

SMART ONLINE JOURNAL

SPORT MANAGEMENT AND RELATED TOPICS

EDITOR'S CORNER: GET OFF OF THE BLEACHERS AND DO THE SMART THING

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Recently, while reading John Grisham's best-selling work *Bleachers*, I was truly impressed with the imagery presented by the famed author regarding life in "small town America" and the ever-present importance of Friday night football in such towns.

In *Bleachers*, Grisham details the lives and times of hometown football heroes—well after their "glory days." Taking place in town setting akin to towns and small cities throughout the country, where watching the local team is the only thing happening on game nights, the fictional Messina serves as home to a number of characters who exemplify aspects of common stereotypes which are recognized and displayed commonly in contemporary sport.

This book is a reflection of the good and bad that exist in small town sport. Memories and discussion of such issues are addressed as the "bleachers" serve as a gathering place for a vivid trip down memory lane. For the men setting in the stands at their old stadium, life had brought them back to their old stomping grounds in the stands at their old stadium to reunite, reminisce, and reflect about the legendary high school football coach, Eddie Rake, who is rapidly nearing death.

In a town where Coach Rake represented football—Eddie Rake represented so much more than just the game. The fictional Rake is a symbol of the sports figure that has surmised local legend status through outstanding success in the win loss column. The coach left a strong impression on his players. His approval was sought after and his teachings and the example he set left strong impressions on the former standout Neeley Crenshaw and the other players who were the "pride of Messina."

Various literary images are presented throughout the work depicting a variety of contemporary issues impacting sport. A sampling of the social issues addressed include: goal actualization and success in sport, interpersonal issues revolved around sport involvement (such as socialization aspects and camaraderie), questionable coaching tactics, harsh training measures, player abuse by the coach, the excitement of sport, overachievement and unmet potential, and even the premature death of one of the players on the practice field. There are many issues that are addressed in this book that make this fictional work applicable to class discussions or organizational meetings.

As editor, I want to extend an invitation to prospective authors to send in reviews and commentaries pertaining to relevant books and films exploring issues of sport and related topics. To share information with our readers, we wish to provide an outlet for the sharing of insight on such works, including socio-cultural ramifications and other means of academic interest pertaining to sport management and related topics. The second issue of SMART includes review for the book: *Fit to Lead*. *Fit to Lead* takes the unique approach to addressing the value of personal fitness to organizational leadership. I look forward to receiving your reviews and insights.

Dr. Jason W. Lee, SMART Editor

Book cited: Grisham, J. (2003). *Bleachers*. New York: Bantam Dell Publishing.

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Reference Citation: All references are to be cited within the text and at the conclusion of the text on a reference page in accordance with APA 5th edition guidelines.

Length: Articles should be clear and to the point. There are no word limitations or maximum word requirements.

Audience: Articles should be written with sport management (and peripheral areas of study) students, academicians, and practitioners in mind.

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Send submissions as e-mail attachments in MS Word to jwlee@troyst.edu

THE INFLUENCE OF SPORT MANAGEMENT PROGRAM CHARACTERISTICS ON ACADEMICIAN PERCEPTIONS OF NASPE-NASSM APPROVAL

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KEY WORDS: SPORT MANAGEMENT, CURRICULUM, NASPE-NASSM APPROVAL

INTRODUCTION

The sport management academic discipline has grown tremendously over the last 40 years (Weese, 2002). Since the implementation of the first sport management program at Ohio University in 1966 (Masteralexis, Barr, & Hums, 1998; Parkhouse, 1996) there have been over 200 new programs created (Chelladurai, 2001). Currently the North American Society for Sport Management website lists 233 sport management programs in the United States, and an additional 40 international programs (North American Society for Sport Management, 2003). This growth represents an average of six new academic programs in sport management a year. Parkhouse and Pitts (2004) claimed that sport management has been “one of the fastest growing areas on college campuses” (p. 3).

It is possible that the rapid growth of the academic field has contributed to the variation in ideas regarding curricular matters in sport management (Brassie, 1989). Despite the growth, there has been debate on what should be included in sport management curriculum. The appropriateness of curricular content in sport management has been documented by various studies and other sport management related articles (Brassie, 1989; Cuneen, 1992; Cuneen & Sidwell, 1998; Kelley, Beitel, DeSensi, & Blanton, 1994; Kissel, 1997; Parkhouse, 1987; Parks and Quain, 1986; Schneider & Steer, 2000; Steer, 1987; Steer & Schneider, 2000; Ulrich & Parkhouse, 1982). It was discovered in early studies that many sport management programs were not appropriate as these programs emphasized physical education coursework and had only sport management titles (Pitts, 2001).

In response to academic quality concerns, the National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE) initiated a move to establish curricular guidelines for sport management academic programs in 1986 (Sport Management Program Review Council, 2000). The original guidelines were distributed to institutions offering sport management academic programs (Brassie, 1989). These guidelines were discussed at meetings, changes were made, and the revised guidelines were subsequently published in 1987 (Sport Management Program Review Council, 2000). NASPE and the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) came to the conclusion that sport management students needed a minimum core body of knowledge for not only admission into the industry, but also success in the industry. In addition, these organizations realized a need to develop some form of an approval process for sport management programs seeking direction in curriculum matters (Sport Management Program Review Council, 2000). NASPE and NASSM members formed a joint task force for the purposes of identifying core content areas and establishing a review process for approving sport management programs that met all the recommended guidelines. This committee presented its ideas for the curricular standards and the approval process at several NASPE and NASSM meetings over the next few years (Sport Management Program Review Council, 2000). NASPE approved these standards in 1992 (Parkhouse, & Pitts, 2004). Since the original standards were accepted numerous revisions have been made. The current standards were last revised in 1999 (Sport Management Program Review Council, 2000).

In spite of the NASPE-NASSM curricular standards and approval process, many sport management programs still are not seeking approval. The NASSM website currently lists only 58 programs in the United States as being approved (North American Society for Sport Management, 2003). This number represents less than 25% of all sport management programs listed on the NASSM website. The question is “why aren’t more sport management programs seeking approval?”

A number of program characteristics were identified as possible causes for sport management programs to not seek approval. These characteristics were identified through the review of literature and through a brief qualitative study. The characteristics identified through these processes were the academic program title, the college that houses the academic program, the status of NASPE-NASSM program approval (approved, going through approval, never applied for approval), and the existence of a graduate program in sport management at the institution. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the differences in perception of undergraduate sport management

academicians toward the concept of NASPE-NASSM approval based upon these characteristics of the academic programs.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A number of the studies that have been conducted on sport management curricular issues have focused upon perceptions of academicians and practitioners toward the NASPE-NASSM curriculum standards. Lyons (1997) examined perceptions of Master's sport management program coordinators toward the NASPE-NASSM standards. This study specifically examined attitudes toward each of the curricular content areas recommended by NASPE-NASSM. The study revealed that program coordinators of Master's level sport management programs were in favor of the NASPE-NASSM curricular standards overall. There were also no significant differences in attitude toward the curricular standards found between NASPE-NASSM approved programs, programs going through the approval process, and programs that were not approved.

Kissel (1997) performed a similar analysis on sport management practitioners. Specifically, Kissel examined minor league baseball general managers. These practitioners were asked to identify courses that were important to a position as a general manager. In this study, all of the NASPE-NASSM curricular content areas were identified as important to a position as a general manager.

Lizandra (1993) conducted a study examining perceptions toward the course content areas of NASPE-NASSM on both sport management academicians and practitioners. Lizandra demonstrated support that academicians and practitioners were in agreement on most of the NASPE-NASSM curricular content areas. The two exceptions were the curricular content areas of *Finance in Sport* and *Ethics in Sport*. Practitioners believed that these two course content areas were more important than did academicians. Another significant finding in Lizandra (1993) was that both undergraduate and graduate academicians were found to favor a more limited number of courses as essential than did practitioners. The study also found significant differences among different types of practitioners. Subgroups of practitioners were created by grouping athletic directors, general managers, executive directors, and stadium/arena managers. Lizandra summarized that these differences may indicate the need for flexibility in sport management course content. This finding is consistent with Kreutzer (2000), who claimed that job tasks in sport management are far too diverse for a single curricular model.

Steer and Schneider (2000) conducted a similar study examining the undergraduate NASPE-NASSM curricular content areas. Specifically, this study analyzed the level of acceptance with the NASPE-NASSM curricular standards. Sport management undergraduate academicians were compared to practitioners in the sport industry. The results of this study concluded that academicians and practitioners were in agreement on 9 of the 11 content areas that were examined. Practitioners disagreed significantly more than academicians on the suitability of *Socio-Cultural Dimensions of Sport* and *Economics of Sport*. Practitioners were not as accepting of these two content areas as were academicians. This study was repeated by Schneider and Steer (2000) at the graduate level. Academicians' attitudes were again compared to sport industry practitioners' attitudes. However, in this study the graduate curricular standards were used. There were no significant differences reported between academicians and practitioners in three of the content areas. Two of the curricular content areas (*Communication in Sport* and *Field Experiences*) were viewed as more acceptable to practitioners than academicians. Five other curricular content areas (*Socio-Cultural Dimensions in Sport*, *Management and Leadership in Sport*, *Marketing in Sport*, *Legal Aspects of Sport*, and *Research in Sport*) were viewed as more acceptable to academicians than to practitioners. Neither of these studies demonstrated that practitioners expressed outright disagreement with the standards. However, there were significant differences on the level of suitability for sport management curriculum on some of the curricular standards in each study.

There are fewer studies that have directly addressed the concept of NASPE-NASSM approval. Fielding, Pitts, and Miller (1991) performed a study that examined the idea of accreditation. This study examined the opinions of undergraduate sport management academicians toward the ideas of accreditation and program quality in sport management. The current NASPE-NASSM standards are not an accreditation process. The NASPE-NASSM Sport Management Program Review Council does not accredit programs, but rather approve programs. However, this study is one of the closest to directly examining approval in sport management. Results indicated that 32% of the respondents were in favor of accreditation, 25% of the respondents were noncommittal, and 43% were opposed to accreditation. Academicians who were opposed to accreditation cited concerns of "loss of flexibility," "elitism,"

“implementation costs,” and “program costs.” Another finding of this study was that there was little agreement on which party should be responsible for accrediting sport management programs. A total of 37% of the respondents believed that NASPE and NASSM should have joint responsibility for accreditation of sport management programs. Another 23% of the respondents believed that NASSM should be solely responsible for accreditation. A total of 40% of the respondents felt that neither NASSM or NASPE should be involved in the accreditation process.

DeSensei, Kelley, Blanton, and Beitel (1990) looked at graduate expectations, employer evaluations of sport management academic programs, and faculty evaluations of sport management programs. Employer evaluations showed support for including a broad range of content areas in accreditation to better prepare students for the job expectations of the industry. This finding is consistent with the large variation in careers that have been identified in the sport industry (Parks & Quarterman, 2001). Employers differed significantly in their expectations of graduates. These differences led to the conclusion that a single sport management curriculum may not adequately prepare a student for certain positions in the industry. Another related finding from DeSensei, et al. (1990) was the conclusion that programs should be evaluated continually for professional preparation.

Li, Cobb, and Sawyer (1994) examined characteristics for program effectiveness at the graduate level. Graduate program coordinators and department chairpersons in sport management were the groups surveyed. One finding was that respondents believed appropriateness of curriculum design was important for program effectiveness. Ninety-six percent of the respondents agreed with this observation. However, only 68% of these same respondents believed that meeting the NASPE-NASSM curricular standards was a characteristic of program effectiveness. This result was in contrast to Tungjaroenchai (2000), which demonstrated support for the NASPE-NASSM standards. Tungjaroenchai performed an analysis to determine a “best” model for sport management graduate programs. Eleven sport management programs were analyzed. Tungjaroenchai concluded that a sport management program that included all of the curricular content areas recommended by NASPE-NASSM was a “good” model.

One issue consistent in the literature is the question of where the sport management program should be located. This issue was most recently addressed by Case (2003). Case expresses concern that sport management students from programs that are housed in colleges of business, physical education, or recreation may not receive the most appropriate coursework, if that coursework is not specific enough to sport management. Case suggests a model used by a few notable sport management programs that allows sport management to stand alone as its own college or school. According to Fielding, Pitts, and Miller (1991) “where a program is housed determines the degree of control that program organizers have over what is offered and how course offerings are actually taught” (p. 8). Ross, Jamieson, and Young (1997) found that over 48% of the sport management programs in that study were housed in departments of physical education or kinesiology. Obviously, there are still many sport management programs housed in physical education and/or related fields. Another related issue that still appears in much of literature is the name of the program. The terms *sport management* and *sport administration* have often been used interchangeably (Chelladurai, 1985). The difference between the two terms is cited in several previous publications (Chelladurai, 1985; Parkhouse & Pitts, 2004; Parks & Zanger, 1990; Parks, & Quarterman, 2003; VanderZwaag, 1998). NASSM has selected the term sport management (Parkhouse & Pitts, 2004), although some programs still have a different title. These program characteristics could possibly have an impact on the academicians’ perceptions of sport management curriculum, and consequently NASPE-NASSM approval.

METHODOLOGY

SUBJECTS

The term *academician* was used to describe any full-time faculty member in undergraduate sport management education. All 168 identifiable undergraduate sport management programs were included in the study. These programs were identified using the NASSM website (North American Society for Sport Management, 2003), the *Directory of Academic Programs in Sport Management* (Alsop & Fuller, 2001), the *Sports Address Bible and Almanac* (Kobak, Jr., 2001), *Sports Marketplace* (Myers, 1999), *SportsBusiness Journal's* “A Directory of Sports-Related Degree Programs” (2001), and the researcher’s communication with colleagues. These resources assured the most comprehensive list available of undergraduate sport management programs. The program coordinators/directors at each institution were contacted for this study. This population was further defined by choosing only academicians from 4-year sport management programs. Certificate, Diploma, and Associate degree programs were not included in the study.

Undergraduate sport management programs were selected for two reasons. First, there is limited research on undergraduate sport management programs. Many of the curricular studies in sport management have been performed at the graduate level and on sport management practitioners. The studies that have addressed undergraduate sport management curriculum have included the aforementioned populations (practitioners and graduate academicians) in the analysis. Undergraduate and graduate sport management program academicians may have different opinions of curricular issues. This assumption is made due to the differences in graduate and undergraduate education as a whole. The second reason for choosing undergraduate academicians was that undergraduate programs make-up the largest body of sport management programs. Greater than half of the sport management programs listed on the NASSM website are undergraduate programs (North American Society for Sport Management, 2003).

SAMPLING PLAN

All undergraduate level programs were selected to gain the widest possible variety of responses. There were 168 available academic programs in the United States meeting the criteria for this study. No comprehensive list of full-time academicians in sport management is available. Furthermore, there is not a sufficient source to determine which academicians are full-time, other than using the program coordinator position as a target. Program coordinators are frequently full-time positions in departments which house sport management programs. It was assumed that the program coordinator has a large investment in curricular matters of the program. Each program coordinator was mailed a questionnaire and instructions for completing the instrument. A duplicate questionnaire was included in each mailing. The instructions within the mailing asked that the program coordinator forward the additional questionnaire to a second full-time faculty member in the sport management. The second questionnaire was identical to the first. Sending the second questionnaire in each mailing garnered a greater number of responses. A follow-up mailing using the same procedure was sent three weeks after the initial mailing to programs that had not responded to the first mailing.

INSTRUMENT

The instrument was developed from ideas and concepts in the review of the literature, a short qualitative study, and through piloting the survey instrument. Three sport management academicians that had experience developing and implementing sport management curriculum were chosen as subjects for the qualitative study. These academicians were interviewed in structured interview format, whereby the interviewees were each asked the same predetermined questions in the same order. Additional follow-up questions to the initial responses were also used. These questions pertained to NASPE-NASSM approval and sought to identify factors that influenced the curriculum in their particular academic programs. These interviews and the literature review were used to create the initial research instrument.

The research instrument was a questionnaire intended for sport management academicians. The original questionnaire was submitted to several sport management academicians familiar with NASPE-NASSM approval for review and revision. This panel of experts helped to establish the content validity of the instrument. The instrument included questions regarding the respondents' respective academic programs and questions to address academicians' perceptions on the concept of NASPE-NASSM approval. A number of revisions were made to the initial instrument. These revisions were made at the suggestion of the experts.

The perceptions of these academicians were measured using a 5-item scale. Each of the 5 items in the scale was a statement that was to be given a rating. These statements addressed perceptions of NASPE-NASSM approval on the areas of necessity, importance, whether approval was reflective of the competencies needed in the sport industry, quality, and to the degree of NASPE-NASSM approval being a positive movement for sport management. Respondents were asked to rate each statement using a 5 point Likert scale. The Likert scale had possible scores of 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *neutral*, 4 = *agree*, and 5 = *strongly agree*. The five items in the scale were summed for an overall score. This overall score was then used as the dependent variable.

The issue of testing the reliability for this scale was handled through conducting the pilot study on graduate level full-time sport management academicians. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient measured $\alpha = .90$ ($n = 20$). Additional confirmation of this scale was achieved at the conclusion of the full study with Cronbach's Alpha measuring .88 on the same items.

DATA ANALYSIS

The data were collected using the identified survey instrument and following the sampling plan. Analyzing the data was accomplished using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, 2002). Descriptive statistics were run on all the data collected. Testing the dependent variables of interest required the usage of ANOVA and independent samples *t* tests. The .05 significance level was adopted for the analysis. This level of significance is widely accepted in the behavioral and social sciences, and is used frequently in the academic discipline of sport management.

RESULTS

A total of 168 sport management programs were included in the study. One of these institutions reported having only a graduate level program. A second institution reported having a program that was only similar to sport management. Two other institutions reported not having an academicians in place to complete the instrument. This reduced the number of available programs to 164. Each program received two instruments ($n = 328$). However, two academicians reported not having a second faculty member in place to complete the instrument. This reduced the total number of possible responses to 326.

One hundred and seventy of the instruments were returned (52%) overall. One of the first questions asked academicians whether they were familiar with the NASPE-NASSM approval process. Academicians that were not familiar with the approval process were only included in the demographic portion of the study.

This screening reduced the total number usable instruments for testing the variables to 134 (41%). However, it was difficult to determine the exact rate of response. This difficulty was due to not knowing how many of the identified programs only had one available faculty member to complete the questionnaire. It was not clear as to whether all of these programs had at least two academicians in sport management. Therefore, it is probable to assume that the true response rate was actually higher.

The demographics section of the analysis included all sport management academicians, and not just the respondents familiar with NASPE-NASSM approval. One hundred and twenty-three respondents (73%) were male. The remaining 46 respondents (27%) were female (one academician failed to respond). There was a wide range of responses for demographic of age. The lowest age reported was 25 years, while the highest age reported was 73. The mean age of the respondents was 45 years. The median age was also 45 years. One hundred and forty-nine of the respondents were Caucasian, eight respondents were African-American, and seven of the respondents categorized themselves as "other." There was one respondent who was Hispanic-American and an additional five respondents that did not answer the question. One hundred and forty-five of the respondents had a Doctoral degree, while the remaining 24 respondents had Master's degrees (one academician failed to respond).

The scale that was used to test academicians' perceptions of NASPE-NASSM approval contained five statements. Each of the statements addressed a different aspect of NASPE-NASSM approval. None of the means on the individual statements was above 4.00. The combined mean for all five statements was 3.52, which falls between "Neutral" and "Agree" on the Likert scale. Therefore, academicians only somewhat agreed on each of the statements and on all the statements as a whole. The highest level of agreement with these statements dealt with whether the curricular standards of NASPE-NASSM approval were reflective of preparing a student for the sport industry. The mean result of agreement for this statement was 3.81. Academicians perceived that NASPE-NASSM approval standards are reflective of the competencies needed for preparing students to work in the sport industry. Academicians perceived that NASPE-NASSM approval is positive for sport management. A mean of 3.79 was calculated on this statement. This was the second highest level of agreement for the five statements. The mean for the statement on NASPE-NASSM approval standards being necessary had a lower level of agreement, with a mean score of 3.55. The mean for the statement regarding academicians' perceptions of NASPE-NASSM approval being important was 3.36. The lowest mean on any of the statements was whether academicians perceived a NASPE-NASSM approved program as being a quality program. This mean was calculated at 3.10.

Academicians' perceptions of the concept of NASPE-NASSM approval did not differ significantly based upon the title of the academicians' programs. An independent samples *t* test was used to analyze the difference between programs that were titled "sport management" and programs with other titles. The results of the *t* test were not statistically significant.

The next characteristic measured if differences in perception existed between academicians from programs housed in different academic colleges. Colleges of business, education, physical education, a combination category, and the "other" category were used as possible answers in the analysis. The rest of the college titles had to be excluded because of an insufficient number of responses in those categories. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used as the testing procedure. ANOVA revealed that no significant differences in perception of approval existed between academicians based on which college houses their respective sport management programs.

Results for measuring perceptions of the approval process based on approval status of the academician's program revealed a significant finding. Since NASPE-NASSM approval can take several months to complete, it was not sufficient to only have only two category options for program approval ("not approved" and "approved"). A third category of program approval was possible for programs that were currently going through the approval process. There was also the possibility that some programs had never sought approval. Programs that have not ever applied for approval may have substantially different perceptions of approval than programs that were "not approved." Therefore, a fourth category of program approval was possible for programs that "never applied for approval." Programs that may have been denied approval or were no longer approved would still select the "not approved" option on the survey. However, there were not a sufficient number of responses in the "not approved" category to include in the final analysis. In response to these facts, only three levels of program approval status were possible in this portion of the analysis.

There was a significant difference found in perceptions based on the level of approval of the sport management programs. ANOVA procedures revealed statistics of $F(2,124) = 4.179$, $p = .018$. *Tukey HSD* revealed that academicians from programs that had never been approved had significantly different perceptions of the NASPE-NASSM approval process than did programs that were fully approved. Academicians from programs that have never applied for NASPE-NASSM approval scored significantly lower on their level of agreement with the concept of NASPE-NASSM approval. Academicians from programs that have already achieved full NASPE-NASSM approval are in stronger agreement with approval. There were no significant differences in perceptions of the academicians from programs going through the approval process with academicians from the other two groups (fully approved programs and programs that had never sought approval).

Differences in perception were measured by whether a graduate program in sport management was offered at the academicians' institutions. An independent samples *t* test was used for this analysis. Results from the *t* test revealed that perceptions among academicians were not significantly different based on whether or not a graduate program in sport management was offered.

In addition to asking which college housed the academicians' sport management program, academicians were asked which college should house a sport management program. Forty-eight (35.8%) of the respondents selected the college of business, while another 26 (19.4%) respondents chose colleges of sport science. Twenty-seven (20.1%) respondents selected "other" as their choice of college. A variety of written responses appeared in the "other" category. The two most common written responses in the "other" category were that sport management programs could be housed in any college and also that sport management programs should be housed in multiple colleges. Nineteen (14.2%) respondents selected colleges of physical education. Colleges of exercise science/kinesiology and colleges of education received seven (5.2%) and five (3.7%) responses respectively. Another two (1.5%) respondents left this question blank.

Academicians from programs that were not approved were asked why their programs were not approved. Twenty-four (24%) respondents selected "other" as their reason for not having an approved program. The most common written answer given in the "other" category was not having enough faculty. Sixteen (16%) academicians felt that NASPE-NASSM approval did not benefit their programs. Another thirteen (13%) academicians cited cost restrictions as the reason their programs were not approved. Six academicians (6%) claimed that curricular changes were difficult to achieve at their institutions. Disagreement with the standards (2 responses), failing the approval process (2 responses), and disagreement with the approval process (1 response) were the least cited reasons for not being an approved program. A total of twelve (12%) of the respondents had multiple reasons for their sport management programs not being approved. Sixteen (16%) respondents opted to leave this question blank.

DISCUSSION

This study was intended to determine academicians' perceptions of the concept of NASPE-NASSM approval based upon the characteristics of the sport management programs. Overall, academicians agreed with the concept of NASPE-NASSM approval. However, none of the levels of agreement on each of the statements making up the scale were above a 4.00. These findings demonstrate that although agreement with NASPE-NASSM approval exists, that agreement level is marginal.

There was little difference in perception among sport management academicians based on the title of academicians' programs. Although there were no previous studies that directly examined these criteria, the lack of differences in perception are consistent with what was stated in Chelladurai (1985), claiming very little distinction between programs with different titles. There were also no significant differences in perception between academicians based on where their academic program was housed. Pitts (2001) and later Case (2003) expressed a concern of the college housing the program having an influence on curricular decisions. This study demonstrated support that the college housing the program does not influence academicians' perceptions of NASPE-NASSM approval. This result does not rule out the possibility that the college housing the sport management program may affect curriculum. However, since curricular decisions are at times based on academicians' perceptions, the current study does not support that the housing college influences those perceptions. Academicians were also asked what college should house a sport management program. Academicians heavily favored a college of business. This rate of response is consistent with findings in earlier studies and related articles that demonstrated the need for a strong business orientation in sport management (Cuneen, 1992; Hardy, 1987; Kreutzer, 1991; Sawyer, 1993; Whiddon, 1990). Based upon these perceptions, institutions implementing new sport management programs should do so in colleges of business.

There were no significant differences in perceptions found based on whether a graduate program in sport management was offered. This characteristic was investigated upon suggestions given through the qualitative pilot study used to formulate the questionnaire and through the differences found between graduate and undergraduate academicians in Schneider and Steer (2000) and Steer and Schneider (2000). Each of these studies found differences between academician and practitioner perceptions of the NASPE-NASSM curricular standards. Therefore, it was assumed that academicians from institutions that housed both undergraduate and graduate sport management programs may have different perceptions of approval than academicians from institutions with only an undergraduate program. However, the current study did not support that assumption.

Perceptions of the approval process were significantly different based on the status of NASPE-NASSM approval of the academicians' programs. This finding was inconsistent with an earlier related finding in Lyons (1997). Lyons found that graduate academicians' perceptions of the curricular standards of NASPE-NASSM were not significantly different based on the status of program approval. In the current study, academicians from programs that had never applied for NASPE-NASSM approval had a significantly lower level of agreement with the approval process than did academicians from programs that had received full approval. Although, there was a follow-up question as to why these academicians' programs were not approved, the most common response given was provided in a write-in option. Not having enough faculty members was the most frequent write-in answer to this question. Only one academician disagreed with the approval process.

On the surface it appears that academicians may be content with approval, but sixteen academicians did not feel NASPE-NASSM approval benefits their respective programs and another twelve academicians had multiple reasons for not applying for approval. It is clear from the current study that academicians' perceptions of NASPE-NASSM approval are based primarily on whether their program has chosen to become an approved sport management program. Supporters of NASPE-NASSM approval should attempt to educate the sport management profession as to the benefits being an approved sport management program. Statistically-driven data is needed to demonstrate any such benefits that exist. There should also be statistics presented for how the NASPE-NASSM standards for approval were formulated.

Previous studies (DeSensei, Kelley, Blanton, & Beitel, 1990; Kissel, 1997; Lizandra, 1993; Schneider & Steer 2000; Steer & Schneider, 2000) have examined practitioner perceptions of the NASPE-NASSM curricular standards. Since most of the standards were fully supported in these studies, supporters of approval should use these studies as an additional means of educating those academicians that do not support NASPE-NASSM approval. Any data to

support the basis for creation of the approval process would be helpful in this regard. This data may convince academicians who have not sought approval for their programs to perceive NASPE-NASSM approval in a more positive manner. Future study is needed on this topic and specifically on why more programs have never applied for approval.

The fact that 36 (21%) of the respondents were unfamiliar with the approval process was an interesting finding. NASPE-NASSM approval is the only form of curricular model available to the sport management academic discipline. Therefore, it was presumed that most, if not all of the sport management academicians would be aware of the process. However, this finding demonstrates support that total awareness is not the case. Supporters of NASPE-NASSM approval should attempt to make these parties aware. Academicians who are currently unaware could reach a conclusion regarding NASPE-NASSM approval if they in fact knew about approval. An effort to reach these academicians could be made through a direct mailing of information regarding approval.

In summary, only one of the four characteristics that were measured could be attributed to academicians' perceptual differences of the concept of NASPE-NASSM approval. Academicians from programs that had never applied for NASPE-NASSM approval had significantly lower levels of agreement with the concept of approval than did academicians from programs that were fully approved. These results identified a key factor for which sport management academicians are less likely to seek approval for their programs. Proponents NASPE-NASSM approval can use this information to guide future decisions of how the benefits of approval can be better communicated to these academicians.

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RELATIONSHIP OF KNOWLEDGE OF STRENGTH TRAINING TO ADOLESCENT PERCEPTIONS OF APPROPRIATENESS AND ATTRACTIVENESS OF FEMALE MUSCULARITY

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KEY WORDS: BODY IMAGE, GENDER, MUSCULARITY, STRENGTH TRAINING

According to the Theory of Reasoned Action people act according to intentions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). An individual's perception of an activity influences intention to act, and can predict if a person will choose to engage in that activity. Although strength is identified as one of the five health-related fitness components (Corbin, Lindsey, & Welk, 2000), females often avoid the activity of strength training because of the assumed outcome: a large increase in muscle mass (Chepyator-Thomson & Ennis, 1997). It is clear that weight lifting is considered a male-appropriate activity (Csizma, Wittig, & Schurr, 1988; Koivula, 2001). Women are much less likely to identify strength training as an activity that would be self-descriptive (Harrison, Lee, & Belcher, 1999). Despite some negative attitudes, girls that have participated in strength training have not only improved physical strength, but have also shown significant increases in confidence about their bodies, self-efficacy in weight training, and overall self-esteem (Holloway, Beuter, & Duda, 1988).

Despite the overwhelming list of positive physical and psychological benefits that strength training can provide, there is cultural resistance to the concept of females developing strength or muscularity (Nelson, 1994; Shulze, 1990). Women who choose to develop muscularity must negotiate between their desires and mainstream culture's expectations for feminine attractiveness (Choi, 2003; Grogan, Evans, Wright, & Hunter, 2004). The following studies represent the wide range of research conducted to determine benefits strength development might have on physical and psychological health. Research indicates that strength and resistance training can have a positive effect on blood pressure (Fisher, 2001), help increase bone density to prevent osteoporosis (Heinrich, et al., 1990; Nelson, et al. 1994), help prevent injuries by strengthening tendons and ligaments around joints (Dinsmoor, 1994), and improve overall quality of life by preventing falls, and reducing the number of years an elderly individual may be considered frail (Jozsi, Campbell, Joseph, Davey, & Evans, 1999). It has also been shown beneficial in managing Type Two diabetes by helping to regulate blood glucose levels (Ishii, Yamakita, Sato, Tanaka, & Fujii, 1998). Physical activity and athletics have shown a multitude of positive psychological effects including higher global self-esteem (Brown & Harrison, 1986; Holloway et al., 1988), more positive attitude about body image (Miller & Levy, 1996; Snyder & Kivlin, 1975), increased feelings of satisfaction and achievement (Tucker, 1982a), a more positive self-concept (Marsh & Jackson, 1986), and more positive athletic self-concept (Miller & Levy, 1996).

Messages regarding strength and muscularity are confusing to both women and men within general society. Jacobi and Cash (1994) found that there was a desire for more muscularity by both males and females. In that study, 91% of male college students reported a desire for more muscularity, while 78% of females said they wanted to be more muscular. Confusion about cultural expectations for muscularity clearly affects both males and females. Adolescent girls struggle with media images of the ideally thin female, perceived attitudes toward female athletes, and fears of being rejected by their male peers because they may be too strong, muscular, or athletic (Botta, 1999; Duff, Hong, & Royce, 1999; Reimer & Feltz, 1995).

Culturally determined expectations for the way a woman should look have not included muscularity. It is unclear whether ideal feminine characteristics were simply preference or an attempt to encourage differentiation between the sexes. It was long believed that women could not develop muscle mass without taking anabolic steroids; therefore a woman who did develop muscularity must have gone against biology and nature (Ebben & Jensen, 1998). Muscular women threaten the status quo and blur the line that differentiates the sexes. As Shulze (1990) states, women who deliberately choose to increase muscularity disturb the dominant societal notions of gender and sexuality. Not surprisingly, female bodybuilders and muscular women are often considered a threat to male dominance in social power (Choi, 2003; Shulze, 1990).

In order to accurately determine why females avoid strength training, perceptions of muscularity must be analyzed. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine how gender, knowledge of physiological muscularity, and

physical self-concept are related to adolescents' perceptions of female muscularity. To measure adolescents' perceptions of muscularity in women, participants were shown three different pictures. Each picture portrayed a woman with a different level of muscle mass and definition: slender with no muscularity, average muscularity, and extreme muscularity. Adolescent participants were asked to evaluate personal characteristics, attractiveness and appropriateness of each female pictured. The guiding research questions were: a) *Does the perception of muscularity in women differ by gender?*; b) *Does an adolescent's knowledge of strength and muscularity affect perception of muscularity in women?*; and c) *What sub-parts of an adolescent's physical self-concept influence perceptions of muscularity in women?*

It was hypothesized that adolescent females would evaluate the no muscularity female more positively than either the average muscularity or extreme muscularity picture on all three dependent variables: personal characteristics, attractiveness, and appropriateness. Adolescent males were expected to evaluate the average muscularity female more positively than the no muscularity female or extremely muscular female, based on the results of Jacobi & Cash (1994). Finally, knowledge scores and self-concept subscale scores were hypothesized to be positive significant predictors of perceptions of the extremely muscular female for both males and females.

PARTICIPANTS

Participants were 89 eighth grade males and females enrolled in co-educational physical education classes in two junior high schools in Northwest Arkansas. The 43 males and 46 females were predominantly white (80%), with a mean age of 14.4 years. Permission was obtained from the cooperating school district and individual teachers. Informed consent was obtained from parents, and assent was attained from individual students.

INSTRUMENTS

Knowledge of strength training. Knowledge of strength training was measured by a 15 item true or false test. Questions related to physiological principles of strength development and the relationship of strength to health and disease prevention. Questions were based on 8th grade science, health and physical education according to the Arkansas Department of Education Curriculum Frameworks. Examples of true or false questions are as follows: a) *Females who increase muscular strength will become more masculine in looks and behavior*; b) *Males have more specifically identified and named muscle groups than females*; c) *People who develop muscular strength are less likely to get injured when playing sports or other activities*; d) *Strength training is helpful in preventing some diseases*; and e) *Muscular strength and muscular endurance are the same thing*.

Physical self-concept. The Physical Self-Perception Profile (Fox & Corbin, 1989) was used to measure physical self-concept of participants in the study. The PSPP has five subscales that measure separate areas of physical self-concept: sports competence (Sport), perceived body attractiveness (Body), perceived physical strength and muscular development (Strength), perceived level of physical condition (Condition), and physical self-worth (Global). Because the three subscales used for this study were treated as separate predictor variables, body, strength, and global, separate coefficient alphas for subscales ranged from .81 to .92 for both males and females.

Pictures of female muscularity. Three different pictures of female muscularity were presented: (1) slender with no noticeable muscle definition, (2) average build with some noticeable muscle definition, and (3) extreme muscle definition, representative of a body-builder. After several unsuccessful attempts to have appropriate pictures drawn by local artists, it was decided to obtain pictures from a variety of popular fitness and health magazines. Each of the three pictures showed a woman in aerobic shorts and sports bra type top. Faces were shown on all three; women were not shown with exercise equipment. The average and extremely muscular women were in very similar poses. The no muscularity woman was slightly further away and, although facing forward like the other two pictures, has arms up rather than down to the sides. Although there were some variations in the pictures, which might have affected participants perceptions, the salient feature of each picture was clearly the difference in muscularity.

DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Evaluation of personal characteristics. Participants were asked to evaluate personal characteristics of each female pictured through the use of semantic differential technique (Osgood, Suci, & Tannebaum, 1969). Polar opposite adjective pairs were intended to elicit an evaluative perception of personal characteristics of the woman pictured. Only pairs shown to have high loadings on an evaluative construct were chosen. All adjective pairs identified as evaluative loaded on that construct at or above .66. Adjective pairs used for the evaluative scale were healthy-sick,

pleasant-unpleasant, kind-cruel, happy-sad, beautiful-ugly, and brave-cowardly. Adjective pairs were placed at opposite ends with seven spaces between them. Participants place an "X" in the space closest to the adjective they felt most accurately described the picture (see Appendix A).

Attractiveness of body image. One question was designed to determine attractiveness of the female pictured. For females, the question was phrased, "I would be satisfied with my body if I looked like this woman." The question for males was, "I would find it attractive if my female friends had a body like this woman." In order to force a selection, the researcher allowed only four response choices on a 4-point Likert type scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree."

Appropriateness of body image. A second scale designed to rate the appropriateness of each body type for females asked participants to respond to the statement, "I believe a woman with this body type is . . ." Participants rated the appropriateness of each body type on a 7-point Likert type scale. Choices ranged from "totally appropriate," to "totally inappropriate." The seven-point scale was chosen to correspond with the seven possible positions on the semantic differential scale.

PROCEDURE

Questionnaires were administered during the regular physical education period. Testing situations were not the same for all classes. Most classes completed the questionnaires sitting around the gym floor. One class had access to a classroom with desks. The researcher distributed, explained, monitored the testing situation, and answered any questions posed by the participants. Public school teachers remained in the testing area to prevent students from talking.

Simple demographics of age, gender, and ethnicity were obtained. Demographics and the knowledge test were self-explanatory. The researcher explained the significance of the seven point adjective scale used to evaluate each picture. A demonstration and an example was provided so that participants understood they were to place the "X" in the space they felt was the correct distance between the two polar opposite adjectives. Each participant evaluated all three pictures in the same questionnaire. Participants viewed only one picture at a time and all questions regarding that picture were answered before turning the page to the next picture. Pictures were presented in different sequences to check for order effects. Instructions on answering the Physical Self-perception Profile were reviewed to ensure that only one box was checked per question.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Two planned contrasts were used: (1) to determine if female participants' evaluation of personal characteristics of the no muscularity female was more positive than evaluations of the average and extremely muscular female, and (2) to determine if male participants evaluated personal characteristics of the average muscularity female higher than the no muscularity or the extremely muscular female. Additional analyses run were 2 (gender) x 3 (picture) ANOVAs on appropriateness and attractiveness. Step-wise multiple regression analyses were conducted separately for males and females to determine significant predictors of evaluation of personal characteristics, appropriateness and attractiveness of each body type pictured. Predictor variables were knowledge of muscular strength and three subscales from the PSPP: body perception, strength perception, and global self-worth.

RESULTS

Results of planned contrasts showed that, for female participants, there were significant differences between the no muscularity picture and the extremely muscular picture, on evaluation of personal characteristics, $F(1, 42) = 7.29, p = .01$. There was also a significant difference in female participants evaluation of personal characteristics between the no muscularity and the average muscularity picture, $F(1, 42) = 14.51, p = .001$. By examining the means of each of the three pictures, it was determined that personal characteristics of the average muscular female were evaluated higher (more positively) than either the no muscularity or the extremely muscular picture. In addition, personal characteristics of the extremely muscular female were also rated higher than the no muscularity female. These findings were not in the hypothesized direction, as presented in Table 1.

Contrasts to determine if adolescent males would evaluate personal characteristics of the average muscular female more positively than the no muscularity female and the extremely muscular female also revealed significant differences. Contrasts between the average muscularity picture and the no muscularity picture were significantly

different, $F(1, 45) = 6.42, p = .01$. Examination of the means revealed that males evaluated personal characteristics of the average muscularity picture significantly higher than the no muscularity picture, but not significantly higher than the extremely muscular picture. However, the means were in the hypothesized direction, as shown in Table 2.

REPEATED MEASURES ANOVA

Results of the 2 (gender) x 3 (picture) repeated measures ANOVA analysis on perceptions of appropriateness of the no muscularity, average and muscular image revealed a significant main effect for picture, $F(1.775, 154.46) = 15.68, p < .01$. Tukey post hoc analysis indicated that differences were between the perceived appropriateness of the no muscularity picture compared to the extremely muscular picture (see Table 3). Participants rated the no muscularity picture significantly more appropriate than the extremely muscular picture.

Analysis of the 2 (gender) x 3 (picture) ANOVA with repeated measures analysis for attractiveness showed a significant main effect for picture, $F(1.8, 156.99) = 34.86, p < .01$. Tukey post hoc tests indicated that significant differences existed between the attractiveness score of the no muscularity picture and the average muscularity picture, and between the no muscularity picture and the extremely muscular picture (see Table 4). Both female and male participants rated the no muscularity picture significantly more attractive than either the average muscularity or the extremely muscular.

REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Results of stepwise multiple regression performed separately for males and females, found only one predictor of perception of the extremely muscular female. For males, appropriateness of the extremely muscular picture was partially predicted by knowledge, which accounted for 7% of the variability, $F(2,43) = 9.3, p < .01$, adjusted $R^2 = .07$; beta = .277, $t = 2.2, p = .04$. For females, attractiveness of the extreme muscularity picture was partially predicted by knowledge. Knowledge accounted for 7% to the total variability explained, $F(2, 40) = 11.05, p < .01$, adjusted $R^2 = .068$; beta = .289, $t = 2.26, p = .03$, as shown in Table 5.

DISCUSSION

One of the most interesting outcomes of this study was the seemingly contradictory result between evaluative perceptions of personal characteristics, and perceptions of appropriateness and attractiveness. Both males and females placed the average muscularity female highest on the evaluative judgments of personal characteristics, which included kindness, beauty, pleasantness, happiness, bravery, and health. However, both males and females rated the no muscularity picture as significantly more appropriate than the extremely muscular body type, and significantly more attractive than both the average muscularity and the extremely muscular picture.

It is possible that because the no muscularity picture was considered a more appropriate body type, it was subsequently perceived as more attractive. As other studies have shown, body type does have a significant impact on perceived attractiveness (Portnoy, 1993). Furnham, Dias, and McClelland (1998) also found that slender figures were favored over heavier figures on attractiveness, although heavier figures were consistently judged to be more kind and understanding.

The fact that the no muscularity picture was perceived as more appropriate and more attractive indicates that despite evaluations of personal characteristics, adolescents continue to equate beauty and attractiveness with thinner body type. However, results of the current study showed that both females and males rated the average muscularity picture higher on evaluations of personal characteristics than the no muscularity picture. Support for this finding is evident in Singh's (1994) study that found average weight females were judged as having more desirable personal qualities than the thinner figures. By evaluating the average muscularity picture highest on personal characteristics, adolescents may be equating a female with average muscularity with more positive personal characteristics, including health and happiness, than either the no muscularity or the extremely muscular female. The fact that adolescent participants in the present study differentiated between the value of a female's personal characteristics and the appropriateness and attractiveness of her body type is a positive indication that they do not judge personal characteristics simply based on physical appearance. Similar to other studies, attractiveness does not always correspond to positive perception of personal characteristics (Henss, 1995; Singh, 1994).

It seems logical that most people identify with the average body type, since most people fall somewhere in the middle of the extremes in any situation. However, issues regarding body appropriateness and body attractiveness

are emotional and stressful for both males and females. Perhaps evaluating the average muscularity female higher was an unconscious attempt to validate the self, and devalue the difficult to attain ideal. If average muscularity is perceived as the normal body type among teenagers today, participants in this study may have rated the average muscular body type higher because it reflected characteristics they personally value and desire.

Interestingly, while not statistically significant, both females and males rated personal characteristics of the extremely muscular picture higher than the no muscularity picture. These factors indicate that adolescents may be beginning to equate muscularity with positive feelings of femininity and good health, a very positive sign for our culture. Males in this study did not perceive any difference in personal characteristics of the average muscularity and the extremely muscular female. This result may indicate acceptance of the muscular female body type as normal or desirable. Because males value physical strength and muscularity, it may be reasonable for adolescent males to take an egocentric view and assume that others would desire those same values.

The fact that males evaluated personal characteristics of the average muscularity female higher than the no muscularity female is of interest due to the assumed perception of many young women that males have an overall preference for a thinner female body (Jacobi & Cash, 1994). In this study adolescent males did not perceive the most slender, the no muscularity picture, to have the most positive personal characteristics.

It was hypothesized that knowledge of muscular strength would be a significant predictor of perceptions of the extremely muscular picture for both females and males. Knowledge did not predict the evaluation of personal characteristics of either female or male participants. However, for males, appropriateness of the extremely muscular picture was partially predicted by knowledge. Knowledge was also a predictor of attractiveness of the extremely muscular female for female participants. Although knowledge accounted for a small percentage of the variation, this result did support the assumption that adolescents who had more knowledge of muscular strength would have a better understanding of the benefits of strength training, therefore having a more positive perception of muscularity in women.

The most surprising finding was that physical self-perception did not mediate any of the ratings of the extremely muscular female for either females or males. Because muscular females seem to threaten the status quo in our society, it was presumed that participants with more negative body perceptions would feel more threatened by a muscular female, subsequently rating that picture more negatively. It was also expected that because participants with higher physical self-perceptions would feel less threatened, they would have more positive perceptions of the extremely muscular female.

IMPLICATIONS

These findings should provide some interesting observations for professionals currently in school or community sport settings. Improving knowledge of the value of strength training will improve perceptions of female muscularity. Educating students about the importance of health related strength and muscle mass should help eliminate disparaging verbal remarks about women with muscularity, or any other negative stereotypes about females and strength. Physical educators and sport program administrators can foster a safer, more equitable and encouraging environment for girls interested in developing strength. Professionals in sports media should also be more sensitive to issues regarding female athletes. Coverage of women's sporting activities is often infused with humor or insulting treatment of female athletes in general, often questioning the femininity of any muscular woman (Messner, Duncan & Cooky, 2003). All people, regardless of gender, should have the opportunity to enjoy the empowerment that results from developing a strong, healthy body.

Improving young people's knowledge of the physiological factors related to muscular strength and strength training can positively influence adolescent's perceptions of female muscularity, thereby reducing some of the negative stereotypes that have historically been associated with female strength and muscularity. Although knowledge was a significant predictor of two measures in this study, more information is needed on the relationship of knowledge of muscular strength to perceptions of muscularity. A research design focused solely on implementing a treatment to improve knowledge of muscular strength and strength-training principles might yield an important explanation of how knowledge mediates perceptions of muscularity.

Despite changes in opportunities for women, more role models in the media, and medical findings that support health related strength for women, adolescents are continuing to reproduce societal patterns of acceptance based on attractiveness and appropriateness of muscular females. These patterns of acceptance of female body types continue to be confusing and contradictory. However, this study does seem to be an indication that muscularity does not detract from the value of a female's personal characteristics. Although muscularity may not affect judgments of personal characteristics, extreme muscularity is still considered less appropriate and less attractive. A female may be accepted as having good personal characteristics, but still not perceived to be attractive or have an appropriate body type. Increasing education on the value of health related strength will improve perceptions of the muscular body type in women.

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Table 1

	M	SD
No Muscularity	30.35	5.20
Average Muscularity	33.49	5.43
Extreme Muscularity	32.63	4.17

Table 2

	M	SD
No Muscularity	29.98	5.34
Average Muscularity	32.72	4.82
Extreme Muscularity	31.70	5.89

Table 3

	No Muscularity		Average Muscularity		Extreme Muscularity	
Females	M	5.05	4.74	4.28		
	SD	1.29	1.00	1.30		
	N	43.00	43.00	43.00		
Males	M	5.30	4.78	4.30		
	SD	0.99	1.03	1.40		
	N	46.00	46.00	46.00		
Total	M	5.18	4.76	4.29		
	SD	1.14	1.01	1.34		
	N	89.00	89.00	89.00		

Table 4

	No Muscularity		Average Muscularity		Extreme Muscularity	
Females	M	3.09	2.33	2.07		
	SD	0.75	0.78	0.88		
	N	43.00	43.00	43.00		
Males	M	2.93	2.43	2.26		
	SD	0.77	0.89	0.88		
	N	46.00	46.00	46.00		
Total	M	3.01	2.38	2.17		
	SD	0.76	0.83	0.88		
	N	89.00	89.00	89.00		

Table 5

	df	Adj.R ²	Beta	t	Sig.
Attractiveness					
Female	2,40	.068	.289	2.26	.03
Appropriateness					
Male	2,43	.07	.277	2.20	.04

Appendix A

Example of the Semantic Differential Scale

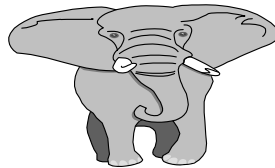
This EXAMPLE was included in the questionnaire as a demonstration of how participants should complete the scale.

Directions: Place an **X** in the space closest to the adjective that most accurately describes the object in the picture.

Example:



Big ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : **X** Small



Big **X** : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Small



Big ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : **X** : ___ : ___ Small

PRAYER AND ATHLETICS: A LEGAL PROFILE

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KEYWORDS: PRAYER, LAW, COURTS, RELIGION

Issues of freedom of religion and separation of church and state have been greeted with differing views about what is acceptable and what is appropriate, as well as what is legal and/or ethical. The use of prayer within school athletics requires ethical considerations on the part of players, coaches, and sport managers. As Merriman (1997) stated, "Sport managers at all levels are constantly faced with decisions, the outcomes of which usually affect many people" (p. 17). When leaders are making decisions, aspects of life including value systems and principles do relate to the ethical decisions of individuals.

This holds true for issues such as team prayer and other forms of religious activity implementation within the context of sport. Religious expressions and freedoms in sport generate issues of legal concern pertaining to constitutional law, as the constitutionality of prayer implementation within school athletic competitions is at the heart of this matter. "Constitutional law refers to laws embodied in the United States Constitution" (Fried, 2000, p. 5).

Administrators have commonly shied away from the issue of prayer as it relates with sport activity. Concerns about the violation of Constitutional rights, issues of team disunity and other areas of concern have caused problems for administrators in the past. Not only have these issues caused idealistic concern, but these issues have also sparked legal concern in which administrators have found themselves to be liable and this can offer a variety of problems and issues (Berry, 2000).

In many ways, the issue of sport's combination with religion, and even more specifically the use of prayer is definitely a risk management issue. For example, denying individuals the right to pray could cause litigation. Likewise, leading a team prayer, game invocation, or other related actions could lead to litigation (Berry, 2000). Misunderstandings, emotional components, and the uncertainty of the future of the courts decisions based on sport and prayer set a foundation for a tremendous amount of uncertainty.

THE SANTA FE CASE

"In the United States, many of the battles to establish the boundaries of religious influence on civil government have been fought on the playing fields and in the classrooms of public education" (Alexander & Alexander, 2000, p. 130). The rights protected by the First Amendment's protections of religion freedom, and more particularly the considerations pertaining to the Establishment Clause of the First Amendment, was addressed in *Santa Fe Independent School District v. Jane Doe, et al.* (2000).

Santa Fe (2000) revolved around the occurrence of pre-game prayers that were delivered over the public announcement system at high school football games. The prayer was administered by a student-elected student council chaplain. This practice was objected to by two students, one Mormon and one Catholic, as well as members of their families. The students and their mothers filed suit under the Establishment Clause provided by the First Amendment. After this complaint position was filed, the school decided to change its policy. The school opted to enact a policy in which there would be two student elections. The first election would be to determine if the students wanted to have an invocation at games. The second election was to determine, if the invocations were approved, who would be selected to deliver the prayers. Following the elections, the school district then stepped in and decided to only allow prayers that were nonsectarian and nonproselytizing. Even with the modification, the new policy was still viewed as being in violation of the First Amendment.

In deciding *Santa Fe* on Monday, June 19, 2000, the U.S. Supreme Court laid down its most definitive decision to date. The U.S. Supreme Court's decision held that public school districts are not allowed to let public, student-led prayers occur at high school games. This decision occurred in a 6-3 ruling, holding that the school district's practice of allowing student-led, student-initialized prayers violated the Establishment Clause.

The court's analysis of this matter was guided by the decision that was handed out in *Lee v. Weisman* (1992). This case stated that a graduation ceremony prayer led by a rabbi violated the Establishment Clause. It was held that the

government was not to coerce individuals to participate in or to support religion or the exercise of religion. If that were to occur it would be establishing a state religion of sorts.

The *Santa Fe* decision has been met with both support and opposition. Some see this decision as a basic legal conundrum. Some have felt that the abolishment of such prayer activity is an action that restricts people's right to freely exercise their religious beliefs. This line of thinking was expressed in Chief Justice Rehnquist's dissent of the decision. In his dissent he stated that he felt that the decision was flawed and contradictory. He stated that under the line of thinking, the singing of the national anthem would also violate the First Amendment (Colloff, 2000; *Santa Fe v. Doe*, 2000).

Additionally, the 6-3 split in the decision was illustrative of the line of division that revolves around this issue, and the interpretation of what is viewed as appropriate and what is Constitutional. Furthermore, another important issue involved in this case was the issue involving the rights provided by the Free Exercise Clause. Individuals such as Weeks (2000) viewed the ruling in the *Santa Fe* decision as being one that shuts the door on the practice of religion in the schools, a right which has been viewed as being guaranteed by the Constitution. Weeks felt that reasoning, and ultimately decisions, such as these have actually torn away religious freedom in America. Furthermore, she felt that Americans' freedom to exercise their religious beliefs has been deprived and that this deprivation was inappropriate and incorrectly measured the intent of the Constitution. This viewpoint represents the concerns that much of America feels pertaining to the opportunity to truly practice religious beliefs freely.

BEFORE SANTA FE

Though *Santa Fe v. Doe* (2000) set the most definitive court decision on this controversial subject, various cases have helped pave the way for the perception of the appropriateness and legality of prayer in school athletic settings and other scholastic settings. This timely issue of prayer within school settings, including athletics, received great attention through the court case of *Jager v. Douglas County School District and School Board* (1989). The background of the *Jager* case was based on the incidence where a high school band member, Jager, and his father brought forth a suit against the Douglas County (Georgia) School District and Board of Education in an effort to stop the practice of offering invocations at high school football games. These invocations commonly asked the audience to bow their heads to pray and commonly invoked the name of Jesus Christ. Jager claimed that these practices went against his Native American beliefs. As a result of Jager's opposition, he expressed concern to the school principal.

In *Jager*, the court found that the school district was in violation of the Lemon Test, by failing two parts of the Test (*Jager v. Douglas County School District and School Board*, 1989). The Lemon Test resulted from *Lemon v. Kurtzman* (1971) (which will be addressed in further detail later in this work). The Lemon Test basically established a three prong measure to look at issues pertaining to violations of the Establishment Clause. The Lemon Test has been viewed as a "litmus test" standard that looks at the following issues:

1. Is there a secular purpose to the activity?
2. Does the activity not convey an endorsement or disapproval of religion?
3. Does the activity entangle government with religion (Berry, 2000)?

By instituting this line of reasoning, the court found the school district to be in violation of endorsing and perpetuating religion. Interestingly, however, in this case, it was recognized that pre-game invocations could accomplish admirable goals such as promoting good sportsmanship; it was further pointed out that such actions could also be reached by measures that were not centered on religious references.

Through decisions such as that of *Jager*, pre-game invocations such as those administered by Protestant clergy were seen as violations of the First Amendment. In this ruling, the court left room for the opportunity for invocations that are led by individuals derived from a randomly selected position, such as student or parent to be potentially permissible. This does not fall in line with the ruling in the *Santa Fe* decision.

OTHER CASES

It should be noted that courts have been reluctant to rule on case matters concerning religious freedoms and separation of church and state due to the controversial and emotional nature of such issues (Dougherty, Auxter,

Goldberger, Heinzmann, & Findlay, 1994). When addressing the Constitutional concerns pertaining to the rights of freedom of religion, as granted by the First Amendment, various court decisions have helped to establish the current judicial climate of this matter.

Among the cases that have impacted the current standard are *Lee v. Weisman* (1992), *Lemon v. Kurtzman* (1971), *Doe v. Duncanville Independent School District* (1995), *Board of Education of Westside Community Schools v. Mergens* (1990), *Jones v. Clear Creek* (1992) and *ACLU of New Jersey, et al. v. Black Horse Pike Regional Board of Education, et al.* (1996). Though these are not the only cases that have had a bearing on the current status of the place of prayer within the context of school activities and more particularly in the context of school sport activities, they have displayed a powerful impact on the current status of this heavily debated matter.

In *Lee v. Weisman* (1990), the U.S. Supreme Court presided over the issue of prayer at school graduation ceremonies. This case centered on a Jewish rabbi being asked to conduct prayers at graduation ceremonies. The rabbi was given a pamphlet that included details about what was and was not acceptable according to school policies. Prior to the ceremony, a request to disallow the invocation made by a student's father was denied and the prayer was given at the ceremony. After this action, Weisman sought to have a permanent injunction of such actions. The ruling of this case stated that such practices did in fact violate the First Amendment of the Constitution (Clement, 1998). Sawyer (1997) stated that this case explained how government was not to be involved in using prayers as a means of "civic religion."

Another important case that has been influential in determining the acceptability and legality of prayer in government settings (including schools) was *Lemon v. Kurtzman* (1971). This case, although not directly related to athletics, did have an indirect effect on prayer use in school sports. It basically addressed instances where the Establishment Clause was not to be compromised in public activities. The crux of the matter was based on salary supplementation in Rhode Island private schools, particularly involving the state paying in part for the educational practices at private religious institutions. In deciding this case, the subsidies were seen as fostering in an excessive manner the entanglement of religion and state. It was seen as a violation of the Establishment Clause. This case is noted for establishing what is known as the "Lemon Test."

Doe v. Duncanville Independent School District (1995) involved a female student-athlete that felt she suffered repercussions as a result of her refusal to take part in prayer activity. By not participating in such prayer activity, the student claimed to have suffered ramifications such as being questioned about her actions by peers, heckled by spectators, and being called a "little atheist" by one of the school's teachers. As a result of these actions and her subsequent feelings of ridicule, Doe situation was decided by the courts in a ruling that found the school district had failed the Lemon Test by endorsing religion through employee-led prayers. However, in this case, it was ruled that the school district could not restrict players from participating in student-led, student-organized voluntary prayers (Berry, 2000).

In *Board of Education of Westside Community Schools v. Mergens* (1990), the United States Supreme Court presided over the issue of the establishment of a religious club at a Nebraska high school. School officials had denied a request by students to start up a Christian club that would have the same rights and responsibilities as other school clubs except for the lack of faculty sponsorship. The basis for this denial was the Establishment Clause and a school board policy that required faculty sponsorship of such clubs. After the decision to deny the club was upheld by the school board, a group of current and former students brought forth a suit seeking to have the right to pursue the club further. They based their argument on the Equal Access Act. Once this case reached the U.S. Supreme Court, the Court decided to affirm the earlier decision that was handed out by the appellate court, in which it was determined that the Equal Access Act was established in an effort to allow such actions as this, and that clubs such as this were not in violation of the Establishment Clause. Included in the proposed actions of this Christian club were various activities with religious connections including student-initiated prayer. In this decision, student-initiated prayer was acceptable, in the fact that the court saw that such actions were seen as private speech. However, prayer led by teachers, coaches, and administrators was deemed as being unacceptable (Clement, 1998).

In *Jones v. Clear Creek Independent School District* (1992), the issue at hand was school prayer at graduation ceremonies. In this case, some of the graduating seniors of the Clear Creek Independent School District and their parents brought forth suit to prevent the school district from allowing an invocation and benediction at graduation

ceremonies. Through this, the court decided that prayer was acceptable when it was approved by a student vote and was also nonsectarian and nonproselytizing in nature. This court also stated that school encouraged prayer at sporting events was not acceptable.

One other important case was *ACLU of New Jersey, et al. v. Black Horse Pike Regional Board of Education, et al.* (1996). The Black Horse Pike Regional Board of Education had a lengthy history of invocations and benedictions at graduation ceremonies. These messages were commonly given by local clergy. The clergy members were selected from a variety of different denominations in an effort to represent a variety of individuals. In this ruling, the court differed with an earlier decision, by finding the policy of allowing a high school senior class vote on the issue of a student-led, student-written prayer at graduation ceremonies unconstitutional.

GETTING AROUND THE ISSUE

Numerous schools and school districts have attempted to maneuver around decisions that have been issued through the courts such as in the *Santa Fe* and *Jager* decisions. Schools have fought decisions, ignored decisions, and tried to invoke their own policies. According to Colloff (2000), there has been a movement towards implementing prayer in the stands at football games across the South, where pre-game invocations have often been steeped in tradition. Examples of such actions have included people forming a human prayer chain on a track surrounding a football field in Tennessee, fans emptying the bleachers to take part in a prayer session on the fifty-yard line in Arkansas, and fans listening to prayers over radios (which have been brought into the stadium by spectators) in North Carolina (Roche, 2000).

ADDITIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

In addition to the aforementioned examples, situations, and court decisions, there is a variety of other problems, issues, and concerns that ought to be considered regarding the combination of athletics and religion, particularly prayer in athletic settings. Concern over coercion concerns and problems with potential team conflict and disunity, as well as concerns about making students feel isolated and ostracized need to be considered (Lee, 2003).

Coercion has been a major point of contention in matters such as the use of prayer in athletics. Courts have examined this issue and ruled against practices that are coercive in nature, but like many of these religious issues, coercion can be a two-edged sword. As pointed out by Stone, Seidman, Sunstein, and Tushnet (1999), coercion can be an issue of importance in settings such as courses which present materials on subjects such as evolution, which may be in direct conflict with students' religious beliefs.

Issues regarding the expression of personal freedoms and beliefs can open the door to great debate over which actions are permissible and which are not. There is a tremendous amount of gray area associated with the issue of prayer in connection with school athletics. People have had and will continue to have differing views on these matters, but the issues related to the implementation of prayer within the context of school athletics is something that athletes, administrators, and coaches need to be aware of and address when needed. This issue is not something to just merely be ignored, but rather this issue should be understood and effectively handled by all parties involved.

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INFORMATION SOURCES FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS ATHLETIC SHOE PURCHASING

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KEY WORDS: CONSUMERS, PURCHASING, ATHLETIC SHOES, COLLEGE STUDENTS

INTRODUCTION

Due to the size and characteristics of the market, college students are one of the most important markets for many companies (Wong & Smith, 2002; White, 2001; Miller, 1998). White (2001) stated that the college market is a critical segment for marketers to reach and listen to because college students are faced with a whole range of life decisions, including many first-time purchase decisions without input from parents. Additionally, it is an important time for marketers to connect with this demographic group, reaching them as they establish life-long buying patterns and loyalties.

In 2003, there were approximately 15.6 million students attended colleges and it is predicted that there will be 17.7 million college students in 2010 (Morrison, 2004). As the number of students increase so does their consumption. The direct buying power of college students was estimated to be over \$200 billion in 2004 with the average discretionary income of \$3,444 per year, and it is projected that college students' spending will surpass \$230 billion by the end of 2010. Moreover, aside from its direct buying power, the college market influences an additional \$300 billion to \$500 billion each year (2004, Morrison; Wong & Smith, 2002).

Athletic shoes are popular purchases for college students. According to SGMA International (2003), consumers in the U.S. purchased 428 million pairs of athletic footwear and spent approximately \$15.7 billion in 2002. People ages 18 to 24 spent over \$1.9 billion that was approximately 13% of total athletic shoe market in 2002. On average, college students spent \$52 to buy a pair of athletic shoes, which was considerably higher than any other age group.

In order to reach the college student market, one of the most essential aspects for marketers to understand is factors that influence college students' purchasing decisions. Kotler and Armstrong (2001) stated that among the consumer decision making process, understanding consumers' sources of information for the product is crucial because it is the early phase of consumer behavior and it may influence the rest of the consumer decision making process.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the college students' information sources for purchasing athletic shoes and to examine if information sources influence differed between demographic segments. Developing knowledge about information sources for college students' purchasing athletic shoes will help consumer educators, companies, and marketers to understand their consumption behavior.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUNDS

In the past decade, the field of marketing, including consumer behavior has received great attention (Baldinger & Rubinson, 1996; Light 1994). Researchers found that when consumers seek information about certain products, they relied on some key sources, which transmitted consumer-related values, attitudes, motivations, and behaviors (Mangleburg, Grewal, & Bristol, 1997; Mascarenhas & Higby, 1993; Shim, 1996). The information sources "can be any people, organizations or reference groups directly or indirectly involved in socialization because of frequency of contact with the individual and control over rewards and punishments given to the individual" (Moschis, 1987, p. 14). These sources are very important to the consumers and continue to influence the development of the individual's character. Many studies have found that among the different information sources, family, peers, mass media advertising, and salespeople were the most important information sources (Keillor, Parker, & Schaefer, 1996; Mascarenhas & Higby, 1993; Shim, 1996).

The information sources were directly affected by certain variables (Mangleburg et al., 1997; Moschis & Mitchell, 1986; Shim, 1996). These variables can differ from individual to individual, such as occupation, education, income, race, religion, gender, and living area (Moschis, 1987). The following section will review how information sources influence on purchase decision.

FAMILY

Family, especially parents, played an important role when people (young people in particular) seek information for certain product (Shim, 1996; Shim & Koh, 1996). Consumers learned the basic knowledge of consumer behaviors by interacting with parents. Mascarenhas and Higby (1993) stated that parents influenced young consumers by letting them observe and imitate their consuming behaviors, by interacting with them in their consumption, and by providing them with opportunities for guided consumption. Moschis and Churchill (1987) also found that the greater the communication between college students and their parents about consuming behaviors, the more economically prudent their consumer choices were. Although some studies reported parental influence was found to decrease when consumers get older, studies found that parental influences were still important on college students' purchasing behavior (Mascarenhas & Higby, 1993).

PEERS

Like family, peers may directly affect college students' consuming behavior (Lachance, Beaudoin & Robitaille, 2003). Studies found a strong correlation between young consumers' product purchase behavior and peer influence (Mangleburg et al., 1997; Mascarenhas & Higby, 1993; Moschis, 1987; Moschis & Churchill, 1987). The frequency of communication with peers was found to correlate with various consumer-related behaviors such as brand awareness and product preference (Keillor et al., 1996; Moschis & Churchill 1987). According to Feltham (1998), family influences (especially parental influence) decreased while friends' (including roommates) influences significantly increased on college students' brand choice behavior. There was also a positive relationship found between the time spent at the university and the peer influence on brand purchasing decisions (Feltham, 1998).

MASS MEDIA ADVERTISING

Because many consumer behavior studies have focused on issues surrounding the effects of advertising on people, mass media advertising (television in particular) has received the highest attention among consumer information sources (Gorn, 1985; Hite & Hite 1995). The primary role of advertising is influence the consumer purchase decision by enhancing brand awareness and beliefs. Advertising can influence consumer purchase decision a number of ways as a source of product information, creating awareness of the brand, and increasing the probability that that brand is evoked in the consumer's mind just by mentioning the product itself (Walgren, Ruble, & Donthu, 1995). Through mass media, nationally advertised brands become highly familiar to consumers, reinforcing choices of familiar brands. Exposure to advertising affects consumers' product and brand awareness, purchase requests, and product choices.

SALESPEOPLE

Salespeople, and store personnel in general, can affect particular consumer behaviors (Moschis, 1987). By interacting with retailers, a person can receive an orientation to consumption in the form of information about new situations and products. Often, salespeople are the primary source of communication for some consumers and thusly can affect consumer behavior and satisfaction (Oliver & Swan, 1989; Wilkie & Dickson, 1985). By helping a consumer obtain product information and providing guidelines about what should be expected during the acquisition process and use of a product, a salesperson may influence consumer expectations concerning the product (Grewal & Shama, 1991). According to Feltham (1998), with approximately 40% of the consumers in this study indicating a preference for salespeople as a source of information and advice, salespeople were considered a more reliable information source than the mass media and, second in importance to parents and more important than peers as an information source.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were investigated in this study:

1. What is the most frequently mentioned information source by college students for athletic shoes purchases?
2. Do information sources differ between female and male students?
3. Do information sources differ for students with different income sources?

METHODS

A total of 418 college students (n=418) at a large NCAA Division I-A university in the southeastern United States participated in this study. There were slightly more female respondents (220; 52%) than male (198; 48%). In respect to main income sources, 218 (52.2%) students stated that their income source was parents, scholarship/grants were

selected by 18 (4.3%), 138 (33%) stated jobs, 20 (4.8%) loans, and 24 (5.7%) stated other than above income source (see Table 1).

The instrument developed for this study was a survey based on information sources and consumer socialization from a study by Mascarenhas and Higby (1993). This tool measured factors similar to the ones in this study, provided the material for each section of the survey. Some of the survey questions were revised to make them more appropriate for this study or more suitable for the population tested in this study. These revisions were minor and had no apparent affect on the face validity of the questions. The survey instrument was pilot-tested with 57 college students. Test-retest and the Cronbach alpha coefficient of .82 supported the instrument's reliability.

The instrument for this study contained 31 questions. The first part of the questionnaire consisted of demographic data: participant's gender and main income sources (i.e., parents, scholarship, job, loan, and other sources). The answers to the questions provided individual background information for each participant. The demographic data questionnaire was developed by the researcher to gather demographic information to investigate the influence of socialization agents according to different demographic backgrounds. The second part consisted of questions about the information sources to the population. For this section, a five point Likert-type scale (5-strongly agree; 4-agree; 3-neutral; 2-disagree; and 1-strongly disagree) was used to rate the agreement of each factor. The conceptual framework, review of literature, and pilot study identified the four factors of influence (family, peers, mass media, and salespeople) that were explained previously.

Descriptive analysis of frequency count and percentage were used to investigate major information sources. Chi-square analyses were applied to test significant difference between the participants' demographic status and information sources on athletic shoe purchasing. For the statistical significant test, the alpha level (α) was set at .05.

RESULTS

RESEARCH QUESTION ONE

Research question one was used to investigate what is the most frequently mentioned information source by college students for athletic shoes purchases. Descriptive statistics of frequency counts and percentage revealed that 156 (37.3%) students stated that peers were the greatest information sources followed by salespeople (125; 29.9%), mass media (102; 24.4%), and family (35; 8.4%).

RESEARCH QUESTION TWO

Research question two was used to investigate whether information sources differed between female and male students in their athletic shoe purchases. A chi-square analysis revealed that information sources did not significantly differ between female and male students on athletic shoe purchases ($\chi^2(3, N=418)=5.705, p=.127$).

Both female and male students stated that peers were the greatest information source for athletic shoes purchases followed by salespeople, mass media, and family. For the female students, 82 (37.3%) students stated peers, 62 (28.2%) stated salespeople, 51 (23.2%) stated mass media, and 25 (11.4%) stated family were the greatest information source for athletic shoes purchases. For the male students, 74 (37.4%) stated peers, 63 (31.8%) stated salespeople, 51 (25.8%) stated that mass media, and only 10 (5.1%) stated that family were the greatest information source for athletic shoes purchases.

RESEARCH QUESTION THREE

Research question three was to investigate whether information sources differed according to students' main income sources. A chi-square analysis revealed that the information sources did not significantly differ according to students' main income sources for college students' athletic shoe purchases ($\chi^2(12, N=418)=15.357, p=.222$).

Students whose main income sources were parents, job, and loan stated that peers were the greatest information sources followed by salespeople, mass media, and family. Students whose main income sources were scholarship/grants stated that mass media were the greatest information sources on their athletic shoe purchases followed by peers, salespeople, and family.

Students whose main income sources were other than parents scholarships/grants, jobs, and loans stated that salespeople were the greatest information sources followed by peers, mass media, and family. Although frequency

and percentage of information sources slightly differed according to students' main income sources, these differences were too small to have statistical significance.

DISCUSSION

This study revealed that overall, peers were the most frequently mentioned information source for college students' athletic shoe purchases. This finding is consistent with previous studies. When people, especially college students, are independent from their family, family influences (especially parental influence) significantly decreased while friends influences significantly increased as a source of information (Feltham, 1998; McNeal, 1991; Moschis, et al., 1987).

Because athletic shoes are a product with potential social significance to college students (use of a particular brand of shoes may be considered to affect their image), and they want to have the same image as their peers, college students are more likely to turn to peer groups than to parents for athletic shoe information (Heath & Scott, 1998). Consumers may decide not to buy a product if they feel that the product is not consistent with their own perceptions of themselves as members of a particular society. People also tend to like others whom they perceive as being more similar to themselves than those who are less similar. Athletic shoes are a product closely related to current fashion trends. Therefore, college students are influenced by agents with similar attitudes, thoughts, feelings, values, and interests in regard to certain products (Austin, 1993).

Today, there are also a greater variety of brands and types of athletic shoes than in the past. Consequently, people seek more accurate and knowledgeable information about athletic shoes from information sources. Because most college students usually wear athletic shoes more frequently than their parents, college students have more experience with athletic shoe brands than their parents. Therefore, it is common for peers to exert greater influence on college students' athletic shoe purchases.

This study used gender and income sources to investigate if information sources differed between different demographic backgrounds. Many previous studies revealed that information sources' influence on purchasing significantly differed according to an individual's environmental factors, such as gender, income, etc. (Mangleburg, Grewal, & Bristol, 1997; Mascarenhas & Higby, 1993; Shim, 1996). However, the findings of this study were inconsistent with previous studies. This study found that the information sources did not significantly differ between genders and income sources for athletic shoe purchases. One possible explanation is that athletic shoes are not gender-related products; they are considered more general and necessary products. Gender differences are dependent on particular circumstances. In this study, college students considered their roles and identities as members of a particular society more important than sex roles.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on this study, the following future investigations are recommended:

1. For this study samples were drawn only from a 4-year coed college. It is recommended for future study that samples from various types of college settings be used, such as 2-year colleges, religious colleges, women's colleges, and military colleges.
2. A longitudinal research design through different stages of human life development should be conducted. For example research on childhood, adolescence, adults, and senior citizens should be conducted. Because socialization is an ongoing process throughout the human life, influence of information sources can differ by stages of human life.
3. Psychographic data should be considered. This study has focused on college students' demographic variables. For future study, it is recommended that college students' psychographic variables should be used. For instance the design, color, or quality of a product can affect people's athletic shoe brand preferences.
4. Different consuming behavior should be considered for future study, such as impulsive consumers, recreational and hedonistic consumers, brand conscious consumers, habitual and brand loyal consumers, and price conscious consumers. The influence of socialization agents can differ according to an individual's different consuming behavior.

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TABLE 1

Participants' Profile

	N	%
Total sample	418	100
Gender		
Female	220	52.6
Male	198	47.4
Income Sources		
Parents	218	52.2
Job	138	33.0
Loan	20	4.8
Scholarship	18	4.3
Others	24	5.7

FIT TO LEAD: THE 8-WEEK SOLUTION FOR SHAPING UP YOUR BODY, YOUR MIND, AND YOUR CAREER (BOOK REVIEW)

BY: JENNIFER L. JONES, MS, ATC, DIRECTOR OF MAX-A-LIFE FITNESS CENTER AT MCCOLLOUGH INSTITUTE FOR APPEARANCE AND HEALTH

Neck, C. P., Mitchell, T .L., Manz, C. C., & Thompson II, E. C. (2004). *Fit to Lead: The 8-week Solution for Shaping Up Your Body, Your Mind, and Your Career*. New York: St. Martin's Press.

With 60% of the American population not participating in regular physical activity, it is no secret that there is a need for change. There is a need for change not only in physical and long-term health benefits, but an improvement in business and financial success as well. This book is based on the premise that by becoming a fit individual, one not only possesses individual health benefits but also has the stamina and psychological tools to become a more diversified and efficient leader.

It is important to note that this book does not advocate a "fad" diet or promise fast, amazing results. Rather it focuses on an 8-week program geared at getting individuals in shape to become better leaders. There is no special diet or medication that needs to be followed or taken. Instead, the focus is on making diet and exercise part of the "work-week." In other words, an individual should stick to the nutrition and physical activity plan Monday through Friday. By the time the weekend rolls around, a little "cheating" is allowed. As far as the diet goes, this book makes a very interesting point about the unrealistic goals that dieters set for themselves. The "rules" become so stringent that adherence often becomes a problem. In turn, these problems often seep into the work environment making cohesion difficult.

In addition to a positive mental outlook, the physical health and message a leader portrays also have effects on the work environment. Particularly in the health field, clients or employees often find difficulty with entrusting their business to an individual that displays hypocritical behavior. For instance, by telling employees that it is important to participate in moderate physical activity on a consistent basis and then have the leader completely disregard this advice sends the wrong message. It is also difficult to persuade a client or business to trust an individual who says one thing but physically displays another.

Another important tool for a successful business is focus. Over the past thirty-two years, the Cooper Clinic has tracked the success of more than twenty-five thousand executives who have participated in Executive Lifestyle evaluations. Michael Mangum, president and CEO of the Mangum Group, a diversified, closely held business with interests in highway construction, asphalt paving and equipment management which employs more than 350 and generates over \$80 million in annual revenues offers a testimonial of the premises of this book. He says the following about regular participation in exercise:

"I do believe fitness impacts my job. I usually exercise during the middle of the day, say, one to four p. m. or so. I find that my energy level is much enhanced when I return from a workout. Further, I find that because I choose to go during the day, my thoughts toward work while exercising. I have some of my most creative thoughts when exercising" (p.4).

However, testimonials are not the only basis for this book. The information contained within the text is based on hundreds of well-controlled studies that determine fitness improves job performance for both employee and employer.

The book begins with information regarding facts and figures about exercise and job-related performance. As it moves into the heart of the program, a chapter is set aside for body fitness (cardiovascular endurance, muscular strength and flexibility), nutritional fitness, and mental fitness. These three components comprise the bulk of the 8-week plan. The benefits of cardiovascular endurance include a boost in mood that is more effective than prescription drugs, stress relief, increased levels of brain chemicals (endorphins), less fatigue, and more energy at the end of the day. These are all components that can "make or break" and executive in the business world. In addition to all these benefits, 30 minutes or more of exercise on most days of the week also results in better sleeping patterns, further

exacerbating the beneficial nature of cardiovascular endurance. Strength benefits include the muscular strength to continue participating in the cardiovascular endurance activities in addition to participation in ADL 's (activities of daily living). The prevention of bone loss and osteoarthritis are also benefits of a regular strength training program. This book discusses the benefits of flexibility as a great stress-fighting agent. By maintaining the integrity of the joint, muscles and surrounding structures are provided with greater elasticity as well as a faster and more efficient rate of healing. All three of these components of the physical fitness prepare the body to be more efficient and healthy so that the business executive may be adept at handling the stresses of everyday life as well as missing less work due to a healthy immune system.

With regards to nutritional fitness, the book discusses several ways in which to make healthy choices whether at a fast-food restaurant or buying items at the grocery store. The mental fitness program involves an 8-step process. Step 1 consists of observing and evaluating yourself. By understanding the behavioral decisions one makes, they are better able to determine the cause of the decision and comprehend why others might make particular choices. Step 2 involves goal setting. Both long term and short-term goals are important in a successful business strategy. Steps 3 and 4 discuss removing negative cues and increasing positive cues. Attitude is an extremely important part of being a leader. Individuals following a leader are more successful if they are surrounded by a positive environment. Finding natural rewards is step 5. At some point during the 8-week plan, there needs to be a metamorphosis from simply exercising, eating right and becoming mentally healthy to actually enjoying these practices. This step is important in that it increases the success rate for adherence. Step 6 is a practice often used to help with mental clarity for business executives and the like. It includes the use of mental imagery. Mental imagery is a technique in which the focus is on positive thoughts to assist in the motivation of making those thoughts become reality. Step 7 is to listen to one's self-talk. This includes uncovering and dealing with negative self-talk. The final step of mental fitness is to challenge your individual beliefs. To think of the world and the choices we make in black in white is a simplistic mistake. Failures are destined to happen, however it is challenging the negative thoughts behind these failures and continuing to strive for realistic goals.

Overall, this book is quite practical due the collaborative nature in which the information is presented through emphasis on physical, mental, and nutritional fitness. It is easy to see how the combination of these three components aid in the process of successful leadership. This book was not only an interesting read, but it serves as a source for providing valuable insights for individuals desiring to be successful in leadership endeavors in current or future places of employment.