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A Message from the KAHPERD President

To all you journal readers I give you greetings from your KAHPERD President. I want to thank Dr. Steve Chen, Journal editor and for all those writers who have contributed to this edition.

Our Fall Convention's theme is "Change, Challenge, Opportunity." The plans are progressing well and will include the following: Sunday KDE will once again host a teacher's workshop in the evening; Monday, Dr. Bryant Stamford, Hanover College Professor of Kinesiology and Integrative Physiology and writer of *The Body Shop*, featured weekly in the *Louisville Courier Journal*, will be our keynote speaker in our General Session.

Upcoming events include the KAHPERD summer workshop to be held at Dishman-McGinnis Elementary School in Bowling Green, Kentucky Monday June 15 and 16, 2015. The theme is "TOY Best Practices" coordinated by Sue Banister. See the KAHPERD website for registration and more information.

Thank you, the reader, for your continued involvement with the students in Kentucky. Your perseverance and dedication to your schools and students is an inspiration and part of what makes our profession strong.

Vicki Johnson-Leuze, Ph.D
President, KAHPERD

Acknowledgement

Sincerely,
Steve Chen, KAHPERD Journal Editor

<p style="text-align:center">**KAHPERD Journal Submission Guideline**</p>

SUBMISSION OF A PAPER

The KAHPERD Journal is published twice yearly (spring and fall) by the Kentucky Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance. The journal welcomes the submission of empirical research papers, articles/commentaries, best practices/strategies, interviews, research abstracts (spring Issue only) and book reviews from academics and practitioners. Please read the information below about the aims and scope of the journal, the format and style for submitted material and the submissions protocol. Your work will more likely to be published, if you follow the following guidelines thoroughly. Articles are accepted via an electronic attachment (must be in Microsoft Word format, doc or docx) through e-mail to the editor before the deadline dates. Submissions should be sent to editor, Steve Chen: s.chen@moreheadstate.edu
Deadlines: Spring issue—March 1 & fall issue—September 1

AIMS AND SCOPE

The main mission is to bring together academics and practitioners to further the knowledge and understanding of issues and topics related to health, physical education, sport administration and marketing, exercise science, sport coaching, dance, and recreation, etc. We encourage submissions relating to these topics from a variety of perspectives.

CONTENT

All articles should be written primarily to inform senior practitioners and academics involved in areas of health, physical education, recreation and dance.
Research articles should be well grounded conceptually and theoretically, and be methodologically sound. Qualitative and quantitative pieces of research are equally appropriate. A good format to follow would be: Introduction, Literature Review, Methodology, Results, & Discussion, Conclusion, and Implication.
Articles may include an abstract of approximately 150 words including the rationale for the study, methods used, key findings and conclusions. Article should not exceed 10 single-spaced pages (not including references, tables, and figures).
Reviews of books and/or reports are welcome (around 1000-2000 words). Information concerning the book/report must be sent to the editor.
Interviews (it would be nice to discuss with the editor beforehand) and best practice/strategy papers of 1,500-3,000 words should be objective and informative rather than promotional and should follow the following format: Objective/Background/Discussion and Practical Implication.
Research abstracts (300 words or less) are welcome and limited to the spring issue only. The submitted abstracts should have been presented (either an oral or a poster presentation) in the KAHPERD annual conference in the previous year.
*The editor is keen to discuss and advise on proposed research projects, but this is no guarantee of publication.

FORMAT AND STYLE

Manuscripts should follow the form of the guidelines for publications outlined in the 6th edition of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association.

Tables, charts, pictures, diagrams, drawings and figures should be in black and white, placed on separate pages at the end of the manuscript. They must be submitted photo ready and reproduced to fit into a standard print column of 3.5 inches. Only one copy of each illustration is required, and captions and proper citations should be typed on the bottom of the table and diagrams. Jargon should be reduced to a minimum, with technical language and acronyms clearly defined. The accuracy of any citations is the responsibility of the author(s).

For more specific style questions, please consult a recent edition of the journal.

SUBMISSIONS PROTOCOL

Submission of a paper to the publication implies agreement of the author(s) that copyright rests with KAHPERD Journal when the paper is published.

KAHPERD Journal will not accept any submissions that are under review with other publications. All manuscripts submitted will be peer reviewed by 3 members of the editorial board. To be accepted for publication in the journal, the article must be approved by no less than 2 of the 3 reviewers. Authors will normally receive a decision regarding publication within six to 12 weeks. Rejected manuscripts will not be returned.
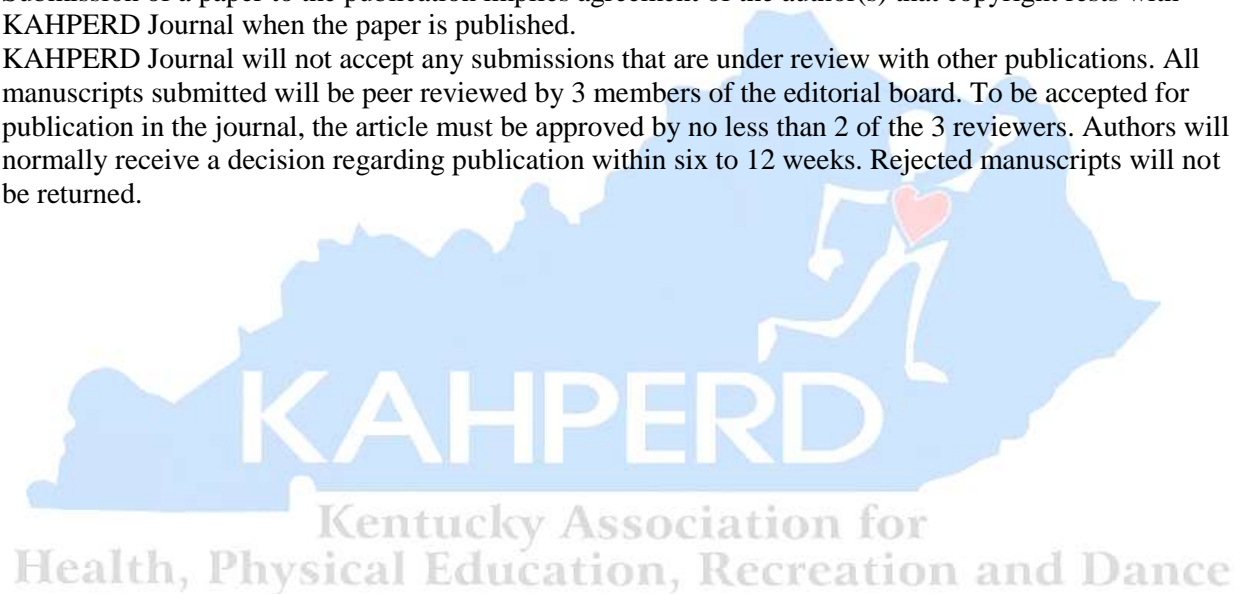
Sport Education: Motivating Students with Disabilities in Physical Education

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Seung-Yeop Baek, Changwon National University, South Korea

The Sport Education model, with its goals of producing competent, literate, and enthusiastic students, is becoming more widely accepted (Siedentop et al., 2004). Responses of teachers and students to Sport Education have been mostly positive, and the model has been used in elementary, secondary schools, and in university settings (Wallhead & O'Sullivan, 2005). However, there is very limited evidence on the effects of using Sport Education with students with disabilities (Fitipaldi-Wert et al., 2007). There is a lack of research on teachers' perspectives of using the model with students with disabilities. Therefore, the purpose of this case study was to examine the perspectives of a physical education (PE) teacher on using Sport Education with students with disabilities. The participant was a PE teacher with six years of teaching experience. The study took place at a secondary school that serves 19 students with severe and profound cognitive and physical disabilities. The PE teacher conducted two, 16-lesson swimming Sport Education sessions with students in Grades 6 and 7 during regular PE. Data were collected using video records of all lessons, field notes, lesson plans, and two formal and 16 informal interviews. A thematic analysis was used for data analysis to identify common themes (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). The following themes were identified: (1) change of teaching style, (2) increased planning, (3) increased student enthusiasm and social interaction, and (4) challenges in team affiliation. The findings of the study rectify the effect of Sport Education documented in Kinchin, 2006 and also underscored the unique challenges for the teacher when using Sport Education with students with disabilities.

Key words: Sport education; Physical education; Students with disabilities

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Assessing Public Relation Strategies for Crisis Situations in Sports

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The public's perception of a sports organization can influence ticket sales, stock prices and money generated for the organization. Sport organizations strive to present a positive public image but occasionally crisis situations occur that negatively affect the reputation of a sports organization. Crisis communicators use a number of techniques to improve the view of an organization including denial, diminishing, rebuilding and bolstering. Part of being a crisis communicator is being familiar with the techniques needed to combat a crisis when it occurs.

A positive public image keeps fans attending sporting events and supporting a team (Butler & Jensen, 2007). In 2001, the Enron crisis had a negative effect on the Houston Astros baseball franchise. The Astros title sponsor, Enron, experienced a number of legal issues including bank fraud, insider trading and money laundering. The Enron association was terrible for business and the Astros had to distance themselves by obtaining the naming rights of the stadium back and quickly removing all traces of the Enron name from the stadium. Part of the Astros' strategic plan to re-gain fan support involved a partnership with Minute Maid, homegrown in Houston.

Other examples identified in the research included Brazeal's (2008) detailing of the Terrell Owens crisis while Walsh and McAllister-Spooner (2011) discussed the Michael Phelps marijuana crises. Owens became a public relations nightmare with negative behavior and a picture of Phelps captured him smoking marijuana. Owens attempted to bolster his image through interviews and conferences. Owens spoke to reporters using pre-written statements and speeches by his agent which scapegoated blame amongst other factors. Phelps addressed the nation the day the image was released. Attempts were made to re-direct focus from Phelps the pot smoker to Phelps the Olympic champion. Phelps re-gained his public image while Owens lost his job.

A point that can be taken is whichever method is chosen to combat a crisis, the method should be initiated proactively and genuinely. Also each crisis is different and has different factors that cause and influence it. Each method used will affect a situation differently so researching the appropriate method to use is well worth the time and effort. As more crises arise there will be specific techniques to use in order to address the crisis situations. In order to be a successful public relations professional in sports it is important to understand techniques for resolving crisis situations.

Key Words: Crisis situation, public relations, and sports

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Assessing the Usage of LEED Procedures when Constructing Sport Facilities

Stephanie Viens, Western Kentucky University (Stephanie.viens764@topper.wku.edu)

The usage of Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) has progressed significantly over the past few years. A variety of sports facilities have been LEED certified including NBA arenas, recreational facilities, university football stadiums, and MLB stadiums. LEED features include using recycled or local materials in production, developing a facility on grounds already established, enhancing the usage of natural light and energy, and reducing the carbon footprint of the building.

A well design plan can help a facility become LEED certified. For example, the Washington Nationals Major League Baseball team, has a baseball field planted with Mondo grass. Mondo is a type of grass that never needs mowing; which in turn saves time, labor, water, and gasoline needed for the lawnmowers. The Nationals ballpark also included a 6,300 square foot green roof that created an obstacle for the construction workers since the weight of the roof could not exceed 25 lbs. per square foot. Therefore, no more than eight employees could be on the roof at a single time during construction. Soil, gravel, and sedum plants cover the green roof and provide a source of shade in the stadium's concession area (Hall, 2008).

Higher levels of the LEED certification are achieved through methods used to conserve energy and water. Low-flow plumbing, wind turbines, solar panels, and insulation methods all assist the facility/building to reduce energy usage.

Placement of the building is also important while creating a green facility. The Amway Center, home of Orlando's NBA arena, was repurposed on a four-block by four-block site (Jones, 2009). The University of North Texas' football stadium was created on an old golf course. The construction and design team incorporated renewable wind energy and provided three wind turbines to help produce energy, therefore benefiting the open area of the stadium (Williams, 2012).

In order to continue green efforts after a facility has been constructed, it is vital to implement a recycling plan. The Miami Marlins stadium created a recycling plan throughout the facility using obvious signage and literature to encourage attendees to recycle (Jakobson, 2012).

In conclusion, the usage of LEED procedures during the construction of a facility can have a lasting, beneficial impact on the local community by reducing its carbon footprint. It is something that should be implemented during all new constructions.

Key words: LEED, Sport Facilities, Construction of Sport Facilities

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Assessing Spectator Injury Risk While Attending Athletic Events

Bobbi Adkins, Western Kentucky University (bobbi.adkins635@topper.wku.edu)

People attend sporting events for various reasons. Some may go because they love the game or they may go to spend time with family and friends. Regardless of the reason, purchasing a ticket for a sporting event comes with some level of risk. Attending sporting events can potentially be dangerous for spectators; therefore they should be aware of all the risks when purchasing a ticket. Spectators assume that injuries can occur to them or their guests, but might not be aware of how bad the injuries could be. The injuries can range from minor contusions and abrasions, to possibly death. The purpose of the literature review is to examine ten different articles where the risks that spectators assume while attending athletic events is discussed. These risks can range from projectiles such as baseballs, baseball bats, loose car parts, and hockey pucks flying into the stands, to lightning and crowding while trying to exit an athletic venue. The articles used examine risks in baseball, hockey, auto racing, and natural weather. It also discusses the duty to act that owners of athletic venues possess. The literature review discusses some protocols and procedures that can decrease the risk of injury to both the spectators and the owners of athletic venues. Because our sports are constantly evolving, this literature review helps distinguish the risks that spectators assume while attending athletic events and gives some insight as to how to help lessen the risks.

Key words: Spectator, injury, sports

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Assessing the Use and Consequence of Social Media by College Athletes

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William Hey, Western Kentucky University

While social media undergoes perpetual change, college athletic departments must decide how to keep up with the changes while simultaneously monitoring the way that their student-athletes use the available various platforms. Without a set of guidelines put in place by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), there is no rule defining how athletic departments should monitor social media conduct. There is also no definitive set of guidelines on what is deemed "inappropriate," "offensive," or what the NCAA calls "reasonable suspicion of rules violations." College athletic departments are, therefore, given the responsibility of designing their own guidelines and issuing their own punishments to the student-athletes. Regardless of an athletic department's bound set of guidelines, are the restrictions, bans, consequences, and punishments given to student-athletes constitutional? Or do they infringe upon the students' First Amendment rights? Does signing the dotted line on an athletic scholarship agreement and becoming the face of a university in exchange for an education forfeit the right of free speech?
By reviewing such cases as *Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District* (1969), *Tatro v. University of Minnesota* (2012), *Wildman v. Marshalltown School District 56* (2001), and *Bethel School District No. 403 v. Fraser* (1986), it becomes clear that the right to express one's opinions and ideas on school property while representing an institution, is not absolute. The codes of conduct or other agreements presented by the respective institution and signed by the student-athlete define the student-athlete's expected behavior, while they are acting as a representative of the institution. As social media evolves, the NCAA's policies should also evolve with it, in a manner both beneficial for the colleges and universities it presides over and the student-athletes that attend them.

Keywords: social media, college athletics, first amendment

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Comparing the Global Economy and Sport Environments with International Sports Campaigns

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Rising with the advance of the global economy, the sport industry has become one of the most important businesses that can impact the economy and sport environments in the world. People who dedicate to work extremely hard also want to enjoy recreational activities and sports. The public pursues an active lifestyle that prompts them to exercise and watch sports games or shows to help release daily pressures. In this case, a sports campaign can act in a significant role to benefit both demands for people from active exercise and media. Besides, developing sports campaigns, the international stage is a successful strategy in the sport industry to enhance competitive conditions and products' sale in the world market. Therefore, it is important to use research for assessing the impact of sports campaigns on the global economy and sport environments by identifying numerous advantages from other countries. Additionally, researchers may also help people comprehend the phenomenon that some undeveloped areas can progress rapidly through the international sports campaigns because of incomes that come with the activities. Some interesting situations showed enterprising corporations around the world performed aggressively to obtained rights for endorsements in sports campaigns. Companies that endorsed international sports campaigns can benefit from opportunities to broadcast and make profits from global consumers, and the primary goal of social media companies is to attract more audience and readers to watch the broadcast and consume services. Generally, intentional sports campaigns possess tremendous power to improve economic situations in hosting areas. Besides, governments can enhance reputations in people's minds by participating actively in events, because good reputations are helpful when establishing high-level positions in public and an admirable status within the global village. Thus, promoting the sports atmosphere can benefit national economy, international reputation, sport environments, and the most important purpose, bodily health. Obviously, an escalating economy in sports industry always comes together with the well financial sports organizations. Learning the strategies of the successful organizations can not only improve the working atmosphere but decrease the financial crisis. Sports companies can utilize the people's ideas to generate more suitable products and obtain more profits, and a successful international sports campaign can profit the hosting country and the participating countries. Sports possess the potential power to improve the world and broadcast peace through everywhere. In summary, comparing economy and sport environments with international sports campaigns provides people the concept to understand different situations in different places.

Key words: Enterprising, endorsement

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Assessing the Effectiveness of Academic Support Programs for Collegiate Student Athletes

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Collegiate student athletes are held to a high standard. They are a special and unique population requiring support for their academic, personal, and athletic needs and problems. Student athletes have demanding schedules which lead to complex stresses and challenges that they face every day. Academic support programs were put in place by the NCAA to assist student athletes with academics and ensure their eligibility in order to perform. Currently there are many controversies leading into athletic departments being corrupt when it comes to student athletes' academics. The purpose of this article was to assess the effectiveness of academic support programs for collegiate student athletes. In this article, research supports student athletes utilize academic support programs and prefer support within athletic departments. Academic support programs assist student athletes with advising, counseling, maintaining eligibility, career decision making, personal and emotional issues, and relating to and communicating with faculty. The academic support programs have also opened many opportunities currently and to come for mental health counseling and sports psychology in intercollegiate athletics. Student-athletes are put under a lot of pressure to perform on the field, court, etc. as well as in the classroom. They require a lot of support and when they have programs put in place to do so, they are that more likely to succeed.

Key words: Academic support programs, intercollegiate athletics, student athletes,

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Comparing the revenue generation benefits of on-campus athletic facilities to off-campus facilities

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The purpose of this research was to compare the revenue generation benefits of collegiate on-campus athletic facilities and off-campus collegiate athletic facilities. The benefits of each are found in the economic revenue for the community and institution, the numerous ways the facilities are utilized, branding and school image, and fan happiness, which can lead to increased attendance, enrollment and consumption of school branded items. Cited research found within this review came after the year 2000 and included analysis and scientific data used to support arguments made by the authors to support their findings on the revenue generated by college, university and professional athletic facilities. Results of this research found that revenue can be generated, specifically from football. However, in addition to the revenue, benefits from it include improved program image, higher enrollment, and increased sponsorships. The argument of on or off campus dictates much of the sponsorship and funding of a facility. Unlike the construction of facilities for professional stadiums, many collegiate programs have the financial support of donors, specifically those who have often graduated and donate to the school. A donation often comes with the stipulation that a facility takes the name of the donor. If it's off campus, it is likely that the community will have the opportunity to see to it that the facility serves more than the purpose of the athletic program. Therefore, those who have funded the facility — such as the local and state government, and donors — don't have to worry about losing out on their investment because a collegiate program isn't going to relocate as a professional team could (Larson & Maxcy, 2014). The sale of alcohol is becoming a more current aspect of revenue for collegiate venues. During the 2014 season, 32 Division I athletic facilities permitted their fans to purchase alcohol (Rovell, 2014). In coming years it has the potential to bring in additional revenue that was once unseen for universities due to it not being allowed on a majority of campus facilities. Future research should include a widened analysis into recent sponsorships and endorsements for universities that have resulted in marketing and television agreements.

Keywords: Revenue, college, athletics, facilities

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Investigating the Links between Juvenile Delinquent Behavior and Availability of Recreational Opportunities

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Research has found adolescents have an abundance of leisure time at their disposal. Youth who experienced leisure time in unstructured environments exhibited delinquent behaviors such as substance abuse, withdrawal from school involvement, drunk driving, sexual relations, and violent behaviors. Various programs and policies have been developed by recreational professionals, politicians, and others attempting to reduce undesirable behaviors, and juvenile delinquency by providing youth with constructive activities to spend their leisure time. Thus, in the 1990s, the resurgence in popularity of sports and recreation programs began as a way to combat delinquent youth behaviors. However, numerous programs designed to combat crime had little or no effect on crime in the area. Additionally, some programs may have led to an increase in the reinforcement of antisocial behavior in adolescents because the programs congregated youth into common areas where the participants could intermingle with little supervision. Understanding the importance of how, why, and where to implement a youth recreational program were key factors to the program's success or failure. Successful programs for developing positive youth attributes used recreation as the "hook" to bring participants to the program and then supplemented the curriculum with additional resources rather than expecting delinquent behavior to decrease due exclusively to youth being involved in recreational activities. Furthermore, content of supplemental instruction also played a significant role in the success of programs in reducing juvenile delinquency. Recreational programs focused on underlying skill deficiencies and risk characteristics rather than particular risk behaviors experienced greater success in terms of positive outcomes and program support. However, programs experienced issues when objectives of the programs were too broad which made assessing outcomes difficult when justifying the programs to individual stakeholders. Justifying the program played a key role in keeping the programs going in that addition to establishing clear sets of objectives. Successful programs demonstrated support from the community in all three of the following areas: family members involved in the program, the neighborhoods in which the programs were operated, and by stakeholders in the community as a whole. Therefore, in order to combat delinquent behaviors, recreational anti-delinquency programs experienced success in reducing delinquent youth behaviors when resources beyond building additional recreation venues for youth were utilized. Also, clear and concise goals along with supplemental instruction were implemented in addition to using recreation as the "hook" to bring youth to the prevention programs, and the community supported the program being administered.

Key words: Juvenile delinquency, crime prevention, access to recreation

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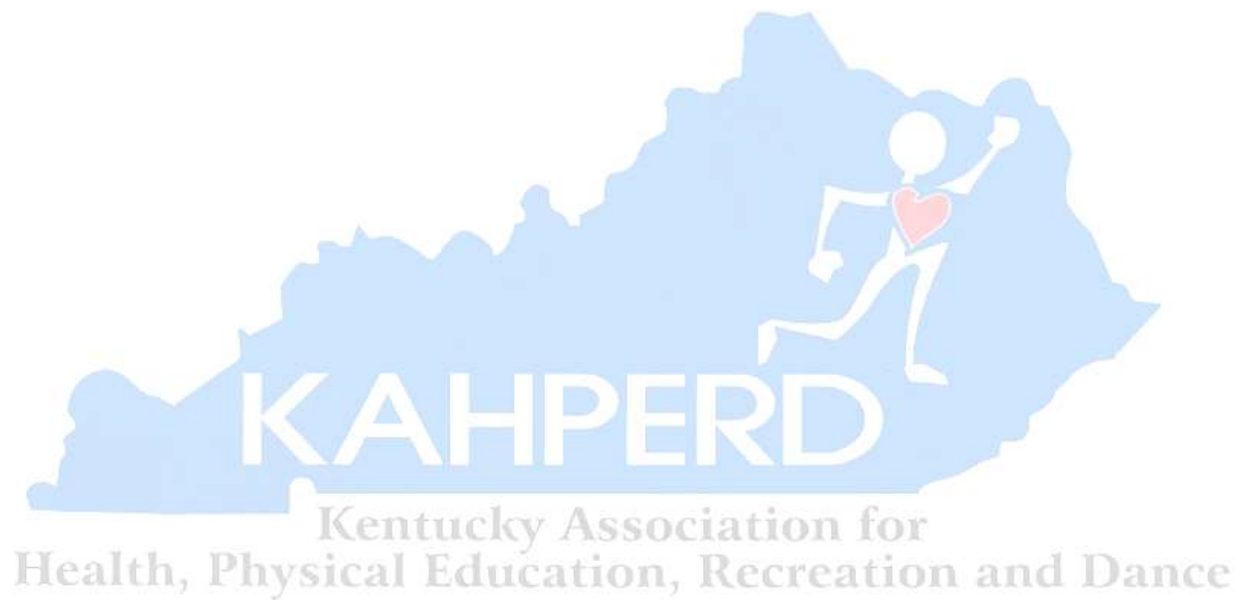
The Use of Social Media among Student-Athletes: The Positive and Negatives

Carly Hough, Western Kentucky University (carly.vallentine519@topper.wku.edu)

Twitter is a beneficial communicative tool for college student-athletes. Universities have used social media as a tool to increase advertisements, marketing, and sponsorship of potential teams, leagues, and athletes. Twitter is most effective at fostering direct fan-sport relationship. However, Twitter and other forms of social media present challenges, because college athletic programs are under immense pressure to ensure student-athletes comply with a host of NCAA rules.

Collegiate athletic departments as well as professional sports organizations have little control over filtering athletes' and sports figures' public commentary, because social media can be accessed from any phone and computer with an Internet connection. Social media is a conundrum for professional and collegiate sports organizations. On one hand, social media enables sports organizations to foster closeness with fans while on the other hand, sports organizations must contend with athletes and other sports figured posting controversial content. Given the large number of potential NCAA violations that stem from social media misuse, the safest course of action of avoiding the NCAA's wrath is for collegiate athletic departments to monitor social media all of the time. Monitoring social media involvement of college athletes can reduce the costly effects of NCAA rule violations and reduces the chances of negative publicity.

Large collegiate sports programs, especially football teams, can generate millions of dollars for a university each year. The financial interest, combined with other considerations, has led to several university athletic departments to restrict or ban all together the use of social media by student-athletes. Framing the use of social media by athletes from a legal standpoint the following information is important to note. The Supreme Court has made it clear that freedom of speech is not absolute. Speech that has been traditionally protected includes political speech, religious speech, corporate speech, and commercial speech. Speech that the second amendment does not include is expression that promotes an imminent prospect of actual violence or harm, fighting words, hate speech, and speech that constitutes or promotes gross disobedience of legitimate rules.

An increasing number of universities are monitoring student athletes' social media accounts. Monitoring is done to avoid NCAA violations and fines. Additionally, it is believed that the monitoring of social media usage of student athletes is a strategy that protects their eligibility, which in turn allows them to continue playing collegiate athletics.

Key Words: NCAA, Social Media, Restrictions, Eligibility

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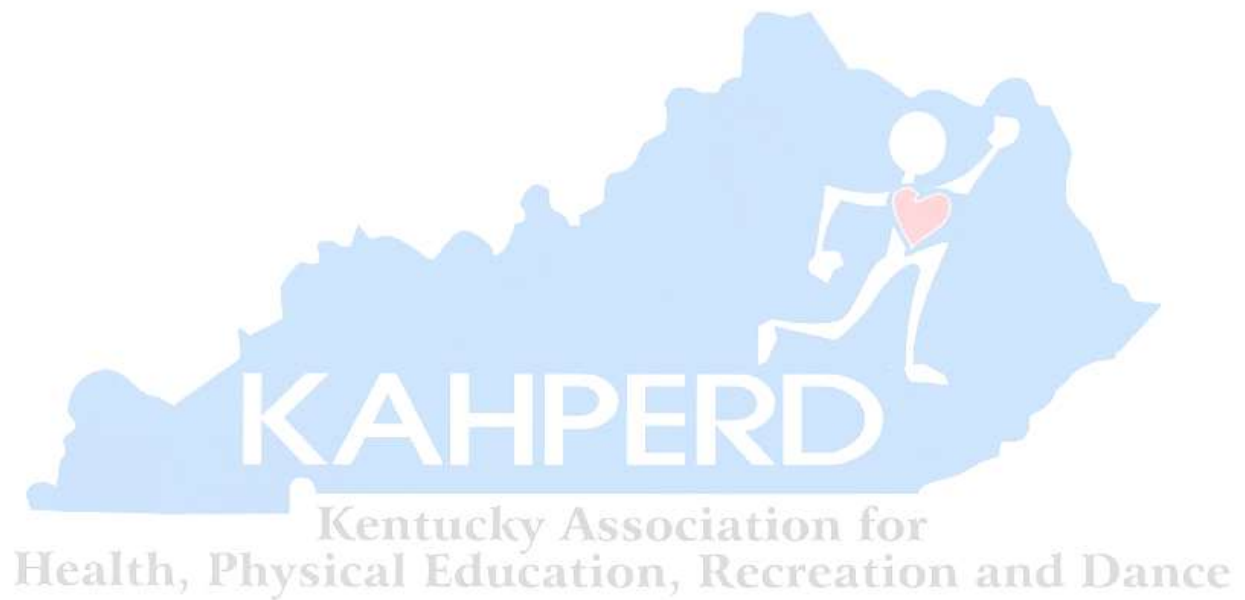
Assessing the NFL Safety Precautions for Reducing Head and Spinal Injuries.

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Through the years there has been an alarming increase in the number of football players in the NFL that have been reporting having short term and permeant sport-related mild and traumatic head and spinal injuries during and years after they were done playing football in the NFL which has grabbed the attention of the NFL. There are currently more than 3,000 retired players or their relatives pursuing a class-action lawsuit against the NFL, seeking compensation for lasting head trauma as result of participation in NFL games. The NFL in response to these lawsuits have begun to look into research about chronic traumatic encephalopathy and other brain injuries, the NFL has given over $30 million in unrestricted medical research funding to the Foundation for the National Institutes of Health the use of which will be overseen by The National Institutes of Health.

Many of the studies being done to help the prevention of sport-related mild and traumatic head and spinal injuries is looking at the players helmets and how the head impact exposure allowed by the players helmet contributed to the players brain injury as well as consecutive concussive impacts. One of the studies was conducted by making players wear Riddle helmets equipped with the HIT System. Another study looked at the traditional football helmet which has a rigid exterior and a soft interior. This study was done using a Riddle helmet equipped with the HITS System technology which was placed on a heavy duty head and torso mannequin and struck it with a weighted swinging pendulum helmet to mimic the forces sustained during a helmet-to-helmet strike. As a result of the study they found that all impact severity measures were significantly reduced with the application of the external foam. One of the ways that causes the most spinal injuries is the way football players tackle such as spearing. Over the last few years the NFL have integrated rules that prohibit spearing to help prevent spearing tackles because spinal injuries are a very serious injury and have immediate effects on the athlete. The NFL realizes this is a serious issue and wants to provide their athletes with the safest equipment possible so they have enforced many rule changes and equipment modifications to help reduce the number of avoidable injuries.

Key Words: Spearing, Spinal injuries, HITS System, traumatic brain injury

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The Impact of the NCAA Compliance Policy on Recruiting Violations

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The NCAA (National College Athletic Association) and its' staff of compliance officers have a great deal of responsibility when it comes to monitoring recruiting. With different rules and regulations, coaches, and athletic administrators have to follow all aspects set forth by the NCAA, and the compliance officers for their respective schools. If there are any violations, there shall be consequences to these issues. While today's society is changing, so does the recruiting efforts of coaches. This calls for adjustments to the NCAA protocol on recruiting violations, and how they should be handled. In this research, there will be information on various issues facing the NCAA and their recruiting regulations. There will be visualizations of different data that was ran during the research that shows geographically where these violations occur. Also, there will be examples of coaches from academic institutions that violated rules, and what the punishment was, that was handed down by the NCAA Division I Infractions Committee.

Key words: NCAA, Recruiting, Violations, and Compliance.

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Investigating the Impact of Using Wearable Technologies during Competitive Sporting Events

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In recent years, wearable technologies have gained popularity with the development and advancements of consumer based products such as the FitBit and Nike FuelBand. These specific products were created for and are used for personal fitness, and helped pave the way for more advanced, non-commercial wearables. These technologies used in the competitive sports field not only have the ability to monitor steps taken and calories burned, much like the FitBit or FuelBand, but are also developed to capture biometric data of athletes (Helper, 2014).

With technology evolving on a daily basis, and competitive sports continually expanding, understanding the impact of using wearable technologies during competitive sporting events is crucial in gaining competitive advantages. By 2018, it is predicted the wearable technology market will be worth $5.8 billion (Viscusi, 2014). Coaches will no longer have to rely on a gut feeling or instinct (subjective interpretation), but will be able to rely on data and statistical numbers to help make on-field decisions.

A solid definition of what wearable technologies are and how they are used are important topics that need to be addressed. Wearable technologies and devices are referred to as "electronic technologies or computers that are incorporated into items of clothing and accessories which can be comfortably worn on the body" (Jhajharia et al, 2014). Ranging in a variety of forms and devices, wearable technologies can and are used in a variety of sports from ballet to football.

Wearable technologies in competitive sports have the ability to allow athletes and coaches (who embrace them) not only gain a competitive advantage, but also help individuals perform at a higher level. While the technology is still being developed and enhanced, the available products on the market today provide insight and information of what is to come in the future. Lastly, wearable technology devices provide an opportunity to track players' development and wellness, as well as a chance to help eliminate injuries/re-injuries while prolonging their athletic careers.

Keywords: Wearable Technologies, competitive sports, sport technology

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Assessing the Economic Impact of Hosting the Olympic Games

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Introduction

Hosting the Olympic Games has strong appeal for many countries whose government officials believe the games will yield substantial economic impact by helping to attract tourism and generate income (Kasimati, 2003). For decades, researchers have been attempting to validate this perception by uncovering what economic impact, if any, has been associated with hosting the games. This topic has become a contentious issue between politicians and economists who cannot seem to agree on whether or not the games actually achieve the desired economic expectations initially outlined as part of the host country's objectives. Moreover, these objectives have varied significantly from nation to nation (Chengli, Huai-Chun & Hsiou-Wei, 2011) making it difficult to find a common baseline for comparison over time. The purpose of this paper is to examine the economic impact of hosting the Olympic Games and to determine whether or not host countries achieve their desired financial expectations. Factors such as Olympic related effects, economic multipliers, and infrastructure and its associated costs will be discussed in relation to the bidding, funding, and ultimate staging of the games.

Background

The first Olympics of the modern era date back to 1896 in Athens, and since then, the games have grown considerably. In fact, the Olympic Games have joined the FIFA World Cup in the elite category dubbed mega events. Malfas, Theodoraki and Houlihan (2004) view a mega event in two main respects:

First, with regard to its internal characteristics-that is, primarily its duration and scale (i.e., number of participants and spectators, number of individual sessions, and level of organizational complexity): and second, in respect of its external characteristics, which mainly take account of its media and tourism attractiveness, and its impact on the host city. (p. 210)

The decision to bid for and host a mega event often is based on the theory that the host city and country would reap positive economic impact and improved social status through their commitment. It is widely believed that these economic and social changes would come through investment and commercial activity within the city and region, which in turn would attract more investment through tourism and associated job creation. These perceptions are often the basis that countries use to justify their decisions to submit a bid to host the Olympics Games to the International Olympic Committee (IOC).

Bidding for the games

The decision to bid for the games is one that countries do not take lightly. The bidding process is typically launched nine years before the start of the games being bid on. The process lasts two years and is divided into two one-year stages. The first stage, or applicant stage, is used by the IOC to survey the proposed infrastructure of the applicant city. The second stage, or candidature stage, involves the applicant city's economic forecasts submission (Collet, 2014). The stages end in a vote by the IOC to

select the host city. The bid process is completed when the host city is chosen and signs the Host City Contract with the IOC, making the selection official approximately seven years before the games are set to begin (Olympic.com, 2014).

Funding the games

In order to stage an Olympic event, considerable investment for both sporting facilities and infrastructure is required. Host countries begin funding for the games immediately after their selection; in some cases, funding begins before the bid is even awarded. There is often a fear that full disclosure of the total costs of hosting the games may diminish public support for the event (Cashman, 2003). Therefore, it is common that countries involved in the bid process include an outline of community benefits: urban renewal, transportation, and changes in infrastructure, in the business cases prepared for the IOC and their own citizens. These benefits are claimed to counter the potential cost to the community (Cashman, 2003). Other funding expenditures include the opening and closing ceremonies, which a host city uses as an opportunity to showcase its country's culture to an international audience, and which are a large part of hosting the games.

Typically, the games are funded through a mix of public and private partnerships. Some unique funding examples of past Olympics include Montreal in 1976, which was completely publically funded and took 30 years to fulfill its debt, and Los Angeles in 1984, which was privately funded and considered by many to have produced positive economic impact. While the buildup to and the staging of the games are times of excitement and pride for the host city and country, the post-games period often marks the start of anxiety as decisions need to be made concerning the newly created, and now vacant, sporting venues and other facilities. Questions surrounding the return on investment of these massive structures and whether or not the structures can generate further economic impact for the host city and country begin in earnest. Failure to devise a revenue-generating plan for these facilities may result in increased public sector debt requiring taxpayers to carry the burden. These considerations highlight the need to look at the benefits of hosting the games over both the short- and long-term.

Longitudinal Studies

One of the methods researchers have utilized to evaluate whether or not there has been positive economic impact from hosting the games is longitudinal studies. Longitudinal studies provide the expanded length of time needed (15-20 years, bid process through the post-games period) to fairly calculate and evaluate the potential impact the games could generate. These studies include detailed timelines of when specific types of investments were made and how the investments were calculated by the host country. Typically, this type of research covers different phases of the games, including bidding, funding, hosting of the games, and the post-games period, and focuses on specific areas of impact (economic, political, social, environmental, and cultural) to both the host city and country. The massive initial investment on behalf of countries hosting the games may lead to growth in some sectors and risks in others. Since a universally accepted way of assessing the overall expenditure of the games does not exist (budgets are both too political and unreliable to be used for an ultimate assessment), longitudinal studies are the best option in attempting to evaluate the games from an economic perspective.

Olympic Examples

The proposed 2016 Chicago Olympic Games, which ultimately did not secure the bid, are a good example of a city perceiving higher than expected economic impact for the hosting the games. It was estimated by City Hall that should the city of Chicago win the bid, it would generate as much as $8-$10 billion in impact to the regional economy. However, the Chicago Organizing Committee of the Olympic Games (OCOG) estimated the impact to the regional economy would be $5.1 billion along with the creation of 80,000 jobs. The discrepancy between the impact estimates from both the Chicago OCOG and City Hall can be explained by using the multiplier effect. Meyer (2006) described the effect:

> That spending, along with spending by spectators, out-of-town tourists, local advertisers and others, makes up the primary economic impact on a community. Economists typically multiply that impact by a factor of 1.5 to three to estimate how deeply those dollars stimulate the greater economy.

Unfortunately, as seen in the Chicago bid example, using the multiplier effect can cause variations in estimates (depending on what factors are used), exaggerated economic impact, and consternation for researchers.

The 1984 Los Angeles Olympic Games are regarded as highly successful by most researchers. They produced economic growth for the local community based on several factors, including private funding techniques and reutilization of existing infrastructure. In addition, 1984 Los Angeles were the first games to maximize television rights, which provided a solid financial base (Collett, 2014). Even though there were clear signs of economic impact to the region from the 1984 Los Angeles Games, some economists argued that figures taken from other areas such as Disneyland, and other theme parks, saw a reduction in both hospitality services and the service sector during the same time period, which was not factored into the original multiplier effect. Using this view, the original estimate made by some economists at the time ($3.3 billion) should have dropped by 28% (Meyer, 2006).

Canada has had mixed economic results from hosting the modern games. The Vancouver Olympic Games in 2010 were perceived as an economic advantage to the host city relative to increased tourism, new business, and improved infrastructure created by the games. Even though the British Columbia (BC) government estimated the games produced $2.1 billion in direct gross domestic product (GDP), a cost-benefit analysis was conducted, which estimated the overall costs to taxpayers of $1.23 billion. After additional costs were realized (broadcast rights, corporate sponsorships, ticket sales, tourism, and the deduction of federal and BC government assistance), a $15 million dollar profit resulted (Holloway, 2006). On the other hand, 1998 Calgary's final budget was more than double the original projection, and 1976 Montreal is still widely considered the poorest Olympic Games ever held, having left local taxpayers with approximately $2 billion of debt.

Canada is not the only country to experience weak economic impact in relation to the games; other countries have also had difficulty achieving their desired impact. The 2006 Turin Games (Italy) required an additional federal and municipal subsidy of $87.5 million to cover the shortfall in the $2.4 billion budget (the deficit could have pushed the event into bankruptcy). 2004 Athens (Greece) was enormously

over budget, and 2000 Sydney (Australia) required continual additional funding right up to before the games began (Holloway, 2006).

When analyzing the economic impact of Olympic Games, researchers often refer to the substitution effect and the crowding out effect in their rationale relating to the success or failure of the event. These two effects are prevalent in most studies. Beaade, Baumann & Matheson (2008) described that:

> At least two reasons appear to explain much of the divergence between the boosters' preliminary estimates of the economic benefits of these events and the economic gains that are actually realized. The substitution effect occurs when the local residents alter their consumption patterns in the presence of a mega-event, and the "crowding out effect occurs when both local residents, and regular visitors are displaced by sports fans attending the event. (p. 9)

In the case of the 2002 Winter Olympics in Salt Lake City, Utah, a study was performed measuring the taxable sales from the surrounding counties in which the games took place to determine economic impact. Positive effects were significant in hotels, which showed an increase in taxable sales. However, the effects were offset by net losses in sales tax revenue from merchandise stores (Beade, Baumann & Matheson, 2008). The substitution effect was the likely contributor to this decrease in spending. In this particular case, the gains in the hospitality industry were lower than losses realized in other sectors of the economy.

The 2002 Salt Lake City Games were estimated to have cost $1.9 billion. The Salt Lake City Organizing Committee, along with the state of Utah and local government, financed over 80% of the 2002 Games, making it the most expensive Winter Games ever hosted in the United States, with the majority of the financial burden realized by the residents of Salt Lake City.

As noted, most bid countries estimate economic projections for hosting the Olympic Games to reach into the billions of dollars; however, examples exist from prior games to dispute this notion. The 1996 Atlanta Summer Games estimated economic impact in the $5.1 billion range but only showed a modest increase in employment in the short-term, and the 2000 Sydney Games estimated $5.1 billion in net economic impact, which was not realized due to the overinflated side of the budget misrepresenting opportunity costs from devoting capital and labor towards infrastructure (Owen, 2005).

In the case of the 2008 Beijing Summer Olympics, many had forecasted substantial economic growth for the city and country. To maximize the economic potential, the objective of the Beijing Olympic Organizing Committee was to divide the games into three categories: infrastructure investment, sports venues, and infrastructure transformation. The games were also an opportunity for Beijing to showcase itself as a first tier Asian city on the global stage. It was expected that Beijing's original forecast for economic impact would not be realized; however, the city experienced growth in tourism from hosting the games.

Impact from hosting the Olympic Games can be quantified in many forms, including economic, social, and environmental. In the case of the 2012 London Olympics, infrastructure projects and new public transportation facilities were a source of urban regeneration – both of which could be evaluated as

creating a form of economic impact to the host city and country. London's focus on social and environmental impact was a result of a movement by the IOC to encourage host countries to deliver a positive environmental and sustainable legacy through the games. Many believe London's commitment to this ideal is what ultimately secured its bid to host the Olympics. From an economic perspective, London had substantially underestimated infrastructure costs. By mid-2007, the United Kingdom government estimated that costs would reach £10 billion, four times the original estimate (Digby, 2008). Despite the overages, it is believed that London's scale of benefits of hosting the games will exceed the costs associated. Longitudinal studies confirming this perspective and long-term impact are not available at this time.

Summary

With aggressive economic multipliers, the substitution and crowding out effects, and massive infrastructure costs, make demonstrating positive economic impact by hosting the Olympic Games challenging. The cost of constructing Olympic venues is usually regarded as a benefit to the economy – the most extreme error of economic studies (Owen, 2005). Typically, studies incorporate construction of venues as the impact but fail to factor the cost of construction, materials, and opportunity costs against it. In fact, most researchers point to the costs of creating Olympic sporting venues and infrastructure as the culprits that cripple the host city and country's ability to produce any realizable economic impact.

As previously noted, hosting a mega event such as the Olympic Games requires an enormous financial commitment from the host country. While many research studies have been conducted attempting to determine economic impact associated with holding this type of event, there is little research to support the perception held by host cities and countries that holding an Olympic Games will reach desired economic intentions, or that the economic impact realized will outweigh the costs in hosting the games. Positive economic impact has been found to be minimal to the host city and country, and limited to the periods before and during the actual staging of the games. Also, the short-term economic impact has only been realized in the tourism industry, increased employment (due to the mass infrastructure needed to host the games), and in GDP.

With historically negative economic impact to host countries, and a lack of bidding cities for the 2022 Winter Olympic Games (only Beijing and Kazakhstan remain), it would seem that nations are failing to see the Olympic Games as a sensible economic investment. In response, the IOC has devised a plan to rejuvenate the games. Their recently proposed "40-point plan" includes decreased costs in bidding for the games, cost-effective reutilization of existing facilities, and the expansion of events outside of the direct host city. The IOC's plan, and its ability to generate renewed interest from prospective nations, will determine the future economic success of hosting the games. Until that time, there is little evidence to conclude that hosting the Olympic Games has any long-term economic impact on host countries (Chengli, Huai-Chun & Hsiou-Wei, 2011).

Echoing the sentiments of other researchers, it is fair to say that cities and countries that have aspirations of hosting the Olympics to generate economic impact should use extreme caution before making such a financially binding decision.

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Assessing the Economic Concerns of the Pay-For-Play Issue in Collegiate Sports

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Introduction

When investigating the issue of pay-for-play in collegiate sports, the economic concerns were considered in all aspects to fully understand the potential detrimental effects. Pay-for-play advocates in collegiate sports seem to be under the impression that athletes who demonstrated success to an institution were entitled to revenue for their efforts. The understanding of the NCAA and adversaries of the pay-for-play realized this notion would restructure the mission statement of the student-athlete and threaten what college athletics was all about, education. A common misconception found in the research was that athletic departments generated a substantial amount of money as departments were often times operating at a loss. Educating advocates would ultimately help them comprehend that this was an inadequate, unattainable proposal and would eradicate the majority, if not all, collegiate sports. Moving forward with this concept would bring liability issues and contribute further to the already decreasing economic concerns of athletic departments.

NCAA's Investment in Student-Athletes

The NCAA attempts to provide student-athletes with every means possible to ensure a rewarding academic and athletic opportunity. Above all, the reason for attending college was for education and the ability to continue playing a sport at a higher level. Participating in sports at a higher level of competition and receiving financial support with the end result being a college degree was also a privilege. If college athletes were paid, education which was the primary purpose would no longer be an entity (Johnson & Acquaviva, 2012). The student-athlete not only received room and board and tuition, but also a surplus of amenities. These included, game tickets, apparel, tutor services, received medical treatment, weight and conditioning training by highly qualified individuals, instructed by elite coaching staffs, and a host of other perks (Miller, 2012). "The NCAA sees this as an investment for our student athletes in a college education" (Ford, 2011). This statement focused on the fact student-athletes not only received an education and an opportunity to play at the next level, but also received endless amenities and this was not pay-for-play. Student-athletes were an "investment" that institutions took on and in return provided exceptional education (Ford, 2011). A great deal of economic interest was already taken into account for every student-athlete.

The NCAA also provided student-athletes with programs to receive financial aid along with endorsement agreements and marketing activities. The idea of paying student-athletes may seem rational; however, it is inevitably unattainable. Parent (2004) provided several key components as to why pay-for-play was an inadequate proposal. The push for pay-for-play to come to fruition was to provide further assistance for personal expenses, such as transportation. However, each student-athlete had the same opportunities as their peers to apply for additional financial assistance. These sources of financial aid included the Federal Pell Grant, NCAA Special Assistance Fund, Student-Athlete Opportunity Fund, and also provided the student-athlete an opportunity to earn money during the summer months. The Federal Pell Grant and the NCAA Special Assistance Fund programs did not require the money to be returned. Student assistance

was too readily available to make any further arguments for student-athletes who demonstrated the need for more assistance (Parent, 2004). Also, an investigation completed in regard to the amount of goods and services per year a Division I men's basketball player received was approximately $120,000 (Miller, 2012). In the eyes of the NCAA and the adversaries it was already a considerable amount of compensation.

Obstacles Moving Forward with Pay-For-Play

The proposal of pay-for-play posed too many obstacles to move forward. Advocates stated the discussion regarding economic concerns was for another time and did not deem it necessary or an important aspect in the decision-making process. However, when determining if pay-for-play was a method needing approval and acceptance, it was vital that every aspect of the plan was provided with clear and concise answers (Johnson & Acquaviva, 2012). Numerous unavoidable questions, if pay-for-play were to be adopted, were disregarded by advocates. Lynn Hickey, the athletic director at the University of Texas-San Antonio posed excellent questions as to how pay-for-play would be funded and how much each sport would receive. The questions raised were "how do you determine who gets what salary? Are you going to pay soccer players as much as football players?" (Ford, 2011). The less profitable athletic programs were being funded through football and basketball programs as these programs produced a substantial amount of funds to support the non-revenue generating sports (Ford, 2011). Answers to some of these questions were players would be compensated through the money their program generated. As a result, non-revenue producing programs would be eliminated (Miller, 2012).

A common misconception studied by Schneider (2001) suggested college students believed athletic departments were generating a substantial amount of money. However, "Division I-A athletic departments averaged a $823,000 loss in recent years" (Schneider, 2001). Also, in 2011-2012 academic years, only 23 of 228 NCAA Division I programs were able to make enough money to pay for sports expenditures. Adding the notion of pay-for-play onto those programs and the economic concerns of needing to generate more revenue to pay student-athletes would create a stressful environment and possibly bring an end to the non-revenue producing programs (Kogan & Greyser, 2014). The economic concerns of pay-for-play was estimated that if each student-athlete was given $200 a month that the cost would be $540 million. Instead of generating large amounts of revenue, athletic departments were losing money and the question raised was where would this money come from (Schneider, 2001)? Suggs (2009) studied universities financial statements in 2006 and provided statistical data that only nineteen athletic programs reported positive net results. Over one hundred teams in the division reported deficits. The economic concern this had on pay-for-play was that even before paying college athletes was taken into account, cost increases would be inevitable and paying athletes would be a huge detriment. This meant the end for most athletic programs (Suggs, 2009).

If pay-for-play were to be in existence, institutions and the NCAA would have many problems which included workers compensation, taxation, Title IX, and antitrust issues. If adopted, the institutions would be faced with liability issues as student-athletes would be considered employees. This brings into account more money being used, for example, the need to defend themselves against a plaintiff's lawsuit. Once Title IX was instituted, athletic departments had been functioning at a loss and this was without the addition of stipends. A major economic concern resulted in the removal of the non-revenue producing

sports due to the institutions struggling financially (Hurst, 2000). "The burden of paying a stipend to all athletes in all sports without consideration of gender – as required by Title IX – may be too great" (Parent, 2004). If college athletes were compensated the money they were given would be from what they generated through their program. And as a result, non-revenue producing programs would no longer continue. This raised the question as to what was reasonable. To limit those programs that did not make enough profit was unjust. If college athletes were paid, the money would be generated from budget cuts throughout the athletic department or through increased college tuition (Miller, 2012). Another excellent point raised by adversaries was that stipends would lead to student-athletes making further demands in the form of collective bargaining, salaries, benefits, and working conditions when the student-athlete had the employee title (Mondello & Beckham, 2002).

Advocators Proposal for Laundry Money as a Solution

Laundry money was seen to be a solution for the advocators for pay-for-play because the money would be added onto the student-athletes scholarship package. Using this strategy would avoid the issues involving employer/employee relationship, in which no labor laws would be violated, and institutions would be able to keep their tax exempt status. Most importantly, Title IX would be avoided because "each Division I student-athlete would receive the laundry money, regardless of sport or gender" (Haden, 2001). The Sherman Act would not be violated as the money would be directly incorporated into the scholarship package. The recommended stipend per student-athlete would be $900 in total at $100 per month. The economic concerns regarding the already struggling athletic departments would be astronomical. In order to avoid all antitrust laws and Title IX agreements, each student-athlete, no matter what gender or sport, would receive this money. To those in favor of pay-for-play, there certainly was not clarification as to where this money would once again be coming from. It was well known that athletic departments did not profit from their programs and relied on two sports to pay for non-revenue producing sports. The question raised was, where does laundry money come from and how will athletic departments survive? Without a doubt, many athletic departments would be eliminated (Haden, 2001).

Not only were questions raised regarding how to collect funds, distribute funds properly, avoid antitrust laws, employee/employer relationship, taxation, and liability issues but then programs struggling financially would be forced to eradicate programs. The downfall of pay-for-play was it "failed to account for the many sports and athletic programs that do not generate enough revenue to meet expenses. Paying a salary to athletes in revenue-producing sports, such as football, would place an institution's athletic association in an awkward position with regard to the non-revenue-producing sports, those athletes commit as much or more time to their sports" (Mondello & Beckham, 2002).

Conclusion

In conclusion, the economic concerns of pay-for-play issue in collegiate sports would be detrimental because it would eliminate the majority of, if not all collegiate sports programs. Athletics provided a charm to the universities they would not get purely through academics and would be lost if pay-for-play were implemented. The legal and practical issues offset the argument of pay-for-play and the practical issues were clear, paying stipends would be expensive. Student-athletes received tuition, room and board, along with a plethora of other amenities. A better understanding of institutional financial positions was

needed since athletic departments operated at a loss rather than what were perceived by pay-for-play advocates. It does not seem practical to pay student-athletes to play when institution's athletic departments do not generate the needed funds for such an endeavor and would result in many athletic programs elimination.

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Exploring Issues and Trends of Women and Minorities in Athletic Administration

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Introduction

Even with the passage of Title VII and Title IX, there is a discrepancy in the number of women and minorities in upper-level administrative positions within intercollegiate athletic departments. Women and minorities have experienced an increase in numbers for athletics since the passage of Title IX, however, discrepancies still exist in upper-level intercollegiate administration positions. The purposes of this article are to provide a brief history, discuss current status, and provide suggestions to increase diversity in athletic departments.

History and Current Status

When one thinks of the fight for equality, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 are the most prominent laws that assisted with the effort. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibited any organization from refusing to hire, train, promote, or transfer personnel based on sex, race, color, religion or national origin. Title IX of the Education Amendments was enacted in 1972 and stated, "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 education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance" (20 U.S.C. § 1681).

While the number of female athletes has increased, Sagas and Cunningham (2004) stated since the inception of Title IX the percentage of women in athletic leadership positions has decreased. Additionally, since Title IX, most athletic departments have merged male and female departments and historically men have become the head of these dual departments. Suggs (2004) also discussed this phenomenon by noting when most colleges eliminated women's departments, by moving women's teams into men's departments, the women's athletics director would become the associate athletics director with the men's athletics director staying in charge of the overall athletic program.

Whisenant's (2003) findings also supported these claims by noting prior to the enactment of Title IX 90 percent of women's athletic teams had female head coaches. However, in 2002, only 44 percent of coaches for women's teams were women and women's management of women's programs had experienced an even steeper decline. In 1970, 90 percent of females were the head administrator of women's intercollegiate athletic programs. While some also coached, women were in charge of female programs (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). Today, the percentage of females in athletic director positions has dwindled. In 2002, approximately 20 percent of women managed women's programs (Whisenant, 2003). Lapchick and others (2014) stated the majority of females holding the position of athletic director were found in NCAA Division III (DIII) with 28.9 percent. While Division II (DII) saw a slight decrease from 17.5 to 17 percent, the smallest percentage of females in an athletic director position was in Division I (DI) with only 8.6 percent as the head administrator. Assistant and associate athletic directors' positions had a higher percentage of women with 29.5 percent (DI), 41.8 percent (DII), and 51 percent (DIII).

For the past six years, Lapchick and others (2014) have conducted the Racial and Gender Report Card focused on college sports. The most recent racial and gender report card found there has been an increase in racial hiring but still a large disparity in gender hiring. The NCAA has a strong history of supporting and developing programs enabling females and minorities to move into leadership positions. Even with this NCAA focus, Lapchick found the NCAA institutions received the worst scores in recent history on the most recent report card. He also stated:

> The greatest number of career prospects are in college sports rather than professional sports because of the number of jobs available. That makes it even more important for us to create expanded opportunities in college sports for women and people of color. (p. 3)

Research has found within the three NCAA divisions, African-Americans held athletic director positions at 7.7 percent (DI), 3.4 percent (DII), and 4.3 percent (DIII). The data showed an increase in Divisions I and III, but a significant decrease in Division II from 5 percent in 2011-2012 to the current 3.4 percent. The recent data also showed in the areas of associate and assistant athletic directors African-Americans held only 8.2 percent (DI), 6 percent (DII), and 4.2 percent (DIII) in each division (Lapchick, Johnson, Loomer, & Martinez, 2014).

Historically in college athletics Caucasian men have been the athletic director. Suggs (2005) and Whisenant (2003) both discussed the "old boys' network" to which white males have more access and how the cycle of white men in upper-level positions has continued. This situation has helped perpetuate the cycle of Caucasian men in upper-level administrative positions within intercollegiate athletics.

Acosta and Carpenter (2014) conducted a longitudinal study that followed women in intercollegiate sports administrative leadership roles. The research found a low percentage of programs do not have a female voice in athletic administration. Minority groups have also expressed concern about minority leadership being minimal, especially when the majority of athletes in intercollegiate sports tend to be minorities. Questions were, therefore, raised about the opportunities to change the past and move in a direction promoting diversity.

Strategies for Increasing Diversity

Since 1981, most athletic departments have combined oversight for men's and women's athletic programs. Suggs (2005) stated the by-product has also been a reduction in the number of women in upper-level athletic administrative positions. The research also noted white men usually held marketing, fundraising, or business affairs positions early in their careers and were taught more skills required of athletics directors. However, minority groups and women tended to hold positions as administrative assistants, life skills coordinators and academic advisers making it more difficult to move into executive positions within athletics. In many athletic departments females have positions in areas such as compliance, Senior Woman Administrator (SWA), academic advisor, and business. Some are in an associate athletic director position, which places them in charge of all departments, but are not an athletic director.

Women have also been referred to as the 'silent partner.' Julie Hermann who is second in command at the University of Louisville has stated, "the AD's chair is a pressure-laded, often lonely place to be and has never held any appeal" (Sander, 2011). Hermann is in charge of 20 sports, marketing, and fundraising efforts. Athletic directors have to interact with coaches, donors, parents, boards, and corporate sponsors. The research also found many women have decided they are close enough to all decision-making and are happy with not being the head athletic director, unlike men who strive to achieve the top position (Sander, 2011).

Lapchick (2014) stated there are no penalties against institutions without diversity within upper-level administration of an athletic department. Lapchick's research has provided awareness regarding the lack of diversity within departments as well as shedding light on stagnant hiring processes. One strategy is to develop initiatives, such as diversity management training to increase the application pool when there are open athletic director positions (Lapchcik et al., 2014). President James Duderstadt at the University of Michigan implemented a strategy to reward departments for recruiting, interviewing, and hiring diverse faculty. The university was able to create an atmosphere that not only brought a more diverse student body, but also encouraged diversity among faculty and administration. When diversity exists in faculty and staff on campuses, universities are able to show students there are minorities and females in leadership roles (Duderstadt, 2002).

Suggs (2005) discussed the possibility of the NCAA adopting something similar to the National Football League's "Rooney Rule." The NFL rule fines teams that do not interview at least one African-American candidate for an open head coach position (Collins, 2007). The NCAA could create a rule requiring women and minority candidates to be considered if all applicable requirements for an open position are met. The NCAA has already created the position of SWA which was designed to involve women in decision-making at the institutional, conference and national level; however, there seems to be confusion surrounding the SWA position regarding the role and responsibilities (Hoffman, 2010). It is important for current male athletic directors to take notice and develop strategies for allowing females and minorities to gain experience making them more marketable as a potential athletic director (Sander, 2011).

A viable strategy would be to create mentoring or professional development programs for minorities and females. While there are webinars, mentoring, and training programs available through the NCAA and other groups such as National Association of Collegiate Women Athletics Administration (NACWAA), National Association of Collegiate Directors Athletics (NACDA), and Minority Opportunities Athletic Association (MOAA), it has been found that many minorities and females are not members of these groups. Becoming a member and being part of a mentoring program or participating in the webinars may increase support from the athletic director. Also, these groups meet throughout the year and provide information allowing participants to gain knowledge needed to be successful athletic administrators (Tiell, Dixon, & Lin, 2012).

One of the many programs provided by the NCAA is a mentoring program for minorities and females who work in Division II athletics. Participants are selected by applying to the program and being chosen to meet and talk with a mentoring athletic director from another institution. Ideas and issues are discussed so the mentee can obtain knowledge in hopes to obtain a head athletic director position in the future.

The NCAA also developed the Office of Inclusion that is committed to diversity, inclusion and gender equity. The NCAA believes diversity and inclusion can improve and enhance excellence within the association. Many committees, educational training, professional development, and recognition are developed through this office. The next step would be for minorities, females, and current athletic directors to contact the NCAA Office of Inclusion to arrange training for their athletics department (Lapchick, et al., 2014).

It is important to focus on strategies to increase the development of women and minorities in athletic administration. One aspect to be reviewed more closely is identifying reasons why the majority of female athletic directors are found in NCAA Division III. Doing so may provide insight about females in athletic director positions and could support the idea of women being the 'silent partner.' Doing so may also provide an idea of how to increase the number of women willing to step into the high profile position of athletic director.

Currently, over 50 percent of athletes in sports such as football and basketball are African-American; therefore, it is extremely important to have diverse leadership to provide young athletes minority and female role models (Duderstadt, 2002). The NCAA has a commitment in enhancing diversity in athletic departments in all three divisions and has worked to implement programs to assist member institutions with increasing the diversity. The challenge seems to come in how to implement the mindset on campus.

As athletic departments grow and administrative positions become available, it is evident departments should consider interviewing minorities and women while hiring the most qualified person for the position. The first step toward this end has been taken with the NCAA creating the Office of Inclusion and athletic directors becoming more sensitive to the lack of diversity in athletic administration. Another strategy is for NCAA institution athletic departments to actively offer and participate in mentoring and professional development programs for females and minorities and then employ and/or promote those who have participated. Having female and minority athletic administrators with diverse backgrounds and viewpoints within the athletics department strengthens all programs within the department and can also promote success and inclusion for an entire university.

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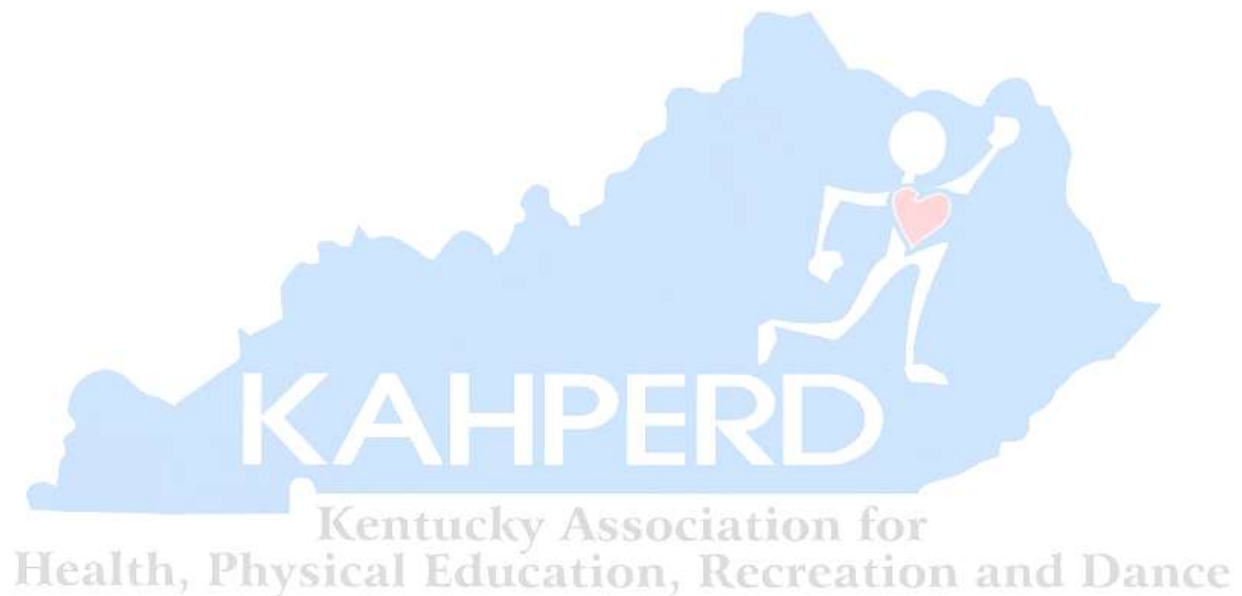
Fan Identification in Sports: Assessing Fan Motives for Supporting a Sports Organization

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Abstract

This paper presents a review of literature associated with our current understanding of motives involved with fan expressions of loyalty for their favorite sport organizations. Sloan (1989) and Trail and James (2001) have pioneered research in fan motives most often discussed in the industry. Research has identified a variety of philosophies on what may motivate fans to support a sport organization. This review provides a glimpse of motives used for fan identification. The summary suggests further research needs to be conducted specifically to examine the relationship between fan motives and fan loyalty for sport organizations. Keywords: fan identification, Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption, motives

An important issue in today's sport industry is recognizing fans motives for supporting their favorite sport teams. One reason is the desire for sport organizations to better understand fans in order to address fan needs and increase fan base. Another reason is to foster a relationship for fan involvement for economic benefits and overall well-being of the organization (Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002). Current research on fan motives and fan identification tends to focus on intercollegiate athletics because of the diverse fans that support teams at the collegiate level.

Motives of Fans Identification

Fan identification can be defined as the "degree to which the fan's relationship with the team contributes to their social identity" (Mahony, 1995, p.12). Research by Zhang and Won (2010) examined college students in the United States and Australia using this principle. This study focused on e-commerce as a motivating factor in a fan's purchase of sport-related items. From their research, we have a theoretical understanding of the meaning of fan identification from the fan's perspective (Zhang & Won. 2010).

To expand our understanding of fan identification, Donavan, Carlson, and Zimmerman (2005) examined how personality traits influence sport fans. The most common traits included: extraversion, agreeability, need for arousal, and materialism for need of affection. The personality traits assessed by Donavan and colleagues describe the definition of fan identification proposed by Mahony (1995). The limitations of the study involved using a small sample of

college students from an upper-division business class that restricted a truer indication of how other fans might be motivated to support a sport organization (Donavan, et al., 2005). Continuing to explore other motives for fan identification, Smith and Stewart (2007) studied on how and social belonging relates to how fans display their loyalty to favorite sport organizations, how eustress relates to the positive benefits of being a fan that are psychological, and escapism relates to how fans escape from their normal routine while watching their team play. The overall conclusions derived from their work helped provide a broader explanation of fans psychological needs.

Exploring the concept of fandom, Simmons (2011) research provided a fundamental definition of fan identification that correlated with previous research on fan identification. The study examined fan identification and how it related to the individual life of the fans. This research served a twofold purpose by first educating sport organizations on the motives of their fans and secondly illuminating the effects of fandom (Simmons, 2011). In practices an application of Simmons' research occurs when sport organizations examine their price points of amenities offered at stadium on game day reflect the needs and wants of their fans.

Taking a slightly different approach while examining fan motives research of Snelgrove, Taks, Chalip and Green (2008) focused on ways to identify how fan motives for supporting a sport can vary from participants to spectators and the different dimension of these motives. The primary focus of the study was to determine marketing strategies for international sporting events. Some of these strategies included specific campaign catered to groups such as locals vs. out-of town guests. To achieve this goal, the 2005 Pan American Junior Athletics Championship was used as the testing site for the study (Snelgrove, et al., 2008).

While seeking to understand consumer behavior associated with favorite professional teams, Funk, Ridinger, and Moorman (2004) examined professional women's basketball fans using the Team Sport Involvement Survey (TSIS). The results demonstrated the importance of other methods to asset fan motives for supporting a sport organization. The resulting TSIS helps researchers and sport organizations measure the potential antecedents and involvement facets that other models could not previously detect. The TSIS is an example of how far research on fan motives for supporting a sport organization has evolved since the early works of Mahony (1995).

The Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption

To build a scale for sport consumption Judson and Carpenter (2005) examined how the football and men's wrestling team along with milestone events at a university helped define the fan identification for the campus community. The study was conducted at a Midwestern university which was in the process of changing its image from a "commuter" college to a traditional university. Shortcomings and solutions were identified in this two-part study which ranged from being a pilot study to how these events simultaneous happening can lead to higher fan support.

Additionally, the research results provided information on how Trail and James' (2001) the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC) can be used in assessing fan identification. As developed the MSSC is a survey that assesses nine motives that relate to fans behaviors (Trail & James, 2001). The MSSC study attempted to increase validity of how motives can affect fans.

To enhance our understanding of fan identification Fink, Trail, and Anderson (2002) examined how motives affect team identification. The motives that were examined included: vicarious achievement, acquisition of knowledge, aesthetics, and social interaction. Results determined that significant correlations existed between the selected motives and team identification. Thus the researchers concluded the majority of these motives should be taken into consideration when creating marketing strategies for enhancing fan identification. While providing insight into how these motives affect fans, the investigation falls short in identifying other factors that maybe salient to fans in identifying with their favorite teams (Fink,et al., 2002).

The work of Fink,et al. (2002) and Trail, Robinson, Dick, and Gillentine (2003) expanded our understanding of fans and spectators. In the past, these two terms had been used interchangeable. This interchangeable use created some misinterpretation of what was actually being studied since they exhibited different levels of supporting athletic teams. For instance, the definition of a fan is someone who is willing to show support of a team to enhance their own well-being (Sloan, 1989). A spectator is defined as someone who will follow a team casually and the outcome of the event does not affect the spectator at all (Sloan, 1989). Trail et al. helped clarify distinction in motives apply to fans, spectators and both by identifying three primary models as prevalent in the formation of what motivates fans and spectators alike. The results of their work allowed motives to be classified into three categories: 1) motives that apply solely to fans of successful teams, 2) motives that apply to spectators or fans of unsuccessful teams, and 3) motives that apply to both spectators and fan alike (Trail, et al., 2003).

Applying the findings of Trail et al. (2003), research of Robinson, Trail, Dick, and Gillentine (2005) applied the finding of Trail,et al. (2003) to intercollegiate football at the Division I, Division I-AA, Division II, and Division III levels. The study gathered data on attendance makeup of an intercollegiate football crowd using Trail and James' (2001) the MSSC. The results identified the difference between fans and spectators. It is important to note that the investigation is limited by a sample that includes only those fans attending one game for each of the selected division. Additionally, the investigation is limited by the researchers' failure to use a technique to randomize the sample (Trail,et al., 2003).

Implications and Conclusions

Overall, research conducted on fan identification has identified numerous motives and factors that affect fan support of a sport organization. An aspect that remained consistent throughout the literature was more research is needed on this topic at all levels of sport. Research currently

focuses on how fans are socially motivated and designing experiments using samples from intercollegiate events. Two important instruments that aid in identifying motives are Funk, Ridinger, and Moorman (2004) Team Sport Involvement Survey (TSIS) and Trail and James (2001) the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC) to assess fans habits. Both of these surveys are helpful in providing information that relates to fan identification and fan motives for supporting of a sport organization.

This paper reviewed research on fan motives for supporting a sport organization in general. Overall, the literature provided the most insight on collegiate athletic events, championship events, and professional women's basketball. Sporting events at a variety of competitive levels are very popular with fans. This creates the opportunity for further research on this topic and allow for the creation of new methods to better analyze fan identification motives for supporting sport organizations at all levels.

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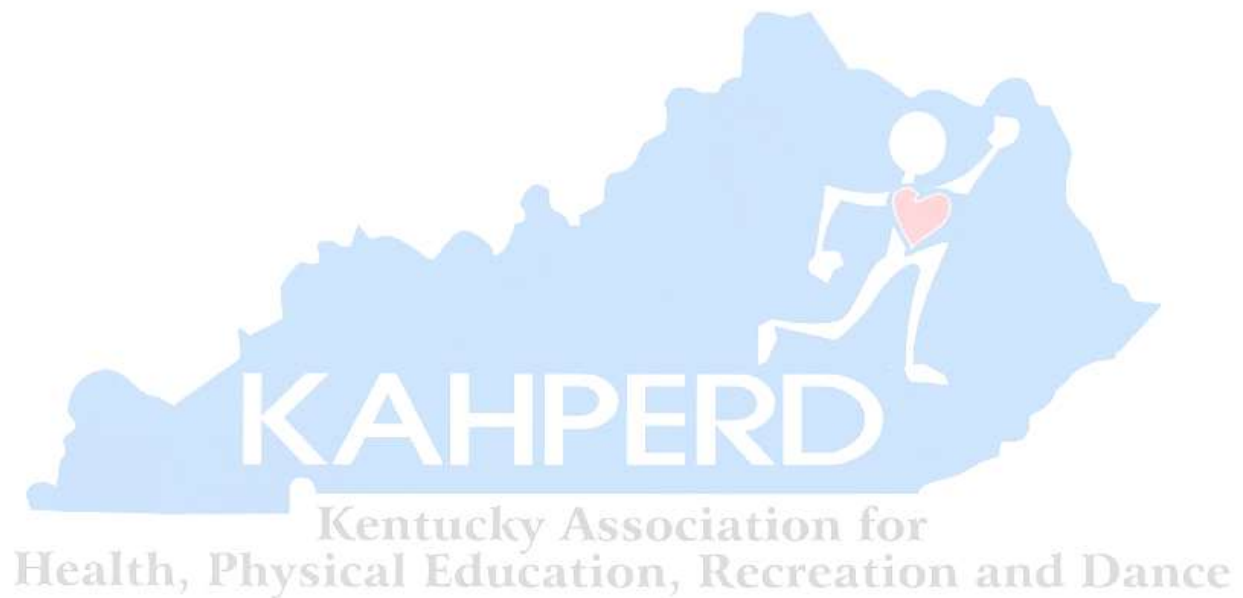
Interacting With Players and Coaches: The Impact New Media Has on the Fan Experience

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The introduction of the Internet changed the way our world operates. The Internet provides the world with a new way to communicate. New media such as Facebook, Twitter and blogs take communication even further. Using new media a person can write a story about, post a picture of or message directly a person they have never actually met. This form of communication holds especially true for celebrities including college and professional athletes and coaches.

New Media and Fan/Athlete Relationship

Before new media, most people's only interaction with players and coaches other than watching games, were through preplanned meet and greets or autograph signings (Pegoraro, 2010). Most information that was received regarding payers and coaches was gathered through traditional media sources, causing the messages to go through a third party before ever reaching fans. "These meetings were seldom deemed authentic, at least not in the eyes of the fans" (Pegoraro, 2010 p. 503). Fans had a very impersonal relationship when it came to players and coaches.

With the emergence of new media, fans are now able to have a more personal relationship with players and coaches. The availability of direct communication between players or coaches and fans leads fans to feel as if they have a personal relationship with the players or coaches (Pegoraro & Jinnah, 2012). "The new transparency offered by social media allows athletes to give fans a glimpse behind the celebrity curtain and really see how their sport heroes live". (Pegoraro, 2010 p. 504) A study by Clavio and Walsh determined that many sports fans were still using traditional media as their primary information source. However, fans now use new media as a mean to gather personal information regarding players and coaches. Fans studied generally turned to Facebook in efforts to gather information not provided by traditional media (Clavio & Walsh, 2013).

New Media and Marketing to Fans

New media is not just benefitting fans. Sports organizations found that using new media can be an advantage to them as well. New media is changing the way sports organizations operate. Facebook along with Twitter have become important tools for sports organizations to reach fans, as "nearly every sport team has found it important to be represented on the Internet to attract fans, increase team awareness and sell team merchandise" (Pronschinske & Groza, 2012 p. 224). Organizations seeing the number of fans on Twitter, began to use Twitter as a way to market and send messages directly to fans. When studied the two highest motivations among fans for using Twitter was to be entertained and to gather information. (Witkemper, et al, 2012). Organizations

armed with this information are able to use Twitter to give the fans the information they want and are looking for (Witkemper et al., 2012). Organizations have begun to advertise their official Facebook and Twitter accounts. By advertising the accounts the organizations were able to bring the attention of the accounts to more fans that might not have been aware of them (Pronschinske & Groza, 2012).

New Media and the Changing Role of Sports Professionals

New Media has changed the way that sports professionals and sports organizations work. Twitter, for example, allows journalist to bring their work to an audience that they might not have previously reached (Gibbs & Hayness, 2013). Public relations officials are now using Twitter to release information, as Twitter is much faster in getting information out than press releases and traditional media.

New Media has also added to the job duties of many professionals within sports organizations. Sports professionals are now monitoring what fans are saying through new media. Monitoring what fans are saying lets organizations keep a pulse on what fans like and what issues fans may be experiencing with the organization allowing organizations to better serve their fans (Gibbs & Haynes, 2013). "Several informants shared experiences in which monitoring Twitter during a game enabled them to respond to pressing fan issues" (Gibbs & Haynes, 2013 p. 401).

Sports organizations are able to capitalize on fan use of new media in helping sports organizations to do their jobs. New media provides an uncensored voice for fans to share information about players. New media gives fans an opportunity to post pictures and videos as well as stories about athletes for anyone with the Internet to see. Organizations essentially have a free labor source in the form of fan interaction shared through new media. (Sanderson, 2009).

Negative Side of New Media Interactions

Not all interactions between fans and athletes or coaches on new media have been positive. The increased interactions have shown there is a negative side to fans and athletes or coaches being so accessible to each other. Sanderson and Truax performed a study following a poor in game performance by Cade Foster a University of Alabama kicker. The authors were able to break down the negative tweets he received into four categories, belittling, mocking, sarcasm and threat (Sanderson & Truax, 2014). Although Foster did receive tweets of support as well, the sheer volume of tweets received, (over 12, 000 in 24 hour) is overwhelming. (Sanderson & Truax, 2014).

A study by Browning and Sanderson examined how in fact student athletes dealt with negative tweets. The study used 20 student athletes at a Division 1 university and examined their Twitter habits. The participants expressed they dealt with negative tweets in four main ways. The ways

were expressed as using the tweets as motivation to do well, to prove the negative tweeter wrong, blocking the negative tweeter so the tweets could no longer be seen, and responding directly or indirectly to the negative tweeter (Browning & Sanderson, 2012). Twitter has forced athletes to have to learn to handle negativity coming at them directly from the public in a way that has not happened before.

Declining privacy is another issue that comes with increased fan and athlete or coaches interaction. Athletes are being watched even when not being monitored by their respective sports organization (Sanderson, 2009). Professional athletes Greg Oden, Matt Leinart, and Josh Howard have each been punished by their respective organizations as a result of fans postings on new media. In 2008 information about Oden playing in a pick-up basketball game after surgery was posted to an Internet site. This led to the head coach of Oden's team reprimanding Oden and instructing him not to participate in such behavior. Also in 2008, pictures of Matt Leinart partying made their way to the Internet leading Leinart's head coach expressing his disapproval of Leinart's activities. Josh Howard also experienced how privacy has been diminished as a result of new media. Josh Howard via a Youtube video was caught talking negatively about "The Star Spangled Banner". Howard's activity led to his organization's owner requiring Howard take part in communication training (Sanderson, 2009).

Along with a decline in privacy New Media can also have an effect when it comes to privacy laws and right to privacy for the athletes and coaches involved. If a player continually posts about an aspect of their personal life the athlete cannot use privacy laws for protection if others posts about the same subject. Because athletes are famous voluntarily, privacy laws change in the athletes situations. "Unlike involuntary public figures the right of privacy protection granted to those who voluntarily choose the limelight is limited by the First Amendment". (McCoy, 2010 p. 208)

The negative side of new media has had an impact on the everyday life of athletes and coaches. Negative tweets have in some cases become so bad that athletes or coaches chose to shut down their social media accounts (Sanderson & Truax, 2014).   For example, "University of Kentucky basketball player Willie Cauley-Stein deactivated his Twitter account after receiving negative messages from fans as the team was experiencing a losing streak. While he eventually rejoined Twitter, this may be a choice that more college athletes make in response to fans lambasting them via this platform". (Sanderson & Truax, 2014 p. 343).

Conclusion

New media has changed the world of sports. New media allows fans to interact with athletes and coaches on a personal level by opening up lines of communication. Unfortunately, for many athletes these direct interactions often turn negative. Some organizations have gone so far as to set up policies regarding athletes' and coaches' behavior on new media. "The NBA and the

National Football League (NFL) both announced policies to ban the use of Twitter by players, coaches and operations personnel during games". (McCoy, 2010 p. 213) New media has also affected the way in which sports organizations operate. Sports organizations, through the use of new media, are able to market in a more efficient manner.

New media has provided a platform for sports organizations to market to fans and directly address the fans wants, likes and needs. Through Twitter and Facebook sports organizations are able to see what the fans like, want or are having problems with within a particular sport organization. Organizations must also spend time and personnel monitoring what athletes and coaches are saying as they now have an uncensored platform through new media. Fans are also used by organizations to help keep an eye on athlete's behavior. Fans sharing personal experiences with (or photos of) athletes and coaches allow an organization to monitor their employee's behavior outside of their organization.

As new media continues to flourish, the walls between athletes and coaches and fans will continue to break down, allowing more communication between the two groups. More direct communication leads to some negative side effects but will also allow sports organizations to provide a better experience for the fans.

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Peer-to-Peer Teaching: From Planning to Evaluation

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Introduction

Health education specialists, along with other public health professionals, are tasked with educating the public in order to prevent disease and improve health and quality of life. This is accomplished through planning, implementing and evaluating programs on a variety of public health topics in diverse settings such as worksites, schools, communities and medical facilities. (Society for Public Health Education [SOPHE], 2014) Therefore, health education specialists are in a prime position to educate consumers on many topic matters.

It is important for future health education specialists to not only have a thorough understanding of health topics, but to also be able to effectively communicate information to others. The health education profession uses a framework set forth by the National Commission on Health Education Credentialing (NCHEC) as the foundation of professional practice. It seems natural, then, to consult that framework for guidance in preparing professionals. By utilizing the framework for the profession, faculty may create experiences that will enhance college students' professional preparation in the field of health education and health promotion.

One of the NCHEC's Seven Areas of Responsibility for health education specialists (2010) is "Communicate and Advocate for Health and Health Education." Specific to this area of responsibility are two competencies that relate directly to peer teaching and learning. Those are Competency 7.2: Identify and Develop a Variety of Communication Strategies, Methods and Techniques and Competency 7.3: Deliver Messages Using a Variety of Strategies, Methods and Techniques. Health education specialist students in the college classroom can benefit from the experience of creating and delivering public health messages to peer groups through peer teaching and learning strategies. According to Kupczynski, Mundy, Goswami & Meling some benefits of peer (cooperative) learning include opportunities to collaborate, brainstorm, engage in course material, and participate in learning (2014). Other benefits of peer learning, particularly in small groups, include critical inquiry and reflection within a group setting, expression of ideas, cooperation and learning management, and self and peer evaluation (Boud, Cohen & Sampson, 2014). Vasay (2010) found that peer teaching in college mathematics helped students express ideas, affected their sense of responsibility, self-discipline, confidence, time management, and resourcefulness, among other benefits. Lim (2014) noted that students not only welcomed peer teaching, the passage rates in the class improved in a cohort of students who participated in peer teaching.

The purpose of this article is to describe a project using techniques intended to enhance students' abilities to both develop a new communication strategy and practice message delivery using a new technique. The article has its roots in a project where upper division health promotion students (peer presenters) taught peers in a lower division undergraduate health course (peer learners).

Methods

At the start of the project, the instructor in the course should assign peer presenters to work in small groups of 3-5. Each group should be assigned a topic based on the curriculum needs of the course where the peer learners are enrolled. Next, the peer presenters will begin creating their presentations by writing a set of 3 learning objectives for the presentation. Instructors may need to devote some instructional time to a review of writing learning objectives. The authors recommend using Bloom's Taxonomy as a starting point for review (University of North Carolina-Charlotte, N.D., Clemson University Office of Institutional Assessment, 2008). Some instructional time should be devoted to peer presenter groups so the instructor can check for understanding and answer specific questions from groups as they put together the presentations. Undoubtedly, students should be encouraged to also meet outside the classroom to work as a group. In order to challenge peer presenters, ask them avoid the use of presentation software (e.g. Microsoft PowerPoint, Prezi); this adds a layer of creativity and gets peer presenters to think beyond the boundaries of a "traditional" lecture to peer learners. An additional stipulation might be to ask that peer learners be 'engaged' for one half (or more) of the presentation time. When preparing the assignment, faculty will need to define "student engagement" then share that definition with peer presenters. According to Bonwell and Eison (1991), student engagement is associated with "strategies promoting active learning …instructional activities involving students in doing things and thinking about what they are doing" (p. 5).

Each peer presenter group must plan to evaluate learner outcomes at the end of the presentation. Peer presenters should determine what kinds of tasks they want to utilize to assess the success of the peer learners. Assessment techniques may include pre/post instruction quizzes, participant observation of a specific task, case study or minute paper (Angelo & Cross, 1993, p. 120). If instructors have recommendations for student assessment resources, (Angelo & Cross, 1993, Marzano, 2007) these recommendations can be made to the peer presenters at this point. In terms of assessing learning, peer presenters can be asked recall assessments utilized by faculty members in their prior coursework (e.g. exams, written assignments, other activities). Further, several applications (apps) (such as the apps Socrative [2014] or PollEverywhere [2015]) are available. Both apps offer the ability to send quizzes (assessments) to mobile devices, have students respond from their mobile device, and provide immediate feedback on student learning.

During each peer presentation, faculty members should evaluate students' performance using a grading rubric. Rubrics are 'performance-based' rating scales used for assessing presentations.

Rubrics consist of specific pre-established performance criteria, and are used in evaluating student performance during the presentation. "Rubrics are typically the specific form of scoring instrument used when evaluating student performances…" (Mertler, 2001). Figure A represents a rubric that has been utilized by the authors of this paper to assess student presentations, and has been utilized by one author for more than fifteen years. The presentations should be scored by the instructor of the peer learners' class and the instructor of the peer presenters' class using the rubric. Ideally, the instructors will evaluate all groups by the end of the presentations. Other assessments are included in an "Evaluation Report" (Figure B) due at the conclusion of the project. The rubric grade plus the Evaluation Report can be combined to calculate a final grade for the project. Instructors have the flexibility to weight each portion of the assessments as they see fit.

Since there will be multiple peer presenter groups and multiple peer learner groups, the presentations will, more than likely, be given to a number of different groups over two class days. It is recommended that presentations run in a "stations" format. This requires that students move from presentation to presentation after a set amount of time, while peer presenters stay in the same room. As mentioned in Figure A, peer presentations should be "no less than 15 minutes and no more than 20 minutes", however; course instructors may set their own time lines as they see fit.

Student engagement is critical in any teaching situation and is key in addressing different student learning styles. The teaching idea presented here can be modified or adapted to meet a number of different learning situations and topical areas. The authors of this paper found that, when students were presented with the "dilemma" of engaging students, they appreciated the opportunity to be more engaged themselves. The authors recommend this technique particularly in the growth of upper division students as practice for real world applications in teaching and learning in the field of health promotion and wellness.

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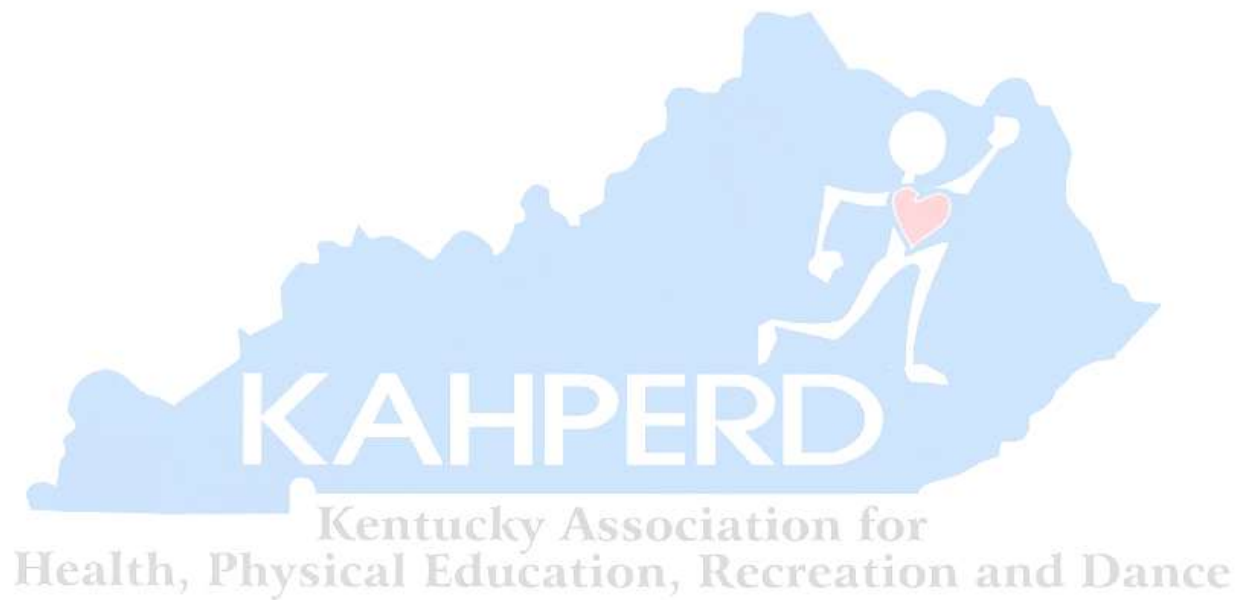
Figure A. Peer Teaching Project Rubric Presentation Evaluation

Student_____   Topic_____ Date_____

Not Acceptable (NA) = 0 points
Average = 1
Above Average = 2
Superior Quality = 3   POOR------------------□SUPERIOR
                                                        QUALITY   QUALITY

	POOR QUALITY			SUPERIOR QUALITY
1. Contained accurate and complete health information (cited sources in presentation)	0	1	2	3
2. Presented information in an appropriate sequence	0	1	2	3
3. Included the following parts to the presentation: Anticipatory set, body, closure	0	1	2	3
4. Presented information about the target group in a respectful, culturally sensitive manner.	0	1	2	3
5. Presentation was well organized, concise and easy to understand.	0	1	2	3
6. Presented within the allotted time (15-20 minutes)	0	1	2	3
7. Spoke with poise and confidence in a voice that was clear & audible	0	1	2	3
8. Made frequent eye contact with the audience and did not READ presentation notes.	0	1	2	3
9. Used visual aids in an effective manner.	0	1	2	3
10. Audience was engaged in learning at least 50% of the time (7.5-10 minutes).	0	1	2	3

Total Possible Score = 30 points   Total grade_____

Figure B. Peer Presenter Group Evaluation Report

Topic:

Group Member Names:

1. Write your 3 Learner Objectives (2 points).

2. Attach Handout(s) (2 points) Run a readability test on your handout and print your results (2 points) utilizing the following website:
http://www.online-utility.org/english/readability_test_and_improve.jsp

3. Evaluation: Describe the evaluation and WHY you chose this type of evaluation for your project. How does the evaluation relate back to your learner objectives? Include a copy of the evaluation. (5 points)

4. What did your evaluation tell you? How did you analyze this evaluation? Were the learning objectives met? Attach statistics to support your answer (this could be average scores, percentages etc…). (5 points)

5. Now that the project is completed, what would you have changed to make your presentation better? (2 points)

6. What did you like most about this project and what did you like least about this project? (2 points)