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Let's Dance!!

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Message from the President

Greetings KAHPERD members and Journal readers!! Thank you for your continued support and interest in the KAHPERD Journal. I hope that the Journal continues to be a vehicle for your extended educational progress. Steve and his reviewers have put together another quality journal for this fall edition.

This year's convention is rapidly approaching (Nov.13-15) and we would like to take a moment to extend to you an invitation to attend what we believe will be a quality experience to all those who attend. Sunday we will kick off the convention with a 5K run/walk to help the American Heart Association and have the Kentucky Department of Education give us a workshop in the evening. Monday will bring about the beginning of 60 plus sessions over the next two days with Joker Phillips (Head football coach at The University of Kentucky) and Jim Stillwell as guest speakers and presenters for the day. Monday evening we will have the usual open dance floor with the inclusion of a fun filled Casino Night (play money but real prizes). Tuesday we will finish with the sessions, have guest speaker Shellie Pfohl (Executive Director of the President's Council on Fitness, Sports and Nutrition) address us and conclude with the banquet at 1:00 P.M.

Announcements

(1) KAHPERD 2011 Annual Convention in Lexington Embassy Suites Hotel: Nov. 13-15, 2011 (Sunday to Tuesday)
Theme: Building Character through Service
General Session Guest Speaker 1: Joker Phillips (Head Coach of University of Kentucky Football)
General Session Guest Speaker 2: Shellie Pfohl
(2) SDAAHPERD 2012 Convention in Orlando, FL (Caribe Royale Hotel): February 8-11, 2012
(3) AAHPERD 2010 National Convention in Boston, MA (United We Move): March 13-17, 2012

Acknowledgement

KAHPERD Journal Submission Guideline

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 double-spaced pages (including the references).

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.
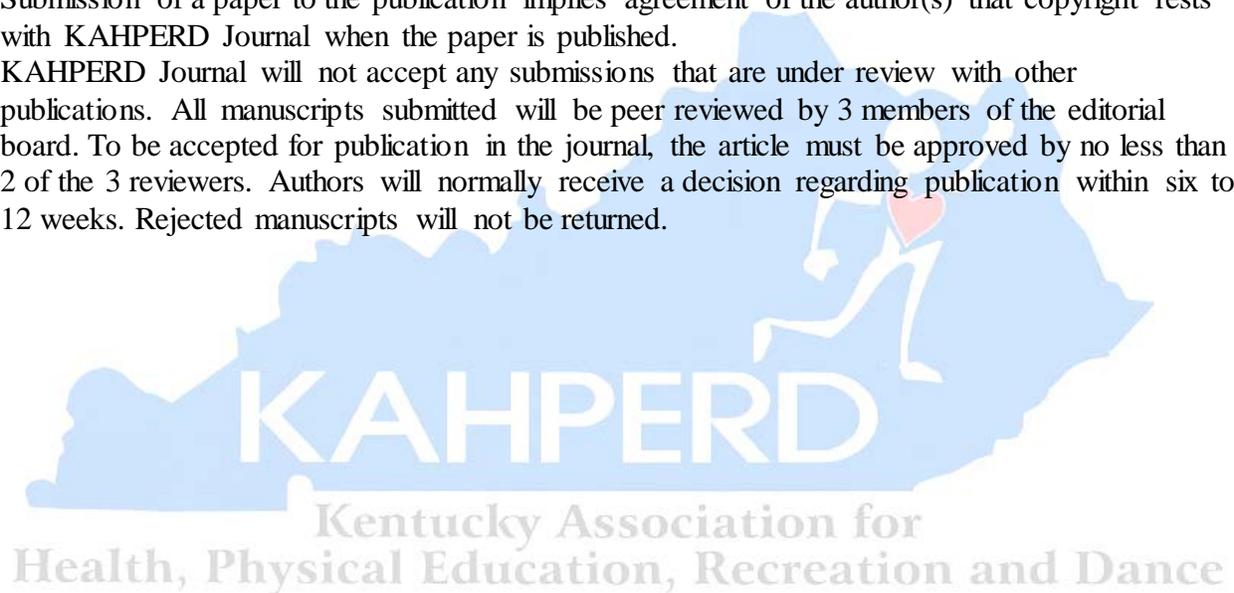
Career-Long Professional Learning for Physical Education Teachers

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The case for career-long professional learning

Improving schools and raising educational standards are central to the education policies of many governments around the world. However, it has becoming increasingly clear that providing high quality continuing professional development (CPD) for teachers is a key part of the process of raising educational standards (Reynolds *et al* 2000; Day, 1999). Thus, in England, the previous government published a strategy for structuring teachers' CPD (DfEE, 2001) and promised additional funds to support it. In the case of physical education (PE) this resulted in a major new investment in a National PE and School Sport Professional Development Programme. The program ran until 2008 and offered significant funded CPD opportunities for all teachers of PE in primary, secondary and special schools. The program had the following aims:

Improving the quality of teaching and learning in PE and school sport in order to raise the attainment of all pupils
Increasing the understanding of the use of high quality PE and school sport in whole school improvement
Enhancing the links between high quality PE and school sport and the promotion of physical activity and health
Encouraging innovative interpretation of the National Curriculum for PE to ensure it closely meets pupils' needs and ensures their maximum achievement
Enhancing cross-phase continuity to ensure pupil progress

These aims were to be delivered through a series of modules that were designed at a national level but delivered locally. Some of these modules were 'resource-based', others were taught in a more traditional 'course' format. The idea was that teachers and schools would conduct an 'audit of need', teachers selected relevant modules from the menu and, once a module had been completed they would 'cascade' their learning to other colleagues at school. It could be argued, therefore, that PE-CPD in England during this period was well supported, and that the provision of funded career-long professional development for PE teachers in England became a reality. So, what's the issue?

Put simply, the issue at the heart of this discussion is *learning*. Providing *more* CPD does not necessarily mean that teachers will learn anything of value from it. On the contrary, unless teachers are engaged in a sustained, progressive and coherent learning programme, it is unlikely that they will adjust their pedagogies and practices in any significant ways over their careers. This, in turn, makes it unlikely that pupils' learning will be enhanced. The question underpinning this paper, therefore, is whether any particular form of PE-CPD is likely to be more or less effective in enhancing teachers' and ultimately pupils' learning. Findings would have broad applicability, from the United Kingdom to Kentucky.

Effective continuing professional development (CPD)
It is widely accepted in the professional development research community that a reliance on traditional patterns of CPD, which are mainly off-site, single 'courses') is unlikely to deliver radical change in teachers' pedagogies or practices (NPEAT, 1998; NFER, 2001). Indeed, what seems to be emerging from the research literature is an understanding that for CPD to be effective in enhancing both teacher and pupil learning it should be rooted in the day-to-day complexities of teaching. Yet, although there is a wealth of literature available on professional development, teacher learning and teacher change, there has been 'relatively little systematic research on the effects of professional development on improvements in teaching or on student outcomes' (Garet et al, 2001, p.917; Guskey & Sparks, 2002; Guskey, 2003). Dennis Sparks (2002) summarises research from around the world to conclude that effective CPD:
Focuses on deepening teachers' content knowledge and pedagogical skills;
Includes opportunities for practice, research and reflection;
Is embedded in educators' work and takes place during the school day;
Is sustained over time; and
Is founded on a sense of collegiality and collaboration
(Sparks, 2002, 1-4)

Furthermore, the National Foundation for Educational Research in the UK (NFER, 2001) found that CPD was most effective when teachers had some autonomy over the choice and direction of their personal development, when CPD activities were delivered with appropriate expertise when CPD contained challenging and up-to-date content that was relevant to classroom practice.

However, like Guskey & Sparks (2002), the NFER found that it was difficult to make clear links between CPD and 'impact' upon teachers' practices and, most importantly, pupil learning. One way to address this issue is suggested by Garet *et al.* (2001) who distinguish a distinction between 'traditional' and 'reform' types of CPD. Traditional forms of CPD tend to take place at specific times, and are usually undertaken off-site with minimal follow-up. They offer little opportunity or support to enable teachers to integrate new learning with practice, and so are often ineffective. 'Reform' types of CPD, on the other hand, typically take place within the school day, involve collective participation of teachers from the same school or group of schools, and are integrated into practice in the form of study groups, mentoring and coaching. Garet *et al.* argue that these activities are easier to sustain over time and are likely to result in better connections between new learning and existing practice.

Although there are some differences, there is also much common ground between the different publications that identify the characteristics of effective CPD. Such common characteristics should be considered in the design of PE-CPD. However, although we know very little about teachers' experiences of PE-CPD, we do know that in England at least, much of what is offered to a teacher is 'traditional' in both style and structure. The new national PE-CPD programme described earlier was no exception and this raises questions about its potential to promote sustained, progressive and coherent career-long learning.

A critique of existing PE-CPD provision

There is little detailed research evidence available on the current and historical CPD experiences of PE teachers although some case study research into teachers' lives and careers has made reference to professional development (Schempp, 1993; Moreira, Sparkes & Fox, 1995; Dowling Naess, 1996; Pissanos & Allison, 1996; Armour & Jones, 1998; Moreira, Fox & Sparkes, 2002). What seems to be the case, however, is that for many PE teachers, CPD experiences have been the very opposite of those defined in the research as 'effective'. A study of PE-CPD for experienced PE teachers in England has recently been completed. Full details on the study, methods and findings (to date) are reported elsewhere (Armour & Yelling, 2004 a and b). In summary, the methods used were cumulative over a 2-year period, were focussed on PE teachers with more than 5 years teaching experience, and involved in-depth interviews (phase 1), open-ended CPD profile questionnaires (phase 2) and year-long case studies of ten teachers (phase 3).

Analysis of data from phases 1 and 2 suggests that these PE teachers' CPD profiles could most accurately be described as haphazard, with no discernible coherence or progression in their career-long learning. Moreover: there was a very poor match between teachers' declared key learning outcomes for PE and the professional development that was undertaken or was available – i.e. health/fitness and personal/social education featured strongly as key outcomes but were not reflected in CPD undertaken; most of the CPD reported was sport related and took the form of one-day, off-site, sport update 'courses'; reflecting the findings of international CPD research, 'effective' CPD for these teachers was identified as that which is practical, relevant and applicable, able to provide workable ideas/resources, delivered by a good presenter, challenging and thought-provoking, and able to offer time for reflection and collaboration; course costs, teacher replacement costs and quality, pressures of time and teacher workload, location, and the need for an entitlement to CPD were all areas of concern for these teachers (Armour & Yelling, 2004 a & b).

These findings seem to suggest that some changes to the nature and structure of existing PE-CPD provision should be considered in order to enhance both teacher and pupil learning. In phase 3 of the research, ten very different PE teachers were identified as case studies. All agreed to allow a researcher to work closely with them throughout one academic year to focus on professional learning in all its forms. The aim was to find out about the nature and *quality* of teachers' learning, including what they were learning, when and how; and (more ambitiously) whether and how there was likely to be an *impact* upon pupil learning. The researcher interviewed each teacher in-depth on 3 separate occasions, attended both internal and external CPD activities with them, and then reflected with the teacher upon the quality of the learning experience and the likelihood of an impact upon pupils' learning. In addition, the teachers kept reflective diaries for specific periods of time where they noted down learning opportunities (formal and informal) that occurred throughout the course of a 'normal' day.

Although data analysis is not complete, it is already clear that one key finding predominates; that is the high value these teachers placed on learning together and from each other. In effect, these teachers appeared to be arguing for a form of school-focused (if not school-based) collaborative

professional learning similar to that suggested in the international CPD research literature. Thus, it can be suggested that viewing PE departments (and possibly other networks of PE teachers) as professional learning communities, or as learning organisations, and working through the implications of such a view, provides the foundation for the development of more effective forms of CPD (Armour & Yelling, 2003).

Professional Learning Communities in Physical Education

Following Wenger (1998), the notion of a 'professional learning community' (PLC) reverberates throughout the professional development literature. Toole & Louis (2002, p.4) use the term 'professional learning community' but note that the CPD literature abounds with a variety of terms conveying broadly similar concepts:

collegiality (Little, 1982, 1990, 1993; Barth, 1990; Sergiovanni, 1994) *collaboration* (Rosenholtz, 1989; Nias, Southworth, and Yeomans, 1989; Zellermayer, 1997), *professional community* (Louis and Kruse, 1995), *discourse communities* (Putnam and Borko, 2000), *teacher networks* (Lieberman, 2000), *professional learning community* (Hall and Hord, 2001) *democratic communities* (Kahne, 1994) *and schools that learn* (Leithwood, 2000; Senge et al., 2000)

All these concepts share a foundation in the social constructivist learning theories of Vygotsky (1978) and Lave & Wenger (1991), are underpinned by a belief that teachers have much to learn from each other, and make the assumption that both teacher and pupil learning can be enhanced as a result. In such a model, it is acknowledged that expert, external knowledge will still required at times but in a PLC, this form of input is not privileged. Instead, the *need* for specific forms of external input would be established collectively, and the resulting learning would be shared (as a matter of course) among colleagues.

The teachers in our PE-CPD study in England didn't mention the term 'professional learning community', but they certainly identified the broad concept of collaborative professional learning, emphasising its central importance to their professional development and a strong desire to do more of it. Two examples of comments by teachers about their ideal forms of CPD are illustrative:

…. I think it would be brilliant to go into other schools… because you do pick up ideas. It would be nice to actually go in and not, not to do a critique of anybody's teaching. Just to watch them, see how they present and run things…

I would like to see [*my CPD time*] spent working within my department with maybe people coming in and sharing ideas on what we do…you've got a sense of team rather than just, you're turning up every day. [O*n a traditional CPD 'course']* you're doing your teaching and you come back and you never have that contact with another teacher who you learn from.

So, in other words, where CPD is provided in the traditional 'course' model, it is likely that teachers are learning off-site and out of context, from a provider who must attempt to provide

generic learning that can apply equally to vastly different contexts. In this model, the task is to pack the teacher full of 'knowledge' so that they can 'transport' the learning back to their own school and (optimistically) to colleagues. Yet, just as is reported in the wider research literature, these case study PE teachers found the model largely unsatisfactory:

[*On a traditional course*] It's ideal…there's only a small number of kids…everyone can have a racket and they've got space to work and you've got large groups of kids and only one court. Here that doesn't work so to me it's a pointless…

Ironically, the traditional model of CPD is expensive *and* is essentially disruptive to pupils' learning as teachers leave their classes to attend courses. So why does it endure – and how could it be changed? Well, as might be expected, there is no easy answer and at least three parties engaged in sustaining the current system would need to make some radical changes to their structures, processes and…habits.

Three steps towards a fresh approach to PE-CPD

Changing CPD Providers

Although CPD as traditionally conceived and structured is unhelpful to teachers who want to learn in a school-based collaborative context, it is the traditional model that CPD providers are used to providing! Stein *et al.* (1999) argue that what professional developers need is 'more akin to a transformation than to tinkering around the edges of their practice' (p. 256) and they cite examples of new practices that will be required such as: the ability to develop 'self-sustaining learning communities' in schools rather than developing individual teachers; the need to base development on theories of teacher learning; the importance and relevance of individual school contexts, and the need for professional developers to take greater responsibility for the outcomes of their development activities. (p. 257).

In particular the final bullet point is revealing. If professional developers are to take more responsibility for their provision and its impact upon pupil learning, they will need to work with better models of teacher development and find better methods of working with teachers to evaluate that impact. In order to do this, Guskey (2002, p. 388-396) suggests that professional developers will need to recognise that change is a gradual and difficult process for teachers, ensure that teachers receive regular feedback on student learning progress, and provide continued follow-up and support. Inevitably, this requires a major shift in the traditional model of CPD provision and it has both pedagogical and financial implications. Yet, if enhanced pupil learning is the ultimate goal of CPD, it may be that we need 'imagination…a matter of keeping open what we can imagine as possibility' (Greene, 2001, p.10/11) in order to achieve it.

Changing school structures

If CPD providers could be persuaded to change their practices to promote school-based collaborative learning amongst teachers, then schools would need to change too. Darling-

Hammond, and McLauglin (1995, p. 598) argue that 'teachers learn by doing, reading and reflecting (just as students do); by collaborating with other teachers, by looking closely at students and their work; and by sharing what they see', yet schools largely prevent such learning. Hence they suggest that a vital step in providing more effective CPD is to address school policy and structural barriers to collaborative professional learning. In order to do this, Brandt (2003) provides a checklist against which teachers can rate their schools as 'learning organisations' including the requirement for schools to have 'supportive organisational cultures' to enable collaboration and openness. However, as Stokes (2001) comments, few schools support teachers to work together in this way. Similarly, Newmann (1994, p.2) describes 'formidable obstacles to the development of clear, shared purpose, collective responsibility and collaboration' and Mayer et al. (2003) found that lack of time and opportunity for teachers to work together was a recurring problem. The teachers in the PE-CPD study in England agreed:

But how on earth could you set up a day when three staff from a department are all out? Without the support network available.

It is almost an impossibility to take us all out of lesson…I would imagine that despite the fact they would probably like to support they would have turned round and said no.

Yet, unless school structures are designed to accommodate the situated learning needs of teachers, then they are acting as barriers to effective teacher learning and, ultimately, pupil learning too.

Changing PE teachers' expectations

There are also issues centring on PE teachers themselves: their readiness to learn (linked to career stage/aspirations), their beliefs about what constitutes real (legitimate/authentic) PE-CPD, and their willingness to take the lead in professional learning. For example, if school-based PLCs are to become a valued learning framework for PE-CPD, and if the development of formal and informal learning networks is to be encouraged and supported, then working with a group of like-minded professional colleagues is a basic requirement. But whereas some teachers appear to be tireless in their time and commitment to teaching, others are less committed, and yet others are committed but feel a need to draw some boundaries and retain a life outside teaching. The establishment of successful PLCs *within* PE departments will need to recognise this range; simply expecting all teachers to give 'more' is not the way forward:

You get wrapped up in the game of life in school. And your life revolves around teaching your lessons that are on the curriculum, running clubs each lunch-time and doing matches after school and then you get home and you think - It's Friday already. …ask any teacher, time is the major issue isn't it…

…I need to play my own sport, do my own thing, get away from it and recharge my own batteries.

The time pressures many of the case study teachers felt and expressed must be acknowledged; and it seems clear that the way forward for professional development is to develop a model that

reduces – rather than increases – such pressures. At the moment external CPD is 'bolted on' to the task of teaching and to school structures and processes – and that is a fundamental problem.

Finally, PE teachers need to have more confidence in themselves, their judgement and their capabilities. From the strength of a PLC they should be demanding more appropriate forms and levels of CPD in the interests of the learning needs of themselves and their pupils (which might, of course, include attendance at selected external 'courses', or the buying-in of external advice and expertise). This teacher is able and motivated, and is entitled therefore to be challenged by progressive and coherent CPD:

I mean some of the things that come through, I don't think are pitched at professional PE teachers now, as in somebody who has studied PE for four years and is a specialist PE teacher. I think a lot of the professional development stuff that comes through is pitched at a lower level.

Closing Comments

It is ironic that a profession called 'education' has failed to base teachers' professional development structures and processes on best knowledge about learning. As Guskey (2002) argues, we need to revise our understandings of how and why teachers change; and rather than attempting to change teachers' attitudes and beliefs in order to persuade them to change their practice, we need to recognise that 'significant change in teachers' attitudes and beliefs occurs primarily *after* they gain evidence of improvements in student learning' (p. 383). The value of working in school-based and collaborative frameworks is clearly signalled and this is supported both by theoretical and empirical evidence. We would certainly conclude that CPD provision needs to be turned on its head, with PE teachers leading from their professional learning communities so that they can stand in a different relationship to CPD knowledge (becoming initiators and drivers), thus producing different types of knowledge in the interests of the learning needs of their particular pupils. This would appear to represent the essence of CPD in that is it Continuous, Professional (involves working closely with professional colleagues) and results in Development (offering limitless opportunities for progressive and relevant learning).

Questions for thought

Is professional development for PE teachers in your country designed to enable teachers to engage in sustained, career-long, progressive and coherent learning?

If not, why not and, in your view, what are the implications for teacher and pupil learning?

If you agree with any of the suggestions made in this paper, can you identify practical steps that can be taken to make them a reality?

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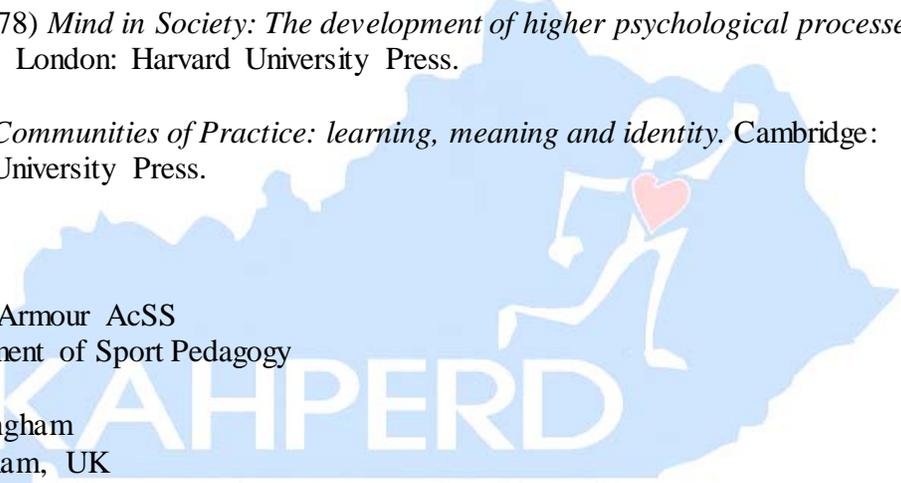
Assessing Mental Imagery Use and Perceived Stress of Collegiate Golfers

Darren Smith, Western Kentucky University
Paula Upright, Western Kentucky University
Suzanne Deevers, Western Kentucky University
William Hey, Western Kentucky University

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to assess the perceived stress level and mental imagery use of student golfers in a Collegiate Golf Alliance (CGA) national qualifying tournament. For this study, imagery was defined as the athlete's ability to cognitively reproduce an object, scene, or sensation prior taking action. Researchers report that the use of imagery techniques can serve as a means of reducing stress and pre-event anxiety (Hall & Sheldon, 2007). Studies also show that being relaxed and confident with a positive self-image can increases overall athlete performance (Bernier & Fournier, 2010; Hall, Stevens, & Paivio, 2005). Research has shown that athletes who practice mental imagery consistently and visualize positive outcome of athletic performance are more successful in the playing arena (Hall, Stevens, & Paivio, 2005).

The effect of stress on an athlete's ability to succeed in competition has become a very popular topic of research in recent years. Perceived stress has been found to have an effect on the ability of a player to succeed in their respective sport and some athletes excel when under stress while others' athletic performance suffers (Crocker & Hadd, 2005). A research study by Nicholls and others indicated efforts of championship team's replicating game-like stressful situations to improve performance of athletes, thus turning the perceived stress into a positive outcome for the team (Nicholls & Polman, 2007). It is often assumed that feelings of stress, anxiety, and fear are negative elements that should be reduced, avoided or eliminated. From the perspective of many athletes however, these emotions are needed, in fact desired, as a means of improving the athletes' level of performance (Landers & Arent, 2001).

Methods

This study was conducted at a 2010 CGA National Qualifying Golf Tournament held in Franklin, KY. Thirty college student competitors were competing for the opportunity to participate in the CGA National Tournament in Las Vegas, NV. Prior to conducting the study, the researchers gained IRB approval from the University's Human Subjects Review Board. The participants in the golf tournament were provided the survey by the primary researcher when they checked in for the tournament. The survey instruments included the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) (Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983) and the Sport Imagery Questionnaire (SIQ) (Hall, Stevens, & Paivio, 2005). The PSS is a 10 statement self-reporting survey that measures the perception of current perceived stress levels. The SIQ is a 30 statement self-reporting survey that measures the motivational and cognitive functions related to the use of imagery. The motivational function of imagery can represent emotion-arousing situations as well as specific

goals and goal oriented behavior. The cognitive function involves the mental rehearsal of skills and strategies of play. The SIQ is divided into five subscales that measure the factors of Cognitive Specific (CS), Cognitive General (CG), Motivational Specific (MS), Motivational General Arousal (MGA), and Motivational General Specific (MGS). The responses for the SIQ are scored on a 7-point Likert scale.

Both instruments have been proven valid and reliable. The golf score for each team and other demographics for each participant in the tournament were collected. The responses on the surveys were tallied and data were analyzed using SPSS. Measures of central tendency (Table 1) and correlation analyses (Tables 2 and 3) were also conducted.

Results

A total of 30 college students (non-varsity athletes) participated in the CGA National Qualifying Tournament of which 28 returned completed surveys (93%). All of the participants for this event were male. Table 1 reflects the descriptive data collected for this study.
The largest percentage of students reported being between 18-20 years old (46.4%) with ages 21-23 second higher (42.9%). Participants consisted of students majoring in business (39.3%), recreation/sport/PE majors (17.9%) and science and math (10.7%). The majority of the participants (64.3%) reported that they had participated in 8 or more golf tournaments prior to taking part in this CGA qualifier tournament. Only one participant reported this was their first golf tournament.

Pearson Correlation analyses were performed to determine if a relationship existed between the Golfers Team Score, Total PSS Score, and the Total Imagery (SIQ Score) (Table 2). Results indicated no statistically significant relationships between the variables. The correlations among golf score, total PSS and SIQ are also low (r < .500). A more specific second Pearson Correlation was performed to determine if a relationship existed between the Golfers Team Score, Total PSS Score, and any of the five factors measured in the SIQ (Table 3). Results indicated no statistically significant relationship between team scores, total PSS score and the five factors of the SIQ.

Conclusions

This was a benchmark study representing the first attempt at using both the PSS and SIQ surveys together. This also appears to be the first study these instruments have been used together with college student golfers and neither of these two surveys has been used together for athletes in other sports. However, according to Feltz & Landers, athletes who utilize imagery prior to an event display higher skill levels than those who do not (Feltz & Landers, 1983). Also, Plessinger (1998) states usages of imagery in sports includes mental practice of skills, improving confidence and positive thinking, problem solving, controlling arousal and anxiety, performance review and analysis, and preparation for performance. Should the old adage that sports is 90% mental and 10% physical hold true, there are a number of reasons why imagery should be used for sporting competition. Lastly, Singh (2003) indicated there is a need for some levels of stress

in sporting competition for optimal performance. At an optimum level of stress one gets the benefits of improved performance. It is important to realize that stress, especially prolonged stress, can also have negative effect on sport performance (Singh, 2003).

Additional research is needed in this area since the finding of this research study did not support that performance is closely related to stress or imagery score. The reasons are not yet known for this but the participants in this study may not practice imagery technique enough or imagery may not help golfer as much as other athletes.

Even though no significance was found, the golfers who had better scores used imagery more. The lower perceived stress scores that were shown by the teams that had the lower scores for the round of golf could be because the participant had previously participated in multiple golf tournaments and may have developed a certain level of competitive confidence.

The results may have been affected by the cerebral nature of the game of golf. In other sports, competition is more reactive and there is less time to think about your next move where in golf the slower pace provides participants time to think about what needs to be done next. Future research should consider a larger sample size, a more diverse sample (all participants in this study were males), use of multiple tournaments to increase the number of participants, improved methods for collecting team scores on the surveys, and use of different populations (varsity athletes, professional athletes).This study may also benefit from a longitudinal approach.

Table 1 – Descriptive Data

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Percent
18-20	13	46.4	48.1	48.1
21-23	12	42.9	44.4	92.6
24-25	2	7.2	7.4	100.0
Major	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Percent
REC/Sport/PE	5	17.9	18.5	18.5
Science/Math	3	10.7	11.1	29.6
Business	11	39.3	40.7	70.4
Other	7	25.0	25.9	96.3
Undeclared	1	3,6	3.7	100.0
Tournaments	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Percent
0	1	3.6	3.6	3.6
1-3	4	14.3	14.3	17.9
4-7	5	17.9	17.9	35.7
8 or More	18	64.3	64.3	100.0

Table 2 – Golf Score/PSS/SIQ Correlation

	Score	PSS TOTAL	Imagery Total
Score			
Pearson Correlation	1	.239	.108
Sig. (2-tailed)		.391	.701
N	16	15	15
PSS TOTAL			
Pearson Correlation	.239	1	.207
Sig. (2-tailed)	.391	.459	
N	15	15	15
Imagery Total			
Pearson Correlation	.108	.207	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.701	.459	
N	15	15	15

Table 3 – Golf Score/PSS/5 Factors of the SIQ Correlation

		Score	PSS TOT	CS	CG	MS	MGA	MGM
Score								
	Pearson Correlation	1	.212	.075	.118	.045	.095	-.016
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.278	.704	.549	.820	.632	.935
	N	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
PSS Total								
	Pearson Correlation	.212	1	-.084	.008	-.004	.004	-.109
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.278		.672	.968	.983	.984	.582
	N	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Cognitive Specific					.865**	.844**	.769**	.843**
	Pearson Correlation	.075	-.084	1	.865	.844	.769	.843
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.704	.672		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Cognitive General			.865**		.812**	.767**	.814**
	Pearson Correlation	.118	.008	.865	1	.812	.767	.814
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.549	.968	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Motivational Specific			.844**	.812**		.667**	.822**
	Pearson Correlation	.045	-.004	.844	.812	1	.667	.822
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.820	.983	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Motivational General Arousal			.769**	.767**	.667**		.754**
	Pearson Correlation	.095	.004	.769	.767	.667	1	.754
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.632	.984	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Motivational General Mastery			.843**	.814**	.822**	.754**	
	Pearson Correlation	-.016	-.109	.843	.814	.822	.754	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.935	.582	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	28	28	28	28	28	28	28

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

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Acute Effect of Dance Exercise as a General Active Warm-up on Hamstring Flexibility

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Abstract

Athletes use warm-ups before games to improve performance and reduce injuries. In this study, 112 healthy adults' hamstring flexibility was assessed using the two-legged sit and reach test before and after 10 minutes of dance exercise compared to the same amount of workload in jogging. Repeated measures ANOVA revealed significant increases in hamstring flexibility after dance exercise, but not after jogging or no activity (control). In conclusion, dance exercise may be a useful warm-up before games, whereas jogging should be followed by joint-specific stretching exercises, otherwise hamstring flexibility may not increase.
Key Words: hamstring flexibility, dance exercise

Introduction

The practice of performing warm-up activities in preparation for more strenuous exercise is well established, yet a recent meta-analysis on the subject suggests that it is still not known whether warming-up is of benefit, of potential harm, or of no importance to future performance (Fradkin, Zazryn, & Smoliga, 2010). Witvrouw et al. (2004) also report in their review that despite the fact that stretching is routinely advocated by coaches and sports medicine professionals, conflicting data concerning the relationship between flexibility and athletic injury question many of the current recommendations. Despite this, warm-up is generally accepted to be beneficial for many reasons (Woods, Bishop, & Jones, 2007). Warm-up raises body temperature and moves specific body limbs that are to be used in the subsequent main activity. Smith (2004) adds that warm-up increases muscle and tendon suppleness, stimulates blood flow to the periphery, increases muscle temperature, and enhances free, coordinated movement. Athletes and others perform a warm-up in the hope that, at the very least, it will help prevent injury through reduced resistance to stretch at the same range of motion and, at best, help them improve performance (Magnusson et al., 1995, 1996; McHugh & Nesse, 2008; Ryan et al., 2008). On the other hand, some studies have reported warm-up produced no reduction in the risk of injury (Pope, Herbert, & Kirwan, 2000) or total injuries (Bixler & Jones, 1992).

The traditional warm-up paradigm includes a general active warm-up (a short period of low-intensity cardiovascular exercise) followed by stretching and sports specific exercise (Safran, Seaber, & Garrett, 1989). However, it is clear that many exercisers do not follow the traditional paradigm. Some opt to perform just the general active warm-up, others only stretch, and still others stretch first, and then do aerobic exercise.

Witvrouw et al. (2004) argue that one reason for the conflicting research in the literature is the type of sports activity in which the individual is participating. Sports demanding jumping and

bounding movements that involve a high intensity of stretch-shortening cycles (e.g. soccer and volleyball) require a muscle-tendon unit that is compliant enough to store and release the vast amounts of elastic energy beneficial to performance. These movements involve eccentric muscle contractions immediately followed by concentric contractions. Insufficiently compliant muscle-tendon units may result in greater risk of muscle injury due to excessive demands in energy absorption. Muscle-tendon units that convert their metabolic energy into mechanical work via concentric contractions (e.g. jogging, swimming, cycling) do not absorb much energy during the movement. Therefore, taking into account the type of activity in which the individual participates is likely to lead to a better warm-up prescription.

The hamstring muscles represent one group of the lower extremity musculature that experiences common injury in both contact and non-contact sports and other exercises (Sole et al., 2008; Brubaker, 1974; Ekstrand & Gillquist, 1982; Lysholm & Wiklander, 1987; McMaster & Walter, 1986). Some research has shown that hamstring injuries often occur during the early stages of practices or games (Dorman, 1971; Ekstrand & Gillquist, 1983). Prevention of hamstring injuries is therefore a specific purpose of many warm-up activities and a central focus of this investigation.

Comparisons of different types and structures of warm-up have been studied previously (O'Brien, Payne, Gastin & Bruge, 1997; Stewart & Sleivert, 1998) but comparisons of different modes of low-intensity aerobic exercise used as general active warm-up have not. For athletes, the general active warm-up is typically followed by stretching, which is then followed by sport-specific exercises. In other words, runners typically jog, swimmers swim and so on. However, the best type of general active warm-up for recreational exercisers desiring to get a comprehensive cardiovascular and musculoskeletal improvement workout has not been studied. In particular, the use of aerobic dance exercise as an aerobic warm-up has been rarely investigated, despite its low intensity and ease of use.

The purpose of this study was to examine the acute effects on hamstring flexibility of a short dance exercise warm-up compared to a jogging warm-up. In this study, general active warm-up was defined as a period of preparatory aerobic exercise designed to reduce injury and enhance training performance. It should be noted that warm-up did not include stretching or sports specific exercises as per the traditional paradigm.

Methods

Participants and Procedures

Participants were 112 adults aged 18-51 years (68 females, 44 males) living in the central and eastern regions of Kentucky. This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the researchers' institution. All participants read and signed an informed consent form prior to participation. Participants completed three 10-minute exercise treatments, each of which was immediately followed by administration of the two-legged sit-and-reach test of hamstring flexibility. The treatments were randomized with equal numbers of participants jogging first,

then performing dance exercise, and the reverse to reduce the order effect. The dance exercise treatment required participants to perform 10 minutes of dance exercise by following the instructor on an exercise DVD (*Afro-Brazilian Cardio,* The Method DVD Series). The movements were precise and simple and the rhythm was steady so as not to over-challenge the participants. Participants were instructed to maintain the pace of the dance exercise as closely as possible. The jogging treatment consisted of a 10-minute jog on a True 850 commercial treadmill at a speed of five miles per hour and three percent incline. The treadmill speed and grade were set to a moderate level to accommodate varying levels of fitness. The control treatment involved 10 minutes of sitting with no activity. All treatments were performed on the same day and supervised by the principal investigator.

Protocol

Participants were told to refrain from exercise for at least eight hours prior to testing. Upon arrival at the laboratory, the procedures were explained and participants began the first of the three treatments. Each treatment lasted 10 minutes and was immediately followed by the sit-and-reach test of hamstring flexibility. Ten minute breaks between treatments were allowed to reduce the carryover and practice effects of prior treatments.

Instruments

Participants' hamstring flexibility was assessed using a sit-and-reach box (Model # 01285; Lafayette Instrument Company, Lafayette, IN). The two-legged sit-and-reach test is a valid and reliable test of hamstring flexibility commonly used in research as well as physical education settings (Bird et al., 2002). The participant's score was the average of two trials to the nearest 0.5 cm.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were computed for cursory examination of the differences in hamstring flexibility among treatments. A 3 (treatment) x 2 (time) repeated measures ANOVA was performed to examine the statistical differences in hamstring flexibility. Post-hoc analysis was performed to identify the nature of any main effects or interactions. Significance was set at $P \leq$ .05, and all analyses were performed using SPSS version 17.0.

Results

Of the 149 potential participants in this study, 112 were retained due to the fact that 37 were unable to complete the 10 minute jogging treatment. Ninety-two percent of the participants used in the analysis were between 18 and 25 years of age. There were no significant differences based on gender for hamstring flexibility; thus data for both genders were collapsed for the main analysis. Means and standard deviations for hamstring flexibility across treatments are reported in Table 1.

Mean gain in flexibility from pre- to post-test was largest after the dance exercise treatment (2.1 cm) and lowest after the jogging treatment (0.8 com). To compare treatments, a 3 (treatment) x 2 (time) repeated measures analysis of variance revealed a main effect for time ($P < .05$). Post-hoc analysis showed the positive change in pre- and post-test hamstring flexibility was greater after dance exercise compared to jogging ($P < .05$). Because sphericity was violated, the Greenhouse-Geiser correction was applied to the data. The results of the post-hoc analysis are presented in Table 2.

Discussion and Conclusions

The results of this study indicate that a 10-minute aerobic dance warm-up significantly increased hamstring flexibility, whereas a similar amount of jogging did not. Post-warm-up hamstring flexibility was marginally greater after jogging, but the difference was not significant.
Women outnumbered men almost three to two in this data set but there were no gender effects observed in the results. Somewhat surprisingly, women did not outperform men on the sit-and-reach test. Given the rather high percentage of participants in the 18-25 age range, the findings would appear to be representative of a young, healthy, active adult population in the region.
The vast majority of studies in this area have looked at the effects of low-intensity aerobic exercise and stretching on flexibility and performance. By analyzing only the aerobic component of the warm-up and not the stretching, this study may partly fill a void in the extant literature since a measurable portion of sports and fitness participants perform either the aerobic warm-up or the stretching, but not both, and it may be of interest to examine the effects of each component individually. Moreover, there is evidence that static stretching may actually decrease subsequent performance (Shrier, 2004; Winchester et al., 2008), thus many athletes choose to use dynamic stretching so as not to compromise their speed, agility and strength during the game.

Of the limited related literature on the effect of warm-up (without stretching) on flexibility, de Weijer et al. (2003) found that aerobic warm-up alone only minimally increased hamstring flexibility, whereas static stretching alone resulted in a significant increase, but that the largest increase occurred in combined warm-up and stretching. We limited our study to comparing two different types of low-intensity aerobic warm-up activities, the more traditional jogging, and the less common dance exercise, hence we cannot comment on whether warm-up alone is more effective than stretching alone. Based on the results of earlier studies, we suspect not.
Williford et al. (1986) found no differences in hamstring flexibility improvement between students who jogged for five minutes and then stretched compared to students who stretched and then jogged, although it should be noted that the primary purpose of their study was to examine changes in flexibility over a 9-week training period. Of particular interest to us was that in their study, the researchers concluded that the data did not support the claim that warming the muscles prior to stretching by jogging results in a significant increase in hamstring flexibility. Likewise, in our study, the jogging warm-up did not increase hamstring flexibility, whereas there was an increase after dance exercise.

Zakas et al. (2006) examined lower extremity flexibility changes in elderly women resulting from three warm-up protocols namely, general warming-up for 20 minutes, general warming-up

followed by static stretching, and static stretching alone. Their results showed that both of the protocols involving static stretching were effective in making immediate improvements in lower extremity flexibility, but that general warming-up was not. Our results suggest that the type of general warm-up is critical insofar as whether flexibility improves.

Our study may be the first of its kind to use dance exercise as the mode of aerobic warm-up. We could find no other studies in the recent literature that examined the acute effects of a dance exercise warm-up on hamstring flexibility.

In related research, Alricsson and colleagues used dance exercise in two training studies on cross-country skiers (Alricsson et al., 2003; Alricsson & Werner, 2004) and found that dance training improved range of hip and joint motion, muscle and spine flexibility over 12-week and 8-month periods.

It has taken time for the physiological benefits of dance to become accepted perhaps in part because of the ambiguity of dance as art versus exercise. Alricsson et al.'s (2003) and other studies have shown that dance can improve joint and muscle flexibility when used over a long period (Rimmer, 1981; Hui, Chui, & Woo, 2008), yet it was the potential acute effects of dance exercise on flexibility that attracted us to this investigation. In particular, when reviewing the literature, one of the initial questions we asked was, "Why aren't dance movements used more as warm-up activities given their ease of use and likely positive effects?" The answer to this question may involve more of a sociological explanation, which is outside the scope of this investigation. Notwithstanding, our initial research hypothesis was that dance exercise would improve hamstring flexibility more than jogging. Granted, both activities raise body temperature, increase muscle and tendon suppleness and decrease muscle viscosity. Despite this, we believed flexibility would increase more after a dance exercise warm-up because of the fluid, diverse, multi-plane movements of dance exercise compared to the rather static, single plane forward and backward motion of the lower extremity musculature used in jogging. Indeed, our hypothesis was confirmed.

Earlier we stated that there is a trend toward dynamic stretching exercises by athletes so as not to decrease performance. Given our finding that a dance exercise warm-up increases hamstring flexibility due to the multi-planar nature of the movements, an interesting investigation would be to compare the effects of both types of warm-up activities on performance.

Our findings should be viewed with caution, given the fact that we violated the principal of sphericity in the data, perhaps due to inadequate rest periods between treatments. Even though the order of treatments was counterbalanced, this limits our findings. Future studies should carefully design the protocols to reduce any carryover or practice effects of prior treatments. It is important to also state that because this is one of the few studies that used dance exercise as a general warm-up, more research is needed to more clearly delineate its effects on joint flexibility and as an adjunct component to the stretching and sport-specific components of warm-up.

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Table 1. Changes in Acute Hamstring Flexibility Due to Type of Warm-up

		Mean (cm)	SD
Jogging	Pre	38.9	6.8
	Post	39.7	6.8
	Gain	0.8	
Dance Exercise	Pre	39.4	6.8
	Post	41.5	6.5
	Gain	2.1	
Control	Pre	38.2	7.6
	Post	39.4	7.1
	Gain	1.2	

Note. Gain = difference between pre- and post-treatment flexibility.

Table 2. Comparison of Type of Warm-up on Hamstring Flexibility

Treatment	flexibility	Mean Difference (cm)	P
Jogging	Dance	-1.2	.001*
	Control	.5	.209
Dance Exercise	Jogging	1.2	.001*
	Control	1.7	.001*
Control	Jogging	-.5	.209
	Dance	-1.7	.001*

*Significant at P < .05.

Relationship Marketing in Intercollegiate Athletics

Sonya Bain, Austin Peay State University
Tammie Stenger-Ramsey, Western Kentucky Univrsity
Fred Gibson, Western Kentucky University
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Abstract

Cultivating committed customers has become a central focus within the marketing of intercollegiate athletics. Relationship marketing within this realm is about bringing fans' experiences closer to the game and bringing them even closer as vested partners. Unlike other entities, athletics departments must move their product even in the face of adversity, i.e. losing records, difficult economic conditions (Jackowski, 2006). Within most athletic programs, men's football and basketball are the only revenue-generating entities. The ability of these sports to produce substantial income is often instrumental in the sustainability of non-revenue producing sports (James & Ross, 2004). Although winning and losing records are important to fans, being able to provide a memorable and enjoyable fan experience through effective relationship marketing will keep them involved, even in the down years. Intercollegiate athletic organizations are now focusing on long-term consumer retention and are incorporating a variety of management techniques to establish, maintain and enhance positive customer relationships (Dick, Gillentine, Robinson, & Trail, 2003).

Keywords: relationship marketing, customer retention, sport consumption, customer trust

Introduction

"College sports are woven deeply into people's lives in university towns... College sports permeate these university communities as their culture revolves around these events, season by season; football in the fall, basketball and hockey in the winter, the NCAA tournaments in the spring" (Duderstadt, 2003, p. 3). James Duderstadt, (2003) former President of the University of Michigan, suggested there are many differences between "non-revenue" intercollegiate sports like volleyball, swimming, and soccer and "revenue generating" sports like football and basketball, which are part of the "entertainment business." Because each sport plays a different role in intercollegiate athletics, the strategies used to promote the sports may differ. Moreover, Trail, et.al (2003), suggests that marketing strategies should differ based upon the nature of the audience members' motives to attend intercollegiate athletic events. Although the promotion strategy may change, all athletic programs strive to build their fan base and increase the number of spectators at events. For that reason, relationship marketing may be an excellent approach for marketing all intercollegiate athletic sports.

Defining Relationship Marketing

Parvatiyar and Sheth (2000), defined relationship marketing as "the ongoing process of engaging in cooperative and collaborative activities and programs with immediate and end-user customers to create or enhance mutual economic value at reduced cost" (p. 9). In practice, relationship marketing is characterized by the attraction, development, and retention of customers. Although these definitions imply a long-term view of the consumer, current approaches to relationship marketing are varied and can take a very narrow perspective focusing on short-term behavioral components or can take a broader perspective emphasizing deeper, longer-term relationship goals (Parvatiyar & Sheth, 2000).

Hunt and Morgan (1994) stated, "Relationship marketing refers to all marketing activities directed toward establishing, developing, and maintaining successful relationship exchanges" (p. 22). Gordon (1998) provided a similar definition related to service marketing: "Relationship marketing is attracting, maintaining and - in multi-service organizations - enhancing customer relationships" (p. 25). These definitions both focus on long-term customer retention, which is ultimately reflected in repeat purchasing actions and the consumer moving toward levels of emotional attachment and relational attitudes (James & Ross, 2004). Athletics organizations should strive to develop this deeper level of relationship with their target markets. In order to facilitate the formation of profound relational affiliations, organizations must understand and implement a broad marketing perspective (Gok, 2007).

Relationship Marketing Perspectives

The narrow perspective of relationship marketing in sport uses a variety of marketing techniques to elicit repeat purchasing behavior, and often focuses on how many tickets have been sold or how much consumers have spent during an event (James & Ross, 2004). From this perspective, relationships are viewed as transactional and cannot be viewed as longterm (Gok, 2007). For some of the less mainstream sports, focusing on ticket sales or number of spectators is a likely first step in building a long-term relationship. Unless spectators and fans attend a sporting event, there is little likelihood that a long-term relationship can occur. In contrast, a broad approach attempts to understand consumers better to move beyond the current transaction and shallow repeat purchasing techniques to develop meaningful and beneficial relationships that are proactive, enduring, and interactive. These sport consumers are viewed as lifetime customers, and efforts must be made to thoroughly understand their wants, needs, and motivations (Gordon, 1998).

Sport Consumer Motivations

Over time, fans can become highly identified with the team, coaches, and players (Dick, et. al, 2003; Trail, et. al, 2003). Effective relationship marketing plans focus on and accentuate this identity. Sport marketing departments often provide times for fans to interact with the team or coach in order to facilitate building connections. However, the same plans may not work well for those who are merely spectators and do not identify with the program. If there is no intrinsic

connection, marketers must develop a diverse strategy taking into account the varied motives for sport consumption (Bee & Kahle, 2006). Some of these motivations include: social needs, psychological needs, vicarious achievement, acquisition of knowledge, aesthetics, social interactions, drama, escape, family, physical attractiveness of participants, and physical skill of participants (James & Ross, 2004). These consumer motivations can be further grouped into three categories influencing sport consumption: compliance, identification and internalization (Bee & Kahle, 2006; Kelman, 1961).

Categorical Influences of Sport Consumption

Of the three sport consumption categories, compliance is the most superficial level of motivational behavior, and results from either individual or group influences. The sport consumer gives into compliance because he or she gains a reward for a transactional exchange, or avoids some form of punishment. The consumer is typically seeking a favorable reaction from another person or group (Kelman; 1961). Examples of this type of motivational behavior include attending an athletics event, wearing team-related gear, or making financial donations at a certain level. Obtaining social and economic rewards and avoidance of embarrassment or ridicule are the basis for compliance behavior (Bee & Kahle, 2006).

Identification is defined as "the perceived overlap of one's own self-concept with the identity of the sport organization, team, or player" (Bee & Kahle, 2006, p. 107; Kelman, 1961). The tendency for fans and spectators to bask in reflected glory (BIRG), where being associated with a program's success becomes similar to personal success, and cut off reflected failure (CORF), where individuals distance themselves from unsuccessful programs, describes the identification process (Bee & Kahle, 2006; Cialdini, et. al, 1976). Duderstadt (2003) explains unacceptable behaviors by athletes (crime, violence, or drugs) or coaches (violence or violation of recruiting policies) can also lead to CORFing.

Internalization results when fan and spectator behavior is influenced through the creation of mutual trust and shared values. Internalization is the more enduring and long-term relational alternative. The rapport formed between athletics departments and their constituents based on internalization is consistent with the relational exchange perspective (Bee & Kahle, 2006). Kelman (1961) suggests that an alignment of values and enduring beliefs is one of the strongest antecedents for internalization. While compliance and identification motivators are viewed as transactional behavior, the more desired behavior of internalization by fans embodies the concept of relational exchange.

Transactional Versus Relational Exchanges

Current research supports the view of relationship marketing from the perspective that consumer relationships exist on a spectrum ranging from transactional to relational (Parvatiyar & Sheth, 2000). According to Egan and Harker (2006), transactional marketing's primary focus is to fit the customer to the product. These exchanges depend on utilizing external factors as attractants, and assume consumers are available in unlimited supply (Egan & Harker, 2006).

Relational exchanges focus on cooperation and interactions resulting from shared values of both the consumer and the athletics organization (Parvatiyar & Sheth, 2000). Although it is recommended that organizations focus on both transactional and relational exchanges, the transactional approach to relationship marketing is often seen as a less desirable, short-term solution (Parvatiyar & Sheth, 2000). In this situation, external or superficial rewards provide the major motivation to engage in an exchange relationship. Sport consumers have a high likelihood of discontinuing purchasing behavior or attending events when the rewards are reduced or eliminated (Bee & Kahle, 2006). These types of exchanges are still important to a sport marketing professional, because they serve as the initial step in moving customer relations from transactional to relational (Parvatiyar & Sheth, 2000).

Moving Sport Consumers from Transactional to Relational

It is important, from a marketing perspective, to identify which constituents an athletics department should be attempting to formulate relationships with. Palmer (1994) stated "successful marketing should focus attention not just on how to gain new customers, but how to develop loyalty from those that an organization has previously and expensively gained" (p. 573). Many will agree that those who attend athletic events are one of the highest-ranking priority individuals of any sport organization (Jackowski, 2006). Understanding exactly who these persons are and their motivations for attendance will enable the creation of sustainable, long-term relationships, and further allow an organization to categorize these constituents. Within intercollegiate athletics, sport attendees can be subdivided into two diverse groups—fans and spectators. Sport marketers must understand this distinction in order to meet the wants and needs of both (Dick, et. al, 2003 & Trail, et. al, 2003).

Spectators are defined as those who attend sporting events simply to watch and observe (Dick, et. al, 2003; Sloan, 1989). Spectators want to see competitive games because they enjoy learning about the sport and watching the artistry and skill of the athletes (Dick, et. al, 2003; Pons, Mourali, & Nyeck, 2006; Trail, et. al, 2003). Spectators are more likely to attend a university or college's athletic events if most of its games are against schools of similar ability (Craig, 2002) and if they have a quality experience based on price, accessibility, and accommodations (Trail, et. al, 2003).

A fan can be described as a sport enthusiast or devotee. Fandom can be broken into three categories: social, focused, and vested. The social fan has low team identification. They attend events to enjoy the socialization aspect, and care little about the outcome of the game. The benefits of being a social fan bring feelings of camaraderie, community and solidarity, along with great social status and self-esteem (Dionisio, et. at, 2008). The focused fan has a moderate level of identification and is attracted to some aspects of the sport. The vested fan maintains high emotional attachment to the team that extends over a long period of time. This fan is one who will make financial and time commitments to the program (Dick, et. al, 2003) that include purchasing licensed team products (Trail, et. al, 2003).

The fan category can be further dissected to include the fair-weather and the die-hard fan. Fair-weather fans are those who will support the team when they are successful, but will abandon the organization when it is losing. The die-hard fan stands by the team under both winning and losing circumstances (Dick, et. al, 2003). Categorizing those who attend collegiate sporting events will enable the athletics department to design and deliver products that appeal to target market segmentations according to their motivation, thereby increasing overall revenue-generation. However, in continuing to progress relational exchanges, athletic organizations have begun to realize additional, non-monetary benefits of effective relationship marketing - enhanced customer trust, commitment and cooperation, and a philosophy of shared values (Gok, 2007).

Building Trust and Aligning Values

Several factors affect sport consumer attitudes and behavior toward relationship formation, such as commitment, involvement, trust, and shared values. Research has examined the important role of trust in long-term relationship development. Trust is influenced by shared values and is often viewed as a precursor to relationship commitment (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Shared values can invoke the highest level of relationship commitment. In the context of sports marketing, shared values between sports consumers and sports organizations, teams, or players should lead to increased relationship commitment. When consumers enter into a relationship with an athletics program, that act can reflect the consumers' expectations and commitment to continue patronage regardless of the other choices available to them. If these expectations are consistently met, consumers are more likely to initiate or maintain a trusting relationship that fulfills their needs as well as satisfying those of the athletics department (Morgan & Hunt, 2004).

Some fans inherit a team through family ties just as they would inherit a family value. This can affect their continuation of support for a particular team. When attracting the devoted fan not a lot of circumstances will affect the teams support because they will generally have positive sustained behavior (Dionisio, et. at, 2008).

Implications and Conclusion

In the current intercollegiate environment, relationship marketing plays a predominant role between athletics departments and their primary customers—fans and spectators. Relationship marketing creates and sustains a network between the individual customer and the organization. Due to the ever-increasing cost of running an athletic program, sport marketers must, among other tactics, develop customer loyalty through relationship marketing. Building and maintaining internalized connections allows athletics departments to increase trust and commitment among their customers. Relationships are amongst the most important and powerful aspects of sports marketing. With this perspective, practitioners can begin to understand the basis, source, and motivation for the creation of such relationships, and can embark on fully integrating these concepts into departmental strategic plans.

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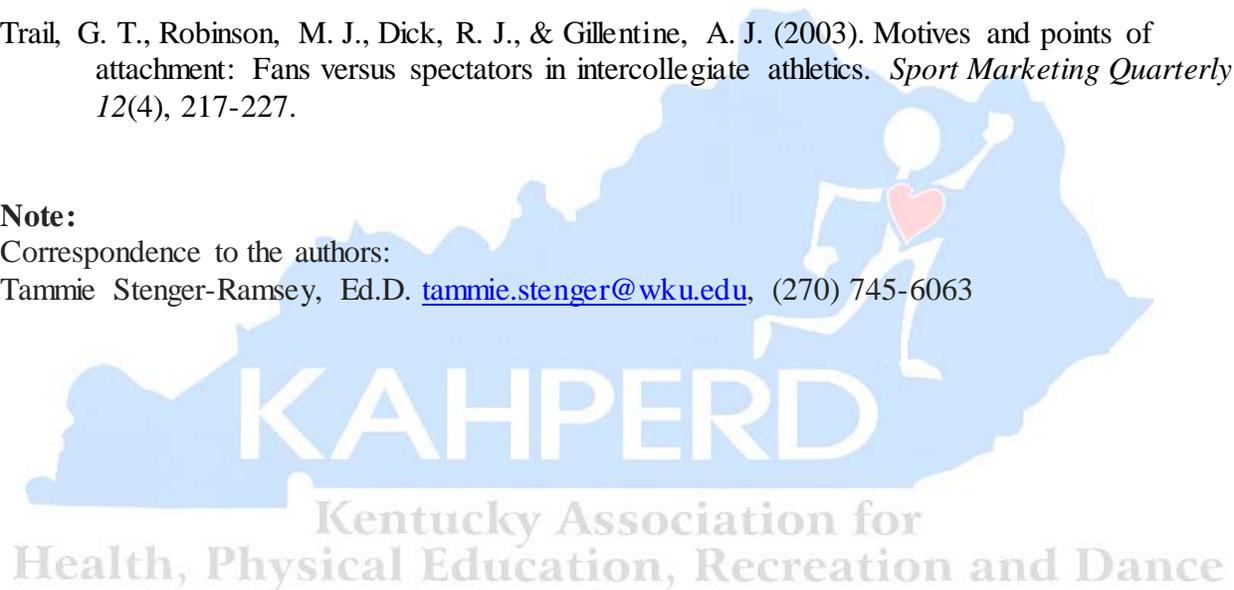
Assessment of Job Training and Practice of University Department Chairs in Health Promotion Programs

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to assess the professional training and experience levels of university department chairs in health promotion programs from baccalaureate, master's and doctoral institutions.   A mailed survey was sent to 300 department chairs across the United States, with a response rate of 45.6%. The survey included a variety of questions related to: job experience; job satisfaction; training received; workload; and quality of life. In areas where differences were observed, there were conspicuous differences between chairs employed at baccalaureate classified universities as compared to chairs of master's or doctoral institutions.

Introduction

Department chairs in higher education face a multitude of challenges daily. These tasks include but are not limited to student issues, personnel issues, meetings, budgeting, legal issues, accreditation, and strategic planning along with overseeing day to day departmental operations. A review of the literature revealed a glaring weakness in the preparation of department chairs. Gmelch (2004), stated that "the academic leader is among the least studied and most misunderstood management positions in America." Hecht and others (1999), and Whitsett (2007) have documented that most department chairs are not afforded any formal training program to assist with the additional responsibilities specific to the position. According to Hecht (2004), "for most department chairs, the learning process has been limited to on-the-job training." In many cases, the department chair learns through experience, or through networking with other chairs. Appropriate preparation "of academic leaders takes, time, training, commitment, and expertise" (Gmelch, 2004).

The attitude toward academic departments and the importance of department chairs and the worked performed has changed over the past 30 years. According to Hecht (2004), "departments have moved into the vortex of institutional management, and what for lack of other vocabulary we call "the administration" now realizes the importance of having competent and effective chairs with a capacity to lead their faculty colleagues." Carroll & Wolverton (2004), cited a statement by Woodburne (1958), that '80 percent of all administrative decisions made in colleges and universities are made by department chairs.' Despite this new realization, Hecht (2004), stated that "the reality is that becoming an effective department chair is largely a process of self-education." Meredith & Wunsch (1991), stated that "as institutions become more complex, those

in department governance positions will have neither the time nor the expertise to understand the full myriad tasks required of them."

In a study conducted by Hilton (1997), on the community college chairs in North Carolina, the need for training and learning situated in the context and experiences of the college administrator was observed. But much of the emphasis in the earlier studies has been concentrated on training for the administrators of schools and colleges. Gmelch (2004) contends that "if it takes 7-14 years in order to achieve expertise in academic disciplines" as represented by the attainment of tenure or promotion, "why do we assume we can create an academic leader with a weekend seminar?"

The position of chair fosters both a transformation and alteration in the professional and personal lives of a faculty member. As reported by Gmelch and Miskin (1993), chairs experienced a dramatic shift in time spent on professional activities such as research and other scholarly endeavors as well as time spent with family and friends, accompanied by excessive stress. Carroll & Wolverton (2004) described the individual that is likely to become a chair. "Midcareer faculty members become chairs, most often motivated by a sense of duty or a desire to help a department grow and improve." Many of the chairs also reported that the job as being "all consuming, and with an adverse effect on their fundamental calling: that of researcher, scholar and teacher" (Carrol & Wolverton, 2004).

Carroll & Wolverton (2004) suggested that "leadership at the department level then is handled by people who were not necessarily leaders in a previous role; without, for the most part, any previous managerial experience; and with little intention of continuing in a leadership role beyond a few years as chair." Based on this fact, many stay in the position for only a brief period of time. Carroll & Wolverton (2004) reported that the average tenure was to serve "two three-year terms."

The scarcity of sound research on the training and development of leaders is identified as the most significant shortcoming in the leadership area (Conger and Benjamin, 1999). No prior research has focused on the experiences of university department chairs in health promotion programs in an effort to understand their training needs. Because this is an exploratory study, the primary purpose was to assess the professional training and experience levels of university department chairs in health promotion programs. A secondary purpose was to compare these levels of training and experience and other selected self-reported job related attitudes between the chairs from doctoral, master's, and bachelor's degree granting institutions.

Method of Research

A cross sectional survey research design was utilized in order to assess the professional training and experience levels of university department chairs in health promotion programs. A survey questionnaire, which was reviewed by a panel of three department chairs and modified to reflect their comments, was mailed to 300 health promotion department chairs across the United States. Participants could respond via fax or return their paper survey in a self-addressed return mail

envelope. In an effort to increase response rate, a follow up email survey was sent one week after the first mail survey administration. Of the 300 chairs to whom the survey was mailed, 137 returned a completed survey for a response rate of 45.6%.

The survey consisted of 40 questions in different categories. These included: 1) Demographics; 2) Position-related questions such as current position, number of years in current position, highest degree completed, field of highest degree, academic rank, years of tenure, estimated number of hours of work each week, percentage of time spent on different job responsibilities as a chair; 3) Attitudinal questions that assessed overall satisfaction with present job, level of work related stress, quality of life, level of job responsibility, satisfaction with salary, level of recognition, change in the level of scholarly activity and teaching effectiveness after becoming department chair, and comparison of teaching hours with those of regular faculty; 4) Institution related questions that focused on institutional classification, highest degree awarded in health education, degree programs in health education offered by the institution, number of employees and students under direct supervision; 5) Training questions focused on participation in prior training programs, training chairs would like to receive, tasks they were most prepared for and least prepared for; and 6) A series of general open ended questions.

The mean age of the sample was 52.7. Over 80% reported being department chair, 4.4% acting chair, 4.4% were interim chair and 11% reported other. The most common terminal degree reported was the PhD at 60.6% followed by EdD (26.3%), DrPH (4.4%), Master's (4.4%) and, other (4.4%). The majority of the subjects were at the rank of professor (62%), followed by associate professor (36%), assistant professor (2.9%), and 1.4% clinical. Eighty-two percent of the respondents were tenured. The mean number of years respondents had been employed in higher education was 21.3 and the average number of years in the current position was 8.7. The mean number of years served as department chairs was 7.1

Results

The results section will be divided into two sections. The first section will be descriptive and focus on the professional training and experience levels of university department chairs in health promotion programs. The second section will compare the levels of training and experience and other selected self-reported job related attitudes between the chairs from doctoral, master's, and bachelor's degree granting institutions.

The training reported by most department chairs was an orientation offered by the university (37.3%), followed by training from the university (22.7%), a mentoring program from the university (20.9%), an orientation from a professional association (19.4%) and, training from a professional association (19.1%). Over a quarter (27.3%) reported no training prior to becoming chair.

Training respondents felt would be good preparation for incoming department chairs included: orientation from the university (63.1%); training from a professional association (54.1%); mentoring from the university (58.6%); training from the university (53.2%); and, an orientation

from a professional association (38.7%). Only 6.3% of respondents reported they felt no training would be good preparation.

Respondents were asked to rate responsibilities they believed they were most prepared to handle after becoming department chairs. The top five ranked responsibilities are in order: 1) student issues; 2) departmental/university committee meetings; 3) day to day departmental operations; 4) evaluations of faculty staff; and, 5) strategic planning.

Respondents were also asked to rate responsibilities they believed they were least prepared to handle after becoming department chairs. The top five ranked responsibilities are in order: 1) legal issues; 2) personnel issues; 3) budgets; 4) accreditation, and, 5) evaluation of faculty and staff.

The mean age of the department chairs was 52.7. Over 80% reported being department chair, 4.4% acting chair, 4.4% were interim chair and 11% reported other. The most common terminal degree reported was the PhD at 60.6% followed by EdD (26.3%), DrPH (4.4%), Master's (4.4%) and, other (4.4%). The majority of chairs were at the rank of professor (62%), followed by associate professor (36%), assistant professor (2.9%), and 1.4% clinical. Eighty-two percent of the respondents were tenured. The mean number of years respondents had been employed in higher education was 21.3 years and the average number of years in the current position was 8.7 years. The mean number of years served as department chairs was 7.1 years.

The first set of bi-variate analyses focused on a variety of personal information items of the respective department chairs. For instance, department chairs of doctoral institutions were significantly ($p<.05$) more likely to possess a PhD (70.8%) as the highest degree completed compared to chairs of master's and bachelor's institutions (59.4% and 26.7% respectively). Conversely, chairs of master's and bachelor's institutions were significantly more likely to hold an EdD compared to the chairs of doctoral institutions (30.4%, 33.3% and 18.8% respectively). Further, chairs of doctoral institutions were significantly more likely to report an academic rank of professor, compared to chairs of master's and bachelor's institutions (72.9%, 59.4% and 33.3% respectively). Consistently, chairs of doctoral institutions were also significantly more likely to report being employed in higher education longer than chairs of master's and bachelor's institutions (24.5 years, 20.9 and 16.6 respectively) and to report being older than chairs of master's and bachelor's institutions (54.3, 52.3 and 49.5 years respectively).

There were no significant differences for the following variables: current position (i.e., chair, acting chair and interim chair), field of highest degree completed (e.g., health education, physical education), whether respondents applied as an internal or external candidate, whether respondents were tenured, number of years tenured, years in the current position and total years served as department chair. (See Table1.)

Other items on the survey focused on the differences between types of institutions (doctoral, master's, and bachelor's) in the areas of: percentage of time spent on various tasks, tasks chairs

reported to be most and least prepared to handle, type of training received, or would like to have received, and a variety of questions regarding quality of life and professional satisfaction.

Regarding how they reportedly spent their time, there were significant differences between groups on four of twelve variables examined. As expected there was a difference in the amount of time spent on teaching and research between those at doctoral universities when compared to master's and bachelor's. For instance, chairs of bachelor's institutions report teaching 31.7% of their time. Chairs of master's institutions reported teaching 22.9% of their time and chairs of doctoral institutions reported teaching 15.8% of their time. Post-hoc analysis revealed that both chairs of bachelor's and master's institutions teach significantly more compared to chairs of doctoral institutions (p<.05). Regarding time spent on research, chairs from bachelor's, and master's institutions reported spending less time on research than chairs of doctoral institutions (2.23%, 4.61% vs. 13.86%). Department chairs from bachelor's institutions reported spending more time on legal issues when compared to chairs of master's and doctoral institutions. Chairs of master's institutions reported spending more time on institutional reports than those of the bachelor's and doctoral institutions. The training most often reported to be received by 51.4% of doctoral chairs, 33.3% of master's and 23.1% of bachelor's chairs was from college/university orientation. Seventeen percent of doctoral, 24.6% of master's and 8.3% bachelor's reported the second most common type of training to be professional association orientation. The only significant difference between the groups regarding their training was that significantly more bachelor's chairs reported no training than those from master's and doctoral programs (53.8%, 28.1%, and 14.3% respectively).

Regarding the training that would be most useful, all three groups (69.2% bachelors, 57.9% masters and 61.1% doctoral) reported mentoring initiatives from the college/university as the most useful. The second most reported training format suggested by the department chairs was from the college/university (61.5% bachelor's, 45.6% master's and 69.4% doctoral).

Department chairs were asked to rank various job related responsibilities and their level of preparation in each. There were significant differences between the chairs regarding two of the tasks, with doctoral chairs reporting greater preparedness with budgeting and strategic planning.

Over a third of chairs of each institutional classification reported they were least prepared to deal with personnel issues (38.3% doctoral, 47.7% master's and 40.0% bachelor's respectively). Evaluation of faculty and staff was the second most reported job responsibility that chairs felt least prepared to complete (31.9% doctoral, 35.9% master's and 53.3% bachelor's).

Regarding personnel and number of students, chairs from doctoral institutions reported significantly more full time teaching faculty, graduate assistants and number of graduate students than chairs from master's and bachelor's. For instance, chairs of doctoral institutions reported to directly supervise a mean of 16.1 full time teaching faculty compared to chairs from master's (11.3) and bachelor's (10.6) institutions.

There were no significant differences between chairs reported job satisfaction, work related stress, quality of life and overall level of working conditions across the three institutions. There were significant differences between chairs of bachelor's institutions self-reported level of satisfaction with job responsibility compared to the chairs of doctoral and master's institutions (p<.05). Similarly, chairs of bachelor's institutions reported less satisfaction with their overall level of salary compared to those of doctoral and master's institutions (p<.05). Chairs of both doctoral and master's institutions reported significantly more hours of work each week than those of bachelor's institutions (55.8, 54.1 and 43.7 respectively). Chairs of both doctoral and master's institutions reported teaching significantly less than their regular faculty compared to the chairs of bachelor's institutions (p<.05). Finally, chairs of doctoral and master's institutions reported a significantly greater decrease in their level of scholarly activity since becoming a chair than those of Bachelor's institutions (see Table 2).

Discussion

Results from this study should be taken with some caution. For instance, many of the questions on the survey required the respondents to estimate (e.g., number of hours worked weekly) or recall (e.g., specific training experienced prior to becoming chair) experiences over time. Furthermore, relatively few chairs of health promotion programs from undergraduate institutions were represented, possibly influencing comparisons by type of degree.

Chairs of health promotion departments reported a variety training prior to becoming chairs. However, over half reported an orientation to be the training most likely to receive and only one-fifth reported direct training from their respective university. Regarding training respondents felt would be good preparation for incoming chairs, over half reported training from the university (53.2%) and mentoring from the university (58.6%). Training could focus on responsibilities department chairs believed they were least prepared to handle including legal issues, personnel issues, budgeting, accreditation and evaluation of faculty and staff.

Consistent with previous stereotypes, chairs of doctoral institutions reported to be engaged in significantly more research and significantly less teaching, than chairs of both master's and bachelor's institutions. Though there was a tendency for chairs of master's institutions to more closely resemble those of doctoral institutions regarding teaching and research, and less resemblance to those of bachelor's institutions.

However, regarding other issues relevant to being department chairs, chairs of doctoral and master's institutions were shown to be more similar with each other and different from those of bachelor's institutions. This held true for self-reported responses of job responsibility, overall level of satisfaction with salary, teaching significantly less than the regular faculty and, hours of work each week, where chairs of both doctoral and master's institutions reported working between 54 and 56 hours a week compared to approximately 44 hours for chairs of bachelor's institutions.

Clearly, chairs of bachelor's institutions are receiving less training prior to assuming the position than those from master's and doctoral institutions. Over half of the chairs of bachelor's institutions (54.8%) reported no training compared to over a quarter (28.1%) of chairs of master's institutions and only 14.3% of doctoral institutions.

Regardless of the level of training reported by chairs, all reported to be equally unprepared to deal with two of the most challenging aspects of the position. The job responsibility chairs reported to be least prepared to deal with were personnel issues, followed by evaluation of faculty and staff, arguably two of the most contentious aspects of the job. A partial solution was offered by the chairs themselves, with over half of all chairs reporting that mentoring initiatives from within the college/university and training form the college university as the most useful types of training they could have received prior to assuming the position.

Conclusion

Considering these findings, it becomes apparent that the department chairs from the three types of institutions have much in common with each other (e.g., job satisfaction, work related stress and quality of life). However, where differences were noted, they tended to follow a predictable pattern of chairs of doctoral institutions reporting less teaching, more research and greater number of students and employees directly supervised, than chairs of master's and bachelor's institutions. Training received prior to assuming their position was inconsistent and spotty with chairs of undergraduate institutions receiving the least. Chairs of all three institutions reported a dearth of preparedness to deal with some of the most contentious and common duties they will face as department chairs (e.g., personnel issues, evaluation of faculty and staff). As stated by Hecht (2004), ₌being a chair who leads effectively requires both enthusiasm and the vision to inspire combined with the hardnosed understanding of practical management.

Recommendations

It is recommended that a concerted effort be made in the development of high quality training programs by colleges/universities to assist department chairs in meeting the myriad of responsibilities related to the position. Professional associations should also participate in the training of individuals that aspire to assume this role, as well as those currently serving in this capacity.   It is also recommended that this study be replicated in the future to assess any continued differences in the professional training and experience levels of university department chairs in health promotion programs from baccalaureate, master's and doctoral institutions

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TABLE 1

	Chairs in Doctoral institutions	Chairs in Master's institutions	Chairs in Bachelor's institutions
What is your Current position?			
Chair	76.6%	82.4%	86.7%
Acting Chair	2.1%	5.9%	6.7%
Interim Chair	6.4%	2.9%	0%
Other	14.9%	8.8%	6.7%
What is your Field of Highest Degree?			
Health Education	35.4%	29%	33.3%
Health Promotion	0%	5.8%	0%
Physical Education	8.3%	18.8%	13.3%
Public Health	6.3%	1.4%	0%
Kinesiology	12.5%	4.3%	6.7%
Curriculum&Instruction	4.2%	5.8%	26.7%
Recreation	2.1%	1.4%	0%
Other	31.3%	33.3%	20.0%
How did you apply to the current position?			
-as an internal candidate.	37%	56.5%	66.7%
-as an external candidate.	52.2%	31.9%	13.3%
-Other	8.7%	10.1%	20.0%
Are you tenured?			
Yes	75%	87%	86.7%
No	25%	13%	13.3%
Yes, Number of years tenured	13.80	11.51	11.73
Number of years in current position	7.39	9.81	9.73
Total number of years served as Department Chair	7.64	7.54	4.73

TABLE 2

Mean scores on a scale of 0 to 10		
	Chairs of Doctoral Institutions	Chairs of Master's Institutions	Chairs of Bachelor's Institutions
Overall level of job responsibility. 0= very dissatisfied 10= very satisfied	7.70	7.66	6.00
Level of scholarly Activity	4.00	3.09	4.20

0= significantly declined; 10= significantly improved

Comparison of teaching hours with those of regular faculty.	3.67	4.26	7.73

0= significantly less; 10= significantly more

Overall level of salary.	7.22	6.25	5.46

0= very dissatisfied; 10= very satisfied.