics.

It was right around the time when salary discrimination based upon race began to fade from the NBA that the number of international players began to increase. A very small number of studies have been conducted to determine the presence of salary discrimination for international players. In their study, Eschker, Perez and Siegler (2004) found that international players were significantly overpaid during the 1996-1997 and 1997-1998 seasons, but could not find any evidence of this during the 1998-1999 season through the 2001-2002 season, stating that there was no difference in salary of internationally trained players and those trained in the United States. Eschker, Perez and Siegler (2004) credit this wage premium to a 'winner's curse', which is where a team overestimates a player's marginal revenue product and ends up overpaying that player.

Similar to the various findings on salary discrimination based upon race, the findings regarding salary discrimination for international players vary as well. Yang and Lin (2014) examined the same time period as Eschker, Perez and Siegler and concluded that international players actually received 13-18% lower salaries than the players trained in the United States, which completely contradicts Eschker, Perez and Siegler's (2004) findings. A much more recent study by Hoffer and Freidel (2014) uses data from the 2010-2011 season to examine the level of salary discrimination for international players. Their results show that the salaries for international players have not only caught up to those born and trained in the United States, but that they have actually surpassed the salaries of those born and trained in the United States (Hoffer & Freidel, 2014). According to their findings, international players receive a wage premium averaging around \$900,000 greater than the average salary of players from the United States (Hoffer & Freidel, 2014).

One of the possible causes of this salary premium offered by Hoffer and Freidel (2014) is the changing demographics within the United States. Since 1970, the foreign-born population of the United States has grown from 9.7 million (4.7% of the total population) to 40.0 million (12.9% of the total population) (Hoffer & Freidel, 2014). This change in demographics would be consistent with the customer-discrimination theory because there is now a greater incentive for NBA teams to use foreign-born athletes because there is a greater demand for their presence by the fans. Hoffer and Freidel (2014) also state that another possible cause for the premium in foreign players' salaries is due to the fact that the NBA's broadcasting revenue has grown substantially during the 1990s and 2000s because of its growth in popularity in foreign markets. Not only are there more foreign-born fans within the United States, there are now more foreign-born fans watching the game outside of the United States than ever before.

Yang and Lin (2012) provide a similar conclusion for the increase in the number of foreign-born players as well as one for determining a foreign-born player's salary. According to Yang and Lin (2012), the size of a foreign-born player's home market can play a crucial role in determining their salary. They concluded that foreign-born players from large markets have a distinct advantage at receiving salary premiums over foreign-born players from smaller markets because of the financial gain the larger market offers (Yang & Lin, 2012). An example of this that Yang and Lin (2012) provide in the notes of their article was when Yao Ming of China joined the Houston Rockets. Ming's joining of the team increased the wealth of their owner, Leslie Alexande, roughly 15 times in 2007, increasing it to \$1.2 billion (Yang & Lin, 2012). Alexande credits Ming's joining of the team as one of the main growth sources because it opened up the China Market (Yang & Lin, 2012). This example clearly demonstrates how influential the presence of foreign-born players on NBA teams can be to the financial success of the teams and to the entire league.

Purpose

Salary discrimination in the National Basketball Association is a highly controversial topic, having had multiple studies find conflicting results. Much of the research conducted has solely focused on salary discrimination between black and white players (Brown, Spiro & Keenan, 1991; Burdekin, Hossfeld & Smith, 2005; Dey, 1997; Gius & Johnson, 1998; Groothuis & Hill, 2011; Ha & Rascher, 1999; Hamilton, 1997; Hill, 2004; Jenkins, 1996; Johnson, 1999; & Kahn, 1991). With the emergence of international players and superstars, the game has begun to expand over the entire world. Little research has been conducted on the presence of salary discrimination between U.S.-born and foreign-born players, which too have brought about

conflicting results (Eschker, Perez & Siegler, 2004; Hoffer & Freidel, 2014 & Yang & Lin, 2012).

The most recent study examining salary discrimination for foreign-born players has concluded that foreign-born players actually receive a salary premium over U.S.-born players (Hoffer & Freidel, 2014). However, this study only focused on the salaries of one season and occurred before the implementation of the NBA's new CBA. The purpose of this study was to contribute to the small volume of research that has been conducted on the salary discrimination of foreign-born and trained versus U.S.-born and trained NBA players, testing to see if there was salary discrimination between foreign-born and trained and U.S.-born and trained NBA players within the 2011-2012 and 2015-2016 seasons. The study also determined which of the 11 statistical categories of player performance had the greatest influence on a player's salary.

Method

Sampling Technique

This study was conducted with the purpose of descriptive research, which Jones and Gratton (2015) define as research that is focusing on the issue of what is happening or how much of it has happened. The issue that was examined within this study was determining whether salary discrimination existed in the NBA for athletes that are both foreign-born and foreign-trained, meaning they have not played basketball, in high school, on a travel league or in college, in the United States prior to playing in the NBA. In order to determine if salary discrimination against foreign-born and foreign-trained athletes persisted in today's NBA, this study tested the difference between salaries and on-court statistics between athletes born and trained in foreign countries and comparable players born and trained in the United States. This study was conducted with the purpose of answering the research questions of whether or not there was

salary discrimination in the NBA between foreign-born and trained and U.S.-born and trained players during the 2011-2012 and the 2015-2016 seasons, and which of the 11 dependent variables being investigated had the greatest influence on player's salary during that period.

The research tradition that this study most closely followed was a post-positivist approach. A post-positivist approach accepts that it is not possible to gain a truly objective understanding through measurement and observation, it acknowledges that there are limitations inherent within an approach that need to be recognized and recognizes the complexity of the subject under investigation (Jones & Gratton, 2015). Measuring salary discrimination in professional sports is difficult because there are an array of ways in which teams determine a player's value. Even though it is fairly easy to compare players' statistics between one another to show their productivity, there are intangible and unquantifiable characteristics of players that franchises look for when building a team. These characteristics may affect a player's salary, just as their statistics do, but they are not measurable. Each team also has its own style of play that they believe to be the most effective way of winning. This may cause teams to pay more for certain players that are a better fit for their system, instead of choosing a player that may perform better. All of these confounding variables can lead to salary discrepancies that may be mistaken as discrimination. The data that gathered for this research was quantitative and secondary in nature, as all variables of interest were collected from basketball-reference.com (Jones & Gratton, 2015).

The sampling technique utilized for this study was purposive sampling, which Jones and Gratton (2015) define as choosing participants because they possess specific characteristics or traits. As previously stated, the specific players that were examined during this research were foreign-born and foreign-trained players in the NBA and players born and trained in the United

States that statistically compared to the foreign players under investigation. More specifically, the players that were sampled were those that have signed contracts after the implementation of the NBA's Collective Bargaining Agreement (CBA), that when into effect during the 2011-2012 NBA season, and prior to the 2015-2016 season (CBA 101, 2014).

As Brown, Spiro and Keenan (1991), Dey (1997), Jenkins (1996) and Lyons, Jackson and Livingston (2015) did in their studies on salary discrimination in the NBA, this study excluded players that signed rookie contracts during the period under examination since rookie contracts are based upon draft position and not statistical performance during an NBA career (CBA 101, 2014). However, the study did not exclude players that signed a Rookie Scale extension or a "Designated Player" Rookie Scale Contract Extension because the signing of such extensions are based upon a player's performance in the NBA and allow teams to sign players to long-term deals without the risk of losing the player to a competing franchise once the player's rookie contract is up (Zimmerman, 2014).

Just as the players that enter the NBA through the draft, foreign-born and foreign-trained players that sign contracts as free agents with no prior experience in the NBA were excluded from the sample. Despite the fact that these players have experience and observable statistics in foreign leagues, comparing players' statistics between two different leagues would lead to inaccurate findings since the strength of teams and players in foreign leagues may differ than those of the NBA. This study also excluded players, both foreign and domestic, that signed NBA contracts but did not have productivity data in the NBA because they played in the NBA's Developmental League. Lastly, players were excluded if they had incomplete salary data or they were waived by the team midseason, causing them to lose the remaining money on the contract if it is not guaranteed.

After examining players between the 2011-2012 and the 2015-2016 seasons and selecting players based on the previously listed parameters, a sample size of 39 foreign-born and foreign-trained was found. After finding the foreign-born and foreign-trained players that were to be examined in this study, the next step was selecting U.S.-born and U.S.-trained players that had similar statistics in all of the categories that were examined by this study (variables are defined in next section). According to Jones and Gratton (2015), the absolute minimum total sample size for descriptive statistical analysis should be fifty, suggesting that one hundred would be a better minimum target for a total population even for a relatively small population. However, a larger sample size is more desirable because it would have more statistical power, leading to more accurate results (Jones & Gratton, 2015). The authors also suggest an absolute minimum of 30 subjects per group, which for a study with two groups such as this one, the total overall sample size would be 60 (Jones & Gratton, 2015). Each foreign player was compared to a U.S. player that had a similar statistical performance as the foreign player in each of the statistical categories under investigation, which lead to a total sample size of 78, made up of 39 foreign players and 39 U.S. players.

Various studies have used purposive sampling as their technique as well, selecting players based on their parameters and excluding players that do not meet them (Brown, Spiro & Keenan, 1991; Dey, 1997; Gius & Johnson, 1998; Groothuis & Hill, 2011; Hamilton, 1997; Hoffer & Freidel, 2014; Jenkins, 1996; Lyons, Jackson & Livingston, 2015; & Yang & Lin, 2014). However, many of these studies have examined longer periods or have established parameters that incorporate a larger number of players from the NBA (subjects being selected based upon race versus nationality), all of which have led to larger sample sizes (Brown, Spiro & Keenan, 1991; Dey, 1997; Gius & Johnson, Groothuis & Hill, 2011; 1998; Jenkins, 1996; Lyons,

Jackson & Livingston, 2015; & Yang & Lin, 2014). Since black and white players made up roughly 90% of the players in the NBA in 2014 and that foreign-born only account for 23.5% of the players, a smaller sample size was inevitable given the study's parameters (Kovar, 2014).

Measures, Variables and Operational Definitions

Research has shown that a player's salary is determined by their previous on-court performances (Brown, Spiro & Keenan, 1991; Burdekin, Hossfeld & Smith, 2005; Dey, 1997; Eschker, Perez & Siegler, 2004; Gius & Johnson, 1998; Groothuis & Hill, 2011; Ha & Rascher, 1999; Hamilton, 1997; Hill, 2004; Hoffer & Freidel, 2014; Jenkins, 1996; Johnson, 1999; Kahn, 1991; Lyons, Jackson & Livingston, 2015; & Yang & Lin, 2012). The most common statistics that research has found to be the best determinants of a players' salary are points per game, assists per game, rebounds per game, years spent in NBA and blocks per game (Brown, Spiro & Keenan, 1991; Burdekin, Hossfeld & Smith, 2005; Eschker, Perez & Siegler, 2004; Dey, 1997; Gius & Johnson, 1998; Groothuis & Hill, 2011; Hamilton, 1997; Hill, 2004; Hoffer & Freidel, 2014; Johnson, 1999; Lyons, Jackson & Livingston, 2015; & Yang & Lin, 2012). In a most recent study on salary discrimination for foreign athletes in the NBA, authors Hoffer and Freidel (2014) used two statistics that other researchers have not used to determine a player's overall performance and contribution to their team's success. These statistics are player efficiency rating (accounting for a players per-minute performance and also the 'pace' of the team) and win shares (calculates how many wins a player gives their team, adjusting for how many wins his team had that year) (Hoffer & Freidel, 2014). Other statistical categories that have been cited as having an impact on a player's salary are steals per game, height, field goal percentage and free throw percentage (Eschker, Perez & Siegler, 2004; Gius & Johnson, 1998; Groothuis & Hill, 2011; Hamilton, 1997; Hoffer & Freidel, 2014; Johnson, 1999; & Yang & Lin, 2012). All of these

statistical categories listed were the independent variables being measured within this study.

Jones and Gratton (2015) define independent variables as the presumed cause of the effect being researched. All of the statistics have effects on the study's dependent variable, which is a player's salary. Dependent variables are those that can be explained by the effect of the independent variables (Jones & Gratton, 2015).

The categories of points per game, assists per game, rebounds per game, blocks per game, steals per game, field goal percentage, free throw percentage, years in the NBA, height and win shares were all quantified as ratio data. Jones & Gratton (2015) define ratio data as data that is based on order, has equal units of measure, they are proportional and have an absolute zero. The category of player efficiency rating was quantified using interval data. Jones and Gratton (2015) define interval data as data that has equal intervals of measurement between values, but that the values are not proportionate to one another. The statistics of field goal percentage and free throw percentage were accurate to the tenth decimal place (e.g., 11.1%), since that is how accurate they were on basketball-reference.com All of these statistics were collected from each player's platform year, which is defined as a player's most recent season prior to signing a contract (Swydan, 2006).

Research Design

The research design implemented for this study was an analytical design. Information was collected using an examination of documents from basketball-reference.com (2015). The first step in the data collection process was locating all of the foreign-born and foreign-trained NBA players that met all of the parameters previously listed. Once those players were found, the next step was locating U.S.-born and trained players with comparable stats and height that play the same or similar positions for each of the foreign players, which equaled one U.S. comparable

player for each foreign player (See Appendix A). Given the large number of players in the NBA, there was always more than one U.S. player that had comparable statistics to a given foreign player. The U.S. player that represents that best fit, the one with the most similar statistics in their platform year, was selected as the comparable player.

The acceptable margin of difference between a foreign player's statistics and a U.S. player's statistics was that the comparable player had to have signed their contract within a similar stage in their career, no more than two years difference in each players' time spent in the NBA. The comparable U.S. players' were selected by closely comparing their statistics to the foreign players' statistics. The U.S. player with the most similar statistics was then selected as the comparable players. This process was made easier thanks to basketball-reference.com because the site presented its own list of comparable players based on each player's win shares, which helped influence which comparable player should have been selected.

As previously stated, the stats being compared were from the season prior to the player's signing of a contract, which must have occurred after the implementation of the CBA during the 2011-2012 season. A player's platform year could have occurred no later than the 2010-2011 season because the CBA was implemented in December of 2011, meaning the contract must have been signed after such date (CBA 101, 2014). If a foreign player had multiple contracts signed within the period being investigated, both contracts may have been used as separate subjects if it was determined that a larger sample size was needed. However, only one contract was used for each foreign player.

The data collection sheet that was used during the data collection process was Microsoft Excel. This software allowed for quick recording of the data from basketball-reference.com, which allowed the variables under investigation to be easily copied and pasted into their correct

categories. Microsoft Excel also allowed for quick analyses of the data, being able to determine measures of central tendency, such as mean, without difficulty (See Appendix B). Jones and Gratton (2015) define mean as the average score of all observations of a variable.

Data Analysis Plan

The data that was collected for examination by this study was already be presented in the form necessary in order to complete the analysis thanks to basketball-reference.com. Once all of the information of each player was collected, the data was separated into two groups, those being foreign players and U.S. players (See Appendix A) Each group had their independent and dependent variables calculated using the descriptive statistic, mean. According to Jones and Gratton (2015), descriptive statistics organize data into measurable or quantifiable categories. Using the descriptive statistic of mean made it easier to show trends in the data, such as the average points per game, assists per game, rebounds per game etc. for both groups.

After all of the data was collected and transferred into Microsoft Excel, the next step was transferring it into SPSS. The foreign players were coded together, denoted by a 2, and the U.S. players were coded together, denoted by a 1. Each foreign player and their corresponding U.S. player were also grouped together, in no particular order (i.e., 1,1; 2,2; 3,3 etc.). In order to determine if the independent variables of a player's statistics for both foreign and U.S. players could accurately predict the dependent variable of salary, Jones and Gratton (2015) suggest using regression analysis. Using a regression analysis allows researchers to calculate a "best fit line" which can be used to predict the effect of one variable upon the other (Jones & Gratton, 2015).

If it turned out that the independent variables are not able to accurately predict the effect on the dependent variable, it would mean that the salaries of foreign players and U.S. players are being calculated using varying techniques. The discrepancy in methods used to determine the

salary of foreign and U.S. players might suggest that there is indeed salary discrimination present in the NBA. This would mean that teams are either evaluating players based on different characteristics or that they are paying players different salaries for the same level of production, which would be salary discrimination.

The p-value of .05 was selected for this study because it is the generally accepted level of significance in sport studies (Jones & Gratton, 2015). A p-value of .05 strongly suggests that there is a relationship between the two groups being tested that is not due to chance (Jones & Gratton, 2015). Once the regressions were ran, if a significance level for an individual independent variable was found to be less than the p-value of .05, it meant that the independent variable had a significant impact on the dependent variable, which meant that there was more confidence that the independent variable was able to accurately predict the corresponding dependent variable.

Results

This study was designed with the purpose of determining whether or not salary discrimination between foreign-born and trained players and U.S.-born and trained players existed in the NBA during the 2011-2012 and the 2015-2016 seasons and which of the 11 independent variables had the greatest influence on the dependent variable of salary. The data that was collected for this study consisted of a player's height, years spent in the NBA before signing a contract during the period under investigation, the individual performance statistics during a player's platform year and the average salary per year they received for their contract. This study used the results of an independent samples t-test of differences and multiple regression analyses in order determine if the two samples (foreign-born and trained and U.S.-born and trained players) were accurately compared, whether or not there is salary discrimination

between the two samples and which of the independent variables have the greatest impact on a player's salary, respectively.

Inferential Statistics

The main premise of this study was determining if a population of comparable players were compensated equally for their equivalent height, time in NBA and statistical outputs. This meant that the first step after finding the comparable players was to test for significant difference between the two samples being studied. Table 1 provides the findings of the independent samples t-test of differences that was ran in order to determine how accurately the U.S.-born and trained comparable players were selected (See Appendix C). Table 1 displays the means of both samples and the entire population, the standard deviation of those means and the difference between the means of both samples of players. The most critical finding of the t-test of differences was that there were no significant differences between any of the means of foreign-born and trained players and the U.S.-born and trained players.

After it was determined that the two samples had no significant differences in any of the independent variables being compared, the final step was to determine if there was salary discrimination between the two samples of players and also to find out which of the independent variables had the greatest effect upon the dependent variable of a player's salary. A multiple regression analysis was utilized in order to accomplish these final steps. Three separate regressions were ran, one of just the foreign players (N=39) another of just the U.S. players (N=39), and the last was made up of the entire population of players (N=78), Table 2 displays the results of these multiple regression analyses (See Appendix D).

The critical findings of the multiple regression analysis of the foreign sample were that the independent variables with the largest standardized coefficients β were PPG (.459) with

significance level of .046, followed by WS (.293) with a significance level of .248 and lastly YearsinNBA (-.285) with a significance level of .034. The adjusted R^2 of the foreign players' multiple regression analysis was .596. For the multiple regression analysis of the U.S. sample, the critical findings were that the independent variables with the largest standardized coefficient β were RPG (.338) with a significance level of .124, PPG (.297) with a significance level of .169, WS (.273) with a significance level of .270, and lastly SPG (.226) with a significance level of .253. The adjusted R^2 of the U.S. players' multiple regression analysis was .714.

The results of the entire populations multiple regression analysis produced similar results to the multiple regression analyses ran for both samples of players. The independent variables with the highest standardized coefficients β were PPG (.400) with a significance level of .007, WS (.382) with a significance level of .012 and YearsinNBA (-.213) with a significance level of .006. The adjusted R^2 of the entire population's multiple regression analysis was .676. The unstandardized coefficients B , in regards to a player's status was -.230. The standardized coefficients β for a player's status was -.022 and the significance level was .761.

Discussion

The results of multiple regression analysis for the entire population found that there was a discrepancy between the foreign-born and trained players and the U.S.-born and trained players, finding that U.S. players received a salary premium of \$230,000. However, the difference in salary was not significant because the significance level of .761 is greater than the p-value of .05, which means that there was no salary discrimination between foreign-born and trained players and U.S.-born and trained players in the NBA during the 2011-2012 and the 2015-2016 seasons. This finding was determined by the unstandardized coefficient B for a player's status in the results of the populations multiple regression analysis. The value of -.230 means that a U.S.

player receives \$230,000 more than a comparable foreign player because the predictor value of a U.S. player was 1 and the predictor value for a foreign player was 2. This can be observed when using the unstandardized coefficients of the multiple regression analyses in order to predict a player's salary based on their independent variables. Each U.S. player would have a -230,000 value and each foreign player would have a -460,000, a difference of 230,000 in favor of the U.S. player.

For the entire population, the independent variables with the greatest influence on a player's salary were PPG, WS and YearsinNBA because they were the only independent variables with significance levels that were less than the p-value of .05. PPG and WS had the strongest positive relationships with standardized coefficients β of .400 and .382, respectively. This meant that the more PPG and WS and player had, the higher their salary was. YearsinNBA however, had a negative relationship, meaning that the more years they had spent in the NBA, the lower their salary was. This may be because players' statistical performances begin to decline at a point in their career and their salary reflects that.

The foreign players' multiple regression analysis found that the independent variables with the greatest influence on a foreign player's salary were PPG and YearsinNBA, both being the only two with significance levels below .05. PPG had a standardized coefficient β of .459, which meant again that the higher a player's PPG, the higher their salary. YearsinNBA had a standardized coefficient β of -.285, which too meant that once a player reached a certain point in their career, their salary begins to decline. The U.S. players multiple regression analysis found that the independent variables with the greatest influence on a U.S. player's salary were RPG, PPG and WS. However, none of them had significance levels lower than .05, meaning their impact on a player's salary was not significant.

The adjusted R^2 values of the multiple regression analyses provided insight into how accurately the independent variables could predict the dependent variable of a player's salary. The U.S. players' multiple regression analysis had the highest R^2 value of .714, which meant that the independent variables would accurately predict 71.4% of a U.S. player's salary. This meant that there was an additional 28.6% of a player's salary that was not able to be predicted by the independent variables. The foreign players' multiple regression analysis had an adjusted R^2 value of .596 and the entire population's multiple regression analysis had an R^2 value of .676, again, demonstrating that there were other unaccounted for factors influencing a player's salary.

Just as previous research on salary discrimination within the NBA has done, this study adds to the contraction of previous findings. Eschker, Perez and Siegler (2004) found in their study that foreign players received a salary premium over comparable U.S. players, Yang and Lin (2012) found that foreign players received lower salaries than their comparable U.S. players and Hoffer and Freidel (2014) found that foreign players received a salary premium of roughly \$900,000 over their comparable U.S. players.

The findings of which independent variables had the greatest effect on a player's salary partially compliment previous study's findings. Previous studies found that a player's time spent in the NBA had a positive impact on their salary (Brown, Spiro & Keenan, 1991; Burdekin, Hossfeld & Smith, 2005; Eschker, Perez & Siegler, 2004; Dey, 1997; Gius & Johnson, 1998; Groothuis & Hill, 2011; Hamilton, 1997; Hill, 2004; Hoffer & Freidel, 2014; Johnson, 1999; Lyons, Jackson & Livingston, 2015; & Yang & Lin, 2012). However, this study found that it had a negative impact on a player's salary. This is most likely because once a player reaches a certain point in their career, their performance begins to diminish, and their salary becomes lower than it previously was. It is possible that the population of players within this study had a larger portion

of older players that were beginning to decline than younger players that were entering or already within their prime.

Limitations

It is expected when using a post-positivist approach that one will not be able to obtain a truly objective understanding of the subject under investigation and that one must acknowledge the limitations that occur because of the complexity of the subject (Jones & Gratton, 2015). Testing for salary discrimination within professional sports is an extremely difficult task given the uniqueness of the business. There is a plethora of variables that effect a player's value to a team; their production on the court during games, their work ethic in practice and during the offseason, their ability to play within a team's specific system and their marginal revenue produced through ticket, broadcast and merchandise transactions, all of which have countless variables that effect their magnitude.

The adjusted R^2 values of each multiple regression analysis demonstrate how their or many different variables other than quantifiable statistics or measurements that effect a player's salary. The population's adjusted R^2 was .676, which means the independent variables accurately accounted for 67.6% of the player's salaries within the investigation. This meant that 32.4% of their salaries were being influence by unaccounted for variables. It is possible those 11 independent variables were not enough and that adding more statistical categories would have led to a higher percentage being explained. However, given the number of unquantifiable variables such as player's basketball IQ, their chemistry with the team and its system and drive to keep improving, it is highly improbable that a study will ever be able to accurately predict 100 percent of a player's salary in any sport.

This study also tested a small population size of only 78 NBA players, compared to previous studies that have examined much larger populations. The initial goal was to examine a population of 100 subjects, however given the study's parameters, it was difficult to obtain a large population since there are much few players of foreign decent in the NBA than those born in the United States. Had there been more subjects to investigate, the accuracy of the results would most likely have increased because the test would have been able to account for a larger portion of the NBA.

Importance of Findings and Directions for Future Research

The results of this study indicate how many other factors are taken into consideration other than a player's on-court performance when a team is evaluating a player's salary. The results of the multiple regression analysis for the entire population found that the independent variables used within the study only accounted for 67.6% of a player's salary, meaning there was an additional 32.4% of a player's salary that was not being influenced by the independent variables. These unknown or unquantifiable variables make it difficult for researchers to test for salary discrimination in any professional sport because you cannot accurately compare them across different players. It is also difficult because a team and coaches may place different values on a player's intangible assets than other teams and coaches around the league. In order to more accurately determine a player's value to a team, research should be conducted with the purpose of attempting to quantify players' intangible assets. By quantifying these assets, researchers can use them in similar multiple regression analyses to gain a more accurate understanding of exactly how teams determine the worth of a player.

The main research question this study answered was whether or not there was salary discrimination in the NBA between foreign-born and trained players and U.S.-born and trained

players during the 2011-2012 and the 2015-2016 seasons. The finding of no significant differences between the salaries of the two samples demonstrate how the NBA has become indifferent in regards to a player's background, meaning that as long as a player can effectively produce results and compete at the NBA level, there will be a spot for them within the league. It is also beneficial for the image of the league that players are compensated equally for equal performance because any form of discrimination within a business can have devastating effects on its reputation and financial success.

The second research question this study answered was which of the 11 independent variables being measured had the greatest impact upon a player's salary, those being PPG, WS and YearsinNBA. The purpose of finding out which of these variables had the greatest effect on salary was to show players which areas of their game to focus on improving if they wish to make as much money as possible in the basketball career. It was no surprise that PPG and WS were the two with the largest impact since the main objective of a basketball team is to win and a team does this by outscoring the opposing team. It clearly demonstrates the importance teams place on players that can score the ball in large quantities versus players that may be proficient in other areas related to the game of basketball. For players eager to make it to the NBA and hoping to make a career out of it, it seems the most important skill to work on is scoring the basketball.

Conclusions

The National Basketball Association has continued to evolve since its inception in order to make basketball one of the world's most popular sports and making the NBA one of its most popular leagues. As social norms and practices have changed, the NBA has changed with them; once discriminating against black players and now being dominated by black players. Foreign players rarely made a single appearance on an NBA roster and now there is the most there has

ever been in the NBA, and the number will most likely continue to grow as the game grows in popularity around the world.

The study found that the most important skill a basketball player can have is the ability to score the basketball. It also found that the higher number of wins a player contributes to their team, the more they are paid as well. Players can contribute wins to their team in a variety of ways, but the most important is placing the ball through the hoop. Even though there are still other roles a player can fulfill on an NBA roster, such as a defender, rebounder or playmaker, if you want to make the most money as possible you need to be able to consistently score the basketball.

Even though the multiple regression analyses found that there was a salary premium for U.S. players of \$230,000, the insignificance of this finding shows that NBA teams only care about a player's ability to perform at a high level and not where they learned the game from. This finding illustrates one of the most amazing aspects of sport, which is its ability to connect people from all different countries and cultures, breaking down any language barriers and allowing them to converse with one another through a common objective. As the world becomes more connected than ever, the game of basketball will continue to help this transition by providing avid and casual sport fans common ground from which to build relationships upon.

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Appendices

Appendix A) List of Players and Platform Year (each is paired with comparable player)

<u>Foreign</u>	<u>U.S.</u>
1. Tony Parker, 2013-2014	1. Jason Terry, 2011-2012
2. Alexis Ajinca, 2014-2015	2. Robin Lopez, 2011-2012
3. Omer Asik, 2014-2015	3. JaVale McGee, 2011-2012
4. Gustavo Ayon, 2012-2013	4. Thomas Robinson, 2014-2015
5. Leandro Barbosa, 2014-2015	5. Luke Ridnour, 2013-2014
6. Nicolas Batum, 2011-2012	6. Khris Middleton, 2014-2015
7. Marco Belinelli, 2012-2013	7. Anthony Morrow, 2013-2014
8. Bismack Biyombo, 2014-2015	8. Ed Davis, 2013-2014
9. Jose Calderon, 2012-2013	9. Raymond Felton, 2011-2012
10. Omri Casspi, 2014-2015	10. Derrick Williams, 2014-2015
11. Carlos Delfino, 2012-2013	11. Randy Foye, 2011-2012
12. Boris Diaw, 2013-2014	12. Mike Dunleavy, 2012-2013
13. Goran Dragic, 2014-2015	13. O.J. Mayo, 2012-2013
14. Danilo Gallinari, 2014-2015	14. Andre Iguodala, 2012-2013
15. Marc Gasol, 2014-2015	15. Al Jefferson, 2012-2013
16. Pau Gasol, 2013-2014	16. Zach Randolph, 2013-2014
17. Manu Ginobili, 2012-2013	17. Jamal Crawford, 2011-2012
18. Marcin Gortat, 2013-2014	18. Robin Lopez, 2014-2015
19. Nene Hilario, 2010-2011	19. Paul Milsap, 2014-2015
20. Serge Ibaka, 2011-2012	20. Patrick Patterson, 2013-2014
21. Ersan Ilyasova, 2011-2012	21. Carl Landry, 2011-2012
22. Joe Ingles, 2014-2015	22. JaKarr Sampson, 2014-2015
23. Jonas Jerebko, 2014-2015	23. Marreese Speights, 2012-2013
24. Yi Jianlian, 2010-2011	24. James Johnson, 2013-2014
25. Enes Kanter, 2014-2015	25. Greg Monroe, 2014-2015
26. Andrei Kirilenko, 2010-2011	26. Mike Dunleavy, 2012-2013
27. Ian Mahinmi, 2011-2012	27. Robin Lopez, 2011-2012
28. Dirk Nowitzki, 2013-2014	28. Tim Duncan, 2011-2012
29. Zaza Pachulia, 2012-2013	29. Chris Andersen, 2013-2014
30. Nikola Pekovic, 2012-2013	30. Demarcus Cousins, 2012-2013
31. Mikael Pietrus, 2010-2011	31. C.J. Miles, 2013-2014
32. Vladimir Radmonovic, 2011-2012	32. Charlie Villanueva, 2014-2015
33. Luis Scola, 2014-2015	33. Amir Johnson, 2014-2015
34. Thabo Sefolosha, 2013-2014	34. Tony Allen, 2012-2013
35. Kevin Seraphin, 2014-2015	35. Lavoy Allen, 2014-2015
36. Tiago Splitter, 2012-2013	36. Derrick Favors, 2012-2013
37. Mirza Teletovic, 2014-2015	37. Michael Kidd-Gilchrist, 2014-2015
38. Beno Udrih, 2012-2013	38. Nate Robinson, 2011-2012
39. Jonas Valanciunas, 2014-2015	39. JaVale McGee, 2011-2012

Appendix B) Sample of Data Collection Sheet

Status	Player Name	Position	Platform Year	Height	Years in NBA Upon Signing	PPG	APG	RPG	BPG	SPG	FG%	FT%	PER	Win Shares	Salary Per Year
Foreign	Tony Parker	PG	2013-2014	74"	13	16.7	5.7	2.3	0.1	0.5	0.499	0.811	18.9	5.9	13.96
U.S.	Jason Terry	PG	2011-2012	74"	13	15.1	3.6	2.4	0.2	1.2	0.43	0.883	15.7	3.8	5.49

Appendix C) Results of Independent Samples T-test of Differences**Table 1. Mean Values of Variables**

Variable	Population (N=78)	Foreign (N=39)	U.S. (N=39)	Mean Difference
PPG	10.399 (4.1104)	10.285 (4.3895)	10.513 (3.8654)	.2282
APG	1.901 (1.5302)	1.946 (1.5892)	1.856 (1.4882)	-.0897
RPG	5.059 (2.5353)	5.149 (2.5052)	4.969 (2.5945)	-.1795
BPG	.660 (.6125)	.636 (.6811)	.685 (.5432)	.0487
SPG	.713 (.3701)	.667 (.2896)	.759 (.4351)	.0923
FG%	.47535 (.056172)	.48179 (.059273)	.46890 (.052867)	-.012897
FT%	.73836 (.104933)	.75008 (.095280)	.72664 (.113805)	-.023436
PER	16.097 (3.3857)	16.026 (3.7779)	16.169 (2.9908)	.1436
WS	4.204 (2.3456)	4.587 (2.6805)	3.821 (1.9137)	-.7667
YearsinNBA	6.90 (3.5)	6.90 (3.485)	6.90 (3.56)	.000
Height	80.44 (3.293)	80.90 (3.093)	79.97 (3.46)	-.923
SalaryPerYear*	7.3770 (5.21229)	7.5771 (5.46814)	7.1768 (5.00680)	-.40026

Notes: Std. Deviations in parentheses

* In millions of U.S. Dollars

p<0.05, *p<0.01

Appendix D) Results of Multiple Regression Analysis**Table 2. Correlation Coefficients (In Millions of U.S. Dollars)**

	Population	Foreign	U.S.
Constant	-10.827	-.350	-22.453
PPG	.508** (.400)	.572* (.459)	.385 (.272)
APG	.294 (.086)	.339 (0.98)	.051 (.015)
RPG	.326 (.159)	.265 (.121)	.653 (.338)
BPG	.969 (.114)	.904 (.113)	1.229 (.133)
SPG	.844 (.060)	.461 (.024)	2.603 (.226)
FG%	.284 (.003)	-2.441 (-.026)	5.460 (.058)
FT%	-.271 (-.005)	2.540 (.044)	1.846 (.042)
PER	-.122 (-.080)	.038 (.026)	-.337 (-.201)
WS	.850* (.382)	.597 (.293)	.713 (.273)
YearsinNBA	-.318** (-.213)	-.448* (-.285)	-.199 (-.141)
Height	.130 (.082)	-.023 (-.013)	.245 (.170)
Status	-.230 (-.022)		

Note: Standardized Coefficients β in parentheses* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$