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2015-2016 Leadership Team

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Important Journal Information

Indiana AHPERD

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IAHPERD

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Message From The President

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Good Morning Indiana!

Changing Scene: Come Alive

Dear Fellow IAHPERD Members,

Our Leadership Conference at McCormick Creek in Spenser, IN was a successful adventure. Let me say that the weather finally cooperated. A couple of years prior we had snow. Last year, I had to shovel a number of cars out of the snow before we could leave on Saturday.

However, here are some of the highlights of the Leadership Conference:

- Teaching one another from Rock, Paper, Scissors, Jump Ropes to phone applications: Angus Reel Mixer of course a dance: Changing Scene: Come Alive power point covering these ten topics: Commit to life-long learning: Find A Mentor, Read and Write, Serve, Network, Experience Life,
- Try something new was the new Come Alive! Cha Cha Mixer. We had two circles dancing the smooth variations. In one section of the dance, the follower was rolled across to the next leader, there we quite a number of Whoops and Hollers as we did it. We looked great! Thanks so much group.
- Determine what you want to do
- Set Goals
- Question everyone and everything!
- Thank others along the way. Another interesting activity was the Positive comment paper. The paper was taped to the back of each person. Then with magic markers the group wrote positive items about the individual. Many were surprised to see what other had written about them.
- Try and develop a professional plan that leads to success.
- The evening finished up with Elephant Hunting for your success and happiness in your life.
- We then had time for socializing and meetings.

On Saturday, the meetings were with the councils to organize for the Fall 2016 Convention. Plus the Past Presidents met to continue plans for our **100 Years Celebration in 2017**. The committee is moving forward with those projects.

SHAPE America: Minneapolis, MN: 50 Million Strong 2029

A great time was had by all Indiana participants. I want to congratulate our **National Teacher of the Year Candidates:** *Jenny Berju, Health: Donna Hazelett, Middle School Physical Education and Adam Havice, High School Physical Education.* All attending the Hall of Fame Banquet were super proud of these educators. There was also a video shown at the Hall of Fame Banquet concerning Speak Out Day in Washington DC. Kim Hurley and Gary Lemke were part of the speaking crew. This film was presented at our last Board meeting. We cheered for them when we viewed the video. A number of us wore our colorful socks, which were a part of our goodie bag.

There were three General Sessions at the National Convention. I felt they were worth giving a few points of each one:

Session One: Keynote Speaker was Tom Rath an author of a number of books. We all got a copy of **"The Rechargeables: Eat Move Sleep"**. When we are fully charged, your body is strong, your brain is sharp, and you can experience high levels of engagement.

Session Two: We are the Champions: Let's Celebrate had a game show with sports celebrities competing in a Family Feud format. *(The group was joined by the Viking Cheerleaders and Mascot Vic.)* Then the energetic Koo Koo Kango Roo got us moving. Chris Waddell, hurt in a skiing accident that left him paralyzed from the waist down gave us an inspirational message. He was sponsored by Athletes for Hope. Finally, out paraded Chef Jon Aston and presented an entertaining way to make a strawberry smoothie. He was joined by Jerome Bettis, for more fresh ideas on healthy foods. They were sponsored by Fuel Up Play 60.

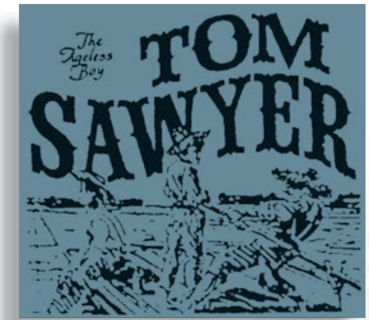
Session Three: The third session related to the ESSA, Every student Succeeds Act. This session contained some information on the federal education legislation that will provide funds and a framework for the elementary and secondary educational programs in our country.

We have continued work on our fall 2016 Convention: Dr. Stuart Robertshaw, Aka; Dr. Humor will be our Keynote speaker *(we are still interested in helpful sponsors to assist with his expenses. Please contact me if you would like to contribute. Thank you.)* He will be doing **TWO SESSIONS** at our convention.

Remember, on Thursday night at the fall convention we are planning a Social Night in Downtown Indianapolis. One event is attending the Comedy Club. Come and join us!

Also our Convention is a **TWO DAY** event! We might have a SHAPE America Fitness day on Saturday of the Convention. More on that later.

Stay Healthy,
Have a Fantastic Summer,
Gotta Dance!



Editor's Notion Page

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Evaluating the Effectiveness of Coaches

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Introduction

It is important to evaluate coaching effectiveness on a regular basis. Beginning coaches who have had no formal coaching education programs, sport-specific clinics, or prior coaching experience are susceptible to using ineffective techniques; but, experienced professionals have their weaknesses as well. The school should systematically evaluate coaching effectiveness at the end of every season to determine where both strengths and weaknesses exist. The key evaluative questions that should be used as the basis of the evaluation include: Was the coaching effective in achieving the purpose(s) of the program? What changes can be made to improve the quality of coaching? The remainder of this chapter will provide a relatively simple procedure for estimating the effects of coaching efforts. It will also help identify ways to improve coaching techniques.

Why Should the Coach Be Evaluated?

Post-season coaching evaluations are necessary for coaches to assist them in better understanding how effective they have been throughout the season. Many coaches assume, they effective if they had a 500 or better season. The team record is only one factor that needs to be reviewed. There are a number of factors that should be reviewed annually, including: developing sport skills, teaching sport knowledge, developing player fitness levels, improving personal and social skills, and developing sportsmanship.

Who Should Complete the Evaluation?

The athletic director should conduct the evaluation of the head coach. The athletic director should seek input from student-athletes, parents, and assistant coaches. The head coach should be asked to complete a self-evaluation as well. The head coach should evaluate the assistant coaches with input from the student-athletes and parents.

Areas to be evaluated

Evaluation should be based on more than whether or not the coach is a good person, worked the team hard, or even had a winning season. The important issue is whether or not the coach met the objectives identified for the players at the beginning of the season, including technique, knowledge, tactics, fitness, personal-social skills, and sportsmanship. The coach should maintain a record of student-athlete progress throughout the season. He/she should pre-test the student athletes establishing a baseline that can be compared to at the end of the season (post-test).

According to Sawyer and Gimbert (2014), the following should be evaluated:

1. **fitness levels,**
2. **skill levels,**
3. **knowledge of the game,**
4. **teamwork,**
5. **tactics, and**
6. **personal-social skills.**

Conducting the Evaluation

When conducting an evaluation there are four common steps involved. These steps include identifying the goals and objectives of the program, collecting data, analyzing the data to identify reasons why some coaching actions were either effective or ineffective, and implementing changes to improve effectiveness.

Evaluation Steps

According to Sawyer and Gimbert (2014), there are several steps that can be used to complete an evaluation of the season, including:

- **Identify the outcomes of the season**
- **Collect evaluation data**
- **Analysis the evaluation data**
- **Implement the needed changes**

Identification of goals and objectives

Prior to the season beginning coaches should prepare and share with the athletic director, student-athletes, and parents his/her goals and objectives for the upcoming season. Involving players and parents in establishing the goals and objectives will enhance the chances of goal attainment. When players and parents know what needs to learn, the players will show improved achievement.

These goals and objectives should include general fitness and sport fitness levels to be obtained, sport skills to be mastered, sport knowledge to be learned, sport strategies and tactics to be implemented, sportsmanship levels to be maintained, and personal-social skills mastered by the student-athletes.

Once the goals and objectives are identified, the remaining evaluation steps can be completed. This step also provides a good opportunity for the coach to obtain information from others regarding the appropriateness of the season goals and objectives for the age and experience level of players.

Primary Sources of Evaluative Data

The primary sources of evaluative data should be derived from results from skill tests, knowledge tests, coach's self-evaluation, player evaluations of the coach, and parent evaluations of the coach. Assessments by others, combined with self-assessment, are more valuable than self-evaluation alone. Both approaches are recommended.

The assessment of player skill development is very useful, but it does require a time commitment by the coach. The coach needs to develop an assessment tool for assessing the players' skill and fitness development. A simple spread sheet can be used listing on the left side all the fitness and skill components to be either maintained or mastered by the player. The columns moving to the right would be used to enter data gathered about each area for each player. For example, cardiovascular fitness can be measured by a 1.5 mile run. The target might be 10 minutes and the players would be timed four times throughout the season – first practice day, day before the first contest, midway through the season, and on the last day of practice. These four recorded times would indicate progress toward the goal and maintenance of the goal over time. This can be done for other aspects of general and sport fitness as well as for the various sport skills to be mastered.

Ratings of player performance at the end of the season *(or other evaluation period)* are not very useful without knowing player performance levels at the beginning of the season. Changes in performance levels are the best indicators of your coaching effectiveness. When determining change in player performance, it is necessary to estimate performance before and after coaching occurred. Pre and post ratings are a must in this process. Without this type of comparison is impossible to determine player growth. Further, the players would complete a knowledge based examination regarding the sport they were involved in this past season. The knowledge test would focus of the rules of the game, and strategy and tactics of the game.

A player debriefing session, based upon the information included in the completed evaluation form, provides a good agenda for discussing potential changes in your coaching procedures with the person who completed the evaluation. The debriefing with the player is a two-way street. The session should be used to assist the player in becoming a better player and to assist you to become a better coach.

Sawyer and Gimbert (2014), suggest the session should include these elements:

- **Indicate that the purpose of the debriefing session is to identify both strengths and weaknesses, but the emphasis should be focused on weaknesses, and how they may be improved.**
- **Proceed through the outcome areas and their corresponding ratings, seeking to understand why each area resulted in large or small gains.**
- **In the discussion, probe for the things you as a coach can do (or avoid doing) that may produce better results. Make a special attempt to identify the reasons why a suggested alternative may produce better results.**
- **Take careful notes during the discussion. Record the alternative ideas that have good supporting rationales and how they might be implemented.**

The players should be provided an opportunity to evaluate the coaching effectiveness as well. This should be accomplished by developing a short questionnaire based on the established goals and objectives of the team for the season. The players would be summoned by the athletic director immediately after the season to complete the coaching effectiveness instrument.

Seeking parent input is always a mixed bag but a necessary step to take to secure continued parental support. This can be accomplished through a short questionnaire designed by the coach and athletic director.

The questions would focus on their perceptions of:

- **player development,**
- **team play,**
- **coach-parent communications,**
- **coach-player relationships, etc.**

This evaluation should be completed immediately after the season has concluded.

Analyze of Data

The athletic director and coach should review jointly the data from the various instruments and stakeholders completing the instruments in the evaluation process. The athletic director prior to this meeting should request that the coach complete a self-evaluation of his/her coaching effectiveness based on an instrument developed by the athletic director used with all coaches. This debriefing session should be seminar to one held by the coach with each of his/her athletes. The end result of this analyze would be a listing of next steps to be accomplished by the coach prior to the next season.

The Next Steps

Effective coaches can improve the capabilities of their players, even those with only average abilities. The most helpful approach a coach can use to improve his/her coaching effectiveness is to assume that when the performances of players do not meet expectations, the solutions to the problems can be found in coaching actions. This assumption may prove to be wrong, but the coach must be absolutely sure that he/she has considered all possibilities for self-improvement before accepting other reasons for unmet expectations.

If the coach determines that insufficient player achievement is not likely to be due to ineffective coaching, it is possible that the expectations held for the players are unrealistic. Expectations that are too high can have a negative effect on improvement. Reasonable expectations divided into achievable, small, and sequential steps will result in appropriate standards of performance.

Allotment of insufficient time for teaching and learning the objectives selected for the season can also result in poor player achievement, even when performance expectations and other coaching actions are appropriate. Players must have sufficient time to attempt a task, make errors, obtain feedback, refine their attempts, and habituate the intended actions before it is reasonable to expect them to demonstrate those actions in competition. Attempting to cover too many objectives within limited practice time is a major cause of insufficient achievement.

Finally, the primary reason for conducting an evaluation of coaching effectiveness is to learn what can be done to improve the achievement levels of your players. It is a waste of everyone's time if the changes identified that will lead to improvements are not implemented. The key to improving coaching effectiveness focuses upon communicating with players and parents, enhancing knowledge of the game, motivating players to be successful, planning the season jointly with players and parents, providing adequate instruction, and seeking evaluation of coaching effectiveness. Regardless of the level of expertise, by systematically evaluating coaching actions, the coach can find ways to become more effective and more efficient.

Reference

- Sawyer, T.H. & Gimbert, T.L. (2014). *INDIANA LANSE: A coaching education program designed for Indiana Coaches. (5th ed.)*, Terre Haute, IN: Indiana Center for Sport Education, Inc.

The secret of getting ahead is getting started. The secret of getting started is breaking your complex overwhelming tasks into small manageable tasks, and then starting on the first one.

— Mark Twain

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ABC's of Planning a Roller Skating Rink: Revisited

Tonya L. Sawyer, Ph.D.
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Abstract

Roller skating and rollerblading are two recreational activities that have evolved over time. Popular activities such as jam skating, roller derbies, and speed skating are more prominent today. Skating facilities host various types of events and parties, appealing to more than youth, but adults as well. When considering the design and construction of a roller skating facility, various aspects should be taken into consideration. The following components should be considered when designing and building a facility, not limited to the following: (1) location, (2) land, (3) type of building, (4) layout and design of building, (5) amenities and services provided (6) ownership, and (7) personnel. A planning and programming committee should be formed to assist in the development of the facility.

Key Words: design, planning, programming, roller skating, and site analysis

Introduction

Roller skating is the traveling on smooth surfaces with roller skates. It is a form of recreation as well as a sport, and can also be a form of transportation. Skates generally come in three basic varieties: quad roller skates, inline skates or blades and tri-skates, though some have experimented with a single-wheeled "quintessence skate" or other variations on the basic skate design.

Brief History of Roller Skating

In America, this hobby was most popular in the 1970s and the 1990s. The following is a short history ("Roller Skating") of roller skating:

- **1743:** First recorded use of roller skates, in a London stage performance. The inventor of this skate is lost to history.
- **1760:** First recorded skate invention, by John Joseph Merlin, who demonstrated a primitive inline skate with metal wheels.
- **1819:** First patented roller skate design, in France by M. Petitbled. These early skates were similar to today's inline skates, but they were not very maneuverable; it was very difficult with these skates to do anything but move in a straight line and perhaps make wide sweeping turns. Rest of the 19th century: inventors continued to work on improving skate design.
- **1863:** The four-wheeled turning roller skate, or quad skate, with four wheels set in two side-by-side pairs, was first designed, in New York City by James Leonard Plimpton in an attempt to improve upon previous designs, The skate contained a pivoting action using a rubber cushion that allowed the skater to skate a curve just by leaning to one side. It was a huge success, so much that the first public skating rink was opened in 1866 in Newport, Rhode Island with the support of Plimpton. The design of the quad skate allowed easier turns and maneuverability, and the quad skate came to dominate the industry for more than a century.
- **1876:** William Brown in Birmingham, England patented a design for the wheels of roller skates. Brown's design embodied his effort to keep the two bearing surfaces of an axle, fixed and moving, apart. Brown worked closely with Joseph Henry Hughes, who drew up the patent for a ball or roller bearing race for bicycle and carriage wheels in 1877. Hughes' patent included all the elements of an adjustable system. These two men are thus responsible for modern day roller skate and skateboard wheels, as well as the ball bearing race inclusion in velocipedes -- later to become motorbikes and automobiles. This was arguably, the most important advance in the realistic use of roller skates as a pleasurable pastime. An advert for an early 20th century model which fit over ordinary shoes
- **1876:** The toe stop was first patented. This provided skaters with the ability to stop promptly upon tipping the skate onto the toe. Toe stops are still used today on most quad skates and on some types of inline skates.
- **1877:** The Royal Skating indoor skating ring building is erected rue Veydt, Brussels.
- **1880s:** Roller skates were being mass produced in America from then. This was the sport's first of several boom periods. Micajah C. Henley of Richmond, Indiana, produced thousands of skates every week during peak sales. Henley skates were the first skate with adjustable tension via a screw, the ancestor of the kingbolt mechanism on modern quad skates.
- **1884:** Levant M. Richardson received a patent for the use of steel ball bearings in skate wheels to reduce friction, allowing

skaters to increase speed with minimum effort.

- **1898:** Richardson started the Richardson Ball Bearing and Skate Company, which provided skates to most professional skate racers of the time, including Harley Davidson (no relation to the Harley-Davidson motorcycle brand). In 1911, a 24-hour roller skating endurance competition was held in Paris.
- The design of the quad skate has remained essentially unchanged since then, and remained as the dominant roller skate design until nearly the end of the 20th century. The quad skate has begun to make a comeback recently due to the popularity of roller derby and jam skating.
- **1979:** Scott Olson and Brennan Olson of Minneapolis, Minnesota came across a pair of inline skates created in the 1960s by the Chicago Roller Skate Company and, seeing the potential for off-ice hockey training, set about redesigning the skates using modern materials and attaching ice hockey boots. A few years later Scott Olson began heavily promoting the skates and launched the company Rollerblade, Inc..

During the late 1980s and early 1990s, the Rollerblade-branded skates became so successful that they inspired many other companies to create similar inline skates, and the inline design became more popular than the traditional quads. The Rollerblade skates became synonymous in the minds of many with "inline skates" and skating, so much so that many people came to call any form of skating "Rollerblading," thus becoming a generic trademark.

For much of the 1980s and into the 1990s, inline skate models typically sold for general public use employed a hard plastic boot, similar to ski boots. In or about 1995, "soft boot" designs were introduced to the market, primarily by the sporting goods firm K2 Inc., and promoted for use as fitness skates. Other companies quickly followed, and by the early 2000s the development of hard shell skates and skeletons became primarily limited to the Aggressive inline skating discipline and other specialized designs.

The single-wheel "quintessence skate" was made in 1988 by Miyshael F. Gailson of Caples Lake Resort, California, for the purpose of cross-country ski skating and skiing training. Other skate designs have been experimented with over the years, including two wheeled (heel and toe) inline skate frames but the vast majority of skates on the market today are either quad or standard inline design.

The Planning and Programming Committee

According to Sawyer, Hypes, and Gimbert (2013), the roller skating organization should establish early on in the planning process an ad hoc planning and programming advisory committee (sometimes called the program committee) should be composed of the following members:

- **program specialists**
- **end users**
- **financial consultants**
- **maintenance personnel**
- **community representatives**
- **management representatives**
- **facility consultants**
- **risk management and safety consultants**

Further, Sawyer, Hypes, and Gimbert (2013) indicate the role of the planning advisory committee includes:

1. **representing all of the organization's constituencies;**
2. **overseeing and reviewing the ongoing work;**
3. **communicating with the various stakeholders about the work in progress, findings, and results;**
4. **validating the process;**
5. **resolving unsettled issues; and**
6. **endorsing the results and forwarding the master plan for approval.**

The committee should be assisted by the office staff within the organization, which should keep the senior administration advised of the ongoing work, coordinate and schedule the planning efforts, serve as committee recorder, assist in communicating the ongoing work to the stakeholders, and represent the committee at planning work sessions and related meetings.

Identification of the Roller Skating Organization's Goals and Objectives

Sawyer, Hypes, and Gimbert (2013) suggest detailed planning can begin with three concurrent studies: development of an organization profile, identification of capital improvements, and analysis of existing conditions. The development of the organization's program statement is intended to generally describe the organization's niche. The statement should include, but not be limited to:

1. **a brief history of the organization,**
2. **the organization's mission,**
3. **the organization's programs, products, and services,**
4. **the administrative structure; critical issues and strategic responses,**
5. **goals and objectives for the organization,**
6. **details about clientele,**
7. **an outline of short-range planning, mid-range planning, and long-range planning,**
8. **and other programmatic features that help describe the organization as a distinctive operational entity.**

Finally, the statement should conclude with a descriptive overview of how the existing situation is expected to change strategically during the period covered by the proposed organization master plan and the implications and consequences such changes may have on the physical development of the organization.

It is important to compile a ten-year listing of projected capital improvements for the organization, according to Sawyer, Hypes, and Gimbert (2013). Capital improvement items should include buildings, landscape, circulation *(i.e., pedestrian and vehicular traffic)*, infrastructure *(i.e., chilled air, electricity, roadways, sewage, sidewalks, steam, telecommunications, water, etc.)*, land acquisition, and actions that will change and modify the existing physical plant *(e.g., new state highway right-of-way)*.

The objective of the survey of existing conditions is to discover and describe elements that, in combination, typically help create, inform, and/or express the organization as a physical place designed and operated as an organization for a specific purpose and located in a setting that has tangible physical characteristics. Certain items should be identified and defined in graphic and narrative formats so as to describe location, function, and physical character of elements.

Sawyer, Hypes, and Gimbert (2013) indicate such items include:

1. **land ownership, land forms and topography,**
2. **microclimate, soils and related subsurface conditions,**
3. **recreational, social, and cultural patterns,**
4. **land use,**
5. **building use,**
6. **buildings rated by physical condition,**
7. **building entrances, exits, and service points,**
8. **pedestrian and vehicular circulation systems,**
9. **public transportation,**
10. **parking,**
11. **landscapes,**
12. **ecological and natural settings, views, vistas, and related design features,**
13. **major utilities by location, type, and condition,**
14. **site history and heritage,**
15. **site and building accessibility,**
16. **and site and building problems.**

Synthesis and Evaluation of Findings

After establishing an ad hoc planning advisory committee, completing briefings and initiating plan studies, and identifying and confirming master plan goals and objectives, it is time to synthesize and evaluate those findings. This effort should begin to clarify issues and opportunities that should be addressed by the organization and should establish and confirm the direction of the master plan. According to Sawyer, Hypes, and Gimbert (2013), the issues and opportunities that should surface during the synthesis and evaluation effort relate to the following:

- **The organization's image.**
- **A sense of place for the improvements.**
- **Existing and new initiatives that may require new building(s) and infrastructure, improvements and revitalization of existing physical resources, and potential demolition.**
- **Expansion of present facilities should occur only after careful and thorough evaluation of projected needs and capabilities of existing facilities.**
- **Once needs are established, the following approaches, listed in priority order, are generally considered the most appropriate way to proceed with the program requirements:**

    1. **higher usage of existing space,**
    2. **renovation of existing structures,**
    3. **infill *(i.e., adding vertically or horizontally to existing structures)*, and**
    4. **expansion of facilities into new areas on the organization's site.**

The master plan, according to Sawyer, Hypes, and Gimbert (2013), needs to take into consideration generally accepted land use guidelines such as:

1. **the highest and best use should be made of all land,**
2. **avoid land-use conflicts *(i.e., neighboring residential and commercial areas)*,**
3. **areas should complement each other and promote a visual interest and functionally fit the remainder of the organization's site,**
4. **facilities should be constructed only on sites that best meet programmatic and environmental objectives of the organization, and**
5. **the organization should develop a no-build policy relating to the preservation of historic sites or open spaces.**

Further, the master plan should contain goals and objectives for circulation and transportation on the organization's site.

Sawyer, Hypes, and Gimbert (2013) indicate these goals and objectives should include, but not be limited to:

1. **general access to the organization,**
2. **vehicular circulation, parking,**
3. **pedestrian and bicycle circulation, and**
4. **transit.**

Another extremely important aspect of the master plan will be the utilities and service elements. A consolidated utility system consistent with the projected needs of the organization should be developed. This system should be designed for simplicity of maintenance and future needs for extension or expansion of the utility network.

The master plan should consider the landscape design. The primary landscape goal for the campus should be to present an image with a high degree of continuity and quality. The landscape design should take into consideration the organization's buildings and grounds, accessibility issues, fire, security, energy conservation, and desired development beyond the organization's property line.

Regional Analysis

Sufficient data must be gathered about the off-site surroundings to ensure that the project will be compatible with surrounding environments, both manmade and natural. This part of the design process is referred to as the regional analysis.

Sawyer, Hypes, Gimbert (2013) say it should include:

- **Service area of the facility under construction *(i.e., major facilities such as parks, large commercial areas facilities, and minor facilities, such as children's playgrounds, senior citizen centers, local library, etc.)*.**
- **User demand *(i.e., determining the kind of use desired by clients, activity interests, demographic makeup of residents, local leadership, and calculating the number of users)*.**
- **Access routes *(i.e., major and secondary routes)*.**
- **Governmental functions and boundaries *(i.e., contact the local planning agency and local government offices)*.**
- **Existing and proposed land uses *(i.e., gathering information about abutting land ownership, adjacent land uses, land use along probable access routes, off-site flooding and erosion problems, offsite pollution sources, views [especially of aesthetic and historic interest], and significant local architectural or land use characteristics)*.**
- **Regional influences *(i.e., check for anything unusual or unique that could either enhance or cause problems to the project)*.**
- **Site Analysis**
- **The planning committee will need to consider various pieces of information prior to selecting the building site.**

The considerations for site selection *(Flynn, 1985; Fogg, 1986; Sawyer, 1999, 2002, 2005, & 2009) include:*

- **Access to the site *(i.e., ingress and egress, surrounding traffic generators, accessibility via public transportation)*,**
- **Circulation within the site *(e.g., roads—paved and unpaved,***

bicycle trails, walks and hiking trails),

- **Parking,**
- **Water supply,**
- **Sewage disposal,**
- **Electrical service,**
- **Telecommunication service,**
- **Other utilities, including oil/natural gas transmission lines, or cable TV,**
- **Structures to be constructed or renovated,**
- **Environmental concerns and conditions on and off property** ***(e.g., noise, air, water, and visual pollution).***
- **Easements and other legal issues** ***(e.g., deed restrictions, rights of way, and less-than-fee-simple ownership),***
- **Zoning requirements** ***(i.e., changing the zoning is usually time consuming and expensive and frequently not possible),***
- **Historical significance,**
- **Any existing uses (activities) on the site,**
- **Climactic conditions prevalent in the area by season** ***(e.g., temperature, humidity, air movement velocity, duration, and direction, amount of sunshine, precipitation—rain, sleet, snow, sun angles and subsequent shadows, special conditions—ice storms, hurricanes, tornadoes, heavy fog, heavy rainstorm, floods, and persistent cloud cover),***
- **Nuisance potentials** ***(e.g., children nearby, noise, etc.),***
- **Natural features** ***(e.g., topography, slope analysis, soil conditions, geology, hydrology, flora and fauna),***
- **Economic impact of a site** ***(e.g., labor costs, growth trends, population shifts, buying power index, available work force, property taxes, tax Incentives, surrounding competition, utility costs, incentives, area of dominant influence [ADI], designated market area [DMA], and established enterprise zones),***
- **Natural barriers and visibility,**
- **Supporting demographics** ***(e.g., age, gender, occupation, marital status, number of children, expenditures, education, income, number of earners in the family, ethnic background, etc.)*** **and psychographics** ***(e.g., lifestyle data or lifestyle marketing),*** **and**
- **Security concerns** ***(e.g., proximity of police, fire, emergency medical personnel, hospitals).***

The most important aspects of site selection are location, location, and location. If the site is not in the most accessible location with a high profile for people to recognize, it will have a negative effect on the success of the venture.

Common Components of a Roller Skating Rink

Planners need to consider the following components for a roller skating rink that will make it financially successful with multiple streams of revenue:

Skating Area with:

- **a wood (Maple) (most expensive), concrete (least expensive), or composite (moderate expense) floor,**
- **Basic shape either rectangular or oval,**
- **three to four foot tall railings on the wall of the skating area for beginners to utilize,**
- **10' to 12' ceiling,**
- **Multiple color overhead lighting, spotlights, and crystal ball,**
- **Padded walls up to 5' high on the side and end walls of the rink, and audio**
- **Concession area with snack bar seating (size per unit would be 47") should include the following equipment:**
- **Stove,**
- **Pizza oven,**
- **Cotton candy machine,**
- **Hot dog machines,**
- **Nacho cheese dispenser,**
- **Soda dispenser,**
- **Microwave,**
- **Oven,**
- **Double sink,**
- **Refrigerator,**
- **Freezer, and**
- **Popcorn popper,**

Changing Area for Skaters to Put on Skates with:

- **Rolled colorful carpeting or carpet tile flooring,**
- **Benches, and**
- **Storage lockers for skaters,**
- **Party room (e.g., birthday and graduation parties),**
- **Seating for spectators,**
- **Game area,**
- **Pro shop to sell skates, toy novelties, uniforms, and more,**
- **Skate rental area with skate storage for 200 to 1,000 skates,**
- **Control booth for audio and lighting,**

Signage such as:

- **Risk management**
- **Safety**
- **Informational**
- **Operational**
- **Rest Rooms, and**
- **Offices.**

Design Spaces for a Roller Skating Rink

The planning committee needs to consider the following details in designing the roller skating rink:

Building

The inside of the building on average would be between 26,000 and 29,000 square feet. The building could be a steel building with a pitched roof. On the exterior surface would be space for promotional signage.

Skating Area

The size of the skating area would be 10,500 square feet designed as a rectangle (75'-150') or oval. There would be a padded five-foot wall (or taller) around the floor with an opening into the non-skating areas of the rink. There would be a railing on the inside of the rink three feet from the floor surface to aid novice skaters.

Non-Skating Areas

In this area there will be multiple spaces designed to generate additional revenue. This area should be as large as the skating area.

The following non-skating spaces include a concessions and snack bar area, skate rental space with skate storage for 200 to 1,000 skates, skate staging or changing area, locker/patron storage area, party room, game area, rest rooms, pro-shop, and spectator area.

Operational Area

This area will house offices and control booth with sound and lighting controls.

Rink Layout

The main entrance should have an entrance door into a short hallway leading to a ticket booth then a second door to enter the rink proper. There should also be a separate exit way to the parking lot.

The concession/snack area should be located near the entrance. It should have a kitchen space with a large counter to serve customers. There should be plenty of electrical sources throughout the space. A double sink with counters on either side should be planned. There should be a food pantry to store supplies. The customer area should be large enough to seat 20 to 24 customers. The floor in the kitchen should be ceramic tile with an adequate number of drains in the floor.

The pro-shop should be connected to the skate rental and repair area. The pro-shop would be designed as a normal retail space with racks and counters to display all the items for sale. There should be a storage closet for the pro-shop as well. The skate rental area needs a large counter area and shelving to store between 200 and 1,000 skates. Behind the storage area should be a repair area with tables and counters to work on skates and store equipment. The floor in these areas could be carpet or carpet tiles.

The rest rooms need to be able to accommodate six to eight people at one time. The walls and floor need to be ceramic tile. The faucets and flushing mechanisms need to be automated as well as the paper towel dispensers. There should also be a baby changing area, including a table or counter space. There needs to be handicapped accessible toilets and urinal. Mirrors should be installed above the sinks. The floor needs to have adequate drainage.

The skate changing area needs to have benches for the skaters and lockable storage lockers close by to store their street cloths and valuables. The flooring in this area would be carpet or carpet tiles.

Party Area

The party area may be used for a variety of events. Ample space should be provided to allow for tables, chairs and seating, as well as activities. Depending on the type of environment and atmosphere, as well as budget, other items such as the use of flat screen televisions, ceiling mounted projectors, and decorations may be considered. Garbage bins and cleaning items should also be stored either in a locked closet space in the room or nearby for easy access for spills and clean-up. The flooring in this area could be carpet or carpet tiles.

Game Area

The game area should include age appropriate games and accessibility. The number and various types of games provided will depend on the budget and space available. Some games may include winning various prizes, tokens, or tickets to use for prizes. Those prizes could be incorporated near or combined with the pro-shop. The flooring in this area could be carpet or carpet tiles as well.

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Coaching Leadership Styles: Making the Case for Positive Coaching

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Abstract

In athletics, a coach is a person involved in the direction, instruction and training of the operations of individual sportspeople. Coaching is a highly visible profession that continually exposes an individual to the public's scrutiny and evaluation. There are numerous ways in which an athlete's sport experience can be impacted by the coach. Coaches have the option to adopt their own coaching style, and thus they should consider the ramifications of different leadership styles they may employ. Previous research indicates that the positive style of coaching can prompt greater participation and continuation in sport. The purpose of this paper is to discuss the important topic of leadership in coaching. This information on leadership styles can be helpful for coaches who are developing and/or continually calibrating their own style of leading while training aspiring young athletes.

Keywords: Coaching style, cooperative, sport experience

Introduction

Clearly, participation in sport plays a big role in the educational process and is a very effective means to promote learning (Judge & Gilreath, 2009). A good coach understands that what he or she is teaching goes far beyond the skills, tactics and strategies (X's & O's) of sport. Essentially, a coach is a role model and leader presented with a very important opportunity to set a point of reference for the athlete's past, current and future sporting experiences (Ferkel & Judge, 2016). According to Merten (2008), the three coaching styles utilized today are command, submissive and cooperative orientations (p. 8). Merten details that in the cooperative coaching style, an adult leader/coach and a youth establish a set of goals together as an interdependent team (p. 2). The coach and athlete set forth to work together toward meeting these established goals. The command coaching style, in contrast to a cooperative coaching style, relies upon a more dogmatic authoritarian approach rather than a flexible participatory one. The coach in the command leadership style, in a sense, more clearly oversees all aspects of practice and competition according to his or her own ideal rather than an ideal set between the coach and his or her players (Ferkel & Judge, 2016). Submissive style coaching represents a marked contrast to command coaching; the athletes make the majority decisions and the coach commands little authority in this leadership style. Despite the varying styles of coaching, cooperative coaching tends to employ a more positive communication style by the coach and healthier relationships between the coaches and athletes, which seems to be a favorable outcome, particularly as it relates to fostering long term participation in sport and lifelong adherence to regular physical activity (Ferkel & Judge, 2016).

The numerous benefits of positive coaching include: better overall athlete experience, higher team success, greater personal development, and additional satisfaction for the coach. Positive coaching is ultimately beneficial at any age and skill level, but its importance in youth sport is unmatched. Understanding how supportive coaching can have a positive holistic effect on youth athletes can help any coach to adapt their style to do what is best for the athlete, for the team, and for himself. Before examining the research findings of the many benefits that positive coaching can have, it is important to gain a preliminary understanding of what positive coaching is. As McPartlin (2010) very simply explained, coaches can only reinforce their players in two ways: positive or negative. Which of these paths a coach chooses can make all the difference. Some signs of positive coaching include behaviors such as individualized instruction, development of team cohesion, active listening, and performance-based encouragement (McPartlin, 2010). On the contrary, negative coaches tends to place all their focus on winning, spending less time worrying about the welfare of the athlete as a person and a player, and more on the final outcome. This negative style can also include using negative reinforcement to try and build success (McPartlin, 2010). The purpose of this paper is to discuss the important topic of leadership in coaching. The following sections will include analysis of research on some of the effects of positive and negative coaching styles, including some examples of how these may be seen in a sport setting.

The Impact of Coaching Style on Athlete Development

As a youth in sport, athletes are in a prime position to be affected and influenced by those around them. As Trottier and Robitaille (2014) explain, "The time when adolescents are involved in sport coincides with a crucial development period, when they are learning the values and life skills that will carry them through adulthood" (p. 10). They go on to explain that a coach is the person who has the greatest ability to influence the experience of young athletes. Because it is such an influential time in their lives, it is important that their experiences in sport be positive to their development. It is a popular assumption that sports are always a growing experience, but the truth is that it can just as easily be harmful. "It all depends on the particular experience of the young athlete," (Trottier & Robitaille, 2014, p. 10).

One of the ways coaching can influence athletes is through their self-talk, or the formation of thoughts within an individual which can impact performance (Zourbanos, Hatzigeorgiadis, Tsiakaras, Chroni, & Theodorakis, 2010). In the past, much research has been conducted on self-talk, resulting in an understanding that its effectiveness can be very good. Zourbanos et al. (2010) conducted further research to determine whether coaching behavior might influence an athlete's self-talk. A majority of the research resulted in the conclusion that positive coaching was strongly correlated with positive self-talk. Even when the research controlled for game circumstances, which can also influence self-talk, the results showed a continued importance on coaching behavior (Zourbanos et al., 2010). In other words, when a coach uses positively reinforcing behaviors, it often results in the athletes generating more positive thoughts and thus more positive performance. This is one way that a coach can support the athlete's mental preparation, an important part of success in any sport. It is important to note that the research also showed one sample that responded differently, with negative coaching actually leading to positive self-talk (Zourbanos et al., 2010). This is a more rare result, and often can depend on the nature of the sport being played. It is a technique found in older, more traditional coaches who use negative behavior to motivate their players. Overall, it is a risky strategy based on the numbers in the results and could produce more negative response than positive for a majority of the athletes.

In another, similar area of study, research was conducted to examine a further mental component of athletes and how coaching behaviors can influence it. This component is stress, something that can be a major part of many lives, especially of athletes in sports. As Nicolas, Gaudreau, and Franche (2011) define it, "Coping with the stress of sport competition is recognized as a pivotal self-regulatory factor to promote optimal levels of sport achievement," (p. 460). Dealing with stress is an important part of an athlete's mental game and can dictate whether or not success is achieved. This research study sought to examine how supportive coaching may result in different coping methods for athletes. In examining stress and methods for coping with it, Nicolas, Gaudreau, and Franche (2011) discussed two methods: task-oriented coping and disengagement-oriented coping. These were the main outcomes that could be seen in an athlete depending on the coaching style used. Task-oriented coping is a direct method of managing stress through various techniques. Some of the most common of these techniques are thought control, which is similar to self-talk, relaxation, and mental imagery, among others. Nicolas, Gaudreau, and Franche (2011) found that supportive coaching behaviors became a resource for an athlete to engage in task-oriented coping behaviors. Positive coaching behaviors also resulted in more positive reaction and handling of stress for athletes. Conversely, coaching behaviors such as pressuring or being unsupportive resulted in disengagement-oriented coping, a more negative result (Nicolas, Gaudreau, & Franche, 2011). Athletes who fall into this type of coping usually withdraw, removing themselves from the process of even striving for any desired outcomes. Ultimately, task-oriented coping is shown to lead to greater achievement of goals in sport, therefore positive coaching has a direct correlation to these greater results. An indirect result, as stress is managed more positively, is greater well-being for the athlete, a topic that will be visited in greater detail in a later section.

The coach and athlete relationship is another area that can be affected by coaching style. Hollembeak and Amorose (2005) conducted a study to evaluate this relationship, determining how specific coaching behaviors can influence a coach's relationship with their athletes and ultimately the motivation of those athletes. They studied a few specific areas, including competence and relatedness, the two areas that had the most direct connection to positive coaching. Relatedness, as used in this study, is a desire to have a sense of connection with those around us, while competence describes an athlete's need to perceive his or her behavior as effective (Hollembeak & Amorose, 2005). In regards to positive coaching behaviors, there was a positive relationship with relatedness. This follows a logical explanation in that, as a coach interacts positively with his players, the sense of connection and relationship that grows between them will be more positive. When it comes to competence, on the other hand, it is important for positive coaching to be held in balance. Too much positive reinforcement can be interpreted negatively with regards to competence. As Hollembeak and Amorose (2005) describe from their results, too much praise can be a bad thing, and athletes "interpreted this feedback as a sign that their coach did not think they were competent at their sport," (p. 33). Understanding that result can help a coach to remember that, while striving to coach positively and give positive feedback, it must also be genuine and appropriate for the situation.

When positive coaching styles are used, they must not only be genuine and appropriate, but consistent. Coaching and leadership expert Jeff Janssen (2002) describes consistency as being one of the keys for a coach. He must be consistent in his strategies, standards for the team, and in his feedback. Similar to the results of Hollembeak and Amorose's (2005) research, consistency in regards to the situations when a coach gives positive feedback will lead to more credibility and buy-in from players, which in turn can lead to success. As legendary University of Tennessee women's basketball coach Pat Summit said, "To be credible, you must be consistent. Any sign of inconsistency, you lose credibility instantly," (as cited in Janssen, 2002). The implication of each of these is clear; positive coaching cannot simply be undertaken haphazardly. It is a strategy that can be effective, but it must be done intentionally and authentically.

In his report on positive coaching and the wins that result from it, McPartlin (2010) gave possibly the best summary of results. Beyond defining a positive coach, McPartlin explained many of the results that positive coaching can have. He described that, unsurprisingly, players who are coached by those who employ positive methods tend to like both their teammates and coaches more. They also experience better team cohesion, an aspect that can result in greater athletic success. Overall, these athletes have a greater experience in athletics. At the youth level, the experience they have is the ultimate goal, and, as mentioned previously, a positive experience can have other positive effects on their lives. McPartlin (2010) describes more of these effects, including self-confidence. When a coach demonstrates positive behavior, such a focus of maximum effort and on learning as opposed to winning, it breeds self-confidence in the athletes, allowing them to perform without the fear for making mistakes. This is a lesson that can carry into many other aspects of life for these young men and women. Sport has been shown to heavily influence athletes' prosocial and antisocial behavior both during their time in sport, and later in life. Prosocial behaviors are behaviors that "help" or "benefit another person", while antisocial behaviors "harm or disadvantage another individual" (Hodge and Lonsdale, 2011). These prosocial and antisocial behaviors can stem directly from the coaches use of negative or positive coaching style. A coach, who uses negative coaching style and focuses his team solely on winning, might encourage athletes to more antisocial behavior, such as "intimidating an opponent" (Hodge and Lonsdale, 2011). This antisocial behavior during sport could transfer to antisocial behavior later on in life, especially for younger, more impressionable athletes.

McPartlin (2010) also shared some results similar to those of the previous research. First, he analyzed the topic of dealing with stress for an athlete. He described positive coaching as a way to come between a player and his or her anxiety, helping alleviate some of the stress and ultimately leading to better performance and well-being for that person. Supporting the athletes socially is another important way of decreasing stress, according to McPartlin (2010). Additionally, sport related stress might not only affect the athlete's performance and enjoyment, but it can also lead to an increased risk of injury. If negative coaching behaviors leads to all of these things, it is shaping up to be a lose-lose situation. McPartlin (2010) also stressed the importance of being sincere and genuine in regards to a coach's reinforcement, coaching style, and feedback. This factor can greatly influence motivation in an athlete, which is one of the biggest topics consistently visited by coaches and those hoping to understand how to get the most out of athletes. McPartlin (2010) described this, saying, "When a player believes that no matter how well she/he is playing, she/he is going to be punished or verbally criticized, she/he is more likely to stop trying" (p. 21). This use of negative coaching, where "shame, blame or fear tactics" are used to motivate athletes, can greatly affect the athlete-coach relationship (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Thogersen-Ntoumani, 2010). Putting undue pressure on athletes and creating an environment where "the self-worth and reputation of the coach may equate to the performance of his or her athletes causes the athletes to become more vulnerable" (Bartholomew et al., 2010).

This issue of motivation shows that negative reinforcement can often eventually lead to a strong lack of motivation in athletes. This decrease in intrinsic motivation affects the overall success of the athlete and of the team in a negative way. Finally, McPartlin (2010) summarizes the effect of positive feedback on player performance, describing how "clear, positive, and consistent evaluation" (p. 21) can lead to improved performance. Behavior will not change immediately, but the research leads to a conclusion that positive coaching behaviors, exhibited 80 to 90 percent of the time, should lead to a positive change in behavior. These numbers help to show that positive coaching habits should be the overwhelming favorite in a coach's repertoire.

If the many benefits that can be had by individual athletes and through the success of the team as a whole are not quite enough, supportive coaching can also have a positive outcome on the coaches themselves. In a study that sought to determine what components are the greatest sources of joy for coaches, Baltzell et al. (2014) examined a great number of criteria. Some overall themes emerged as areas where coaches receive the largest amount of joy in their jobs. The top theme was that of athlete growth and success. This included success both on and off the field of play, including athletic success, personal development, and social and emotional growth. All of these have been mentioned as potential results of positive coaching behaviors. One coach described his joy in "seeing how my kids treat their teammates and opponents, they show great poise and respect." (Baltzell et al., 2014, p. 10). That type of behavior is, as much of the above research has alluded, not nearly as likely in an athlete who may be dealing with the stress of negative coaching. Two other areas where coaches found great joy in their jobs were in the relationships they created with their athletes and in being a positive influence on them. Once again, these are things that are directly correlated with research results for positive and supportive coaching. It is clear that positive coaching not only can have benefits on the athletes and the teams, but it can in turn positively influence the coaches themselves.

Having examined much research above and analyzed the effects of positive coaching on athletes, it is fairly clear that it is a method that would be useful for almost any coach to adapt, especially at the youth sport level. There are countless applications and examples of how it can produce the best results in real situations. As Janssen (2002) explains, the most successful coaches have two main qualities: concern for productivity and care for people. A coach with a negative reinforcement strategy could have one of these, but only a positive coach will have both. At the simplest level, a coach looking to improve the way they work with their team can use all the above information to guide their behavior to the positive, keeping in mind to care both for the productivity of the team as well as the members of it.

First and foremost, youth coaches should take up the main application for positive coaching styles. At a time in a child's life that is so influential, a coach needs to be an individual that is filling them up with positivity. Because it is such an influential time in the child's life, the effects of negative or positive coaching can have long-term effects. Many coaches try to emphasize having fun, but during intense moments of training or play this value can be abandoned. The coach used for this particular study was adept at keeping fun and love of the game in the forefront of his player's minds. Because of this use of positive coaching, his team regarded him with respect, and was more receptive to instruction and coaching. This mutual respect and positive relationship between team and coach translated into wins on the baseball field. Said coach was able to develop the skills of each team member, regardless of talent level, due to his focus on team and fun rather than strictly wins.

In concluding this project, it was helpful to gain the perspective of a current coach. Corey Ziedonis, assistant coach for Ball State Men's Golf, offered the following perspective. He believes positive reinforcement is always better than negative, both for the team and for the players as individuals. He even tries to implement positive punishment. He explained, "For good behavior, we take away some of the workouts that guys don't enjoy doing. It helps reinforce their good behavior." (C. Ziedonis, personal communication, November 19, 2015). While understanding mistakes and shortcomings is important to growth, Coach Ziedonis prefers to stay on the positive side. It helps with the team to focus on their successes as a way to replicate them. If the negatives are always the focal point, these failures will always be on the mind of the players, and they will be playing in a more defensive and negative manner, instead of playing to succeed. In a sport with such a strong mental component, Ziedonis explained, it is important to keep the mentally positive. "Negative punishment can bring to life negative behavior, and that's not what we want." (C. Ziedonis, personal communication, November 19, 2015). Finally, Coach Ziedonis said that, since he has shifted the team's focus to being more positive, the players' reactions have been very good. The morale of the team is higher, they have more effective practices, and most of all the athletes are becoming more willing to put in extra effort without needing to be told to by the coaches.

Conclusion

For young athletes, particularly at the time of their sport participation, the coach is one of the most prominent role models in the athlete's life. When it comes to coaching, it is clear that there are many styles to choose from. At the simplest level, it seems that all coaches tend to use either positive coaching or negative coaching styles. After examining a number of research studies, it is clear that the effects of positive coaching can span well beyond the realm of just the sport for an athlete. It can lead to better self-confidence, less stress, and more social interaction. It encourages strong relationships, teaches athletes how to deal with conflict, and can even produce better character through the many life skills that can be learned. Being a positive coach even has benefits for the coach, bringing greater joy to his or her life. It seems that the choice is simple, that using positive coaching is a win all the way around.

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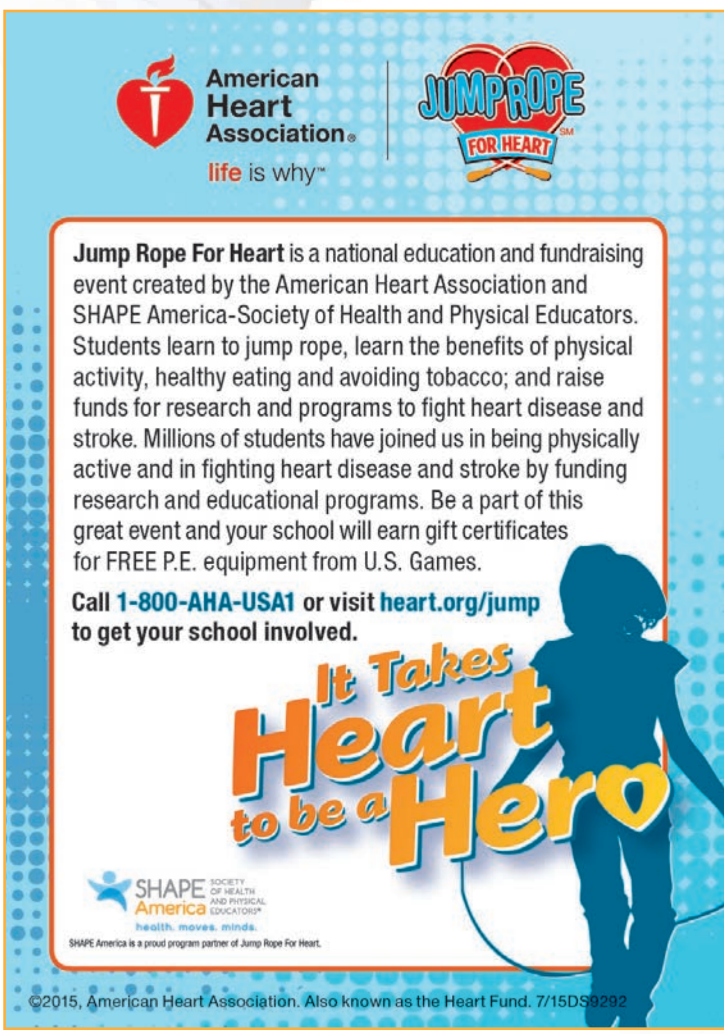

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An Examination of College Students' Intrapersonal and Interpersonal Motivations and Barriers to Engagement in Exercise

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine motivational factors to exercise and also identify the perceived constraints that impact regular engagement in exercise among college students. This study was conducted because many college students fall short of recommended amounts of exercise and/or exercise in accordance with externally driven expectations related to "ideal" body shape and size (Lowry, et al., 2000; Nelson, Gortmaker, Sabramanian, & Welchsler, 2007). In order to gain insight into reasons why students do or do not exercise, an investigation of motivations to exercise and constraints acting upon exercise occurred. Participants consisted of students who were enrolled at a small private university located in the Midwestern United States. A total of 26 (21 female, 5 male) undergraduate and graduate students (average age 20.2 years) completed surveys focusing upon their motivations to exercise and barriers influencing their ability to exercise regularly. The most frequently cited reasons to exercise were to improve appearance, reduce stress, and maintain weight. School workload and a desire to engage in other activities with one's time were the two most frequently identified constraints acting against participants' exercise regimens. Because participants cited externally driven motivations to exercise and also cited time as a factor in not exercising enough, suggestions to help students not only exercise more frequently but also to engage in exercise in a healthy and responsible fashion were offered.

Keywords: exercise, college students, motivation, constraints

Introduction

The benefits associated with exercising regularly are numerous. Regular engagement in exercise has been associated with lower risk for heart disease, stroke, diabetes, and high blood pressure (Keating, Guan, Pinero, & Bridges, 2005). Maintenance of a healthy body weight is another positive outcome. In addition to the physical benefits, regular engagement in exercise positively impacts one's psychological health (Racette, Deusinger, S., Strube, Highstein, & Deusinger, R., 2005; Rodgers & Sullivan, 2001). Reductions in anxiety as well as improvements in cognitive function have been associated with exercising regularly (Rovniak, Anderson, Winett, & Stephens, 2002).

Although numerous physiological and psychological benefits result, college students and other young adults often fall short with regard to recommended amounts of exercise (Lowry et al., 2000; Nelson, Gortmaker, Sabramanian, & Welchsler, 2007). It is believed that less than 40% of college students engage in recommended daily amounts of moderately strenuous exercise and less than 20% satisfy suggested amounts of daily vigorous exercise (Lowry et al., 2000). Furthermore, Racette et al. (2005) found that nearly 40% of college students failed to engage in exercise of any kind on a regular basis. An inactive lifestyle developed during college may have negative implications beyond the college years, as those students who develop an inactive lifestyle during these years are at increased risk for continued inactivity throughout adulthood (Bray & Born, 2004).

Motivation to engage in physical activity

A key factor influencing engagement in exercise is self-motivation (Lowry et al., 2000; Kilpatrick, Hebert, & Bartholomew, 2005; Egli, Bland, Melton, & Czech, 2011). Motivation is a critical element with regard to engagement because individuals with higher motivation are more likely to engage in exercise regularly over a sustained period of time than people with lower levels of motivation (Frederick, Morrison, & Manning, 1996). An individual's motivation to exercise could be driven by the outcome expectations s/he might possess. Outcome expectations are beliefs related to the likelihood of a given behavior producing a particular result or outcome (Bandura, 1997).

The expectations that motivate an individual to begin or continue an exercise regimen could be driven by various internally and/or externally generated reasons (Petosa, Suminski, & Hortz, 2003; Conroy, Elavsky, Doerkesen, & Maher, 2013). For example, an individual might exercise for the personal pleasure and satisfaction derived from the activity itself. Improvements to one's own health and well-being are also internally driven reasons to exercise. Though the perception may be that internal motivations are superior to the external, it is often external factors that lead to increased exercise behavior.

An individual who is motivated to exercise by external factors to exercise could be interested in appearance related outcomes (Egli et al., 2011), which may be problematic. In order to lose fat and/or weight in seeking to obtain a particular appearance, the individual might over-exercise. In addition, s/he might employ other extreme means, such as fasting, purging, and fad diets to achieve a lean body (Burkett, Rena, Jones, Stone, & Klein, 2002). These behaviors are harmful because they could increase the risk for developing an eating disorder (Koff & Bauman, 1997). Furthermore, obsessing over one's physical appearance might cause an individual to experience body image distortion and develop psychological problems (Springer, Winzelberg, Perkins, & Taylor, 1998).

In order to help students refrain from these dangerous practices, some educational institutions have incorporated multidimensional wellness courses into the curriculum. These courses seek to improve student emotional health and well-being with improved physical functioning by focusing simultaneously on improving fitness, promoting healthy nutritional habits, and developing effective stress management techniques (Koff & Bauman, 1997). Objectives often include changing attitudes toward physical appearance, personal fitness, body satisfaction and reducing preoccupation with weight. Positive outcomes resulting from students' enrollment in these courses have been found. For instance, Springer et al. (1998) examined the effects of a wellness course upon perceptions of body image among female college students and found positive results with regard to the impact this course had upon their perceptions. In addition, Koff and Bauman (1997) examined three different types of wellness courses in order to determine the effect each class had upon students' perspectives of body image and found improvements in perceived body image among the students enrolled in the course.

Constraints that limit physical activity engagement

There are many reasons that could motivate an individual to begin and then maintain an exercise regimen. It is possible, however, that various constraints could negatively impact an individual, regardless of the person's level of motivation. Constraining factors limit participation opportunities for people of all ages, various socioeconomic groups, and geographic locations. Crawford & Godbey (1987) first identified three categories of constraints that influence opportunities to exercise. Those categories are intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural. These constraints connect to various attributes and characteristics specific to the individual as well as external circumstances that serve as restraining forces upon the individual.

Intrapersonal constraints reflect factors internal to the individual that hinder or prevent one's engagement in exercise. This constraint includes the psychological state and attributes of the individual (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991). Stress, depression, anxiety, perceived self-skill, and perceptions of appropriateness are examples of internally driven factors that influence individuals' behaviors and could influence engagement in exercise (Sabiston & Crocker, 2008).

Interpersonal constraints develop from interactions that occur and relationships that exist between the individual and others (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Social networks such as family members and peer groups could serve as interpersonal constraints (Barrett, 2008). For example, the attitudes possessed by a social contact toward physical activities or a particular activity could affect the individual's preferences and motivations with regard to exercising. Therefore, dissimilarity between the preferences of the individual and other members of that individual's social network could serve as a constraint to engagement. Lack of suitable co-participants could also serve as a constraining factor. An individual who possesses an interest in certain activities that necessitate the involvement of another, but lacks an appropriate training partner, would be unable to commence engagement in that activity. Within the college student population, lack of training partners, inactive friends, and social obligations have been cited as interpersonal constraints that could prevent engagement in exercise (Bray, 2007).

Structural constraints could include numerous factors such as financial resources, geography, occupational obligations, and proximity to facilities (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). For instance, an individual might wish to participate in a particular activity and interacts with someone in his/her social network who supports the engagement. However, the facility in which the activity is offered may not be accessible to the individual due to such hindrances as cost, open hours, or location. As a result, engagement in the activity does not occur.

With regard to college students, a potential structural constraint is life change. Jackson (2005) stated that life transitions serve as a structural constraint that affect one's ability to engage in an exercise regimen. College students are a population in the midst of an important transitional period. The transition out of high school could be a stressful time because it could be marked by numerous changes (Gall, Evans, & Bellerose, 2000). Changes could include new living arrangements, a new daily routine, and new demands upon time. Given that this is considered one of the first major transitions an individual faces in his/her life, a student's ability to engage in an exercise regimen could change as s/he starts to encounter time demands that haven't been previously experienced.

This transition and experience of encountering new demands that subsequently arise could impact health related behaviors. Doerksen, Umstattd, and McAuley (2009) argued that students intend to engage in exercise when they begin their college careers, but these intentions are not fulfilled as they start to encounter new routines and demands that alter these intentions. Changes in lifestyle patterns and greater time constraints have been identified as major reasons why exercise engagement decreased during the transition from high school to college (Bray & Horn, 2004). Additional constraining factors have also included school workload and commitments such as part time employment that occur outside the academic setting (Kwan & Faulkner, 2011).

Pauline (2013) stated, "Additional knowledge and understanding regarding college students' physical activity behavior and its determinants can provide a fundamental basis for changing their physical activity and improving the overall health of this population" (p. 66). Furthermore, a focus on college students is important due to the multiple transitions and development faced during the college and young adult years. With college students being an at-risk population for physical inactivity, it is important for health and fitness professionals to determine what motivates college students to exercise and also gain insight into constraints that are acting upon them, potentially preventing them from exercising. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine motivational factors to exercise and also identify the perceived constraints that impact regular engagement in exercise among college students.

Method

Participants

Participants consisted of students who were enrolled at a small private university located in the Midwestern United States. A total of 26 (21 female, 5 male) undergraduate and graduate students (average age 20.2 years) completed the surveys in their entirety. Two additional surveys were not completed in their entirety; therefore, they were not included in the assessment. Twenty-three of the 26 participants were undergraduates (5 freshmen, 8 sophomores, 3 juniors, and 7 seniors). The remaining participants were enrolled in graduate studies at the same institution. In addition, participants were asked to indicate their residency and employment status. With regard to residency, 17 of the participants resided in on-campus housing and 9 commuted to campus. Fifteen of the 26 participants stated they held a job, with all but two of those reporting working less than 20 hours per week. Seven indicated working 1-10 hours per week and six indicated working 11-20 hours per week. The remaining two participants reported working 21-30 hours per week.

Data Collection Instrument

A 26-item survey was created in order to collect demographic information, motivations to exercise, and factors acting upon participants' exercise regimens. Demographic information that was collected from the participants included age, gender, class rank, and residency status. Survey items were modified from the Exercise Motivation Inventory (EMI) and designed to gain insight into reasons why participants engaged in exercise. Created by Markland and Hardy (1993), the EMI was designed to determine what motivated individuals to participate and adhere to exercise programs. In order to gain insight into the importance behind the reasons participants engaged in exercise, nine survey items on a five point Likert scale were answered. Participants first read the heading "I exercise in order to…" and then assessed each item on a scale of 1-5. A selection of "1" indicated "not important at all" and a selection of "5" indicated "extremely important." Participants assessed the importance of various mental and physical health related benefits as well as cosmetic/aesthetic factors.

Factors acting upon one's exercise activities were measured through survey items that were developed from the Physical Activity Benefits and Barriers Scale (PABBS). This scale, developed by Brown, Huber, and Bergman (2006), provides a measure of seven self-reported barriers to being physically active. Seven barrier categories including lack of time, social influences, lack of energy, lack of willpower, fear of injury, lack of skill, and lack of resources were the areas of focus in their scale. This study utilized a five-point Likert scale and included survey items that were modified from the PABBS scale. The survey items were created in order to determine the perceived influence various intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural factors had upon participants' exercise regimens. Ten items were included in this section. Participants answered each survey item on a scale of 1-5 with "1" indicating "no factor at all upon my exercise regimen" and "5" indicating "a significant factor upon my exercise regimen."

Procedures

The authors' institutional review board (IRB) reviewed the study protocol and provided approval to collect data. Members of the student body were informed of the opportunity to participate in this study through a campus announcement. The announcement was embedded in a weekly message that was e-mailed from the Dean of Students. It included a link that would allow for the interested participant to complete the online survey. After this initial announcement was sent to students, a follow-up announcement was sent two weeks later. The reminder was also embedded in a weekly e-mail message from the Dean of Students. By clicking on the link that was included in the e-mail, participants could then complete the survey through Qualtrics, which is an online survey management system. Potential participants first read an informed consent document that outlined all risks and benefits associated with completing the survey. After participants gave consent, they could access the survey that was estimated to take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete.

Data Analysis

This study utilized a descriptive survey design. The independent variables were gender (male and female) and residency status (commuter or on-campus resident). The dependent variables were the motivations to exercise and factors impacting engagement in an exercise regimen. The statistical analysis of the data was conducted with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 21.0 for windows. Means and frequencies were calculated on demographic characteristics. These included age, gender, class rank, and residency status. Means and frequencies were also calculated for reasons why participants engaged in exercise and factors impacting their exercise regimens. Independent t-tests were conducted to determine whether there were gender differences with regard to reasons for engaging in exercise. Independent t-tests were also conducted in order to determine whether factors impacting engagement in an exercise regimen differed based on participants' gender and residency status.

Results

Participants were asked to indicate the reasons they engaged in exercise. The top three reasons participants stated they exercised were to improve appearance (M=4.08), reduce stress, (M=3.81), and maintain weight, (M=3.77). Another aim of this study was to gain insight into constraints acting upon one's exercise regimen. All of the participants attempted to engage in some kind of exercise regimen; however, none of the participants were always able to meet the standard of "regular engagement." For this study, regular engagement was defined as 30 minutes or more of moderately vigorous activity at least three times per week. School workload (M=3.65) and a desire to engage in other activities with one's time (M=3.50) were the two reasons that had the largest impact upon the participants in this study. These were the only factors scoring higher than 3.0. All other factors had little to no perceived impact upon the participants.

Motivations to exercise based on participants' gender were examined. Reducing stress was the reason that scored the highest among male students (M=4.00). Among females, the three reasons that rated highest were improved appearance (M=4.24), lose weight (M=3.86), and maintain weight (M=3.81). The lowest rated reason for engaging in exercise was to have fun. Among female participants, this was the only reason that scored below 3.0 (M=2.90). *Table 1 illustrates the reasons for engaging in exercise based upon the gender of the participant.* Differences in constraints acting upon the participants, based upon participants' gender as well as residency status, were examined. The two factors that had the greatest impact upon participants' engagement in exercise, regardless of gender or residency status, were wanting to do other things with their time and school workload. *Tables 2 and 3 illustrate the impact of various factors upon participants, based upon their gender and residency status.*

Table: 1
Gender Based Differences: Motivations to Exercise

Survey Item	Mean Male	Mean Female	Standard Deviation Male	Standard Deviation Female
Reduce stress	4.00	3.76	.70	1.33
Improve appearance	3.40	4.24	.54	1.09
Improve self-esteem	3.60	3.76	.54	1.13
Maintain my weight	3.60	3.81	1.14	1.32
Increase energy	3.80	3.19	.83	1.36
Have fun	3.20	2.90	1.09	1.22
Increase strength	3.80	3.48	.83	1.36
Increase cardiovascular health	3.80	3.38	.44	1.43
Lose Weight	3.20	3.86	1.43	1.45

Table: 2
Gender Based Differences: Factors Influencing Exercise Regimen

Survey Item	Mean Male	Mean Female	Standard Deviation Male	Standard Deviation Female
I want to do other things with my spare time	3.60	3.48	.89	1.28
I don't enjoy exercising	2.00	2.86	1.00	1.38
I lack knowledge on how to exercise properly	2.00	2.38	1.41	1.35
I have current health problems	1.40	1.76	.89	.99
I don't believe exercising is important	2.20	1.29	1.78	.56
I'm embarrassed to exercise with others around	2.20	2.33	1.78	1.27
My school workload	3.60	3.67	1.14	1.23
My friends don't exercise	2.60	2.10	.54	.88
My job obligations	2.60	2.29	1.51	1.38
I don't have anywhere to exercise	1.60	1.57	.89	.74

Table: 3
Residency Status Based Differences: Factors Influencing Exercise Regimen

Survey Item	Mean On-campus resident	Mean Commuter student	Standard Deviation On-campus resident	Standard Deviation Commuter student
I want to do other things with my spare time	3.47	3.56	1.37	.88
I don't enjoy exercising	3.06	2.00	1.24	1.32
I lack knowledge on how to exercise properly	2.71	1.56	1.31	1.13
I have current health problems	1.76	1.56	1.09	.72
I don't believe exercising is important	1.41	1.56	.71	1.33
I'm embarrassed to exercise with others around	2.53	1.89	1.41	1.16
My school workload	3.35	4.22	1.22	.97
My friends don't exercise	2.41	1.78	.79	.83
My job obligations	2.35	2.33	1.32	1.58
I don't have anywhere to exercise	1.59	1.56	.71	.88

Discussion

The results from this investigation could be useful to those who design and implement exercise related programming in order to improve the health of college student populations. These gender-based analyses revealed some noteworthy findings, as the female participants in particular indicated factors such as appearance and weight loss as motivating reasons behind engaging in exercise. The concerns related to appearance and weight are not especially surprising given that young women are more likely to be overweight than similar aged males (O'Dougherty, Kurzer, & Schmitz, 2010). These concerns might also be driven by pressures females often experience early in life due to contemporary societal standards of the female body size and shape (Markland & Ingledew, 2007). Because reasons related to appearance and weight loss are motivating factors to exercise, especially among females, programs designed to create healthy attitudes toward one's own physique could benefit those who are exercising primarily for the purposes of weight loss and changing appearance (Burkett et al., 2002).

In order to improve perceptions of one's own body image, a multidimensional approach that includes education as well as a counseling component could be successful in accomplishing this objective. Wellness programs that have resulted in positive outcomes such as improvements in perception of one's body image have included these aspects (Koff & Bauman, 1997; Springer et al., 1998). Educational courses could help students first understand what constitutes a healthy body image. In addition, a focus upon developing a healthy body image and then engaging in responsible practices in order to achieve a healthy body could follow. The inclusion of wellness counseling in which students obtain one-on-one consultation could further help students develop a positive body image and increase satisfaction with their appearance (Burkett et al., 2002).

A second key finding in this study was with regard to the barriers that impact student exercise regimens. When attempting to get a population to increase the amount of exercise in which they engage, determining the barriers and then educating people on how to overcome them can be a key component (Kulavic, Hultquist, & McLester, 2013). The results obtained in this study revealed that the most significant constraint upon participants' ability to engage in exercise was their school workload. This was true for both male and female students. Regardless of residency status, students indicated school workload as the most significant constraint. This finding is not surprising, given the fact that individuals in this demographic will likely be engaged in a full-time plan of study.

With time being an important factor among college students, universities can implement mandatory courses that include time to engage in exercise. Within these courses, students could be educated with regard to the different types of exercise regimens that would work within their daily schedules. It would also alert them to the fact that they don't necessarily need multiple hours in a day to meet recommended amounts of exercise but rather meet recommendations in 30 minutes to 45 minutes each day. Students would also learn how to incorporate these exercise regimens into their schedules. By educating the students with regard to different strategies in order to increase the amount of exercise they get, they could incorporate a realistic regimen into their daily schedules in order to achieve recommended amounts of exercise for the week.

A final reason that was frequently identified as a factor that served to constrain engagement in exercise, regardless of participants' gender or residency status, was the desire to do other things with one's spare time. On one hand, this is not surprising because students might be engaged in a number of other extra-curricular pursuits. On the other hand, this result is somewhat confounding because participants acknowledge the importance of exercise. Furthermore, most do not have health issues that would prevent engagement. The lack of desire to exercise presents not only a challenge but also an opportunity for health educators and other physical activity intervention specialists to create programs that would appeal to the college student population.

It is important to note that when developing new interventions, feasibility issues associated with such interventions must be considered because an intervention could require significant time requirements to plan, manage, and execute. Financial resources would likely be needed as well. In order to overcome these obstacles, those wishing to create interventions focusing on improving body image and increasing exercise engagement might consider the following suggestions to assist them.

One strategy is to coordinate efforts with multiple support systems on campus. Though a new general education course focused on body image, weight, and exercise may not be currently feasible for an institution, regular interventions offered outside the academic program may be an option. Partnering with the Student Health Center, Student Affairs Office, or other campus offices interested in student health and wellness could lead to coordinated offerings to meet student needs. For example, the Student Health Center might be willing to use their health promotions specialist(s), nurse educators, or other staff to develop and facilitate ongoing health and wellness interventions designed to impact students' body image and physical activity levels. Funds collected from student fees could be utilized to support this type of programming, instead of academic departments being forced to shoulder the cost of developing and implementing new courses. Upper-level students in public health, health and physical education, and exercise science programs could even potentially offer components of the educational interventions, under the direct supervision of health center staff or faculty members. This would provide significant experiential benefit to students within these majors, while also allowing educators to reach a greater number of students and do so at a lower cost. If evidence based, high quality programming can be offered in this manner and evaluation data demonstrates its efficacy, the institution may be more willing to consider adding a complete course to the curriculum.

A second strategy to increase the feasibility of programming such as that recommended above would be to write grants supporting the educational interventions. There are faculty members at most institutions with grant writing experience, who also have the desire to implement and evaluate these kinds of interventions to include in their professional dossiers. Faculty in health and kinesiological fields may be willing to develop plans for body image and physical activity related programming at their home institutions, write grants to initially fund the work, and evaluate the effectiveness of the programming in order to write and disseminate scholarly work in this area. Faculty members also may have access to upper-level students who are required to take courses in program planning or grant writing, that could be brought in as part of the process. Again, this serves to increase the feasibility of implementing new programming at an institution, while also benefiting faculty members and students in departments focused on health and wellness. Though it may take significant effort to imagine the best ways to fund and support programming of this nature on individual campuses, there likely are multiple creative opportunities available.

Conclusions, Limitations & Future Direction

Many psychological and physical benefits are associated with exercise. Attempts to entice students to increase their engagement in exercise would be worthwhile because exercise routines started at this stage of life have potential to carry on throughout adulthood (Desai, Miller, Staples, & Bravender, 2008). In this study, participants cited cosmetic reasons as a significant source of motivation to engage in an exercise regimen. The pervasiveness of social messages with regard to possessing the ideal body type were offered as potential reasons why maintenance of appearance and weight loss were self-perceived reasons to exercise.

Furthermore, this study examined factors that impacted college students' ability to engage in an exercise regimen. A heavy course workload will always be a part of the college student experience. Consequently, health intervention specialists would be continually challenged to create programming that would not only enhance college students' health, but also fit within a demanding schedule.

Consistent with all studies, this study had limitations as well. Although beneficial information was gained, the small sample size that consisted of students from one university limits the generalizability of these findings to other college students. Furthermore, almost the entire sample consisted of females. Another limitation was the cross-sectional design. Data were collected at only one time point and this may have influenced the results.

Because the challenges and life circumstances facing college students are continuously evolving, future studies need to continually examine exercise determinants in college students (Kulavic, Hultquist, & McLester, 2013). These efforts could provide a better understanding of college students' motives for engaging in exercise. This knowledge could help personnel such as university administrators, health promotion faculty, and campus recreation center management better design and implement programs to meet to specific motives, needs, and desires of students and further enable them to exercise not only more frequently but responsibly as well.

Furthermore, the outcome expectations students hold with regard to their engagement in exercise could be a factor that constrains commencement or continuation of engagement. Petosa, Suminski, and Hortz (2003) suggested that outcome expectations are important for college students, because many have unrealistic expectations when they begin an exercise regimen. Such unrealistic expectations could lead to discouragement when anticipated outcomes differ from actual outcomes. Therefore, intervention specialists might consider focusing upon helping students develop realistic outcome expectations as an initial step when attempting to get students to begin as well as maintain engagement in an exercise regimen.

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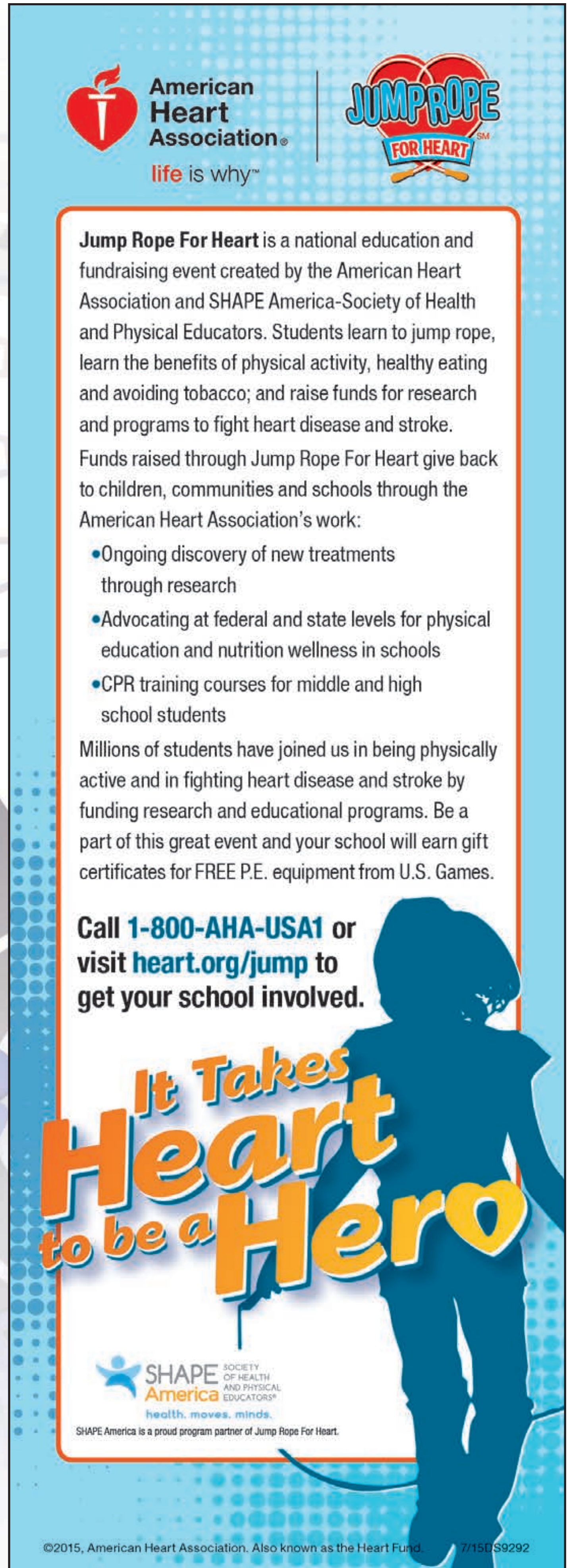


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Liz Ullman: Challenging the Status Quo on the Front Lines of Title IX

Elizabeth A. Gregg • Jason W. Lee
University of North Florida

Abstract

Throughout history, there are examples of women who refused to conform to traditional societal gender norms that limited their access to academic and athletic opportunities. Elizabeth "Liz" Ullman's life experience exemplifies the remarkable struggles women faced when women's intercollegiate athletics were introduced at American institutions of higher education (Cain, 2001). By documenting examples of women who labored for equality such as Ullman, it is possible to draw general conclusions about the historical experiences of women working in intercollegiate athletics as a whole. This case study examines the tenacity and ground breaking efforts implement by Liz Ullman through the lens of stakeholder theory. As a result of gathering data from a variety of sources including interviews with key actors and document analysis, this study sheds light on various points of significance associated with Title IX and gender equity in intercollegiate athletics.

Key Words: Women's Intercollegiate Athletics, Title IX, Gender Equity

Introduction

Prior to the Civil Rights movement of the 1960s, opportunities for women to compete in university-sponsored athletic events were scarce. During the 1960s, however, there was resurgence in interest in developing competitive athletic programs for women at the college level. Leaders of the women's rights movement used athletics as a vehicle through which to gain greater equality in American society (Cahn, 2015; Felshin, 1978; Hargreaves, 2002; Hiestand, 1978; Smith, 2015; Wushanley, 2004). In response to the growing demand for athletic opportunities for women at the college level, a series of national conventions addressing the most appropriate means to govern women's athletics took place between 1963 and 1969 (Cahn, 2015; Hult, 1999; Wu, 1999).

Hult (1999) stated that the sequence of meetings among leading stakeholders in women's Sport and Physical Education led to the development of a basic framework for governing women's athletics. Stakeholders within women's intercollegiate sport recognized that a unified governing body of women's intercollegiate athletics was necessary during the mid-1960s and as a result, the Division of Girls and Women in Sport (DGWS) developed the Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (CIAW) in 1966, which later evolved into the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) (Hult, 1989). The AIAW was the first and only governing body of women's athletics developed on a student-centered model. The organization became an official entity in 1971 (Hult, 1989; O'Reilly, 2012; Wu, 1999; Wushanley, 2004).

During the late twentieth century, a revolution occurred in America that influenced the quest for women's equal rights. Throughout the country, women worked diligently after the passage of Title IX in 1972 to grow women's athletic programs (Cain, 2001; Hult & Trekell; 1991; Hult, 1999). The significance of the stories of early pioneers cannot be overstated; they represent a portion of intercollegiate athletic history that must be preserved. Further, understanding the history of women's intercollegiate athletics and the struggles stakeholders in women's intercollegiate athletics encountered allows for a deeper understanding of the current state of equity issues in the industry (Hargreaves, 2001).

According to Geiger (1986), life histories provide critical data for understanding transitions and social change. Elizabeth "Liz" Ullman is one individual whose employment at Indiana University (IU) in intercollegiate athletics illustrates the struggles women faced in their attempt to gain equal opportunity in predominately male dominated fields. The purpose of this historical case study is to examine the life experiences of Ullman through the lens of stakeholder theory. Based on her experiences Ullman developed a viewpoint atypical of her counterparts at IU. Her point of reference, personality, and interpersonal skills provided the personal conviction necessary to strive for equality in intercollegiate athletics during a contentious era for women in sport.

Literature Review

Theoretical Framework

Because this case addresses the interaction between multiple groups and institutional constituents, stakeholder theory was employed as the theoretical framework. Stakeholders are broadly defined as groups and individuals that either affect or are affected by the success of a given organization or entity (Ackoff 1981; Allen 1988; Benneworth & Jongbloed, 2009; Freeman, 1984; Gregg, Pierce, Lee, Himstedt, & Felver, 2013). Wu (2012) added that the most influential stakeholders have access to power or key resources, possess a strong interest in the betterment of the organization, and/or have the capacity to produce or contribute other value added activities. Successful sport organizations are generally those that are able to satisfy the interests of the greatest number of stakeholders (Tkaczynkis, Rundle-Theile, & Beaumont, 2010). According to Mitchell, Angle, and Wood (1997), some individuals (or groups) have higher levels of organizational status due to access to sources of institutional power or scarce resources.

For the current case, stakeholders consisted of a wide variety of university constituents including athletic department coaches and administrators, faculty members in the Department of Physical Education for Women (DPEW), women athletes, IU academic administrators, the university president(s), and members of the Board of Trustees. In terms of power, the established and accomplished men's athletic program at IU and other departmental employees carried more credibility and influence than other stakeholder groups, specifically women stakeholders interested in advancing the state of women's intercollegiate athletics at the university.

Case Study Methodology

Once approval from the Institutional Review Board approval was granted, the first phase of this research involved data collection. Data for this historical case study were gathered from a variety of sources. The Indiana University Archives was a major supply of primary sources. Meeting minutes, departmental reports, correspondence amongst university faculty members and administrators, letters from the community at large, pictures, and university reports are examples of primary sources collected from the archives (Andrews, Mason, & Silk, 2005). Upon the complete examination of archived data, a detailed chronological record of documents was created. Further, "external criticism" was employed to ensure source accuracy and reliability (Andrews, Mason, & Silk, 2005; Graton & Jones, 2010; Stake, 1978; 1995; Yin, 2003). According to Wiggins and Mason (2005), "external criticism involves establishing the authenticity of the primary source" (p. 53). Any primary source deemed unreliable based on external criticism was eliminated from the data.

Where gaps in the data emerged, key actors were identified to provide personal accounts of events. Multiple interviews were conducted (upon receiving informed consent from each subject) to corroborate the accuracy of reported historical accounts. For the current project, a total of 6 (n=6) interviews were conducted. The primary stakeholder, Liz Ullman, was interviewed three times. Her colleagues, Marge Albohm, Leanne Grotke-Andreas, and Isabelle Hutchinson were also interviewed. Interview questions consisted of structured and unstructured questions. Open-ended impromptu follow up questions were added to the interview protocol to ensure all relevant data was gathered from interviewees. All official interviews were transcribed verbatim and triangulation techniques were employed for validity (Andrews, Mason, & Silk, 2005; Silverman, 2013; Stake, 1995). Additional discussions with current and former coaches as well as university administrators proved to be valuable sources of information.

Results

The women's athletic program at Indiana University mirrored national trends. Women did not gain access to competitive athletics at IU until the 1960s (Gregg, 2012; Hutchinson, 1997; Ludwig, 1986). The DPEW provided women interested in athletics with opportunities to compete in extramural sports, which consisted of competitive games played against neighboring colleges and universities. Coaches of extramural teams were faculty members of the DPEW that volunteered their time to oversee women's teams. Financial support for the extramural program was limited, as the primary mission of the DPEW was to educate future Physical Education teachers (K. Burrus, personal communication, August 8, 2006). Women shared uniforms, paid for their own travel to away games, and purchased their own meals (Hutchinson, 1997; K. Burrus, personal communication, August 8, 2006; L. Grotke Andreas, personal communication, February 31, 2006). Facilities and equipment used by the extramural teams were designed for and shared by academic classes and intramural sports. The extramural program increased under the leadership of Leanne Grotke-Andreas, hired during the 1967-68 academic year. As the coordinator of intramural and extramural sports for women, Grotke-Andreas expanded sport offerings and lobbied for improved funding for women's extramural teams (L. Grotke Andreas, personal communication, February 31, 2006).

Competitive athletic opportunities for women remained limited until Title IX of the Educational Amendments passed on June 23, 1972. Title IX specifically states "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any educational program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance" (Office of Civil Rights, 1980). Although Title IX demanded equal opportunity, change was slow. Schools were given six years to comply with Title IX, and even after its ratification, there was a great deal of ambiguity as to the true implications of the law. At IU, the condition of women's athletics improved little immediately following the passage of Title IX. Grotke-Andreas stated:

> *"There was a lot of uncertainty and a lot of stalling. They knew in their hearts what it [Title IX] meant, but they used the excuse that they couldn't interpret exactly what the law meant. The attitude nationally among male administrators and athletic departments was that they didn't know what it meant, and they weren't going to do anything about it. They wanted some explanation as to what "equity" meant, and what the implications were. That was part of the delay in not getting anything started, there was just a big stall tactic going on." (L. Grotke-Andreas, personal communication, February 31, 2006)*

As a result of the ambiguity surrounding the implications of Title IX and the unwillingness of IU's administration to act progressively with regards to funding women's sports, the athletic program for women remained a component of the DPEW until the 1973-74 academic year.

Grotke-Andreas was selected to administer the new varsity athletic program for women in a part-time capacity in 1973. Her title was Associate Athletic Director for Women's Athletics. Jointly financed by the school of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (HPER) and the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics, the pay rate was $12,000 for twelve months. Grotke-Andreas was responsible for creating and submitting budget requests, hiring of coaches and athletic administrators, and providing general oversight for the women's program (Department of Intercollegiate Athletics, 1974).

Although the women's intercollegiate athletic program was still operating fairly successfully out of the school of HPER, it was determined by key stakeholders including President John Ryan, Director of Athletics William Orwig, and University Chancellor Byrum Carter that women's athletics should be fully financed and controlled by the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics during the 1974-1975 academic year. The administrative offices for the men's athletic program were housed in Assembly Hall. Constructed in 1971, the building was considered state-of-the-art for the era. It was not, however, designed to accommodate the needs of a co-educational athletic program. The inadequacy of Assembly Hall would prove to be especially troubling for the assimilation of women into the athletic department (J. Ryan, personal communication, December 10, 2005).

The financial situation of the women's program improved dramatically under the control of the athletic department. Grotke-Andreas's position became full-time. Significantly, she was the first woman in the Big Ten Conference to hold a full-time administrative position following the ratification of Title IX. The budget for the 1974-75 academic year was $122,000—a threefold increase over the previous year (Department of Intercollegiate Athletics, 1974). Despite the fact that the men's program was allocated approximately $2,300,000, Grotke-Andreas reported that the attitude among the majority of the women's team's coaches and athletes was positive. Grotke-Andreas stated *"we were grateful for the threefold increase. We thought that was wonderful; we weren't always making the comparison to the men's program. The more pressing need when we moved into athletics was where are the women's coaches going to go? There weren't any offices"* (L. Grotke-Andreas, personal communication, February 31, 2006). Not only did the coaches not have offices, neither did Grotke-Andreas or any of her administrative staff.

Grotke-Andreas originally proposed that the coaches of women's teams share office space with their male peers. After her request was denied, she was forced to search the building on her own to find office space. Grotke-Andreas recalled:

> *"And I say this with respect, but at the same time, it was like I was the only one concerned with these things…No one ever came to our rescue or anything. I just had to look around for space for things…I had an office in what was formerly a broom closet. Which was okay, it was adequate for what I had to do. It didn't make any kind of a statement, but of course they didn't want women's athletics on the front page. So we were in the back hall, but it was fine." (L. Grot-*

ke-Andreas, personal communication, February 31, 2006).

Despite the great inequity, Grotke-Andreas managed to remain focused on her goal of developing a high quality women's athletic program at Indiana University.

Hired in 1974-75, the second non-coaching member of the women's staff at IU was athletic trainer Marge Albohm. Just the sixth female athletic trainer in the United States, Albohm credited Grotke-Andreas for being attuned to the importance of having appropriate health care for women athletes. Unlike other women employed by IU's athletic department at the time, Albohm's office was located with her male peers in the athletic training office. Albohm affirmed "I think the actual physical environment of the athletic training room contributed greatly to the integration of women into the athletic department because I was with trainers that embraced women in the program. Working conditions for me personally were very good" (M. Albohm, personal communication, June 10, 2006).

Liz Ullman

During the 1975-76 school year, Liz Ullman joined the staff as the first Sports Information Director (SID) for women's athletics at IU. She was also the first full-time woman SID in the country (ViCom Team, 2015). Ullman was responsible for providing media coverage for all of the varsity women's teams at Indiana University. Unlike many other women employed in the athletic department at IU, Ullman was unwilling to accept the inequitable working conditions present in Assembly Hall (E. Ullman, Personal communication, June 12, 2006). Officially hired on July 15, 1975, Ullman was named the Director of Sports Publicity for women. Her starting salary was $8,060, which equates to $36,000 in 2015 (DollarTimes, 2015).

When Ullman arrived at Indiana University, she quickly discovered working conditions were less than ideal. Her office, which she shared with three or four coaches, was located in a small cinder block space, formerly used as a "coat check" closet. There was no heat or air conditioning in the space, and it was not equipped with electrical outlets. Lighting for the room consisted of one hanging bulb, which was inadequate. Ullman brought lamps from home to remedy the problem of a lack of illumination. In order to provide electricity for the lamps and for office equipment, the ladies used an extension cord to connect with outlets located in the adjacent hallway. Originally unequipped with even a door, the athletic department installed one to provide security for Ullman and the coaches. Unfortunately, it decreased the airflow in the room, making it increasingly difficult to work. Ullman reported that in the summer months, she would become ill from the extreme heat. In the winter, the women had to wear jackets and gloves while in the office to sustain the cold. According to Ullman:

> *"[We] began complaining immediately. I even called the office of Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) right away, that first winter, because I felt that the substandard accommodations were actually injurious to our health and indeed they were. I was almost sick constantly and in some cases very seriously sick with pneumonia. I couldn't get over it because I'd go back to work with the same cold and the dust would just aggravate the illness I already had."(E. Ullman, Personal communication, June 12, 2006)*

Productivity was further hindered by a lack of support staff. There was but one secretary assigned to the women's athletic program, while many individual units in the men's program including sports information, had their own secretaries (E. Ullman, Personal communication, June 12, 2006).

While Ullman was a pioneer, she was working in an arena run entirely by men during an era in which women weren't welcome. Some men in the athletic department went out of their way to ensure Ullman understood that. For example, equipment required for Ullman to carry out her duties as the sports information director were not provided by the athletic department. Ullman received only a typewriter to perform her job functions. She was not afforded any recording devices to conduct interviews with players or coaches. She was able to *"get over to the news bureau across campus from time to time and use their recording equipment"* (E. Ullman, personal communication, February 27, 2006). Despite the fact that the recording equipment borrowed from the news bureau was useful, the device weighed approximately ten pounds. It was a cumbersome piece of equipment that was difficult to transport from various fields located at the HPER building and at Assembly Hall. In order to carry out her work duties effectively, Ullman purchased her own cameras and learned how to develop photos.

Because part of the duties of a SID involve reporting the outcome of athletic contests to the media, Ullman was forced to get creative to produce a device to transmit data to local newspapers. Ullman stated:

> *"When I was asked to report scores in the evenings or over the weekends, I basically had to rig up my own coupling device. This involved taking the handset of the telephone apart, putting alligator clip and wires from a tape recorder and rigging it to a telephone. The men had their own feeding equipment, but I had to make my own with wires and alligator clips. I remember one incident where I was reporting scores from Assembly Hall and somehow tapped into all of the dorms on Fee Lane. I got in trouble over that! But you know what choices did I have?" (E. Ullman, personal communication, February 27, 2006)*

The athletic department was unwilling to allocate funds for equipment and supplies for the newly developed women's program. They were also unwilling to share their equipment.

At this time, not only were women working in athletics subjected to substandard working conditions, but also they were also frequently the targets of discriminatory comments from men working in the department. Ullman recalled "some of the administrators and assistant athletic directors would talk about how if the women would only play in short skirts, maybe people would come. We also heard jokes about 'needing to be in the kitchen and barefoot'" (E. Ullman, personal communication, February 27, 2006). More striking was a memo basketball coach Robert "Bobby" Knight placed in the mailboxes of all of the employees in the athletic department. The memo stated that admission to the press box in Assembly Hall would be based on the length of a man's anatomy (*Ullman v. Trustees of Indiana University, 1983*). Ullman found the memo to be extremely offensive and embarrassing not only to her, but also to all women employed in the athletic department (E. Ullman, personal communication, February 27, 2006).

Despite the lack of support from the male administrators of the athletic department, Ullman quickly emerged as a national leader in women's sports information. As a regular attendee at AIAW meetings, Ullman was frequently in contact with a variety of media outlets interested in promoting women's athletics. She also had the advantage of being an employee of Leanne Grotke-Andreas, who was very active in the AIAW, and of being a former student of Chris Grant and Peg Burke, both former presidents of the AIAW. Each of these women was a powerful stakeholder in intercollegiate athletics. Ullman was offered the position as sports publicist for the AIAW and used the appointment to promote the philosophy of women's athletics. Ullman reiterated *"that's what women's athletics at the national level represented, equal rights and the opportunity to tell that story from another perspective"* (E. Ullman, personal communication, June 12, 2006).

In her role as publicist for AIAW, Ullman volunteered to attend one of the early AIAW national conferences, which was held in Arizona. In this capacity, she *"drove [herself] to various media outlets around Phoenix to pitch the story of women re-inventing intercollegiate sports and was impressed (and somewhat surprised) that the media turned out in force to see history being made"* (E. Ullman, Personal communication, July 8, 2015).

Ullman was not compensated on par with men for her accomplishments in the athletic department and with the AIAW. For example, during the 1975-76 academic year, Kit Klingelhoffer, the men's assistant sport information director during the same period, earned 19% more annually than Ullman despite the fact that their duties were virtually the same. Grotke-Andreas lobbied repeatedly for pay increases for Ullman and other women working in intercollegiate athletics at IU. The athletic director, Paul Dietzel rejected the request (P. Dietzel, personal correspondence, August 29, 1977).

The athletic department did make an attempt to improve the office space of Ullman and several other coaches during the 1976-77 school year. Administrators moved the women out of the coat check closet and into the first aid room. The space was equipped with air conditioning and heating, but there were new problems for the women to deal with. According to Grotke-Andreas:

"We had a first aid room that was only used for wheel chairs and cots and things like that. It was there for emergency purposes; we didn't have anyone using it on a day-to-day basis. If we had a home basketball game or something though, Liz had to kind of box herself up and move out. It wasn't an office by any means, but at least it was a space. We bought some desks and some kind of lighting was rigged up. There were some telephones that had to be shared." (L. Grotke-Andreas, personal communication, February 31, 2006)

Ullman found the move to be insulting. As a result of her office location, she was frequently the target of jokes from members of the media and other stakeholders. Ullman recalled *"I had very little sense of humor as a 23 year old. I had no perspective and it wasn't funny"* (E. Ullman, personal communication, February 27, 2006).

Ullman frequently voiced her point of view on the discriminatory working conditions in Assembly Hall to Grotke-Andreas. Ullman believed the athletic department was not doing enough to improve the level of equality. Interestingly, not all of the women working in the athletic department at IU shared her opinion. According to Grotke-Andreas, *"her [Ullman] opinion was unique at the time"* (L. Grotke-Andreas, personal communication, February 28, 2006). Most of the women were satisfied with the increases in funding they had received as a result of Title IX Ullman also recognized that her opinion was not shared by the majority of other female staff members. Ullman stated *"Some of the women's coaches were just furious at me for being furious. They were happy with what they had. Just simply having a seat near the table was sufficient"* (E. Ullman, personal communication, February 27, 2006).

Ullman eventually grew so frustrated with the lack of change that she sought advice from women in the School of Law regarding her options for legal recourse. Upon deliberation of her options, Ullman elected to file a complaint with the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC). According to Ullman, the EEOC was slow to respond to her complaint. Eventually the Office of Affirmative Action at IU was informed of Ullman's actions. Almost immediately, Affirmative Action alerted the Director of Athletics, Paul Dietzel that Ullman had filed a grievance. Upon learning of Ullman's actions, Dietzel and other stakeholders began treating Ullman poorly. Recognizing that she was unable to continue working in the athletic department after filing the EEOC complaint, Ullman resigned in June of 1978 (E. Ullman, personal communication, February 27, 2006).

Ullman's complaint with the EEOC was not processed before the three-year period of statute of limitation expired. At that time, Ullman elected to file a sex discrimination lawsuit under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, against IU (*Ullman v. Indiana University, 1983*). Ullman acknowledged *"I hoped that the courts would rule that the law was on my side. If the men were earning $100,000 a year, then the women should be earning the same, or at least commensurate with the length of the season and the depth of the responsibilities"* (E. Ullman, personal communication, February 27, 2006). Unfortunately for Ullman after filing the lawsuit she discovered if she won, the result would have been that she would have been re-hired as the sports information director at IU. Ullman stated *"I only would have wanted that job under circumstances of equal opportunity. So lots of money, lots more resources, a bona fide office, lots of assistance, and acceptance in the media"* (E. Ullman, personal communication, February 27, 2006).

Elizabeth E. Ullman v. The Trustees of Indiana University was heard before the United States District Court, Southern District of Indiana, Indianapolis Division, in the fall of 1983. While the courts generally agreed that Ullman had in fact been discriminated against, the judge determined that not enough time had elapsed following the passage of Title IX in 1972 to warrant comparable compensation and allocation of equipment (*Ullman v. Indiana University, 1983*). This verdict was not surprising, as the Joiner Decision of 1981 determined that schools could develop athletic programs at a rate they deemed appropriate. Further, the Joiner Decision stated schools weren't required to abide by the mandates of Title IX if the program did not directly receive federal financial assistance (Carpenter & Acosta, 2005).

Even though Ullman lost her lawsuit against Indiana University, the final result was still positive. According to Ullman:

"I think probably in spite of the fact that the lawsuit was designed to bring out the bad, those of us who participated in my lawsuit remember the solidarity and the fact that women's athletics was a cause worth fighting for. I think that there were pockets of revolution happening, and whether it was going to be in the courts or on the basketball court, this was a fight that women were ultimately going to win. I don't think the win has been complete. But if you look at where women's athletics are now and where we were in the 1970-something years, it's a different world. And it's only been one generation. That is good news." (E. Ullman, personal communication, February 27, 2006)

In retrospect, Ullman reflected on her feelings coming out of the case by explaining that this was an action that needed to be taken as she *"thought that the behavior of the men's coaches and administrators was beyond reprehensible and that airing [her] grievances in court was the only option to expose the obnoxious treatment of women"* (E. Ullman, Personal communication, July 8, 2015). In regards to issues that she says that she dealt with leading up to this course action, she qualifies this by stating, *"to this day people do not believe my stories"* (E. Ullman, Personal communication, July 8, 2015).

After leaving Indiana University, Ullman continued her career in intercollegiate athletics by serving as the SID for women's sports in the athletic department at the University of Iowa for two years (E. Ullman, Personal communication, July 8, 2015). During her time at Iowa, she felt that she *"was back in the bastion of Title IX advocates, [but] the pace towards gender equity was frustratingly slow" and she "realized that [she] was not the person to work within the system while the system evolved"* (E. Ullman, Personal communication, July 8, 2015). Despite her positive reflections on the outcome of her lawsuit, Ullman elected not to pursue employment in the field of intercollegiate athletics. She worked for a year in a public affairs fellowship program in San Francisco, California (E. Ullman, Personal communication, July 8, 2015).

Ullman recognized that IU was not the only institution reluctant to embrace women's athletics; and after her brief period of employment with the Intercollegiate Athletic Department at the University of Iowa, she realized that putting herself in another situation where she would face discrimination was out of the question. Interested in politics, Ullman elected to attend graduate school at Claremont University where she studied public policy analysis. After completing her degree, Ullman moved on to New York City to work for a public affairs foundation. She later relocated to Denver, CO, where she worked for the office of the Governor. In 1988, Ullman decided to open her own advertising agency in Denver, ViCom, Inc., (ViCom Team, 2015) that specializes in public affairs. Currently, Ullman lives in Denver, successfully managing the advertising firm she started more than two decades ago (E. Ullman, personal communication, June 12, 2006). Ironically, many of the skills she was forced to learn at IU due to the lack of administrative support have served her well throughout her professional career. She reflected on this point by stating:

Had it not been for IU's reluctance to provide me with equipment and support for covering 10 teams in a variety of media, I would not have had the on-the-job learning opportunity to write and produce in a full complement of media. I learned how to shoot and develop my own photos, write and produce radio and television; I learned film production, publication layout, graphic design, advertising, public relations, earned media and marketing because I was a one-woman show. My strategic marketing company, ViCom, Inc., is built on that foundation. (E. Ullman, Personal communication, July 8, 2015)

Conclusion

Over the past four decades, opportunities for women to participate in intercollegiate athletics have changed dramatically. Throughout the period of time examined in this paper, there are examples of stakeholders that had enough influence to shape the culture of IU's intercollegiate athletic department. The most power stakeholders in intercollegiate were primarily men, many of which were uninterested in supporting women's athletic programs. The remarkable story of Liz Ullman illustrates the struggles faced by many women stakeholders who have bravely fought for equality in athletics and society. Interestingly, though not surprising, Ullman to this day continues championing causes that she feels passionately about. At the time of this writing, Ullman is involved in a developing 60 Minutes feature involving the handing over 10,000 pages of pro bono research which she conducted research and investigations on behalf of soldiers that she states have been wrongly accused of illegal recruiting practices in National Guard run activities from 2005-2012 (E. Ullman, Personal communication, July 8, 2015; Defend Our Protectors, 2015).

Observing the state of women's intercollegiate athletics today, it is clear that progress has been made. True gender equity, however, has yet to be achieved (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012). For example, the average head coach of a men's team at IU earns approximately $484,000, whereas the equivalent for a women's team earns roughly $103,000 (Equity in Athletics Data Cutting Tool [EADA], 2014). These figures illustrate that stakeholders deemed critical to the institution receive the most significant allotment of resources. Further, pay inequities also represent level of disparity in intercollegiate athletics that still exists. Ideally, within the next generation, women will finally achieve true gender equity in intercollegiate athletics.

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Planning for Success

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Abstract

Planning is the process of determining the organization's goals and objectives and selecting a course of action to accomplish them within the environment and within and outside the organization. Its primary purpose is to offset future uncertainties by reducing the risk surrounding the organization's operations. It requires the organization to review its internal accomplishments (strengths) and challenges (weaknesses) and external opportunities and threats. This article is designed to assist future physical activity, recreation, and sport managers in the overall planning process.

Keywords: Planning

SWOT Analysis

A Key Tool in Situational Analysis

It requires the organization to review its internal accomplishments (strengths) and challenges (weaknesses) and external opportunities and threats. During this process the organization will develop a SWOT chart (i.e., the depiction of internal strengths and weakness and external opportunities and threats) and identify internal and external connections that will allow the organization to become strategically competitive in the future (see Figure 1). Planning is essential for facility managers. The planning process is best facilitated by the use of brainstorming.

Figure 1: SWOT Analysis Chart

The SWOT Analysis is a valuable step in situational analysis. Assessing your firm's strengths, weaknesses, market opportunities, and threats through a SWOT Analysis is a very simple process that can offer powerful insight into the potential and critical issues affecting a venture.

The SWOT Analysis begins by conducting an inventory of internal strengths and weaknesses in the organization. Next are the external opportunities and threats that may affect the organization, based on the market and the overall environment. Do not be concerned about elaborating on these topics at this stage. Bullet points may be the best way to begin. Capture the factors that are relevant in each of the four areas.

The primary purpose of the SWOT Analysis is to identify and assign each significant factor, positive and negative, to one of the four categories. The SWOT Analysis will be a useful tool in developing and confirming goals and a marketing strategy.

Strengths

Strengths describe the positive attributes, tangible and intangible, internal to the organization. They are within the organization's control. What does the organization do well? What resources does the organization have? What advantages does the organization have over the competition?

An organization may want to evaluate its strengths by area, such as marketing, finance, manufacturing, and organizational structure. Strengths include the positive attributes of the people involved in the organization, including their knowledge, backgrounds, education, credentials, contacts, reputations, or the skills they bring. Strengths also include tangible assets such as available capital, equipment, credit, established customers, existing channels of distribution, copyrighted materials, patents, information and processing systems, and other valuable resources within the organization. Strengths capture the positive aspects internal to the organization that add value or offer a competitive advantage. This is the organization's opportunity to remind itself of the value existing within the organization.

Weaknesses

Note the weaknesses within the organization. Weaknesses are factors that are within the organization's control that detracts from the ability to obtain or maintain a competitive edge. Which areas might the organization improve?

Weaknesses might include lack of expertise, limited resources, lack of access to skills or technology, inferior service offerings, or the poor location of your business. These are factors that are under the organization's control; but, for a variety of reasons, they are in need of improvement to effectively accomplish the organization's objectives.

Weaknesses capture the negative aspects internal to the organization that detract from the value of the organization, or place the organization at a competitive disadvantage. These are areas the organization needs to enhance in order to compete with its best competitor. The more accurately the organization identifies its weaknesses, the more valuable the SWOT will be for the organization assessment.

Opportunities

Opportunities assess the external attractive factors that represent the reason for the organization to exist and prosper. These are external to organization. What opportunities exist in the market or in the environment from which the organization hopes to benefit?

These opportunities reflect the potential you can realize through implementing your marketing strategies. Opportunities may be the result of market growth, lifestyle changes, resolution of problems associated with current situations, positive market perceptions about your business, or the ability to offer greater value that will create a demand for your services. If it is relevant, the organization should place timeframes around the opportunities. Does it represent an ongoing opportunity or is it a window of opportunity? How critical is the timing?

Some experts suggest that you first consider outlining the external opportunities and threats before the strengths and weaknesses. Either Business Plan Pro or Marketing Plan Pro will allow you to complete your SWOT analysis in whatever order works best for you. In either situation, you will want to review all four areas in detail.

Threats

What factors are potential threats to the organization? Threats include factors beyond the organization's control that could place the marketing strategy or the organization at risk. These are also external – the organization has no control over them; but, you may benefit by having contingency plans to address them if they should occur.

A threat is a challenge created by an unfavorable trend or development that may lead to deteriorating revenues or profits. Competition – existing or potential – is always a threat. Other threats may include intolerable price increases by suppliers, governmental regulation, economic downturns, devastating media or press coverage, a shift in consumer behavior that reduces sales, or the introduction of a "leap-frog" technology that may make the organization's products, programs, or services obsolete. What situations might threaten the organization's marketing efforts? Get the organization's worst fears on the table. Part of this list may be speculative in nature and still add value to the SWOT analysis.

It may be valuable to classify your threats according to their "seriousness" and "probability of occurrence". The better the organization is at identifying potential threats, the more likely it can position itself to proactively plan for and respond to them. The organization will be looking back at these threats when it considers contingency plans.

The Implications

The internal strengths and weaknesses compared to the external opportunities and threats can offer additional insight into the condition and potential of the organization. How can the organization use the strengths to better take advantage of the opportunities ahead and minimize the harm that threats may introduce if they become a reality? How can weaknesses be minimized or eliminated? The true value of the SWOT analysis is in bringing this information together, to assess the most promising opportunities and the most crucial issues.

An Example (modified from Wright, Pringle, Kroll, and Parnell, 1998)

Sawyer Sports is a sport retail store in a medium-sized market in the United States. Lately, it has suffered through a steady business decline caused mainly by increasing competition from larger sporting goods stores with national brand names. The following is the SWOT analysis.

Strengths

- **Knowledge** – Sawyer's competitors are retailers selling sporting goods products. Sawyer's is locally owned, provides local service and programs for the youth, and competitively price their retail merchandise.
- **Relationship selling** – Sawyer's know their customers on a one on one basis. Sawyer's direct sales force maintains a strong relationship with customers.
- **History** – Sawyer's is a fourth generation business in this community. They have the loyalty of customers and vendors. They are local.

Weaknesses

- **Costs** - The chain stores have better economics. Their per-unit costs of selling are quite low. They are not offering what Sawyer's offer in terms of knowledgeable selling; but, their cost per square foot and per dollar of sales is much lower.
- **Price and volume** - The major sport retailers can afford to sell for less. Their component costs are less and they benefit from volume buying with the main vendors.
- **Brand power** - Take one look at their full-page advertising, in color, in the Sunday paper. Sawyer cannot match that. They do not have the national name that flows into national advertising.

Opportunities

- **Local area networks** – The franchise stores do not have local connections with students, parents, coaches, officials, and athletics directors.
- **Training** - The major stores do not provide training; but, Sawyer offers youth coaching seminars and other types of training.
- **Service** - As Sawyer's target market needs more service, their competitors are less likely than ever to provide it. Their business model does not include service, just selling the sporting goods.

Threats

- **Sporting Goods** - Volume buying and selling of sporting goods as products in boxes, supposedly not needing support, training, services, etc. As people think of sporting goods in those terms, they think they need Sawyer's service orientation less.
- **The larger price-oriented store** - When they have huge advertisements of low prices in the newspaper, Sawyer's customers think we are not giving them good value.

Brainstorming

Brainstorming, developed by Alexander F. Osborn (1888-1966), involves forming a group of six to eight members who are presented a problem and asked to identify as many potential solutions as possible. The session usually lasts from 30 minutes to an hour. At least two days before a session, group members are given a one-page summary of the problem they are to consider (Hussey, 2002). There are four rules of brainstorming:

1. **Criticism is prohibited**—judgment of ideas must be withheld until all ideas have been generated.
2. **"Freewheeling" is welcome**—the wilder and further out the idea, the better. It is easier to "tame down" than to "think up" ideas.
3. **Quantity is wanted**—the greater the number of ideas, the greater the likelihood of an outstanding solution.
4. **Combination and improvement are sought**—in addition to contributing ideas of their own, members are

encouraged to suggest how the ideas of others can be improved or how two or more ideas can be combined into still another idea.

Business leaders all over the world have used brainstorming techniques to solve problems for many years. Brainstorming is time consuming. If you only have a short period of time to loosen up a group and get everyone talking about solutions to a problem or inventing new initiatives, the answer is "fun and games" brainstorming.

Ensman's humorous, slightly offbeat techniques can be used to stimulate out-of-the-box thinking and discussion. They can be used to overcome marketing obstacles and productivity problems. They can help identify ways to enhance customer service, lower costs, improve an organization's image, and position an organization's operations for the future. Here are a few examples of "fun and games" brainstorming activities (Hussey, 2002):

- **Castles in the Sand**—The participants physically build a solution to the problem using blocks, putty, sand, or other materials.
- **Communication Gaps**—Seat the participants in a circle. Whisper some variation of your current business problem into the ear of the first person sitting on the right in the circle. Ask that individual to repeat what was heard to the next person and so on until the message comes back around full circle. By that time, it will have changed—and the group may have a new perspective on the situation.
- **Detective Work**—Appoint members of the group as detectives and charge them with solving the crime at hand. Group members must conduct an investigation, seek clues bearing on the problem, identify suspect causes of the problem, and eventually, pose a resolution of the case.
- **Make it Worse**—Invite members of the group to imagine all the possible ways they could make the solution worse. In stark contrast to this humorous exercise, prospective solutions will probably abound.
- **Playmates**—Invite participants to bring a partner not connected to the group along to the brainstorming session and become part of the proceedings. Or, invite members of the group to select imaginary playmates such as historical figures, celebrities, or competitors and conduct imaginary discussions about the issues at hand with these individuals.
- **Pretend**—Invite the members of the group to portray the customers, employees, or vendors involved with the issue at hand. Then, let these characters address the issue in their own words.

The best way to identify items under each category is through the use of brainstorming with the organization's employees and others outside the organization. The category "external opportunities" relates to those unique favorable circumstances that the organization might be able to take advantage of in the future; whereas, the external threat category refers to those circumstances that might be harmful to the organization if not carefully understood.

Conducting a Needs Assessment Survey

Hussey (2002), Fogg (2010), and Busser (2010) and others indicate the success of a facility or event thrives on its ability to fulfill the needs of its employees. Many facility and event managers administer needs assessment surveys to gauge client or community needs. Needs assessment surveys can help pinpoint the factors that determine everything from if employees plan to use employee services programs to whether or not the programs fit their needs. Use needs assessment surveys to evaluate current services or to predict if patrons will use new programs. The most difficult aspect of coordinating a needs assessment survey is determining which information is needed to plan for the future of your facility or event.

Categories of Needs Assessment Information

Hussey (2002), Fogg (2010), and Busser (2010) indicate there are eight major categories of information that can be collected through a needs assessment. Consider these categories of data collection to determine the information that will be needed: demographic data, user participation patterns or current levels of use, attitudes of employees, barriers to participation, predictions of future participation, appraisal of existing facilities and programs, health hazard appraisal, and areas of improvement.

- **Demographic Data**—This data includes all relevant information regarding the demographics of employees. Demographic data includes age, gender, marital status, residential location, number of family members living at home, number and ages of children, work shift, and job classification. Demographic data is useful in constructing a profile of the needs for particular groups of users or participants. For example, single users or participants may be interested in fitness activities while others with children may desire family programs. Use this information to focus your program development on the needs of that particular audience.
- **User Participation Patterns or Current Levels of Use**—This category assesses the frequency of participation in existing programs and services. These data are useful in determining participation trends, i.e., examining if existing programs and services are under- or over utilized given the allocated resources and tracking changes in participation from year to year. This information is also valuable when you are faced with the need to purchase additional equipment or to justify requests for new facilities. Registration data is often used to construct participation trends. However, the patterns of facility and equipment use usually are not contained in registration date.
- **Attitudes of the Consumer**—Hussey (1991), Fogg (2010), and Busser (2010) indicates it is essential to identify the attitudes and beliefs of consumers regarding the prominent aspects of program plans. Attitudes are the consumers' feelings related to the importance of various issues or services. Consider addressing consumers' attitudes such as the value they place on family programs, child care, elder care, and the opportunity to socialize with fellow users. The determination of these attitudes may be beneficial in setting objectives and establishing priorities for the facility or event.
- **Barriers to Participation**— Hussey (1991), Fogg (2010), and Busser (2010) suggests the barriers to participation are the constraints that consumers perceive as preventing their participation in programs or services. One significant barrier to participation revolves around consumers' lack of awareness or knowledge that a program or service exists. Other potential barriers include work schedules, family responsibilities, lack of interest, and lack of convenience. If these and similar perceived barriers to participation are explored in a needs assessment, the programmer can resolve those issues that may prevent consumers from participating in programs and services and thereby increase the effectiveness of the facility or event.
- **Predictions of Future Participation**—If the provider is more concerned with long-term planning, ask the respondents to project their future needs. This is a very useful category of needs identification when considering equipment purchases, constructing new facilities, or deliberating contractual arrangements to supplement the existing services and programs.

- **Appraisal of Existing Facilities and Programs**—Give the consumers the opportunity to rate the quality of existing facilities, services, and programs. Use the feedback and evaluation data to prove the need for appropriate changes. In addition, this information provides insight into the current level of consumer satisfaction with the association.
- **Health Hazard Appraisal**—Health hazard appraisals are standardized instruments used to evaluate the current health status of consumers and to estimate the presence of potential risk factors that are predictors for disease. Risk factors include smoking, stress, family history of disease, high blood pressure, high cholesterol, and poor nutrition. The health hazard appraisal evaluates a respondent's risks compared to national statistics on the causes of death, the consumer's medical history and lifestyle. Comparisons are then made with others in the same age and gender group. Use the results of the appraisal to explain specific recommendations to an employee. Results can also indicate potential areas for the development of services and programs.
- **Areas for Improvement**—This component of a needs assessment provides employees with the opportunity to share suggestions or issues related to the association and its programs, services, facilities, policies, and procedures. This willingness to go to the employees for their opinions fosters a dialogue, which indicates a commitment on the part of the association to resolve problems and to provide quality programs.

Collecting Data on Needs

Busser (2010) suggests once the facility or event manager has determined the kind of information he or she would like to uncover from the needs assessment, the next step is to collect the data. There are many research methods available to collect data on needs. Using research methods to conduct a needs assessment requires specific knowledge and skills in order to ensure that the data collected is valid and reliable. The validity of a need assessment refers to the degree to which the information collected accurately portrays the needs of employees. For example, a needs assessment that focuses only on satisfaction with special events is not a valid assessment of overall satisfaction with the facility or event and should not be used as such.

Reliability is concerned with the consistency of the data. Consistency indicates that the information obtained through the assessment truly represents the employees' perspective and is not influenced by outside factors. For example, a needs assessment that asks for overall program satisfaction may obtain different responses if conducted in the summer versus the winter, especially if a strong summer activities program is offered and no activities are provided in the winter. If the planner wants to determine comprehensive levels of satisfaction, the reliability of this assessment is doubtful. While several methods of data collection are appropriate for needs assessment, we will focus on the survey.

Surveys

Fogg (2002) and Busser (2010) suggest surveys provide the greatest opportunity to solicit consumer input and to generalize the findings from a smaller group of consumers to the community as a whole. Surveys require expertise from knowledgeable individuals to implement them successfully. Consider consulting the local and state chamber of commerce or a market research firm. Hussey (1991), Fogg (2002), and Busser (2010) suggests there are five steps in the survey process:

1. an operational definition of the purpose of the survey,
2. the design and pretesting of data collection instruments (e.g., the questionnaire or the interview guide),
3. the selection of a community sample,
4. the data collection, and
5. an analysis of the data.

The design of the questionnaire includes the development of the specific questions to be answered by consumers and decisions concerning the form of the questions (e.g., multiple choice, fill in the blank). At this stage determine the directions for completing the survey, the procedures for carrying out the survey, and the method of returning completed questionnaires. Pre-testing the data collection instrument is essential to uncovering and eliminating any difficulties that may exist in the data collection procedure. Pre-tests are mini-surveys you can conduct with a small group of employees by administering them the questionnaire and asking them to identify any difficulties in understanding directions, questions, or the type of information solicited.

Sampling is the use of particular procedures that allow you to generalize the findings of a representative small group of consumers to the whole corporate workforce. By selecting employees through a random process (e.g., selecting every 10th person from a random listing of employees), the results of the assessment are likely to be representative of the needs of all employees, even though all consumers were not surveyed (Busser, 2010).

In collecting the data from consumers, it is important that the cover letter of the questionnaire explains the purpose of the survey and indicates that the contributed information will be kept confidential. It is the ethical responsibility of those individuals conducting the survey to ensure anonymity for respondents. After sending the questionnaire to consumers, follow up with phone calls, memos, or other methods to continue to solicit the return of surveys. To be considered sufficiently representative, at least 35 percent of the surveys must be completed and returned. Try offering incentives to increase the return rate. For example, the organization could offer consumers a discount on programs or purchases in the pro shop for completing and returning the survey.

Once the provider has collected and tabulated the data, it can be analyzed. The frequencies and percentages of responses to particular questions may reveal significantly desirable information. The data should be carefully analyzed to answer the questions and purpose of the survey. These results, then, become the basis for decision-making regarding the needs of employees and the provided programs and services.

Developing a Needs Assessment Report

Compile a needs assessment report and present it to management. The most appropriate method of sharing this report is to compile tables, graphs, and statistics in a manner that is easily understood. Provide a comprehensive report to management and an executive summary to interested consumers. The report should consist of the following components (Busser, 2010):

- Title page
- Executive summary (i.e., a short introductory summary of the entire report to allow the reader a quick overview of the report prior to reading the entire report)
- Introduction to the needs assessment study purpose
- Overview of methods and procedures
- Results
- Conclusions and recommendations

The Steps in the Planning Process

Fogg (2010) and Busser (2010) have suggested there are six steps involved in the planning process are identifying internal and external connections and relationships, establishing objectives, developing premises, decision-making, implementing a course of action, and evaluating the results:

Step 1: Identifying Internal and External Connections and Relationships
The initial step in the planning process is identifying internal strengths (accomplishments) and weaknesses (challenges) and external opportunities and threats (concerns). This information is placed into a SWOT analysis chart which will assist in the identification of connections and relationships relating to the internal organizational environment and external environment.

Step 2: Establishing Objectives
The next step in the planning process is the establishment of the organization's objectives. Objectives are an essential starting point as they provide direction for all other managerial activities. Objectives are generally based on perceived opportunities that exist in an organization's surrounding environment.

Step 3: Developing Premises
Once organizational objectives have been established, developing premises about the future environment in which they are to be accomplished is essential. This basically involves forecasting events or conditions likely to influence objective attainment.

Step 4: Decision-Making
After establishing objectives and developing premises, the next step is selecting the best course of action for accomplishing stated objectives from the possible alternatives. There are three phases of decision-making:

1. available alternatives must be identified,
2. each alternative must be evaluated in light of the premises about the future and the external environment, and
3. the alternative with the highest estimated probability of success should be selected.

Step 5: Implementing a Course of Action
Once a plan of action has been adopted, it must be implemented. Plans alone are no guarantee of success. Managers must initiate activities that will translate these plans into action.

Step 6: Evaluating the Results
Plans and their implementation must be constantly monitored and evaluated. All managers are responsible for the evaluation of planning outcomes. Comparing actual results with those projected and refining plans are both necessary.

Classification of Plans

Plans can be viewed from a number of different perspectives. From the viewpoint of application, plans can be classified in terms of functional areas (e.g., marketing plans, production plans, human resource management plans, financial plans, etc.). Plans may also be classified according to the period of time over which they are projected (e.g., short- or long-range) or with respect to their frequency of use (standing versus single-use). The nature of functional plans is evident. However, further explanation is needed for period of time and frequency of use plans.

Short- and long-range plans are the most popular classification of plans. In practice, however, the terms short-range and long-range have no precise meaning but rather, express relative periods of time. These plans are interrelated in at least two respects. First, they compete for the allocation of resources. Consequently, there can be a dangerous tendency to sacrifice long-term results for short-term gains. Second, short-range plans should be compatible with long-range plans. It is usually difficult, if not impossible, for long-range plans to succeed unless short-range plans are accomplished. Thus, both are important in achieving an organization's objectives.

The term short-range is often titled "operational" in many organizations and long-term has been changed to "applied strategic". These terms will be used interchangeably throughout the remainder of the chapter.

Paley (2005) and others suggest there are three criteria most often used in determining the length of a plan:

1. how far into the future an organization's commitments extend,
2. how much uncertainty is associated with the future, and
3. how much lead time is required to ready a good or service for sale.

Planning by most effective organizations is often done on a "rolling" basis. This simply means that those organizations that develop applied strategic plans for a five-year period and two-year operational plans are updating both plans on an annual basis. As the current year of a five-year plan closes, it is extended or rolled forward to include a new fifth year. This procedure allows an organization to revise its plans on the basis of new information and to maintain a degree of flexibility in its commitments. A general guideline outlined by Fogg (2010) is to refrain from formalizing plans until a final commitment is absolutely necessary.

Standing plans are used again and again. The focus is on managerial situations that recur repeatedly. Standing plans include policies, procedures, and rules. Policies are general statements that serve to guide decision-making. They are plans in that they prescribe parameters within which certain decisions are to be made. Policies set limits; but, they are subject to interpretation because they are broad guidelines. Table 1 provides examples of policies. Notice that each example is purposefully broad and only provides a general guideline subject to managerial discretion. However, each statement does prescribe parameters for decision-making and, thus, sets limits to the actions of organization members.

A procedure is a series of related steps that are to be followed in an established order to achieve a given purpose. Procedures prescribe exactly what actions are to be taken in a specific situation. Procedures are similar to policies in that both are intended to influence certain decisions. They are different in that policies address themselves to single decisions while procedures address themselves to a sequence of related decisions. Table 2 shows how an organization might write procedures for processing a bill of sale.

Rules are different from policies and procedures in that they specify what personal conduct is required of an individual. Stated differently, rules are standing plans that either prescribe or prohibit action by specifying what an individual may or may not do in a given situation. Therefore, the statements "Eye goggles must be worn", "No swimming alone", "No smoking", "No drinking on premises", are all examples of rules. Rules are usually accompanied by specifically stated penalties that vary according to the seriousness of the offense and number of previous violations. Unlike policies that guide but do not eliminate discretion, rules leave little room for interpretation. The only element of choice associated with a rule is whether it applies in a given situation. Of the three forms of standing plans discussed, rules are the simplest and most straightforward. They are without question the narrowest in scope and application.

Single-use plans are specifically developed to implement courses of action that are relatively unique and are unlikely to be repeated. Three principle forms of single-use plans are budgets, programs, and projects. A budget is a plan that deals with the future allocation and utilization of various resources to different activities over a given time period. Budgets are perhaps most frequently thought of in financial terms. However, they also are used to plan allocation and utilization of labor, raw materials, floor space, machine hours, and so on. A budget

Table 1: Examples of Policies

Customer Service:

It is the policy of this organization to provide customers with the finest service possible within the limits of sound financial principles.

Interpretation = What are the limits of sound finance?

Employee Benefits:

It is the policy of this organization to provide its employees with acceptable working conditions and an adequate living wage.

Interpretation = What is acceptable and adequate?

Promotion From Within:

It is the policy of this organization to promote qualified employees from within organization ranks whenever possible.

Interpretation = What is meant by qualified or possible?

Gifts From Suppliers or Vendors:

It is the policy of this organization that no employee shall accept any gift from any supplier or vendor unless it is of nominal value.

Interpretation = What is nominal?

Table 2: Procedure for Processing a Bill of Sale

Step 1: Prior to recording, all non-cash sales will be forwarded to the credit department for approval.

Step 2: Following necessary credit approval, all bills of sale will be presented toproduction scheduling for an estimated product completion date.

Step 3: Subsequent to production scheduling, all bills of sale will be delivered to the accounting department where they will be recorded.

Step 4: Pursuant to their processing in the accounting department, all bills of sale will be filed with the shipping department within 24 hours.

Table 3: Guidelines for Effective Program Development

1. Divide the overall program into parts, each with a clearly defined purpose.
2. Study the necessary sequence and relationships between the resulting parts.
3. Assign appropriate responsibility for each part to carefully selected individuals or groups.
4. Determine and allocate the resources necessary for the completion of each part.
5. Estimate the completion time required for each part.
6. Establish target dates for the completion of each part.

simply is a tool that managers use to translate future plans into numerical terms. Further, they are a method for controlling an organization's operations.

Programs are typically intended to accomplish a specific objective within a fixed time. Table 3 offers six guidelines for effective program development.

Table 4: Summary of Standing and Single-Use Plans

Type	Definition	Example
Standing Plans		
Policy	A general statement that guides decision making	"Preference will be given to hiring persons with disabilities."
Procedure	A series of related steps that are to be followed in an established order to achieve a given purpose.	Filing for travel expenses reimbursements
Rule	A statement that either prescribes or prohibits action by specifying what an individual may or may not do in a specific situation.	"No eating at work stations."
Single-Plans		
Budget	A plan that deals with the future allocation and utilization of various resources to different enterprise activities over a given time	The allocation and utilization of machine hours
Program	A plan typically intended to accomplish a specific objective within a fixed time	A membership recruitment program

Projects are usually a subset or component part of a specific program. Accordingly, projects often share some of the same characteristics with the overall programs of which they are a part. Projects are less complex than their supporting programs and are, by definition, narrower in scope. Table 4 summarizes the various standing and single-use plans.

Strategic Planning

Strategic planning, unlike operational planning which focuses on more direct aspects of operating an organization, focuses on an organization's long-term relationship to its environment. The strategic plan should be developed through the participatory involvement by all members of the organization and its clients. By focusing on an organization as a total system, strategic planning recognizes that all organizations face many uncontrollable elements within the environment.

Competitors' actions, economic conditions, regulatory groups, labor unions, and changing customer preferences represent factors over which an organization achieves its objectives. Therefore, strategic planning concerns itself with shaping an organization so it can accomplish its goals. Ansoff & Antoniou (2006), Park & Antoniou (2007) and others suggest that a strategic plan attempts to answer such questions as:

- What is the organization's business and what should it be?
- What business should the organization be in five years from now? Ten years?
- Who are the organization's customers and who should they be?
- Should the organization try to grow in this business or grow primarily in other businesses?

Ansoff & Antoniou (2006) and Park & Antoniou (2007) suggest that there are ten steps in most strategic planning processes. These steps are as follows:

- Establishing a purpose, mission, and vision for the plan
- Evaluating the environment in which the organization operates through a needs assessment couples with a SWOT analysis
- Making assumptions based on the implications drawn from step 2
- Establishing goals and objectives
- Development of action strategies to reach the goals and objectives
- Preparing operational plans
- Developing an evaluation process for reviewing the overall plan
- Preparing a controlling process to maintain the movement of the plan
- Developing a plan for performance appraisal and reward

Goals and Objectives

Goals are those ends that an organization seeks to achieve by its existence and operation. Objectives are the key steps that must be taken to complete the goal. There are two essential characteristics of an objective:

1. objectives are predetermined and
2. objectives describe future desired results toward which present efforts are directed.

There are eight key result areas in which all organizations should establish objectives: market share, innovation, productivity, physical and financial resources, profitability, manager performance and development, worker performance and attitude, and social responsibilities.

There are two ways to establish objectives. The first is the entrepreneurial method. Entrepreneurs establish objectives in the entrepreneurial method (top management or stockholders). An organization's objectives are defined as the entrepreneur's objectives. The entrepreneur ensures that employees' actions are consistent with these objectives by paying them salaries, bonuses, or pensions to support the goals.

The second method is the consensual method. In this method the objectives of an organization are established by the general consent of those concerned. Organization members share in setting the objectives and, thus, eliminate conflict by identifying common or consensual goals.

The Planning Premise

Once the enterprise objectives have been established, developing planning premises about the future environment in which they are to be accomplished is essential. Unfolding environmental conditions almost invariably influence enterprise objectives, forcing modifications in both current and anticipated activities. Premises, which attempt to describe what the future will be like, provide a framework for identifying, evaluating, and selecting a course of action for accomplishing enterprise objectives (Ansoff & Antoniou; 2006 & Park & Antoniou 2007).

The applied strategic plan is composed of a situational analysis, highlights, introduction, vision statement(s), value(s), mission statement, internal environment, external environment, connections, major action plans, major action priorities, monitoring and evaluating, and review, approval, and commitment (Ansoff & Antoniou; 2006 & Park & Antoniou 2007). The situational analysis has five sections including a description of the geographical location and pertinent demographics (e.g., population, economic indicators, industry, average income, etc.), a description of the organization, a SWOT summary, an overview of major strategies and plans, and an organization progress since last review.

The highlights section describes major challenges, customer/client needs, and major accomplishments. The introduction provides the reader with a brief description of the planning process and the people involved in the process. The vision statement describes the dream of the future for the organization. The values section describes that which is desirable or worthy of esteem by the organization (e.g., fostering a "we care" image with our clients). The mission statement is a statement outlining the purpose and mission of the organization. The internal environment is composed of a description of the organization's strengths (accomplishments) and weaknesses (challenges) and the external environment consists of a description of the organization's external opportunities and threats (concerns). After the internal and external environments have been analyzed, a series of connections are established based on the relationships found in the analysis. From the connections, a series of major action plans are established. The actions plans are then translated into major action priorities. These major action priorities are the foundation for the one- or two-year operational plan. The applied strategic plan must have established monitoring and evaluating procedures in place to assure the proper implementation of the plan. Finally, there must be review, approval, and commitment steps established for the final acceptance of the plan. (See Sample Applied Strategic Plan, Appendix A)

The operational plan includes the following components: major action priorities, problems, project summary, priority issue(s), background, vision of success, goals and objectives of the plan, and action plans (strategies, objectives, baseline data, and action steps).

Each major action priority will have a specific problem(s) that will be resolved at the completion of the project. The project summary describes briefly the project that will be undertaken by the organization. Each project will have one or more priority issues to be tackled during the project. Each major action priority will have a section that outlines the historical significance of the issue(s) relating to the action priority. This section is called background. The authors of the operational plan will describe a vision of success for each major action priority. Each major action priority will have one or more goals and a series of objectives for each goal.

Table 5: Tips for Writing Plans

The following are a few tips that may assist the organization planner in preparing the applied strategic or operational plans:

- Include a table of contents describing the overall content and organization of the plan, including page numbers.
- Format the plan consistently using the same style for sections, subsections, headings, and subheadings, etc., with a consistent use of numbers or letters for headings.
- Number all pages. Number the pages consecutively.
- Spell out and define all acronyms so that readers unfamiliar with the organizations, programs, and operations will understand the plan.
- Write clearly and concisely, with short declarative sentences and active verbs.
- Order the plan elements, provide cross-references when necessary, and deve lop a topic or subject index so that a reader can follow major ideas and themes throughout the document.
- Make all references to other documents, plans, or reports clear and specific enough to allow a reader to easily find the item or section referenced.
- Include in an appendix any information that is not critical to understanding the plan, but which provides useful background or context.

Each major action priority has an action plan. The action plan can have one or more strategies which can have one or more objectives. Each action plan has baseline data to be used to compare what was with what is. This comparison over the years will establish progress. For each action plan, there will be a series of action steps. Each action step will outline the resources to be used to complete the step, who's responsible for the completion of each step, and when the project will start and end. (see Sample Business Plan, Appendix B)

Pitfalls of Planning

Strategic planning is a process requiring great skill (see Table 5 for tips for writing plans). It can be frustrating and require a great deal of time. An inability to predict the future can create anxiety and feelings of inadequacy.

According to Ansoff and Antoniou 2006 and Park and Antoniou 2007, suggest the 10 biggest pitfalls to successful planning are:

- Top management assuming that it can delegate its planning function and, thus, not become directly involved.
- Top management becoming so involved in current problems that it spends insufficient time on planning. As a consequence, planning becomes discredited at lower levels.
- Failing to clearly define and develop enterprise goals as a basis for formulating long-range goals.
- Failing to adequately involve major line managers in the planning process.
- Failing to actually use plans as a standard for assessing managerial performance.
- Failing to create a congenial and supportive climate for planning.
- Assuming that comprehensive planning is something separate from other aspects of the management process.
- Creating a planning program that lacks flexibility and simplicity and fails to encourage creativity.
- Top management failing to review and evaluate long-range plans that have been developed by department and division heads.
- Top management making intuitive decisions that conflict with formal plans.

The Steps in Benchmarking

Benchmarking is generally considered a measurement of the quality of an organization's policies, products, programs, strategies, etc., and their comparison with standard measurements, or similar measurements of its peers. The objectives of benchmarking are:

1. to determine what and where improvements are called for,
2. to analyze how other organizations achieve their high performance levels, and
3. to use this information to improve performance.

There are six common steps in benchmarking and they are: determining what to benchmark, preparing to benchmark, conducting research, selecting with whom to benchmark, collecting and sharing information, and analyzing, adapting, and improving (Stapenhurst, 2009).

The first step, determining what to benchmark, is critical to the entire process. The manager must review carefully all products and services provided to ascertain which ones need to be compared to benchmarks for purposes of improvement.

The manager answers seven basic questions in this process: (Stapenhurst, 2009)

1. Which aspects of the service are excellent?

2. Which aspects are above average?
3. Which aspects are averages?
4. Which aspects are below average?
5. Which aspects are poor?
6. Which aspects are very important?
7. Which aspects are not important?

The second step is to prepare to benchmark. It is important to baseline current services for two reasons:

1. to identify weaknesses or gaps that can be concentrated upon, and
2. to identify strengths.

Next, the manager or team conducts research to select the organizations that are comparable in size and function and that have outstanding services in this specific area and to gather information about each of these companies and their services.

In step four the benchmark companies and programs will be chosen from the list prepared in step three. In this step a short questionnaire (pilot study) is prepared to ascertain which companies have excelled in this particular service. After reviewing the returns, the benchmark group will be selected from the results.

The next step is to collate all information about the benchmarked companies and programs, visit the companies and programs (on-site) to gather additional information, and share all the information gathered with the team, management, and the other companies.

Finally, the data is analyzed and discussed among the team members and recommendations for modification are prepared and communicated. Do any of these statements sound familiar? "If you want something done right, do it yourself!" "It will take me more time to explain it to you than if I do it myself!" "It is easier and faster for me to do it, so I will do it!" One of the traps a manager falls into is perfectionism (i.e., feeling as though he or she is the only person who can work with a special supplier, handle a ticklish situation or create the promotional materials for a program). A manager is much more effective if he or she teaches others how to do various tasks and then supervises their efforts. It is impossible to do everything equally well when one is spread too thin.

Effective delegation requires that the delegator:

1. state a clear objective,
2. determine guidelines for the project,
3. set any limitations or constraints,
4. grant the person the authority to carry out the assignment,
5. set the deadline for its completion, and
6. decide the best means for the person to provide regular progress reports (e.g., oral or written, weekly, monthly, semi-annually, or annually).

Further, the manager can employ any one of seven levels of delegation:

1. Decide and take action, you need not check back with me.
2. Decide and take action; but, let me know what you did.
3. Decide and let me know your decision. Then take action unless I say not to.
4. Decide and then let me know your decision; but, wait for my go ahead.
5. Decide what you would do, but tell me your alternatives with the pros and cons of each.
6. Look into this problem and give me the facts. I will decide.
7. Wait to be told.

Finally, there are five common reasons why managers fail to delegate. They are:

1. nobody does it better,
2. guilt,
3. insecurity,
4. lack of trust, and
5. takes time.

Planning Teams ... Friend or Foe?

If a planning team is formed the right way it can accelerate the planning process, reduce the time to complete a plan, and reduce operating costs. But, if it is done incorrectly, just the opposite can happen. Schmidt (2009) and others suggest there are number of wrong reasons for initiating a team approach to planning, including:

1. a belief that teams will produce better results automatically,
2. it is the popular thing to do,
3. we have downsized and have fewer managers, and
4. we have downsized and have fewer employees.

However, there are a number of right reasons to consider utilizing teams including:

1. an organizational belief in creating an environment where people can give their best,
2. an increase in the flexibility of the organization, and
3. an organization's structure is already suited to a team approach.

There are two categories of teams—performance and problem solving. Performance teams are structured around work processes. The members are employees who have been hired to do the work. It is a permanent structure of the organization and operates on a daily basis. Participation on the team is mandatory. The team establishes its mission, identifies key performance indicators, measures and monitors performance, solves problems, removes barriers to performance, and holds itself accountable for high levels of performance. Further, the team is empowered to change work processes and has decision-making authority within boundaries. Finally, the team requires training in identifying customers, performance measurement, work process evaluation, team leadership, problem solving, group dynamics, and coaching.

While the problem-solving team is structured around expertise in the problem area, its members are hand selected for their expertise in the problem area. It has a temporary structure that is disbanded after the problem is solved. It represents extra work for those assigned. Participation is voluntary. The team is provided a mandate outlining the problem to be solved. It uses a systematic approach to problem solving. Further, the team makes recommendations for change and has no decision-making authority. Finally, the team requires training in complex problem solving.

Transforming a group of people into a team requires the following: (Schmidt, 2009)

- Management values individual initiative and high levels of employee participation versus maintaining the status quo.
- Employees are eager to learn and welcome the opportunity for training.
- Employees have a "We can solve anything." attitude.
- Accountability is based on process and results.
- Performance management systems are aligned with and support teams.
- Management is willing to walk the talk.
- Strong team values are established.

Sample team values include: perform with enthusiasm, share time, resources, and ideas with each other, consult together to achieve unity of thought and action, listen to each other, encourage, clarify points of view, ask questions and support other coworkers' opinions, continuous improvement in work and in learning, do things right the first time, will not initiate or receive gossip, use appropriate channels to express disagreement/concern, work through problems and look for win-win solutions; and be tough on problems, easy on people.

Chart 1: Common Team Problems and How to Solve Them

Problem	Solution
Too much time spent in meetings	One hour a week set aside for a meeting
Lots of responsibility, no authority	Clarify boundaries and level of authority
Lack of direction	Management sets clear direction
Over/under-empowerment	Empowerment tied to competency level
Unclear purpose	Clarify mission and performance objectives
Lack of training	Provide necessary training
Withdrawal of management support	Build team structure to sustain itself

In Chart 1 Schmidt (2009) and others have delineated common team problems and how to solve them.

Policies and Procedures Manual Development

There are any number of reasons why it is important to have written policies and procedures for governing facility/event management.

The primary reasons are to:

1. provide a formal policy that guides administrative decisions,
2. reduce the organization's vulnerability to litigation, and
3. clearly communicate to staff and customers/clients a set of uniform and standard practices to guide decisions and behaviors (Conn & Maloy, 1989; Conn, 1991; Peabody, 2006; and Page, 2009).

A well-designed policy and procedure manual for facility/event management can assist in answering questions, such as these:

- What type of reports, records, or documentation are staff required to file and keep?
- What are the due process procedures?
- What are the staff's legal responsibilities and procedures for implementing them?
- What is the policy regarding requisitioning, purchasing, inventorying, servicing, maintaining, and inspecting equipment?
- What is the recruiting, hiring, and evaluating process?
- What are the emergency procedures?
- What are the crowd control procedures?
- What process is utilized for inspecting and maintaining the facilities?
- What procedures are employed for program evaluation?
- What process is implemented to control admission?
- How is the facility scheduled?
- What are the procedures for evaluating whether or not a person can return to activity after injury or illness?

Suggested Contents

A facility/event, policies, and procedures manual should delineate general as well as specific program guidelines. The kind of information that should be contained in the policies and procedures manual will vary from one organization to another. In general, according to Conn and Malloy, the policies should reflect:

1. the rights of all participants,
2. the philosophy of the organization and the rationale for the existence of the program, and
3. such legislative dictates as Title VII (sexual harassment), Title IX (gender equity), and the Americans with Disabilities Act (equal access for disabled participants).

Figure 2: Suggested Table of Contents for a Policies and Procedure Manual

- Accountability: annual financial audits, facility and equipment maintenance audits, facility and equipment inspection audits, inventory control, personnel evaluation, program evaluation, risk assessment survey, and ticket inventory control and sales audits
- Sports/Athletics Council: purpose, function, structure, and operating rules
- Governance Structures/Authorities
- Equipment: acceptable supplier or vendor list, requisition process, purchasing process, bidding procedures, inventory process, inspection audits, and maintenance procedures
- Budgeting: formulation, accountability, and control
- Events: staging, concessions, entertainment, scheduling, traffic, and parking
- Computer Operations
- Conduct and Ethics: staff and participants
- Courtesy Car Program
- Disbursements: goods and services, payroll, and travel expenses
- Employment Conditions: educational benefits, hiring, holidays and vacations, leaves of absence, parking, and performance evaluation
- Expansion and Curtailment of Programs
- Expansion/Renovation of Facilities
- Facilities: maintenance, inspection, risk assessment, usage, and key distribution
- Film Office: equipment and operations
- Fundraising and Booster Organizations

Figure 2 outlines a suggested table of contents for the policies and procedure manual.

Steps for Developing a Policies and Procedures Manual

The steps for the development of a policies and procedures manual are described below. This manual should be a flexible, dynamic document that guides employees. Further, the document should be reviewed and revised annually after implementation. Finally, the primary reasons for a policies and procedures manual for facility/event management are to:

1. provide a formal policy that guides decisions,
2. reduce the organization's vulnerability to litigation, and
3. clearly communicate to staff and customer/clients a set of uniform and standard practices to guide decisions and behaviors (Conn & Maloy; Conn 1991; Peabody, 2006; and Page, 2009).

Step 1: Developing a policies and procedures manual is a long, arduous task that requires management's complete involvement and support. It is important that all personnel (management as well as staff) are involved in the development of the policies and procedures for the organization. The typical approach is to appoint a committee to carefully research and ultimately recommend policies and procedures. Management must be prepared to allocate resources (e.g., time and funds) and encourage the involvement of all staff members. Policies and procedures must be carefully researched and synthesized before being written. Therefore, it is extremely important to involve people who look at policies and procedures from many different angles. The more widespread the involvement, the greater the chances are that the manual will be used and maintained after completion.

Several factors should be considered when deciding who will be appointed to the committee:

- **Size of the staff**—every member of a small staff will have intimate involvement on the committee; however, larger staffs should be divided into subcommittees that will prepare specific sets of policies and procedures.
- **Administration and board**—the manual must be approved by management and the board (if one exists); therefore, it is important that management and the board are represented on the committee.
- **Customer/client/student-athlete**—it is important to involve those most affected by the policies and procedures on the committee that develops them.
- **Community interest**—most organizations have links with the community and community representation could be very useful in future activities; therefore, it is important to involve community members on the committee.
- **Diversity or inclusiveness**—the committee should be a mirror image of the organization and the community as a whole.

Step 2: The format of the manual must be flexible. It is suggested that:

1. a three-ring binder be used to store the information;
2. the information be divided into logical sections and subsections with appropriate paginations (e.g., section 1—1.1, 1.2, 1.3, section 2—2.1, 2.2, 2.3),
3. a table of contents, definition section for acronyms and terms, and index be included, and
4. the various sections be color-coded.

Step 3: The committee should assign one person to write the manual after collecting the appropriate data from the various task groups. The committee needs to adopt an outline and structure for the manual as well as a timeline for completion of the various sections. The writer should be using a computer and appropriate word processing software.

Step 4: The completed manual is dynamic in nature and must be reviewed periodically. A procedure for reviewing the manual must be established. All staff members should be encouraged to periodically review the policies and procedures within their domain and then recommend any changes to the appropriate authorities. Making policy and procedure changes a regular agenda item at staff meetings sensitizes the staff to the importance of the manual and maintains its currency.

When One Manual Will Not Do

Depending on the size of the organization, one thick manual may not be the most efficient way to operate. This is particularly true if there are a large number of specialists working within the program who do not need to know everything. What may be more efficient is a series of special manuals. One or more manuals may be given to employees as needed. Here is a listing of possible policy manuals to be used by an organization: (Conn & Malloy, 1989; Conn 1991; Peabody, 2006; and Page, 2009)

- the scheduling manual
- the fitness manual
- the operations manual
- the emergency manual
- the in-service training manual
- the risk management manual
- the sales and marketing manual
- the repair and maintenance manual
- the human resources manual
- the fund raising manual
- the employee benefits manual
- the special event manual
- the membership retention manual
- the recruitment/motivation manual for volunteers

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Did You Know?

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- On average, American children and adolescents spend nearly four hours watching television every day.
- More than 14 percent of children enter kindergarten overweight and are four times more likely than normal weight children to become obese by the eighth grade.
- Overweight adolescents have a 70 percent chance of becoming overweight adults.
- Numerous studies have demonstrated that increased physical activity is linked to better school performance.

Hoops For Heart is a national education and fundraising event created by the American Heart Association and SHAPE America-Society of Health and Physical Educators. Students learn basketball skills, learn the benefits of physical activity, healthy eating and avoiding tobacco; and raise funds for research and programs to fight heart disease and stroke.

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- Advocating at federal and state levels for physical education and nutrition wellness in schools
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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.

Preparing Manuscript

Manuscripts are to conform to the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA; 6th ed.) style. To facilitate the review process, the author(s) should use double-spaced type and include line numbers as well as page numbers. Papers must not exceed a total of 28 pages including references, charts, tables, figures, and photographs. There should be an abstract not to exceed 500 words. Further, all charts, tables, figures, and photographs will be after the references. Papers deviating from the recommended format will not be considered until they are revised.

Electronic Submission

Electronic submission of manuscripts is required at thomas.sawyer@indstate.edu . The manuscript order is: (1) blind title page, (2) abstract, (3) key words, (4) text, (5) references, (6) author notes, (7) footnotes, (8) charts, (9) tables, (10) figure captions, and (11) figures. The cover letter will be a separate file. Including author(s) name and affiliation and contact information of corresonding author.

Send it in
...to the Editor

A new idea that you have penned,
Share it with a Indiana AHPERD friend.
On the Journal pages, let it end.
We sure do want it... send it in!
It may be an article you did write
In sheer frustraton one weary night.
But, someone else it may excite.
...Send it in.
Is it a cartoon that you have drawn?
Did you compose a unique song?
Could our whole profession sing along?
...Well, send it in.
Some folks are inspired by poetry
And works of art let others see
The inner thoughts of you and me.
Please, send it in.
Then, there are works that scholars do,
Great research... we need that, too.
But, you know we must depend on YOU
To send it in.
Won't you share with us your thought
That we all just may be taught?
My, what changes could be wrought
If you'd just send it in.

Tom Sawyer
Indiana AHPERD Journal Editor

Cover Letter

The cover letter ***must*** include all contact information for the corresponding author, and employers of the remaining authors. The following statements must be included in the cover letter:

"This manuscript represents results of original work that have not been published elsewhere (except as an abstract in conference proceedings)."

"This manuscript has not and will not be submitted for publication elsewhere until a decision is made regarding its acceptability for publication in the Indiana AHPERD Journal."

"This scholarly inquiry is not part of a larger study."

"This manuscript has not been previously published or submitted for publication elsewhere, either in identical or modified form."

Authors

List ***multiple*** authors in the order of proportionate work completed. Also indicate research reports supported by grants and contracts. Include biographical information on all authors (title, department, institution or company, and full address).

Authors Statement

The author ***must*** provide a signed statement certifying that the article has not previously been published or submitted for publication elsewhere either in identical or modified form.

Deadlines

Journal ❑ Spring Issue / April 1 ❑ Fall Issue / August 1 ❑ Winter Issue / December 1

Newsletter ❑ Spring Issue / March 1 ❑ Fall Issue / October 1

Indiana AHPERD
Membership Application

(Please Print/Type)

Company/School Name ____________________

Primary Representative Name ____________________

City ____________ State ____________ Zip ____________

Telephone: Area Code (___) ____________________

E-mail Address ____________________

Referring Member/Company ____________________

Indiana AHPERD
Leadership Opportunities

Opportunity for Involvement

Involvement is the key word to making a contribution to your professional association. The IAHPERD provides an opportunity for involvement through the choices below and we encourage each of you to be active participants by serving on a committee or by holding an office. Please let us know of any position listed that interests you.

Interested

To apply for a leadership position on a council, send an email of interest to Dr. Mark Urtel, Nominating Committee Chair, at murtel1@iupui.edu. For additional information, go to the IAHPERD website at www.Indiana-ahperd.org, click on About, Constitution, Operating Codes, and scroll down to the leadership position of interest.

The duties and responsibilities of the Program and Regional Councils:

- work closely with the Program Director/Regional Coordinator to promote the special program area
- attend annual IAHPERD Leadership Conference (hotel and meals paid for by the association)
- solicit programming for the State Conference/Regional Workshops
- serve as host to greet & direct presenters during the conference
- serve as presider for the various programs in your special area; introducing presenters, assisting during presentations, providing presenters with the special gift from the association, etc.
- make nominations to the Awards Committee Chair for Teacher of the Year and Association Awards.

Send Membership Check Payment and any Change of Membership Information To:

Executive Director: Karen Hatch
2007 Wilno Drive
Marion, IN 46952

Annual Membership
(Expires 1 yr from enrollment date)

- ◯ **$25 Student membership** *(undergraduate / full-time graduate students)*
- ◯ **$50 Professional membership**
- ◯ **New Membership**
- ◯ **Renewal Membership Dues**

Make check payable to Indiana AHPERD.
Send Payment to Executive Director Below.
Members rates are subject to change.

Be A Leader!

Would you be willing to become involved?

______ District level

______ State level

______ Committee Involvement

______ State Office

______ Regional Leadershiip

Program Areas

- Adapted Physical Education
- Aquatics
- Council for Future Professionals
- Dance
- Fitness
- Health
- Higher Education/Research
- Jump Rope and Hoops for Heart
- Physical Education: Elementary School
- Physical Education: Middle School
- Physical Education: Secondary
- Recreation
- Sport
- Sport Management
- Technology

INDIANA AHPERD

2016 STATE CONFERENCE AND EXPOSITION REGISTRATION FORM

CHANGING SCENE - COME ALIVE

NOVEMBER 1, 2, 3, 2016
WYNDHAM WEST INDIANAPOLIS

MEMBERSHIP

☐ New in 2016
☐ Renewal in 2016

MEMBERSHIP TYPE

☐ Professional
☐ Student
☐ Retiree

I AM A

☐ Hoops for Heart Coordinator
☐ Jump Rope for Heart Coordinator

PRINT First Name ________ MI ________ Last Name ________

Home Phone ________ Work Phone ________

Preferred Mailing Address ________ City ________ State ________ Zip ________

Preferred Email Address ________ Summer Email Address (if different) ________

School/Company Name ________ School Corporation ________

EMPLOYMENT LEVEL

☐ Elementary School ☐ College/University ☐ Public Health ☐ Student
☐ Community Fitness ☐ Junior High/Middle School ☐ Recreation/Parks ☐ Business ☐ High School

PRIMARY INTERESTS SELECT UP TO THREE

☐ Recreation ☐ Professional Development ☐ Coaching
☐ Health ☐ Adapted Physical Education ☐ Physical Education ☐ Dance

	Professional Member		Professional Non-Member		Student Member		Student Non-Member		Amount
	Early Bird Fees	Onsite Fees	Early Bird Fees	Onsite Fees	Early Bird Fees	Onsite Fees	Early Bird Fees	Onsite Fees	
JOIN IAHPERD TODAY – Membership for 2016	$50	$50	n/a	n/a	$25	$25	n/a	n/a	
2 Day Conference	$95	$120	$140	$175	$35	$50	$65	$75	
1 Day Conference	$55	$70	$115	$130	$30	$40	$60	$65	
Retired Professional	$0	$0	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	
Awards Dinner	$35	n/a	$40	n/a	$35	n/a	$40	n/a	
JRHH Lunch and Awards for Coordinators Only (will be reimbursed when you pick up your lunch)	$15	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	
PRE-REGISTRATION: POSTMARKED BY OCTOBER 1								**TOTAL**	

ONLINE REGISTRATION IS AVAILABLE ON WWW.INAHPERD.ORG

PRE-REGISTRATION DEADLINE POSTMARKED BY OCTOBER 1

Online registrations will not be accepted after midnight October 20th, or if mailed, must be postmarked October 15th.
After October 20th, those wishing to register for the state conference are asked to register onsite beginning at 7:30 a.m. on Tuesday, November 1st at the conference registration desk at the
Wyndham West Indianapolis.

Cancellations must be made in writing to IAHPERD Executive Director, Karen Hatch and postmarked no later than October 20th. All cancellations are subject to a $10.00 processing fee.
Refunds will be issued 6-8 weeks after the conference.
No cancellations will be accepted or refunds issued on requests made after October 20th.

Complete and Mail form with fees to:

IAHPERD
Karen Hatch, Executive Director
2007 Wilno Drive
Marion, IN 46952

Make check payable to: **IAHPERD**
Note: We **DO NOT** accept school or corporate **PURCHASE ORDERS**
ONE REGISTRANT PER FORM
Any questions please call Karen Hatch at 765-664-8319

INDIANA AHPERD

ONLINE REGISTRATION IS AVAILABLE ON WWW.INAHPERD.ORG
PRE - REGISTRATION DEADLINE POSTMARKED BY OCTOBER 1

Share your Journal with a Colleague!

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