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Mission Statement

The mission of the [Journal of Multidisciplinary Research](#) is to promote excellence by providing a venue for academics, students, and practitioners to publish current and significant empirical and conceptual research in the arts; humanities; applied, natural, and social sciences; and other areas that tests, extends, or builds theory.

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Editorial

A warm welcome to our summer edition of the *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research* (JMR). W. Edwards Deming once said, “It is not necessary to change. Survival is not mandatory.” At the JMR, we constantly evolve and view improvement as a never ending process. The JMR is now indexed in the European Reference Index for the Humanities and the Social Sciences (ERIH PLUS). As specified on its website, the main aim of ERIH is “to enhance global visibility of high quality research in the humanities published in academic journals.” In addition, the JMR is also included in the Norwegian Register for Scientific Journals, Series, and Publishers (NSD). Moreover, the JMR supports archiving of post-print versions of articles (SHERPA/RoMEO Blue).

This Volume 9 Number 2 edition of the JMR features five thought-provoking articles from around the globe. A collaborative study by researchers from the United Kingdom explores the effect of long-term physical training on the development of mental toughness in recreationally active participants. Another study from University of Miami and Louisiana State University looked at the relationship between media coverage of concussions and participation rates for high school football over a 20-year period. A collaborative exploratory research project from Indiana University of Pennsylvania and Harding University investigated academic integrity in an online business communication environment. In another research paper from Israel, the author discusses the characteristics of the journey for novice teachers and sheds light on the process new teachers go through during their internship year. We also feature an interesting article by an independent researcher in which he applies Jason Mittell’s television genre theories to the Star Trek Series. In our “student corner,” we feature a qualitative study in which the author analyzes the organizational structure of Financial Aid offices in the state university system of Florida.

This issue also features two book reviews. One is a review of the book *The Real Madrid Way: How Values Created the Most Successful Sports Team on the Planet*, by Mandis. The second review is of the *Comprehensive English-Yiddish Dictionary: Based on the Lexical Research of Mordkhe Shaechter*, by Schaechter-Viswanath, Glasser, and Chava.

We also feature an interesting interview with Dan Rotta, a successful businessman with immense experience in international business in Asia and the Americas.

As summer comes to a close, and we begin the fall semester, I wish you a happy, successful, and productive new academic year.

Onward,

Hagai Gringarten, Ph.D.
Publisher & Editor-in-Chief



“Shipwreck on the Beach”
Zakynthos, Greece
2017

by Scott Gillig

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The Journey of Novice Teachers: Perceptions of Interns from a Teacher Training Program for Academics

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Abstract

The literature (Harari, Adler, & Shechter, 2007) discusses at length the difficulties that teachers experience when they start teaching and the number of people leaving the profession due to those difficulties (Arviv-Elyashiv & Zimmerman, 2013). This article discusses the characteristics of the journey for novice teachers from the Teacher Training Programs for Academics experience them during their first year of teaching. The study focused on several aspects of this journey: experiences of success and failure, factors that promote and inhibit success during their internship, the extent to which novice teachers identify with the comparison immigrants in a new culture (Zabar Ben-Yehoshua, 2001), and changes the teachers experienced throughout the year.

The research population was a group of novice teachers (interns) who participated in a mandatory course at a College of Education in the center of Israel, which provided a support group in handling the difficulties of first-year teaching. The participants had to hand in a narrative (“journey log”), which described their experiences during their first year of teaching and was subject to content analysis (Inductive Category Development) (Mayring, 2000). For some of the research questions, the researcher used the mixed approach.

The findings revealed that the overall picture of the moments of failure exposed feelings of hurt and pain on a personal level and not only a professional level. The depth of the feelings indicates the novice teachers’ deep desire to succeed, in terms of “the greater the expectations, the greater the disappointment.” The descriptions of success reveal the following common attributes: their caring nature, their desire to give endlessly, and their willingness to invest efforts in all facets of teaching. Among the main factors promoting success were the teachers’ desire to fulfil a personal dream and a supportive school climate. Among the main factors inhibiting success was the disparity between what they had learned during their training and school reality as well as their reluctance to ask for help. Most of the teachers felt solidarity with the immigrant

feelings that Zabar Ben-Yehoshu (2001) depicted in her article. The leading pattern in the examination of the journey throughout the year corresponded to the pattern in the article: excitement, crisis, and acceptance.

Keywords: teachers, teacher training, interns

Introduction

Background and Rationale – The Internship Year

The internship component of teacher training programs in Israel started in 2000 as a direct result of the trend in colleges to offer more rigorous programs (Ministry of Education, 1999). While turning the teacher training program into a four-year course, the fourth year became an internship. The internship component in a teacher training program facilitates the student teacher in the transformation from being a student to becoming a teacher in the educational system (Nasser-Abu Alhija, Fresco, & Reichenberg, 2011) with an understanding that becoming a teacher is more difficult than anything they have ever experienced before, and requires deliberate practical training and guidance (Ingersoll, 2007a). A study by Nasser-Abu Alhija and her colleagues (2011) revealed that novice teachers find the internship opportunity satisfactory. The Induction Phase nowadays consists of the initial internship year plus two years of subsequent training.

What underpins the recognition of the need for an induction phase as a distinct stage in a teacher's career is an understanding of this process and its unique characteristics (Silberstrom, 2013). In the internship program for teachers in Israel, the new teachers (interns) work on a full salary under the inspection of a mentor teacher, a veteran colleague from the school with teaching experience who plays a vital role in accompanying the novice teachers. The mentor teacher provides supportive feedback and encouragement, both on the professional and emotional level (Lazovsky, Reichenberg, & Zeiger, 2002). The mentor teacher is as an educational colleague, an agent of change, and a role model (Runyan, 1999). The novice teachers also take part in a mandatory course for two weekly hours throughout the internship year. The objective of the internship year is to let the novice teachers express themselves, and to provide group and personal support regarding any issues of difficulty during that year.

Shimoni, Gonen, and Yaakobi (2002) detected five components of the Induction Phase into the educational system:

1. Guidance when first entering the position,
2. Social acceptance in the teacher's lounge,
3. Backup when an issue arises,
4. Continuous advice throughout the year, and
5. Empowerment and emotional support.

In current teacher training programs, these supportive components are within the support system at the school: the principal, the head teacher, the inspector, the staff of teachers, and the internship workshop facilitators and colleagues. In their study, Shimoni, Gonen, and Yaakobi (2002) found a positive correlation between the level of support received from the support system

at the school and job satisfaction. Specifically, the support of the principal and the component of guidance when first entering the position are predicting factors for the level of job satisfaction and commitment to the job during the first year of teaching. At the same time, there is a systematic process of formative evaluation and summative assessment by the school principal and the mentor, in which the novice teacher takes part.

The Context of the Study

The study focuses on first-year teachers in their internship year, who participated in a mandatory course for graduates of a Teacher Training Program for Academics ("career changing track") in a College of Education in the centre of Israel. They can start the internship year once they finish all pedagogical courses and practice teaching (The Ministry of Education, 2016). The objective of this study is to understand the unique phenomenon of the process ("journey") that first-year teachers (interns) go through, and to characterize the journey, including difficulties and positive aspects, with varying complexities. The word "journey" is used in this study because a journey has a beginning, middle and end, and includes both positive moments (successes) and more difficult ones (failures). The intention of this study is to explore whether the journey includes enough moments of success and satisfaction to be worthwhile, or whether it is an unbearable burden with too few moments of respite.

Previous studies refer to fourth year interns of the regular academic tracks of B.Ed. and not to students from the Teacher Training Programs for Academics ("career changers"). The current study is a pioneer study due to its focusing on the exploration of the unique population of academics towards a teaching degree in the context of their internship year.

Profile of Graduates of the Teacher Training Programs for Academics

The main goal of Teacher Training Programs for Academics is to fill a void in the number of people enrolling for a bachelor's degree in teaching (Kfir & Ariav, 2008). At first, the duration of these programs was two years, at the end of which graduates receive a teaching certificate in the field of their B.A. (e.g., with a B.A. in History, the graduate will acquire a teaching certificate in History). Some of the applicants make a more extensive change and study towards a teaching certificate in a field different from that in which they did their BA. In recent years, there has been a significant increase in the number of participants enrolling in the teacher training programs: in the academic year 2003/4, 428 students completed the program, in comparison to 2,978 in 2013/14 (The Center for Research and Information, The Knesset, 2014). Donitz-Schmidt and Weinberger (2007) examined the student profile in the Teacher Training Programs for Academics and noted that these students are older (average age 30), some are married and have families and they all show motivation to work in education. The majority, 90%, have a bachelor's degree and a small minority, 10%, have a master's degree. A large portion, 80%, have degrees in Behavioural Sciences, Humanities, Social Sciences, and Education. Most (87%) are women. As a point of clarification, Zelikovich and Akerman-Asher (2005) mention that 55% come to teaching at the end of their bachelor's degree and without any employment experience, so they are not necessarily changing their career.

Theoretical Background

Difficulties and Challenges during the First Year of Teaching: The Greater the Expectations, the Greater the Disappointment

New Teachers' Dropout from the Profession

The Information Review Report (MOFET Institute, 2015) has up-to-date data from Israel and around the world regarding teachers' dropout in their first year: Data from The Central Bureau of Statistics indicate that as of 2011 the number of teachers leaving the profession after a year was 10%. Earlier data from The Central Bureau of Statistics from 2006 show that the dropout rate during the first year was 25% and that a further 15% left during the following four years. Ido and Shkedi (2014) note in the introduction to their study that more than 30% of teachers in Israel have a tendency to give up and leave the profession after one year and typically leave between one and up to five or six years. A study in Wisconsin, U.S.A., also determined that after the first year, 35% of teachers left the profession (WEAC, 2014). Arviv-Elyashiv and Zimmerman's (2013) study shows that the main reason for teachers leaving has to do with the employment conditions, such as pay, the scope of the job and the position, and the conceptual and emotional aspects such as support and appreciation from their environment.

Data from around the world indicates that the rate of teachers quitting is higher in western countries: Canada (16%), Australia (25%), and U.S.A. (13.8%). Other studies from North America report that 40-50% of teachers leave the profession within the first five years (Maciejewski, 2007), before they turn into expert teachers (Worthy, 2005).

The data regarding graduates of teaching programs for academics entering the profession and persevering, appear in the report issued by the Central Bureau of Statistics (Ma'agan, 2014), and indicate that a large number of students enrolled in these programs enter the educational system and most of them remain for at least three years (82.2-88.2%). Feigin and her colleagues (2015) found that 88% of those graduating from traditional programs for academics (as opposed to accelerated programs) persevere in the profession, and 81% of them believe they will continue to teach in the next five years, in comparison to 71% from B.Ed. programs.

The Induction Phase

The Initial Shock

The research literature from around the world describes extensively the difficulties of novice teachers, while using survivalist metaphors relating to a survival struggle, such as "keeping your head above the water" (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009). In the past, as today, the terminology found describing the difficulties at the beginning include terms such as "initial shock" and "trauma" (Marshall, Fittinghoff & Cheney, 1990; Kupferberg & Gilat, 2001), which stems from trauma medicine. Sagi and Regev (2002) found that the sense of shock while facing school reality is the main predictor of the feelings of unease caused by teaching, such as frustration and the

desire to leave the profession. The feelings of shock are a prominent initial difficulty and not a result of other difficulties (Sagi & Regev, 2002).

The Socialization Process into Teaching: From Trainee to Teacher

Beyond the personal trauma felt throughout the first year of teaching, and the examination of one's suitability to the profession, there is a sharp contrast between being a trainee in a teaching program, and becoming a teacher in charge (Sagi & Regev, 2002). It is a pointed and dramatic change from a supportive culture with teacher-student relationships at its core to an alienating work environment. Harari, Eldar and Shechter (2007) claim that students are like "protected flowers" during their training, whereas when they become teachers the system expects them to yield impressive results from their pupils, while meeting system demands and coping with parent complaints.

In her article, Zabar Ben-Yehoshua (2001) describes the experiences of novice teachers as similar to those experienced by immigrants in a new country. They begin their internship with dreams and fantasies shattered by a frustrating reality. The novice teachers feel like strangers and are not familiar with the internal codes hidden in the schools, just like immigrants who leave a known culture and enter an unfamiliar one. Even if the language they use is the same, meaning and interpretation are not. They feel isolated and insignificant in the teacher's lounge, and they are unfamiliar with the social norms. In addition, at times, the fresh spirit and the innovations they bring may come across as a threat to the veteran teachers, which also may amplify their sense of isolation. Zabar Ben-Yehoshua (2001) notes three stages in the socialization process of teachers:

- excitement characterized by fantasies and a sense of euphoria;
- the shock of the change and the survival crisis;
- adaptation and acceptance while gaining control and raising self-confidence.

Other studies also call the initial experience of entering the teaching profession a "cultural shock," a "baptism by fire," and a reality in which the only options are to "sink or swim" (Gavish, 2002). A case study by Romano and Gibson (2006) revealed that numerically, the experiences of success reported by the teachers have a tendency to decline by the end of the first term, increase during the second term, and remain high until the end of the internship year. The experiences of failure declined systematically throughout the year although there were acute moments of experiences of failure.

Now that we have established an understanding of the journey of entering the profession of teaching, we will turn to the concrete challenges experienced throughout the internship year.

The Difficulties experienced by Interns

The main difficulties that novice teachers experience during the transition from pre-service to in-service include various management issues in the classroom, pupil behaviour management, timetable management and work loads, pedagogical issues and content provision issues, relationships with parents, pupil evaluations, creating motivation among the pupils, lack of

study materials, organizing tasks in the class, pupils' personal problems and pre-determined policies with which they find difficult to cope (Veenman, 1987; Meister & Melnick, 2003; Romano & Gibson, 2006). Sagi and Regev (2002) found that the main difficulty is the "load factor," which connects to the work load and paperwork, and the second factor is the "interaction with pupils," which includes discipline and class management, creating motivation for learning, and handling individual differences and exceptional pupils. In contrast, the didactic-methodical factor, which includes organizing the learning, pedagogical skills, and lesson planning, did not raise notable difficulties. There is a consensus among researchers regarding the importance that novice teachers attribute to the topic of discipline (Romano & Gibson, 2006; Melnick & Meister, 2008; Harari, Eldar, & Schechter, 2007; Timor, 2015).

The Causes for the Difficulties

The disparity between the training and the field: The new teacher experiences a disparity between the theories she or he learned as a student and school reality. As a result, the new teacher feels unprepared (Darling-Hammond, 1996; Sagi & Regev, 2002). The feelings of shock and loneliness trigger survival mechanisms that are incompatible with efficient teaching (Eldar, 1996).

A dual challenge: Studies show a duality between external challenges (on school level and on classroom level) and internal-emotional challenges connected to the tension between the personal and the professional (Sagi & Regev, 2002; Pritzker & Chen, 2010). Other studies, too, point to the conflict between teachers' personal and social-public concepts regarding teaching (Schatz-Oppenheimer & Dvir, 2014).

Emotional difficulties: Pritzker and Chen (2010) characterize the first years of teaching as an emotional overload. The exhaustion caused by the struggle for survival triggers many to leave the profession (Arviv-Elyashiv & Zimmerman, 2013).

Lack of support: Novice teachers have a constant need for help and support, although in many cases, they do not have a qualified and satisfactory mentor (Fantilli & McDougall 2009).

The disparity between expectations and reality: A study by Friedman (2005) found three central aspects, which explain the sources of difficulty among beginning teachers: the social aspect, the organizational aspect and the psychological aspect.

Difficulties in asking for help: Studies show that some novice teachers in the system will not always ask for help, particularly if they believe that this will make them appear as a failure (Butler, 2007). New female teachers with low self-belief in their teaching abilities have a tendency not to ask for help (Inbar-Furst, 2016). On the other hand, low self-belief in their abilities coupled with a desire to hide it predict an eventual turn to help in order to resolve the issue quickly (Inbar-Furst, *ibid.*; Linnenbrink, 2005).

In summary, the theoretical literature indicates that novice teachers have to cope with complex difficulties in the transition from being a student to becoming a teacher. As a result, they are not always able to show an openness to innovations and draw on the new knowledge they gained during their studies.

Research Aims and Questions

The aim of this study is to understand the unique phenomenon of the journey the interns (novice teachers) go through during their internship year (the first year of teaching) with all its various aspects and complexities. The following research questions aim at the formation of the picture:

1. The concept of success and failure:
 - A. What do the interns perceive as success and what do they perceive as failure?
 - B. What are the factors that promote or inhibit a positive experience during the first year of teaching?
 - C. Do the novice teachers experience their entrance into teaching as if they were immigrants (in reference to Zabar Ben-Yehoshua's article, 2001)?
2. The journey as a process: were there observable changes in the novice teachers' experiences throughout the year?

Research Methods

The Research Paradigm

The study focuses on the qualitative paradigm as it allows us to understand a phenomenon in its entirety and agrees with the study's interpretive nature (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). The aim of the study was to understand the journey that interns experience in their first year of teaching, with all its various characteristics and complexities. The phenomenological approach, which underpins this study believes in looking at a particular experience while focusing on subjective experiences (Flood, 2010). The methodological approaches of emic or etic formed the basis for the content analysis of the interns' journey logs. While emic defines how people see and make order of the world, etic allows the researcher to emphasise what is important in his or her eyes (Kottak, 2006). Jingfeng (2011) emphasizes that the two anthropological approaches, which are seemingly contradictory, complement each other and help the researcher to create a whole picture. Thus, while the emic aspect enabled a representation of experiences from the internship process, the etic aspect refers to the researcher's interpretation of the texts. Some of the research questions used both qualitative and quantitative methodologies depending on the type of question.

The Research Design, Analysis of the Findings, and Tools

The study group consisted of 22 novice teachers in their internship year, 19 in their first year of teaching, and 3 in their second year. The participants enrolled in a mandatory course at a College of Education in the centre of Israel, which provided a support group for handling the difficulties of first-year teaching. The participants were all graduates of a Teacher Training Program for Academics ("career changers"), and had a bachelor's degree. The accompanying course did not refer to a particular age of pupils that the novice teachers teach in school, so the group was quite heterogeneous. The group also included two preschool teachers and one special education teacher. A third of the meetings in the course were online, and the rest of the

meetings took place at the college. As an end of year task, the participants had to hand in a narrative written throughout the year called the “journey log” (Appendix 1). The journey log described their experiences during their first year of teaching. The teachers did the log writing at different times throughout the year (at three different times at least) and handed it in at the end of the year. The journey logs served as a basis for the content analysis and for the categories in the findings. The participants received guiding questions to refer to in their writing: they had to describe their teaching experiences at different times during the year, including better moments and worse moments, and to relate those moments according to their own personal definitions of success and failure. In the chapter dealing with the characteristics of the journey the novice teachers had to refer to the comparison between novice teachers and immigrants in relation to the article “Interpretive research: From heaven to reality through crisis – novice teachers as immigrants” (Zabar Ben-Yehoshua, 2001), which appears in the course bibliography.

In the process of the content analysis the author extracted statements that repeated themselves in the log texts and created central categories. Through this analysis approach, content categories were not pre-conceived categories but gleaned from the statements (Kondracki & Wellman, 2002; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The methodological literature recognizes this approach as Inductive Category Development in Mayring (2000). In some of the research questions, the researcher used a mixed approach.

In addition to the qualitative analysis, the researcher carried out a quantitative analysis for questions 1B, 1C, and 2. The findings section introduces results for these questions in text form as percentages. The only exception was question 1A, which adopted only the qualitative approach because it focuses on the presentation of the participants’ personal experiences, rather than on the overall picture.

The research tool was guidelines for writing a journey log (appendix 1). The questions given to the novice teachers are original research questions of this study in the following manner:

Table 1
The questions presented to the interns and the issues of research

The question in the guideline form	The issue of research
1A: Describe a moment of success and one of failure.	1A: The study of the concepts of success and failure.
1B: What caused this moment/experience to be seen by you as a success or a failure?	1B: The study of the factors promoting and inhibiting a positive experience during the first year of teaching.
1C: Make a connection between your personal journey and Naama Zabar Ben-Yehoshua’s article (2001) on the topic of new teachers as immigrants. Explain using concepts appearing in the article.	1C: The level of agreement with the article.
2: What characterizes your year-long journey at different points in time?	2: The study of the internship year as a process.

Research Findings and Discussion

Research Question 1A

What do the interns perceive as success and what do they perceive as failure?

Experiences of Success

The novice teachers documented a myriad of experiences of success in the journey logs. The experiences of success feature a *sense of satisfaction*, which overshadows the difficulties the novice teachers experienced, and a sense of happiness, even euphoria. The sense of satisfaction itself associates with several dimensions, the first of which is *the student-teacher relationship*. This motif exemplifies itself in the interns' words:

“Regarding the work with the children, I couldn't have asked for a better experience. I got to work with two wonderful classes of bright, creative, curious, friendly and kind children.” (Primary School teacher)

The sense of satisfaction highlights the mere fact of *making a change* in the children's motivation to learn and in their attitude towards the subject taught by the teacher:

“The children I tutored privately in Math went through a process that inspired me, both in raising their self-confidence and motivation, and in the grades they got on tests.” (Middle School math teacher)

The sense of satisfaction links with a change in the pupil's *overall learning experience* regardless of the subject being studied, and consequently with the enormous responsibility placed on the teacher:

“I made a wonderful connection with a third grader. I invested a lot of time in the pupils who were experiencing difficulties and especially in those who had a fear of Math, and I created a different learning experience for them. The children looked forward to my classes and I think it was a great success.” (Primary School Math teacher)

The satisfaction also stems from *the ability to cope with a challenge* for the first time, and not necessarily from the act of teaching itself:

“A moment of success for me was when I prepared a ceremony for Hanukah. An impressive and beautiful ceremony on my first attempt.” (Primary School teacher)

Novice teachers consider coping with a challenging pupil, attending to his needs, listening to his feelings and “enlisting” him to study as a great success:

“... A', 'The star of the class,' used to 'slip in' cynical remarks about literature, but to my delight I managed to answer him substantively. At the twelfth-grade graduation ceremony

he came to me, all tough, and said: 'Miss, thank you. I had a different learning experience with you that I hadn't experienced before in school'. I'm writing these lines less than 12 hours after the ceremony with tears in my eyes. This time it worked." (High School Literature teacher)

An especially immense sense of satisfaction is the ability to cope with a particularly difficult class, especially when even the veteran teachers find this difficult:

"The principle asked me to teach in one of the most difficult classes in the school. Every lesson with them required mental preparation. I had to talk with almost every pupil in a different and original manner, and of course, personally. It seemed to me that while all the teachers had given up on them, I managed to make them feel that I loved them. My advantage wasn't an innovative and special method but the beginner's energies I arrived with and my drive to succeed." (Sixth-grade Science teacher)

The novice teachers do, in fact, cope with the teaching schedule during their internship year, but the experiences of satisfaction and success also derive from their ability to focus on **teaching values** beyond the teaching itself and to create a positive classroom climate:

"At the end of the year, when I look at my class, despite all the difficulties I experienced this year, I have a great sense of satisfaction. My main goal was to focus on education and values and I feel I did a good job." (Middle School teacher and Literature teacher)

In addition to the sense of satisfaction, the experiences of success connect to **the realization of abilities and self-fulfillment** including abilities the teachers discovered and did not previously know they had:

"While I was planning lessons, I kept rediscovering a hidden creativity in myself. I felt satisfaction from 'reinventing myself' every day. I learned that I have the ability to explore and investigate, to learn and add diverse ideas I had developed myself." (Middle School History teacher)

Novice teachers need **feedback** from the pupils, parents, the principle and their colleagues, and when they receive a good feedback they see it as a success.

"My feeling of success at school came when I understood that the pupils love me and when they said they prefer my classes over others. It surprised me and made me happy. The fact that a pupil doesn't want to go to the 'green council' (sustainability project) because it clashes with my class made me feel successful." (Primary School teacher)

In summary, the novice teachers demonstrate high levels of motivation to succeed in their job. The descriptions of success reveal their caring natures, their desire to give endlessly, and their considerable investment of effort. This effort is visible in lesson planning, in their relationships with their pupils, in school tasks, in their desire to make a difference and to reach the pupils. The novice teachers don't back down from challenges and that trait becomes the

bedrock of their successful moments. Challenges include coping with an individual pupil who is challenging (academically or behaviorally), preparing a ceremony for school, or coping with a particularly difficult class. Their experience demonstrates emotion and sentimentality as indicated by expressions such as “I’ve won,” “I enjoyed,” “I love,” “to tears,” “couldn’t have asked for more,” “devotion,” “excitement,” “I experienced beautiful moments of delight,” “I touched the summit of happiness.” Below is a concluding quote from a tenth-grade History teacher:

“I learned that when I’m connected to my feelings and my intuition, I get the best out of myself. It was a very emotional year. Like the sea that is sometimes calm and sometimes stormy and even overflowing, so was my work as a teacher. Throughout the day, I dive into the depths of my feelings and feel the beating heart.”

Experiences of Failure

The novice teachers documented different experiences of failure in the journey logs. The experiences of failure feature a ***difficult sense of personal inability, personal disappointment and an inability to meet personal expectations***. These feelings of failure are particularly dominant during the first term of the year:

“During the first term, I felt like I was inside a giant hurricane. I understood that I had a lot to learn, that I need to experience and experiment, watch veteran teachers in order to develop and hone my teaching style. Throughout most of the lessons, a lot of time was wasted on discipline issues, on trying to get the pupils’ attention, on keeping up. Each lesson depleted my resources and I usually felt like I wasn’t meeting the system’s expectations, and worst of all – the expectations I had set for myself. At the end of each lesson I was exhausted, frustrated, and I mostly felt like I’d missed an opportunity by not succeeding in executing the lesson I had planned.” (Eleventh-grade Math teacher)

Beyond the feelings of disappointment at a personal level, some of the experiences of failure highlight ***negative feelings*** such as a deep frustration, a feeling of utter helplessness and humiliation-degradation to the point of personal distress, especially in the presence of school principal:

“One of the major crises I experienced this year was a lesson that fell apart completely while being observed by the school principal. I had prepared a lovely lesson plan that included group work and a discussion on a relevant and interesting topic, but the pupils just misbehaved in an exceptional way. Despite the presence of the principal in the classroom, I couldn’t carry out most of the lesson I had prepared. I felt helpless and humiliated. After the lesson, I went to her office and burst out crying. I told her it was an unusual occurrence and that usually the classes are fine.” (Fifth-grade Science teacher)

The descriptions of the moments of failure depict ***confusion*** to a point where it is impossible to separate the teacher as a capable person experiencing beginner's difficulties, and the teacher as a total human failure. That is to say, there is a difficulty in separating the personal aspect from the professional aspect.

“In the middle of the year I experienced a crisis during a field trip where I was accompanying a class I really liked. Nothing prepared me for the shock I experienced on the first night and the following day. The pupils didn’t stop complaining for one minute and they scowled at my every attempt to lighten the mood. In addition, I was in a fragile mental state due to personal reasons and that had an effect on me and on my ability to cope with the children. I suffered greatly during those two days. I felt disappointed with myself that I hated the pupils during the trip, and that I had missed an opportunity to create a fun experience with them and with the other teachers. The experience of the field trip was so shocking that I started to question my future in education and teaching.” (Upper Middle school History teacher)

Professionally, the novice teachers’ concept of failure derives from *a difficulty in managing the class* and especially a difficulty in coping with the pupils’ challenging behavior, and in asserting a position of authority in the classroom.

“During the lesson, there were many disruptions. I felt awful. I didn’t understand why pupils treat a new teacher in that manner. All the stories of teachers who had left the profession came to mind. I didn’t understand what I should do. I tried to teach and saw that they weren’t listening to me. After a few minutes, I told the pupils to fill out a number of pages in the workbooks. Some refused, some didn’t have the tools to do so, some hadn’t brought their workbooks and some didn’t understand the instructions. In short, pandemonium. I felt dreadful. That was when I decided that the profession wasn’t for me.” (Middle School Bible teacher)

The two above quotes reflect the “easy” solution of leaving the profession, however, these were the only two such comments from this study group. These teachers attribute the feelings of failure to the fact that they chose a profession that is not suitable to them. Beyond the feelings of failure, the inability to manage the class creates a negative circle of anxiety upon entering the classroom, which in turn intensifies the feelings of failure.

“An experience that I remember as a failure happened in a ninth-grade classroom during a Bible lesson which takes place on Thursdays at the end of the day, which is the most difficult lesson. From week to week I failed to teach. The girls interrupted continuously, they were rude, leaving and entering the classroom as they wished, talking among themselves during the lesson. I couldn’t teach them and I became endlessly frustrated. I was in a state of emotional distress. I became anxious before every lesson with this class and waited that it would be over.” (Eighth-grade teacher).

In addition to the feelings of failure caused by the personal issues and professional difficulties mentioned above, the novice teachers described **a reality in which veteran teachers riles out their ideas**. They learned the politics of the teachers’ lounge from experience:

“It would seem that all is calm in the teachers’ lounge. Overtime it became clear to me, in a number of rather unpleasant ways, that there are undercurrent power struggles in the

teachers' lounge, initiated by the veteran teachers who felt threatened by the new ideas of the 'rookie' teachers and by the innovative teaching methods they brought with them. Because I was new and naïve I wasn't aware of the norms and I must have touched some nerves I shouldn't have" (Middle school Geography teacher).

The sense of rejection as a new teacher in the school appears, too, on a **social level** in the teachers' lounge:

"I entered a group that seemed cohesive and closed. I felt like I didn't belong. I wasn't a part of any of the discussions, consultations or idle conversations and when I tried to ask the other teachers for help with the study materials, I found a very 'busy' team with no time or patience for me" (a Middle-school English teacher).

The overall picture of the moments of failure exposed feelings of hurt and pain on a personal level and not only a professional level. The depth of the feelings pointed at the novice teachers' deep desire to succeed, in terms of "the greater the expectations, the greater the disappointment," a sense that they had "crashed" and lost just about all self-confidence, and feelings of anxiety. The descriptions of the failure experiences also present the **complexity of teaching** and the many facets and angles of the profession the student teacher must cope with: efficient teaching, reasonable discipline, integration within the teaching staff, becoming an authority in the classroom and motivating the pupils to learn.

Research Question 1 B

What are the factors that promote or inhibit a positive experience during the first year of teaching?

Promoting Factors

Knowing that "I found my place," the fulfillment of a dream: 12 novice teachers (54%) experienced the fulfillment of a dream in their first year, and it appears that this experience helped them deal with the difficulties. These are mostly teachers who had worked in other places and decided to leave them of their own will:

"As an accountant, I was tired of dealing with numbers. I was looking for the added value, the human connection, and those I found in teaching." (High School Math teacher)

Supportive school climate: 9 novice teachers (40%), described the school atmosphere as open and enabling personal and professional growth:

"Already in the interview the headmistress told me: 'you're coming straight out of college and I would love to hear innovative ideas. Be comfortable doing so.'"

Beyond the sense of professional growth, the novice teachers also mentioned the social aspect of support. For example:

“... on my first week, two teachers at the teachers’ lounge told me: ‘you’re one of us,’ and that made me feel at home.” (Elementary School teacher, 4th-6th grade)

“I admire the wonderful welcome I received as a new teacher! The staff really embraced me.” (1st grade teacher)

“The teachers’ lounge which I am part of is a **safe haven** where I receive **emotional response**, and learn from the experience of my seniors. I am privileged to be working in true cooperation, mutual stimulation and professional guidance.” (Middle School teacher)

The metaphors teachers use are often of enveloping, embrace, home, safe haven, all projecting a sense of warmth and safety, creating a feeling in these teachers of their value and importance.

Integrating in a “growing” school where many new teachers serve as a support group is a promoting factor in creating a positive experience. 5 novice teachers (22.7%), recalled an experience of cooperation and “togetherness,” which helped them experience the first year positively:

“There’s no feeling of judgment. We’re all in the same boat, we’re all new teachers and we have a common interest – to succeed, and help the school succeed and grow.” (3rd grade teacher in a "growing" school)

Age and experience which allow a realistic perspective: the study included 3 novice teachers (13.6%) who are in the internship student teacher year, although it is their second year teaching. The average age of these teachers is 40+. Their writing shows a realistic perspective, which shows neither over-enthusiasm nor over-distress. It appears that they have a more balanced view of reality than the younger novice teachers:

“I suppose my late starting point (age 38) contributed to my ability to adapt and not feel like an immigrant in the school. Since I had already worked with similar populations and taught at other schools, it was easier for me.” (Second Chance High School teacher).

The realistic perspective does not demonstrate a non-black-and-white view, based on the belief that there is not always an automatic match between the teacher and the school:

“If 40 percent of those teaching in neighborhoods where there is social or racial tension drop out after 4 years, it is not a negative factor in my opinion. Working in this environment can wear a person out and is not suitable for a significant part of the teaching population.” (another teacher in the same Second Chance High School)

The third teacher in this group teaches Mathematics in 5th-6th grade Elementary School and her writing expresses a realistic perspective of entering foreign territory: “I walked into the school with a clear expectation to face many difficulties, unlike the enthusiasm which appears in

the article as the first stage in teaching. I had no doubt I was entering foreign territory, an immigrant in a world I had no reference to....”

Positive attitude expressed in enthusiasm, curiosity, and great willingness for renewal: A small portion, four novice teachers (18%), reported a “sense of euphoria and success from the first moment and all throughout the year, with no ups and downs” (Elementary School Homeroom teacher). The texts show *great self and professional confidence*, a sense of *choosing the right profession*, and a *feeling of a natural flow of the act of teaching*. The most common phrasing found in the texts corresponds with the field of success, including expressions such as “excellent,” “fun,” “comfortable,” “amazing,” and “compliments.” Below are a few excerpts:

“After one week at work I felt I was in a place that was very natural for me, and I started working independently. Even the first parent-teacher meeting didn’t make me anxious... everything went well. I was among the first teachers to print the report cards....” (1st grade teacher)

The next excerpt highlights the pleasure in the excitement and the unique experience:

“Despite being tired towards the end of the year, I suddenly don’t want it to end. It went by too quickly. Next year I won’t be new anymore. There will be other ^{teachers} who will experience the thrill....” (Teacher and Homeroom teacher in Middle School)

It is worth mentioning that among two of the four teachers in this group, along with the enthusiasm expressed, there was a sense of **self-appropriating of successes**:

“Within the first two weeks at work I recognized a difficulty in two female students... because of *my sensitivity* one of them closed the gap rapidly, and because of *my alertness* the other one received a professional solution.” (Middle School Math teacher)

“I had a student who started with a failing grade... in the final exam he was first in class. I smiled to myself while checking his exam. *I got him to where he was*. It was his abilities, but I led him there.” (High School Literature teacher)

Factors Inhibiting Success

Gap between training and school reality: 14 novice teachers (63%), describe the great gaps between the training in the college, and the reality of the school. For example:

“Nothing prepared me for what I encountered in class: so many students with test accommodations, preparing exams and quizzes, the relationship with the parents, and especially with the school headmistress. During the training we dealt mostly with theories and passing knowledge, and much less with how to manage things in practice.” (Middle School Humanities teacher and Homeroom teacher for 7th grade)

Inhibitions to turn for assistance. 11 teachers (50%), reported feeling uncomfortable asking for assistance. For example:

“I admit I didn’t always feel comfortable asking for help. I was afraid to be perceived as unprofessional, or that, god forbid, they would think – why did we ever hire her?”

The same teacher goes on to demonstrate the absurdity of teachers encouraging their students to open up while they themselves avoid doing so in fear of failure. Another teacher expressed self-reproach for not asking for help: “I pretended to be ‘getting along’ instead of looking for comfort and reciprocity, and to unburden what was in my heart. In retrospect, I shouldn’t have done that. I paid a heavy price by hiding it all.” The other half of the novice teachers, 11 of them (50%), did feel comfortable asking for help.

Difficulty in setting role boundaries: 9 novice teachers (40%), admitted they have yet to formulate their educational worldview regarding the formal role of the teacher in light of student-teacher relationships:

“When a student is late for class, I punish them according to the rules I set, and then they start begging and making their case, I have to say I still remember myself as a student, and so I go easy on them sometimes, which of course hurts my classroom management.” (4th grade teacher and homeroom teacher)

Teachers’ lounge alienation. 7 novice teachers (31.8%), complained about lack of professional support from the staff and a feeling of being socially alienated. The following case is an extreme example:

“I felt a strong sense of alienation from all teachers all throughout the year. No one has ever thought of introducing theme to the others. No one talked to me, turned to me, asked to get to know me, or contacted me in any way. Even when I once asked for help laminating pages I got no help.” (Middle School teacher)

These excerpts show that this discontent appears in two discourses: the professional discourse and the social discourse. In the professional discourse, the novice teachers report a sense of unavailability on the part of their support system while ignoring their difficulties. The social discourse shows that they felt their existence was ignored altogether. The sensation one receives from these recounts appears to be that of redundancy and invisibility for being a new teacher in the system.

Desire to fit in the new culture (teachers’ lounge) while maintaining former approach. Teachers expressed their fear of giving up their educational doctrine in favor of that of the new system.

“The head teacher demands unification on every procedure, for example feedback comments must be given to pupils in written form, while I prefer phrasing my comments in a different manner, which doesn’t comply with the required approach. That definitely bothers me.” (High School teacher).

Research Question 1C

Do the novice teachers experience their entrance into teaching as if they were immigrants (in reference to Zabar Ben-Yehoshua's article, 2001)?

Sixteen novice teachers (73%), reported identifying with the comparison between the feeling of novice teachers and migrants as described by Tsabar Ben-Yehoshu'a (2001). The described a gap between dream and reality; rejection and alienation on behalf of the older "residents." They avoided turning for help so as not to be perceived as failing the process of socialization. They felt the need to adjust quickly with no 'grace period,' a sense of helplessness during the process of adjustment, foreignness and unfamiliarity with the norms, the laws, the rules and the language in the new school culture. In addition, they shared a feeling of marginality, and some of them shared the desire to maintain one's previous approach while wishing to integrate within the new culture (teachers' lounge).

Six novice teachers (27%) reported not feeling as migrants as novice teachers. 13.6% of them belong to the group which demonstrated **positive attitude expressed in enthusiasm, curiosity, and great willingness for self-renewal**. These teachers had a sense of euphoria in their first year of teaching and viewed the comparison of novice teachers to migrants as exaggerated and irrelevant. The rest of them belong to the group of **age/realistic perspective**.

Research Question 2

The journey as a process: Were there observable changes in the novice teachers' experiences throughout the year?

In her article, Tsabar Ben-Yehoshu'a (2001) lists three stages novice teachers go through during their year of internship: excitement (a sense of euphoria), crisis, and accepting reality. The present study identifies four different models that characterize the process teachers go through during their internship year:

1. A short lasting feeling of excitement at the start of teaching, followed by a crisis and acceptance towards the middle/end of the school year, in accordance with Tsabar Ben-Yehoshu'a (2001) (47.8% of participants).
2. A feeling of helplessness, fear and despair in the beginning of the year and a certain improvement later on (21.7%).
3. A realistic perspective at of the beginning of the year with no high expectations, and the same regarding difficulties along the way (13%).
4. A feeling of "a dream come true", a sense of euphoria and success from the start and all throughout the school year (17.3%).

Discussion

The study focused on the various aspects of the journey of first-year teachers as perceived by novice teachers, all graduates of Teacher Training Programs for Academics. This section will explain how the findings combine into a complete picture as well as the gaps between them.

Research Question 1

The findings of the present study show that all 22 novice teachers managed to address success stories and not only experiences of failure. This is interesting in light of the literature, which acknowledges the sense of “cultural shock” by novice teachers (e.g., Marshall, Fittinghoff, & Cheney, 1990; Sagee & Regev, 2002). We can assume that the reason for this is the more mature age, and the realistic perspective of the graduates of the program, which is different than normal tracks of B.Ed. studies. This assumption is congruent with another finding, which indicates that despite their difficulties as novice teachers, there were only two cases of expressions related to abandoning the profession due to the difficulties. This finding corresponds with the literature. For example, Feigin et al. (2015) found that 88% of the graduates of traditional programs for training academics for teaching in colleges persist in education more often than designated-accelerated programs.

The success promoting factors relate to environmental/professional and personal factors. Environmental factors: a gap between training and reality in the school (63%), a sense of alienation and lack of support in the teachers’ lounge (31.8%). Personal factors: difficulties in setting role boundaries (40%); difficulties turning for assistance (50%), which might relate to a personality factor expressed in difficulty in asking for help as well as a circumstantial factor that exists when the student teacher feels alienated and prefers not to ask for help.

The success hindering Factors are environmental and personal. Environmental factors include a school climate that supports personal and professional growth (40%) and a “growing” school that fosters novice teachers (22%). The personal factors include the fulfillment of a dream (54%), age-realistic perspective (13.6%), and a positive worldview (18%). In other words, it is possible to determine that the experiences that emphasize success and failure connect to personal factors and environmental-professional factors. The combination of personal and environmental-professional factors also appears in the literature. For example, Pritzker and Chen (2010) found that the first years of teaching display emotional flooding. Fantili and McDougal (2009) mention professional factors, such as the need to make fast decisions at any given moment, work conditions, or overload, and the significance of the student teacher’s personality and perception of a changing reality.

An analysis of the hindering and promoting factors shows that *school climate* and *support* are the most significant factors in the experience, for better or for worse. An open climate, which enables personal and professional growth agrees with the sense of success among 40% of the novice teachers, mostly among those teaching in a “growing” school (22%). In other words, 62% of the novice teachers found this to be a promoting factor for success. In contrast, a negative climate causes the teachers to avoid turning for help (50%) as well as a lack of support from the staff and a sense of alienation (31.8%). That is to say, almost 82% of the novice teachers relate school climate to personal failure.

Nasser-Abu Alhija et al. (2011) found that 78% of novice teachers tend to turn to their colleagues and rarely turn to school managers. In the present study, 50% of the novice teachers turned for help, while the other 50% avoided doing so, and those who did not claimed that the reason was their feeling of alienation in the teachers’ lounge. Extensive literature also supports the notion that teachers do not ask for help at any cost. For example, Inbar-First (2016) mentions 4 models explaining avoidance from turning for help, and Butler (2007) mentions that

teachers turn for help very often, but will not do so if they believe that it would make them appear as if they are failing to do their job.

The gap between the 73% of teachers who reported feeling like migrants and the fact that 100% of the novice teachers described experiences of success can be explained by the difference in the phrasing of the questions dealing with these issues (appendix 1): question 1A asked participant to “describe an incident of success and an incident of failure”, thus making a statement about experiencing moments of success, and only later on addressing the reasons for it (questions 1B). Nevertheless, the case study of Romano and Gibson (2006) showed a greater difficulty in recalling success stories than difficulties.

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 explored the perceived changes throughout the year, and found four models. The first one, of initial excitement – crisis – accepting reality (which included almost 48% of the novice teachers) matches the one in Tsabar Ben-Yehoshu’a (2001), which mostly focused on the development and variance in the beginning, middle, and end of the school year.

Model 2 differs from the first one in several ways: There is no beginning-of-the-year excitement, there is no disillusionment and acceptance of the new reality later on, but a “straight line” of despair and helplessness with a certain improvement later on, which accompanies the first year of teaching.

Models 3 and 4 have to do with two groups, which experience the year through a unique prism: one of perceiving reality as joyful and as a dream come true (model 4), and the other of a realistic and disillusioned perception of reality, with toned down expectations (model 3). It is possible that the age and maturity of the unique sample of graduates of the teacher training program for academics (“career changers”) can explain groups 3 and 4 as models of “edges,” having one of them at one edge of the scale – pure joy from teaching (section 4), and the other model showing a disillusioned perspective which lacks the emotional dimension, which in itself is an abnormal finding in light of the emotional flooding, which the study found with regard to the year of internship.

The overall picture is of a process that goes with hard feelings of disappointment and helplessness, yet at the same time, includes moments of success and satisfaction.

The Recommendations of the Study

The findings show that novice teachers feel like foreigners in the school culture and that 73% of the novice teachers compared themselves to migrants within the education system. Consequently, the conclusions are practical and relate to the shift from the teacher training field to the field of education and the socialization of teachers in school.

One conclusion of the study is to set **support groups for new teachers within the school**, led by a veteran, empathetic and experienced teacher, the job of which would be to accompany the new teachers in the system. This does not refer to the existing role of a mentor teacher, but to a guiding teacher who will lead the support group in a similar way as internship workshops do. The support groups will focus on sharing moments of success (strengths) and providing tools to acknowledge these moments and not to take them for granted. In this study the novice teachers

managed to recall many successful incidents, which can serve as a strong support in the many difficult moments.

In addition, *the role of the mentor facilitator teacher must be clearly (and perhaps differently) defined.* Despite much discussion in the literature regarding the role of the companion, Nasser-Abu Alhija et al. (2011) present worrisome data regarding the characteristics of mentor teachers and their performance. In the current study, none of the participants mentioned their own mentor teacher as a supportive and assisting character during their socialization process. It is possible that in many cases novice teachers perceive the mentor teachers as representing the school system, very likely since they observe the new teacher and evaluates him or her. Thus, beginning teachers avoid turning to them for help or with too many questions, so as not to present themselves as a failure (Inbar-First, 2016).

In light of the feeling of alienation of novice teachers, and a sense of marginality and estrangement in the system, the mentor teacher should act as a socialization agent whose job it is to liaise and build bridges between the school culture and the novice teacher.

The Contributions of the Study

The study sheds light on the process (journey) new teachers go through during their internship year. The diagnosis of the points of strength (experiences of success and promoting factors) and the points of difficulty (experiences of failure and hindering factors) helps in understanding the duality of the internship year: high motivation, the desire to express oneself and the fulfillment of a dream, versus the feeling of estrangement, the gap between training and reality, “cultural shock,” the difficulty in understanding the role and entering it, the identification with the feeling of migrants, and the environment, which in one third of the cases is not welcoming.

The second research question focused on analyzing the process the novice teachers go through throughout the year. The findings confirm the hypotheses regarding the model of initial enthusiasm – crisis – acceptance (about half of the teachers) as well as the fact that most novice teachers (73%) do have an experience similar to that of migrants.

The study emphasizes the uniqueness of teachers who graduate from the career-changing track with a sense of clarified mission, a strong desire to succeed, along with a more realistic and sometimes less emotional perspective. The study highlights the unique needs of the novice teachers, many of whom have experienced the job market before choosing career retraining. Although they acknowledge their abilities, they have difficulties adjusting rapidly to the school demand for immediate output, and encounter many difficulties in their first year of teaching. Mapping the success-promoting and success-hindering factors that came up in this study can help meet these unique needs.

Study Limitations and Further Research

The limitations of the present study derive mostly from the small sample size (22 novice teachers) who participated in a course and internship framework at an education college in central Israel. Further research should use a larger sample and include students from other education colleges from different locations and sectors around the country.

In addition, during the course, the novice teachers read the article of Tsabar Ben-Yehoshu'a (2001), which compares the experience of new teachers to that of migrants. It is possible that reading the article beforehand created dependency on terminology, criteria, and content that appear in the article, which, in turn, created a bias in the answers.

Since this study bears no comparison with novice teachers in the traditional B.Ed. tracks, it is impossible to conclude that the abovementioned characteristics are typical only for the population of academics who go through career retraining.

The study shows that the training system in the colleges must go through a perceptual change that views the academia and the field as one entity. To that end, further studies must deal with "the missing link" that will create this necessary bridge and will focus on a holistic view of teachers that includes emotional and social aspects of teaching.

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Appendix 1

Journal Log: Writing Instructions

Please describe the experiences of the journey you went through during your first year as a teacher. Write in a narrative form (not bullet-points).

Points of reference:

1. Moments in your journey:
 - a. Describe an incident of success and an incident of failure.
 - b. Why do you perceive this incident as success or failure?
 - c. Relate your personal journey to the article of Tzabar Ben Yehoshua (2001) regarding new teachers as migrants. Did you at any point in time feel like an immigrant? Explain while using terminology from the article.

2. Journey characteristics:
 - a. What characterizes the journey you went through during your first year of teaching? Refer to the journey by three points in time – beginning of the year, middle of the year and end of the year.

About the Author

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Discussion Questions

1. What do the interns perceive as success and failure in their first year of teaching?
2. What are the factors that promote or inhibit a positive experience during the first year of teaching?
3. Were there observable changes in the novice teachers' experiences throughout the first year?

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The Effect of Long Term Physical Training on the Development of Mental Toughness in Recreationally Active Participants

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Abstract

This study investigated the effect of a long-term training program on the development of mental toughness (MT). Thirty (2 female and 28 male) recreationally active participants (age: 33.53 ± 6.83 years; height: 177.41 ± 7.11 cm; weight: 78.40 ± 11.94 kg; maximal oxygen uptake (VO_{2max}): 47.00 ± 6.48 ml.kg⁻¹.min⁻¹; mean \pm SD) undertook 6 months of training prior to completing a long-distance triathlon. Participants completed mental toughness questionnaires (MTQ48) at 0, 2, 4, and 6 months of training and 1-month post-race. Data analysis included repeated measures ANOVAs for each MTQ48 variable with consideration to faster and slower finishers. Faster and slower finishers demonstrated non-significant differences ($p > 0.05$) on all MT criteria. Overall mental toughness (OMT) improved from baseline-post race (Cohen's $d = 0.52$; $p < 0.01$) and month 2 post race ($d = 0.39$; $p < 0.01$), commitment improving from baseline-post race ($d = 0.60$; $p < 0.05$) and confidence increasing from month 2 post race ($d = 0.39$; $p < 0.05$). The findings indicate that long term training culminating with competitive experience favourably impacts MT.

Keywords: mental toughness, physical training

Introduction

Long distance triathlon involves participation in three long distance events: swim, cycle, and run all involving set distances (i.e., a 3.8 kilometer (km) swim, a 180 km cycle, and a 42.2 km run). Due to the high demands placed upon the athlete, particularly regarding the long duration of the three events, psychological skills may facilitate an athlete's ability to cope with the adversities of training and competition. Mental toughness improves the ability to cope (Clough & Strycharczyk, 2012; Schaefer, Vella, & Allen, 2016) and thrive under pressure (Gucciardi, Hanton, Gordon, Mallett, & Temby, 2015). Clough and Strycharczyk (2011) define MT as the quality that determines how people deal with challenge, stressors, and pressure, irrespective of prevailing circumstances. Hardiness theory provided a theoretical framework for the development of the 4Cs model of MT (Kobasa, 1979). Clough, Earle, and Sewell (2002) adapted hardiness theory with the addition of confidence, creating the 4C's of MT (confidence, commitment, control, and challenge).

MT counteracts the negative effects of a coach's controlling interpersonal styles (Gucciardi, Stamatis, & Ntoumanis, 2017). Consequently, mentally tough individuals can identify controlling coach behaviour and experience negative emotions associated with non-supportive coaching styles (Crust, 2009; Nicholls, Morley, & Perry, 2016); however, they remain focussed and maintain control of their behaviour. This highlights that MT facilitates coping and thriving under pressure (Gucciardi et al., 2015) but does not explain direct associations with performance. Although evidence exists of MT predicting basketball performance (Newland, Newton, Finch, Harbke, & Podlog, 2013), difficulties exist in predicting performance in open-skilled and reactive environments. Therefore, further research should clarify the effect of MT on performance, particularly in novice competitors aiming to improve performance or individuals undertaking general physical activity.

In a military context, Smith, Wolfe-Clark, and Bryan (2016) demonstrated that self-confidence reduced suicide risk in United States Air Force security personnel. Additionally,

Newell and Rayner (2014) demonstrated that MT scores predicted final course grades in British Army recruits. MT and performance decreased when recruits received non-contingent punishment, indicating the need for leader support as well as exposure to a challenging environment (Crust & Clough, 2011). Thus, MT facilitates coping with pressure during the training and development of British Army recruits.

In a higher education context, MT predicted students passing the first year of a UK undergraduate degree (Crust, Earle, Perry, Earle, Clough, & Clough, 2014). In adolescents aged 11-16, MT improves educational attainment, attendance, and behaviour (St Clair-Thompson, Bugler, Robinson, Clough, McGeown & Perry, 2015). Additionally, MT predicted higher achieving first year undergraduate students (Hunt, Pollak, Stock, Usher, Lynam, & Cachia, 2014). Mentally tough female participants achieved higher module assessment scores. MT, therefore, improves educational attainment due to improving the ability to perform under pressure. The effect of MT on performance requires further research in the sport context due to the limited amount of empirical supporting evidence.

MT changes in response to psychological interventions (Bell, Hardy, & Beattie, 2013; Gucciardi, Gordon, & Dimmock, 2009a; Gucciardi, Gordon, & Dimmock, 2009b) and significant life events (Marchant, Polman Clough, Jackson & Levy, 2009). Bull, Shambrook, James, and Brooks (2005) proposed a model to guide sport psychologists who design interventions to improve athlete MT. These authors propose that MT improves during long term exposure to a challenging yet supportive environment.

Connaughton, Wadey, Hanton, and Jones (2008) identified that MT develops long-term and involves the motivational climate, key individuals from the athlete's sport, family and peers, intrinsic motivation to succeed, and sport specific and life experiences. This underlines that MT development requires a conducive environment and motivational climate, including appropriate levels of challenge and support.

Gucciardi, Gordon, and Dimmock (2009a) demonstrated that psychological skills training (PST) improved MT in 3 youth-aged (under 15 years old) Australian football teams over a 6-week time-period. Both MT specific PST and generic PST programmes resulted in similar improvements in MT subscales with no significant differences between the intervention groups ($p > 0.05$). MT did not change in the control group ($p > 0.05$) implying that the intervention had an impact upon MT. Therefore, PST results in measurable improvements in MT over a short time-period (6 weeks). Although PST improves MT, researchers need to clarify if MT develops in a challenging environment including manipulation of training demand (e.g., chronic training load increases).

This study aims to investigate how MT changes in recreational participants, during a longitudinal training programme, and to examine how MT affects race time. The authors hypothesise the following: (a) MT scores would increase over the course of the training programme in response to the increasing training load; and (b) faster finishers would have higher MT scores (i.e., Overall MT, Control, Confidence, Commitment, and Challenge) than slower finishers.

Method

Participant recruitment and Pre-Screening

A UK based Higher Education Institute granted ethical approval for this study. Following commercial advertisement, 30 participants volunteered for initial pre-screening (see Table 1 for demographic information). All participants completed a health screen questionnaire and provided consent from their General Practitioner for a longitudinal endurance training program. Participants demonstrated no evidence (including family history) of heart abnormalities, hypertensive conditions, coronary heart disease, or diabetes. Participants the researchers identified as recreationally active had no prior experience in long-distance triathlons. A standard incremental step protocol assessed cardio-respiratory fitness to confirm that they met the criteria for recreationally active. The authors define recreationally active as individuals training less than 4 times per week with a maximal oxygen uptake (VO_{2max}) of 30-50 $ml.kg^{-1}.min^{-1}$ for females and 35-55 $ml.kg^{-1}.min^{-1}$ for males, based on the broad ranges of individuals previously observed in the laboratory. The research team measured maximal oxygen uptake using a Computrainer ergometer system (RaceMate Inc., Seattle, USA) and standard road bike (Giant TCR, Giant, Radlett, Hertfordshire) in the Human Performance Laboratory.

Table 1
Baseline Demographic Data (mean \pm standard deviation)

	Faster finishers (n=15)	Slower finishers (n=15)	Total (n=30)
Age (years)	33.60 (6.12)	33.47 (7.69)	33.53 (6.83)
Height (cm)	179.02 (4.75)	175.80 (8.74)	177.41 (7.11)
Weight (kg)	80.11 (10.22)	76.69 (13.59)	78.40 (11.94)
Body fat percentage (%)	17.57 (5.96)	20.43 (5.55)	19.00 (5.84)
VO_{2max} ($ml.kg^{-1}.min^{-1}$)	49.47 (6.14)	44.53 (6.02)	47.00 (6.48)
Race time (mins)	700.27 (30.19)	865.20 (39.96)	782.73 (90.81)

Instrumentation

The MTQ48 measures MT on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from anchors *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. The questionnaire assesses MT and its subcomponents: confidence, commitment, control, and challenge (Clough et al., 2002). The MTQ48 has established factorial validity (Perry, Clough, Crust, Earle, & Nicholls, 2013), criterion-related validity (Clough et al., 2002) and construct validity (Horsburgh, Schermer, Veselka, & Vernon, 2009). Additionally, Horsburgh et al. (2009) demonstrated acceptable reliability, indicated by coefficient alphas ranging from 0.74 (challenge and control) to 0.92 (overall MT). The researchers used an Excel spreadsheet to collate all official race times from the race director of the event.

Procedure

Participants took part in an observational research study involving a 6-month training program in preparation for a long-distance triathlon. This event comprised a 3.8 km swim, 180 km cycle and 42.2 km run under International race regulations. An accredited sport and exercise physiologist prescribed a periodized training program focusing on swimming, cycling, and running as well as functional training (see Figure 1).

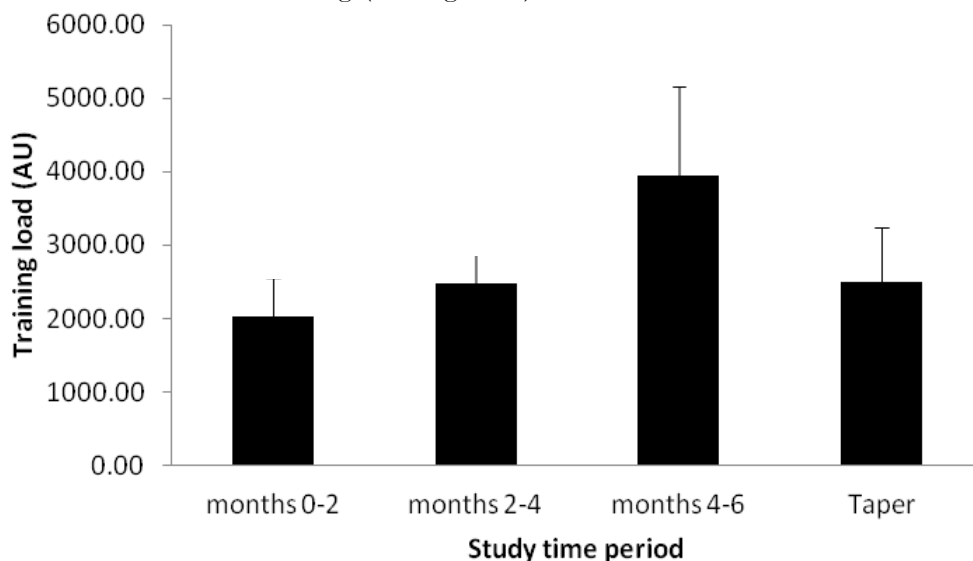


Figure 1. Participants’ mean training load. Error bars represent cohort standard deviation. *indicates significant difference from months 2-4 ($p < 0.05$) and 4-6 ($p < 0.01$) and taper ($p < 0.05$). **indicates significant difference from months 0-2 ($p < 0.01$) and 4-6 ($p < 0.01$). # indicates significant difference from months 0-2, 2-4, and taper ($p < 0.01$). \$ indicates significant difference from 0-2 months ($p < 0.05$) and months 4-6 ($p < 0.05$).

Participants completed a minimum of 80% of total training volume per week (see Table 2) with an assessment using a modified training load method (Foster et al., 2001). Participants detailed training type, modified rating of perceived exertion (RPEmod) and session duration (minutes), and weekly training load (arbitrary units) the researchers calculated as session duration they multiplied by RPEmod (Foster et al., 2001).

Table 2
Planned and Actual Training Load (mean \pm standard deviation)

	Planned training load (AU)	Actual training load (AU)	Percentage of planned training load completed (%)
Months 0-2	1789.38	2027.60 (522.32)	113.31
Months 2-4	2568.75	2475.73 (620.76)	96.38
Months 4-6	3277.50	3947.13 (1210.73)	120.43
Taper	2789.17	2492.92 (739.82)	89.38

Participants completed the MTQ48 online using a hyperlink embedded within e-mails sent to the whole cohort via an online application. Each participant completed the MTQ48 at 0, 2, 4, and 6 months of training and 1-month post-race. Participants completed the questionnaire within 48 hours. The researchers excluded outstanding or late submissions from the final analysis to standardize the procedure.

Data Analysis

The researchers assigned participants into one of two groups based on finishing time: (a) 15 of the fastest finishers and (b) 15 of the slowest finishers (for demographic information see Table 1). A mixed measures repeated ANOVA (using SPSS, Chicago, IL v.23) for Overall MT (OMT) assessed each of the MTQ48 sub-scales: challenge, commitment, control, and confidence. Each analysis included finish time (i.e., fastest and slowest) as the between-factor, and the temporal point of MTQ48 administration (i.e., 0, 2, 4, 6, and 1-month post-race) as within-factor. Bonferroni-adjusted pairwise comparisons assessed specific time differences. Additionally, confidence intervals (CI) and effect size coefficients (partial eta squared, Cohen's *d*) estimated effect magnitudes. Pearson's correlation coefficients and partial correlations controlling for $\text{VO}_{2\text{max}}$ compared race times and MTQ48 variables. Pearson's correlations also assessed the relationship between changes in MT and changes in training load. An alpha level of ≤ 0.05 ascertained statistical significance on all analyses.

Results

OMT scores revealed a significant main effect for time, $F_{(4, 112)} = 6.29, p < 0.01, \eta_p^2 = 0.18$ (see Figure 2). In general, OMT scores increased as time progressed, including one-month post-competition. Pairwise comparisons revealed significantly higher OMT post scores (mean \pm SD: 6.70 ± 1.73), compared to baseline scores (5.80 ± 1.71 , 95% CI [0.31, 1.50], $d = 0.52, p < 0.001$) and T2 scores (5.97 ± 2.03 , 95% CI [0.13, 1.33] $d = 0.39, p < 0.01$). Furthermore, OMT demonstrated no significant effects for group and group by time interaction.

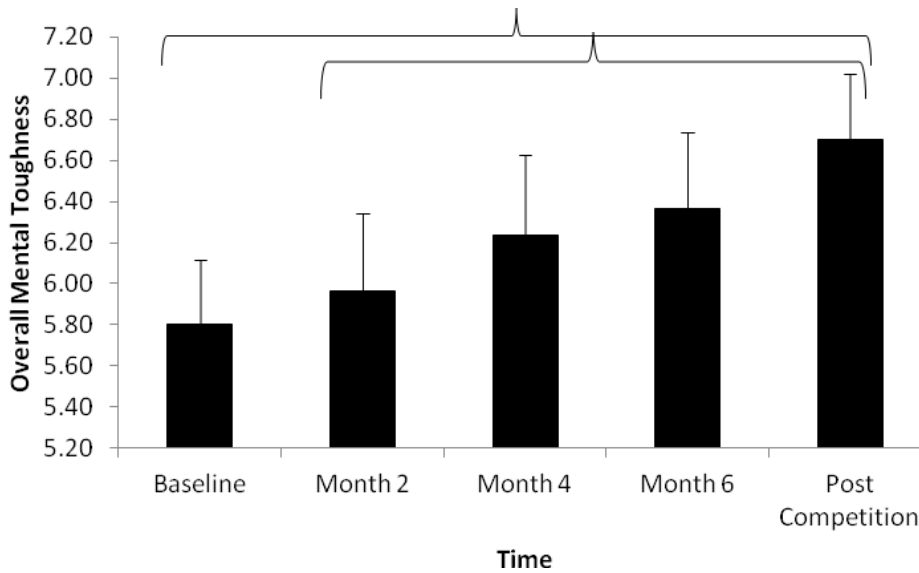


Figure 2. Assessment of mean overall mental toughness (OMT) across the training program (# denotes significant difference from month 2 to post-race 1 month: $p < 0.01$; * denotes significant difference from baseline to post-race 1 month: $p < 0.01$). Data presented as mean \pm SD.

The challenge sub-scale demonstrated significant main and interaction effects, for time, $F_{(4, 112)} = 2.23, p = 0.07, \eta_p^2 = 0.07$, group, $F_{(1, 28)} = 0.72, p = 0.41, \eta_p^2 = 0.03$ and the time by group interaction, $F_{(4, 112)} = 0.58, p = 0.68, \eta_p^2 = 0.02$. Thus, challenge sub-scale scores did not differ over time or between the fastest and slowest finishers. Furthermore, challenge demonstrated no significant effects for group and group by time interactions.

Commitment demonstrated a significant main effect for time, $F_{(4, 112)} = 6.29, p < 0.001, \eta_p^2 = 0.18$ (see Figure 3). Commitment scores (6.60 ± 1.47) significantly increased from baseline ($5.80 \pm 1.19, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.11, 1.49], d = 0.60, p < 0.05$) during follow-up pairwise comparisons.

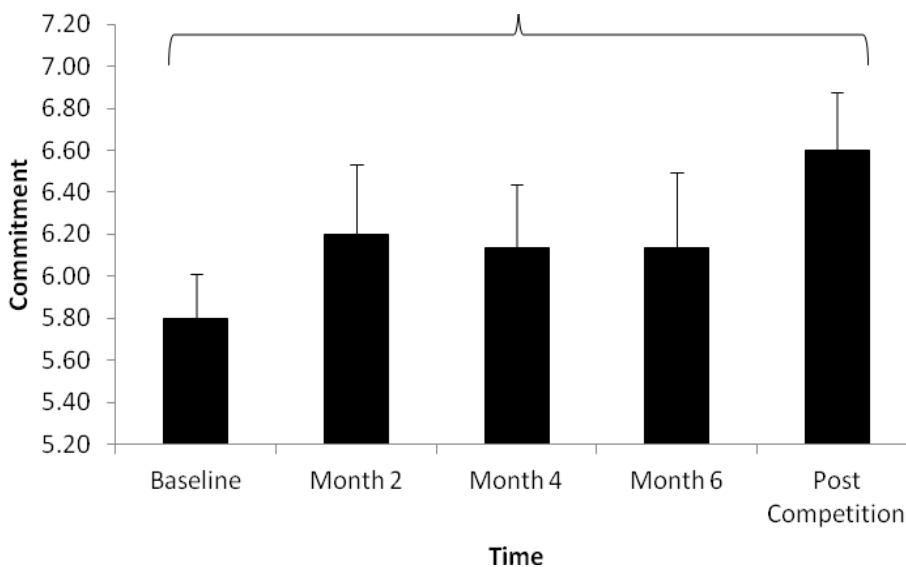


Figure 3. Assessment of mean commitment across the training period (* denotes significant difference from baseline to post-race 1 month: $p < 0.05$). Data presented as mean \pm SD.

Perceived control scores did not change among the MTQ48 administration times, $F_{(4, 112)} = 1.97, p = 0.11, \eta_p^2 = 0.07$, and between fast and slow finishers, $F_{(1, 28)} < 0.001, p = 1.00, \eta_p^2 < 0.001$. Additionally, no significant time by group interaction occurred, $F_{(4, 112)} = 0.25, p = 0.91, \eta_p^2 = 0.01$.

Confidence scores demonstrated a main effect, $F_{(4, 112)} = 4.30, p < 0.01, \eta_p^2 = 0.13$ (see Figure 4). Scores increased with time with differences becoming significant between post-race scores (6.27 ± 2.08) and month 2 scores (5.53 ± 2.19 , 95% CI [0.09, 1.38], $d = 0.39, p < 0.05$). Confidence scores of fastest and slowest finishers did not differ, $F_{(1, 28)} = 0.03, p = 0.86, \eta_p^2 < 0.01$. Additionally, no significant group by time interaction occurred, $F_{(4, 112)} = 1.00, p = 0.41, \eta_p^2 = 0.03$.

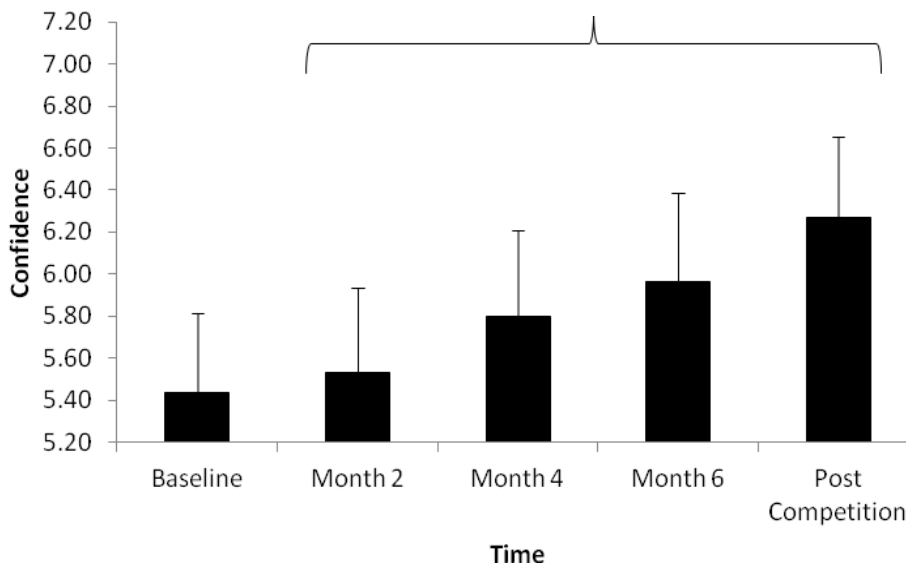


Figure 4. Assessment of mean confidence across the training programme (* denotes significant difference from month 2 to post-race 1 month: $p < 0.05$). Data presented as mean \pm SD.

Race time and VO_{2max} correlated negatively ($r = -0.42$, $p < 0.05$). No significant correlations occurred between MTQ48 variables and race time ($p > 0.05$). Additionally, race time and MTQ48 variables did not significantly correlate while controlling for VO_{2max} ($p > 0.05$). No significant correlations between the changes in MT and the changes in training load occurred ($p > 0.05$).

Discussion

This study aimed to investigate how MT changes during a challenging endurance training programme, and to compare MT between faster and slower finishers. The authors hypothesised the following: (a) MT scores would increase over the course of training in response to the increasing training load, and (b) Faster finishers would have higher MT scores (i.e., Overall MT, Control, Confidence, Commitment, and Challenge) than slower finishers.

MT Score Changes Over Time

Overall MT, confidence, and commitment significantly increased one-month post-race, compared to baseline (OMT, commitment) and month 2 (confidence, OMT). MT has modifiable characteristics that changes in commitment and confidence over the course of training demonstrate. These two characteristics increased 1-month post-race, implying that successful completion of the race caused these changes. Previous research demonstrates that MT can increase with PST (Gucciardi et al., 2009a). Additionally, research identifies that MT can improve in a challenging and supportive environment (Bull et al., 2005; Crust & Clough, 2011). Current results support these findings and confirm that MT improves when progressively increasing training load in preparation for an event.

Simons and Keeler (1993) proposed a model of sport commitment identifying five factors influencing commitment. These determinants include: sport enjoyment, involvement alternatives, personal investments, social constraints, and involvement opportunities. Long-distance triathlon may increase perceived enjoyment and competence, which positively affects motivation to persevere with an activity (Timo, Sami, Anthony, & Jarmo, 2016; Jaakkola, Yli-Piipari, Watt, & Liukkonen, 2016). Crust and Clough (2011) recommend reflection upon positive as well as negative experiences to shape and reinforce attributions for success and find solutions to poor performance. Further research should investigate whether reflective practice can reinforce commitment to training.

Commitment fluctuated at months 4 and 6 possibly because of a decrease in perceived enjoyment and satisfaction. This phase of the study corresponded with increases in training load (refer to Figure 4) and fatigue. Earle, Hockey, Earle, and Clough (2015) demonstrated that commitment predicted effort applied to a task and that effort applied caused the development of fatigue. Therefore, individuals with higher commitment to training may fatigue quickly due to applying more effort to training (Earle et al., 2015) and personal investments (financial, time, and effort) toward training may facilitate persistence (Simons & Keeler, 1993) until fatigue dissipates.

Confidence may have improved 1-month post-race due to successfully completing the race. Performance accomplishments improve confidence (Desharnais, Bouillon, & Godin, 1986; Feltz, Landers, & Raeder, 1979; Feltz & Mugno, 1983; McAuley, 1985; Weinberg, Yukelson, & Jackson, 1980) when an association with positive affect exists (Bang & Reio, 2017). Further research should explore individual experiences of long term training for a long distance triathlon race. Researchers should investigate further the impact of challenging competitive experiences on other areas of participants' lives. This should include the effect on educational attainment and business performance.

Relationship between MT and Race Time

MT did not differ between faster and slower finishers at any time during training and post-race. Therefore, MT does not affect race time in recreationally active participants with no previous experience of competing in a triathlon. Confounding factors may include the following: race inexperience causing variation in pacing strategies, physical preparedness, and environmental conditions during the long duration of the race (average race time \pm SD = 782.73 ± 90.81 minutes equivalent to 13 hours and 3 minutes). Significant negative correlations between VO_{2max} and race times ($r = -0.42$, $p < 0.05$) indicate that physical fitness influenced race time. Semi-partial correlations indicated that MT did not correlate with race time ($p > 0.05$). Thus, physical factors predict race time more accurately than MT in novice triathletes.

Based on the findings from the current article, MT has a supportive role to performance enhancement and indirectly affects performance. Specifically, MT influences coping mechanisms and the tendency to thrive in stressful situations.

Personal and situation-dependent factors affected race time. Individual participants attended with different strategies and varying degrees of preparedness. A small number of individuals attended the event location 1-week before the race and had time to mentally prepare themselves through self-prescribed visualisation and relaxation strategies. Other participants arrived within a few days of the event and did not have time to acclimatise and mentally prepare. Individual circumstances affected time of arrival proving difficult to standardise, highlighting the

complexities involved in mentally preparing for an international event. Future research should standardise travel arrangements necessitating participant attendance at the venue at least 1-week pre-race.

Contrary to predictions, MT did not differ between fast and slow finishers at any time point in the study. The small sample size may have increased the likelihood of type 2 errors. Descriptively, OMT and the sub-category (i.e., 4C's) scores at baseline in the faster finishers increased on all variables, while at post-race slower finishers scored higher (or equal) on all variables except for challenge. Thus, endurance training increased MT, especially for relatively lower performing triathletes. However, diminishing returns may cause slower finishers to demonstrate higher sensitivity to MT development. Therefore, researchers and practitioners should interpret these results with caution. Further research should further investigate these assumptions.

Newell and Rayner (2014) revealed that army recruits with higher MT improved performance more than individuals with lower MT when army trainers gave participants contingent and non-contingent punishment. Recruits perform in hostile environments and require tolerance of non-contingent punishment. MT decreased with the negating stimulus (non-punitive punishment). However, MT mediates the relationship between controlling coach behaviours and learning effectiveness (Gucciardi et al., 2017). Consequently, mentally tough individuals perform to a higher level of relative performance regardless of negative emotions experienced with controlling coach behaviour. Although mentally tough individuals thrive on pressure, non-punitive punishment decreases MT. Consequently, coaches should challenge athletes by progressively increasing the training demand while giving support and encouragement to promote reflection on positive and negative experiences.

Conclusion, Limitations, and Future Research

A major limitation of this study includes the self-report nature of the MTQ48 impeding clear distinction of mentally tough individuals (Adams et al., 2005; Motl, McAuley, & DiStefano, 2005). Self presentational bias may decrease the accuracy of questionnaire reports making it unclear how MT scores affect behaviour. Therefore, future research should examine the effect of changes in self-reported MT on behaviour.

In conclusion, MT improved post-race after a 6-month period of endurance training in previously recreationally active participants. Future research should examine the mechanisms (e.g., achievements, social factors) causing changes in MT. Practically, sport coaches should carefully structure a training plan to progressively challenge athletes with regular indications of success. Furthermore, reflecting on success and failure can encourage rational attributions. Although MT does not affect triathlon race times, MT may have a beneficial impact on athlete experiences including the ability to frame challenges as an opportunity.

This study demonstrated evidence of physical factors predicting race time more accurately than MT in novice triathletes. MT may contribute to race time in more experienced athletes with homogenous physiological abilities. MT seems a relevant concept for military training, education, and business due to increases in the ability to thrive under pressure.

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Discussion Questions

1. What are the possible mechanisms for changes in MT as a result of challenging stressors?
2. What are possible ways that training workload can affect commitment to training?
3. What are the practical considerations that may impact the relationship between MT and race times in triathletes?
4. Can practitioners build mental toughness training into a physical training programme for athletes?

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“Stairway”
Fiuggi, Italy
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by Scott Gillig

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Media Exposure of Sport Concussions

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Abstract

Pediatric research has suggested a concussion often resulted from a direct blow to an individual's upper region of the body causing abrupt force that eventually transmitted to the head. As a result of the seriousness in regard to sport-related incidents of head trauma, media coverage of concussions in football consistently increased from 1994 through 2013. During that same timeframe, popular sport leagues, recreational activities, and schools that offer football instituted various safety measures to protect participants. Even with those measures and the increased media coverage of concussions, the U.S. Center for Disease and Prevention reported that nearly four million concussions occurred annually with high school football accounting for a significant amount of those reported events. The purpose of this study was to determine if a relationship existed between the amount of coverage media give to concussions and participation rates for high school football over a 20-year period. A relationship did exist between increased

media attention on the topic of concussions and high school participation rates, but the findings produced a different outcome than what we originally proposed. Both participation rates and media coverage increased during the study's timeframe. Thus, it is reasonable to assume the public tended to discount and perhaps sought information that supported personal positions or attitudes that directly contradicted concussion related media reports.

Keywords: concussions, football, media, consumer behavior

Introduction

The U.S. Center for Disease Control and Prevention, which is the organization that aids in protecting the welfare of the U.S. public with respect to health, safety, and security threats, estimates that several million concussions occurred in sport-related and recreational activities annually (Langlois, Ruthland-Brown, & Wald, 2006). The report suggested the estimated number of concussions could be low because numerous head trauma injuries in sports have been unrecognizable and consequently no record of an injury. According to pediatric research, concussions often were the result of a direct blow to the upper region of the body (e.g., face, neck) causing precipitous force, which impacts the cranial region of the body (Noble & Hesdorffer, 2013). Other scientists suggested some common concussion features included short-lived neurologic impairments, severe functional disturbances, and the potential loss of consciousness (Meehan & Bachur, 2009).

The frequency of concussions occurring in contact and collision sports (e.g., hockey, football) continued to grow for participants at the professional ranks as well as at the youth sport level (Caron & Bloom, 2014; Halstead & Walter, 2010). A study that spanned from 1997 to 2007, examined visits to the emergency department for 8-to-13-year-old children with concussion symptoms in organized team sports, found that visits doubled and increased exponentially in the 14-to-19-year-old category (Bakhos, Lockhart, Myers, & Linakis, 2010). Legislation that protects young athletes and provides various guidelines to document concussion incidents continue to be problematic with a variety of inherent systemic flaws (Rivara et al., 2014). Researchers suggest change is necessary to the overall contact and collision sport culture to effectively transform concussion-reporting attitudes by increasing educational opportunities for coaches, participants, parents, and athletic training staffers.

The concussion issue in football garnered the attention of many high-ranking government officials, well-respected organizations, various influential entities, and the media. A summit at the White House that featured officials from the sport industry, researchers, parents, and athletes, and President Obama addressed the topic of concussions. The President acknowledged he potentially experienced concussion-like symptoms during his brief attempt at football as an adolescent (Diamond, 2014). The President revealed that the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) and the Pentagon combined resources (\$30 million) to study concussions in what he believed to be the most comprehensive research ever in the area of concussions and incidents of sport-related head trauma. Former National Football League (NFL) All-Pros and Hall of Famers reported on the unfortunate cognitive side effects they experienced from years of competitive football participation that ran the gamut from the inability to fully control their temperament to sleep deprivation to anxiety attacks to even more serious issues of suicidal thoughts (Weinbaum & Delsohn, 2014). The collateral damage of concussions in football led to

numerous lawsuits targeted at the NFL. In a U.S. District Court, the judge that presided over the case of retired professional football players approved a settlement for more than \$900 million the NFL must pay its former athletes over the next 65 years (Mihoces & Axon, 2015). The \$900 million settlement will assist with offsetting medical costs for NFL retirees and future league alumni.

Along with the NFL, the NCAA began a mediation process over its alleged negligence to properly institute formal minimum standards to protect student-athletes from concussions in football (Vaughan, 2014). Bella (2014) found NCAA member schools might not have fully reported incidents of concussions. One-third of the 126 Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) programs did not publicly report a concussion for the 2013-2014 season. An NFL-funded study contradicted the NCAA's information whereby leading medical experts determined collegiate football players experienced head trauma injuries "at a rate 6.3 concussions per 10,000 'athletic exposures' – each exposure representing a practice or game" (para. 2). To reduce the risk of incidents of head trauma and improve player safety in collegiate athletics, Riddell created a helmet for the 2014 season that was intended to guard against violent collisions and outfitted with sensors to monitor the possibility of a concussion occurring based on the impact of a hit (Watson, 2014).

The concussion issue also created concerns at other amateur levels as well. A study of high school football players discovered concussions were caused not only by a single blow but also the totality of blows that occurred over the course of a season (Breedlove et al., 2012). Moreover, the results indicated that while some of the subjects did not concuss during the two-year study, there was strong evidence to suggest repeated blows altered normal brain functionality over the course of a season. An estimated 300,000 concussions occurred each year in high schools across the country. Of those, football accounted for 40% to 47% of that total (Daneshvar, Nowinski, McKee, & Cantu, 2011; Marar, McIlvain, Fields, & Comstock, 2012). Farrey's (2013) investigative report revealed high school football players were twice as likely to experience head trauma injuries as were college players.

An ESPN investigative report by Fainaru and Fainaru-Wada (2013) revealed Pop Warner's numbers from 2010-2012 dropped nearly 10% as media coverage of concussions became more prominent. To determine if that same reduction occurred in high school football, the purpose of this pilot study was to determine if a relationship existed between media coverage of concussions and participation rates in high school football.

Literature Review

Media Frequency

Research has suggested the frequency of media coverage helped to create importance and salience with respect to a particular topic in the minds of consumers. McCombs and Shaw's (1972) seminal work that examined topical issues a North Carolina newspaper covered determined the amount of coverage extended to those topics became important to undecided voters. The researchers discovered the issues reported in media (e.g., foreign policy, civil rights) correlate with what voters deemed important in a presidential campaign. Thus, the scholars ascertain that the mass media have the power to tell consumers what to think about and how to think about information in the news (McCombs & Shaw, 1993).

Other researchers build on the work of McCombs and Shaw by examining how the media wields its power. Pedersen, Laucella, Kian, and Geurin (2017) suggest the quantity in which a topic garners attention in the media adds value to the content. The scholars also note that when an issue received frequent media coverage, the more likely it was the information resonated with consumers. According to a later study, the National Basketball Association (NBA) receives generous coverage in the media in and out of the season, which increases the value of the sport league in the minds of the public (Messner & Cooky, 2010). Frequent media coverage of sport topics often serves as a promotional opportunity for athletes, sport organizations, sport leagues, and sport news. Because many consumers consider the media as a third party, objective institution, the information they report on is then credible, reliable, and trustworthy (Stoldt, Dittmore, & Branvold, 2012). Thus, media have the power to influence and shape the public's perception.

Kane, LaVoi, and Fink (2013) suggest the way in which the mass media frequently cover a sport-related topic potentially has long-term effects on consumer behavior. Generally, consistent media coverage of a topical area in sport stimulates and helps to create or shape public perception (Cooky, Messner, & Hextrum, 2013). Furthermore, researchers reveal the mass media have the power to advance ideas by increasing coverage, which may translate into greater levels of societal importance on certain topics (Pedersen et al., 2007). Additionally, the more a topic receives coverage in the media, the more likely repeat exposure helps to shape how consumers feel, think, or recognize the media. While a myriad of studies examine the effects of infrequent mass media coverage in sport (Cooper, Eagleman, & Laucella, 2009; Eagleman, Pedersen, Wharton, 2009; Kane et al., 2013; Kian, Mondello, & Vincent, 2009) more information may provide a better understanding as to how frequent media reports on the issue of traumatic head injuries in sport impacts consumers. Because the national media are inclined to devote much of their attention to traditional contact sports such as U.S. football (Martin, Williams, Whisenant, & Dees, 2014), it is important to investigate how exposure to frequently reported content has influenced behavior with respect to sport-related incidents of head trauma.

Media Effects

Previous research examines audience effects and the outcome media messages have on consumers. Grunig and Grunig (2001) propose there were five outcomes associated with communication messages that include exposure, retention, cognition, attitude, and behavior. Exposure refers to when stories, promotional content, and other information garners media attention and the audience receives the message. Retention accounts for whether viewers or readers remember the message. Next, cognition explores consumer understanding of the message and if audience members gain new knowledge from the information. Subsequently, attitude was an assessment of how the public evaluates the message (e.g., favorably or unfavorably) and intends to act according to the information. Finally, behavior examines audience members' conduct to determine if audience behavior changes. According to Stoldt et al. (2012), exposure was the easiest media effect to achieve, while the other aforementioned effects were much more difficult to attain. The researchers suggest "successfully exposing an audience to a message is less difficult than securing retention, which is less difficult than gaining understanding, and so forth up the list" (p. 60). Furthermore, the scholars suggested behavioral change was the most difficult outcome to achieve.

Elaboration Likelihood Model

Research over the years helps to explain how the public engages information that they frequently encounter. The seminal work by Petty and Cacioppo (1986) provide a general framework on the processes involved in understanding the effects of communicated messages. Their Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) attempted to account for the various constructs, paradigms, and categories associated with the communications field. Two paths in which the ELM describes information are the central route and the peripheral route. According to Ellert, Schafmeister, Mueller, Dallwig, and Phelan (2014), when an individual had considered a communicated message carefully and thoughtfully, the ELM suggests the central route activates to assess the true merit of the communication. Through the central route, the public tends to sustain more information over time as a result of active consideration of the message. The peripheral route activates via simple cues and little to no cognitive evaluation takes place with respect to the communicated message (Flynn, Worden, Bunn, Connolly, & Dorwaldt, 2011). Thus, the peripheral route would less likely produce future behavior change due to the tangential thought process in which an individual receives the message.

The ELM model proposed various factors that aided in the influence of consumer elaboration with a particular message. The involvement in a case referred to the level a receiver was invested personally in a message. A result of that relationship tended to help predict the route activated to process information (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Yang, Hung, Sung, & Farn, 2006). Further, involvement aided in driving motivation. Thus, messages that personally resonate with recipients likely would motivate people to consider the content thoughtfully and carefully (O'Keefe, 2013). Previous research revealed consumers who were highly involved actively searched for information related to an issue and were inclined to ruminate on the information before rendering a final decision (Yang et al., 2006).

In addition to the level of involvement the public had with a particular message, ELM proposed message repetition played a role in the processing of communicated content (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). The model postulated that the proclivity of consumers was to give repeated messages earnest consideration in the analysis of consumed information. Previous research also discovered frequent exposure affords recipients the ability to increase their knowledge, overcome reservations and suspicions, and help shape an informed opinion of the information (Rethans, Swasy, & Marks, 1986). Frequency has a strong relationship with message awareness and effectiveness (Jeong, Sanders, & Zhao, 2011). Fernandes (2013) found that "message repetition is an effective tool to aid individuals' memory and learning" (p. 287). Frequency also helped to increase consumer knowledge and the understanding of various issues.

The purpose of this pilot study was to explore the relationship between media coverage and consumer behavior. Specifically, did a linear relationship exist between high school football participation rates and the amount of media coverage given to concussions?

Methodology

Data Collection

The researchers utilized a popular search engine to gather data for this scholarly inquiry, as it is the largest and most popular browser in the world. The data collection covers a 20-year period (i.e., 1994-2013). The respective year and the words 'concussion' and 'football' were a part of each singular Google search (i.e., year + concussion + football). For subsequent searches, the investigators made an adjustment only to the year. Each search yielded an approximate number of articles committed to the topic of concussions and football. From the results of the respective searches, we then compared them to the participation numbers for boys' high school football. The data for this study correspond with the National Federation of State High School Associations' (NFHS) annual report. We employed a Pearson Correlation coefficient to the data with an alpha of .05 for the analysis to determine if a linear relationship existed between the two variables.

Results

The data we collected for this study included the number of search results for each year (i.e., 1994-2013) and the number of high school boys who participated in football at the interscholastic level. The results indicate that a linear relationship did exist between the two variables ($R=.389$); however, it was not significant ($p=.09$). Both participation rates and media coverage of concussions continued to increase over the 20 years of data collection.

Discussion

The present pilot study examined the amount of mass media coverage (i.e., concussion) a topic received and its relationship to consumer behavior (i.e., high school football participation rates). The findings indicate that a positive relationship did exist between the amount of concussion coverage in the media and football participation rates at the high school level. Despite the coverage, high school football participation rates continued to increase during the examined timeframe of the study. Although media reports suggested youth football participation waned due to the decline in Pop Warner numbers over the last few years (Fainaru & Fainaru-Wada, 2013), the findings of the current study revealed different results for high school football. The researchers of this study had expected to see a decline in participation rates, as the number of media reports on concussions had increased during the timeframe of the investigation.

Therefore, we made several inferences from the results. Perhaps the media overstates the data from the popular youth football league, Pop Warner. We believe more time is necessary to evaluate how this might impact high school football in the future. The report included only a few years, and that may not be an adequate amount of time to predict the future of football at the high school ranks. Furthermore, the examined timeframe of the reports that suggested football participation was on the decline and may have a lasting effect at other levels could merely serve as outliers at this point. For example, in a recent NFHS report, football participation numbers for boys increased in 2013-2014 and girls the previous competition year of 2012-2013 (Sabedra, 2014).

It is also reasonable to conclude that education pertaining to sport-related head trauma has improved and thus helped to quell some of the safety concerns inherent in football. For instance, longstanding youth leagues such as the Police Athletic League (PAL), Catholic Youth Organization (CYO), and American Youth Football (AYF) have environments in which safety is a fundamental principle for participants, and official training to coaches and athletes is a requirement. Moreover, while frequency of media coverage tended to add value and importance to covered topics (Martin et al., 2014; Pedersen et al., 2007), perhaps more reporting needs to occur on the physical implications, permanent effects, and the potential consequences of concussions to have a lasting impact on football, which may ultimately lead to the modification of participation behavior.

The results supported the findings of previous research related to media effects in that exposure is the easiest effect to have on consumers, while changing behavior is the most difficult (Grunig & Gruning, 2001; Stoldt et al., 2012). Whether it is the radio, television, magazines, books, the Internet, or combinations of these, the public has an opportunity to engage messages through the mass media on a daily basis. The challenge then becomes getting consumers to remember, understand, generate positive (or negative) feelings, and finally change as a result of the message. Consequently, as the results suggested, the latter is very difficult to do. In this particular case, it is likely more arduous given the presence of football in the U.S.A. From the billion dollar media rights fees deals for football to the hours of programming committed to the sport annually to the NFHS' network that showcases high school games, U.S. culture embraces the sport of football. While previous research posited that the mass media attention on concussions has helped to alter the public's perception of football (Love & Solomon, 2014), it has yet to change consumer behavior effectively. Despite the increased reporting on the concerns related to the incidences of football concussions, participation rates appear to be rather promising in terms of football's future.

Although repetition aided in the development of how the public evaluated a message (Fernandes, 2013), it played no role in dissuading football participation at the high school level. It is possible consumers have contemplated the evidence in reports on concussions as media coverage on the topic of concussions in football continues to increase year to year. For instance, the report only included the years from 2010-2012 (Fainaru & Fainaru-Wada, 2013) and that may not be an adequate amount of time to predict the future of football at the high school ranks. The assertion of previous research revealed that messages tended to receive thoughtful and careful consideration when they personally resonated with the recipient (O'Keefe, 2013). It is possible consumers have contemplated the evidence in reports on concussions as media coverage on the topic of concussions football continues to increase year to year. However, it also is plausible to consider that many in the public may ignore or rely on examples to support their own personal positions or attitudes that contradict the information the media reports on with regard to concussions in football.

For instance, cognitive dissonance explained this ideology and suggested people pursue information that aligned with a particular attitude (Kwak & Kim, 2013). For instance, a myriad of reports advise against the use of tobacco based products. Nevertheless, many individuals consume cigarettes and can find various examples to comfort their decision to continue to use tobacco. In this case, it is reasonable to assume consumers can do the same with concussion information. Although research and reports have revealed the inherent injuries associated with football participation such as concussions, a number of examples exist to which participants can

refer to that reduce their cognitive dissonance on the issue – for example, media reports that focus on information consistent with consumer attitudes and beliefs such as enhanced safety measures, advances in equipment technology, and adjustments to the rules to create an improved football environment for participants. Additionally, when major college football programs fail to make public incidences of concussions (Bella, 2014), this unreported information may assist profoundly in the reduction of dissonance on the part of consumers.

Though the current study was exploratory, the implications of the findings provided more information on the frequency of media coverage and the impact it has on consumers. While repeated messages have proven to aid in memory and learning (Fernandes, 2013), repetitive communication does not necessarily change the behavior of media users. In fact, repeated messages might reinforce certain attitudes and beliefs depending on the content to which the public subscribes.

If more information in the mass media focuses on efforts to increase safety and very few reports surface about the catastrophic dangers of concussions, underreporting incidences of concussions may persuade fans to believe football is a safer sport. In addition, it would be irresponsible to not give strong consideration to the strength of football's brand in the country. Football still ranks as one of the top participation sports at the interscholastic level for boys (Whisenant, Forsyth, & Martin, 2014), and the popularity of the sport at the collegiate and professional ranks are stronger than ever. It is necessary to conduct more research in this area to expound upon the current exploratory inquiry.

Limitations and Future Research

There were a few limitations to the current study. The timeframe of the investigation included only the years 1994 to 2013. Therefore, the results are not generalizable beyond the examined 20-year period. Also, no inferences about the findings extend to other search engines, as Google was the only browser the researchers used in this study. Thus, more research is necessary to develop further the influence of the mass media on consumer behavior with respect to concussions in football. Surveying the media habits of parents with elementary school aged children could shed more light on the future of football in the country. An investigation of media use by current high school parents with or without football participants would help to fill a void in the literature. Finally, an examination of popular sport-based highlight shows and their coverage of football related content would serve to advance the current research.

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Discussion Questions

1. Does frequency of media message influence consumer behavior? If so, how? If not, why not?
2. What needs to happen in order for an individual to change her or his behavior in regard to concussions in U.S. football?
3. How have the media aided the continued success of football, even in the midst of traumatic head injuries controversy?
4. What do you speculate will happen to the sport of football moving forward?

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Academic Integrity in an Online Business Communication Environment

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Abstract

There is a growing increase of academic dishonesty, especially in online technology. A primary focus is to have students gain an awareness of academic integrity, which includes cheating, plagiarizing, or using deceptive online exam tools. The American University at the Center for Academic Integrity ("Academic Integrity," n.d.) categorizes academic integrity into five fundamental values including honesty, trust, fairness, respect, and responsibility. This study uses qualitative research questions by Hofstra University as open-ended blog questions for students to use critical thinking skills to express their opinions. The students' feedback in this sample indicates that overwhelmingly (97%) of the responses mentioned one or more of the precepts of academic integrity (honesty, trust, fairness, respect, and responsibility). This study employs a content analysis methodology using NVivo to analyze the data and interpret the findings into themes. The study validates that students are aware of academic integrity and what is morally appropriate.

Keywords: academic integrity, business communication, online

Academic Integrity in an Online Business Communication Environment

From public schools to universities, there has been a growing increase of academic dishonesty. Rapidly expanding technology makes it difficult to preserve academic integrity policies at most colleges and universities. As the recent experience at Harvard University demonstrates (Christakis & Christakis, 2012), maintaining academic integrity is a problem in the online classroom. Educational institutions are developing new instructional delivery models with online classes. Thus, distance learning in a digital age with virtual programs creates a need for faculty scrutiny of student responsibility to follow academic ethical principles. An online class offers enriched technology as well as mobility with which students can use smartphones, tablets, and other electronic devices easily. A principal focus for online classes is to make students more cognizant of academic integrity including cheating, online plagiarizing, and taking online exams with test banks or other unauthorized aids such as notes or textbooks. The American University at the Center for Academic Integrity ("Academic Integrity," n.d.) defines academic integrity as a commitment in the face of adversity to five fundamental values: (1) honesty, (2) trust, (3) fairness, (4) respect, and (5) responsibility. Every participant in a learning community of inquiry has an obligation to support practices that promote academic integrity, prevent dishonesty, and punish offenses when they occur.

Purpose

To inform and educate morals, academic dishonesty, and cheating, we developed an integrity action plan. Faculty and administrators need to be cognizant about academic integrity, versus dishonesty. The purpose of this study is to make online business communication students appreciate the importance of academic integrity by using a blog to identify meaningful answers to the following research questions:

1. What is academic integrity, and why is it important?
2. My professor has notified me that he/she thinks I cheated. What should I do? What can I expect?
3. A friend asked to see my paper; can I show it to him/her? Please explain.
4. How do you interpret academic dishonesty?
5. What is your knowledge of the university's academic integrity policy? ("Hofstra University's Honor Code," n.d.).

This study identifies the perceptions of academic integrity of online business communications students. Few studies have empirically examined the influence of academic integrity among business communication students. This research identifies if students perceive academic integrity with the same five fundamental values as the American University at the Center for Academic Integrity ("Academic Integrity," n.d.). The study also explores the themes among the responses. This study adds to the list of relevant variables as they relate to academic integrity. In addition, it extends convergent validity to academic integrity by assessing student perceptions to specific situations. The research also offers rich data on business communication student perception of academic integrity and academic dishonesty.

Review of Literature

Distance education can be a great option for many, but it poses questions on academic integrity outside the classroom environment. An online setting makes it difficult for instructors to track or verify dishonesty. The ability of educators to ensure academic integrity in their online courses is a major part of the discussion of effective online instructional design (Braun, 2008; Campbell, 2006; Grijalva, Nowell, & Kerkvliet, 2006; Wyatt, 2005).

There are innovations to assist students and professors when taking exams and quizzes such as secure monitoring via webcam. Various companies offer online proctoring management systems. Three similar companies are (1) Kryterion (www.onlineproctoring.com), (2) Proctor Free (www.proctorfree.com), and (3) Proctor U (www.proctoru.com). The online proctoring management systems offer almost any webcam to take recorded proctored evaluations. The proctoring software authenticates the student's identity using facial recognition and maintains continuously identified verification. This proctoring management system will track and record who may affect academic integrity.

Universities have tried to come up with different processes to keep students from cheating. According to the McCabe Academic Integrity Survey (2010), students reported that their instructors frequently discuss policies concerning plagiarism, group work, and the proper citation of written sources or internet sources. Proving academic dishonesty is difficult online, the primary reason being a lack of substantial evidence.

Dishonesty is a focal point for academic dishonesty. Cheating, according to the Western Michigan University website (<http://www.wmich.edu/it/news11academicintegrity>), is the intention to use or attempt to use unauthorized materials, information, notes, study aids, or other devices or materials in any academic exercise. Gary Pavela, Director of Academic Integrity at Syracuse University (<http://www.academicintegrity.org/ica/resources-4.php>), describes four stages of institutional development. Stage One is primitive, which describes a school with no policy or procedures and where there is a significant disparity in faculty and administrative functions of cheating. Stage Two describes the radar screen where cheating issues have increased because of an alleged weakness of academic integrity. Stage Three is mature, which has established academic integrity policies and known commonly maintained procedures. Finally, Stage Four is the "honor code," in which students take a major responsibility for implementing the academic integrity policy with public recognition. Institutions may learn what kinds of campus cultures can sustain academic integrity. The most critical part is to be an informed citizen with an awareness leading toward ethical behaviors and moral development.

Most universities include websites related to academic integrity. A sample of the contexts at four Pennsylvania higher education institutions comprises Carnegie Mellon University, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania State University, and the University of Pittsburgh.

Indiana University of Pennsylvania (<http://www.iup.edu/page.aspx?id=66725>) defines academic integrity as "...any issue occurring within a classroom, class-related activity, or class-related function" (Moreland, 2013). Several studies address the need to determine rules that will deter students from facing sanctions. Timothy Moreland, Provost and Vice President for Academic Affairs at Indiana University of Pennsylvania (2013), describes 12 types of violations based on academic integrity. The 12 types of violations include the following:

1. Providing or receiving unauthorized assistance in coursework;
2. Using unauthorized materials or devices;
3. Plagiarizing papers;
4. Using the same paper or work more than once without authorization;
5. Possessing course examination materials before the administration of the exam;
6. Intentionally evading IUP academic policies and procedures;
7. Falsifying information;
8. Attempting to use unauthorized computing accounts or other information;
9. Failing to comply with previously imposed sanctions for academic violations;
10. Disrupting the learning process as a threat to others;
11. Buying, selling, stealing, or engaging in an unauthorized exchange of, or improperly using, any assignments, papers, or projects; and finally,
12. A faculty member or administrator may bring up charges of academic integrity violations.

Carnegie Mellon University (http://www.cmu.edu/student-affairs/dean/acad_int/) states cheating takes place when a student engages in an unfair, disallowed, use of study materials on an exam, copying from a comrade on an examination, submitting falsified information, providing false statements to obtain extensions on assignments, and falsification of academic credentials.

Penn State's University Faculty Senate Policy 49-20 (<https://handbook.psu.edu/content/academic-integrity>) states academic integrity comprises a commitment by all members of the University community not to engage in or accept acts of falsification, misrepresentation or deception.

The University of Pittsburgh (<http://www.as.pitt.edu/fac/policies/academic-integrity>) includes student conduct, obligations, and adjudication. The four Pennsylvania related universities include the following: Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Carnegie Mellon University, Penn State University, and the University of Pittsburgh; all have similar academic integrity components. Thus, the most significant is to inform and educate students.

Methodology

Higher education can benefit when colleges and universities have standards of integrity that provide the foundation for a vibrant academic life and prepare students for responsible moral and ethical leaders thus, ongoing active communications with a student.

Students should be aware of academic integrity and reassure themselves through information about the importance and implications of dishonesty including ethical and moral processes.

The blog provided open-ended questions designed to prompt the student's thinking on academic integrity, cheating, academic dishonesty, and knowledge of the institution's academic policy. The blog asks respondents the following five questions:

1. What is academic integrity, and why is it important?
2. My professor has notified me that he/she thinks I cheated. What should I do? What can I expect?
3. A friend asked to see my paper; can I show it to him/her? Please explain.

4. How do you interpret academic dishonesty?
5. What is your knowledge of the university's academic integrity policy?

The qualitative research method used stems from the nature and context of the study. Researchers use qualitative methods to understand the context of the research matter regarding how and why it occurs (Cassell & Symon, 1994) and when the research phenomena are emergent, rather than prefigured (Creswell, 2003). These features are present in this study. This study employs a content analysis methodology to analyze the qualitative data and interpret the findings. This exploratory study provides an in-depth investigation to supply evidence of the students' perceptions of academic integrity and attempts to identify and conceptualize the relationship between the emerging themes grounded in the data.

One way to promote academic integrity for students is to introduce them to academic integrity in an online business communication class. The business communication population comprises 80 students enrolled in an online business communications course at a mid-size western Pennsylvania University. The sample consists of a voluntary group of 67 online business communication students responding to a series of five questions in a blog post referencing Hofstra University, Honor Code (n.d.). The response rate among all classes was slightly more than 83 percent.

Computer-aided content analysis is a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts to the contexts of their use (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 18). We used NVivo 11, a QSR software designed for non-numeric unstructured data (Bazeley, 2002) for data analysis that provides a streamlined structure for emerging themes.

Based on the guidelines by Miles and Huberman (1994), Pope, Ziebland, and Mays (2000), Creswell (2006) and Bazeley (2007), this study undergoes the following steps to analyze the data. We copied each participant's response to an individual document with a numbered label to keep the student's identity autonomy in preparation for importing into NVivo. Units of analysis were the responses to each of the five questions. Using NVivo, we coded each respondent's answer to the five questions by creating nodes, which indicate a collection of references to specific themes. The coding process was for not only summarizing segments of data but also grouping those summaries into a smaller number of themes or constructs. To facilitate the coding process, the study uses operational definitions. This process also was useful in identifying the relationship of the themes arising from the students' responses.

The initial coding was deductive in developing free nodes, which is useful when researchers are not sure about their research findings (themes). Then, we developed tree nodes, which have an organized structure, moving from the general category at the top (parent node) the research questions, towards more accurate categories (child node) and keywords to identify themes. The researchers coded the predetermined categories into tree nodes. Another researcher performed the second round of coding by carefully reviewing all responses and the categorizing of text sentences into emergent themes. The emergent themes formed the subcategory codes within each of the major categories. This approach helped to manage the data and eliminate unrelated data. Using selective coding, we specified the components of each subcategory including grouping quotations from the responses into each subcategory enabling us to use the participants' words as much as possible to maximize representation of participants' views.

The researchers completed the cross-case analysis after the comprehensive coding process. We compared the different points for each of the codes. Careful analysis of the coded

record helped to ensure that the domains derived accurately reflected participants' perceptions. We further explored the data to identify relationships within the data using the search option. This enabled an in-depth understanding of what each code statement and relationship meant and the exploration of complex ideas. We identified concepts as the lowest level with keywords. Categories represent a combination of these keywords or concepts. We used themes to describe an integrating, relational idea from the data (Richards, 2005).

The study presents themes and concepts visually using cognitive mapping including relational and spatial analyses to determine relevant semantic networks (Smith, 2003), clusters and knowledge structures of key concepts, themes, and contexts related to accountability research. The coding process helped to construct a coding model (see Figure 1) (Berg, 2004; Strauss & Corbin, 1998), serving as a tool for identifying and analyzing new themes arising from the blog entries. Similar to Samkin and Schneider (2008), we used hierarchical cluster analysis to combine words based on their similarity or co-occurrences. The researchers identified clusters in an ordinal and discrete way. NVivo provides coding for descriptions contained in each response, developing approximately 23 categories. The researchers reduced these categories into five broader categories through discussion and further analysis of each research question. The researchers generated summaries of each of the five broader categories from the data text retrieved at these nodes. We named the categories directly from a participant's words.

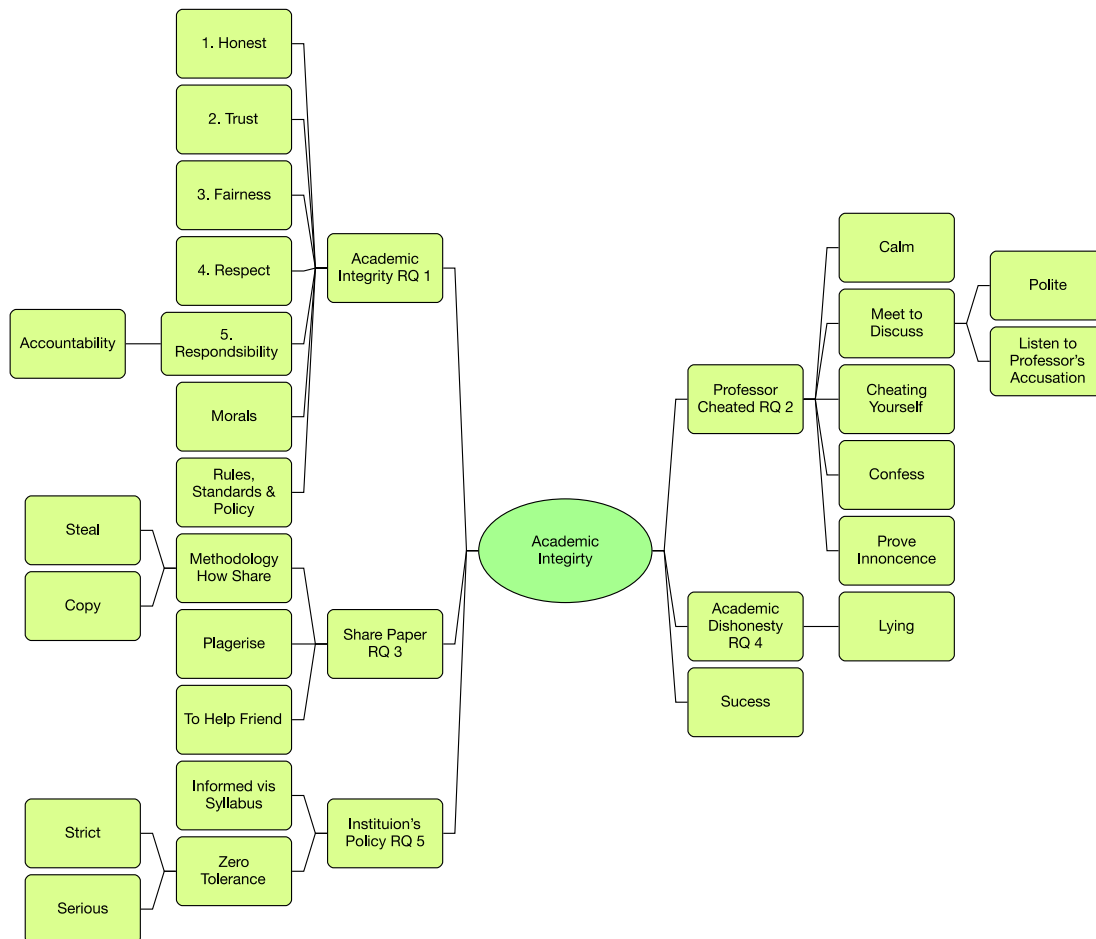


Figure 1. The Cognitive Mapping of Themes, Categories, and Key Words.
Source: Our elaboration.

Several checks were put in place to promote research trustworthiness, establishing “credibility,” “transferability,” “dependability,” and “confirmability” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). We promoted credibility through peer debriefing and reviewed coding by academics with qualitative research experience. This had the effect of forcing us to explain more thoroughly our findings, and especially the themes and patterns emerging from the responses. The manual analysis provides confirmation of the emergent themes and concepts. Two researchers independently performed an in-depth reading of text data at least two times, identifying the possible nodes to produce themes (Adams, 2002; Patton, 2002). We compared the core themes, with the cross-themes to reduce redundancy of the same factors across themes, which is essential for validity and reliability in qualitative data analysis. Table 1 lists the final themes.

Table 1
Emergent Themes from Qualitative Analysis

Concept	Category	Theme
Honesty Trust Fairness Respect Responsibility	5 Values	Academic Integrity (Q1)
Personally Meet Politely listen Explain Proof of Innocence Confess Calm	Discussion Topics Demeanor	Professor suspects you are Cheating (Q2)
Help Limited Sharing Fear of Copy Cheating, Plagiarize	Sharing Methods	Share work or paper (Q3)
Lying	Cheating	Academic Dishonesty (Q4)
Zero tolerance Strict Syllabus Serious	Awareness & Specific Knowledge	Institution’s Policy (Q5)
Success Cheating yourself	Code of Conduct	Standards & Policy

Results

Frequencies of codes or keywords provide an indication of the importance of that very element in the student's responses (Breton & Cote, 2006; McCabe, Trevino, & Butterfield, 2001). We developed a frequency scale to summarize the replies. Table 2 shows the results of the frequency scale. We calculated the scale based purely on the count of terms or concepts in the text responses to each of the questions. By structuring the response data into nodes, the following topics surfaced: cheating, integrity, policy, plagiarism, and honesty. Other categorical results that emerged from the responses included success, confessing, lying, strict policy, and knowledge learning. Given that our study concerns academic integrity, it is not surprising to observe that "academic integrity" is the foremost concept mentioned in the list.

Table 2
Words Frequency all Responses

Word	Count	Weighted Percentage
Academic	520	100.00%
Cheats	354	68.08%
Integrity	314	60.38%
Paper	245	47.12%
Works	224	43.08%
Professor	206	39.62%
Student	190	36.54%
Policy	177	34.04%
Friend	168	32.31%
Dishonesty	158	30.38%
Shows	154	29.62%
Important	142	27.31%
Thinks	121	23.27%
Expect	103	19.81%
Asked	90	17.31%
Explain	86	16.54%
Interpret	79	15.19%
Assignment	78	15.00%
Notified	77	14.81%
Plagiarism	76	14.62%
Taking	74	14.23%
Honest	71	13.65%

The student's blog responses indicated what constituted academic integrity. For this study, we identified the five values the International Center for Academic Integrity present as precepts. With regard to students' views of academic integrity, 65 respondents (97.0%) mentioned one or more of the precepts of academic integrity (honesty, fairness, respect,

responsibility, and trust). Table 3 displays the concepts in rank order according to the number of occurrences of that keyword in the student's responses. Of interest is the five concepts "honesty," "responsibility," respect," "fairness," and "trust" mentioned 90, 24, 17, 13, and 8, respectively.

Table 3
Words Related to Academic Integrity Characteristics

Word	Count
Honest	90
Responsibility	24
Respectful	17
Fairness	13
Trust	8

Academic Integrity

We gathered business communication students' perceptions about academic integrity as they related to honesty, trust, fairness, respect, and responsibility. Table 4 shows the results from the questions. All sixty-seven (67) respondents indicated honesty as a measure of academic integrity.

The core premise of academic integrity is intellectual honesty. This construct describes how students perceive academic integrity as a measure of good grades with 51 (76%) respondents agreeing with this premise. The student's response to question one suggests honesty is a fundamental component in maintaining academic integrity.

Cheating

McCabe, Trevino, and Butterfield (2001) researched ten years of cheating in academic institutions, finding that cheating was widespread. By presenting the students with question 2 to consider their professor accusing them of cheating, this study gathers information on student's attitude about cheating based on how they would respond to an accusation of cheating and what they consider cheating.

We present student responses in two scenarios, if the students were guilty of cheating and if not. Several students (35%) admitting guilt would meet personally with the professor to first gain an explanation of how the professor came to that conclusion. An abundance of not guilty students (90%) would meet the professor, and respond calmly and respectfully to the accusation. Additionally, 85% of the not guilty respondents would provide evidential proof to show they did not cheat. Most guilty students (78%) would discuss the circumstances honestly with the professor. Thirty-four (34) students did admit to confessing and being honest with the professor. Most guilty students (55%) would deal with the consequences of cheating, noting several consequences from earning a zero grade on the assignment, possibly failing the course, or expulsion from the university.

Contrary to Chapman, Davis, Toy, and Wright (2004), the findings from our study suggest that students believe cheating is morally wrong. In Chapman et al. (2004), findings show

cheating is acceptable because it reflects real world scenarios; we did not achieve the same results. In our study, 15 of the 67 students believed cheating is wrong and would diminish the student's success after college. While the findings from Chapman et al. (2004) reveal cheating is an easier way to get acceptable grades, our results show that students related not cheating to working hard, thus, supporting the notion that cheating is an easy way out of the hard work to earn higher grades. Students in our study related cheating to laziness and to lack of time or hard work.

Our findings support Chapman et al. (2004) in suggesting that students know what cheating is and believe cheating to be morally wrong. In our study, students identified situations as cheating and cheating as immoral in 309 instances.

Sharing of Work

Consistent with previous studies (Alien et al. 1998; Maramark & Maline 1993; McCabe & Trevino 1993, 1996; Nonis & Swift 1998, asking about dishonesty as it relates to given situations), we asked Question 3 in relation to student sharing of papers with friends. Several students (70%) would share their paper with a friend. A few students (17/67) agreed that sharing was acceptable for the main reason of helping their friend. Several students (54%) provided varied methods of sharing not allowing a picture or print copy. Only a few students provided an alternative technology method such as Google docs. As in Chapman et al. (2004), where students would help their friends get better grades or social interest cheating, our results support that students will help their friends by sharing their papers.

Academic Dishonesty

Academic dishonesty among college students is not a new phenomenon. Etiology for academic dishonesty probably stems from a variety of idiosyncratic, psychological, cognitive, and demographic variables (Chapman et al., 2004). Adding different measures of cheating within the same study adds validity and reliability to estimates of academic dishonesty (Allen et al. 1998). Therefore, we asked students to interpret academic dishonesty.

Previous research (McCabe & Trevino, 1995); Nonis & Swift (1998); Roig & Ballew (1994); Tom & Borin (1988)) suggests that business students have the highest incidence of academic dishonesty of any college major. The results show lying as the main definition of academic dishonesty, with 95% of students defining academic dishonesty as lying. An overwhelming majority of the students (60/67) interpreted academic dishonesty as cheating, plagiarizing, fabrication, bribery, sabotage, or deception.

Institution's Academic Integrity Policy

This study asked the last question to provide insights into the student's awareness of the academic policy and the relevant disciplinary actions. Some students (20%) mentioned the delivery of the academic policy in the syllabus and (30/67) in the professor dedicating class time discussing the institution's academic integrity policy. Surprisingly, only a few of the students (10%) were aware of the zero or no academic tolerance policy of the institution. Interestingly, 40

students knew the specific details of the types of violations or the specific disciplinary action steps.

Table 4
Perception, Knowledge, and Actions of Academic Integrity

Question 1. What is Academic Integrity and why is it important?

	Absolute Count of Cases	Percentage
Honesty as a measure of Academic Integrity	67	100%
Moral Code of Ethical Conduct	54	80%
Measure of Good Grades	51	76%
Individuality	40	60%
Honor Code	20	30%
Accountability	20	30%
Success for future employment	17	25%
University Reputation	3	5%

Question 2. My professor has notified me that he/she thinks I cheated. What should I do? What can I expect?

	Absolute Count of Cases	Percentage
<i>If Guilty</i>		
Discuss Circumstances with Professor honestly	52	78%
Deal with the Consequences (Zero, Fail the course, Expulsion)	37	55%
Confess, Apologize and assure professor never repeat	34	50%
Request a Meeting with Professor	23	35%
<i>If not Guilty</i>		
Respond calmly and respectfully to Professor	60	90%
Request a Meeting with Professor	60	90%
Prove with evidence did not cheat	57	85%

Question 3. A friend asked to see my paper. Can I show it to him/her? Please explain.

	Absolute Count of Cases	Percentage
Share paper with friend, but cannot copy	47	70%
Not allow copy, picture, take home or email	36	54%
Can show because they can provide valuable feedback on current work	36	36%
Show friend if moving in the wrong direction and provide an example to help	17	24%
Yes. Paper is a reference tool as are books or the internet	21	21%
If instructed not to show then would not do so, but if not would show the paper to a friend.	10	15%

Question 4. How do you interpret academic dishonesty?

	Absolute Count of Cases	Percentage
Being dishonest or lying	64	95%
Cheating, plagiarizing, fabrication, bribery, sabotage or deception	60	90%
Given an unfair advantage over others	17	25%
Pass work as your own that does not belong to you	13	20%
Disregarding University policies	3	5%

Question 5. What is your knowledge of the University academic integrity policy?

	Absolute Count of Cases	Percentage
Holding yourself up to the standards of the universities rules and regulations	54	80%
Range from failing a course to expulsion or recession of conferred degree	40	60%
Signing of an academic integrity Guarantee at the beginning of the semester	23	35%
University has a clear academic integrity policy stated in the very syllabus. There is a set process if anyone disobeys the zero-tolerance policy.	13	20%

University does not tolerate cheating or plagiarism of any sort.	11	16%
Failure to comply with the policy results in disciplinary action from failing the assignment to removal from the University		
Zero tolerance policy	7	10%
Forgiven once, but if repeatedly violated removed from institution	3	5%

Conclusions

This study contributes to prior research by investigating qualitative data in the form of student blog responses to the role of academic integrity. Our research results add to the list of previous factors of academic integrity and academic dishonesty. The study also demonstrates additional variables to address when measuring cheating, academic integrity, or academic honesty. Our exploratory research results were consistent with prior findings (Chapman et al., 2004) that indicate students are aware of cheating situations and what is morally correct. The study findings demonstrate the common themes in academic integrity definition as the same five prevalent concepts in their definition of academic integrity. The results suggest students are aware of academic integrity policies in their respective institutions. This study helps establish a baseline for future research on academic integrity and students' perception of academic integrity.

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Discussion Questions

1. What are the values related to academic integrity?
2. What are the main differences between academic integrity and academic dishonesty?
3. What are the main challenges in upholding academic integrity?

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“View from a Hotel Window”
Assisi, Italy
2017

by Scott Gillig

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Star Trek – Where No Genre Has Gone Before: Application of Mittell’s Television Genre Theory to the Star Trek Series

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Abstract

Jason Mittell’s television genre theories afford the opportunity to reexamine existing media texts, and dissect their cultural significance within any given period of airtime. The multiple Star Trek science fiction television series provide fertile ground for such examination, and yield numerous examples that directly support Mittell’s genre theory. The span of the Star Trek series (from the late 1960s to current day) reflects and comments upon social issues present during their corresponding airdates and offer renewed insights into the pressing societal problems of their day. From race relations, to feminist agendas, to post-Cold War terrorism and isolationism, the themes embedded in the future Star Trek foresaw are very much their audiences’ present. Through the lens of Mittell’s genre theory, Star Trek becomes a lustrous mirror, gifting television historians hours upon hours of science fiction television with a decided tilt toward social commentary.

Keywords: television, Star Trek, science fiction, genre theory, Jason Mittell

Perhaps no other television program has stirred the imagination of the world’s audiences like Paramount Communications’ *Star Trek*. First aired in September of 1966, *Star Trek: The Original Series* (TOS) established a storytelling universe that expanded to include *The Next Generation* (TNG) in 1987, *Deep Space Nine* (DS9) in 1993, *Voyager* in 1995, and a prequel, *Enterprise*, in 2001. Along with the television product, Paramount has released 13 feature films, and CBS will be launching *Star Trek: Discovery* in a streaming format, in 2017. While squarely situated within the science fiction genre, all the Star Trek series can be fruitful case studies to support Jason Mittell’s groundbreaking theories of television genre analysis. Dr. Mittell is a Professor of Film & Media Culture and American Studies at Middlebury College, in Vermont (USA). Mittell’s theory, which he developed in his 2004 book, *Genre and Television: From Cop Shows to Cartoons in American Culture*, proposes that “genres are cultural categories that surpass

the boundaries of media texts and operate within industry, audience, and cultural practices” (Mittell, 2001, para. 1).

The ongoing success of the Star Trek universe rests on the shows’ ability to tackle current sociological, political, and environmental issues within the framework of a spacefaring crew, thus giving credence to Mittell’s idea that “generic categories are intertextual and, hence, operate more broadly than within the bounded realm of a media text” (Mittel, 2004, p. 11). When examined through Mittell’s lens, the Star Trek series obliterate the bounded realm of television science fiction and become engaging commentary into the cultural framework of their respective airdates.

Gene Roddenberry initially conceived Star Trek (TOS) as a wagon train to the stars, with the USS Enterprise and its intrepid heroes encountering fantastical challenges every week, but from inception, found itself “instructively engaging the politics of the 1960s” (Bernardi, 1997, p. 61). Gene Roddenberry, Star Trek’s creator, quickly saw past the reiterative concept of Western genre-based adventure television, and beginning with the show’s first pilot, “The Cage,” used Star Trek as a showcase of progressive ideas and challenged the status quo. “The Cage” introduced a multiracial, multiplanetary crew, and in an inspired twist, a woman as First Officer. The concept of a woman in command was so shockingly unfamiliar to the leadership of NBC that the network scratched the entire first pilot and commissioned a second pilot episode sans woman First Officer. Interestingly, it was not just NBC’s leadership that had a problem with a woman possessing a “highly superior computerized and logical mind. When Roddenberry showed the pilot to a studio test audience of women, they asked, ‘Who does she think she is’” (Foster, 2011, p. 38). Most telling, “The Cage” did not feature the iconic Captain Kirk, who William Shatner played. It is easy to speculate that the ultra-virile macho character was a direct counter to and reversal of a woman serving as First Officer. Captain Kirk thus remained, but prominent on his bridge was Lieutenant Uhura, a Black woman who was technically fourth in the Enterprise’s command chain. The vision of an African-American woman in a command position on U.S. television in 1966 was totally foreign. Nichelle Nichols, who originally played Uhura, recalls that after the first season, she was thinking about returning to Broadway and leaving the show. Nichols did not herself understand the importance of her character until Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., approached her and told her, “Whether you like it or not, you have become a symbol. If you leave, they can replace you with a blonde haired white girl, and it will be like you were never there. What you’ve accomplished, for all of us, will only be real if you stay” (Ohlheiser, 2015, para. 6).

While scholars, particularly feminist scholars, have made much about subsequent oversimplification and objectification of women on TOS, in 1966,

it offered the American viewing public a fantasy vision of female astronauts very different from the only one offered by reality – the Soviet cosmonaut Valentina Tereshkova, whose appearance the American press characterized as mannish. Indeed, that Lieutenant Uhura, Nurse Chapel, and Yeoman Rand could function within these roles while retaining physical markers of femininity may have suggested to American audiences at the time that gender equality would be achieved by the twenty-third century. Within the contemporary mindset, to empower women meant to empower women in their femininity, not to turn them into masculinized females. (Vettel-Becker, 2014, p. 146)

While modern feminists may choose to attack TOS for its general portrayal of women, the series endeavored from its onset to provide as much equal footing for women as the misogynistic corporate leadership at NBC would allow. Mittell (2004) argues that “media scholarship is to understand the media, not in isolation, but as a component of social contexts and power relations” (p. 26), and in this case, NBC’s power over content effectively constricted the voice of the show’s writers. “Science fiction as represented in Star Trek, exhibited an ideal terrain on which to articulate possible changes in sexual-social relations” (Weinbaum, 1999, para. 19), and along with their early attempts at sexual equalization, the show also tackled the burning issue of race, head on.

Star Trek TOS’ failure to secure a substantial initial audience before cancellation after only three seasons might have been its eventual salvation. While not calling much attention to itself and languishing in abysmal television timeslots, the writers of the show were free to explore cultural issues of their times, chief amongst them, race relations in 1960s U.S. “The episode ‘Let That Be Your Last Battlefield,’ in which characters boarded the Enterprise wearing half-black and half-white make-up, reflected the growth of racial conflict and civil rights struggles dominating life in the 1960s. Writers of the episode utilized language of Supreme Court cases such as *Bouie v. Columbia* (1964) and *NAACP v Alabama* (1964)” (Weinbaum, 1999, para. 4) to advocate for race equality, and the discontinuation of segregation laws and practices weaved into the fabric of everyday life in the U.S. Star Trek TOS also broke ground by featuring the first interracial kiss on U.S. television, between Captain Kirk and Lieutenant Uhura (McKenzie, 2015). Knowing they were close to cancellation in 1968, the showrunners decided to include the then taboo kiss in the episode “Plato’s Stepchildren,” although they were fully expecting audience blowback, particularly in the southern United States (Nichols, 1994, p. 196). An Asian-American also featured prominently on the show. George Takei played Lieutenant Hikaru Sulu. In Mr. Takei’s television acting roles up to TOS, the industry continually cast him as the foreign antagonist. Star Trek TOS’ producer, Robert Justman, noted that Star Trek was amongst the first to portray an Asian character in a positive light, particularly when, in the 1960s, the echoes of World War II still rang throughout the United States. Justman described the character of Mr. Sulu as “the antithesis of the so-called expressionless, unemotional, inscrutable Asian” (Pillay, 2015, para. 15). Mr. Sulu was third in command of the Enterprise as well as an accomplished physicist.

Star Trek TOS’ original television run in the late 1960s ultimately was unsuccessful, but all three seasons, yielding 79 total episodes, laid the groundwork and canon for a vast universe of characters and stories. Viewers eventually rediscovered TOS, and it flourished during reruns in the 1970s, and by the early 1980s had created an army of devoted fans. Trekkies, or Trekkers – the moniker most people know, tended to come from all areas of life, but the show particularly inspired a generation of science researchers, space enthusiasts, and engineers. TOS’ cast featured in four motion pictures from 1979 to 1986, and 1987 held a huge surprise for Star Trek fans.

Star Trek: The Next Generation first aired in September of 1987, and although the sociopolitical climate of the 1980s was vastly different from that of the late 1960s, TNG continued and elevated Star Trek’s tradition of dealing with complicated societal issues. A new cast and crew dealt with race, identity, ethnicity, rape and consent, and bio politics, and even dove into the question of the fabric of being human.

The show's utopian rhetoric of the future and its representational practices with regard to race, gender, and sexuality invited audiences to participate in a shared sense of the future that constrains human agency and (re)produces the current cultural hegemony with regard to identity politics. (Ott & Aoki, 2001, para. 1)

Although Roddenberry's direction for TNG was surely utopian in nature, the writers found that engaging, dramatic storytelling came from only the one thing that tied audiences to the future: their shared humanity.

The very human issues TNG tackled on various episodes included questions of homosexuality and gender identification. "The Outcast," an episode aired during TNG's fifth season, introduced an androgynous race, the J'naii, illustrating a high degree of sexual ambiguity. Soren, a J'naii pilot, begins a relationship with the Enterprise's traditionally hetero First Officer, William Riker. Although the episode has received criticism for not being challenging enough of heteronormative conventions in the early 1990s, scholars definitely should salute TNG's attempt to highlight issues of sexual preference (Ott & Aoki, 2001). In a nod and an extension of TOS's first interracial kiss on U.S. television, TNG's episode "The Host" featured one of U.S. television's first lesbian kisses, when Dr. Beverly Crusher falls in love with a male who, due to traditions of his alien race, transitions into a female body. Although both previous examples frame homosexuality quite literally as alien, "Star Trek's consistent interest in the experience of difference is a means of allegorically representing queerness" (Jowett, 2011, para. 1).

TNG effectively and sensitively dealt with issues of rape on several episodes, but the sixth season's "Violations" is by far the standout. In the episode, a visiting alien exhibiting strong telepathic abilities violates the Enterprise's counselor, Deanna Troi, a telepathic empath. As such, Deanna's rape happens in her mind, although she is fully present and aware, and affected physically.

By making the rapes mental rather than literally physical, the episode emphasized that rape is a crime of violence rather than sexuality. The psychic rape also enables an exploration of the psychological cost of rape and how rape is used as a conscious process by which all men keep all women in a state of fear. (Roberts, 1999, para 1)

Interestingly, Commander Riker is also a victim in the episode. Although his psychic rape is not of a sexual nature, it reinforces the idea that rape is the manifestation of violence. "Having the science fiction setting enables a male character to experience what in our world is predominantly a female dilemma. This defamiliarization promotes the sympathetic identification of male viewers" (Roberts, 1999, para. 19). Sympathetic identification was Star Trek TNG's primary tool to educate and enlighten its audience, and comment on societal issues, particularly when dealing with controversial or unsavory topics. The starship Enterprise served as a microcosm for civilization, and by setting the stories in the future, the writers allowed enough separation for the audiences to deal with and discuss issues most television shows of the time habitually ignored. TNG ran for a full seven seasons, ending in 1994, and the television industry hailed it as one of the most successful television series of all time. But Star Trek: The Next Generation was only beginning to explore the final frontier.

Gene Roddenberry's death during the fourth season of TNG was a great loss for the Star Trek community. Roddenberry's vision had set the tone and purpose for the franchise, and he

always had been the final judge and arbiter on all things Star Trek. Gene's death, however, set the stage for a new creative wave that executive producer, Rick Berman, led. Along with a group of new writers, Berman spearheaded the launch of the next two Star Trek series. Running concurrently from 1993 until 2001, Star Trek: Deep Space 9 and Star Trek: Voyager redefined the Star Trek mythology for new fans, while basing their stories on very familiar ground, satisfying long-time fans. The first shot across tradition's bow came when CBS announced that an African-American would play the Captain on DS9, and a woman would subsequently captain the starship Voyager. DS9 also would be the first Star Trek series or film not to feature a moving starship, as it was based on a mostly static space station. Voyager's central premise revolved around the idea of being completely cut off from the known, as a wormhole hurled the ship across the galaxy into unexplored and hostile space. Both settings would be ideal to explore the themes of militarism, military occupation, genocide, the morality of torture, post-traumatic stress disorder, isolation, and spirituality.

On DS9, the station's Starfleet personnel served as peacekeepers, maintaining a fragile truce between Bajorans and their former occupiers, the Cardassians.

The tension between the Cardassians and the Bajorans evoked Middle East Israel/Palestine conflicts, but combined it with a Nazi-Germany Holocaust backstory. The Bajorans have only barely regained their sovereignty from a brutal Cardassian occupation. But instead of portraying the Bajorans as victims, the Deep Space Nine writers turned it around almost immediately by having elements of Bajoran society be just as militant in the persecution of Cardassians as the Cardassians had been to them. (Britt, 2012, para. 5)

Roddenberry eternally opposed the idea of Starfleet as a military organization, but circumstances on DS9 allowed Berman and the new writers to explore war-related themes.

The Star Trek universe has its roots in utopian ideals, but utopias aren't always the easiest things to maintain. Set in a galactic hotspot, Deep Space 9 was the series most eager to acknowledge realpolitik, moral ambiguity, the fact that not all problems can be wrapped up 44 minutes, and that the principles of the United Federation of Planets might not hold all the answers. (Handlen, 2009, para. 20)

The principles of the DS9 crew superseded even Starfleet's intelligence apparatus, Section 31. In "Extreme Measures," the crew infiltrated Section 31 and found out Starfleet was withholding a cure that might save its very powerful enemies from extinction via plague. Although Starfleet had barely won a years-long war, and suffered casualties in the millions, the DS9 crew moralized that by holding back the cure, it was, collectively, committing genocide. The crew chose to disobey orders and distributed the cure, nonetheless (Kapell, 2000). The crew's actions on DS9 underlined a recurring theme throughout the Star Trek series: Authority must be questioned, and every life form and race deserves to have its "humanity" respected.

DS9 and Star Trek Voyager expanded that "humanity" to include spiritualism and religion. This was truly groundbreaking, since

Roddenberry's statements strongly supported secular humanism, with the absence of the imposition of supernatural dogmas and doctrines while respecting personal beliefs, along

with the reliance on science and reason in the search for truths, which would lead to the eventual banishment of racism, superstition, conflict, and poverty, not only in Star Trek but also in the real world. (Grech, 2016, para. 4)

While not quite holding an atheist point of view, Roddenberry was reluctant to inject religious subjects into the earlier series, which he oversaw. In fact, as late as 1994, a study of representative prime time media content found religion “a rather invisible institution on fictional network television” (Skill, Robinson, Lyons, & Larson, 1994). Voyager put spirituality front and center, with the ship’s First Officer, Commander Chakotay, practicing the spiritual traditions of his Native American ancestors. Chakotay’s religious rituals became part of several stories and included vision quests, dream interpretations, and consultations with dead ancestors. Conversely, critics have hailed Commander Chakotay as the “sole popular example of a Native American character in science fiction” (Taylor, 2012, para. 16). Audiences could interpret the inclusion of spirituality on Voyager as a countering element to the rampant materialism and ostentatious displays of wealth on U.S. television throughout the 1980s. By the early 2000s, the Star Trek series had built a reputation as a perennial societal mirror, and although that mirror displayed a marked move toward spirituality, it unfortunately also reflected one of the U.S.’s greatest threats: terrorism.

The last Star Trek series to air to completion on U.S. television was Enterprise, which began its run September 26, 2001. Enterprise was quick to take on the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, as it introduced an alien race called the Xindi. Once again paralleling ongoing real-world events, Star Trek Enterprise devised a story of a devastating surprise attack on planet Earth by the Xindi and echoed the post 9/11 response by the U.S. armed forces.

Rather than have the starship Enterprise remain near Earth to protect it, Archer (the ship’s Captain) instead takes the battle to the Xindi homeland, just as the United States government took the war to Afghanistan in its global war on terrorism. The depiction of the Xindi homeland in many ways mirrored descriptions of Afghanistan as a mysterious and dangerous region home to hostile ethnic groups. (Putman, 2012, para. 3)

Star Trek Enterprise returned to the themes of terrorism and its effects on society when it explored xenophobia and anti-immigrant activists in the show’s last season. The episodes “Demons” and “Terra Prime” easily foreshadowed the themes of isolationism and anti-immigrant sentiment present in the 2016 U.S. presidential campaign.

Every Star Trek series launched since the show began in 1966 has built upon and reinforced the tradition of dealing with the present by examining comparable issues in a fictional future. CBS’ upcoming 2017 series, *Star Trek: Discovery*, promises to continue that trend, and a cursory look at cable news is enough to understand the possible depth and scope of exploratory storylines available to the next Star Trek permutation. Science fiction as a television genre was alive and well in 2016. Shows such as *Killjoys*, *The Expanse*, and *Colony* were clearly the descendants of Star Trek in the many ways they portray and resolve humanity’s many struggles. To go beyond the simplistic genre label of “science fiction,” Jason Mittell charges modern scholars to “explore the categorical operation of a genre if we want to understand the genre in cultural practice.” He stresses that “we must first understand how genres are formed and operate culturally” (Mittell, 2004, p. 11). Star Trek represents television science fiction’s shift from

simplistic space opera (for example, as Flash Gordon portrayed in 1954) to a rich, multifaceted examination of the human condition.

The Star Trek franchise will continue to challenge expectations of what television science fiction can be by redefining the envelope of relevant cultural storytelling and through the engagement of its audience members, inviting them to participate in a culturally significant dialogue of ideas. Participation in that dialogue produces individuals whom Star Trek inspires, motivates, and excites to forge a better future for humanity. Although the future Star Trek imagined has not been without fault or criticism, the series rests firmly on the hopes of a united human race, capable of dealing with internal and external conflict in a rational and compassionate manner. As humanity faces an uncertain future, Star Trek reminds all of us of what is possible, and slowly transforms science fiction into concrete reality. In doing so, Star Trek offers itself as tremendously fertile ground to continue advanced genre studies and as a palpable fountain of examples supporting Jason Mittell's genre theory.

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About the Author

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Discussion Questions

1. How would today's climate of sex and identity politics interpret the portrayals of race and sexuality in Star Trek, particularly in The Original Series?
2. Identify and discuss current television series that address societal issues in the pattern of the Star Trek series – that is, using alternate fictional worlds and timelines to discuss issues of the moment.
3. Gene Roddenberry imagined a utopian future with no war, strife, or poverty. Is such a world possible? Why or why not?

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Financial Aid and Organizational Structure: Student Affairs, Academic Affairs, or Administration?

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Abstract

This article is a summary of a literature review and qualitative study that analyzes the organizational structure of Financial Aid offices in the state university system of Florida. The article additionally analyzes the quality of the financial aid information presented to current and potential students of the institutions examined. To conduct the study, the author posed the following questions: (1) Where is the Financial Aid Office of this individual state institution organizationally located? (2) What is the quality of each state public university's Financial Aid mission statement (or lack thereof); website; Financial Aid forms; newsletters, or videos, or both; and social media platforms?

Even though the study represents the entire State of Florida university system, study findings are not representative of the state university system of the remainder 49 states in the United States. Research findings show that the most popular structure for the State University System in Florida, with four universities, is for Financial Aid to report to Enrollment Management and Services. The second most popular structure is to fall under Student Affairs, followed by Academic Affairs, Finance and Administration, Student Life, and Administration. Furthermore, the study found that the best websites, according to the author, are those of The University of Florida (UF), Florida Atlantic University (FAU), New College of Florida (NCF), and The University of South Florida (USF). In contrast, an example of a poor-quality website would be that of The University of North Florida (UNF).

Keywords: Financial aid, scholarships, Florida, state universities, organizational structure, student affairs, academic affairs, administration.

Introduction

This research seeks to examine the organizational structure of the 12 public universities in the State of Florida in relation to Financial Aid with the purpose of providing a baseline to use as reference for future studies in Florida and to expand the study to other states. This chapter

uses data from documents of each of the 12 state universities to observe where the Financial Aid Offices structurally fall. In addition, the author examines each state public university's Financial Aid mission statement (or lack thereof); website; Financial Aid forms; newsletters, or videos, or both; and social media platforms.

Organizational structure refers to the way that an organization arranges people and jobs to perform the organization's work and meet its goals ("Organizational structure," 2012). To describe the organizational structure of student Financial Aid Offices and portray the clarity of resources available to students of the State University System of Florida, the author collected and analyzed data from sources of evidence. The author selected a qualitative approach to focus on the structure, the availability, and user friendliness of services to students. The author carefully analyzed five documents to find the needed information: (1) mission statements; (2) websites; (3) forms; (4) newsletters, or videos, or both; and (5) social media platforms (see Appendix A).

In terms of internal validity, this research study relied on "how research findings match reality" (Merriam, 2009, p. 213). The unit of analysis and delimitation for the scope of this research was the State University System of Florida. Specifically, the sample included 12 universities. To validate this research, the author had direct access to the documents listed above. Frequently, researchers analyze documents in combination with other qualitative research methods as a means of triangulation—"the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon" (Denzin, 1970, p. 291).

The sample consisted of 12 universities. The author's interest in learning more about the State University System of Florida determined the selection of this target group (see Appendix B).

Methodology

The methodology for this study consists of qualitative research concerning an observation of five documents, including each institution's mission statement, its websites, Financial Aid forms, newsletters or videos, and social media platforms. The author studied a total of 12 institutions, the state institutions in the state of Florida. The author reviewed the same documents from each institution in order to provide consistency in the analysis.

This study analyzed each institution individually to determine where it fell in terms of organizational structure, and how easily accessible the office was to students and parents, based on ease of use of services and materials included on the website. Analyses (below) are by institution name in alphabetical order.

Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University (FAMU)

The Office of Financial Aid at FAMU falls under Student Affairs, which is under Administration (see Table 1). The mission of the Office of Financial Aid at FAMU is "to provide access to financial resources in a fair, sensitive and confidential manner; to inform and educate students and their families about their financial options; and, to continually improve our services so that students may take full advantage of their educational opportunities" (Office of Financial Aid Division of Student Affairs Mission Statement, 2017).

The Office of Financial Aid assists eligible students in meeting their educational expenses while attending FAMU. Grants, scholarships, student employment, and loans provide assistance

to eligible students. The Financial Aid website provides answers to many frequently asked questions. A student can contact the office if he or she does not find the information that he or she requires. The Financial Aid website is fairly simple to navigate. There is a link to the 2017-2018 forms. These forms are standard documents that one may need to complete the financial aid application process. If students have not submitted all the documents that Financial Aid requires, they may download the appropriate forms, complete them, and submit them to the Financial Aid Office via mail. Students must sign all documents with their name and ID number. The Office returns unsigned documents to the student.

FAMU also has a link to publications, including a newsletter publication. The date of the latest newsletter is Fall 2013. This issue contains information regarding changes for 2013-2014 to Bright Futures, Summer 2014 Financial Aid, Scholarship Help, Student Loan Updates for 2013-2014, Loan Counseling and MPN (which stands for Master Promissory Note), Pell Grant Eligibility, and OFA Mission Statement. The Office of Financial Aid at FAMU does not have any social media platforms.

Florida Atlantic University (FAU)

The Office of Student Financial Aid at FAU falls under Administration, specifically under Academic Affairs. The mission of the Office of Student Financial Aid is to offer a comprehensive financial aid program that attempts to meet the financial needs of all University students. This office utilizes aid programs from all sources for eligible students. In addition, the office uses these programs in ways to assist students in achieving a quality education by supporting their academic and vocational objectives.

The Financial Aid website for FAU is very visual and user-friendly. It has large iconic pictures for students to click on, including the following categories: Scholarships, Veterans, Dates and Deadlines, Frequently Asked Questions, Financial Aid Videos, Check Financial Aid Status, Disbursement Estimator, and StudentAid.Gov. The link to Forms brings up a user-friendly table of 2016-2017 and 2017-2018 forms, grouped by category, such as revision forms, verification forms, and appeal forms. Submission instructions are at the top of the page.

The Office of Student Financial Aid at FAU has neither a newsletter edition nor social media platforms. Instead, it has videos on a variety of topics (how to create an FSA ID, FAFSA and FSA ID tips for parents, responsible borrowing, etc.) that make the topic less intimidating to students and parents. Moreover, a brief video from Tracy Boulukos, Director of Student Financial Aid, portrays the website as user-friendly and easy to navigate. In her video, Mrs. Boulukos closes by saying the following: "We are here to help you and we hope to make this a pleasant experience for you" (Florida Atlantic University, 2017). These financial aid videos are magnificent resources for students and parents, ultimately serving as recruitment tools that demystify the entire financial aid application process.

Florida Gulf Coast University (FGCU)

The Financial Aid Office at FGCU falls under the Office of Student Affairs. This author was unable to find a mission statement for the FGCU Financial Aid Office. The mission for the Division of Student Affairs, under which the Financial Aid Office is located, states the following:

The Division of Student Affairs is a partner in achieving the academic mission of Florida Gulf Coast University. We accomplish this by enhancing our students' ability to learn and by promoting their development as productive members of the greater community.

We are dedicated to improving students' decision-making skills, facilitating their personal development, enhancing leadership development, promoting healthy lifestyles, and assisting in developing their sense of purpose.

Our leadership in these endeavors provides a vibrant campus life that increases student engagement in the University community and creates a culture of civility and care. Through our efforts, students will develop a lifelong affinity for the University. (Florida Gulf Coast University, 2017)

The FGCU website has much information, possibly so much that it becomes overbearing to visitors of the site. The information has sections for different types of visitors, including undergraduate students, graduate students, and parents. Under *Useful Links*, one can find links to online forms. These online forms are 2016-2017 verification forms and general forms. FGCU has a social media presence. In fact, FGCU is on Facebook (FGCU Financial Aid), Instagram (FGCUFinancialAid), and Twitter (@FGCUfinaid). The Financial Aid Office at FGCU, in contrast, does not issue a newsletter. However, it has six video tutorials readily available with step-by-step screenshots of how to use the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) data retrieval tool, for example.

Florida International University (FIU)

The Financial Aid Office at FIU falls under the OneStop Enrollment Services Office. OneStop Enrollment Services organizationally falls under Enrollment Management & Services. It provides centralized and efficient customer service through prompt, practical, and reliable information. Committed to the success of FIU's students, OneStop strives to provide individualized service that meets the needs of all students in an inviting and friendly environment. OneStop provides assistance with transcripts, enrollment verifications, adding and dropping courses, establishing residency, general financial aid questions, student case resolution, and any other enrollment related questions.

The Financial Aid Office website shows quick links on the left-hand side, such as financial aid guides, required forms, and cost of attendance. Once a student clicks on *Required Forms*, he or she finds a well-structured page with clickable links to a variety of forms, including applying for financial aid and e-forms. The site does not have a newsletter. Social media accounts are not pertinent to financial aid alone, but rather to the institution as a whole. The platforms FIU uses are Facebook (www.facebook.com/floridainternational), Twitter (twitter.com/fiu), LinkedIn (www.linkedin/company/florida-international-university), and Tumblr (fiu.tumblr.com).

Florida Polytechnic University (FPU)

The Office of Financial Aid at FPU falls under Student Affairs. The Office of Financial Aid at FPU is a student-centered department dedicated to assisting students and their families

with acquiring funds to pursue an education with FPU. The Office of Financial Aid also functions as a median for packaging, accepting, and disbursing financial aid to its students. The Office of Financial Aid is, furthermore, a source for educating students and families on financial aid so that they are prepared to deal with their finances while attending, and after they leave, FPU.

The website is very colorful. It has a wide variety of pictures, and it attracts a population that can navigate through a clear and simple-looking website. The focus of Florida Poly is core STEM, and the website's design keeps the next generation of technology leaders in mind. FPU does not have financial aid forms or newsletters on its website. Social media sites are university accounts, not financial aid ones. FPU is on Facebook (www.facebook.com/FLPolyU), Twitter (www.twitter.com/FLPolyU), LinkedIn (www.linkedin.com/company/florida-polytechnic-university), YouTube (www.youtube.com/user/flpolyu), and Instagram (www.instagram.com/flpoly).

Florida State University (FSU)

The Office of Financial Aid at FSU falls under the Division of Academic Affairs. The author did not find a mission statement for the Office of Financial Aid on FSU's website.

The Office of Financial Aid website at FSU includes Prospective Noles,¹ New Noles, and Current Noles. The Forms link under Site Navigation displays forms by type: Loan Forms, Scholarship Forms, Special Circumstance, Transient Forms, and Verification Forms. This website also includes information regarding how to submit documents.

The Office of Financial Aid at FSU does not publish a newsletter. It does not have any explanatory topic-related videos either. On social media <https://www.fsu.edu/socialmedia/>, FSU is on Facebook (<https://www.facebook.com/Florida-State-University-Office-of-Financial-Aid-623192461148137/>), Google+ (<https://plus.google.com/>), LinkedIn (<https://www.linkedin.com/edu/school?id=18100>), Twitter (<https://twitter.com/floridastate>), and Instagram (<https://www.instagram.com/floridastateuniversity/>). The Office of Financial Aid, however, has no social media accounts as a unit.

New College of Florida (NCF)

The Financial Aid Office of NCF falls under Finance and Administration. The Office of the Vice President for Finance and Administration is committed to enhancing the academic effectiveness of NCF by ensuring the financial and administrative wellbeing of the College. Each of the offices within Finance and Administration is dedicated to delivering quality support services to meet the needs of the College's students, faculty, staff, and visitors.

The Financial Aid website for NCF focuses on data. It starts by stating that 90 percent of students receive financial assistance. It includes the rankings for the school. NCF ranks number four among all public liberal arts colleges in *U.S. News & World Report's* annual ranking of the Best National Liberal Arts Colleges for 2016. Moreover, it focuses on information that serves to brand the institution as one where students will be getting a worthy degree. As such, NCF is

¹ Students who attend Florida State University are called Noles, deriving from the Seminoles football team.

ranked as one of *The Princeton Review's* "Top 50 Colleges That Pay You Back" noting the "impressive outcomes" from NCF's strong advising system and alumni(ae) network, as evidenced by the 64 Fulbright Scholarships that have been awarded to NCF students since 2005.

NCF ranked 14th in Kiplinger's "100 Best Values in Public Colleges" for 2016, and was ranked 1st among small public colleges, and 6th among public colleges for lowest total debt at graduation. NCF ranked 15th in Forbes Magazine's (2015) list of "Best Value" colleges, ones that "deliver the goods without picking your pocket." The rest of the website provides basic financial aid information to visitors. It does not include a link to financial aid forms. Staff members provide their location, office hours, and ways to get in contact through phone or e-mail. Finally, NCF gets social on Instagram (newcollegeoffl), Facebook (@newcollegeofflorida), Twitter (@NewCollegeofFL), YouTube (New College of Florida), Tumblr (newcollegefl.tumblr.com), and LinkedIn (New College of Florida).

University of Central Florida (UCF)

The Office of Student Financial Assistance at UCF falls under Student Life, which is in the Division of Student Affairs. The Office of Student Financial Assistance at UCF does not have a mission statement, at least not visibly on its website. Instead, it has some general information regarding the average response time of two business days from the professional staff to inquiries, its e-mail address, and advice to students to include their name and UCFID/PID (University of Central Florida ID/Personal ID) on every e-mail.

The website for the Office of Student Financial Assistance at UCF is clear, user-friendly, and informative. It displays rotating pictures in a banner at the top of the page, with various categories underneath including Award Notification for 2017-2018, Summer 2017 Financial Aid, Early FAFSA for 2017-2018, and others. The *Financial Aid Forms* page shows forms by date and guidelines for submitting forms. The *Document & File Upload* link offers students the convenience of uploading documents to the office for review and processing in a safe and secure manner.

UCF does not publish a Financial Aid newsletter. However, it is visible on social media by using a variety of social media platforms including Facebook (www.facebook.com/UCF), Twitter (twitter.com/UCF), Google+ (<https://plus.google.com/+UCF/>), LinkedIn (<https://www.linkedin.com/edu/university-of-central-florida-18118>), and YouTube (<https://www.youtube.com/user/UCF>).

University of Florida (UF)

The Office for Student Financial Affairs (SFA) at UF falls under the Division of Enrollment Management. It does not have a mission statement. The website is very bright, following the blue and orange colors of the university, and easy to navigate. The information is broken down by prospective students, important dates and deadlines, and UF net price calculator. There is a visible link to the forms page. The Forms page is long, as it includes Administrator Forms, Appeals and Petitions, General SFA Forms, Loan Forms, Scholarship/Grant Applications, Student Employment, Verification Forms, and Alternative Formats. Each of these sections has additional links underneath, which could be somewhat overwhelming for a student.

UF has a Publications page with Financial Aid newsletters. The latest edition is Spring 2016-17. *Financial Aid for Gators* is the name of the newsletter. It is a five-page document with useful information for students (see Appendix C). It also includes how to connect with SFA on social media platforms – YouTube (<https://www.youtube.com/user/UFSFA>), Facebook (<https://www.facebook.com/UFSFA>), Twitter (<https://twitter.com/UFSFA>), and Instagram (<https://www.instagram.com/ufsfa/>).

UF additionally highlights five videos on its page – and encourages visitors to access the SFA YouTube channel for its complete video library. The first three videos are on informative topics such as applying for Financial Aid, while the last two are real stories on Ruth and Kevin. The author found these storytelling videos a bright idea and technique to recruit future UF students, since the videos show future students how they can overcome barriers they may find along the way to their education and that UF is there to support them. Ruth is a Latina from Chicago who had a tough childhood. In her video, she mentions all the help she received from Financial Affairs. A junior majoring in Mechanical Engineering, Ruth would not have made it thus far without the help she received from the Financial Affairs team at UF. Kevin, in contrast, grew up in a Haitian American household. Both his parents are college graduates, and he belongs to a big family of four siblings. Without financial aid, he would not have been able to attend UF. He advises future Gators not to be afraid to share their stories with UF's Financial Aid Officers, who are there to help students.

University of North Florida (UNF)

The Financial Aid Office at UNF falls under Enrollment Services, and more specifically under One-Stop Student Services (see Appendix D). One-Stop Student Services staff are cross-trained professionals. The Office provides a single point of communication for issues ranging from admissions, academic records, registration, and financial aid.

UNF's Financial Aid website uses a font size that is not very user-friendly. It is small and difficult to read. The website has the following sections: (1) Early FAFSA for 2017-2018, (2) Need Aid?, (3) Understanding your Award, (4) Where do I go with questions about my account?, (5) Important Financial Aid Deadlines and Dates, and (6) Special or Unusual Circumstances. The *Financial Aid Forms* page is well built, with the forms categorized by type (i.e., verification documents), and downloadable by clicking a download button, which keeps the page neat and clean.

UNF does not issue a newsletter publication. However, One-Stop Student Services appears on a couple of social media platforms, specifically on Facebook (www.facebook.com/pages/UNF-One-Stop/145737972111526) and Twitter (https://twitter.com/#!/unf_one_stop).

University of South Florida (USF)

USF's Office of Scholarships and Financial Aid (USFOSFA) falls under Administration. USF's Office of Scholarships and Financial Aid (USFOSFA) has no mission statement.

The University Scholarships & Financial Aid Services website is colorful, simple to use and with minimal information, characteristics that probably make the site attractive to millennials. Under Forms, there are three options to choose from: Overview, 2016-17 Forms, and 2017-18

Forms. This author finds the forms' presentation approachable to students, since they are in alphabetical order (Asset Verification under A, Bright Futures under B, all the way through V with Victims of Identity Theft Statement). This may seem like a simple idea; however, none of the previous State Universities examined in this article alphabetize their forms.

USF's newsletter title is *Financial Aid Bulletin Summer 2017*. The actual newsletter is a page on the website itself. It includes information about summer awards, financial aid for study abroad, checking student's SAP (Satisfactory Academic Progress) status, and others. USF has a page with *How-To Videos*. However, when the author clicked on one of the videos, nothing played. This might be a broken link, which defeats the purpose of the video helping the student or potential student as to how to do something.

University of West Florida (UWF)

The Financial Aid Office of UWF falls under Enrollment Affairs. The Financial Services office is an active partner in fulfilling UWF's mission of instruction, research, and public service, by planning, developing, and providing professional accounting services and related financial support to administration, students, faculty, and staff.

The Financial Aid Office website is easy to navigate. It has a big graduation picture at the very top, and a welcome message from the Director of Financial Aid, Ms. Shana Gore. The left-hand side menu includes links to Applying for Aid, Types of Aid, Satisfactory Academic Progress, General Information, Cost of Attendance, Payment Plan, Forms, and Contact Us. Under forms, only one link appears for 2017-2018 Financial Aid Forms. Through that link, one can complete and submit forms online, access Financial Aid Forms, and review additional Financial Aid Forms.

The Financial Aid website for UWF has neither newsletters nor videos. The university has a social media presence with Facebook (<https://facebook.com/WestFL>), Twitter (<https://twitter.com/UWF>), Instagram (<https://instagram.com/uwf>), and YouTube (<https://www.youtube.com/user/uwf>) accounts.

Results

Research findings show that the most popular structure for the State University System in Florida, with four universities, is for Financial Aid to report to Enrollment Management and Services. The second most popular structure is to fall under Student Affairs, with three universities reporting to that area of the university. Third, for two universities, Financial Aid reported to Academic Affairs. There is a triple tie with fourth place in terms of the structure with Finance and Administration, Student Life, and Administration. The author could group Finance and Administration with Administration and make that structure the fourth most popular one, but chose to leave them separately due to the difference in their names (Finance and Administration versus Administration). Table 1 below reflects a summary of the organizational structures.

Table 1
Organizational Structure for Florida State Universities

Organizational Structure	# of State Universities under this Structure	State Universities
Enrollment Management & Services	4	FIU, UF, UNF, UWF
Student Affairs	3	FAMU, FGCU, FPU
Academic Affairs	2	FAU, FSU
Finance & Administration	1	NCF
Student Life	1	UCF
Administration	1	USF

The author found four university websites to be the most user-friendly, while offering the best information for students (see Table 2). The author will mention them in alphabetical order. Florida Atlantic University has an excellent website, very informative, and with videos that make the office – or topic itself – less intimidating to students. New College of Florida does a great job in displaying the rankings of the university, focusing on best value, best ROI, and lowest total debt at graduation. The University of Florida is the best one, in this author’s opinion. It presents the information clearly, displaying a colorful newsletter, videos, social media platforms, and a wealth of information in general. The University of South Florida publishes great forms on its website in alphabetical order. This presentation facilitates the work of the person searching the site. The newsletter is well done, too.

Table 2
Florida State Universities’ Best Websites (as per author)

Ranking	State Universities	Positive Characteristics of Website Content
# 2	FAU	Excellent website, very informative, good videos.
# 3	NCF	Clear university rankings: best value, best ROI, lowest total debt at graduation.
# 1	UF	Clear information, colorful newsletter, good videos, good social media platforms, lots of information.
# 4	USF	Great forms in alphabetical order (easy to locate information), good newsletter.

In contrast, an example of a poor-quality website would be that of The University of North Florida (UNF). The font size on the website is too small, it has no newsletter on it, no videos, and it is not user-friendly at all. This author had a difficult time navigating through this Financial Aid website.

Conclusion

In closing, this author gained a better understanding of the structure of the Financial Aid Offices at state universities in the State of Florida. Moreover, the author discovered that the most popular structure for Financial Aid Offices is to be under Enrollment Management & Services, whereas the least popular structure is for Financial Aid Offices to be under Administration. The top four websites, per the author, are those of FAU, NCF, UF, and USF. It is interesting to note these top four Financial Aid Offices each report to a different unit of a university, with UF reporting to the most popular structure (Enrollment Management & Services) and USF reporting to the least popular structure (Administration). Therefore, this shows the organizational structure does not have an impact on the quality of the Financial Aid Office's websites. One could deduct that there are good leaders, independent of the organizational structure of the Financial Aid Office, who produce quality information to present to visitors.

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Appendix A
Document List

1. Financial Aid mission statement and organizational structure
2. Financial Aid website
3. Financial Aid forms links
4. Financial Aid newsletter, or videos, or both
5. Social Media: Financial Aid

Appendix B
Demographics Chart

Demographics	Location	Enrollment	Organizational Structure	Average Award (All undergraduates)	In-state Tuition	Out-of-state Tuition	Mascot
Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University (FAMU)	Tallahassee	9,614	Student Affairs	\$13,157	\$5,785	\$17,730	Rattler
Florida Atlantic University (FAU)	Boca Raton	30,377 (2015)	Academic Affairs	\$13,229	\$6,039	\$21,595	Owlsley the Owl
Florida Gulf Coast University (FGCU)	Fort Myers	14,673 (2015)	Student Affairs	\$9,457	\$6,171	\$25,214	Azul the Eagle
Florida International University (FIU)	Miami	55,000 (2015)	Enrollment Management & Services	\$8,483	\$6,558	\$18,956	Roary the Panther
Florida Polytechnic University (FPU)	Lakeland	1,300	Student Affairs	N/A	N/A	N/A	Phoenix
Florida State University (FSU)	Tallahassee	41,867	Division of Academic Affairs	\$11,329	\$6,507	\$21,673	The Seminole Indian or "Noles"
New College of Florida (NCF)	Sarasota	835 (2014)	Finance and Administration	\$13,506	\$6,916	\$29,944	N/A
University of Central Florida (UCF)	Orlando	64,318	Student Life	\$8,567	\$6,368	\$22,467	Knight
University of Florida (UF)	Gainesville	35,043	Division of Enrollment Management	\$12,275	\$6,381	\$28,658	Albert and Alberta

							– Gators
University of North Florida (UNF)	Jacksonville	13,817	Enrollment Services	\$8,682	N/A	N/A	Ozzie Osprey
University of South Florida (USF)	Tampa	31,111	Administration	\$11,390	\$6,410	\$17,324	Rocky the Bull
University of West Florida (UWF)	Pensacola	10,200	Enrollment Affairs	\$7,411	N/A	N/A	Argie the Argonaut

Note: 2016 data, unless specified otherwise.

Appendix C
Newsletter Sample

NEWS



Financial Aid for Gators

From the Office for Student Financial Affairs

Spring 2017

Budgeting Tips for Students

While you're in college, you'll need to learn how to manage your finances, plan for changes, and prepare for the unexpected. Budgeting will help you build decision-making skills and help you reach your financial and academic goals.

1 **Overestimate your expenses.**

It's better to overestimate your expenses and then underspend and end up with a surplus.

2 **Underestimate your income.**

It's better to end up with an unexpected cash surplus rather than a budget shortfall.

3 **Differentiate between needs and wants.**

One benefit of budgeting is that it helps you determine if you have the resources to spend on items that you want versus those you need.

4 **Involve your family in the budget planning process.**

Determine how much income will be available from family sources such as parents or a spouse. Discuss how financial decisions will be made.

5 **Prepare for the unexpected by setting saving goals to build an emergency fund.**

Budgeting will help you cover unusual expenses and plan for changes that may happen while you're in school.

- Planning to move off campus? Short-term budgeting goals for the year can include saving for the rent deposit and furniture for your new apartment.
- Starting an internship next semester? Adjust your budget to

save for buying new clothes to wear to work and paying increased transportation costs.

- Finishing school in the next year? Budget to include job search expenses such as résumé preparation, travel to interviews and job fairs, and professional exam fees. Also, you may need to think about how you will manage your money between leaving school and finding a job—this is a time when an emergency fund can really help out.

6 **Expect the unexpected.**

Your emergency fund should be used for expenses that fall outside the categories of annual and periodic bills. Redefine your notion of "unexpected" bills to encompass these unforeseen events rather than more common but infrequent expenses. The good news is that if you do not use your emergency fund, you will have savings—which should always be a priority when managing your finances. And, if you do not have to use your emergency fund, you may avoid unnecessary borrowing.

7 **Only borrow what you need.**

If your living expenses are not going to be as high as the amount on your award letter, you have the right to turn down the loan or to request a lower loan amount. If you have any questions or don't understand what types of loans are in your award letter, contact your adviser. Always ask questions and be an informed borrower. Make sure you understand what you're receiving and the repayment terms.

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INSIDE:

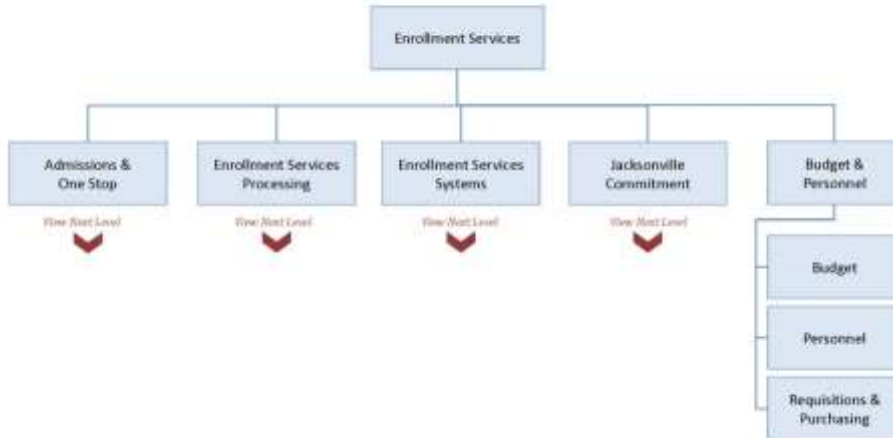
- Florida Bright Futures Renewal Requirements
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- Consumer Information
- SFA Contacts

UF UNIVERSITY of
FLORIDA

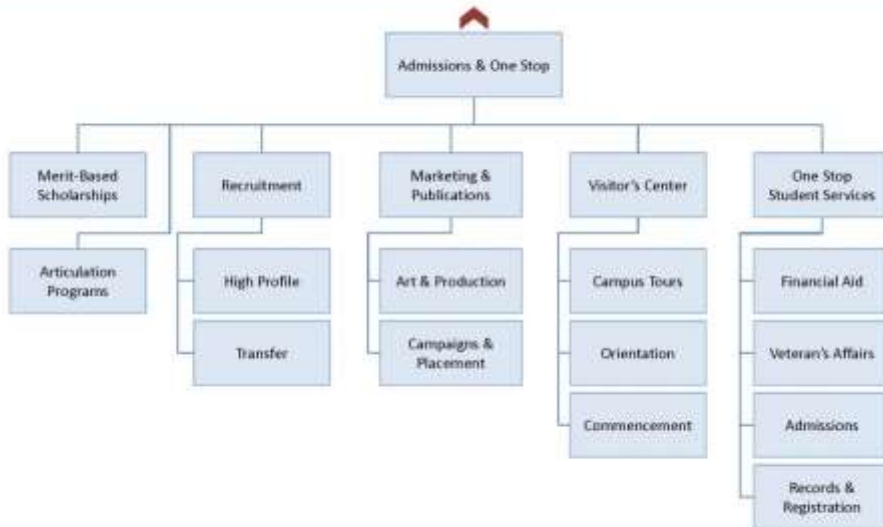
Student Financial Affairs is a department of the Division of Enrollment Management

Appendix D
Organizational Chart Sample

Enrollment Services



Admissions & One Stop



About this Author

A native of Madrid, Spain, Cristina C. López (cclopezv@gmail.com) is a higher education administration professional with more than 17 years of experience in academia, non-profit, and corporate sectors. Currently, she is Director of Career Services at St. Thomas University in Miami Gardens, Florida. She is a second year Ph.D. student in the Higher Education Leadership program at Florida Atlantic University, and holds a Master of Arts in Communication Arts and a Master of Business Administration from St. Thomas University. Ms. López is passionate about traveling and languages, and is fluent in English, Spanish, and French.

Discussion Questions

1. Where is the Financial Aid Office of this individual state institution organizationally located?
2. What is the quality of each state public university's Financial Aid mission statement (or lack thereof); website; Financial Aid forms; newsletters, or videos, or both; and social media platforms?

To Cite this Article

López, C. (2017, Summer). Financial aid and organizational structure: Student affairs, academic affairs, or administration? *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 9(2), 81-96.

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Life Forward

Dan Rotta

Retired International Businessman



Dan Rotta was born in Romania and was fortunate that his family was granted permission to immigrate to Israel when he was five years old. After finishing the 5th grade in Israel, his family immigrated again to Sao Paulo, Brazil, where he finished high school. Upon graduation, he came to the United States for higher education. He obtained his B.A. in Chemistry and then proceeded to obtain an M.B.A.

After a successful career as an international businessman including real estate ventures and the importation and distribution of watches, jewelry, electronics, essential oils, and Brazil nuts, Dan retired in 2001 a few months prior to September 11th. His last venture prior to retirement was the acquisition of an electrical supplies distribution firm in New York, distributing to major electrical contractors and companies.

Interview
by Hagai Gringarten
Editor-in-Chief, *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*

Q1. Life is about stories. Do you have a favorite story you use as an icebreaker?

In 1995, I was invited to my neighbor, who happened to be the famous five-time Oscar winning composer John Barry, for his 65th birthday party celebration. At the party, amongst many other guests was my friend Avner Hershlag, a fertility doctor and his wife and his then 14-year-old very cute daughter. The girl was introduced to us as Neta Lee. At the party, I asked her what she would like to be when she grew up. She told me she wanted to be a movie star. Years later, she changed her name to the now famous and academy award winner Natalie Portman.

Q2. What are the top three characteristics that contributed to your success?

Fortunately or not, I have more than three. Mainly, I can attribute my success in business to the following aptitudes: Honesty, Reliability, Innovation, and Taking calculated risks. Also, I was in the right place at the right time, I stayed the course, and I was lucky.

Q3. What life-changing events or decisions have guided your career?

My family was involved in the wholesale and retail stores in the “Free Port” of Manaus, Brazil. My main responsibility was the exportation of merchandise to those businesses. A few short years after I joined the family business, the Brazilian laws governing the free port changed drastically overnight, imposing quotas and restricting the importation of most of the merchandise that I had in inventory in Asia for future exports to Manaus. What seems to have been a great issue at the time opened a new avenue.

The merchandise that I held in inventory was proper mostly for the Brazilian market. To dispose of the merchandise, I contacted most of the stores in New York and Miami that catered to Brazilian tourist and airline crews, thus forcing me to create many new customers and in a new market. Eventually, I also started importing merchandise for the U.S. market and ultimately sold to most major retailers in the U.S. This life changing occurrence that at the time seemed to be disastrous ultimately was a great opportunity that contributed to my success.

Q4. Tell us of any expressions your parents often repeated with you?

I have always been told by my parents that to have a successful life you have to get a good education, live within your means, not be a copycat, be honest and reliable, and be a great parent.

Q5. What is the biggest misconception about how to achieve success?

Hoping to win the lottery or think that things will come easily. Most of the time, it takes hard work and dedication.

Q6. What books have you read lately?

The House of Morgan: An American Banking Dynasty and the Rise of Modern Finance, by Ron Chernow (New York, NY: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1990).

The Autobiography of William Zeckendorf, by William Zeckendorf (Chicago: Plaza Press, 2014).

Start-Up Nation: The Story of Israel's Economic Miracle, by Dan Senor and Saul Singer (New York, NY: Twelve, 2011).

Q7. Imagine your phone rings and it's you from 10 years ago. If you only had a minute to talk, what would you say? (Yes, we know, buy AAPL).

Stay the course allowing for corrections to keep up with economic, political, and unforeseen circumstances.

Q8. What elevator speech would you give children about success in life?

Always keep within the law, be considerate of others, do not be a copycat (to be successful in business one needs to be innovative), and keep away from shady individuals and businesses.

Q9. What is the best advice you've ever received, and who gave it to you?

See answer number 4.

Q10. What would you like to see as your life's legacy?

That I was a good parent, have been honest, worked hard, and was successful in my career.

To Cite this Interview

Gringarten, H. (2017, Summer). Life forward: Dan Rotta: Retired international businessman.
Journal of Multidisciplinary Research, 9(2), 97-100.

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Book Review

Book Details

Mandis, S. G. (2016). *The Real Madrid Way: How values created the most successful sports team on the planet*. Dallas, TX: BenBella Books, Inc., xxix+344 pages, \$16.95, paperback, ISBN: 9781942952541.

Reviewer

Young Do Kim, Ph.D.

Synopsis and Evaluation

The Real Madrid Way, by Columbia Business School adjunct professor Steven Mandis, is an essential addition to the literature on the sport management of international football (soccer). Mandis competently analyzes both the on-field and the business management aspects of Real Madrid to address the following key question: How has Real Madrid faced and overcome numerous challenges to become one of the most globally popular sport teams? The book chronicles not only important managerial, financial, and operational dynamics of the Real Madrid management but also the on-field team management of the *galácticos* (a galaxy of stars), coaches, and performance (e.g., too-much-talent effect and too-tired-and-old effect) by incorporating in-depth interviews with an extensive range of stakeholders and reliable publicly available data from various industry professionals and scholarly experts who study Real Madrid.

Much of the book rigorously explains the competitive advantages that have given rise to Real Madrid's success and how to develop and retain its sustainable economic-sport model over the years. Mandis strongly believes there are three fundamental management pillars leading to Real Madrid's success: (a) a resolutely established mission and value statement on the basis of the community's shared values, expectations, and desires (e.g., the world's best players, an attacking style of soccer, transparency and accountability of management, modern facilities); (b) a leader and organization that stay true to and work around a common mission and set of values in a collaborative way; and (c) paying close attention to the community's values-centric approach.

The overarching concept of the community's value-centric approach involves solidifying the loyal fan base by better recognizing the shared needs and wants of the club's fans and fulfilling their desires by creating and reinforcing personal connections and relationships directly with them. Hence, Real Madrid's sustainable economic-sport model derives from organizational strategy, identity, and culture centered on the fulfillment of shared values and expectations of the club's fans.

The major strength of the book is its methodological breadth and depth. This book offers the complete business management case of a publicly owned, non-profit sport franchise in Spain. Mandis presents the conceptual research framework of *The Real Madrid Way* (i.e., Sustainable Economic-Sport Model, p. 20) and often uses secondary data analyses and comparisons to provide empirical evidence of his hypothesized research model. Most importantly, highlighting the importance of the mission statement and organizational values of the sport business is indeed a notable contribution of the book to the sport management literature. In sport marketing case studies, this aspect often has been overlooked and rarely discussed.

Overall, Mandis earnestly and passionately sheds light on the sport business case of Real Madrid and the importance of organizational identity and culture to assemble a competitive global sport team, in contrast to the Oakland Athletics' (Billy Beane's) data analytics approach. Real Madrid's organizational culture, which drives the fulfillment of the club fans' values and expectations, is surely its competitive advantage because other sport competitors hardly replicate such culture. *The Real Madrid Way* by Mandis is a worthwhile read and provides readers, especially those interested in working in any sport organizations, with a learning experience comprising Real Madrid's history, ownership structure, financial details, on- and off-field challenges, and the future of Real Madrid—including investment in facilities, people, international markets, and more.

In the Author's Own Words

“Real Madrid's management team believes that the community does not exist to serve the business or management; rather, the club exists to serve the Real Madrid community” (p. 15).

“I aim to demonstrate that there is much more to success on and off the field than data analytics and talent, and even money, and that those who do not include culture in building a winning organization are the real dinosaurs” (p. 39).

Reviewer's Details

Young Do Kim, Ph.D. (ykim4@elon.edu), is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Sport Management at Elon University. He holds a Ph.D. in Sport Management from Florida State University. His area of expertise lies in the realm of sport fan behavior, with a specialization in sport fan equity (SFE). His recent research interest is to develop a scale to measure the overall asset value of sport fans and the utility of the scaling and weighting methods to obtain an SFE index for estimating overall sport franchise value from the consumer's side. He also has several years of teaching experience in Sport Marketing and Sport Finance.

To Cite this Review

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Book Review

Book Details

Schaecter-Viswanath, G., Glasser, P., & Chava, L., Eds. (2016). *Comprehensive English-Yiddish dictionary: Based on the lexical research of Mordkhe Shaechter*. Indianapolis, IN: Indiana University Press, 856 pages, \$60, hardcover, ISBN: 97802530222820.

Reviewer

Thomas F. Brezenski, Ph.D.

Synopsis and Evaluation

As a boy growing up in a New Jersey community where there were basically three religions – Catholicism, Judaism, and not – I was blessed with many Jewish childhood friends whose parents opened their doors to me and immersed me in the rich culture of not only rituals, celebrations, and food but also the language of Yiddish. Yiddish, a language derived primarily from Hebrew and German, was most common in Eastern and central Europe prior to the Holocaust and was the primary spoken language in many Jewish households in the period between the two world wars. My Jewish girlfriends giggled as their good Catholic ‘goy’ smiled blankly into the rapid-fire interrogations of their 80ish razor-sharp grandmother peppered liberally with Yiddish. It these memories that bubble to the surface as I leaf through probably the most ambitious work to date on the Yiddish tongue, the *Comprehensive English-Yiddish Dictionary*. The text is a titanic compendium of virtually every Yiddish word from the staid halls of academia to the privacy of the marriage bedroom. It is easily the benchmark for any modern Yiddish linguist, containing close to 50,000 entries and 33,000 subentries. The *Harkavy Yiddish-English-Hebrew-Dictionary*, a modern standard, has only 30,000 entries by way of comparison. Despite its size, the tome is user-friendly for those who don’t read Hebrew and are not familiar with the lingual quirks of Yiddish. The editors thoughtfully include guidelines covering arrangement of entries, pronunciation, stress, and general grammatical information. If it hasn’t already, the *English-Yiddish Dictionary* will quickly become the gold standard for information on all things Yiddish, spoken and written.

Lest anyone mistakenly think this work is a hashed-together cookbook of random Yiddish slang, I would point out that it is based on the life-long works of perhaps the most respected Yiddish language scholar of the twentieth century and for all intents and purposes the twenty first as well. Mordke Shaechter was arguably the most influential Jewish linguistic scholar of his time, and his work provides the foundation for the present book review. Shaechter was a linguistic

expert in his capacity as a professor at Columbia University, but Yiddish, in its spoken and written form, was his first and true love. He served at the Jewish Teachers Seminary-Herzliah and later, in the 1950s, organized the Committee for the Implementation of the Standardization of Yiddish Orthography. The importance of the creation of this committee cannot be understated as it served as the catalyst for promoting a standardized Yiddish spelling system. This was only one of many accomplishments in the decades-long career of this seminal researcher including nearly 30 terminological collections of prewar Eastern Europe common tongue Yiddish, which catalogued nearly every Yiddish phrase that permeated Jewish life from the factory, to the synagogue, to hearth and home. In piecing together and editing the *Comprehensive English-Yiddish Dictionary*, the editors have created a treasure-trove for future generations of Jews and non-Jews alike and have truly stood on the shoulders of a giant.

In the Authors' Own Words

“The present dictionary arose out of what would have been Shaechter’s most ambitious publication, tentatively titled *How Would You Say It in Yiddish?*, which he intended to include the words both spontaneously and mindfully coined since the publication of the *Modern English-Yiddish Yiddish-English Dictionary*. Without these, it would be difficult to discuss contemporary topics in Yiddish.”

Reviewers Details

Thomas F. Brezenski, Ph.D. (tbrezenski@stu.edu), is an Associate Professor of Political Science in Biscayne College at St. Thomas University in Miami Gardens, Florida. His area of expertise is law and government, and his research focuses on mental healthcare public policy. He has taught classes in international relations and has reviewed *Doomed to Succeed*, Dennis Ross’ seminal work on the diplomatic history of the relations of the United States and Israel.

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