INDIANA AHPERD JOURNAL

Volume 40, Number 2 Spring Issue 2011

I -nvigorate

A -ctive

H -ealthy

P -repared

E -nergized

R -elevant

The **D** -oorway to the Future of IAHPERD

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Indiana Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance

Contents

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President's Message

2011 State Conference

I-nvigorate
A-ctive
H-ealthy
P-repared
E-nergized
R-elevant

The D-oorway to the Future of IAHPERD

To my fellow IAHPERD members:

It is nice having the feeling of spring in the air after such a challenging winter. I would like to share with you some exciting changes that are happening with our organization.

Due to the inclement weather in February, our traditional Leadership Conference that has been held at McCormick's Creek for the last several years was postponed. Our re-scheduled Leadership Conference was held at Butler University on Saturday, April 16th. (I want to thank Lisa Farley, CFP Advisor, for all of her assistance in planning the meeting.)

Communication is challenging in all types of relationships, including working as a professional organization. I certainly do not have a perfect solution to our communication challenges, but one aspect that we have started making changes with is how our Executive Committee operates. The Executive Committee is comprised of the President-Elect, President, Past-President, Secretary, Conference Planner and Executive Director. When I started my work as President-Elect, I was stunned at the lack of cooperation in how the Executive Committee worked. I kept hearing, "That's the President's meeting," or "That's the Past-President's conference." I found it unsettling that such responsibilities were heaped onto one person when we had a committee that could assist with these decisions and tasks. I am pleased to report that our culture is changing. Traditionally, the state conference planning was solely the responsibility of the Past-President. This year we are meeting as a group and all assisting in the enormous task of planning the state conference.

Another exciting change relates to our Leadership Conference. As part of this year's Leadership Conference, the group brainstormed about what we saw the purpose of this meeting to be and what other formats and/or locations might work best for the group. I am still in the process of analyzing the data from our discussion, but I can report that there was a strong message from the group that a day-long meeting, rather than overnight, would be preferable. Additionally, we will seek to find a more centralized location.

Finally, in order to better serve our members, we are going to alternate our state conference with regional workshops. The Board of Directors voted to attempt this through 2013. We will have a state conference in 2011, regional workshops in 2012, and a state conference in 2013. This will allow members who are not able to travel to the state conference to obtain professional development in a location more convenient and less costly to them. We need your help with this task. Our Regions committee has been inactive for several years, so we need some dedicated professionals from around the state to help as we move through this time of transition. If you are interested in serving, please contact me at langerme@iupui.edu.

We look forward to seeing you November 9-11, 2011 at the Wyndham Indianapolis West for our state conference — ***Invigorate*** – ***Active*** – ***Healthy*** – ***Prepared*** – ***Energized*** – ***Relevant*** – ***The Doorway to the Future of IAHPERD.***

Respectfully yours,
Lisa K. Angermeier, PhD, CHES
IAHPERD President

Share your Journal with a friend

Attention IAHPERD Members

As an association, in the future more of our communications will be done through e-mail. If you did not receive an e-mail in January or February from: indianaahperd@aol.com – please update your e-mail address.

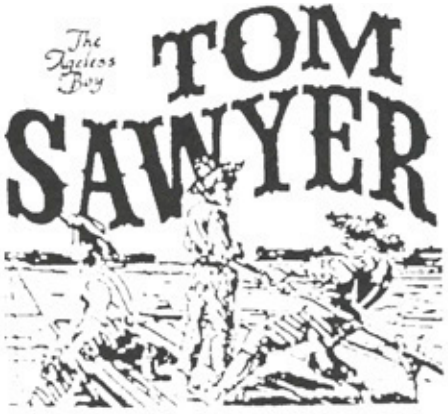
This may be done by e-mailing your current e-mail, name, and address to: indianaahperd@aol.com.

Any questions? Contact Karen Hatch, Indiana AHPERD Executive Director at the above e-mail or by telephone at: 765-664-8319.

Thanks for keeping the IAHPERD membership records up-to-date.

Message from the President

NOTIONS from YOUR EDITOR...



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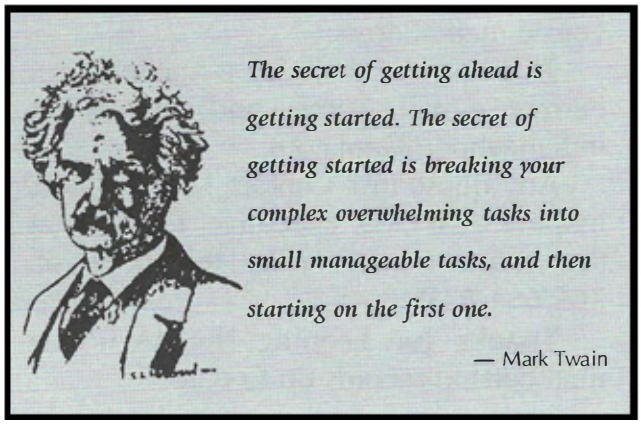
Sexually Discriminatory Act
A Title IX Claim
Elborough v. Evansville Community School Dist.
636 F.Supp.2d 812
W.D.Wis.,2009.
June 23, 2009

Introduction

Plaintiff Ivyanne Elborough joined the Evansville High School freshman football team in the beginning of August 2007 as the only female team member. She alleges that for the next few weeks, defendants Evansville Community School District and Ron Grovesteen (the head football coach) discriminated against her on the basis of sex by failing to keep the girls' locker room unlocked, keeping snacks and the practice schedule in the boys' locker room where she was not allowed, and telling her she needed to get her hair cut "like a boy".

On August 30, after plaintiff's mother had complained about these matters to defendant Grovesteen and two school administrators, plaintiff came to practice without protective equipment because she had been unable to find anyone to unlock the girls' locker room. What happened next is the primary impetus for this law suit: plaintiff participated in a number of practice drills without any pads and defendant Grovesteen did not stop her from doing so. Plaintiff hurt her shoulder during one practice drill and then fractured her clavicle during another.



Complaint

Plaintiff brings claims against the district under Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, the due process clause, and state law and against defendant Grovesteen under the equal protection clause, the due process clause, and state law. Two motions were before the court: (1) defendants' motion for summary judgment and (2) plaintiff's motion to disregard new evidence submitted with defendants' reply submissions.

Undisputed Facts of the Case

Beginning on the first Monday in August 2007, plaintiff Ivyanne Elborough was a member of the Evansville High School freshman football team. Defendant Ron Grovesteen was the head football coach.

Safety equipment for practices was stored in the locker rooms. Plaintiff's equipment was stored in the girls' locker room. She was not allowed in the boys' locker room. Sometimes, plaintiff was unable to get into her locker room because it was locked to prevent theft. To get in, plaintiff had to find someone with a key to open the door which made her late for practice. Defendant Grovesteen required latecomers to do push-ups.

Pretzels were available in the boys' locker room as snacks; but, plaintiff was not allowed to enter. A practice schedule was posted in the boys' locker room; but, it was not in the girls' locker room. Practices started at the same time every day.

On August 27, plaintiff's mother, Deborah St. Aubin-Elborough, complained to defendant Grovesteen and Andrew Lehman (the junior varsity football coach) about plaintiff's inability to get into the girls' locker room. Grovesteen said he did not have a key to the locker room. When St. Aubin-Elborough asked Grovesteen whether he could get a key, he repeated

that he did not have one. When she asked him, "Don't they trust you with a key to the girls' locker room?", he said "Nope, not to the girls' locker room."

Contrary to Grovesteen's statement, he did have a key that opened the girls' locker room at this time. (The parties dispute whether Grovesteen knew that his "universal" key opened the girls' locker room.) Lehman agreed to help insure that the locker room would be open for plaintiff.

A day or two later, St. Aubin-Elborough spoke with Brian Cashore, the athletic director and associate principal. She repeated her concern that plaintiff could not get into the locker room. In addition, she complained that defendant Grovesteen had told plaintiff that she had to get her hair cut like a boy and that plaintiff did not receive the snacks that the male players received. Cashore told St. Aubin-Elborough that he would try to make sure the locker room was open for plaintiff.

On August 30, St. Aubin-Elborough spoke to Heidi Carvin, the district administrator, about the same concerns. St. Austin-Elborough said that even after plaintiff had gotten her hair cut as instructed by defendant Grovesteen, he singled plaintiff out, telling her that she needed to get her hair cut like a boy. In addition, St. Aubin-Elborough said that she was concerned about plaintiff's not having access to the girls' locker room and her equipment. Carvin told plaintiff that she would talk to the athletic director about these concerns. Carvin did this; but, she does not remember whether it was on the same day. She believed that defendant Grovesteen had more important things to do than locking and unlocking doors.

On August 30, plaintiff found the door to the girls' locker room locked again when she tried to get in before football practice. This time, however, she could not find anyone to unlock the door and she was unable to put on her protective equipment for practice. Normally, when a player appeared at practice without equipment, the response from staff was to find equipment for the player to wear. Defendant Grovesteen knows that proper equipment is needed to help reduce the risk of serious injury when playing football.

Defendant Grovesteen offered plaintiff and the other freshman players a choice between participating in drills with the junior varsity and varsity players or just watching. Plaintiff participated in the drills. Plaintiff hurt her right shoulder when she was conducting a drill involving a somersault. She continued on to the next drill which was a form-blocking drill. She fractured her right clavicle during practice.

Disputed Facts of the Case

The parties dispute whether:

- a practice schedule was posted in a hallway that was accessible to both sexes,
- defendant Grovesteen told plaintiff when no one else was present that "getting her hair cut to look like a boy was a commitment she was going to have to make to be on the football team",
- plaintiff received a "permanent team jersey" like the boys on the team did,
- the athletic director spoke to defendant Grovesteen and Lehman about making sure the door to the girls' locker room was unlocked,
- plaintiff was the only player participating in the drills on August 30, 2007 who was not wearing pads,
- whether there were other instances in which plaintiff showed up for practice without pads.

Discussion of the Findings of the Case

The Court found that the school district did not have adequate notice of alleged intentional acts of sex discrimination carried out by the school's head freshman football coach, including keeping freshman football team's practice schedule in boys' locker room, telling only female student on team that she had to get her hair cut "like a boy", failing to unlock girls' locker room, where student's protective equipment was located, and allowing student to participate in practice drills without protective equipment, as would support student's Title IX sex discrimination claim against school. Although student's mother complained to district administrators on one occasion, she gave them little reason to believe that student was victim of intentional discrimination on basis of sex.

In order for school district to be held liable under Title IX for injuries allegedly sustained by female member of high school's freshman football team, who alleged that she was injured as result of sex discrimination on part of head football coach, according to the court, student was required to show that district had notice that she would be hurt as result of intentional sex discrimination. Under the standard of deliberate indifference, this meant that student was required to show that the district made deliberate choice to follow discriminatory course of action from among various alternatives which was not obvious to the court.

The court said that even if school district failed to follow its own procedures in handling complaints of sex discrimination and/or failed to review personnel file of high school's head football coach who allegedly discriminated against only female member of school's freshman football team on basis of sex, such facts would not prove that district had actual knowledge of problem regarding sex discrimination as would subject it to liability in Title IX sex discrimination action brought by student.

Further, even if the high school's head football coach made a comment to female member of school's freshman football team that she had to get her hair cut "like a boy" with discriminatory intent, comment was not so severe or pervasive as to prevent student from meaningful participation in school activity as required for school district to be held liable for damages under Title IX arising from sex discrimination.

Furthermore, the failure of high school's head football coach to stop the female member of school's freshman football team from participating in practice drills without protective equipment did not constitute due process violation. Coach did not force student to participate or monopolize student's avenues of relief.

The Court found there was no evidence that the high school's head football coach had any involvement

in placing snacks or practice schedule in boys' locker room where the females member of the school's freshman football team were not allowed and thus, those incidents could not form basis of equal protection claim against coach.

Further, the Court felt that the High school's head football coach's allegedly discriminatory actions of putting snacks in boys' locker room where female members of freshman football team were not allowed to go and keeping the practice schedule in the boys' locker room were insufficient to give rise to equal protection claim against coach.

The Court found a genuine issue of material fact existed as to whether high school's head football coach allowed this female member of school's freshman football team to participate in practice drills without protective equipment because of her sex precluding summary judgment as to student's equal protection claim against coach.

Finally, the court found another genuine issue of material fact existed as to whether high school's head football coach disregarded known danger in allowing female members of the school's freshman football team to participate in practice drills without protective equipment precluding summary judgment as to issue of whether coach and school district were entitled to immunity, under Wisconsin law, from student's state law claims arising from injuries she sustained at practice.

Court Holdings

Defendants' motion for summary judgment will be denied with respect to plaintiff's claims under the equal protection clause and state law. A reasonable jury could find that defendant Grovesteen allowed plaintiff to play without protective equipment because of her sex (for the purpose of her equal protection claim) and that he disregarded a "known danger" (for the purpose of her state law claim). Plaintiff's other claims must be dismissed. With respect to her Title IX claim, plaintiff has failed to show that the district had adequate notice of the alleged discriminatory acts against her. With respect to her due process claim, she has failed to show that defendants created the dangerous situation. Their alleged violation was a failure to stop plaintiff from harming herself which is not enough to establish a claim under the due process clause.

Risk Management Recommendations

After reading and analyzing this case, the following risk management recommendations are offered:

1. The district should have a clear notice policy regarding alleged sexually discriminatory acts in interscholastic athletic programs,
2. The district should have procedures as how to handle complaints of sex discrimination in interscholastic athletics programs,
3. A coach's comments regarding 1st Amendment rights (eg, a student's attire and grooming) has no place in interscholastic athletics unless they relate to a student-athlete's safety (such as the length of a wrestlers head hair, facial hair, and long nails),
4. No student participating in a contact sport should be allowed to participate in practice drills or games without the appropriate protective equipment as prescribed by the sport's governing bodies rules, and
5. No student shall be discriminated against in interscholastic athletics based on gender.

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Obituaries

Charles J. Baer

Information obtained from the Kokomo Tribune, Nov. 10, 2010

Charles J. Baer, 80, passes away on Mon., November 8, 2010 at home after a long battle with heart disease. He was born Aug. 5, 1930 in Hemlock, to Charles B. and Wilma (Robinson) Baer. He married Donna Shields on June 11, 1955 and she survives.

Mr. Baer graduated from Kokomo High School in 1949. After graduation he attended Ball State University for one year before becoming a staff sergeant in the U.S. Air Force. He then returned to Ball Sate to earn a bachelor's degree in health and physical education in 1955. Mr. Baer furthered his education earning his master's degree in health and physical education from Indiana University.

Mr. Baer began his career as a teacher and coach at Stoney Creek High School in Parker City and Geneva High School. In 1959 he began a 21-year career as a teacher and athletic trainer, and later served as the school district's director of driver education, health, physical education and health services; and as coordinator of middle school athletics.

He then moved on to the American School Health Association to serve as its executive director in 1980-1981, and then to Bloomington to become the associate director-administration of the hazard control program and an assistant professor of health and safety at Indiana University from 1981 until his retirement in 1983. He had also previously served as an instructor in anatomy and physiology at the Kokomo School of Nursing, and at Indiana University Kokomo from 1968-1975.

Mr. Baer was active in his community serving on the Howard County Board of Health, traffic commission, drug abuse council and Society for Crippled Children. He also worked with Easter Seals organization in Monroe County as its chairman, and with the Indiana Easter Seals Society as a board member and as president.

Mr. Baer was honored by IAHPERD on two different occasions for distinguished service and contributions.

He is survived by his wife of 55 years, Donna; daughter Suzanne (john) Johnson, Okemos, Mich; son Scott, Kokomo, several grandchildren; and a brother, Ralph (Jennie) of Kokomo. He was preceded in death by his parents, Charles and Wilma Baer; and a daughter, Rebecca.

Memorial contributions may be made to the South Side Christian Church, 201 E. Markland Ave., Kokomo or to the VNS Hospice.

Dr. Marianne Woods

Dr. Marianne Woods, 55, died on Dec. 17, 2010, at home surrounded by her family in Macomb, Illinois. Marianne was born Jan. 2, 1955, to Matthew and Arlene Woods of Marshall, Michigan. Marianne had 11 siblings, brothers: Fred(Pam) Woods, Ceresco, MI; Larry(Sandy)Woods, Andy(Wendee) Woods, Dr. Matt (Jennie)Woods, Ed Woods, Bill(Karen)Woods, Ron Woods all of Marshall, MI; sisters Jane and Barry Lake, Bloomington, IN; Ellen and John Hallacy, Battle Creek, MI; Margaret and Darin Feasel, and Dianne and Brent Cole, all of Marshall, MI.

Dr. Woods graduated from Marshall High School in 1973, then earned a Bachelor of Arts in Secondary Physical Education from Olivet College, Olivet, MI. She taught three years at Deckerville High School, Deckerville, MI. In October 1982 she joined the Air Force and served 4 years. She was stationed in Bitburg, Germany, where her athletic abilities enabled her to participate in Air Force European Sports programs, allowing her to travel to several countries and represent the Air Force at inter-service games in the U.S. After leaving the Air Force, she worked for the Army as a Sports/Athletics Coordinator in Kaiserslautern, Germany, for five years. In 1991, Marianne returned to the States to attend Central Missouri State University, where she earned a Master's Degree in Pedagogy. She continued her education at University of Colorado in Greeley, CO; successfully completing a Doctorate Degree in Pedagogy. Dr. Woods was a professor at the University of Idaho, Moscow, ID for nine years; Ball State University, Muncie, IN for 2 years; and Western Illinois University, Macomb, IL, since 2006. While at Ball State University Dr. Woods was active in IAHPERD presenting in state conferences.

Memorial services were held at St. Bernard's in Bushnell, IL on Dec. 21, 2010 and at St. Mary's Roman Catholic Church in Marshall, MI. on Dec. 29, 2010.

Condolences may be sent to Mr. and Mrs. Matthew Woods, 15363 J Dr. N, Marshall, MI, 49068.

Donations may be made to the Lance Armstrong Live-Strong Foundation at www.livestrong.org/Donate; the American Cancer Society at www.cancer.org/Involved?Donate/index; or the American Diabetes Association at www.diabetes.org

Seemann Baugh "CB"

The Star Press, Muncie, IN, April 17, 2011 and the Jamestown Sun, March 16, 2011.

Seemann Baugh "CB", 58, lost his battle with cancer on March 10, 2011 in Longmont, CO. He was born to Mary Margaret and Donald Baugh in Minot, ND.

CB graduated from Jamestown High School, Jamestown, ND, in 1970.

He attained his Bachelor's and Master's Degrees from the University of North Dakota and Mankato State University. For the past ten years, he was an Instructor of Physical Education, Sport and Exercise Science and Coordinator of the coaching minor program at Ball State University. During the first 31 years of his career CB served as a NCAA Division I & II collegiate swimming and diving coach. During this time he was also a swimming and diving official in such venues as collegiate conferences, NISCA, NCAA, USS Nationals, the Olympic Trials and the Pan-Am Games.

Seemann was an avid adventurer and long-distance cyclist, actively participating in the Delaware County Cycling Club. He participated in rides such as the RAIN, the Nite Ride of Indianapolis, the Hilly 100, and the Ragbarai in Iowa. He and his tandem riding partner, Tom Weidner, had covered more than 25,000 miles together, including the 2010 Hilly Hundred this past October. Seemann also participated in various solo mountain biking, Iron Man and Triathlon competitions. In 2001, he was a coordinator and Mountain Bike Commissioner for the World Police & Fire Games in Indianapolis.

Seemann also, served as the Indianapolis-Scarborough Peace Games Chairman and Head Swimming Coach. He was a certified PADI Dive Master and scuba instructor, and participated in Dr. Councilman Swim Camp and the Boys Clubs of Indianapolis. Seemann prided himself on helping his friends who will always remember him as a man with a generous and loving heart.

CB received the Collegiate Conference Swim Coach of the Year six times, Physical Education Department Teacher Award four times, and Colorado H.S. Northern Conference Coach of the Year twice. Most recently, he was the VP of the Fitness Council for Indiana Association of Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance.

Seemann is survived by his daughter, Kaylee Baugh; brothers, Patrick and Michael; sisters, Deb Maria Lamia and Mary Beth Pieske (David); nieces, Chea Lynn Baugh and Brandi Bodvig; and nephew, Joseph Lamia. His parents Donald & Mary Margaret Baugh preceded him in death.

CB's friends and family will remember his quirky sense of humor, his quiet sense of honor, and his loud sense of fun. But mostly, we will be remembered for his generosity of heart and spirit. He was a big man with a bigger heart. A party to celebrate his life will be held in May. Contact Tom Weidner for details.

Memorial contributions may be made to the Cardinal Greenway Trail in Muncie or to Hospice of Boulder & Broomfield Counties, Colorado.

Share Your Journal with a Colleague or Student

Conference Information at www.inahperd.org

Launching Alternative Revenue Generating Programs in Interscholastic Athlethics

By Brady Yordy, David Pierce, Lindsey Blom, and Leigh Ann Bussell
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Abstract

Interscholastic athletic directors are facing financial difficulties stemming from cuts in school board funding, rising expenses, and the downturn in the economy. The purpose of this paper is to address how the implementation of a philanthropic approach to fundraising can supplement athletic department budgets. Interscholastic athletic directors will be introduced to the most important reasons why people give money to athletics and how to begin instituting a philanthropy program through generating a statement of purpose, establishing goals, identifying prospects, and asking for a donation. The difference between annual funds and major gifts is also addressed.

Keywords: Interscholastic athletics, fundraising, philanthropy

Launching Alternative Revenue Generating Programs in Interscholastic Athletics

Public schools in America over the last few decades have created expansive programming aimed to heighten the overall education experience (Meier, 2004). From the classroom to extracurricular activities, a program exists for almost every student. This programmatic – and problematic – growth has placed budgetary pressures on the students, school administrators, and the federal, state and local government. The United States higher education system has used philanthropy as an alternative revenue stream to help face these challenges, and in the process, higher education has transformed dramatically (Frank, 2004). This trend in higher education is in large part because of the heightened philanthropic awareness in United States. Total United States charitable giving in 1967 was $17.03 billion. By 1997, giving to not-for-profit organizations increased to $144.6 billion and $307 billion in 2008 (*Nauffts*, 2008).

While the budgetary challenges with the U.S. public school system is universally accepted, there are endless theories as to how financial resources should be allocated. Physical education, extracurricular, and athletic programs in particular seem to be experiencing heightened budgetary pressures. These activities have been the target of frozen or reduced budgets because of the state and federal tax cuts for public academic institutions (McFarland, 2002). The financial structures used in public school systems vary greatly around the country. In general terms, seven percent of a school's budget comes from federal funding, and the remainder is generated through local, state, and sales taxes. The average amount of money provided per pupil varies greatly from state to state (Howell & Miller, 1997). An article in Time magazine said, "In an era of property-tax caps and budget cutbacks, no child is entitled to much; these days state and local funding for education is stretched just to cover the basics" (Smolowe, 1995, p. 62). With these increased budgetary pressures, athletic directors and school administrators are challenged to look for alternative sources of revenue to support these programs.

In spite of extracurricular budgets falling short of needed expenses, athletics in America continues to experience increased participation. The National Federation of State High School Association (NFHS, 2009) reported high school athletic participation for the 2008-09 school year set an all-time high of 7,536,753, which marked the twentieth consecutive year increasing participation. The survey revealed that in 2008-09, 55.2 percent of students enrolled in high schools participated in athletics, which was an increase from the 54.8 percent from the 2007-08 academic year.

The increase in athletic participation in the

United States, coupled with the budgetary pressures schools are facing, has caused administrators to search for unconventional methods of income. For example, the formal fundraising practices and strategies embraced by most collegiate athletic programs could be transferred to the public school structure to offset the budgetary differences. With the intensified financial crisis in education, around the country, and globally, new approaches must be implemented to ensure these programs are maintained (Bravo, 2004; Howard and Crompton 2004; Reeves, 2006).

Purpose of the Study

The budgetary pressures within high school athletics show no signs of reversing in the future. School administrators are searching for alternative revenue sources to support the athletic programs at their high schools. The following case study explores philanthropic trends within higher education and how those could be repackaged into tangible plans to counter the financial challenges in interscholastic athletics.

The need for unconventional revenue for high school athletics coupled with the impact of fundraising in the higher education system has created a ripe environment for the adoption of athletic fundraising at public high schools. This study reinforces the belief that interscholastic athletics is at a tipping point with regards to athletic funding, and that fundraising, event promotion, and a rebranding strategy can generate alternative revenue and serve as a solution to the budgetary pressures school administrators are facing. Given that athletic directors have a limited amount of time to allocate to fundraising, a qualitative study was performed to identify the fundraising practices that have the most significant impact.

Review of Literature

The discussion regarding budgetary challenges for high school athletics must begin with background information in order to accurately define the major challenges facing athletic departments. The following provides information on the current financial climate with in interscholastic athletics and how fundraising practices used within higher education and not-for-profit organizations can help alleviate some of these pressures.

Current Financial Environment of High School Athletics

School administrators spend a significant percentage of their time budgeting and allocating resources, and justifying their actions. The rising cost of public education in the United States coupled with enrollment growth has placed extreme financial pressures on school's budgets and administrators. The federal, state and local taxing structures evolve constantly, further adding to the challenges administrators face in developing relevant financial plans (Burrup, Brimley & Garfield, 1999). Bravo (2004) stated:

> The incidence of demographic change, inflation and taxation has directly affected state funding of public education. Demographic changes have created more needs, inflation has decreased the actual dollar value and new tax legislation has established limits on tax burden. In turn, these forces have affected the funding for interscholastic athletics as well with scarcity of public monies arise, school administrators need to fund primarily the programs mandated by the State Board of Education. (p. 25)

The Value of Athletics

Given the current financial climate in public schools, inevitably the amount of athletic funding schools allocate towards these programs are questioned. For years extracurricular activities have been highly valued as part of the overall educational system (Hoch, 1998). A recent study attempted to challenge the idea that athletics enhance the educational experience provided by public schools. This study looked at 1,924 Texas public schools and found that "Athletics can influence student performance on basic skill exams," yet found "a strong negative relationship exists between athletic budgets and student performance on SAT and ACT exams" (Eller, Marchbanks, Meier, Polinard, Robinson, & Wrinkle, 2004). These two findings contradict each other and do not support the divergent goals theory which states that if two opposing goals are pursued simultaneously, they will have a negative impact on each other. If Eller et al. (2004) was able to show that athletics do not have a significant impact on student athletics, extracurricular activities as a whole could be in jeopardy in the public schools.

As it stands, there is still strong support of extracurricular programming and the impact it has on education. Rader (1999) noted, "high school sports helped to give an identity and common purpose to many neighborhoods, towns, and cities which were otherwise divided by class, race, ethnicity, or religion" (p. 111). This community support is one of the primary factors for the rise in athletic competitions and participation (Covell, 1998).

Funding Structure

The debate over athletic funding in public schools systems and how multiple competing institutional goals can hamper an organization's ability to fulfill its primary mission of educating students, may never end. Gee (2005) suggested:

> Integrating the athletic budget into a university's (or high school's) budget keeps the priorities of athletics in alignment with a university's other strategic priorities. Athletics revenue cannot outrun academics in primacy when it is collected under the same rubric as academic and overseen by the same eyes that oversee academics and student life. In athletics, as in all things, the further one moves from the core and the heart, the more dispersed the original focus become. Pulling athletics into the university's heart makes aligning athletics with a university's greater mission is much easier (p.13).

Gee surmises, this same principle should be applied to the public school system.

The reality for most high school athletic directors is that athletic budgets no longer cover the cost of running the established programs. Passing the additional cost along to the student-athletes is an emerging trend used to counter

budgetary constraints in high schools (Brown, 2002). However, it is a practice that has met great resistance (Smith, 2001). According to Pete Bryden, associate director for ESPN The Magazine Coaches Fundraising Program, "Fees now account for an average of 20% percent of athletic budgets. The sad reality is that many athletic departments are not able to make ends meet and 'pay-to-play' has become a necessary evil" (Newell, 2005, p.5). Bryden goes on to explain, "A lot of schools have gone the route of allowing the fundraising part to go to a booster club vs. the sports team, the athletic director, or the individual coach. It just depends on how it is coordinated within the school" (Newell, 2005, p. 3). However, car washes and bake sales conducted by each team may no longer meet the financial needs of high school athletic departments. Instead, a comprehensive, integrated, philanthropic campaign can more effectively meet the needs of athletic administrators.

With the demand for additional revenue increasing, administrators are feeling the effects of these pressures. Each school system has its own philosophy on the role of athletics in education. These athletic philosophies are conceived by school board members, administrators, and local community. The budgetary pressures have the potential to influence the philosophy and organizational structure of athletic and educational programs. Educational institutions across the country are reviewing their athletic organizational structure to ensure it aligns with the broader institutional organizational philosophy. Athletic budgets and programs for years have been allowed to act independently from the school's core function of education (Eller et al., 2004). Colleges and universities are beginning to reintegrate their athletic budgets into the broader school budgets (Donovan, 2008). This has allowed schools to better protect their core purpose of educating students, rather than competing for a higher market share or sponsorship dollars. This emerging trend in higher education has begun to trickle down to high schools as administrators have identified the impact this structure can have on the educational experience.

Philanthropic Trends in Higher Education

From assessment to teaching methods, higher education has served as the testing ground for many educational principles and practices that have then been implemented in the public school. The same parallel exist between higher education and public schools in regards to philanthropic practices because they are both being forced to wrestle with two philosophical questions: 1) How much should be invested in the pursuit of successful athletic programs, and 2) how individual sports are prioritized and supported (Meier et al., 2004).

Smaller colleges and high schools operate under a much different structure, and therefore philanthropic practices must be altered to fit appropriately. In less commercialized settings, success is normally evaluated in terms of indirect value rather than television or ticket sales revenue. The indirect values of a successful program can be found in positive fundraising implications as well as admissions implications (Frank, 2004). A successful program has great impact on the attractiveness of a school and serves as the front porch.

Over the last twenty years athletic fundraising has experienced tremendous growth. (Tsiotsou, 2006). Tsiotsou (2006) found that "Athletic fundraising presents the greatest percentage increase in universities the last few decades" (p. 210). Heightened athletic budgets are evidence of a stronger commitment to athletics within higher education. But with this growth and increase with charitable giving, comes a need for more complex strategies and gifts (Gladden & Mahoney, 2005). It is important to note that while some of the big-time universities may be raising staggering amounts of money, only two percent of a donor base gives a majority of the athletic funds. Of that two percent donor base, most of the donors are not alumni, but rather fans of the athletic program (Stinson, 2004). When comparing athletic fundraising to the broader philanthropic industry in the United States, athletic fundraising, even within higher education, is still rudimentary at most institutions.

Howard and Crompton (2004) found "the motives underlying donations are more altruistic than commercial" (p. 574). However, two recent studies have identified tax deductions, priority seating, professional contacts, membership plaques, decals and hospitality rooms, to be additional motivating factors in supporting athletics (Donovan, 2008, Tsiotsou, 2006). One of the most comprehensive athletic donor motivation studies in this field used prior research to assess why their donors give money and in the process help fundraisers better understand their constituency (Gladden & Mahoney, 2005).

The four primary motivations for athletic donors are philanthropic, social, program success, and personal benefits (Billing, Holt, and Smith 1985). Staurowsky (1996) further explored this topic and found curiosity and power to be additional motivating factors for donor's giving. These two studies provided significant research for the industry in identifying what motivates athletic donors. However, these studies fell short in identifying the importance of these different motivating factors. Verner, Hecht & Fansler (1998) assessed these core motivating factors and developed a method of quantifying the importance of these factors. The following six donor motivations, if accurately identified and appropriately leveraged, will result in more gifts, more fulfilled donors, a constituency better primed for future gifts.

Access to inside information. Giving which gives donors access to information not given to non-donors (Verner, Hecht & Fansler, 1998). For example, a parent gives significant money to the athletic department in hopes of being asked onto the booster club, and in turn, gains access to inside information.

Affiliation. Giving because it allows someone to interact and socialize with others as means of belonging (Milne & McDonald, 1999). Some donors give to specific organizations if the will be associated with various causes or people groups.

Altruist. Doing what feels right. Prince and File (1994) discuss the idea that giving is a moral necessary, and is a

responsibility duty or obligation. People's personal value systems drive where, when and what causes they give to. For some, this instills a sense of responsibility and causes them to become involved financially.

Helping student-athletes. Some donors, highly value interscholastic athletics and feel called to help support student- athletes through providing scholarships opportunities. This type of giving typically has student-athletes' education and well being at the center of their giving (Verner, Hecht & Fansler, 1998).

Public recognition. Giving which expects a public response from the organization or program who received the gift. Most donors state they do not need public recognition, but internally are flattered if recognition is given (Verner, Hecht & Fansler, 1998).

Support and improvement of athletic program. Unrestricted giving which helps advance the athletic program, including recruiting capital projects, equipment and specific coaches and programs needs (Gladden & Mahoney, 2005). These donors give to improve the athletic program as a whole, rather than what they want to do.

Understanding donor motivations and realizing that each person in a donor constituency has their own unique motivations that need to be factored into the relationship.

Applicable Fundraising Concepts and Models

Due to the direct and indirect value of a successful athletic program, it is clear why most higher education institutions are pouring resources into these extracurricular activities. The challenge is these intuitions do not have unlimited resources. For this reason schools are partnering with alumni and friends to up underwrite the cost of the athletic programs.

Philanthropy is part science and part philosophy. The scientific part involves statistical analysis, examination of industry trends, and prospect research. The philosophical side includes the development of relationships, and understanding donors' motivations and other theories of human behavior. It is the application of these concepts and models that have legitimized athletic specific fundraising over the last few years (Donovan, 2008).

In the world of philanthropy, the terms development and fundraising are sometimes confused. Development is the time spent strategizing, maintaining your organizational plan, and aligning fundraising goals to meet the need of an institution. Fundraising, on the other hand, is cultivating, soliciting, and stewarding donors and prospects. Development and fundraising are not independent of each other but rather go hand in hand. Depending on the size of unit, employees will take on multiple responsibilities, often filling both development and fundraising responsibilities (Donovan, 2008). The following are fundamentals of any philanthropic endeavors, aimed to provide athletic administrators with the tools to maximize your fundraising results and in turn provide more funds for programming.

Statement of purpose. Just as a mission statement is foundational for any successful business, so is the *statement of purpose* for your fundraising program. A statement of purpose clearly articulates the need, the impact that a gift will have, and why your donor should be involved (Donovan, 2008 p.14). In practically terms, this means a fundraiser needs to ask for the right gift, for the right program, at the right time, in the right way

A statement of purpose serves as a catalyst for fundraising initiatives and should align with the school's strategic plan as well as overall mission (O'Brien, 2005). The following stakeholders should be involved in the development of the case: administrators, athletic directors, booster club members, and coaches. Organizational buy-in is paramount if you want donors to embrace the case. A failure to include key stakeholders with the development of the statement of purpose will result in frustration from both donors and employees (Gee, 2005).

Establishing goals. Overall fundraising goals need to be well defined prior to the start of any project. The goal typically includes the dollar amount as well as a timeframe of when the funding should be completed. Without these defined benchmarks your donors will not rally behind your cause (Gee, 2005). In addition to overall fundraising goals, individual goals should be established for each person who has fundraising responsibilities. Clear expectations need to be laid out for those responsible for funding and for how much they are responsible. This accountability will serve as a great motivator and ensure that the fundraising ball is not dropped amongst the other responsibilities (Aschbrook, 2008).

Prospects. In fundraising, information equals more money. Prospect research is the process of capturing information that help: 1) assess giving capacity, 2) assess affinity or inclination. This information can be acquired through electronic screenings, peer screenings, past giving, and level of involvement. The ideal prospect should have high giving capacity and a high affinity with an organization or institution (Tsiotsou, 2007). Two decades ago Jerold Panas discovered that approximately twenty percent of the donors give eighty percent of the funds. Since his original study he has proven that one percent of Harvard University donors give ninety percent of the funds (Panas, 2005). These donors have high capacity and affinity. The prospect research process should reveal who are the best prospects and on whom the fundraisers need to focus (Donovan, 2008).

Fundraising Philosophies. Asking for money is uncomfortable to most people. But for those who are in the industry and understand donor's motivations, it is much more than just asking for money, it's about relationships. Cultivating and maintaining relationships as well as creating a bond between a donor and an organization are key (Maehara, 2002). Donors give to people and vision, not to a need. The more a fundraiser can build genuine relationships with donors and between your organization, the more inclined your donors will be to support your cause. According to Matheny and Stearman (1999), "People give to people, not to organizations, not to institutions, not to positions. People give to a vision rather than a financial need, you must have a clear purpose statement" (p. 12).

Core Programs

The demand for effective revenue development is growing rapidly and in turn there is a heightening the need for formalized fundraising strategies for interscholastic athletics. These strategies must be both effective in generating revenue and feasible to implement. Athletic directors and school administrators are limited by the amount of time they can allocate to fundraising, the following two strategies are suggested to maximize results while minimizing the time required to implement.

Strategy 1: Annual funds. Annual funds are the foundation of any successful fundraising program (Howard & Crompton, 2004). While these programs do not raise large sums of money, they are crucial for several reasons. First, annual funds generate needed gift income to help offset the operational costs. Secondly, the annual fund, more than any other development program, introduces people to giving and helps develop the habit of philanthropy (Aschebrook, 2008). Although there are exceptions, a donor's first give to an institution is generally to the annual fund. Thirdly, the annual fund helps build a relationship between the donor and the organization which deepens donor commitment and involvement. Lastly, the annual fund prepares donors for a major gift. As Donovan states, "The best prospect for a big gift is one who has given before, there may be no better means for identifying potential major gift donors than careful analysis of past annual giving results" (Donovan, 1996, p. 24).

Strategy 2: Major Gifts. Knowing that most of the money is given by a few people, Mathney & Stearman (1999) suggested that not all donors are created equal and should not be treated as such. For this reason, engaging major gift solicitations is one of the interesting and challenging aspects of development work. Donovan (2008) says it generally takes ten to twelve personal visits over a twelve to eighteen month period before a donor is ready to make a major gift. Knowing that major gifts take a significant amount of time to develop, it is vital that the best prospects are identified.

The fundraising concepts and models discussed provided a basic working knowledge of philanthropy for an athletic director. While there is no shortage of other responsibilities an athletic director must oversee, fundraising strategically can help generate additional revenue with minimal time or resources.

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A Case Analysis of Gender Impacts upon Marketing Factors for Collegiate Student Football Attendance

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Abstract

The growing efforts to both research and market spectator sports, in general, and college football specifically, have exposed a need to assess the impact of gender in the marketing processes related to student attendance within the Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS). This highly publicized and highly lucrative market has frequently been studied, but seldom had it been assessed from a marketing perspective on a longitudinal basis. This study examined student attendance and gender influences upon marketing factors over a four-year period for a selected FBS football program. ANOVA analyses demonstrated significant gender differences in the importance of five of the seven marketing factors examined including: pregame tailgating, halftime band, concessions, opponent quality, and post-game entertainment. These results generally support previously identified gender-based trends within sport marketing research, and they serve to inform sport marketers and athletic administrators as they seek to determine effective means to expand their fan base within under-tapped markets.

A Case Analysis of Gender Impacts upon Marketing Factors for Collegiate Student Football Attendance

Introduction

Boyles, Hay and French (1975) questioned the ability of college football to withstand recessions, positing whether football attendance "has reached the maturity stage... or is the drop in attendance during 1974 a temporary one? What does the future hold for college football attendance?" (p. 15). Now 36 years later, amid arguably the worst recession since the great depression, those questions have been answered. College football attendance does indeed appear recession proof, and has shown tremendous growth over this time period. In fact, the total attendance numbers for 1974 were just under 32 million attendees, whereas record attendance for the 119 Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) schools was set in 2008 averaging 46,971 per game for a total of 37,483,158 spectators (NCAA, 2009). These high attendance numbers were maintained in 2009 when total collegiate football attendance, across all divisions, again topped 48 million (Johnson, 2010). These impressive attendance numbers leave no doubt that college football is a major form of sport entertainment and help validate the importance of researching this highly valued product.

Literature Review

Given the popularity of college football specifically, and large sporting events in general, marketing researchers have focused their efforts towards a better understanding of sport consumer attendance patterns. Much of this research has typically produced results which make generalized conclusions about factors that may impact an entire fan base (Krohn, Clarke, Preston, McDonald, & Preston, 1998). For example, consumers of professional baseball contests were found to be motivated by value and added entertainment (e.g., promotions, mascots, music, etc.), whereas college baseball fans were motivated by the game play and communal aspects of the event (Bernthal & Graham, 2003).More specific to college football, research has identified that spectators: attend more due to marketing efforts and rivalries (DeSchriver & Jensen, 2002; Leonard, 2005), value living vicariously through their team (Robinson, Trail, Dick, &

Gillentine, 2005), and are motivated by both promotions and a high team winning percentage (DeSchriver & Jensen, 2002; Wells, Southall, & Peng, 2000).

Although these generalized conclusions about the attendance motivations of spectators create an overall composite perspective, they fail to recognize the specific targeting approaches available to various market segments. Some marketing researchers have recognized the practical limitations of these broad findings, and have narrowed their focus to identify gender as a primary area of segmentation. Simply examining sport consumers as a gender neutral population does not allow for essential differences in gender to be fully understood, or utilized, in a marketing environment.

Sport has long been considered a male dominated construct, both in participation and spectatorship. From the times of ancient Roman gladiators, to the current U.S. professional model highlighted by the 'big four' primary male leagues (i.e., NFL, NBA, MLB, and NHL), male involvement is unquestionably powerful. However, the evolution of female sport involvement and consumption within the last century has led to a developing gender specific approach within sport marketing. Developments such as Title IX, female youth sports, and women's professional leagues have the current generation of sport marketers realizing females are a viable and relevant group of sport consumers with different wants and needs than their male counterparts (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007). In fact, Zhang, Lam, and Connaughton (2003) argued that "females represent the greatest market potential for professional sports, and identifying their expectations and interests are vital to the future of professional sport organizations" (p. 50).

Before identifying specific gender attendance patterns within a sporting environment, it is prudent to note some widely held beliefs about gender. Males have generally been found to be motivated by an internal self-guided impulse whereby thoughts and behaviors are created by a particular level of self-efficacy or achievement (Meyers-Levy & Sternthal, 1991). Furthermore, males have been found to generally be more physically and verbally aggressive (Prakash, 1992), more competitive (Frederick, 2000), and to highly value autonomy (Chee, Pino, & Smith, 2005). Similarly, male athletes were found to value competition and winning more than the social aspects offered by competitive sport (Flood & Hellstedt, 1990), as well as display higher levels of athletic identity (Lubker, & Etzel, 2007).

Females, in general, have demonstrated an affiliation for the feelings of others while fostering communal relationships (Shani, Sandler, & Long, 1992). Work from Chodorow (1978) and Gilligan (1982) suggests women are more likely to see "morality as emerging from the experience of social connections and value the ethic of responsibility and care" (Chee et al., 2005, p. 609). Additionally, female athletes report that they most value feelings of belonging, being part of a university community, exercise benefits, and team affiliation (Flood & Hellstedt, 1990).

Building from these basic gender findings, sport marketers have begun to conduct research specifically related to gender consumption and attendance patterns. Schurr, Wittig, Ruble, and Ellen (1988) were the first to isolate gender as a potential determinant of sport attendance. In an attempt to evaluate various demographic and personality characteristics associated with attendance at college basketball games, they sampled 1,036 sophomores over two consecutive seasons, while simultaneously examining these patterns against participants' results on the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (Myers, 1980). During that same time, Shurr et al. (1988) determined that males tended to attend games because of the relative ease with which they could identify with the participants. Their findings also revealed that males not only attended games in each season at a higher rate, but the most frequent type of student attendees were practical, action-oriented, sensing males. In 2002, Trail, Anderson, and Fink identified that venue characteristics impact on attendance in intercollegiate basketball varied significantly based upon differences in gender. However, Robinson and Trail's (2005) study of intercollegiate football and basketball discounted gender differences and suggested that college marketers emphasize motives and points of attachment rather than segmenting their market based on gender since gender only accounted for 2-3% of the variance within their sample.

In similar fashion, although in a much different environment, Hall and O'Mahoney (2006) sought to identify gender differences in six sport attendance motives of 222 females and 238 males in Australia. Results from telephone interviews revealed males rated the emotional arousal (stimulating, satisfying, and stirring) of sporting events, and being a true fan (sport itself, no matter the weather) significantly higher than females. In contrast, females were found to value back room factors (parking, accessibility), front room factors (alcohol and smoke free zones), and social factors (being with friends and family) more than males.

Two studies to date have specifically identified gender as a variable to evaluate student attendance at college football games. The first, by Kahle, Kambara, and Rose (1996), explored various psychological motivations through focus groups and interviews. Their findings confirmed that female college students are most likely to attend football games for "a sense of camaraderie, similar to fans that derive their social identity from a reference group and attend primarily to comply with or to participate in the activities of that reference group" (p. 52-53). Conversely, males were found to attend for more internalized reasons, namely "a deep personal bond with the sport or team" (p. 54). These internalized males were considered to be more dedicated than the average fan due to a devotion to the nuances of the game.

The second gender-focused collegiate study, by Swanson, Gwinner, Larson, and Janda (2003), also investigated psychological motivations for student attendance at football games. Students (n = 537) completed surveys designed to assess the relationship between attendance and four

motivations labeled as team identification, eustress, group affiliation, and self-esteem enhancement. Results revealed that males were more motivated than females in two areas: eustress (i.e., arousing emotional stimulation) and self-esteem enhancement. Swanson et al. concluded males may feel more self-esteem if they are able to communicate about sports with others most typically within the male-dominated context of a sporting environment. Group affiliation was found to be more motivating to females, and their attendance at college football games were most closely tied to the group affiliation motivation.

These aforementioned studies provide foundational knowledge on some of the factors associated with gender attendance patterns; however, they have often examined sports other than football, have included populations outside of the college setting, or have examined only psychological motivations. There has been no study specifically designed to identify gender differences among the college football marketing variables used in the current study. Examining these marketing variables should complement the previous literature and confirm gender as a viable factor to consider when marketing and promoting collegiate football games.

Methods

This study analyzed seven factors influencing student attendance at a Midwestern FBS university over a four year period, and related those findings with gender. A total of 3,015 students were surveyed in four samples over four consecutive years (2006-2009) via a 23-item survey instrument. This survey included five demographic items: age, gender, year of enrollment, on campus/off campus status, and residence hall. Seven attendance-influencing factors were assessed on a 5-point Likert scale including pregame tailgating, game break promotions, halftime band performance, concessions quality, opponent quality, promotional gifts, and post-game entertainment. Additional items of the survey related to total games attended during the season, participation in other marketing events associated with the team, and preferences on game times, and promotional items. The surveys were distributed to students in attendance during home football games by undergraduate student researchers enrolled in a Sport Marketing course with the approval and supervision of the university's athletic marketing staff. Additional data regarding team performance, total attendance, and student attendance were also collected from the athletic department ticketing office. Univariate ANOVA analyses were used to examine the mean values for each of the seven attendance-influencing factors, and the number of games attended, while Pearson correlation coefficients assessed the relationship between team performance and attendance.

Results

An average of 754 students was surveyed each year (N = 3,015) over the four year period of the study providing an ample sample size for the statistical analyses. The ANOVA results revealed statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) in mean values based upon gender for five of the seven marketing factors including: pregame tailgating, halftime band, concessions, opponent quality, and post-game entertainment (see Table 1). An analysis of the games attended revealed that males indicated attending significantly more games than females, $F(1,3000) = 32.226$, $p < .001$.

Table 1
Comparison by gender of mean scores for marketing factors

Factor	Male Mean Score	Female Mean Score	F	p
Pregame Tailgating	3.714	3.545	10.735**	.001
Game Break Promotions	2.965	2.970	0.150	.904
Halftime Band	2.627	2.848	20.699**	< .001
Concessions Quality	3.183	3.297	4.162*	.041
Opponent Quality	3.965	3.561	84.956**	< .001
Post-game Entertainment	3.021	3.362	55.088**	< .001
Promotional Gift	3.503	3.469	3.548	.060

*p < .05. ** p < .01.

The collection of average total attendance and student attendance at the games over the four year period provided the ability to correlate actual attendance to the team performance measured in winning percentage over the regular season. Table 2 demonstrates the average attendance for regular season home games. Additional analysis of the attendance trends for students found a significant and strong correlation between student attendance and regular season winning percentage ($r = .894$). This correlation yields a coefficient of determination of .80 meaning that 80% of the variance in student attendance is explained by the overall winning percentage of the team.

Table 2
Four Year Attendance Trends

Year	Winning Percentage	Average Total Attendance	Average Student Attendance
2006	0.417	15,061	2,995
2007	0.583	13,085	3,698
2008	1.000	19,201	7,987
2009	0.167	10,209	3,546

Discussion

The general results of this study demonstrated the quality of opponent was the highest rated of the seven marketing factors for both males and females, yet the mean values for males was significantly greater than females. This finding is consistent with the research of DeSchriver and Jensen (2002) and Wells, Southall, and Peng, (2000) that also found strong fan association with quality opponents and rivalries. This stronger male connection with quality opponents can also relate to males generally stronger devotion to nuances of the game, and the game itself (Kahle, 1996). Additionally, the strong correlation between

winning and attendance noted in this study is confirmed in numerous prior studies (Davis, 2009; DeSchriver & Jensen, 2002; Pan et al., 1997; and Zhang et al., 1998).

The fact that women in this study placed significantly greater importance on halftime band performance, post-game entertainment, and concession quality than males supports the prior research of Hall and O'Mahoney (2006), as these three factors relate to their noted female preferences toward "back room" and "social factors". Trail, Anderson and Fink (2002) also noted that females tend to place greater value on product extensions. These three trends for the females' ratings might also relate to these product extensions perhaps having greater importance to their game attendance. However, the significantly higher mean rating by males of pregame tailgating may contradict the social factor elements noted above for females. This finding might be tempered, however, by the increased importance noted by Hall and O'Mahoney (2006) of females to value alcohol-free and smoking-free zones more than males, as well as male's potential self-esteem enhancement opportunities offered by the ability to communicate about sports in a specific sporting atmosphere (Swanson et al., 2003). The males in this study may show a stronger affiliation directly to the game itself and to their connection with the eustress aspects of game attendance (Swanson et al., 2003).

While the males may have indicated attending significantly more games than the females within this study, this should not diminish the value of the female segment of the collegiate student football market. According to the U.S. Department of Education's National Center of Educational Statistics (2009), of the 18.3 million enrolled in degree granting institutions of higher education just over 57% are female. This fact demonstrates that female students represent a much larger under-tapped market of potential attendees than the males for FBS collegiate football.

The four-year data set used in this study captured a cycle in football team performance that ranged from a losing record in year one, to a winning record in year two, to an undefeated season in year three, followed by a losing season in year four. This large variation in winning percentage allowed the researchers to capture a unique four-year span of time where comparing attendance against team success was more viable than if the team had a similar record for all four years. The strong correlation between student attendance and team performance over this period does to a degree confirm the widely held belief that winning is the solution to increasing attendance. However, as this factor remains outside the control and influence of the sport marketer, it is vital that product extensions under the influence of the marketers continue to be examined.

Conclusion

This research provides a unique insight into gender differences in marketing factors for college students within FBS football by assessing these factors over a four year period, thereby avoiding fluctuations in the data that could be attributed to team performance. Not only do these findings add to the prior research related to gender influences in marketing sport, but they also have pragmatic application to marketers and student development administrators when considering effective measures to promote student attendance.

These findings may have some limitations due to their narrow scope; therefore, additional research in this topic is warranted. Further research should be expanded to additional FBS universities, as well as other divisions of football, including FCS institutions and NCAA Division II and III programs. The length of time for data collection could also be expanded to possibly reduce the team performance influences on the marketing factors.

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College Athletic Budget Strategies: Maintaining Fiscal Responsibility in a Challenging Economic Environment

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Abstract

This project analyzes the current state of athletic budgets, reviews the current financial challenge at four NCAA Division I and II institutions, and provides three financially viable recommendations for action.

Introduction

This manuscript analyzes the current state of athletic budgets, reviews the current financial challenges present at four NCAA Division I and II institutions, and provides three recommendations for fiscally responsible action within athletic departments at the Division I, II and III levels. The four case studies include institutions at Division I and II, with a recommendation section listing concepts for all three divisions of NCAA athletics. Currently, major NCAA Division I athletic programs spend $40 million annually but only 20 to 30 percent of these institutions balance their budgets (80-year study, 2010). Several NCAA Division II institutions are considering moving to Division I or Division III to potentially increase their financial outlook, but these colleges must consider the benefits and costs of the process. NCAA Division III institutions seek reductions in travel and recruiting expenses caused by decreases in overall budget levels. Institutions within each Division have one critical similarity: balancing the budget and maintaining fiscal security into the future.

Literature Review

The current economic challenges faced by four NCAA Division I and II athletic departments will serve as the analytical basis for this manuscript:

Case Study 1: St. Cloud State University

St. Cloud State University offers 21 varsity sports at the NCAA Division II level. The university athletic department recorded a deficit of $389,872 ($8.24 million budget) in 2008-09 and projections indicated the deficit will grow to approximately $500,000 in 2010-11 (Rennecke, 2010). For the past two years, the athletic department used existing reserves to balance the budget. The reserves are now depleted and the institution must consider alternatives to maintain fiscal responsibility.

Men's ice hockey, which competes at the NCAA Division I level, emerged as the most profitable sport at the institution ($103,178 surplus). Women's ice hockey, the department's other Division I sport, emerged as the biggest financial loser ($886,364 deficit) (Rennecke, 2010). The St. Cloud State Board of Trustees stated the athletic department will maintain Division I athletic programs in men's and women's ice hockey in accordance with Title IX and NCAA Division I rules.

Administrators at St. Cloud State have determined two alternatives to create a balanced athletic budget in 2010-11. Option one requires eliminating football, a sport which operated in deficit of $823,622 in 2008-09. This option violates Northern Sun Intercollegiate Conference (NSIC) bylaws requiring league members to sponsor football (Rennecke, 2010). The athletic department has stated that independent status is an option should the league prohibit the elimination of football. Option two requires eliminating eight varsity sports, reducing the program to 13 varsity sports. Eliminating football would affect approximately 100 student-athletes, while the eliminating eight varsity sports would affect 220 athletes (Rennecke, 2010). The administration has not announced a decision nor have they specified the timetable to make the determination. Meanwhile, students and other campus groups have discussed alternative solutions to the financial dilemma including a

student fee referendum. Increasing student fees by $2 per credit hour could potentially generate $580,000 per year for the athletic department and result in a balanced budget.

Case Study 2: University of North Alabama

The University of North Alabama has considered moving to Division I from NCAA Division status. The institution acknowledges the change will impact student enrollment and increase the university's regional and national name recognition (Dewalt, 2010). Potential areas of revenue include increased sponsorship, student fees, and attendance at athletic events. Corporate revenue ($600,000 in 2010) is projected to double or triple with a move to Division I due to increased interest in the program. Students are required to pay $12 per semester for athletics, with significant portions of the money earmarked for marketing athletic events. Student fees result in approximately $134,400 in annually at the 5,600-student institution. Anticipated increased ticket sales, resulting from greater perceived interest in a Division I program, serves as another major catalyst for the move (Dewalt, 2010).

Potential expenses include an NCAA application fee as well as the costs associated with fielding additional Division I sports. The Ohio Valley Conference (OVC) has emerged as the most likely conference for North Alabama, due to the proximity of the league's member institutions and the spending level of the institutions. The average OVC athletic department spends $8.89 million annually (Dewalt, 2010). Three schools - Eastern Illinois, Eastern Kentucky, and Murray State - spend in excess of $11 million annually. The NCAA would require an application fee, ranging from $900,000 to $1.2 million, to move to Division I. In addition, the OVC would require North Alabama to offer additional sports to become a league member. These expenses are a significant burden given North Alabama's current enrollment level is 1,000 students less than the OVC's smallest conference school (Dewalt, 2010).

Case Study 3: University of Arizona

The University of Arizona competes in the Pacific 10 conference, one of the largest and most powerful leagues in NCAA Division I. The Wildcats have won several team and individual national championships and have emerged as one of the most successful on-field programs in the conference.

The lack of consistent corporate giving, along with unique financial challenges presented municipal contracts that must be followed by the athletic department, have resulted in severe athletic department cuts during the past five years. Athletic advertising related to alcohol has been banned, resulting in a lost $1 million of projected annual revenue. Moreover, the institution nets no income from parking and receives only 18% of concession sales for men's and women's basketball games at a municipal owned facility (Schoenfeld, 2006). Beyond cutting the athletic department staff from 184 to 152 employees (Schoenfeld, 2006), the most significant operating reduction has been to staff and team travel which may decrease the institution's competitiveness (Steinbach, 2008).

Case Study 4: Winston Salem State

Winston Salem State University moved from NCAA Division II to Division I then back to Division II status once the significant annual deficit reality hit athletic department administrators. Winston Salem State entered Division I without a significant history of giving, as the athletic department had never raised more than $250,000 during a fiscal year (McIntyre, 2010). Operating costs grew from $2.88 to $5.58 million, an increase of 93.7%, over a four-year period.. Revenues were unable to match this significant increase in expenses, and the overall accumulated debt from the move was expected to reach more than $12 million by 2012. After careful consideration, the University withdrew its Division I request and moved back to the Division II level (McIntyre, 2010).

Recommendations

Recommendations for action fall within three specific areas, highlighted by reduction of spending and potential increases in revenue:

Economically Viable Conference Affiliation

Institutions from the University of Colorado (moving to the Pacific 10) to Earlham College (moving to the NCAA Division III Heartland Collegiate Athletic Conference) view conference affiliation as a primary method to create long-term balanced athletic department budgets..

NCAA Division I level institutions often use television revenue as a reason to move conferences. The University of Nebraska recently moved from the Big 12 to the Big Ten in a move primarily driven by the potential of increased revenue from the Big Ten Network. Colorado moved into the Pacific 10 in order for the league to increase its overall television market reach and to create a football conference championship game that could potentially generate $20 million per year (Murphy, 2010).

NCAA Division II institutions moving to Division I, or remaining within Division II, must strike a balance to find conference affiliation that allow for competitive opportunities within budget constraints at similar levels across the league (Dewalt, 2010). NCAA Division III institutions aim to decrease travel costs through conference affiliation. Within the past five years, former Southern Collegiate Athletic Conference members Rose-Hulman Institute of Technology and DePauw University decreased travel expenditures significantly as a result of conference moves. The average travel distance decreased from 530 miles to 180 miles when Rose-Hulman move to the Heartland Collegiate Athletic Conference. DePauw anticipate similar decreases in mileage as a member of the North Coast Athletic Conference beginning in 2011.

Reduction of Overall Costs

Increased efficiency in athletic department operations includes eliminating jobs, dropping sports, managing salaries, and reducing travel (O'Connell, 2010; Schoenfeld, 2006). NCAA Division II and III institutions must consider reducing staff size as well as the possibility of full-time coaches becoming responsible for multiple teams. Institutions at all levels must analyze whether the elimination of sports provides a viable long-term cost alternative, which can cause legislative strife from special interest groups (Moag, 2010; NWCA plan, 2009). NCAA Division I institutions must reduce coaching salaries in order to maintain both academic and legislative support (Zimbalist, 2008). Selected conferences at the Division III level ban off-campus recruiting. This strategy may represent a more widespread trend in Division III athletics as budget issues become more pressing on a national scale.

Increased Revenue Sources

The rationale for moving from NCAA Division II to Division I includes generating additional revenue by obtaining more guarantee games in the sports of football and basketball (Dewalt, 2010; Vines, 2010). Increased revenue can also be obtained from external sources when renovating stadiums.. Recent examples include the football stadium renovations at Michigan, Minnesota, and Washington (Bilafer, 2010; Snyder, 2010). These stadiums cost the universities a combined $800 million and were funded primarily through sources outside the institutional athletic departments. The direct financial benefits created by the new stadiums include additional revenue from luxury boxes and club seating areas.

Summary

Athletic department budget challenges will continue over the coming decades. The recent economic downturn makes projecting long-term increases in revenue a questionable venture. Although NCAA Division I, II, and III institutions have different opportunities and challenges when managing their budgets, institutions have similar athletic department goals of long-term economic stability and viability. In the coming years, it is likely institutions will continue to make decisions related to their NCAA Division and conference affiliation primary due to budgetary considerations.

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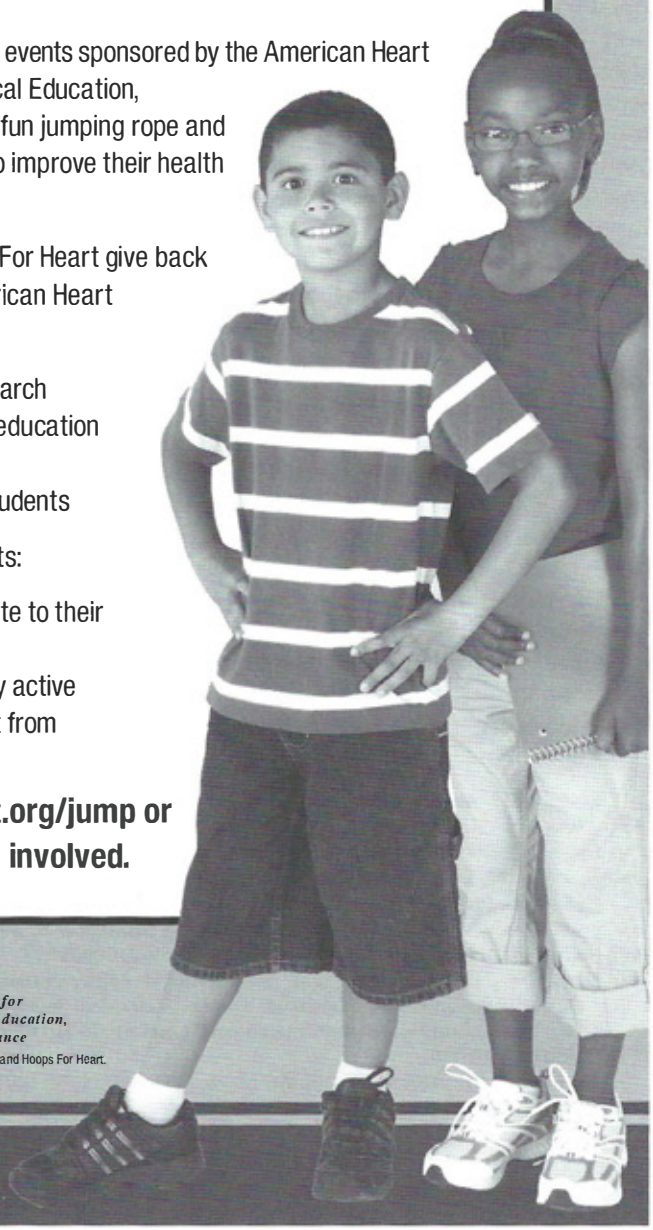

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Never the Same: The Real Impact of Environmental Factors

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Abstract

Objectives: At the end of the exercise the students will be able to: (1) list ways the environment can be changed, (2) describe changes in the environment, (3) describe the impact these changes have on our health and environment, and (4) identify how environmental influences and factors affect our everyday lives. **Target Audience**: This activity is appropriate for undergraduate college students enrolled in a variety of health-related courses. The total time needed for the activity is 25 minutes.

Introduction

The impact of our actions on the environment are not always immediately visible; conversely it is not always obvious how changes in the environment affect us. Sometimes environmental effects are the result of the simple things we do—planting a tree or mowing the grass—or the effects may be the result of more complex actions such as putting in a parking garage, an oil spill, or erecting a shopping mall. In short, everything we do has some impact on our environment, even the seemingly small things.

In both significant and seemingly negligible ways, our environment is constantly changing. These changes may happen gradually over time, or very rapidly. For example the construction of a new building may replace a once empty field, and then the traffic generated by the new building may create the need for road and lane changes. Environmental changes may also occur more quickly; for example a fire may destroy a stand of trees that opens up the view of a home or building that was previously obscured.

Life changes such as graduation, new jobs, and aging impact our environment as well. Things happen that irrevocably change our relationship with others. A new freeway may take homes in its path, which could result in a friend moving away or going to a different school. A new job or a job transfer may require a move across the state or to another state. Sometimes we experience a life-changing event such as losing someone to death.

Student understanding of life changes is difficult to communicate via text or lecture. Galloro (2002) asserts that, "It is important for educators today to create learning experiences for students that enhance their appreciation for the natural world, strengthen their understanding of ecosystems, and bring to life the extent of human impact—both global and individual—to environmental health" (p. 21). The need for simple exercises that have practical application are important in the recognition of the relationship between the environment and health (Morris, Beck, Hanlon & Robertson, 2006). This exercise provides college students a different way to look at how even seemingly small environmental changes affect our lives and may have long-term impact.

Objectives

At the end of the exercise the students will be able to:

1. list ways the environment can be changed.
2. describe changes in the environment.
3. describe the impact change has on our health and environment.
4. identify how environmental influences and factors affect our everyday lives

Materials and Resources

1 paper clip per student plus one extra for the instructor
over head projector

Target Audience

This activity is appropriate for undergraduate college students in a variety of health-related courses.

Procedure

1. Distribute a medium-sized paper clip for each student. Ask students to share ideas about the different uses for paper clips.

2. Demonstrate a nonconventional use of the paper clip (e.g. a large paper clip can be used as a key chain). Ask students to think creatively and come up with other uses for the paper clip.
3. After a brief discussion on the many uses of paper clips, instruct each student to straighten out their paper clip. Advise the students that there will be a reward for the student with the straightest paper clip. Some reward suggestions include 5 bonus points on a quiz or paper, or a small item found within the department (e.g. a monogrammed pen or pencil).
4. Once a student thinks their paper clip is ready for inspection, place it on the overhead so that each student can see the difference in the straight paper clip compared to one that is untouched. Pick up anyone's paper clip who would like to compare it against the first student's submission. Pick up anyone's paper clip that would like to compare it against the first student's submission.
5. Once 5-10 paper clips have been placed on the overhead, have the students vote on the straightest paper clip. When you have a winner, pass the runner-up paper clips back to the students that have volunteered.
6. Using the winning paper clip as a visual, solicit student responses regarding how the paper clip has been changed. What can the straightened paper clip be used for? Can it still be called a paper clip? Remind students of some of the suggested uses for paper clips which were offered in the initial discussion. Can the straightened clip still fulfill those functions? Students may suggest that it is no longer a paper clip because it cannot do the duties of a paper clip.
7. After some discussion, hand back the winner's paper clip, which is now a straight piece of metal. Instruct all students to reshape their straight piece of metal back into a paper clip. At this point place a paper clip that has not been straightened on the over head so that the students can use it as a visual as they re-shape their paper clip.
8. After all of the students have worked to get their straightened paper clip back to its original form bring them up one by one to compare their re-created paper clip to the original paper clip that has not been manipulated. Declare the student whose paper clip most closely resembles the original paper clip the winner. Once a winner has been identified take their paper clip and show that it is capable of functioning as a paper clip. Use several students' re-created clips to demonstrate how each can still fulfill the uses of a paper clip. While it does not look like the brand new paper clip, it can still perform the functions of a paper clip.

Processing

This exercise illustrates how we often treat our environment. Once a change has taken place, our environment will never return to its original condition. Our physical environment is constantly shifting as communities adapt to population growth or decline, new technologies or other needs. Man-made changes to our surroundings such as the creation of parking lots, the erection of buildings, subdivisions, and the occurrence of oil spills and the like have lasting results. It is still our environment, though it will never be the same as it was originally. We must strive to respect and sustain our environment in the face of inevitable changes.

It would be appropriate to engage students in a discussion regarding the possibilities related to slowing or stopping behaviors related to man-made environmental changes. Ask the students to list ways their behaviors may have contributed to environmental changes. Then ask them to brainstorm personal changes they could make that would assist in repairing their environment.

Social Adaption: This activity could also be used to demonstrate individual family environmental changes. Since the interplay between family relationships and health is bidirectional, it behooves faculty to assist students in understanding the associations (Prolux & Snyder, 2009). Our lives are not the same when an environmental event (e.g. tornado) occurs, we experience an event such as graduation, or we lose someone close to us (a loved one, pet, friend). Our physical environment has been altered, as well as our relationships. We will never be the same, but we will recover and will still be able to function in society. Also, right after an event it is often difficult to get things together or to function normally until the period of grieving passes. Through experiencing an event, our subsequent actions and reactions change our lives. Sometimes this change is for the better, sometimes this is for the worse. Either way, we will never be the same.

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Developing a Mental Game Plan: Utilizing Positive Self-talk to Build Competitive Confidence

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Abstract

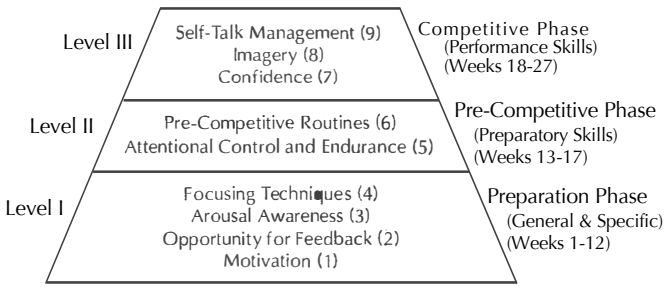
Most athletes participating in all levels of sport experience unusually high levels of stress, expectations, and physical challenges. To reduce the impact of these stressors, the throws event athlete in track and field should strive to achieve an optimal state of arousal, and concentration during specific competitions. "Self-talk" modification is one very effective way to assist in this effort and to correct the mental errors that hinder both performance and "flow" in athletic endeavors. For instance, imagining an undesirable outcome increases the probability of actually producing an undesirable outcome. Therefore it is important that coaches utilize available practical guides to insert mental skill training techniques, like positive self-talk, into a periodized training plan to assist the athlete with improving performance. The purpose of this article is to: (1) describe themes related to self-talk, and (2) suggest interventions that can increase awareness of self-talk and decrease negative self-talk that can be detrimental to performance.

Introduction

Athletes experience a multitude of common performance distractions like fatigue, weather, public announcements, family members, and opponents which can wreak havoc on even the most prepared athlete. In addition, the increased stress of competitions can cause athletes to react both physically and mentally in a manner that can negatively affect their performance abilities. Inadequate mental preparation can easily undermine an athlete's excellent physical and technical preparation. To help overcome these issues, a seasoned coach can use sport psychology to help the athlete in gaining a competitive advantage. Psychological preparation is focused on techniques that athletes can use in a competitive situation to maintain control and optimize performance (Reardon, 1992). Once learned, these techniques allow the athlete to relax and to focus his attention in a positive manner on the task of preparing for and participating in practice and competition. Mental training cannot be a last-minute training strategy employed prior to important competitions. It has to be consistently programmed just like the physical/technical training.

Periodization is an organized approach to physical training that involves progressive cycling of various aspects of a training program during a specific period of time. Training stimuli are introduced in three to four week blocks and are changed when the body adapts. Similarly, mental skills must be developed in a systematic, progressive fashion (Judge, Bell, Bellar, & Wanless, 2010). Mental periodization has emerged as the latest tool to help coaches prepare athletes for competition (Holliday et al., 2008). Mental periodization is a conscious systematic mental conditioning program designed for peak performance for specific competitions and focused on such items as motivation, arousal awareness, developing pre-competition routines, self-talk, and developing confidence (Table 1). Recognition of the necessity of a theoretical framework for the periodization of psychological skills is easily accepted intellectually by coaches; however, the practicalities of putting this framework together have not yet been fully developed. Thus, coaches and sport psychology consultants must work together to properly implement mental periodization plans (Judge et al., 2010).

Table 1
Mental Periodization Plan



There are many components that contribute to peak performance in athletes. Usually these components are interrelated in such a way that if one piece of the puzzle is weak or absent, the other pieces will not function as optimally. Having confidence (or lack thereof) can affect many other aspects of performance. Achieving an optimal arousal and focus state is a must for successful athletes. The optimal state for a thrower can be referred to as a "flow" state (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). An athlete's self-talk during practice and competition is important for the process of flow (Reardon, 1992). Self-talk is a skill (if used properly) that has its roots in confidence. More specifically, the manipulation of self-talk can have positive or negative effects on perceived ability. Negative self-talk can limit an athlete's performance, increase their stress level, and adversely affect their self-concept. Most throws coaches are quite adept in training the necessary physiological systems, but lack a proper framework for addressing psychological components. There is a dearth of scholarly information available on a system of psychological preparation that is thorough enough to match the physical preparation and help the athlete to achieve "flow." One strategy to achieve "flow" is to increase the athlete's awareness of self-talk, identifying sub-optimal self-talk units, and strategies to improve the content of self-talk. The purpose of this article is to: (1) describe themes related to self-talk, and (2) suggest interventions that can increase awareness of self-talk and strategies to change self-talk units that are detrimental to performance.

Defining Self-Talk

Self–talk refers to the dialogue that occurs internally when faced with conflict, life challenges, or even simple day-to-day concerns. Self-talk is a running commentary about everything you do (Reardon & Gordon, 1999). Every occurrence in your life receives some internal comment, remark, or evaluation. Patterns of negative or positive self-talk often start in childhood. Usually, self-talk colors a person's thinking for years, and can influence the experience of life's stress. These patterns are worth changing if they become negative in nature (Reardon & Gordon, 1999).

Research on self-talk has sought to answer questions pertaining to the where, what, why, and when of self-talk. The results of a study by Hardy, Gammage, and Hall in 2001 were as follows:

- Where did self-talk occur most often? – sport-related locations were mentioned first and home was mentioned second
- When did it occur? – during practice or competition
- What was the nature of the self-talk? – polarity/nature (+/-), structure (phrases, cue words, or sentences), or task instructions (skill-specific or general)
- Why did athletes use self-talk? – motivational more than for skill development/execution

In an effort to quantitatively evaluate the self-talk of athletes, researchers found that most self-talk is positive, and contains equal parts negative and neutral self-talk (Reardon & Gordon, 1999). Also, males are more prone to using negative self-talk and more external self-talk than their female counterparts (Hardy, Hall, & Hardy, 2005).

Self-Talk and Exercise Intensity

Self-talk will differ in content depending on the activity level and fatigue of an athlete. St Clair Gibson and Foster (2007) classify self-talk as being either associative or dissociative, and the category of self-talk is dependent on exercise intensity: as exercise intensity increases associative self-talk increases. Associative self-talk that occurs when working out at high intensities serves many functions including pace/body monitoring and awareness of effect. This kind of self-talk would be important for preventing injury by promoting body awareness and for sustaining exercise beyond a certain threshold. Dissociative thoughts have to do with the environment, reflection, problem-solving, and general conversational chatter that occurs inside one's head. Dissociative thoughts are more prevalent during low intensities as the mind tends to wander away from the task the body is performing because extra mental effort is not needed to continue the task (St Clair Gibson & Foster, 2007).

Internal and External Self-Talk

Self-talk can be described as the dialogue that one has with oneself, either internally or aloud, with most self-talk occurring internally (Hardy et al., 2005). In a paper by St Clair Gibson and Foster (2007), it was observed that negative self-talk was more likely to be said aloud as opposed to positive self-talk. Zinsser, Bunker, and Williams (2010) describe self-talk as the "key to cognitive control" because of its ability to change thought processes, regulate arousal and anxiety, maintain appropriate focus, and cope with adversity. The anxiety regulatory and coping effects of self-talk have been well documented in the literature. In a recent study by Hatzigeorgiadis and Biddle (2008), it was revealed that athletes who perceived their pre-competitive anxiety as facilitative reported less negative self-talk that those who perceived their anxiety as debilitative. In a follow-up study, Hatzigeorgiadis and Biddle (2008) then sought to discover if actual performance correlated more directly with negative self-talk than pre-competitive anxiety due to goal-performance differences. They found that discrepancies between goals and performance were more strongly correlated to negative self-talk than pre-competitive anxiety. The results of this follow-up study demonstrate that when athletes perform poorly relative

to their expectations of achievement, or when confronted with competitive adversity, they will tend to focus on self-evaluative, performance-related thoughts. This relationship between goals and performance is a more powerful predictor of negative self-talk than is pre-competitive anxiety, even if that anxiety was seen as debilitative by the athletes.

Ideally, self-talk is absent as athletes report having little conscious thought during peak performance (flow) (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), but it's difficult to train a mind to think of nothing, as the mind would have to focus on thinking of nothing in an effort to clear the mind. This is not an efficient way to spend time during mental training as the athlete should be focusing on thoughts that are are conducive to performance. Too much self-talk can also be detrimental to performance as it would disrupt automaticity of thought and action. The key to making self-talk a skill and not a liability to an athlete lies in controlling its polarity (positive or negative), eliminating distracting elements, and keeping self-talk at an appropriate level/frequency given the complexity and newness of the task, and the athletic ability (skill level) of the athlete performing the task.

Research has identified several ways to quantify self-talk, the first of which deals with polarity (positive or negative) (Hardy et al., 2005). Positive self-talk will enhance self-worth and performance whereas negative self-talk will produce the opposite effect. Neutral self-talk also exists and is usually instructional in nature, which could also have an impact on performance. The second way to quantify self-talk is as either instructional or motivational. Instructional self-talk gives athletes attentional cues about the technical aspects of a physical skill. For example, a hammer thrower in the sport of track and field might tell himself before a throw, "long, long, push, push" as instructional self-talk to focus their attention on what to do on each turn of the throws. Motivational self-talk can help regulate arousal by making the athlete focus on the effort they put forth on a particular trial (Reardon & Gordon, 1999). Additionally, motivational self-talk helps reinforce self-confidence by providing the athlete with affirmations of their ability. Keeping with the example of a hammer thrower, motivational self-talk could be something like "I can execute a good throw" or "I can wait on the ball."

Self-talk also exists as either internal or external. Most research has focused on external self-talk because internal self-talk is much harder to quantify (Hardy et al., 2005). To measure internal self-talk athletes would have to self-report their internal self-talk which is difficult for many reasons. First, athletes might not be aware of their internal self-talk. Second, they may forget their internal self-talk before they are able to record or report it to researchers. Finally, the study of internal self-talk is a challenge because athletes may not accurately report because they may simply wish not to report their internal thoughts or feelings, even though most internal self-talk may be positive. In 2007, St Clair Gibson and Foster confirmed that most negative self-talk is external while the internal self-talk is usually positive in nature. Self-reported questionnaires and limited comparable data create difficulty in assessing result reliability (Alaranta et al., 2006) as answers may be intentionally answered falsely as the subjects being questioned may not wish to reveal their true feelings, even if anonymity and confidentiality are guaranteed by the investigators.

Self-Talk Content

The content of self-talk varies by athlete and level of the athlete performing the task (i.e. beginning, intermediate, or elite). The content of self-talk will also vary depending on the newness/complexity of the skill being performed. In general, it is best for athletes to focus on short phrases (mantras) that represent the key points of what could be a longer cue. Research has shown that planning and memorization of key words will result in a significant improvement in performance in as little as one week's time (Ming & Martin, 1996). The hammer throw is an example of a complex skill that involves strength and power in the individual sport of track and field (Figure 1). Referring back to the example of the hammer thrower, "long, long, push, push" is a cue abbreviated from a longer sentence of "Let the hammer go long to the left with long double-support phases on turns one and two, then push the knees closed on turns three and four." The full sentence is far too long to appropriately focus an athlete's attention on the cues that would be the most effective in assisting the athlete in achieving an optimal result. Content of self-talk also varies by the experience of the athlete and the complexity/novelty of the skill that is being performed. When a skill is new (and therefore more complex), or the athlete is inexperienced, longer self-talk that includes more details to facilitate mastery of the physical skill will need to be used. Conversely, experienced athletes, or those performing a skill that is simple, will not require as many cues; a single self-talk unit is most effective. Frequency of self-talk will differ depending on the nature of the sport being played. Athletes who play individual sports will use more self-talk than those in team sports (Hardy et al., 2005). This phenomenon could be attributed to the time-governed nature of most team sports that does not afford athletes the luxury to use self-talk. Athletes playing team sports are also more likely to use negative and external self-talk, but less overall self-talk than athletes in individual sports (Hardy et al., 2005). The "team" nature of some sports may be a reason why self-talk is predominantly negative or external amongst athletes. In a team sport, an individual may view himself/herself as only a small part of the equation. Team sport athletes could believe that their self-talk has little impact on the game or match because they have multiple teammates influencing the outcome.

Figure 1 – The hammer throw is an example of a complex skill that involves strength and power in the individual sport of track and field.

The appropriateness of self-talk in relation to the task being performed is also an important element to consider. Endurance tasks (i.e. long distance running) and strength/power tasks (i.e. weight lifting) will differ in their self-talk demands. One study examined the effect of motivational or instructional self-talk on four different tasks: a soccer pass for accuracy, a badminton serve, a 3-minute sit-up test (endurance), and a MVC on a leg extension (strength). The results showed that instructional self-talk impacts all tasks but is less effective on the endurance tasks. There were few differences in the effectiveness of the motivational self-talk among all tasks except for the strength test. In the control group, self-talk proved to be much less effective. (Theodorakis, Weinberg, Natsis, Dourma, & Kazakas, 2000). This occurs because in a strength power test, a short burst of energy is required for performance and can be enhanced by motivational phraseology.

Further study in the realm of self-talk will likely focus on its precursors such as how the events that precede the self-talk influence the internal/external dialogue of an athlete. Preliminary studies have focused primarily on the role of the coach as the catalyst of self-talk. One of the preliminary studies found that the level of supportiveness demonstrated by a coach was highly correlated with the use of positive statements, which then led to positive self-talk in athletes (Zourbanos, Hatzigeorgiadis, & Theodorakis, 2007). Given the results of this study, coaches should have a positive attitude toward their athletes so athletes in turn will have a positive attitude toward themselves.

Improving Self-Talk

One of the first steps to improving self-talk habits is becoming aware of self-talk. The relationship between one's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors can best be explained by looking at the fundamentals, or A-B-C's, of self-talk (Ellis, 1962). According to Ellis, (1962) we are what we think and when we repeat irrational sentences that we have devised or learned from our backgrounds, we disturb ourselves. Froggatt (1990-2001: n.p.) slightly reformulated Ellis's model by extending A to include an activating event plus a person's inferences or interpretations about the event. B represents his evaluations of his inferences derived from his core beliefs about the event (which is critical for Ellis's theory); and C represents the emotional and behavioral consequences following the beliefs. The A-B-C theory has been widely adopted by the sport psychology community and has been modified from its original format through the years.

A is for activating situation

The activating situation refers to the situation itself, or the occurrences that caused the experience of negative feelings, such as delivering a speech and forgetting the words, being overloaded with essays and assignments, or making a silly comment that is later regretted.

When the activating situation is identified, it's important to stick to the facts instead of stating opinions (Wilner, n.d.). For example, state, "I tried on my uniform and it was too small," rather than, "I tried on my uniform and I looked horrible," or state, "Coach Jones said 'hello' to me and I turned red and looked away," rather than, "Coach Jones said 'hello' to me and I made a total idiot of myself."

B is for beliefs

Beliefs are a framework for self-talk (thoughts) and assumptions made about a situation. Identifying self-talk can sometimes be difficult. This is because self-talk is so automatic that often a person is unaware of what is going on in their mind. When something happens and a person suddenly feels upset, they assume that it is the situation itself that made them feel that way. However, it is not the situation (activating situation) but the way a person perceives it (beliefs) that makes them feel the way they do (Wilner, n.d.).

A person's thoughts largely determine the way they feel. For example, a person's thoughts might be, "I've become really fat...I must look really out of shape...no wonder I cannot throw very far." Their resulting feelings might be sadness and frustration.

C is for consequences

The consequences of a person's beliefs include their feelings and behaviors. Feelings are emotions such as embarrassment, sadness, anxiety, guilt, anger, happiness, excitement, or stress. Behaviors are the actions a person takes, such as communicating, withdrawing, asking for assistance, going to lift weights, staying in bed, or eating a snack. Thinking negatively about situations makes a person feel bad and can cause them to behave in an unhealthy way. In addition, negative self-talk can affect self-esteem. When a person feels down, it is likely he will be very hard on himself, and will tend to criticize and judge himself unfairly. The worse he feels, the more negative the self-talk is likely to become.

The A-B-C model can be used to help manage athletes' thoughts and feelings and subsequent self-talk (Wilner, n.d.). Athletes often keep a log book of their physical training activities (i.e. number of sets, repetitions, weight used, etc.). A log or a notebook could also be kept to help manage thoughts and feelings. For example, the A-B-C model (Wilner, n.d.) can be applied to self-talk as follows:

(1) A = *Actual Event*: State the actual situation that brought on the emotional state.

(2) B = *Beliefs*: Describe thoughts and beliefs about the situation that created these emotions and behaviors.
(3) C = *Challenge*: Dispute the negative thoughts and replace them with accurate and positive statements.

It is important that athletes understand the impact their thoughts have on their performance. If an athlete has been habitually thinking negative thoughts, he or she probably won't believe that the coach can change their way of thinking. This can be corrected, however, by recognizing the recurring thoughts and replacing any negative thoughts with more positive statements.

When an athlete starts to notice the body's reaction to detrimental thinking, he or she can start to become present, focus on how they want to react, pause, react calmly, and analyze the situation. This is where the "Challenge" step comes into play. Hardy, Roberts, and Hardy (2009) tested the effectiveness of two different awareness interventions: the paperclip technique and a logbook. In Hardy et al., (2009) participants (n=73) completed a questionnaire designed to test the awareness of the use and content of negative self-talk, as well as the motivation to change negative self-talk. Participants were assigned to a control, paperclip, or logbook group. Participants performed three typical training sessions over a three-week period. The logbook group completed a self-talk logbook after each session whereas the paperclip group carried out a paperclip exercise during each session. The paperclip exercise consisted of giving the athlete a bag of 50 papers clips and having them move one from their left to right pocket whenever they used any negative self-talk. At the end of the session they would then count the paperclips in their right pocket and, in essence, enhance awareness of their own negative self-talk (Hardy et al., 2009). Upon completion of the training sessions, the questionnaire was re-administered. The logbook worked much better at increasing athletes' self-awareness and content of negative self-talk than the paperclip technique. However, neither method demonstrated any significant impact on motivating the athlete to change his/her behavior.

Self-instructions (sometimes called instructional self-talk), such as a hammer thrower saying to himself, "Eyes to the sky on the release," can likewise be used during practice sessions to build a habit or immediately before a performance to serve as a cue. Again, due to an athlete's limited attentional capacity, having a cue word (either instructional or motivational in nature) may have a positive effect on performance (Chroni, Perkos, & Theodorakis, 2007). Instructional self-talk can be utilized on the day of competition. Effectively monitoring self-talk requires a focus on the positive aspects of performance, which in turn reaffirms positive self-talk (Reardon, 1995). Developing statements that remain positive and focused on the task at hand are important for reinforcing positive self-talk. As Gill (2000) points out, one effective strategy involves athletes developing pre-planned statements that produce positive thoughts and images. Athletes can develop and experiment with various statements in practice such as "I am mentally tough," "It's no big deal," and/or "Stay relaxed." Self-instructions or instructional self-talk, can likewise be used during practice sessions to build a technical habit or immediately before a performance to serve as a technical cue (Feltz & Landers, 1983). In a sport like track and field, the coach may not be within hearing range of the athlete on certain competition days and may have to use hand signals further emphasizing the need for easy and direct cue words.

Many coaches get impatient with athletes because they cannot perform at full capacity during the season and the coach fails to realize the true cause of an athlete's technical difficulties: their mental approach. The key is timing, sequence, and interaction of the mental and physical training stimuli to allow optimum adaptive response in pursuit of specific competitive goals. The goal of final preparation in the competitive phase is to maximize fitness and skills and minimize distractions on the day of the competition. Many athletes under-perform on competition day because of a number of mental obstacles. The most successful elite athletes have mastered the ability to approach the competition in a unique way by changing their mental process and internal dialog. Four-time U.S. Olympian in the hammer throw, Jud Logan, utilizes this novel way of approaching important competitions by reframing the way he views competition in his mind (Cannon, n.d.). According to Logan, "I don't compete to win. I compete to reward myself for training hard" (J. Logan, personal communication, December 13, 2010). Reframing is the process of creating an alternative frame of reference or a different way of looking at a situation. According to Gauron (1984), reframing allows you to acknowledge the issue or thought but allows you to view the event from a different perspective. Logan is adamant that a competition should be thought of as a reward for the hours of hard training. According to Logan, "each thrower is rewarded at least three throws and the possibility of an additional reward of three more throws for the countless hours of dedicated throwing and weight lifting" (J. Logan, personal communication, December 13, 2010). Practicing and developing the skill of reframing will assist the athlete with controlling his internal dialogue or self-talk in a positive and useful manner, and much of the anxiety and pressure of competition will be lifted. Ravizza (1977) reported that athletes who compete without fear have a narrow focus of attention, full immersion in the activity, and a feeling of being in absolute control. Reframing is an effective method of achieving this state of mind (Cannon, n.d.).

Applied Mental Skill Training: Developing the 3 C's

The goal of this section is to familiarize coaches with the themes related to self-talk, and subsequent interventions that can be created to increase awareness of self-talk and strategies to change self-talk units that are detrimental to maximum performance. This section is designed to help the average coach apply the scientific concepts to the practice field. The following are some practical suggestions to enhance the three easily identifiable mental skills: concentration, composure, and confidence.

Concentration

The first mental skill that can be developed to improve self-talk is concentration. Athletes who have trouble staying focused during practice or competition can extend their concentration abilities by practicing concentration skill development. One particular method calls for an athlete to focus on his breathing; air going in and out with the chest or stomach rising and falling. Instruct the athlete to count his breaths until he loses concentration on the breathing and starts to think of something else. The athlete can make a goal to extend the amount of breaths each time before losing focus. An extension of this exercise involves bringing an athlete's focus quickly back to the breathing once he has begun to focus on something else (Figure 2). This exercise mimics situations in competition when an athlete may lose concentration and trains the athlete to bring that concentration back to focus. An athlete may also pick something to focus on and time the session, working to concentrate without interruption longer and longer each time (Hanton & Jones, 1999).

Figure 2 – It is important to formulate strategies to maintain focus and review a concentration blueprint with your athletes.

Composure

Once an athlete is concentrating effectively, appropriate self-talk can help maintain composure. Sometimes, creating physical and mental composure means releasing tension. Utilizing relaxation techniques in practice and during meets or competitions may help the athlete keep composure when pressure and tension are high.

If an athlete experiences anxiety in competitive practices or important competitions, the optimal arousal state is disrupted, eliminating composure. As a possible solution, a coach can take an athlete through the "systematic desensitization" process. In this process, an athlete relaxes his muscles with a process similiar to the relaxation technique previously mentioned, followed by the athlete imagining increasingly sensitive scenes that relate to conditions that typically evoke anxiety or tension. The athlete relaxes, and then imagines competing in the first competition of the year. Once the athlete is comfortable and relaxed again, the athlete imagines competing at a championship, also returning to a relaxed state. The process is designed to "desensitize" the athlete from the tight feelings and tension related to composure loss in important competitions. This process has been proven to work for both performance and speech anxiety (Wardle, 1975; Appel, 1976; Allen, Hunter, & Donahue, 1989), but may not necessarily extinguish performance anxiety (Steptoe & Fidler, 1987).

The coach can take a very active role in minimizing the perceived effects of anxiety (Figure 3). Hanton and Jones (1999) found that successful elite swimmers viewed pre-competition anxiety as helpful to a far greater extent than did non-elite swimmers. Convincing an athlete that his physiological responses are energy and not detrimental effects can benefit an athlete's composure when feeling pre-competition stress (Meichenbaum, 1985; Salmon, 1991).

Figure 3 – Some athletes have trouble maintaining their composure during competition. The coach must stay relaxed and help desensitize the athlete from the feelings of tension associated with competing.

Confidence

Utilizing positive self-talk during important competitions helps the athlete maintain composure and in turn fuels confidence. Cognitive psychology theory (Beck & Emory,

1985; Ellis, 1973) has taught us the relationship between our thoughts, feelings, physical states, and behavior. Too often, negative self-talk plagues an athlete's confidence, making a situation even more difficult than it might otherwise be. Self-talk modification is one very effective way to correct thinking errors that hinder peak performance of an activity. Confident self-talk for athletic performance can be applied to the execution of the power clean, a derivative of the clean and jerk, which is a power/speed exercise utilized by field event athletes in track and field. The following statement is an example of negative self-talk: "I will never be able to clean 100 kg." The coach could counter the athlete's proclamation with a self-talk modifying statement like, "Why not? You already know you can do 95 kg for a double, 100kg is a piece of cake, keep your shoulders over the bar and finish the pull."

According to Reardon (1992), positive self-talk includes a focus on process variables and technical aspects of training and competing, rather than product or outcome, winning or losing. A focus on the present moment time dimension ("What can/am I doing now to enhance performance?") rather than being distracted by future worrying ("Will I get a personal best?" "What if…?") or past failures ("I should have…" "If only I had…") exemplifies positive self talk. Composure and appropriate level of arousal, rather than tension, worried thoughts, and anxious over arousal are important for success. Having an athlete achieve that effortless state of mind in competition is a coach's ultimate goal (Reardon, 1992).

Self-talk modification is one very effective way to correct the mental errors that hinder both performance and "flow" in athletic endeavors. If an athlete is thinking about what they don't want, they vastly increase their chances of producing an undesirable thought and subsequent outcome (i.e. becoming very tentative). This "negative imagery rehearsal" occurs because when an athlete focuses on an outcome they don't want, they actually envision that negative outcome (Reardon, 1992).

Another type of positive reassurance can come in the form of mental rehearsal and imagery (Hanton & Jones, 1999; Orlick, 1990). Athletes will vividly imagine properly executing their technique to achieve the desired performance. While imagining, athletes can draw on all senses: sound, sight, touch, taste, smell, and kinesthetic with an external focus (watching themselves from the audience) or internal focus (imagining as if they are actually performing). The effect of mental rehearsal appears to provide a form of neuromuscular programming so that the performer is more likely to automatically behave in the preferred way during the actual performance (Roland, 1997).

Including Positive Self-Talk in a Pre-Competitive Routine

Incorporating concentration, composure, and confidence into an athlete's training and competition regimen will maximize the opportunity for positive self-talk. The pre-competitive routine is a necessary element of the training and competitive plan (Reardon & Gordin, 1999). The biggest challenge that competitive athletes and their coaches face is how to put the continued development of psychological skills into the training program (Judge et al., 2010). The way you practice is essentially the way you will compete. The process of mental skill acquisition begins in the preparation phase with the emphasizing proficiency in concentration and composure which encompass skills such as deep breathing and relaxation, focusing techniques, developing the skill of breathing control and arousal management. Also, skills such as attentional control and attentional endurance as well as transitional flexibility are necessary in the early stages of skill development. These fundamental and specific skills encompassed by concentration and composure lay the base for the development of higher-level skills such as visualization, imagery, and self-talk management. The concentration and composure skills seem less directly related to performance, but what becomes apparent when viewing high-level performance or performance breakdown is that breakdown occurs most often in the areas of concentration and composure (Reardon & Gordin, 1999).

The application of psychological skills to competitive situations requires developing an effective pre-competition routine (Table 2), a sound pre-performance routine, and a sound recovery/refocusing routine for use in competition (Reardon, 1992). All of these routines need to be developed, utilized, and applied in a practice situation in order to be able to effectively implement them in a competitive situation (Judge et al., 2010). Elements of a competition day mental plan include:

- Energy Management Skills
- Checklist For Competition Day
- Mental Plan Chronology

The principle of specificity is very important to keep in mind when designing physical training programs and is equally important in the development of psychological skills. A pre-competition routine for a hammer thrower may include a planned warm up, positive self-talk, a focus on performance goals, a relaxation strategy, controlling the type and amount of interaction with others, a nap earlier in the day, and monitoring fluid and food intake. Ultimately, athletes need to experiment with the pre-competition routine in practice with the guidance of the coach.

Share your Journal with your coach or teacher

Table 2: Sample Pre-Competition Routine for a Hammer Thrower

4 Hours Prior	2 Hours Prior	1 Hour Prior	30 min. Prior	20 min. Prior	Competition	Post-Competition
Video review	Arrive at the competition site and set up camp	Execute a series of planned walks, jogs, and skips to increase body temperature	Execute a specific warm up drills to set up the technique	Execute a predetermined number of warm-up throws	Counts breaths in between throws to re-focus for next throw	Review competitive strategy
Visualize proper technique and think of process oriented cue words	Walk over and examine throwing venue	Begin to achieve physical arousal	Feel the desired body positions during the drills	Count breaths in between throws to re-focus for the next throw	Imagine successful execution of the most important technical cue(s)	
	Review technical cues worked on in the previous week of practice	Count breaths if one loses focus until concentration is once again reached	Focus on relevant technical cues	Positive self-talk: focus on process oriented cues	Count breaths if one loses focus until concentration is reached again	
	Positive self-talk: review					

Conclusion

This manuscript has several important implications for athletes and coaches. Dedicated and driven coaches seeking success must incorporate not only the physical aspect of training, but must also help athletes master the mental aspects as well. Sport psychology has emerged as the latest tool for helping coaches prepare athletes for competition; however, few coaches take full advantage of psychological skill preparation. Psychological training for any athletic undertaking is a complex process that involves acquiring, practicing, and applying numerous psychological skills like the previously mentioned skill of self-talk. Psychological training must be part of the periodized plan and must be programmed as such.

Although this paper has focused specifically upon self-talk for the throwing events in track and field, the basic psychological concepts and practices noted have application to numerous other individual and team sports. One of the most important skills for learning to deal with stressful situations is to identify self-talk: the internal dialog occurring within the mind. The 'stress-log,' covering the A's, B's, and C's of the situation is a useful tool to help challenge the negative or unhelpful aspects of thinking, and to replace them with more reasonable and helpful thoughts.

Other sports can benefit from the development of a psychological training plan that is sequenced and unfolds in harmony with the physical training plan. The gap between the science used to develop the training program on paper and the art of implementing the program to maximize the performance in the competitive and practice venues separates good coaches from great coaches. All coaches strive for the ability to have their athletes perform in an uninhibited, relaxed, and skillful manner. Various personalities, team chemistries, motivations, and attitudes coalesce to create a series of variables for the coach to juggle. With the daily practice plan in hand, the coach steps out onto the field and begins practice where a multitude of unexpected variables can occur. Implementing and successfully executing the plan may very well be the biggest challenge. It does not matter what is on paper if the coach cannot execute the plan effectively. Understanding each individual athlete and knowing what motivates him or her is the crucial element of understanding self-talk and creating an environment for great performance. Inadequate mental preparation can easily undermine an excellent physical technical preparation. Flow, or as many experts in the field term "being in the zone," is the goal of athletes and coaches alike. Introducing a plan to train the psychological skills along with the physical skills throughout the year will minimize the unknown variables and assist with an athlete's ability to perform in competitions. Mental preparation can be a difficult and arduous process. Developing a strategy for psychological preparation will help your individual athletes and/or team realize its full potential and enjoy the post event celebration on the awards stand. The hard work pays off!

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Peer Reviewed: University Worksite Wellness Program Improves...Wellness

University Worksite Wellness Program Improves Physical, Spiritual, and Intellectual Wellness

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Abstract

While chronic diseases account for seven of every ten U.S. deaths and more than 60% of medical care expenditures (United States Department of Health and Human Services, [USDHHS], 2006), many of these chronic diseases may be at least partially prevented by participating in regular physical activity. The purpose of the program described here was for participants at a mid-size private university in the Midwest to achieve 10,000 steps in a day or to achieve a 10% improvement in their total steps taken each week. The objective of this study was to determine and report the effectiveness of this multi-layered university wellness and fitness program (no intervention, step submission/rewards only, education and step submission/rewards, step submission/rewards and structured physical activity 3 days per week). University faculty and staff were invited to participate in a 12-week team-based walking program (R UIndy Fit) utilizing incentives and social support to help participants meet a 10,000 steps-per-day goal. A total of 44 individuals from the R UIndy Fit research group and 28 from the control group completed the entire 12-week research project, which included a pre- and post-test wellness inventory and R UIndy Fit research participants completing pre- and post-tests measuring height, weight, body composition, and blood pressure. Participants within each of the R UIndy Fit program groups took significantly more steps per week than participants in the control (53,500) ($p < .01$), but no significant changes from pre-test to post-test for weight, body fat percentage or blood pressure were found in the R UIndy Fit group. Significant differences between research and control groups also were found on the wellness inventory and within the research group from pre-test to post-test. This program demonstrated that a steps-based wellness program at a university may be associated with increasing the amount physical activity in participants as well as improving self-assessed levels of intellectual and spiritual dimensions of wellness, important components in a productive university employee.

Key Words: 10,000 steps, employee wellness, worksite wellness, promoting physical activity

Literature Review

Chronic diseases account for seven of every ten U.S. deaths and for more than 60% of medical care expenditures (United States Department of Health and Human Services, [USDHHS], 2006). In addition, prolonged illnesses and disabilities associated with many chronic diseases decrease quality of life for millions of Americans with much of the chronic disease burden being preventable (USDHHS). Physical inactivity and unhealthy eating contribute to obesity, cancer, cardiovascular disease and diabetes, which together are responsible for at least 300,000 deaths each year (USDHHS).

Regular physical activity is a key health behavior in preventing many of the chronic diseases listed above (USDHHS, 2006). Though many are aware of the importance of being physically active, greater than 60% of the US population fails to achieve the recommended amount of daily physical activity, leaving those in wellness related fields constantly searching for better ways to motivate the population and reduce barriers to physical activity. One tool used by many wishing to influence physical activity is the pedometer. Pedometers provide a simple and affordable means of tracking daily physical activity, especially walking, expressed as a summary output of steps/day (Tudor-Locke, Williams, Reis & Pluto, 2002). Based on best evidence as of the end of 2003, Tudor-Locke and Bassett's (2004) research of the classification of pedometer-determined physical

activity in healthy adults is as follows:

1) Under 5000 steps/day may be used as a "sedentary lifestyle index"
2) 5,000-7,499 steps/day is typical of daily activity excluding sports/exercise and might be considered "low active."
3) 7,500-9,999 likely includes some exercise or walking (and/or a job that requires more walking) and might be considered "somewhat active."
4) 10,000 steps/day indicates the point that should be used to classify individuals as "active".
5) Individuals who take more than 12,500 steps/day are likely to be classified as "highly active".

Achieving 10,000 steps per day also has been associated with the prevention and/or management of chronic disease states (Le Masurier, Sidman, & Corbin, 2003). Though reaching 10,000 steps per day remains a significant threshold for preventing or managing chronic disease states, individuals who accumulate steps above their baselines, even if not reaching the 10,000 steps per day recommendation, contribute to health improvements (Lee, Sesso, Oguma & Paffenberger Jr., 2004). Lorentzen, Ommundse & Holme's (2007) research indicates not only are positive health benefits seen when walking for physical activity but sedentary individuals are motivated to become active or newly active individuals in maintaining an active lifestyle. According to Carnethon and colleagues (2009), experience has shown that workplace wellness programs are an important strategy to prevent the major shared risk factors for cardiovascular disease and stroke possibly partially due to the readily available social support networks present in the workplace.

Current recommendations have also called for a greater focus on the role of the environment to enhance our understanding of individual physical-activity behavior (Booth, 2001; Ecónomos, 2001). In particular, researchers have begun to recognize the significant impact of the social environment on physical activity and have called for the identification and development of innovative strategies that can assist in shifting social and cultural norms to influence individual behavior (Booth, 2001; Ecónomos, 2001; Kahn, 2002). Research shown by Vrazel et al. (2008, p. 3) states that social support from exercise, regardless of the origin of support, is a determining factor in maintaining physical activity behaviors and may greatly influence whether individuals consistently maintain the levels of activity necessary to positively impact health outcomes through "aid or assistance exchanged by individuals, groups, or organizations (social networks) through one of four methods: emotional, instrumental, informational, or appraisal support." Vrazel and colleagues (2008, p. 3) further state "A person or group may provide emotional support through encouragement or acceptance. Instrumental support involves the provision of more tangible factors such as material aid, direct help, or rendering of a particular service. Offering advice, information, or recommendations would be informational support, while appraisal support includes constructive feedback and an affirmation of beliefs and value." Pedometer usage also has been found to provide a sense of personal connection with other pedometer wearers and serve as a focal point for conversation (Lauzon, Chan, Myers & Tudor-Locke, 2008).

University campuses serve as workplace settings. Past research of walking programs in university settings has documented that many faculty and staff are highly sedentary, accumulating only 4000-6000 steps/day (Tudor-Locke et al., 2004). Despite the benefits and recognition that walking is one of the most accessible forms of activity (Department of Health, London, 2004), walking behavior generally remains sporadic and infrequent.

Previous interventions have been successful in increasing the daily steps accumulated in workplace settings by providing information to employees concerning how to accumulate more steps during a typical work day. In 2006, Gilson, McKenna, Cooke & Brown completed a feasibility study in a university setting investigating participants in two treatments groups, one that encouraged prescribed walks around campus completing at least 15 minutes of continuous, brisk walking every work day; the other was encouraged to accumulate step counts through the working day with "walk and talk" reinforcement tutorials offered versus sit-down lectures and the prescribed routes and seminars. Gilson et al (2006, p. 68) further explains these reinforcement tutorials encompassed "the office, lectures and seminars were targeted as contexts where tasks were completed standing and walking, rather than sitting." The treatment group that received the "walk and talk" reinforcement tutorials was found to be more successful at increasing steps than merely providing information about campus walking routes for participants in the university population, but authors cite the need for further research. It also heeds caution to simply distributing pedometers to staff with little or no intervention throughout a program (Gilson et al., 2007).

Current Program

The RUIndy Fit faculty/staff 10,000 steps program (Hancher-Rauch, Hicks & VanSickle, 2010) was a 12-week program designed to increase participants' physical activity levels and improve their health. The overall goal was to achieve 10,000 steps in a day (10KaDay) or to achieve a 10% improvement in their total steps taken each week. Participants were able to choose their preferred form of exercise on their own schedules and competed on various campus teams, often aligned with departments or academic units. A conversion website was available to help participants convert non-pedometer appropriate activities such as swimming and biking into step equivalents. Participants were required to enter their total weekly steps once per week, on Monday afternoon and prizes were awarded to individuals and teams based on meeting of program goals. This study reports results for the fifth year of the program, with changes occurring each year to improve outcomes. As part of this program four R UIndy Fit teams were invited to participate in a free Monday, Wednesday, Friday group fitness class over the lunch hour. Another four teams were selected to receive a weekly e-mail describing

opportunities for participants to gain more steps during the workday. These eight teams received the group fitness class or weekly e-mails in addition to the general program. The remaining 12 R UIndy Fit teams were enrolled only in the general program as described previously. The use of pedometers, methodology for step tracking, team formats, program goals and incentives remained consistent from the previous description.

Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that participants in the R UIndy Fit faculty/staff 10,000 steps program would accumulate more steps and show health benefits not demonstrated by a control group composed of program non-participants on campus. It also was hypothesized that participants on teams invited to participate in the free fitness classes and those receiving targeted information about how to get more steps at work would accumulate more steps than regular program participants or the control group.

Methods

Sample

Participants for the research group in this study were recruited from the over 200 faculty and staff who volunteered to take part in the yearly faculty/staff 10,000 steps program at a mid-sized private university in the Midwest. They were recruited through e-mails and verbally at the program kick-off. A total of 44 participants completed the research project, six males and 38 females. The average participant age was 46.2 years. All University faculty and staff not participating in the faculty/staff 10,000 step program were invited to participate in the control group. The control group was recruited through the university-wide electronic mail messaging system. Twenty-two control group participants completed the research protocol. Of these individuals, four were male. The average control group age was 43.1 years. Approval for this project was received from the University's Institutional Review Board. All participants in the research and control groups completed a Physical Activity Readiness Questionnaire and consent form. Any participants with at least one risk factor were asked to see a physician for consultation before participating in the research protocol.

Procedure

All R UIndy Fit research participants were assigned to one of three research groups: step submission/rewards only (regular program), education and step submission/rewards, step submission/rewards and structured physical activity three days per week. These groups were compared to one another and to the control group which received no intervention. All participants on the same R UIndy Fit team were assigned to the same research group to help maintain the integrity of the research groups and reduce confounding variables related to teammates of different research groups influencing one another. The first four R UIndy Fit teams with at least eight participants interested in participating in the research were invited to serve as the fitness class research group. This was done as an incentive to participate in the research protocol and to increase the chances that teams interested in group fitness would be willing to participate regularly in the fitness classes offered. These teams were invited to attend a 45-minute group fitness class taught every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday over the lunch hour. The group fitness classes were a combination of traditional group fitness exercises such as step aerobics, circuit training, and light strength and conditioning. All classes were taught by a trained and ACSM certified senior exercise science student. These sessions also were supervised by the principal researcher. The number of participants invited to partake in group fitness was limited the amount of space available for the group fitness class and the realistic estimate of the number of individuals who would be willing to participate in the classes. Based on the need to match demographics in the second research group to those in the fitness class group, four additional teams who closely mirrored the demographic structure of the first group were selected to receive additional program information related to tips for accumulating more steps during the workday. The teams were as closely matched as possible for age, gender, and current exercise levels. All participants on these four teams received the information pertaining to increasing steps throughout the workday, not just those agreeing to participate in the research. All remaining research participants were placed in the group receiving the regular R UIndy Fit program.

Research and control participants completed a total of two short questionnaires (one pre-test and one post-test), at the start and finish of the R UIndy Fit program. The questionnaire contained approximately 60 questions including general demographics, perceptions about the average number of steps per day, and questions from The Total Wellness Inventory. *The Total Wellness Inventory* consists of five questions from each of the nine wellness dimensions: 1) Physical Wellness: Exercise, 2) Physical Wellness: Nutrition, 3) Mental Wellness, 4) Social Wellness, 5) Spiritual Wellness, 6) Intellectual Wellness, 7) Environmental Wellness, 8) Occupational Wellness, and 9) Financial Wellness. Statements addressing health behaviors and beliefs relevant to each dimension are ranked on a 5-point Lickert scale, then totaled and averaged for a dimension score.

R UIndy Fit research participants also completed four anthropomorphic tests at the start and finish of the program. These anthropomorphic tests measured height, weight, body composition, and blood pressure. Researchers, with the assistance of exercise science students from the university, collected measurements and recorded results for participants on a data sheet. Recordings were then transferred to the questionnaire by the participant. Weight was measured on a calibrated SCALE-TRONIX BARI-SCALE and the OMRON Body Logic Body Fat Analyzer was used to estimate body fat percentage. Blood pressure was assess using the Omron HEM-711AC Blood Pressure Monitor with IntelliSense, an automatic cuff and monitor with reported accuracy of +/- 3 mmHg or 2% of reading (Quick Medical, n.d.) Data collection for research participants occurred at the R UIndy Fit kick-off and closing. Anthropomorphic measurements required approximately 10-15 minutes of

participants' time at both the kick-off and closing programs. Questionnaires took approximately 10-15 minutes to complete on each of two occasions. Because control group participants did not attend the kick-off or closing events for the R UIndy Fit program, they received questionnaires via electronic or campus mail.

Control participants completed the pre- and post-test at approximately the same time as R UIndy Fit participants, but did not participate in the collection of anthropomorphic measures due to the fact that they did not attend the R UIndy Fit program kick-off or closing. To maintain participant confidentiality, at the start of the project, each research and control participant was assigned a participant number. That number was the only identifier on the questionnaire containing individual responses. The master list of participants and their numbers was kept in a locked filing cabinet in the office of principal researcher, separate from the completed questionnaires.

Research participants in all three R UIndy Fit research groups and the control group were asked to wear the Digiwalker SW 200 pedometer daily and received instructional packets for use. R UIndy Fit program participants received their pedometers as part of the R UIndy Fit program and were provided usage instructions at the kick-off. Control group participants received their pedometers and instructions via campus mail. The Digiwalker SW 200 pedometer was selected due to ease of use and reliability in step tracking. Participants and controls were asked to wear the pedometer for the week prior to the start of the program/research protocol to become familiar with their usage before beginning the 12-weeks of the project.

All participants, both research and control, were asked to enter their steps on the secure R UIndy Fit website. A special "team" was created for the control group. All participants tracked steps from the first Monday morning of the project through Sunday evening, then entered the total number of steps taken for the week into the database no later than 5:00 p.m. on Monday afternoons.

As an incentive to complete the 12-weeks of the project, all R UIndy Fit research and control participants who completed the study were entered in a drawing for $100 in selected merchandise from the UIndy bookstore. The same procedure was followed for a drawing from the names of those completing the research for the control group. The R UIndy Fit research participants who completed anthropomorphic measures also received a copy of all their anthropomorphic results and information about the interpretation of those results.

Data Analysis

Researchers utilized SPSS 18.0 to analyze the data. T-tests and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used to compare groups' step totals and health outcomes as evaluated through the anthropomorphic assessments and questionnaires. The step totals for each of the three research groups were compared to one another and to the control group through the use of an ANOVA. The ANOVA also was used to compare the anthropomorphic measures of weight, body fat, and blood pressure among the three research groups at both the start and conclusion of the wellness program. Dependent t-tests were utilized to compare pre-test and post-test differences within groups for anthropomorphic measures and questionnaire responses. A Pearson Correlation was conducted to determine whether weekly step totals were associated with participants' mental health scores on the questionnaire.

Results

The objective for this research was to determine and report the effectiveness of a multi-layered university wellness and fitness program (no intervention, step submission/rewards only, education and step submission/rewards, step submission/rewards and structured physical activity 3 days per week). A total of 61 individuals from the R UIndy Fit research group agreed to participate in the study with 44 of those individuals completing the entire 12-week research project. While 28 individuals from across campus originally agreed to participate in the control group, 22 completed the research protocol. Only individuals completing both the pre-test and post-test questionnaire were included in the data analysis as those having completed the program.

Of the 44 R UIndy Fit research participants completing the program, pre-test and post-test data for weight was available for 25. There was no significant difference found from the pre-test weight (M = 161.94) and post-test weight (M = 161.35, $p > .05$). For the 21 research participants for whom body fat percentage was available, the pre-test body fat percentage of 29.57% was not significantly different from the post-test body fat percentage of 28.76% ($p > .05$). No significant differences were discovered between either pre-test and post-test systolic (118.38 mmHg, 123.91 mmHg, $p > .05$) or diastolic blood pressure (75.95 mmHg, 78.36 mmHg, $p > .05$).

Though a significant difference was discovered for average weekly step totals between the control group and each of the research groups ($p<.01$), there were too few participants within each group for any further significant findings. (See Table 1 for results). To achieve statistical significance for the total study, researchers combined all R UIndy Fit research groups (n=44) into one group to compare with the control (n=22) for further data analysis. Means scores on the dimensions of wellness found in The Total Wellness Inventory can be seen in Table 2. The pre-test and post-test questionnaire scores for the wellness dimension of Physical Wellness: Exercise were significantly higher in the research group (M = 4.25/5, 4.45/5) than the control (M = 3.68/5, 3.62/5) ($p<.05$). The intellectual wellness scores were significantly higher in the research group at both pre-test and post-test ($p <.05$). The spiritual wellness post-test scores for the research group (M= 4.02) were significantly higher than the control group (M = 3.45), though no differences existed at pre-test ($p <.05$). The control group showed no improvement in exercise behavior scores (pre-test mean = 3.71/5, post-test mean = 3.62/5, $p>.05$), but the research group trended toward improvement (pre-test M = 4.25/5, post-test M = 4.45/5, p = .06).

Table 1.
Average Weekly Steps by Group

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
General R UIndy Fit	15	80485.74[a]	25100.28	6480.86	66585.67	94385.81	53796.58	139684.08
Group Fitness	21	79713.18[a]	13615.23	2971.09	73515.60	85910.76	49338.89	104891.25
Extra Information	8	81367.37[a]	26059.09	9213.28	59581.43	103153.32	63867.25	143752.55
Control	22	53500.16[a]	15501.19	3304.86	46627.32	60372.10	19939.17	79832.83
Total	66	71351.59	22484.34	2767.63	65824.25	76878.93	19939.17	143752.55

[a]Each research group was statistically different from the control (p<.01)

Table 2.
Mean Comparisons on Dimensions of Wellness in The Total Wellness Inventory

	Group[a]	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-Test Exercise	1	44	4.25b	.892	.135
	2	22	3.68b	.839	.179
Pre-Test Nutrition	1	44	4.02	1.045	.158
	2	22	3.77	1.307	.279
Pre-Test Mental	1	44	3.95	.746	.112
	2	22	3.55	1.057	.225
Pre-Test Social	1	44	4.11	.868	.131
	2	22	3.82	1.053	.224
Pre-Test Spiritual	1	43	4.05	.688	.105
	2	22	3.73	.935	.199
Pre-Test Intellectual	1	44	4.36b	.574	.087
	2	22	3.95b	.950	.203
Pre-Test Environmental	1	44	4.73	.499	.075
	2	22	4.73	.631	.135
Pre-Test Occupational	1	44	4.41	.583	.088
	2	22	4.14	.990	.211
Pre-Test Financial	1	44	4.55	.730	.110
	2	22	4.64	.581	.124
Post-Test Exercise	1	44	4.45b	.791	.119
	2	21	3.62b	1.396	.305
Post-Test Nutrition	1	44	4.05	1.010	.152
	2	22	3.86	1.246	.266
Post-Test Mental	1	43	3.95	.615	.094
	2	22	3.68	.839	.179
Post-Test Social	1	43	3.98	.886	.135
	2	22	3.77	.869	.185
Post-Test Spiritual	1	44	4.02b	.849	.128
	2	22	3.45b	.739	.157
Post-test Intellectual	1	44	4.36b	.810	.122
	2	22	3.73b	1.120	.239
Post-Test Environmental	1	44	4.52	.821	.124
	2	22	4.73	.456	.097
Post-Test Occupational	1	44	4.48	.590	.089
	2	22	4.32	.716	.153
Post-Test Financial	1	44	4.57	.661	.010
	2	22	4.59	.503	.107

[a] 1 denotes R UIndy Fit research group, 2 denotes control group
[b] denotes significant (p.<.01) difference between groups

In an attempt to assess a link between weekly step totals and perceptions of stress, a Pearson Correlation was conducted. Participants' mental health scores on the questionnaire were not found to be significantly correlated ($r = .131$, $p > .05$) with their average weekly step totals.

Discussion

The goal of the current research was to determine and report the effectiveness of a multi-layered university wellness and fitness program (no intervention, step submission/rewards only, education and step submission/rewards, step submission/rewards and structured physical activity 3 days per week). It was hypothesized that participants in the R UIndy Fit faculty/staff 10,000 steps program would accumulate more steps and show health benefits not demonstrated by a control group composed of program non-participants on campus. It also was hypothesized that participants on teams invited to participate in the free fitness classes and those receiving targeted information about how to get more steps at work would accumulate more steps than regular program participants or the control group. Another hypothesis was that those accumulating more steps will demonstrate greater health gains, as assessed through anthropomorphic measures and responses to questions about health behaviors on the questionnaires.

It was clear that participants within each of the R UIndy Fit program groups (regular program = 80,486; group fitness = 79,713; and extra information = 81,367) took significantly more steps per week than participants in the control (53,500) ($p < .01$), but too few participants led to an inability to determine significant step difference between each of the R UIndy Fit research groups. When examining the average number of steps taken by each of the R UIndy Fit research groups, it is clear that participants completing the protocol averaged well above the recommended 10,000 steps per day. This may be considered a success for the program with a goal of encouraging faculty and staff to achieve 10,000 steps per day.

Researchers were somewhat disappointed at the lack of anthropomorphic changes achieved by participants during the program, with no significant changes from pre-test to post-test for weight, body fat percentage or blood pressure. It is thought that the short time-frame of 12 weeks was likely too short to achieve significant change in these areas and that the small number of participants made it difficult to achieve the necessary statistical power. It is likely that research occurring over a short 12-week time frame might be better served focusing on assessing changes

in physical activity levels or other health behaviors instead of physiological changes that likely take much longer to achieve. In addition, the program focused mostly on physical activity and did not include weight management or nutrition education interventions. A more balanced approach including this type of educational intervention may provide significant results in awareness associated with weight loss.

In reference to scores on *The Total Wellness Inventory,* it was clear that individuals participating in the R UIndy Fit program scored higher in the self-assessed area of Physical Wellness: Exercise than those in the control group. Those in the program also showed improvements in their Physical Wellness: Exercise scores from pre-test to post-test, while the control did not. These differences are not surprising, considering those in the program had voluntarily registered to participate in a faculty and staff walking program. Two surprising findings from the questionnaire were that participants in the R UIndy Fit group scored significantly higher at both pre-test and post-test in the area of Intellectual Wellness than the control group and that the Spiritual Wellness scores at post-test for the R UIndy Fit group were significantly higher than the control, though no differences existed at pre-test. It may be possible that differences in intellectual wellness were related to the differences in group composition. Data was not collected concerning whether participants were faculty or staff, but it is possible that more individuals in the R UIndy Fit group were faculty, who likely consider themselves to be continually working to improve their intellectual wellness. Another interesting note related to intellectual wellness is that both groups scored just at or above 4 out of a possible 5 on the intellectual wellness scale. This unexpectedly high score for both groups may be due to the fact that participants are working on an academic campus and understand the value of continually seeking intellectual challenges. It is unclear what determined the differences present between the R UIndy Fit and control group for spiritual wellness at post-test.

Because faculty and staff on this campus have often remarked about stress levels, researcher decided to run a Pearson Correlation in search of a correlation between scores on the Mental Health section of the questionnaire and participants' average weekly steps. Though physical activity has often been touted as having a positive influence on perceived levels of psychological stress, no correlation was found between participants' average weekly steps and their scores on the Mental Health section of the Total Wellness Inventory. The lack of findings may be due to the fact that such a large percentage of research participants in the R UIndy Fit group achieved the recommended 10,000 steps per day, allowing for little variation in their step averages. A larger participant pool may provide the necessary statistical power to find these types of relationships.

Limitations

One limitation of this study was the small sample size. With only 22 participants completing the protocol for the research group and 44 from the R UIndy Fit group, it became difficult to achieve the necessary statistical power. Though researchers began with 61 in the R UIndy Fit group and 28 in the control, the drop-out rate of 27.9% and 21.4% respectively led to too few participants in each of the four comparison groups to achieve statistically significant differences between them.

A second limitation was that only 4 of the invited 44 participants regularly attended the group fitness classes. With so few within this research group regularly attending the group fitness classes, it was impossible to determine whether offering group fitness classes on campus could help faculty and staff increase their average daily steps. This may mean that program funds are better spent elsewhere though, if so few member of the campus community would commit to regular attendance of group fitness classes. It is unclear whether the time of day or location may have contributed to the low attendance.

A third limitation was the fact that research participants were self-selected. Because of the format of the R UIndy Fit program and the fact that faculty and staff self-select for participation, it would be impossible to randomly select individuals for program participation. However, it may be possible to randomly select those for the research study or those participating in the control. In this type of setting, with an inability to offer larger incentives for participation, random selection is often difficult however. Due to these limitations, readers should be cautious in applying the findings from this study to other populations.

Conclusion

It is imperative that institutions play a role in improving the health and wellness of its employees for both the benefit of the employer as well as decreasing health care costs. This program demonstrated that a university wellness steps-based program is associated with increasing the amount physical activity of its employees In addition, gains were found in intellectual and spiritual dimensions of wellness, important components in a productive university employee. Additional research is needed to determine the specific characteristics of cost-effective employee wellness programs for desired improvements including decreased healthcare costs to the organization.

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This journal is published in May, September, and February by the Indiana Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance. Articles that share opinions and ideas, as well as those based on serious scholarly inquiry are welcomed and encouraged. Each article scholarly article is reviewed by the editor and at least two reviewers who are selected on the basis of areas of interest and qualifications in relation to the content of the article.

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1. Work closely with the Program Director or Regional Coordinator to promote the special program area.
2. Attend annual IAHPERD Leadership Conference. (Hotel and meals paid for by the Association.)
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4. Serve as host to greet and direct presenters during the conference.
5. Serve as presider for the various programs in your special area. Support includes introducing presenter, assisting during the presentation (distribute handouts), and providing presenter with the special gift from the Association.
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