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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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Dear Colleagues,

Neil Armstrong once said that “research is creating new knowledge.” Having just completed our ninth year, I like to believe we at the JMR help create new knowledge by providing our readers with current and significant empirical and conceptual research in multidisciplinary areas.

This V9, N3 edition of the Journal of Multidisciplinary Research (JMR) features four interesting articles from around the globe. A study from Hong Kong Baptist University and Marshall University examines the destination image of Hong Kong as a host city, and the sports tourists’ expenditure and consumption patterns with reference to four major international sports events. A collaborative study by researchers from the University of Massachusetts purports to illuminate how various stakeholders function as a team within a school setting, trying to optimize recovery rehabilitation for sport-related traumatic brain injuries involving student-athletes. Another study from the University of Texas and Texas Public Schools examines gender differences of adolescents, and the influence of peers on social motivation and perceived belonging in sport. A paper from St. Thomas University overviews challenges and responsibilities in counseling ethics.

We review the book Air & Light & Time & Space: How Successful Academics Write, by Sword, and the book The Essence of Lean: A Superior System of Management, by Hinds. We also feature our Editors’ Choice – Recent Books of Interest.

I wish you a happy and successful 2018.

Onward,

Hagai Gringarten, Ph.D.

Editor-in-Chief
“Bliss 03”

Photograph by Susan Buzzi.

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Destination Image and Sports Tourists’ Consumption Patterns of Major Sports Events

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Marshall University

and

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Abstract

Sports tourism is one of the fastest-growing industries in the First World and in developing countries. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine the destination image of Hong Kong as a host city, and the sports tourists’ expenditure and consumption patterns with reference to four major international sports events. The authors used a stratified purposeful sampling approach for data collection from inbound sports tourists attending the four major international sports events in Hong Kong. This study is in favor of the notion that hosting international major sports events will enhance the host city’s image and induce economic benefits. The findings showed that sports tourists stayed longer and spent more money than did regular tourists. In addition, the long-distance sports tourists spent more time, effort, and money to attend the events. This study provides both theoretical and practical implications for other cities and countries that plan to develop their sports tourism sectors.
Keywords: sports tourism, destination image, major sports events, sports tourists’ consumption patterns

Introduction

Sports tourism is one of the fastest-growing industries in the First World and in developing countries (Brown, Busser, & Baloglu, 2010; Cheung, Mak, & Dixon, 2016). Hinch and Higham (2001) mentioned that sports and tourism were interrelated. Sports were important activities within tourism while tourism was a fundamental characteristic of sports. Hinch and Higham (2001) defined sports tourism as traveling away from a home environment for a limited time for a sports-based activity. Sports tourism events are sports activities with the potential to attract tourists, media, athletes, and other sports officials (Caiazza & Minis, 2012). Their primary purpose for travel is either to participate in or to watch sports. Sports tourism development requires professionals in designing different sports activities to enhance economic values and national identity (Bangun, 2014). Sports tourism events are unique products that integrate with tourism strategies (Henderson, Foo, Lim, & Yip, 2010). The government and event organizers have to anticipate and manage the economic, social, and environmental impacts in order to generate the greatest benefits to the community where the event takes place.

Hosting major sports events promotes economic, political, and social development to the host city (Bangun, 2014). Consequently, there is increasing attention from the local government, businesspersons, the tourism industry, academia, and society. Economic and social benefits arising from sports tourism exist in both urban and rural areas in developing countries (Ehsani, Sogdel, Heidary, & Jamshidi, 2012). Hosting major sports events is an important component of tourism in that it brings economic benefits to the local economy (Caiazza & Minis, 2012). The host city reaps a wide range of benefits such as an increase in its national income, employment, and tax revenue (Shuib, Edman, & Yaakub, 2013). Dixon, Henry, and Martinez (2013) stated that tourists spent money on various sectors including retail, food and beverage, lodging, entertainment activities, transportation, ticket and concessions, and more; therefore, local businesses benefited from tourists’ spending. Sports tourism has become one of the economic development strategies to improve the diversity of the local economy. In addition, sports tourism fosters cultural values in the community (Dehnavi, Amiri, DehKordi, & Heidary, 2012). Sports tourism is capable of consolidating peace and friendship, building bridges between cultures, strengthening the national identity of citizens, and promoting national belonging. Moreover, hosting major sports events in developing countries offers social and political benefits to the concerned region (Foley, McGillivray, & McPherson, 2012). Those benefits include civic rights for women, human rights, and liberalization to the country as well as facilitating sports development.Besides, hosting international sports events not only contributes to a boost to the local economy of the host city but also serves to develop the destination into a tourist spot with an increased number of tourist arrivals (Cheung, Mak, & Dixon, 2016).

Destination Image

The literature is yet to reach a consensus on the definition of destination image (Hallmann & Breuer, 2010a). For the implication of destination image, there are two
components, namely cognitive-perceptive and affective evaluations (Greaves & Skinner, 2009). Destination image is an important aspect to attract and retain tourists (Hallmann & Breuer, 2010b). Potential visitors are likely to choose a destination with a positive image, even when they have little or no understanding of the place (Graves & Skinner, 2009). The intention of tourists to visit the destination depends on their perceptions and knowledge about the destination (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2009).

Prior experience with sports events influences tourists’ perception about the destination (Hallmann & Breuer, 2010b). The affinity of reputation, and the atmosphere between the sports events and the host city, influence the tourists’ decision whether to revisit the destination or not. Therefore, the destination image has the ability to attract tourists to visit or revisit, which is significant to affect consumer behavior (Heslop, Nadeau, & O’Reilly, 2010). Besides, safety and security is one of the important components for a major sports event to shape its positive image (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2009). In contrast, tourists will form a negative impression about the destination if they feel unsafe or threaten at the destination.

With reference to the literature, the impact of major sports events on destination image is rather ambiguous. Banyai and Potwarka (2011) analyzed the 2010 Vancouver Winter Olympics for the impact on the image of the host city. Results showed that the events neither created an impact on the destination image nor changed the tourists’ desire to revisit the city. As a result, the authors concluded there was no significant influence on the destination image, unless the event organizers adopted effective marketing strategies to the major sports events. Hallmann and Breuer (2010b) carried out a research study of six sports events in Germany. Results showed that sports events influenced visitors’ experience and perception about the destination. Those experiences and perceptions affected the visitors’ decision whether to revisit the city and to attend the event again.

Moreover, Hallmann and Breuer (2010a) conducted a study of seven sports events in the rural area of Germany. The study identified the perceived image of non-local spectators toward the rural destinations hosting the small-scale sports events. Results revealed that both qualitative and quantitative measures of image perception referred to the affective and cognitive components. Singh and Zhou (2015) analyzed the impact of Beijing Olympics on the destination image of the host city. The event gravitated to a new image of fashion in Beijing, changing the visitors’ feeling and perceptions about the city and their desire to revisit it.

**Major Sports Events in Hong Kong**

Sports tourism is one of the emerging sectors of development in the sports industry of Hong Kong. With an aim to position the city as an Asian capital of sports events, the government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR), in 2004, established the Major Sports Events Committee (MSEC) as an advising body on the policies and resources allocation concerning the hosting of major sports events (Sports Commission, HKSAR, 2013). Over the past decade, the HKSAR has spent more than HK$85 million (US$11 million) on organizing more than 100 major sports events in Hong Kong, among which the Summer Olympics Equestrian Events in 2008 and the East Asian Games in 2009 were two examples. Cheung, Mak, and Dixon (2016) conducted research on the economic impacts and the tourists’ perceptions of destination image of the East Asian Games in Hong Kong. Results from 140 elite athletes supported that international sports events induced economic benefits and enhanced the reputation and image of Hong Kong.
Tourism is one of the four main industries in Hong Kong. In 2016, 59 million tourists who visited Hong Kong on average stayed for 3.3 nights and spent about HK$6,599 (US$846) (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2017a). The total tourism expenditure associated with inbound tourism was HK$332.2 billion (US$42.6 billion). In 2017, the MSEC organized 13 major international sports events such as the Hong Kong Rugby Sevens and the Hong Kong International Dragon Boat Races. However, there are limited studies on the development of sports tourism. Thus, the purpose of this study was to survey sports tourists who had participated in four major international sports events in Hong Kong. Most specifically, the research questions guiding this study were as follows: (1) What are the sports tourists’ perception of Hong Kong as a tourist destination? and (2) What were the sports tourists’ expenditure and consumption patterns?

Methodology

The authors created a modified questionnaire as a testing instrument from the economic impact analysis questionnaires (Crompton, 1995; Crompton, Lee, & Shuster, 2001). The questionnaire consisted of the following four aspects: (1) demographics information of sports tourists, (2) expenditures and consumption patterns, (3) travel experience and satisfaction, and (4) perception of Hong Kong as a tourist destination. With a stratified purposeful sampling approach, the interviewers collect data from inbound sports tourists attending the four major international sports events in Hong Kong, namely the Federation Internationale de Volleyball (FIVB) World Grand Prix, the Hong Kong International Cricket Sixes, the Hong Kong Rugby Sevens, and the Watson’s Water Champion Challenge (Tennis). These four events were MSEC “M” mark events and the number of sports tourists in each event was higher than the other “M” mark events (Hong Kong Tennis Association, 2017; Major Sports Events Committee, 2016). Approaching targeted sports tourists at the entrances and exits of the sports venues, the interviewers first explained to the selected sports tourists the questionnaire to ensure that they fully understood the interview. The interviewers collected 185 usable questionnaires.

The authors carried out an analysis of the data by using SPSS 22.0. The authors conducted descriptive statistics analysis to identify the background information and the spending patterns of sports tourists. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests examined the differences in sports tourists’ spending among different sports events. Besides, the authors presented data on spending at constant price of year 2014, as the authors collected the data for the four events in two-year period.

Results

One hundred and eighty-five sports tourists participated in the interviews. Of the sports tourist respondents, 102 (55%) were males and 83 (45%) were females. With regard to their demographic background, around one third of the sports tourists came from Europe (33%), one third came from North America (31%), and the majority scattered evenly in three different age groups, being 20 to 29, 30 to 39, and 40 and above.
Table 1

Demographic Information of the Sports Tourists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 and below</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 to 29</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 to 39</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 and above</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the destination image, a majority of the sports tourists stated either “strongly agree” (48%) or “agree” (32%) with the statement that “Their impression toward Hong Kong is good.” Moreover, a majority of the sports tourists indicated, “strongly agree” (35%) and “agree” (37%) with the statement that “The international image of Hong Kong is enhanced because of this competition” respectively. Only five sports tourists responded, “strongly disagree” or “disagree” to the above statement.

Respondents selected their favorable places to visit in Hong Kong from the top five tourists’ attractions that the Hong Kong Tourism Board (2017b) reported. Furthermore, respondents could choose to write “other” tourist attractions. The top three selected favorable places were Hong Kong Disneyland, the Ocean Park Hong Kong, and the Victoria Peak. Among the 185 sports tourists, the majority (68%) indicated that Hong Kong Disneyland topped the list. Ocean Park Hong Kong came in second (58%), and Victoria Peak came in third (44%) (see Table 2).

Table 2

Favorable Place to Visit in Hong Kong

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Sightseeing place</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Hong Kong Disneyland</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ocean Park Hong Kong</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Victoria Peak</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to understand the sports tourists’ expenditure and consumption patterns, the authors collected data on spending and length of stay in Hong Kong. Table 3 shows the total expense, the length of stay, and the expense per day of each of the sports tourists’ group over different events. The average total expense of the sports tourists for the four events was HK$20,410 (US$2,617). Sports tourists of the Hong Kong Rugby Sevens spent the most ($=HK$24,872; US$3,189), whereas those of the Watson’s Water Champion Challenge (Tennis) spent the least ($=HK$14,263; US$1,829). On average, sports tourists stayed in Hong Kong for 5.03 days. Sports tourists of the Hong Kong Rugby Sevens stayed the longest duration...
(M=6.72 days), while those of the FIVB World Grand Prix stayed the shortest duration (M=2.64 days). Moreover, the daily spending of sports tourists attending the FIVB World Grand Prix was the highest (M=HK$6,302; US$807), while that of sports tourists for the Hong Kong Rugby Sevens was the lowest (M=HK$3,894; US$499).

Crompton (1995) categorized tourists’ spending into entertainment, food and beverage, lodging, retail, travel, and other. Their spending laid mainly on travel cost (35%) and retail (20%), the means of the expenditure were HK$7,147 (US$920) and HK$4,102 (US$525) respectively. The average spending on lodging was HK$3,618 (US$463; 17%), while the means expenditure on food and beverage, and on entertainment were HK$2,769 (US$355; 14%), and HK$1,993 (US$255; 10%) respectively.

The authors carried out the One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests to examine the mean differences in expenditure and consumption patterns among sports tourists from different continents. The authors found significant mean differences in the categories of “Retail” (F=3.147, p=.026), “Travel” (F=2.786, p=.042), and “Others” (F=4.941, p=.003). For the retail expenditure category, sports tourists from Europe (M=HK$4,258; US$545) and Asia (M=HK$3,191; US$409) spent considerably more than those from North America (M=HK$2,548; US$326) and other continents (M=HK$2,529; US$324). When it comes to the travel expenditure category, sports visitors from North America (M=HK$8,045; US$1,031) and Europe (M=HK$6,226; US$798) spent noticeably more than those from Asia (M=HK$3,568; US$457) and other continents (M=HK$2,761; US$353). As for others expenditure category, sports spectators from North America (M=HK$866; US$111) and Europe (M=HK$673; US$86) spent substantially more than those from Asia (M=HK$410; US$52) and other continents (M=HK$245; US$31).

The authors also found an observable difference in the length of stay in Hong Kong among sports tourists who participated in different events (F=27.4, p=.000). Results showed that sports tourists of the Hong Kong Rugby Seven (M=6.72) stayed longer than those of the Watson’s Water Champion Challenge (Tennis) (M=4.00), the Hong Kong International Cricket Sixes (M=3.33), and the FIVB World Grand Prix (M=2.64).
### Table 3
Total Expense, Length of Stay and Total Expense per Day in Sports Events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Total Expense (HK$)</th>
<th>Length of Stay (Days)</th>
<th>Total Expense Per Day (HK$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong Rugby Sevens (n=96)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>$24,872</td>
<td>$27,563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(US$3,189)</td>
<td>(US$3,534)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong International Cricket Sixes (n=21)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>$16,246</td>
<td>$10,205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(US$2,083)</td>
<td>(US$1,308)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIVB World Grand Prix (n=42)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>$16,099</td>
<td>$13,217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(US$2,064)</td>
<td>(US$1,695)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watson’s Water Champion Challenge (Tennis) (n=26)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>$14,263</td>
<td>$10,881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(US$1,829)</td>
<td>(US$1,395)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>$20,410</td>
<td>$21,921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(US$2,617)</td>
<td>(US$2,810)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion and Conclusion

This study is in favor of the notion that hosting international major sports events offers the host city both economic and non-economic (i.e., destination image) benefits (Caiazza & Minis, 2012; Cheung et al., 2016; Dixon et al., 2013; Shuib et al., 2013). The findings showed that sports tourists generally stayed longer and spent more money than did regular tourists. The sports tourists in this study stayed an average of 5.03 days and spent about HK$20,410 (US$2,617), which exceeded the duration and the amount of expense that regular tourists would stay for and put in respectively (3.3 days; HK$6,599; US$846), as the Hong Kong Tourism Board (2017) reported. Thus, additional money inflow from the non-local sports tourists benefits both sports and non-sports industries (Kim, Kim, Park, Carroll, Yu, & Na, 2016).

The findings revealed that different types of international sports events attracted tourists from different continents. Sports tourists who attended the Hong Kong Rugby Seven mainly came from Europe, often staying longer in Hong Kong. In contrast, visitors from the FIVB World Championships came mainly from Asia, often in Hong Kong for a shorter period. Tourists from far away tend to stay for longer periods than those from the neighboring countries (Thrane & Farstad, 2012). This study supports that the long-distance travelers spend more time and money to attend the events.

In addition, the majority of sports tourists in this study responded that they had a positive impression toward Hong Kong. They also agreed that hosting of international sports events enhanced the international image of Hong Kong. Thus, hosting major sports events helps to position and promote Hong Kong as one of the best cities to travel to in Asia. Furthermore, sports tourists revealed that theme parks, such as Hong Kong Disneyland and the Ocean Park Hong Kong, were their favorite tourist attractions.

To remain competitive as an Asian capital of sports event with other Asian countries, the HKSAR government should allocate more resources to develop the local sports tourism industry by providing more sports facilities and support to the National Sports Associations. We should organize international sporting events and target to the long-distance travelers in Europe and North America. Furthermore, sports events organizers should collaborate with the theme parks to develop marketing and promotional strategies.

In conclusion, this study provides a framework for understanding the expenditure and consumption patterns of sports tourists. The long-distance travelers spend more time and money to attend sports events. The longer the duration of sports event, the higher the total amount of expenditure. The results are vital for the organization of the international sports events in the future. This study provides valuable information for future policy formulation and planning of sports tourism industry. We recommended further investigation on the impact of major sporting events held in short-term and long-term employment as well as other intangible benefits.

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Discussion Questions

1. What are the economic values of hosting major sports events?

2. What are the differences in expenditure and consumption pattern between short-distance travelers and long-distance travelers?

3. What are the factors influencing the length of stay of sports tourists?

To Cite this Article

“Bliss 04”

Photograph by Susan Buzzi.

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A School-Based Multidisciplinary Response to Student-Athletes’ Mild Traumatic Brain Injury

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Courtney Hess  
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Samantha Broadhead  
*University of Massachusetts, Boston*

and

Kait Gould  
*University of Massachusetts, Boston*

**Abstract**

Across the United States, an estimated 300,000 and 3.8 million sport-related traumatic brain injuries (TBIs) occur annually (Halstead & Walter, 2010), with mild traumatic brain injuries (mTBIs) among youth and adolescents increasing dramatically in recent years (Bakhos, Lockhart, Myers, & Linakis, 2010). Given the psychological, sociological, and educational challenges associated with mTBIs, comprehensive models have emerged to optimize recovery rehabilitation for student-athletes (e.g., Brown, 2016; Gioia, 2016; Kirelik & McAvoy, 2016). Although these models call for various stakeholders’ involvement in the rehabilitation process, no research to date has proposed how these stakeholders may formulate an optimal rehabilitation team. The current article purports to illuminate how various stakeholders function as a team
within a school setting, while proposing translation of an existing sport framework (Meyer Athlete Performance Management model; MAPM) (Meyer, Merkur, Massey, & Ebersole, 2014) to optimize stakeholder collaboration within the school domain.

**Keywords**: mild traumatic brain injury, school-based transition team, school counselors, school psychologists, rehabilitation

**Introduction**

Across the United States, an estimated 300,000 and 3.8 million sport-related traumatic brain injuries (TBIs) occur annually (Halstead & Walter, 2010), with mild traumatic brain injuries (mTBIs) among youth and adolescents increasing dramatically in recent years (Bakhos, Lockhart, Myers, & Linakis, 2010). More specifically, from 1997-2007, hospital visits for sport-incurred mTBI increased by over 200% for adolescents between 14 and 19 years old, and doubled for youth between 8-13 years old (Bakhos, Lockhart, Myers, & Linakis, 2010). However, this estimate likely understates the actual prevalence of mTBI, as researchers have acknowledged low reporting rates resulting from an unawareness of concussion symptoms (Kerr et al., 2014), coach and sport expectations to play through injury and pain (Baugh, Kroshus, Daneshvar, & Stern, 2014; Kerr et al., 2014), and student-athletes’ hesitation to cease sport engagement to recover from mTBI, as many state policies mandate (Kerr et al., 2014). Given the various challenges associated with mTBIs, comprehensive models have emerged to optimize recovery rehabilitation for student-athletes (e.g., Brown, 2016; Gioia, 2016; Kirelik & McAvoy, 2016). Although these models call for various stakeholders’ involvement in the rehabilitation process, no research to date has proposed how these stakeholders may formulate an optimal rehabilitation team. The current paper purports to illuminate how various school-based stakeholders function as a response team for student-athletes with mTBIs, while proposing translation of an existing sport framework (Meyer Athlete Performance Management model; MAPM) (Meyer et al., 2014) to optimize stakeholder collaboration within the school domain.

**Overview of mTBI**

Scholars describe an mTBI as a force to the head that results in a physiological disruption to the brain, and categorizes it as a brief loss of consciousness generally less than 30 minutes, a Glasgow Coma Scale of 13-15, and post-trauma amnesia lasting no longer than 24 hours (Kay et al., 1993). An mTBI yields a cascade of physiological events, resulting in a neurometabolic imbalance, or an imbalance between the necessary and available energy within the brain (Giza & Hovda, 2001). This imbalance yields a range of symptoms, which are diverse in their character (e.g., mood, behavioral, sensory), temporal presentation (e.g., immediate or delayed onset with presenting symptoms spanning one week to over a year), and severity. These symptoms may include somatic features (e.g., headaches, fatigue, light sensitivity, and dizziness; Taylor et al., 2015), social features (e.g., disruptive behaviors; Emery et al., 2016), or emotional features (e.g., depressed or anxious mood; Emery et al., 2016). More specifically to school-aged children, additional post-concussive symptoms include sleep disturbance, forgetfulness, and concentration difficulties (Taylor et al., 2015). While these symptoms may more overtly influence academic performance, the physical, social, and emotional symptoms may debilitate student-athletes’ academic performance as well (Roeser, Eccles, & Samoroff, 2000; Zins & Elias, 2007). The
presenting symptoms could impede school attendance, which can affect social relationships and further exacerbate the negative outcomes associated with mTBI (Havik, Bru, & Ertesvåg, 2015). In light of the diverse range of symptoms, and impact on school, life, and sport, a comprehensive and multidimensional treatment program may best facilitate rehabilitation for student-athletes returning to school and play following an mTBI incident.

**Existing Support Models for Student-Athletes**

Only recently has literature emerged outlining how school and medical professionals can improve student-athletes with mTBIs’ rehabilitation and return to school process (Brown, 2016; Gioia, 2016; Kirelik & McAvoy, 2016; Newlin & Hooper, 2015). Three of the most comprehensive existing treatment models are BrainSTEPS (Brown, 2016), Kirelik & McAvoy’s (2016) Remove-reduce/educate/adjust-accommodate/pace (REAP) program, and Gioia’s (2016) medical-school partnership program. These models focus on the balance between over exertion and under exertion in facilitating optimal recovery. That is, while previous researchers have focused on complete rest and recovery following mTBIs (Giza & Hovda, 2001), more recent evidence suggests the need for adequate stimulus to improve the efficiency of recovery (Silverberg, Iverson, Caplan, & Bogner, 2013). As such, there is a need to monitor and adapt the level of cognitive and physical stimulus in student-athletes’ day to optimize recovery and reintegration back into a full school day.

The first model, BrainSTEPS, outlines the need for dyads within the school domain to monitor student-athletes’ symptoms and alter their cognitive expectations (Brown, 2016). Each member of the dyad monitors one of the two distinct symptoms often present following an mTBI—physical symptoms and academic disturbance (Brown, 2016). Brown (2016) outlines four steps in the reintegration-to-school process, whereby each step simultaneously increases student-athletes’ time in school and decreases accommodations. The dyad monitoring student-athletes’ process determines the transition between steps, with the model ending when the symptoms have completely subsided. The second model, REAP, outlines the use of multiple management teams (i.e., family, school, athletic, and medical) to promote relevant recovery within each domain (Kirelik & McAvoy, 2016), prompting a reduced physical and cognitive load on the student-athlete. The REAP program originates within the hospital setting at the onset of an mTBI, and expands to include school and family teams as the student-athlete transitions back to school.

The third integration program presented herein is the medical-school partnership (Gioia, 2016), which presents a comprehensive discussion of operational procedures for returning student-athletes to school and play following an mTBI. Gioia (2016) outlines a 5-stage gradual return to academics, and the use of a 10-step program (Progressive Activities of Controlled Exertion; PACE) to manage over- and under- exertion. Gioia (2016) calls for various school-based stakeholders (e.g., school administrators, school counselors, school psychologists, teachers) to carry out relevant management of student-athletes’ activities.

**Development and Organization of School-based Multidimensional Response Team**

These reintegration programs provide comprehensive proposals for optimizing rehabilitation for student-athletes recovering from an mTBI. While the models facilitate appropriate steps in managing mTBI, they house gaps that warrant discussion. First, due to lack of empirical testing, the models’ impacts on rehabilitation outcomes are not well understood or documented. Additionally, although the models provide guidance on what to do in returning...
student-athletes to play, and outline who might be involved in the process, they lack clarity on how this might operationalize in practice. To this end, there exists a gap in research and practice to understand how to facilitate a collaborative approach amongst invested stakeholders (e.g., coaches, athletic trainers, medical personnel, students, families, administrators, counselors, school psychologists) to promote optimal outcomes for student-athletes. Below, we present a description of how various stakeholders (e.g., school counselors, school psychologists, coaches and athletic trainers) might collaborate based on their unique roles within a school-based rehabilitation team, as well as propose a framework for how to organize relevant stakeholders to improve collaboration.

School Counselors’ Role in Facilitating Student-Athlete Rehabilitation

Given school counselors’ charge as leaders and advocates for youth (ASCA, 2012), it behooves school counselors to take an active role in facilitating the student-athletes’ transition back into school engagement following mTBIs. School counselors are governed by the ASCA National Model (ASCA, 2012), which warrants they provide direct services to students, parents, school staff and the community in four domains: school counseling core curriculum, individual student planning, responsive services, and indirect services. In each domain, there exists opportunities for school counselors to support student-athletes’ transition back into school and sport following mTBI, while collaborating with others, which is considered best practices in the school counseling profession (ASCA, 2012), and in injury rehabilitation (Hess, 2015; Howarth, Warne, & Haigh, 2012; Körner, 2010).

Within the scope of school counselors’ responsibilities, delivering classroom lessons provides opportunities for school counselors to interface with many students who might not choose to visit the counseling office, including student-athletes, and allows a touchpoint to develop a rapport with students. This rapport can increase trust and communication between school counselors and students, which may prompt student-athletes who incur an mTBI to connect with their school counselors for their academic, social, and emotional needs. This may be particularly relevant given identified psychological challenges associated with athlete injury (Wiese-Bjornstal, 2010), and mTBI specifically (Emery et al., 2016). Most students with mTBIs can be integrated into existing school programs with adaptations and modifications (Bowen, 2005), and students with mTBIs are often grouped by functional skills and ability level with corresponding curriculum content and appropriate teaching strategies based on their abilities (Cohen, 1991). The trusting relationship that exists between school counselors and students on their caseload permits school counselors to understand the unique learning needs of individual students and support appropriate classroom interventions.

Within the domain of individual student planning, school counselors coordinate ongoing systemic activities designed to help students establish personal goals and develop plans (ASCA, 2012). Students who incur an mTBI can work closely with their school counselor to determine appropriate transition goals and goal achievement strategies for returning to school and sport. When school counselors provide activities designed to meet students’ pressing needs and concerns, they are engaging in responsive services (ASCA, 2012). In cases of mTBI, student-athletes’ immediate transition needs might include working through their thoughts and feelings related to incurring an mTBI or exploring their identity in light of withdrawal from athletic participation. School counselors are trained professionals with expertise in counseling techniques and theory and can facilitate this type of student-athlete reflection. Finally, school counselors
assume a pivotal role in the transition process through delivery and coordination of services among various stakeholders, including administrators, teachers, parents, coaches, and other caregivers (ASCA, 2012; Hayden, Cook, & Whitley, 2014). In this domain, school counselors can connect with teachers to establish short and long-term academic plans, educate parents on the potential academic, social, and emotional consequences emerging from a traumatic experience, and engage in consistent dialogue with coaches to ensure support to student-athletes in a multifaceted way.

School counselors’ nuanced understanding of positive youth development, coupled with their trusting relationship with youth, permits them to identify unusual behaviors while facilitating reentry into the school environment. Given the professional responsibilities, best practices, and expertise of school counselors, student-athletes and their families may benefit from including school counselors in the recovery and transition process following an mTBI. This inclusion does not add additional responsibilities to school counselors’ lives, as school counselors’ involvement in the recovery and transition process falls within the ASCA National Model’s four domains for required engagement with students: school counseling core curriculum, individual student planning, responsive services, and indirect services. School counselors, however, lack the training to interpret neuropsychological assessments and medical documentation, which suggest that additional mental health professions assume an integral role in the transition process, namely school psychologists.

School Psychologists’ Role in Facilitating Student-Athlete Rehabilitation

School psychologists assume an important role as students transition back to school after suffering from an mTBI due to their expertise in providing training, assessment administration, assessment interpretation, transition planning, and direct intervention with students (Filter, Esben, & Dibos, 2013; Lewandowski & Rieger, 2009). School psychologists are trained to determine appropriate placements for students, both within regular and special education, while accounting for internalizing and externalizing characteristics of the student as a whole (National Association of School Psychologists [NASP], 2017). In addition, school psychologists can remediate difficulties with social-emotional learning, academics, physical environment, and behavior (NASP, 2017). Finally, school psychologists have the unique training to prepare them for leadership roles, including the ability to gather evidence-based materials to support dissemination amongst school staff (NASP, 2017).

School psychologists are trained to understand the impact of cognitive developments on student-athletes’ educational trajectory. They are trained to administer and interpret standardized (e.g., neuropsychological) assessments (Lewandowski & Rieger, 2009; NASP, 2017), and are positioned to recommend short-term and long-term accommodations required for student-athletes’ transition from the onset of an mTBI to regaining full immersion in the school day. School psychologists have the expertise to administer these assessments in a way that is sensitive to the fragile and changing brain following an mTBI injury (Wasserman, Bazarian, Mapstone, Block, & van Wijngaarden, 2016).

When symptoms of mTBI are persistent and significantly impact student-athletes in their learning environment, school psychologists may advocate for the school team to convene and develop an accommodation (ie., 504) plan (Canto, Chesire, & Buckley, 2011; Davies, Trunk, & Kramer, 2014; Halstead, et al., 2012). This plan may include accommodations addressing behavioral strategies, avoiding loud spaces, decreasing academic demands, implementing
curriculum modifications, or modifying the schedule for a shortened school day (Canto et al., 2011; Davies et al., 2014). Additionally, school psychologists can create and advocate for supportive policies monitoring cognitive health and risk factors for student-athletes with an mTBI, while advocating for structured procedures for communication between school teams, healthcare teams, and students and their families (Guay et al., 2016).

School psychologists can provide student-specific, evidenced-based strategies to support potential short-term and long-term deficits of mTBI due to their experience with direct intervention (American Academy of Pediatrics [AAP], 2013; Hibbard, Gordon, Martin, Raskin, & Brown, 2001; Shaw, 2014). Students with post-mTBI difficulties affecting school success may benefit from evidence-based interventions that school psychologists can create, implement, and monitor (Hawley, Ward, Magnay, & Mychalkiw, 2004). To support reintegration and skills for continued cognitive development, school psychologists are qualified to teach strategies for working memory and processing speed to facilitate increased functioning and independence of students (Dykeman, 2001).

School psychologists are also well equipped to provide counseling services for those students experiencing anxiety, depression, withdrawal, or other concerning behaviors following their injury. They support students who may experience stress and challenges associated with prolonged absences from school because of mTBI symptoms (King, 2003; Guay et al., 2016). This experience could lead to social anxiety or phobias, for which school psychologists can provide direct evidence-based interventions (Lewandowski & Rieger, 2009; NASP, 2017).

Given the various roles school psychologists hold, they may be especially well situated to provide information to other team members (e.g., teachers, coaches, administrators, athletic trainers) working with student-athletes to optimize reintegration into school and play. Optimal reintegration may mitigate known impacts of mTBI, such as depression, anxiety, aggression, and increase in substance use (Bailey, Samples, Broshek, Freeman, & Barth, 2010; Finnanger et al., 2015). To this end, a tertiary role of school psychologists may involve providing professional development to team members in order to increase knowledge of symptom identification and known warning signs for these common psychosocial challenges associated with long-standing mTBI symptoms. Acknowledging these symptoms, rather than dismissing them in their students as behavioral disruptions separate from mTBI injury, invites school psychologists to become referral agents to other faculty within the building. To this end, they can present information on individual risk factors for student-athletes that may impact their recovery, as well as protective factors that teams and teachers should acknowledge and recognize, which can be used to benefit student-athletes’ holistic development (NASP, 2017).

**Coaches and Athletic Trainers’ Roles in Facilitating Student-Athlete Rehabilitation**

While existing models focus on return-to-school following an mTBI, an additional challenge for student-athletes is returning to sport engagement. Previous models fail to recognize the expertise of coaches and athletic trainers in supporting student-athletes’ safe reentry into school and sport following an mTBI. Within the school domain, sport coaches may assume various roles (e.g., teaching, role model, technical skill developer) depending on the school structure and context (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004); however, their importance to the development and experiences of student-athletes is well defined (Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2009). Given the importance of coaches to student-athletes, the potential influence on their rehabilitation experiences, and their role in facilitating and monitoring return to play, it is reasonable to suggest
that their participation in a rehabilitation team would be important. Coaches can support student-athletes throughout the rehabilitation process by providing opportunities for student-athletes to navigate their emotional or social reactions to their injury. For example, they can help student-athletes mitigate feelings of isolation from their team during the rehabilitation process by involving student-athletes in team meetings.

The primary focus of athletic trainers is student-athletes’ injury rehabilitation (Hayden & Lynch, 2011). While athletic trainers hold various roles, they can serve as a resource for coaches by identifying the psychological components of an injury response and the feelings associated with injury rehabilitation and return to play, such as lack of confidence or motivation and increased anxiety (Roh & Perna, 2000). Specifically, athletic trainers can help coaches by developing training sessions that address student-athletes’ emotional concerns at various stages throughout rehabilitation (Hayden & Lynch, 2011). Coaches and athletic trainers may strategize the most effective measures of inclusion and rehabilitation for student-athletes as they return to their sport engagement. Additionally, given that mTBIs occur during sport participation, both coaches and athletic trainers may be well positioned to identify and report the occurrence of an mTBI to other stakeholders in the school.

**Proposed Multidisciplinary Framework for Collaboration**

Within the sport-specific domain, existing models outline ways in which professionals may work together to facilitate optimal rehabilitation (Clement & Arvinen-Barrow, 2013; Meyer et al., 2014). Given the consistencies between the experiences of athlete rehabilitation and student-athlete reintegration, it is reasonable to believe that these existing models would be beneficial for improving collaboration between stakeholders in schools for improved reintegration protocols. Stakeholders who would be particularly relevant to these processes may be coaches, athletic trainers, teachers, school counselors, school psychologists, and school administrators. Furthermore, these individuals would be best suited to surround a student-athlete and his or her family to facilitate optimal reintegration compliance (Sady, Vaughan, & Gioia, 2011). In the elite-sport domain, practitioners use the Meyer Athlete Performance Management model (MAPM; Meyer, Merkur, Massey, & Ebersole, 2014) to facilitate optimal performance outcomes, including rehabilitation processes. Following is a description of the MAPM model and how it might be used within a school setting to best support student-athletes’ return to school and sport following an mTBI.

**Meyer Athlete Performance Management (MAPM) Model**

The MAPM (Meyer, et al., 2014) suggests that members from technical, physical, psychological, and senior management and operations should surround individual athletes in order to work together to best serve them (See Figure 1). As conceptualized by Meyer and colleagues (2014), the physical domain is comprised of individuals predominantly concerned with the physical condition of an athlete, such as the physical therapist, athletic trainer, or strength and conditioning coach. The technical domain houses professionals concerned with the sport specific skills and training of an athlete, such as a skills coach or the head coach. The psychological domain contains professionals concerned with the psychological health and well-being of an athlete, such as a sport psychologist, clinical psychologist, or social worker. Finally, the senior management and operations domain consists of the professionals involved in the daily
processes of a sport organization or management of a team, such as the organization’s owner or a case manager who supports the members of the performance team working with the athlete.

Figure 1. Meyer Athlete Performance Management model (Meyer et al., 2014).

When practitioners used the MAPM model to structure support for an elite athlete, Hess (2015) observed improved team functioning, lived experiences, and objective outcomes. In relation to improved team functioning, the team engaged in effective and consistent communication and goal setting, indicated trusting each other, and identified clear professional role and boundaries. In terms of improved lived experiences, the team indicated an ability to focus on rehabilitation and desired outcomes rather than the difficulties associated with a high-stakes rehabilitation process. Because of this improved team functioning, an athlete experienced successful rehabilitation back to Olympic performance, despite a significant injury. Hess (2015) was the first researcher to evaluate how a team structure influences the lived experience and outcomes for all involved in the rehabilitation process.

Mapping MAPM Model onto School-based Transition Team

Given the need for a systemic approach to support student-athlete return to school and sport following identification of an mTBI, we suggest practitioners consider the application of the MAPM model to school-based transition teams (see Figure 2). The MAPM provides professionals with a working model of what collaboration and an interdisciplinary approach might look like in practice. While the realities of working in a school may differ from those in sport, there remains a heavy reliance on stakeholder collaboration. Considering how the MAPM model maps onto a school-based transition team, the student-athlete is an active member of the rehabilitation process at the center of the model. Calls in the literature support including students in the mTBI management plan, as each mTBI is individual to the student-athlete; therefore, including the student-athlete may provide better compliance with the mTBI management protocol (Gioia, 2016; Sady et al., 2011). This model, while collaborative in nature, highlights the importance of internal communication within schools. School counselors and school psychologists who have expertise in understanding and responding to crises that affect the social,
emotional, psychological, and academic health of young people, can spearhead those efforts. In a school system, with logistical and practical barriers to effective communication between stakeholders (e.g., incongruent schedules), practitioners might consider using both synchronous (e.g., in person or virtual meetings) and asynchronous (i.e., e-mail communication) methods of communication when supporting students through the transition and recovery process.

Figure 2. MAPM model (Meyer et al., 2014) mapped onto school-based stakeholders

In the school setting, the athletic trainer and coach, in consultation with outside stakeholders (e.g., physician, neurologist), are involved in the physical element of student-athletes’ recovery. In the mental element, the school counselor and school psychologist are involved in student-athletes’ mental recovery. In relation to technical elements in a school setting (conceptualized as academic elements), student-athletes’ teachers would be involved. The final element, which infuses into physical, mental, and technical elements, is the senior management and operations, which would refer to administrative staff within a school setting. The role of the administrative staff in the school-based MAPM model is to provide tangible, resource-based support for the transition team. Given the potential for the MAPM to adapt to fit the structure of a school system, it could provide a model of collaboration within the school setting.

Summary

Within the mTBI literature, there is unequivocal evidence for the need to approach rehabilitation from a multidimensional perspective, thereby considering the psychological, physiological, and sociological ramifications of an mTBI incurrence. Furthermore, as a multidimensional approach is most appropriate, there is a subsequent need to include
professionals from multiple domains in the rehabilitation (i.e., return-to-play, return-to-class) process. Current models within the mTBI domain provide comprehensive programs for rehabilitation, and warrant continued use within the school context, while calling for multiple relevant stakeholders in the reintegration process (Brown, 2016; Gioia, 2016). However, to help facilitate collaboration among invested stakeholders, it may be necessary to adopt a framework from a sport domain (i.e., MAPM). To this end, although the framework provides a structure for professionals to emulate, researchers need to identify what can be done within a team to optimize functioning within a school-specific domain. In an effort to better understand the utility of this model in the school setting, future studies could consider intentionally creating collaborative teams consistent with the MAPM model (Meyer et al., 2014), in conjunction with established reintegration programs (i.e., REAP, BrainSTEPS, medical-school relationship). Researchers could measure utility through both objective outcome measures (e.g., rate of return to school and play, rate of improved cognitive assessment measures), as well as subjective experiences of those implementing these models with the student-athletes at the center of the proposed models. The proposition initiated herein, that school-based transition teams consider rehabilitation models as frameworks for their support structures, is a viable and practical first step in supporting student-athletes who incur sport-based mTBI.

References


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Discussion Questions

1. Given the multitude of barriers within schools, how can practitioners interested in implementing this kind of team-based approach support the adoption and ongoing implementation of such an approach?

2. In addition to the already presented stakeholders, who else would play an important role in this process? How can stakeholders use this framework to include additional stakeholders?

3. What action steps can facilitate faculty or staff collaboration in schools for students with traumatic brain injuries?

4. How do we create a system that allows for fluid communication between stakeholders (e.g., school counselors and coaches) with divergent schedules?

To Cite this Article

The Influence of Peers on Social Motivation and Perceived Belonging in Adolescent Males and Females in Sport

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Abstract

The current study examined gender differences of adolescents and the influence of peers on social motivation and perceived belonging in sport. Additionally, it investigated perceived belonging in sport as a predictor of academic performance using athletes’ grade point average (GPA) and their scores on the State of Texas Assessment of Academic Readiness (STAAR) in English and Biology. The study evaluated the three subscales of social motivation – affiliation, social status, and social recognition – using the Social Motivation Orientation for Sport Scale (SMOSS) and perceived belonging using the Perceived Belonging in Sport Scale (PBS). The results revealed no gender differences on any of the social motivation subscales or perceived belonging. However, the affiliation subscale trends towards significance \( p = .08 \). Furthermore, perceived belonging cannot predict GPA or STAAR scores. Additionally, results from this study indicate perceived belonging did not predict a link between academics and athletics. Results of this study add to the literature on social motivation, which lags behind, compared to other motivational theories.

Keywords: social motivation, affiliation, social status, social recognition, perceived belonging, adolescents

Introduction

The numerous social reasons to participate in sport include affiliation, wanting to be part of a team or group, and social status (Gardner, Magee, & Vella, 2016; McCullagh, Matzkanin, Shaw, & Maldanado, 1993; Passer, 1981). Sport also allows an opportunity for participants to
create a bond with other people in a social setting through interpersonal interaction (Allen, 2003). Furthermore, sport team members report enhanced personal and social development (Bruner et al., 2017). In the 2016-2017 academic year, 7,963,535 athletes participated in high school sports according to the National Federation of High Schools (NFHS, 2017). The NFHS has tracked the participation of the youth in sports since 1971. In less than 50 years, the count rose from just under 4 million to over 7.9 million. In fact, the number of students playing sports in high school increased each year since 1988. As these statistics continue to rise, it is important to examine the relationship that exists between sport and adolescents. According to Allen (2003), “the social context of sport is salient to participants’ motivation” (p. 551). Adolescents participate in sports because they find value in it then motivation might be the key correlate. Motivation, because it is unique in the way it functions to each person, is a multifaceted concept (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

For decades, motivation theories attempted to explain adolescents and their propensity for sport. Three such theories are the Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985), the Achievement-Goal Theory (AGT; Maehr & Nicholls, 1980), and the Competence Motivation Theory (Harter, 1978). The SDT identified three basic needs: relatedness, demonstrated competence, and ability to exercise autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985). How an athlete feels towards a certain sport or activity, or is motivated to participate, is dependent upon how he or she perceives the satisfaction of his or her needs in the three categories. AGT focuses on whether an athletes’ inner desire to succeed comes from a desire to gain results, a belief in himself or herself to gain those results, or some combination of the two. The Competence Motivation Theory emphasizes the feelings of people and their level of competence along with how well they perceive themselves in control of the situation. These three theories have been able to explain some aspects of the individual within adolescent athletes but do not take into consideration social motivators that might be present. Juvonen and Wentzel (1996) found that social motivation lags far behind in experimental and observational data, compared to competence and achievement motivation.

Allen (2003) explains that physical competence, the aforementioned theories measure, do not represent the sole objectives of adolescent athletes. When considering youth sports motivators, ranking among the top social concerns include developing and demonstrating social connections. Allen (2003; 2005) formed a framework of social motivation that specifically addresses the social components in sport. The three orientations of the framework include social status, social affiliation, and social recognition. Through the participation within an activity, social status orientation measures how each individual feels about the different opportunities. The desire to increase his or her standing with the peer group defines social status. An affiliation-oriented individual develops and maintains relationships. Social recognition orientation emphasizes social validation through recognition from peers.

As a child enters adolescence, his or her world begins to change dramatically. The reliance of parents begins to wane, and the peers replace the opinion of a mother or father (Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986; Vollet, Kindermann, & Skinner, 2017). Finding a place within a peer group becomes one of the foremost experiences of adolescence (Kiran-Esen, 2012). Cook and Dayley (2001) stated that peer groups offer three key things to adolescents: (1) independence from parents, (2) feelings of security and value, and (3) acceptance and recognition by members of similar level and age range. Adolescents will do a variety of things in order to find acceptance into these peer groups, such as dressing the same, using the same language, and participating in similar activities. This social structure makes up the primary setting for each adolescent. Within
this structure, delinquent behavior affects adolescents more in a positive manner through peer influence (Akers & Jensen, 2006; Pratt et al., 2010). Youth strive to copy the behavior of peers because they desire to fit in. The individual seems to take a back seat to the group as the collection of adolescence acts as a whole. Meldrum, Miller, and Flexon (2013) stated that during adolescence, the importance of peers increases, and adolescents look to their peer group for direction on appropriate ways of thinking and behaving. The social context of sport provides an adolescent with opportunities to satisfy their need for social connection and belonging (Allen, 2003; 2005).

How an athlete identifies with a group varies depending on the group (Easterbrook & Vignoles, 2013). Attributes that make up the adolescent include qualities such as personality, intelligence, and athletic skill. Certain qualities, such as athleticism, can positively affect adolescents when working to belong in groups in a school setting. Eldridge, Palmer, Gillis, Lloyd, Squires, and Murray (2014) discovered a decrease dropout rate in adolescent athletes, compared to non-athlete adolescents. This same study also found that athletes scored significantly higher passing rates (ranging from 49.4% to 19.7%) on their state administered exams.

The current study examined gender differences of adolescents and the influence of peers on social motivation (i.e., affiliation, social status, and social recognition) and perceived belonging in sport. Additionally, it investigated perceived belonging as a predictor of academic performance using athletes’ grade point average (GPA) and their scores on the State of Texas Assessment of Academic Readiness (STAAR) in English and Biology. The researchers hypothesized that peers influence females in the area of affiliation to continue participating in sports, while males primarily attribute participation in sports to factors of social status and recognition. Additionally, the researchers hypothesized that females would have a stronger sense of perceived belonging than males within the sport setting. Finally, they hypothesized that athletes with a strong sense of perceived belonging in sport would have higher GPA and STAAR scores.

Methods

Participants

Participants included 108 adolescents from a rural high school in the Southwestern region of the United States. The 59 female athletes ranged in age from 14 to 18 (M=15.9, SD=1.12) and represented seven sports: volleyball, basketball, soccer, cross country, track, power lifting, and softball. The female participants had 28 of 59 (47%) athletes competing in multiple sports. The female participants represented three ethnic groups: Hispanic (N= 32), Caucasian (N= 25), or Asian American (N= 2). The 49 male athletes ranged in age from 14 to 18 (M= 15.9, SD=1.12) and represented six sports: football, basketball, baseball, soccer, cross country, and track. The ethnicity of the males fell into either the Hispanic (N= 31) or Caucasian (N=19) category. The male participants had 25 of the 49 (51%) competing in multiple sports. None of the participants had any mental disabilities or handicaps that interfered with the completion of the questionnaires. Partial removal of the data occurred because of some students had not completed the state Biology test. The State of Texas changed its policy in 2015 in the requirement of 9th grade students in taking the Biology exam. Students can now take the Biology exam in the 9th or 10th grade; therefore, some of the participants had yet to take the Biology exam. The removal of
Biology scores included 18 students (females= 7 and males= 11) of the total 108 original questionnaires. One female student did not have an English score; therefore, the analysis did not include this participant.

**Instrumentation**

**Demographic Questionnaire.** This questionnaire asked basic demographic information including age, gender, ethnicity, grade in school, sport(s) played at the school, and years participating in each sport.

**Social Motivation Orientations Scale for Sport (SMOSS).** Allen (2003) developed a 15-item scale measuring social motivational orientations through 15 different questions in one of three categories: (1) affiliation (i.e., *I make some good friends on the team*) (2) social status (i.e., *I belong to the popular group in the team*), and (3) social recognition (i.e., *Others tell me I have performed well*). Affiliation accounts for 7 of the questions with social status and social recognition each making up 4 questions. The researchers used a 5-point Likert scale to score each question with 1 = “strongly disagree” and 5 = “strongly agree.”

**Perceived Belonging in Sport Scale (PBS).** Allen (2003) developed an 11-item scale measuring the participant’s feeling of belonging within a sport environment in two facets: first it allows individual sport athletes as well as team sport athletes to answer the same question, and second, it incorporates the entire sport experience involving belonging and not only the feeling of team membership. Examples of this scale include, *The coach respects me*, or *I feel very different from most of the others*. The researchers used a 5-point Likert scale to score each question with 1 = “strongly disagree” and 5 = “strongly agree.”

**Procedure**

The Institutional Review Board approved the study before it began. Participants did not answer the questionnaires until they completed and returned the informed consent and assent form. Participants received directions to enter a classroom after submitting the proper forms. Individual desks set up in rows allowed the participants to have their own space to complete the questionnaire in isolation. Each participant received a pencil and the questionnaires, each of which had an alpha-numeric code that corresponded with each participant to ensure anonymity. Each participant completed the demographic questionnaire, the SMOSS questionnaire, and the PBS questionnaire. The participants completed the questionnaires without talking. The proctor sat at the front of the room during the completing of questionnaires. The proctor sealed an envelope with the completed questionnaires, and the researcher kept it in custody until data analysis.

The school received each participant’s alpha-numeric code. The school then produced a list of each participant’s grade point average (GPA) and his or her State of Texas Assessment of Academic Readiness (STAAR) scores for English and Biology that corresponded with the assigned alpha-numeric code.

**Data Analysis**

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) processed the collected data through the SMOSS and PBS questionnaires including the subscale of social motivation between males and
females. In addition, a t-test examined between males and females and their perceived belonging in sport. Three simple linear regressions determined if perceived belongingness predicts GPA, STAAR Biology scores, and STAAR English scores. The demographic questionnaire analyzed for descriptive information.

Results

Gender Differences

The examination of gender differences in the area of social motivation (i.e., affiliation, social status, and social recognition) and perceived belongingness in sport, and how it relates to adolescent athletes, hypothesized that females received more influenced by their peers in the area of affiliation to continue participating in sports and that males primarily attribute participation in sports to factors of social status and recognition with peers. Another hypothesis posited that females have a stronger sense of perceived belongingness in sport than do males. The final hypothesis projected that females, with a higher sense of affiliation, would have higher state test scores and higher GPAs.

A MANOVA examined gender differences on affiliation, social status, and social recognition. The researchers found no significant effect $F(4, 103) = 1.78$, Wilk’s $\lambda = .935$, $p > .075$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$. None of the social motivation subscales (see table 1 and figure 1) reflected gender differences. However, the affiliation subscale trended toward significance ($p = .08$). The mean of the females was higher ($M = 4.42$, $SD = .64$), compared to the mean of the males ($M = 4.12$, $SD = .70$; See Figure 1).

Table 1
Multivariate Analysis of Variance using the social motivation subscales of affiliation, social status, and social recognition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>partial $\eta^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Status</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Recognition</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1. Adolescent Social Motivation with means and standard deviations for all three subscales of social motivation.

An independent sample t-test compared gender differences on perceived belonging and found no significant difference ($t(106) = -1.28, p > .05$). The results reported no significant difference in the mean for females ($M = 36.75, SD = 3.82$) from the mean of the males ($M = 35.82, SD = 3.71$). Figure 2 shows the means for males and females in the perceived belonging scale.
Figure 2. Perceived belonging in male and female participants.

A t-test compared the differences in GPA between male and female participants. Males ($N=49$, $SD=5.61$) and females ($N=59$, $SD=5.49$) showed a significant difference in GPA with females having a higher GPA than their male counterparts.

GPA and STAAR Scores

The study investigated perceived belonging in sport as a predictor of academic performance using athletes’ grade point average (GPA) and their scores on the State of Texas Assessment of Academic Readiness (STAAR) scores in English and Biology. The researchers hypothesized that athletes with a stronger sense of perceived belonging in sport will have a higher GPA and higher STAAR scores.

A simple linear regression predicted athletes’ GPA based on their perceived belonging score. The regression equation found no significance ($F(1,106) = .018, p = .89$) with $R^2$ of less than .001. Perceived belonging cannot predict GPA scores.

A simple linear regression predicted athletes’ STAAR English scores based on their perceived belonging score. The regression equation reported no significance ($F(1,105) = .04, p = .84$) with $R^2$ of less than .001. Perceived belonging cannot predict STAAR English scores. Another simple linear regression predicted athletes’ STAAR Biology scores based on their
perceived belonging score. The regression equation found no significance \( F(1,88) = .63, p = .43 \) with \( R^2 \) of .007. Perceived belonging cannot predict STAAR English scores.

**Discussion**

Much of previous research in social motivation focused on the collegiate athlete and pre-adolescents (Carodine, Almond, & Gratto, 2001; Coplan, Rose-Krasnor, Weeks, Kingsbury, Kingsbury, & Bullock, 2013). Therefore, this research explored the social motivation among adolescent male and female athletes. Social motivation has not been an area of study by many psychologists since its isolation as a different form of motivation by Allen (2003). Therefore, participants for this study added to the literature from the adolescent age group of 14-18 years old. The study emphasized the three subscales of social motivation: affiliation, social status, and social recognition. Additionally, it applied data on each participant’s sense of perceived belonging in high school sports. Then, the study investigated perceived belonging in sport as a predictor of academic performance using athletes’ grade point average (GPA) and their scores on the State of Texas Assessment of Academic Readiness (STAAR) scores in English and Biology.

High school sports offer a social setting for adolescents. In this setting, the way in which an adolescent connects with his or her peers contributes to understanding why he or she participates in sports. Ryan and Deci (2000) explain these connections in sport through the SDT. This theory, however, did not address social motivation and, more specifically, the three subscales of affiliation, social status, and social recognition. Affiliation is vital in the life of an adolescent. Berndt (1999) described how an adolescent adjusts in school depends on the characteristics of his or her friends. This affiliation can be positive or negative. Chester, Jones, Zalot, and Sterrett (2007) found that adolescents with whom they have the best relationship (affiliation) influence their behavior the most.

During adolescence, the dependence on peers increases emotionally and psychologically (Flack, Salmivalli, & Idsoe, 2011). Affiliating with positive influences becomes extremely important. The current study hypothesized that the affiliation of female participants would be greater than that of males. Focusing on Mexican-American adolescent students, rather than adolescent athletes, Espinoza, Gillen-O’Neel, Gonzales, and Fuligni (2013) found the same tendency of females to affiliate more than their male counterparts. The need for females to affiliate is strong both in their peer groups on the playing field and elsewhere. The modern female teenager displays a strong need to affiliate in areas such as making friends and achieving goals (Espinoza et al., 2013). The current study hypothesized that females receive influence more by their peers in the area of affiliation to continue participating in sports. Data analysis did not conclusively support this hypothesis, but trends toward significance. This trend aligns with the earlier work of Flack et al. (2011), who found that adolescent females reported more stress than males in the area of affiliation involving peers. As females affiliate themselves with others in their peer group, they do so with stronger bonds than males.

Social status stands of major importance to adolescents (Adler & Adler, 1998; Eder, 1985; Martin-Storey & Crosnoe, 2014). In fact, many adolescents view social status as being more important than friendships themselves (LaFontana & Cillessen, 2010). Ojanen, Grönroos, and Salmivalli (2005) reported that males place a bigger emphasis on social status goals than do females. Similarly, the current study hypothesized that males would have a greater sense of social status and social recognition. Results do not support this hypothesis. Contrary to the findings of Ojanen and colleagues (2005), the current study found no significant difference
between the genders in the subscales of social status and social recognition. Similarly, Flack et al., (2011) reported when they studied stress in Norwegian teenagers, finding no significance in stress related to social status (they did not test social recognition) – surprising results, considering the population of this study. Hormone-sated adolescent males seem to act on those hormones more than females (Herrera, Owens, & Mallinckrodt, 2012; Soto, Unger, Ritt-Olson, Soto, Black, & Baezconde-Garbanati, 2011). Data collection drew from South Texas, a male dominated part of the country when you look at family structures. The Hispanic culture, specifically, sees the father as the head of the household (German, Gonzales, & Dumka, 2011). Of the 108 participants, Hispanics represent 63 participants (58%) and 31 male participants (63%).

People find belonging a difficult feeling to explain. An individual’s self-esteem relies upon his or her feeling of belonging (Hernández, Robins, Widaman, & Conger, 2017; Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995). Who we are as people depends on how much we feel a part of something bigger than ourselves. When you break it down to its most basic concepts, perceived belonging takes our ego and sets it aside because we want to be part of something bigger. This reason led to the hypothesis that female adolescent athletes would have an overall greater sense of perceived belonging than male adolescent athletes. However, the results did not support this hypothesis. The findings of this study align with Allen (2006) reporting no significance difference between the genders. Allen’s study examined university students of both genders (N=259) to measure perceived belonging in sport. Allen sought to find a tool with which to measure perceived belonging. The lack of significance ended up being a positive in her case as it showed equity in the genders when completing the PBS – perhaps a positive finding in this study’s case as well. All participants felt as though they belonged with their team. That is one of the purposes of team sports, belonging to a group that works together. Maslow (1968) said that only food and shelter supersede love and belonging. Sports provide that opportunity for belonging.

Multiple studies demonstrated that athletics aids academics (Ahn, & Fedewa, 2011; Bradley, Keane, & Crawford, 2013; Dyer, Kristjansson, Mann, Smith, & Allegrante, 2017; Tomporowski, Lambourne, & Okumura, 2011). Therefore, the researchers hypothesized that athletes, with a strong sense of perceived belonging in sport, would have higher GPA and STAAR scores. Females with a stronger sense of belonging would in turn receive higher grades. The study found females to have higher grades, but not because of their perceived belonging. Perhaps females as a whole took more advanced classes, which give them more points toward their GPA. Perceived belonging and academic skills reported no significant link in this study. The researchers hypothesized that because athletes had a strong sense of perceived belonging they would feel more of a connection in sports and school and, therefore, perform better academically. The results found no support for this hypothesis. The study demonstrates perceived belonging did not predict a link between academia and athletics. The feeling that an athlete gets by being on a team could link to his or her academic success. Eldridge et al. (2014) found that 17% of non-athletes were at a greater risk of dropping out of school. These adolescents did not have teams in which they could claim membership and belong. Perhaps they also missed other areas of social networking in which their academics and their belonging could have improved.
Limitations and Future Research

Several limitations influenced the study findings. Many of the participants participated in multiple sports. This might have altered answers as the participant might have felt one way in one sport and another way in a different sport. If participants completed the questionnaires with only one sport in mind at a time, the data might be more accurate. Perhaps the questions could be altered to ensure that the athlete has a prominent or favorite sport in mind when answering the questions. Therefore, future research should consider these limitations.

The feeling of belonging among athletes reported to be non-significant in the study. With the addition of non-athletes to the study, the results could have been different. Non-athletes would more than likely have a very different feeling of perceived belonging than that of athletes. Future research should compare these two groups to examine the perceived belonging differences.

References


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Discussion Questions

1. What are the orientations that promote social motivation?

2. Describe the ways to understand better a high school athlete’s social motivation for involvement in sport.

3. How can practitioners build social motivation in athletes?

To Cite this Article

Counseling Ethics: Overview of Challenges, Responsibilities and Recommended Practices

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St. Thomas University

Abstract

Ethical violations affect professional prestige across professions, including counseling. In response, counselors must participate in frequent training to enhance ethical judgment and decision-making abilities. However, gaps exist in the literature about the actual effectiveness of these trainings. The application of the trainings in real-life situations is also debatable given the complexity of certain situations. Apparently, trainings are not enough to inform counselors on how to handle effectively current ethical issues. The present literature review promotes the growth and development of the counseling profession by discussing common challenges, professional responsibilities, and recommended practices in counseling ethics. It describes sound ethical decision-making as a continuous and active process with frequent training on ethical theories as well as the fulfillment of professional responsibilities, but ultimately with emphasis on ethical reflection, self-awareness, strong moral values, and cultural competence. Embracing diversity and multiculturalism can help establish and maintain a healthy relationship with culturally diverse populations. Nonetheless, the guiding compass is counselors’ obligation to protect clients’ integrity and well-being.

Keywords: core values, cultural competence, ethical challenges, ethical reflection, self-awareness

Introduction

The increasing number of cases involving ethical violations affects professional prestige across different professions, including counseling (Messikomer & Cirka, 2010). In response, counselors must participate in frequent training and educational programs in order to enhance ethical judgment and decision-making abilities (Levitt, Farry & Mazzarella, 2015). However, gaps exist in the literature about training effectiveness while the successful application of theories in real-life situations is debatable at best (Levitt et al., 2015; Shallcross, 2011).

This literature review is concerned with the relationship among counseling, ethics, and professional responsibility. The main purpose is to promote the growth and development of the
counseling profession across these domains. An overriding purpose is to contribute to a more ethical, professional, and civil society. The study begins with a definition of ethical values and reasons for increased acceptance of unethical behavior. It then presents ethical challenges common to counseling practices before describing professional responsibilities. The study ends with suggestions for ethical practices conducive to sound ethical decisions in counseling.

**Ethical Values vs. Unethical Conduct**

Establishing the relationship between ethics and values is a priority. According to Weston (2008), ethics is concerned with behavior while values relate to beliefs and attitudes that determine how individuals behave. Thus, ethical values directly relate to beliefs and attitudes about what is right and proper when relating to others. “Ethical values connect us to a larger world and introduce the ethical question of what others are entitled to ask from us and what we are entitled to ask from ourselves” (Weston, 2008, p. 104). Recognized ethical values include respect, fairness, equality, liberty, responsibility, and trustworthiness (Weston, 2008). Violation of any of these values is unethical, yet common.

There are numerous reasons for increased acceptance of unethical behavior. Osland and Turner (2011) assert that professionals engage in unethical behaviors and demonstrate non-ethical values due to “neglectful leadership and organizational cultures that send mixed messages about what is important and what is expected” (p. 185). The authors explain that when professionals engage in a dishonest conduct or behave in an unethical manner, they excuse themselves by claiming that they had no choice or that they acted under supervisor’s request. This way, leaders send mixed messages to followers and contribute to the acceptance of unethical behaviors.

In an interview on ethics, Toffler (2002) confirmed that, as people grow older, get educated, and join the workforce, they encounter important individuals and leaders who engage in unethical behaviors. These behaviors might be obvious at times (e.g., sexual harassment), but not always (e.g., accepting a gift or reward). Corporate rewards or incentives encourage this unethical behavior (Fassin & Buelens, 2011). For example, store managers can exaggerate sales figures to receive a prize or bonus at the end of the month or quarter.

Besides this increased exposure to unethical behavior from leadership figures, individuals may lack good role models and even solid foundations of ethical conduct in their own homes (Toffler, 2002). This is the case, for instance, of children who know their parents lie to receive welfare benefits. Understandably, these children may turn into adults who accept deception as part of normal behavior. In addition, unethical or illegal behavior may go without punishment. This occurs when affluent, influential criminals pay for their illegal actions in fancy, comfortable jails with money or property stolen in the first place (Toffler, 2002). This is not punishment.

Mixed messages combined with unethical role models and lenient sentencing encourage an unethical (and illegal) culture in many organizations. Such culture negatively impacts professionals as well, including counselors. This undeniable fact adds to the numerous challenges counselors encounter in the practice of their profession.

**Ethical Challenges in Counseling**

Counselors must practice within certain professional and ethical boundaries (ACA, 2014). In order to do so, they receive frequent training regarding theoretical ethical guidelines and assessment procedures after graduate school (Levitt et al., 2015; Shallcross, 2011).
Regardless of training, however, applying theories and guidelines to make sound ethical decisions can be difficult and challenging. Common ethical challenges in counseling can emerge from (a) the counseling relationship, (b) confidentiality and privacy issues, (c) group work, (d) termination and referral, and (e) distance counseling.

**Counseling relationship.** A healthy relationship between counselors and their clients facilitates clients’ growth and development as well as the fostering of clients’ welfare and best interests (ACA, 2014). Unfortunately, it is precisely this relationship that may become difficult and challenging (Ascherman & Rubin, 2008). Boundary crossing, countertransference, and informed consent can impact negatively the counseling relationship.

**Boundary crossing.** The PsychInfo database alone shows thousands of literary publications related to boundaries and dual role relationships given their relevance and frequency within counseling ethics (Pope & Keith-Spiegel, 2008). However, distinguishing between a boundary crossing and a boundary violation is difficult to do because what may seem therapeutic also may be unethical. Boundary issues arise, for example, when a counselor must decide whether to attend a client’s wedding, whether to provide services to a client’s relative (i.e., dual relationship), or whether to conduct a session outside the counseling office. Deciding to engage in any of these activities can represent a boundary violation (Pope & Keith-Spiegel, 2008), even when the counselor’s intention is to provide support, guidance, and education, respectively.

Pope and Keith-Spiegel (2008) identified common errors counselors make regarding boundary-crossing decisions. These include counselors’ assumptions that what happens outside the psychotherapy session does not affect the client or the therapeutic relationship. But, it definitely does. Even when the counselor’s intention is genuine, the client may interpret or perceive the situation (or the counselor’s actions) differently from the counselor’s original intention. For instance, conducting a session outside the counseling office can be cognitive therapy to a client who suffers from agoraphobia (or fear of going outside), but the client may perceive the session as insensitive or even disrespectful.

In other words, counselors can unintentionally cross boundaries, even when their intentions are good. The challenge is in the relationship itself. Boundaries become an ethical issue due to “the deep emotional investment and attachment that develop in therapy” (Estabrook, Roberts, & Gabbard, 2010, p. 45).

**Countertransference.** According to Ascherman and Rubin (2008), countertransference occurs when the counselor’s feelings or emotional reactions toward a client (or anyone else related to the client) affect the counselor’s behavior or feelings in a way that deviates from usual, ethical practice. Countertransference occurs, for instance, when: giving gifts, providing more frequent sessions, conducting sessions at later hours, extending the number of previously established sessions, reaching the client outside the office setting or contacting the client outside scheduled sessions. The challenge is to abstain from engaging in any of these behaviors. Although the counselor may mean well, a change in the counselor’s behavior (or feelings) toward the client may indicate countertransference and a potential for crossing boundaries.

**Informed consent.** Crespi (2009) defines informed consent as the client’s agreement to treatment or to the release of information. The consent delineates reasons for therapy, procedures, techniques, treatment goals, limitations, and client’s expectations. It also includes client’s rights and responsibilities as well as freedom to enter and remain in treatment. The client receives this information both verbally and in writing. A challenge is to expect understanding and ask clients to consent to treatment when they come upset, distressed, and crying, as they often do. The counselor may want to postpone presenting and explaining the consent for later,
when the client feels better, and is able (and capable) to make an informed decision. However, the inability to present the client with the informed consent, especially at the onset of the counseling intervention, is unethical (Crespi, 2009).

Undoubtedly, counselors work hard to establish and develop a healthy relationship with clients to facilitate their growth and foster their best interests. Yet, challenging ethical situations that are neither easy to identify nor easy to resolve impact this relationship. These situations relate to boundary crossing, countertransference, and informed consent. Something similar happens with confidentiality and privacy matters.

Confidentiality and privacy. Confidentiality is counselors’ legal and moral obligation to refrain from disclosing information regarding the client or the treatment (Crespi, 2009). This includes refraining from making comments with other staff members in the workplace (Lambie, Ieva, Mullen & Hayes, 2011). Confidentiality is critical to the effectiveness of the therapeutic relationship as it builds trust. Clients know they can share private information because their counselors will not share it with anyone else (Lambie et al., 2011). Estabrook et al. (2010) emphasize the importance of respecting, encouraging, and implementing confidentiality and privacy regarding all information disclosed, records saved, and communication transmitted over faxes and telephones (e.g., disclosures, diagnoses, treatments). Counselors may be aware of the limits of confidentiality since many are very early in their careers. Nonetheless, they still face numerous challenges.

Lambie et al. (2011) explain some of the challenges of respecting and protecting clients’ confidentiality and privacy. A challenge emerges when clients are at risk of harming themselves or others. There is also the Duty to Warn and Protect as well as cases of abuse. In these cases, counselors must break confidentiality. They have no choice. Protecting client and others is counselors’ main responsibility (ACA, 2014). Even so, counselors fulfill their duty aware that sharing information reduces (and probably eliminates) trust, besides affecting the therapeutic relationship, probably forever (Lambie et al., 2011). Parental disclosures present similar challenges.

Parental disclosures. Sometimes, parents inquire into their children’s treatment and progress. Disclosing information to parents becomes a challenge to confidentiality and privacy issues, especially when the client is a minor. When clients are minors, parents own the privilege to this information, which means that counselors may have to share information discussed during the counseling intervention with parents (Crespi, 2009). As previously mentioned, it is a challenge to share information regarding the client (i.e., breaking confidentiality) to satisfy requests made without affecting trust and progress.

Documentation and record keeping. Documentation and record keeping is another important ethical consideration (and legal responsibility) in counseling; another one that challenges the limits of confidentiality and privacy as well (Estabrook et al., 2010). Counselors must maintain records in a safe, secure medium (e.g., computer encrypted files) in accordance with state and federal laws and statutes (ACA, 2014). A challenging situation can emerge, for instance, when the insurance agency requests information or documentation for reimbursement of service fees. As confidentiality issues and limits apply here, counselors must be extremely careful with the information they share; only providing what they consider the minimum information possible and necessary to comply with the request and ensure reimbursement while simultaneously protecting client’s information (ACA, 2014). This is no easy task.

It is obviously difficult to respect confidentiality and privacy while complying with legal requirements, moral obligations, parental requests, and demands from insurance agencies at the
same time. Nonetheless, counselors must follow the rules and regulations of the profession. They must comply with requirements and requests while delivering high quality counseling services to clients, both individually and in group settings.

**Group work.** Group counseling is an important and effective counseling technique to process issues and develop certain skills (Crespi, 2009). Educational therapy groups can discuss grief, domestic violence, and drug abuse. Therapy groups can also help clients develop social and coping skills, increase self-esteem, and manage anger (Ascherman & Rubin, 2008).

Despite the apparent benefits of group work, however, it is difficult to facilitate group process and avoid unethical behavior. One of these challenges is a breach of confidential and private information among group members. Besides advising clients against it, what else can counselors do to stop clients from sharing information about other group members?

Another challenge with group work is to select participants depending on their needs and group’s goals (Crespi, 2009). Given the scarce budget in most agencies and organizations, counselors are sometimes unable to separate participants by their specific needs. Counselors may, for instance, facilitate a support group on substance abuse and sexual abuse at the same time (even when participants may be in counseling for one or the other, not both), due to budget restrictions. An additional challenge is to prevent participants from any harm during group work, such as a physical or verbal attack from another group member (ACA, 2014). Once more, it is hard (if not impossible) to predict anyone’s way of thinking and behaving, regardless of how attentive the counselor might be.

Regardless of these challenges, however, counselors aim to provide the best mental health services possible to all group participants. Their goal is to improve client’s general functioning until it is time for termination or referral. This is, by the way, another potentially challenging event.

**Termination and referral.** Termination can occur when the client: meets established treatment goals, does not need further assistance, no longer benefits from the treatment, decides to discontinue counseling, or is at risk of harm (ACA, 2014). Termination can also occur when the counselor is unable to continue treating the client (e.g., due to burnout or fatigue) or the counselor lacks the expertise or competence to help the client (ACA, 2014). A challenge at this time is facilitating the transition to another provider or to end treatment altogether while simultaneously eliminating the risk of clients feeling that the counselor is abandoning them (Estabrook et al., 2010). Besides the inability to control clients’ feelings, the challenge is having to explain termination details and terms from the onset, when the relationship is barely starting, and rapport and trust are minimal, if any (Estabrook et al., 2010).

So far, challenges involve face to face counseling services, either individually or in groups. The challenges result from the counseling relationship, confidentiality and privacy issues, group work, and termination of services. However, other challenges originate from providing services in an online environment and using social media.

**Distance counseling and social media.** The literature shows the growing support and interest in providing mental health services through Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) and Virtual Reality (VR) methods (Botella, Garcia-Palacios, Banos & Quero, 2009; Lustgarten & Colbow, 2017). Counseling through computers (i.e., e-therapy, telepsychology or cybertherapy), for instance, enables communication and interaction between counselors and clients at a distance. Counseling simulations and the creation of virtual realities are also possible with the use of technology. Technology Assisted Distance Counseling (TADC), another form of distance counseling, occurs over the telephone, Webcam, video conferencing,
teleconferencing, instant messaging, and chat rooms (Dawson, Harpster, Hoffman, & Phelan, 2011). Through TADC, counselors can provide services to clients who might not otherwise seek therapy, such as those who are physically disabled or live remotely.

Cybertherapy and TADC are effective (and less time consuming) in the treatment of certain conditions (Botella et al., 2009). These conditions include: eating disorders, Post Traumatic Stress Disorder, HIV, depression, chronic pain, and grief. Despite these benefits, however, both forms of distance counseling represent serious ethical challenges.

Experts (Botella et al., 2009; Burrow-Sanchez, Call, Zheng, & Drew, 2011) assert that, regardless of the technology used, ethical issues involved in cybertherapy and TADC may result from the inability of the counselor to (a) maintain confidentiality; (b) determine the identity of the client seeking services; (c) avoid clients from suffering any symptoms of cyber-sickness (e.g., disturbed locomotion, flashbacks, fatigue, drowsiness, perceptual-motor conditions); and (d) prevent clients from suffering online victimization, such as sexual comments and nasty remarks, which may result at the hands of strangers and predators.

In other words, the provision of distance counseling means that counselors must: (a) prevent clients from disclosing private information, (b) ensure client’s identity without planting a seed of mistrust, (c) control clients’ reactions and computer exposure, and (d) identify predators in the cyber environment. Counselors’ technical competence to fix computer malfunctioning is another barrier (Botella et al., 2009). Lustgarten and Colbow (2017) emphasize that mental health professionals providing therapy via computers “must keep abreast of potential limitations to privacy and confidentiality” (p. 1).

Summarizing, counselors face daily and numerous ethical challenges in the practice of their profession. Even though most are caring, dedicated, and ethical professionals, it is easy to discern why counselors can make mistakes when dealing with ethical dilemmas. Ethical challenges can be unclear, difficult to define, and very hard to resolve. They can confuse the best of counselors. It is imperative that counselors learn how to prevent ethical violations. One way to accomplish this goal is to learn about their professional and ethical responsibilities.

Professional and Ethical Responsibilities

Counselors’ job is to address clients’ concerns and help them identify personal strengths and attain professional goals (ACA, 2014). Counselors also promote clients’ performance, adjustment, advancement, and self-efficacy (Lambie et al., 2011). In the fulfillment of these roles, counselors are expected to (Johnston, Tarvydas & Butler, 2016; Pope & Keith-Spiegel, 2008):

- discuss their role and the kind of therapy they provide from the start.
- take reasonable action to reduce and eliminate harm and danger by informing authorities.
- disclose only pertinent and urgent information, especially when safety is a concern.
- prepare clients for termination: providing support, alternatives and follow-up resources.
- monitor situations carefully and review risky situations constantly.
- pay attention to any feelings of uneasiness, doubt, or confusion.
- obtain a professional liability insurance policy.
- be vigilant of the signs of fatigue or burnout, practicing frequent self-care techniques.
Expanding on boundary crossing, Pope and Keith-Spiegel (2008) explain that emotional reactions between counselors and clients during treatment are beneficial and inevitable. These reactions may provide important information that can increase counselors’ understanding of clients’ concerns and even help develop rapport. Nevertheless, counselors must be aware of the chances for boundary crossing. Counselors have an ethical (and legal) obligation to: (a) be aware of their emotional reactions toward clients, (b) be aware of how these reactions may affect the counselor and the psychotherapy process, and (c) take appropriate steps to eliminate the risks of unethical behavior (Ascherman & Rubin, 2008).

Regarding the use of the computer and the internet, Botella et al. (2009) recommend that counselors help clients by discussing unsafe or risky online behaviors and increasing clients’ coping skills. School counselors can help parents protect their children develop and implement a prevention plan by involving trusted adults. “School counselors are in a unique position to assist in efforts to prevent online victimization because of their continual interaction with students, parents, and other school faculty” (Burrow-Sanchez et al., 2011, p. 3). Awareness of these expectations and responsibilities can help counselors prevent ethical violations. This awareness can develop from frequent training and regular certification.

Many experts in the field (ACA, 2014; Dawson et al., 2011; Kaplan et al., 2017) assert that counselors must obtain training and certification, on regular basis, and through their professional organizations. This will allow them to become familiar with laws and ethical codes that govern the counseling practice. Knowledge of theoretical guidelines developed by professional organizations such as the American Counseling Association (ACA), National Board for Certified Counselors (NBCC), and the Standards for the Ethical practice of WebCounseling, can make a big difference. The 2014 ACA Code of Ethics can serve as the best guide for ethical conduct within the counseling profession as it delineates core values and allows for specific decision-making. They claim that familiarity with theoretical guidelines, state and federal laws, and mental health practices (e.g., confidentiality and privacy) will help counselors adhere to standards of ethical conduct, develop ethical values, and observe professional responsibility (Lambie et al., 2011). But not everyone agrees.

Other experts in the field deny such assertions; claiming that training and knowledge of these ethical codes, guidelines and theoretical models have limitations and neither guarantee application nor effectiveness in real life situations (Shallcross, 2011). These experts claim that, familiarity with codes and guidelines can only provide information regarding what is ethical or legal, but it cannot determine counselors’ behaviors or decisions when challenged (Levitt et al., 2015). Furthermore, ethical codes can suggest different messages at times and may not always protect the professional (Stone & Zirkel, 2010). Thereby, training and education on ethical theoretical models can be “cumbersome, time-consuming, and inconsistent with practice (Levitt et al., 2015, p. 84). Apparently, counselors need more than training and certification to avoid ethical violations and address ethical challenges. A review of recommended practices is in order.

**Recommended Practices**

**Supervision and consultation.** A study by Levitt, Farry and Mazzarella (2015) focused on how counselors addressed ethical dilemmas and reasoned through challenges. The study emphasized the process of decision making beyond formal academic education with the intention to bridge the gap between theoretical training and real practice regarding counselors’ ethical
decision making process. Through semi-structured interviews, six counselors reacted to brief vignettes and explained factors influencing their decisions and ethical considerations. Results of the study show that counselors, even experienced ones, struggle with ethical gray areas. Results also show that it is difficult to find straightforward solutions to what may seem clear situations. “Counselors’ tolerance for ambiguity around ethical issues may be greater than that of other professionals given the nature of counseling and the lack of closure to relationships with some clients” (Levitt et al., 2015, p. 98).

According to this study, counselors seek frequent supervision and consultation for better clarification and guidance to address challenging ethical issues (Levitt et al., 2015). Supervision and consultation with colleagues and other professionals is, therefore, one of the best ethical practices for counselors to adopt. Another best practice is learning to reflect ethically.

**Ethical reflection.** Brown (2000) argues that ethical reflection can be the answer to avoiding unethical behavior by considering morals in the decision-making process. By thinking ethically when making decisions, counselors consider morals when developing arguments, making judgments, and discovering implications, both good and bad, before choosing the best course of action. Ethical reflection encourages counselors to learn how to handle opposing views, assumptions, and disagreements in a respectful, flexible, and trusting manner that allows for differences of opinions and behaviors. When reflecting ethically, counselors consider that clients seeking counseling are in need of assistance to solve important problems and address serious issues. Reflecting ethically is conducive to self-awareness.

**Self-awareness.** Self-awareness regarding themselves, others, and social situations is crucial for counselors to identify their strengths and weaknesses, including biases and prejudices (Estabrook et al., 2010). Self-awareness also involves considering the motivation for making certain decisions, noticing when difficulties begin, and responding to these difficulties appropriately (Shallcross, 2011). Besides knowing themselves better, self-aware counselors must develop core principles, values, and qualities to facilitate ethical decision making.

**Core principles, values, and qualities.** Experts (ACA, 2014; Estabrook et al., 2010; Lambie et al., 2011) recommend that counselors apply core moral principles and values to guide their behaviors and the therapeutic relationship. These principles include autonomy (self-rule or the right to decide one’s life), beneficence (to do good for the individual and society), nonmaleficence (cause no harm), justice (provide fair and equitable treatment), fidelity (being faithful and keeping promises), and veracity (being truthful). Closely related to these principles are professional values that guide counselors to comply with their ethical commitment. These values include enhancement of human development, protecting the integrity of the counseling relationship, and practicing in an ethical and competent manner (Lambie et al., 2011).

Counselors must also develop certain qualities for effective ethical decision-making. These qualities are: effective listening skills, empathy, and common sense (Lambie et al., 2011). Flexibility, ability to adapt to changing environments, and a commitment to be honest are important as well (Lambie et al., 2011). Healthy interpersonal relationships are important too (Brown & Groscup, 2009). Apologies are necessary and beneficial. “Research has suggested that an apology can help healing the effects of purposeful or inadvertent professional mistakes” (Pope & Keith-Spiegel, 2008, p. 650). Counselors with the above mentioned principles, values and qualities will always place clients’ needs and safety above everything else. They will also embrace diversity.

**Cultural competence.** Embracing diversity and multiculturalism helps establish and maintain a healthy counseling relationship with culturally diverse populations, such as the
LGBTQ community. Brown and Groscup (2009) suggest that cultural competence training and professional development are important for counselors, especially when working with minority groups. To begin, counselors must identify and address any racist or discriminatory attitude, phobia, and negative stereotype they may hold regarding minorities (i.e., self-awareness).

Counselors cannot perform to the best of their abilities or avoid causing harm when feeling uncomfortable while working with anyone who is, thinks, or behaves differently from them. To do so impacts their responsiveness and effectiveness as counselors (Brown & Groscup, 2009). An ineffective response can occur, for example, when dealing with domestic violence cases within the LGBTQ community.

**LGBTQ community.** According to Brown and Groscup (2009), perpetration rates of domestic violence and the cycle of violence among homosexual couples are similar to those among heterosexual ones. Yet, counselors tend to perceive homosexuals’ battering cases as less serious and less violent than incidents involving heterosexuals; thereby, suggesting legal charges against homosexual batterers less frequently than against heterosexual ones. As a result, counselors recommend treatments for victims of violence according to clients’ sexual orientations.

Besides unethical, such conduct is unfair. In order to properly care and treat victims of domestic violence from the LGBTQ community, counselors must be willing (and able) to help same sex couples, the same way they help others in the same situation. They must provide services regardless of clients’ sex orientation, in order to be responsive to clients’ needs, effective in their treatment, and fair in their counseling practices.

Recapitulating, best ethical practices include frequent supervision and consultation for clarification and guidance. They also include ethical reflection to consider what is right and proper. Self-awareness helps increase knowledge about oneself, others, strengths and weaknesses, including prejudices. The development of core principles, values and qualities guides behaviors and protects the counseling relationship while providing competent services to others. Cultural competence provides honest and fair services to those from diverse and minority population groups.

These practices can thus facilitate compliance with ethical (and legal) obligations, provide guidance, and clarify responsibilities. They can also increase attentiveness to emotional ‘red flags’ or feelings of uneasiness that can protect counselors against ethical violations and, lastly, facilitate the decision making process (Estabrook et al., 2010).

Following a model like the one developed by Johnston, Tarvydas and Butler (2016) can facilitate decision making as well. This model entails: (a) determining the possibility of an ethical issue to address, (b) recognizing conflicts between ethical principles (e.g., justice and autonomy), (c) addressing contextual issues (e.g., sources of potential bias), and (d) formulating and implementing a plan of action. Following such model can help counselors make ethical decisions in an effective and efficient manner, despite the difficulties involved. “Ethical decision-making is an integrative process that is influenced by counselors’ personal character and virtue, cognitive abilities, and decision-making skills, which promotes sound solutions to ethical dilemmas” (Lambie et al., 2011, p. 51).

**Conclusion**

The review of ethical challenges, responsibilities and recommended ethical practices provide a conceptual foundation for counselors’ ethical behavior and decision making abilities.
They show that becoming an ethical counselor is a continuous and active process that starts with education on theories and adherence to strong ethical frameworks. It also involves frequent consultation and supervision, ethical reflection, strong moral principles, professional values and qualities. It goes further to include the development of cultural competence.

However, if all of the above recommendations and suggestions fail or are forgotten or mistaken, counselors must always remember to place clients’ well-being and interests above their own. Counselors must also maintain respect for their clients’ dignity and the counseling relationship. “The guiding compass remains the psychotherapist's obligation to create and protect the integrity of the psychotherapeutic space to provide...the freedom to identify, examine, explore, and hopefully resolve the issues that bring one to treatment” (Ascherman & Rubin, 2008, p. 35).

References


About the Author

Josefina E. Oramas, Ed.D. (joramas@stu.edu), is the Associate Dean of Student Affairs at St. Thomas University and a Licensed Mental Health Counselor. She is also adjunct faculty for the School of Arts and Education at St. Thomas University and for the Social Science Department at Miami-Dade College. Josefina holds a Doctorate in Education from Nova Southeastern University with concentrations in Organizational Leadership and Human Services Administration as well as a Master of Science in Psychology from Carlos Albizu University and a Master of Science in TESOL from St. Thomas University.
Discussion Questions

1. Why can ethical decisions be difficult and challenging for counselors?

2. What are some of the common ethical challenges that can emerge from distance counseling?

3. Mention three recommended practices that can guide counselor’s ethical behavior and decision-making abilities.

To Cite this Article

Book Review

Book Details


Reviewer

Huyen Thi Minh Van, M.A., Ph.D. Candidate

Synopsis and Evaluation

A book on academic writing with a poetic title, Helen Sword’s work vividly proposes a flexible plan for academics to practice writing for productivity with pleasure. Her formula for success in writing includes not only high publication rates and professional kudos but also accomplishments via craftsmanship, collegiality, pride, and joy. Unlike Sword’s previous works *the Writer’s Diet* (2016) and *Stylish Academic Writing* (2012), this time she focuses primarily on the writer, not on writing techniques.

Sword develops her argument for productive and pleasurable writing through the **BASE** habits, describing each element in a part of the book. Part one, Behavioral habits (**B**), includes, but is not limited to, key writer characteristics of persistence and determination. This element is more inclined to the technical state for writing, including when to write, where to write, and how to be flexible in writing. Part two, Artisanal habits (**A**), sums up the most important mind habits for craftsmanship and care in writing. This part discusses the writing process, ranging from how-where-and-when to learn writing to writing from an international perspective. Part three, Social habits (**S**), centers on collegiality and collaboration. It describes the necessary relationship between the writers and their peers in writing for, with, and among others. More importantly, relating to writing with pleasure in Part four, Emotional habits (**E**), she emphasizes writers’ confidence and pleasure. The writers in their emotional state may practice under the pleasure principle, with risk and resilience, and use metaphors to write. Sword ends each section with concrete activities for writers to try on for each writing habit above.

The book attracts the audience by exercising two major strengths, including the use of metaphors and an evidence-based approach. First, Sword strategically leads interested readers into the “house of writing,” founded on the **B**, **A**, **S**, and **E** pillars, in an enjoyable way. Readers

1 Part of the book’s title is borrowed from the *Air and Light and Time and Space* poem by Charles Bukowski.
feel amazed discovering their BASE shape upon completing the diagnostic test at the book’s beginning. Then they continue to explore the untangled B, A, S, and E descriptions and analyses for readers to reflect and try various strategies. Also, to continue with the “house of writing” metaphor, the book closes with “raising the roof” tactics providing avenues for further writing productivity and fun. Second, Sword captures readers’ minds with the diverse and vivid experiences of participants involved in her empirical research, which has strongly backed the book. During the 2011-2015 period, she conducted in-depth interviews with exemplary writers worldwide and collected questionnaire data from 1,223 scholars. Their colorful writing lives and emotions find a way to get into the book in multiple entries and speak volumes to the audience. The combination of metaphors, images, and solid evidence has fortified Sword’s thesis that productivity and pleasure in writing can become highly possible for academic writers.

Nevertheless, Sword’s rich and diverse data, in various and fragmented chunks, may have made the layout condensed to the readers’ eyes and the content a little overwhelming for the mind of the readers. Moreover, some of the strategies she recommends are far-fetched and inapplicable to the general audience. For example, to sharpen the artisanal habits, Sword suggested readers find their emotional language by comparing the emotion words different languages express, which can be applicable only to fluent speakers of at least two languages.

Overall, Helen Sword’s perceptions of writing success and lively analysis, as well as practical tips, benefit readers immensely. Therefore, academic writers, be it seasoned or novice, faculty or graduate students, and even creative writers would find the book of great value.

In the Author’s Own Words

“Whether in our own writing practice, in our interactions with students and colleagues, or in our roles as academic leaders, administrators, and gatekeepers, each of us has the capacity to bring a little more ‘air and light and time and space’ into the writing lives of those around us” (p. 195).

“There are some significant differences between U.S. and U.K. perspectives on HRD that can have implications for how you interpret the role of HRD in an organization. When analyzing an organization (e.g., in a case study), make sure that you differentiate between perspectives rather than simply treat HRD as a universally agreed concept” (p. 15).

Reviewer’s Details

Huyen Thi Minh Van (huyen.van@tamu.edu) is a Ph.D. candidate in human resource development at Texas A&M University in the U.S. She taught business education and principles of marketing at Foreign Trade University in Vietnam from 1998 to 2013. Her research gears toward the business sector in Vietnam focusing on employee engagement and talent development. She also develops interests in emerging leadership in the U.S. profit sector, international students in the U.S. higher education, and lean management. Ms. Van has served as a reviewer in the Academy of Human Resource Development since 2013. Moreover, she provides consulting service with the POWER (Promoting Outstanding Writing for Excellence in Research) initiative that supports graduate students and faculty at Texas A&M University in writing mastery and productivity. She has reading, music, traveling, and biking as pastimes.
To Cite this Review

“Bliss 05”

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Book Review

Book Details


Reviewer

Susan B. Angulo, Ed.D.

Synopsis and Evaluation

*The Essence of Lean* presents an introduction to the concepts, principles, and practices associated with management programs commonly known as “lean operations” or “lean process improvement.” Describing these programs collectively as a “Lean management system,” the author builds a management model that explains how the blending of method and culture leads to the improvement of both organizational performance and workplace quality. The method provides tools and techniques for continuously learning about how to better produce value for customers and for the organization, while the culture is essentially a way of treating employees with trust and respect that makes them want to be a part of the system. Rather than emphasizing one or the other, the book provides equal treatment to both method and culture and, most importantly, emphasizes the synergistic relationship between the hard side of method and the soft side of culture.

The book includes 13 chapters and consists of four parts. Part one is a complete overview of the Lean management system model and how it can apply to organizational improvement. Part two contains an in-depth description of the Lean method with many real-world examples, covering a broad range of tools and techniques such as value stream mapping, waste identification, standard work, visual controls, stakeholder value, process flow, the 5S technique, workload balancing, work cells, batch size reduction, kitting, Kanban, and poka-yoke. Part three explains the role of organizational culture and includes a description of culture-building practices such as hoshin planning, training within industry, kaizen events, daily stand-up meetings, gemba walks, and leader standard work. Part three also addresses key aspects of personal character and leadership behavior that are essential in building a culture of trust and respect that leads to engagement and transparency. Part four includes a 7-step process improvement method designed to guide a first-time Lean improvement event. A case study illustrates the 7-step method, and each step contains questions for the event team to answer.
The author’s writing style is clear and concise and presents a broad range of concepts in a very logical and accessible way. The author’s years of developing and teaching an MBA course entitled “Lean Entrepreneurship” at Nova Southeastern University originally inspired the book. Being unable to find a textbook that was relevant and accessible to his MBA students, who were mostly owners, or employees of service businesses, or both, the author wrote a book that sought to identify the core aspects of Lean in a generalized way. In comparison with other Lean textbooks in common use (Womack & Jones, 2003; Liker, 2004), The Essence of Lean does not rely on manufacturing concepts or problems and uses terminology and examples that relate as well to small or medium-sized service businesses as they do to large manufacturing organizations. In writing the book, the author has synthesized inputs from various sources including a review of the academic and professional literature, extensive field work at various Lean organizations, interviews with executives, consultants, and educators, and the author’s own experiences in applying Lean principles as an executive and entrepreneur.

The book has had use as a primary or supplemental text in service operations management and entrepreneurship courses, and it may also be suitable for management, leadership, and industrial engineering courses. The management model in the book references academic literature and theories that help the reader to connect the material with other business disciplines. In particular, the model incorporates perspectives from operations management (Fitzsimmons, et al., 2014; Schmenner, 2004), management theory (McGregor, 1960), organizational behavior (Schein, 2010), and psychology (Koltko-Rivera, 2004). The model also clearly distinguishes Lean management from other programs, which people often confuse with Lean management such as Lean Six Sigma, Lean Startup, and a “lean and mean” management philosophy.

In the Author’s Own Words

“Based on the extensive range of tools and techniques, combined with the nuances of organizational culture and interpersonal behavior, I have found that the most effective teaching method for this type of material involves clear and concise presentation of concepts, followed by hands-on application of lessons learned through both in-class exercises and outside student consulting projects. The book was written to support this pedagogical approach. Detailed student consulting project guidelines and other teaching materials are available upon request to dhinds@nova.edu.”

Reviewer’s Details

Susan B. Angulo, Ed.D. (susanbangulo@gmail.com), is the former Associate Provost for Academic Affairs at St. Thomas University, in Miami Gardens, Florida.

References


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“Bliss 06”

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Editors’ Choice
Recent Books of Interest – Fall 2017

Thomas F. Brezenski
St. Thomas University


No other intelligence agency in any nation in the world has the reputation of Israel’s Mossad and with good reason. Utilizing a strike-first assassination policy early and often, it inspires fear deep in the heart of even the most fanatical of terrorists or enemy state operatives. Among many international relations scholars, the saying goes that if the Mossad wants you dead, you might as well do it yourself and save time. Ronen Bergman, through his connections with everyone from former Israeli Prime Ministers to contacts within the shadowy world of Shin Bet, the agency specifically designed to combat suicide terrorism, takes the reader on a riveting journey of Israel’s campaign of targeted assassinations and the cold, calculated rationale behind them. Bergman’s work is a comprehensive tour de force of the history of the Mossad and its sister organizations that is destined to be the touchstone of the genre for years to come. Without question, Rise and Kill First is perhaps the most influential, innovative and informative book on Israeli policy and tactics this century and deserves a place in the annals of seminal Middle Eastern foreign policy literature. A must-read for serious Middle Eastern foreign policy scholars and an eye-opening, can’t-put-down page turner for anyone interested in Israeli history.

One of the acknowledged journalistic experts on terrorism and an Israeli legal activist on the front lines of prosecuting terror team up to give perhaps the comprehensive primer on the unconventional side of warfare against such terrorist groups such as Hezbollah and ISIS. The authors put an exclamation point on the pivotal role of money in financing terrorist activities and Israel’s revolutionary program to choke off financial support from everything from establishing an Islamic state to single suicide bombings. Clearly destined to be one of the most influential works on terrorism since 9/11 and a ‘necessity read’ for those who stubbornly hold fast to the notion that only overwhelming military might is needed to combat groups like ISIS now and in the future. Anyone with a moderate interest in the challenges of modern counterterrorism efforts needs to pick up a copy of *Harrow* and will be all the better for it while enjoying an intense, exciting read.


The 1970s in South Florida was a virtual Wild West of partying fueled by cocaine, star power, and the schemes of narco kingpins whose white powder millions spawned a real-life of *Miami Vice*. According to the author, the epicenter of this excess was the hotel Mutiny at Sailboat Bay in Coconut Grove where the masterminds met, plotted and mingled with the glitterati of high society. Farzad artfully recounts the high tide and ultimate fall of the Cocaine Cowboys, not only detailing the glossy surface but also the grim and grisly underbelly of the drug trade where bullet-riddled bodies turning up left and right was business as usual. An ‘A list’ read for any South Floridian who lived through those days and a rollicking ride through the money, madness, and mayhem of the glory days of the Cocaine Cowboys for the uninitiated whose familiarity with Florida is limited to Mickey Mouse or Crockett and Tubbs. A classic ‘can’t-put-down’ page turner for one and all.


As the numbers of those who experienced and escaped the horrors of Nazi Germany under Adolf Hitler dwindle, Feuchtwanger’s work takes on added significance to the generations succeeding it. Partly told from the unique viewpoint of a small boy, Hitler’s rise to power is chronicled through the tortured eyes of the author as a child who saw his whole way of life and family slowly disintegrate through the actions of the once non-descript man who lived across the street. Those expecting a tell-all book about an ironic, deep personal relationship about a Jewish boy and one of the most monstrous men of all time before he could lower his curtain of darkness on the world will be disappointed, but the author’s
work serves a stark reminder of the evils of Nazi ideology and culture that still exist in the world today. A memoir worth reading for both its narrative, historical perspective and warnings for all of us who desire a civilized and compassionate society through the necessary thwarting of the insidious plans of those who still hold Hitler’s horrific values dear.


Non-verbal communication through body language has been an extensively studied subject, and some have even come to the conclusion that it can be more powerful than the spoken or written word. Anyone who has ever received a withering look from a spouse or a superior in the workplace knows this all too well. The author takes this knowledge a step further and analyzes how people in leadership roles can utilize their nonverbal communication skills to their advantage to become more effective in their positions. This work is not just beneficial to CEOs and those climbing the corporate ladder but to anyone who wants to improve his or her overall understanding of nonverbal signals and their meaning.


Donald Trump’s stunning rise to the presidency confounded almost every academic and political pundit who was dismissive of his campaign for the nation’s highest office from its infancy. Ingraham, a well-known leading light in the conservative media, understood the underlying factors of Trump’s grassroots appeal to key constituencies and succeeded where others’ gazing into the presidential political crystal ball failed. The author in this instance also cleverly weaves the story of Trump’s rise to power with conservative movements of the past, even dating back to Goldwater’s disastrous 1964 campaign against Lyndon Johnson, adding credence to the argument that the Trump triumph was not just a one-shot deal or political anomaly but a link in the chain of the continuing evolution of modern conservatism. A must for those interested in the history of the politics of U.S. conservatism or just plain intrigued by the New York real estate mogul’s rise to the nation’s highest office.

Written by those closest to the action of the most remarkable event in modern U.S. political history, *Let Trump Be Trump* is without parallel in terms of its inside knowledge of the freewheeling campaign that defied all logic and ended the conventional wisdom of presidential campaign politics as we know it. Gritty, entertaining, and eminently readable – a treat for anyone on either side of the political spectrum fascinated with the spectacle of the 2016 campaign season. Without question, it deserves a special place on the bookshelf of any political junkie.


Patrikarakos gives the reader a cogent and sobering look at how the now common aspects of our daily lives such as Instagram, Twitter, and Skype are used by the smartphone generation to warp and manipulate the conducting of conventional and unconventional warfare. In the age of ‘fake news’ and a U.S. president whose tweets are bound for the Library of Congress, the author provides the reader with a solid foundation of how social media plays a central role in everything from the recruitment of terrorists to the manufacturing of the aforementioned ‘fake news’ to purposely further cloud the fog of twenty-first century war. The author reminds us of that power to ‘make news’ or purposely distort it is now in virtually everyone’s hands, a lesson even the casual consumer of information should be cognizant of.


If, after making a purchase online, you are annoyed by the constant assault of product-related pop-up ads that follow your next cyber shopping trip, be forewarned: There is no refuge from the incessant prying in the traditional brick-and-mortar store either. This distressing news comes courtesy of Joseph Turow who, in his work *The Aisles Have Eyes*, lays out the plans that our good canine friend the Target terrier, for example, has for us as we patrol the lanes of our chosen discount retailer. Bottom line: We are not shopping alone. Corporate eyes follow our every move and translate our habits into big data analytics to increase revenue and bend our preferences toward predestined sales outcomes. Through exhaustive research and interviews, the author paints an Orwellian retail picture that goes beyond rearranging aisles to make us search or placing easy to reach impulse candy in the check-out aisle. Our favorite retailers are actively using the latest technology to delve as deep as legally possible into our private habits not to make their products more enticing but to change the way
we as consumers act as we shop; attempting to predict, modify, and hopefully control the buyer as much as possible. Eye-opening at the very least and jaw-dropping at times, the author’s findings about where the future of shopping is headed is strongly recommended reading for everyone from the toss-in-the cart impulse buyers to the tight-fisted Coupon Queens. A worthy, useful read and one you won’t find prominently displayed in the book rack next to Chicken Soup for the Fill-in-the-Blank Soul.


After growing up in a community rich with Jewish traditions and having the opportunity to review perhaps the penultimate version of the Yiddish dictionary, I am delighted to call this work by Ruth von Bernuth a worthy addition to the scholarly Yiddish library. Chelm, the mythical town of all fools in Yiddish folklore, has occupied an important part of Jewish culture as the collective stories associated with the denizens of Chelm have formed perhaps the backbone of the genre. The author deftly incorporates the contributions of Chelm in historical context and how the tales related to them fit into the Jewish experience over several hundred years. A must-read for students of Yiddish literature and Jewish cultural history for certain. An enjoyable and knowledgeable trip through the art of Jewish storytelling for Jews and non-Jews alike, with the author making the book seem as welcoming as a bowl of steaming matzo ball soup with a corned beef on rye on the side at your favorite Jewish deli.


There are a cornucopia of books written about Frank Sinatra the legendary singer that focus on his glory years and give scant lip service to his final years save for his late career comeback and reunion with the Rat Pack. The author here paints a picture that focuses on Sinatra in his final years, and the triumphs and tribulations that accompanied it, and gives the reader a fascinating inside view of the iconic crooner as a mortal man facing the last years of his life, dogged by many of the demons of advanced age and family infighting that many of us can relate to. Weisman’s role as Sinatra’s manager gives him unique insight into the private, more vulnerable side of the towering titan of pop culture that dominated the entertainment landscape much of the twentieth-century, something that is tastefully communicated to the reader without smacking of tabloid sensationalism or muckraking. A must for Sinatra fans, especially those who seek greater insight into the passions that drove the final years of his extraordinary life.

For untold generations, the old saw ‘too beautiful means bubblehead’ was drilled into women as gospel, handed down from mother to daughter like the family fine china. To put it mildly, the china is shattered into a million fragments by Fox News personality Eboni Williams in *Pretty Powerful*, and she unapologetically takes grandma’s wisdom to the woodshed. The author not only goes against the grain regarding the traditionally held inverse relationship between female comeliness and brainpower but downright flips the table over. In a refreshing look at beauty in contemporary corporate culture, Williams not only advises women to accentuate their looks to complement their mental acuity but aggressively snuffs out the old adage that pretty women cannot be taken seriously. She even goes so far to say that beauty can be one of womens’ most powerful weapons at their disposal and can and should be used accordingly to further their careers. Machiavelli would be proud of the author’s enthusiastic prodding of women to use sexiness as a weapon right along with street-smarts and brain power to beat the ‘Old Boys’ network into stupefied smiling submission. A tidy addition to the bookshelf of anyone interested in the politics of women in the workplace as well as an inspirational ‘girl power’ tome from someone who cut a trapdoor through the glass ceiling.


Every business owner’s dream is to build up a diehard group of dedicated fans of their product, the so-called ‘superconsumer.’ From *Star Wars* to organic produce, every brand wants to enjoy the fruits of the near-obsessive financial behavior of this group that will eagerly snap up anything the company offers with the enticing trademark at virtually any price. Yoon here offers a clever and still practical plan for businesses to cultivate and grow that small but fanatically loyal group of customers that can boost a company’s all-important bottom line and could potentially sustain the organization through periods of low overall sales. An informative and enthusiastic read about a small but important sector of the retail landscape.

**Reviewer’s Details**

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