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Mission Statement

The mission of the *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research* is to promote excellence in leadership practice 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 leadership theory.

Journal of Multidisciplinary Research

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Dear Colleagues,

Having just completed our eighth year, the *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research* (JMR) continues to grow by following our mission to promote global excellence by providing a venue for academics and practitioners to publish current and significant empirical and conceptual research in multidisciplinary areas that tests, extends, or builds theory. As the Latin saying goes, "Vir sapiens forti meliora" – A wise man is better than a strong one.

This Volume 8, Number 3 edition of the JMR features four interesting articles from around the globe. A study from South Africa explores existing research and identifies aspects that can facilitate leadership in nursing students, nurses, and educators. A collaborative study by researchers from Woosuk University in South Korea and Eastern New Mexico University investigates the effects of being a fan of college sports on college students' motivations for using sport-related social network sites and their overall college satisfaction. Another collaborative study from the United States military, Boston University, and the University of Massachusetts Boston aimed to provide insight into the types and frequency of self-talk of skilled golfers. Research from the Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology deals with the phenomenon that consumers overemphasize myopic gain, rather than long-term gain, when they are in the situation of facing two types of costs. We also feature a very good student ethnographic study that aims to contribute to the field of ethnic entrepreneurship by providing a holistic review of Hispanic entrepreneurs and Hispanic-owned businesses in the United States.

We include the review of the book *A Curriculum of Wellness: Reconceptualizing Physical Education,* by Kilborn, and we feature our *books of interest*. We also feature an interesting interview with Anthony Tripodo, an accomplished executive with vast experience in the energy industry at both the executive and board levels with both publicly traded and private equity held companies.

We wish you a happy and successful 2017.

Onward,

Hagai Gringarten, Ph.D.

Editor-in-Chief

"[Untitled Family]"
2012

Photograph by Kim Cardwell.

Scholarly Leadership and Future Leaders in the South African Nursing Context

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Abstract

The nursing profession is in dire need of good leadership that can play a key role in giving nurses a voice to make a positive change by improving patient care and enhancing the well-being of our people. The challenge starts with electing candidates who are caring and resilient; empowering them to become the future leaders in the profession; maintaining and enhancing resilience in professional nurses through ongoing development and other strategies; and ensuring there are resilient nurse educators to facilitate this process through scholarly leadership and the scholarship of teaching and learning. The focus of this research is to contribute to the development of such a scholar-leader nurse with the goal to improve the quality of care and to give direction. This research, therefore, explores existing literature and research on the topic and identifies and describes aspects that can facilitate leadership in nursing students, professional nurses, and nurse educators to provide them all with a voice to truly make a difference and to improve the health of the people of South Africa.

Keywords: caring, resilience, scholarly leadership, scholarship of teaching and learning

Introduction

The development of future nursing leaders is a long-term quest that requires both planning and action to ensure they develop the skills and competencies necessary for success in the ever-changing health care environment (London, 1993). Kouzes and Posner (2006) stress that the most significant contribution today's leaders can make with a view to the future is to

develop their successors so they will adapt, prosper, and grow (Faila & Stichler, 2008). The importance of professional nurses and nurse educators who can provide this leadership to student nurses is clear, as these emerging leaders will need analytical and problem-solving skills to resolve problems by making appropriate clinical decisions that holistic professional competence underpins, thus to ultimately replace and continue the highly demanding work necessary to improve nursing work environments and patient outcomes (Dyes, Sherman, & Chiang-Hanisko, 2016; Fish & Twinn, 1997; Hoffman, 2007; Sherman & Pross, 2010).

The challenge is to empower nurses to become scholarly leaders on all levels, starting with nursing students. They are the future of the profession, and they are our next generation of agents as professional nurses in practice. They are the next generation of care providers and service-delivery agents. Nurse educators are responsible for teaching these transforming agents, and educators must necessarily conduct research to provide the facts and evidence for better practices.

The focus of this research is to contribute to the development of such a scholar-leader nurse who can make a difference, with the ultimate goal to improve the quality of care and to give direction by serving the community, by embracing lifelong learning, through social and workplace contribution (practice), and through the ability to exert a positive influence (provide leadership) in all aspects of life. It is also important to touch on the legacy of nurses that are mostly women and the associated burden of historic preconceptions, gender references, and traditional views that create biases that nurses are merely "functional doers" who must merely carry out the orders of others (Eagley, Johanessen-Scmidt, & Van Engen, 2003; Dingfelder, 2004; Rolfe, 2014).

Despite good intentions and some interventions in the health care system and higher education, women are still underrepresented in leadership positions (South African Nursing Council (SANC), 2006; Harris & Ott, 2008; Stichler, 2008; Dominici, Fried, & Zeger, 2009). We currently define leadership positions as less attractive to women than to men, as these persons must be available around the clock in order to take on an inordinately extensive range of duties. Success in these positions often seems to depend on having a spouse who can shoulder domestic responsibilities (Dominici et al., 2009). We must no longer discuss women's contributions in decision-making roles in terms of equality and fairness, but rather in terms of the benefits that their participation brings to the leadership structures of organisations and society as it can add to innovation and an improved expression of an organisation's inclusive values. The underrepresentation of nurses in the leading roles we have explained above has added to the demotivation of professional nurses (SANC, 2006). The question is: "What do we need?"

We need nurse leaders who are thoughtful strategists and who can make informed decisions, whose actions are based on a body of knowledge, education, evidence, and experience (Dyes et al., 2016; Van Dyke, 2008; Sherman & Eggenberger, 2009). The positioning and adaptive capacity of nursing provides the profession with a unique opportunity to lead health transformation to advancing the potential for high quality patient care. At the launch of the national strategic plan for nursing education, training, and practice on 11 March 2013, the Ministry of Health also stressed the role of nurses in achieving a long and healthy life for all South Africans. These practitioners carry the burden of serving the majority of South Africa's population with minimal funds and insufficient personnel: 58.9% of nurses in the public sector are serving 82% of the population, while 41.1% in the private sector are serving 18% of the population (Van Rensburg, 2004; SANC, 2006). With nurses as the core of the health care

system, the call for strong and capable nurse leaders who can inspire others to make a positive change is clear (Dyes et al., 2016; Porter-O-Grady, 1997).

Universities across the nation are striving to meet the challenges of rapidly changing educational systems in an increasingly complex learning environment. Universities must bear in mind that they are a national asset and that they need to be concerned about the future of people. These higher education institutions face immense challenges, like the seamless nature of current knowledge as well as the diverse composition of the South African nation (Sandy & Meyer, 2009). In this educational landscape, social justice and equal learning opportunities have become centre stage, which implies equal opportunities that can lead to equal outcomes (Theoharis, 2007). Another challenge for all the professional fields is the importance of the "service" mindset, particularly in nursing, as we are dealing with a prevailing attitude of avoidance, disengagement, and entitlement in our profession. We need to socialise people to engage in and to value service (Napper-Owen, 2012). If we are not successful, we are doing our charges and pledges a disservice while depriving our communities. The service work must be authentic, meaningful, and relevant, and for the good of others (Wooden & Jamison, 1997). Like mortar between bricks, service can stabilise and sustain structures, and service assignments in our professions will not only prepare the students for their work in our communities but also can add to their own well-being because they will be doing work that is invaluable to others (Massé & Hogan, 2010). Universities have to recognise and acknowledge their social role and have to engage with society in order to be of service to all our people.

It is clear that higher education also faces the challenge and has opportunity to cultivate leadership among us and our students by introducing techniques such as teamwork skills, which ultimately will lead to empowerment to collaborate and communicate across sectors when necessary. Only through these collaborative leadership qualities will we be able to develop an understanding of our community, policy makers, and the media in order to garner the financial and regulatory support we need to maintain a healthy institution and to ensure quality in our operations as well as to meet the demands of our community (Carey, 2012; Green, 2013). Mutual respect and engagement are necessary, with involvement of all staff members and students in our communities, and in keeping with ethical principles to ensure a culture of service excellence, of concern for the future, and for the creation of a truly caring society. It is, therefore, important that universities must never act in isolation but always in partnership with communities to be in a position to identify assets and resources that they need to reshape and improve communities.

The declining funding of universities has impacted negatively on the functioning of universities as robust knowledge institutions and also can impact negatively on the quality of academic programmes (Carelse, 2012; Van der Berg, Burger, Burger, Louw, & Yu, 2007). This will not help us to meet these challenges that face us. Recruitment and retention of talented staff, provision of both pedagogical and research infrastructure, and the employability of many graduates from universities are problematic issues. Owing to the remorseless rise in the cost of university education, the question of whether this education will actually ensure future employment for them naturally concerns all students (Sharma, 2014; Van den Berg, & Van Broekhuizen, 2012). It is, therefore, important to identify appropriate new teaching and learning models, seeing that traditional lectures seem to have become obsolete. Nowhere is this dialogue more pertinent than in nursing where we must apply rigorous scholarly inquiry into the realities and demands of practice. Boyer (1990) proposes that scholarship involves four areas critical to academic work. These are the scholarship of discovery, teaching, application, and integration.

These four aspects of scholarship are salient to academic nursing, where each specified area supports the values of a profession committed to both social relevance and scientific advancement (Diamond & Adam, 1993). We can define scholarship in nursing as those activities that systematically advance the teaching, research, and practice of nursing through rigorous inquiry characteristic of and significant to the profession, and which we know to be creative, something which we can document, replicate, or elaborate on, and which peers can review. This commitment to scholarly approaches creates common bonds across the academic nursing community and can serve as a framework for the advancement of nursing knowledge that ultimately will improve the health of people. The challenge is to transform this vision into reality, to make a significant contribution to our profession by empowering nurses on all levels to meet the demands, and to make a difference by improving the health of the people of South Africa.

Research Question and Aim

Based on the above, we pose the following research question: How can we facilitate scholarly leadership with regard to the training of nursing students, professional nurses, and nurse educators? This research, therefore, aims to explore existing literature and research on the topic and to identify and describe aspects that can facilitate leadership in nursing students, professional nurses, and nurse educators in order to provide them with a voice to make a difference and to improve the health of all South Africans.

Method

This research has implemented an explorative review of existing literature and research in order to identify and describe aspects that can facilitate leadership in nursing students, professional nurses, and nurse educators.

Literature Findings and Discussion

Nursing students (scholarly teaching). Every year, within the first three months of starting their training, 6-12 students terminate their studies because of reasons such as having made the wrong career choice or finding the clinical practice too stressful. Quality teaching is central to the retention and success of students in higher education. Yet, sufficient qualitative measures and debates are still not in place to explore these issues (Essack et al., 2012). The changes in the South African health care system and nursing practice complexities we mention above require of nurses to have at their command analytical and problem-solving skills to make appropriate clinical decisions – ones that holistic professional competence underpins (Fish & Twinn, 1997; Jamshidi, Molazen, Sharrif, Torabizadeh, & Kalyani, 2016). In preparation for the professional role, undergraduate nursing students must develop and integrate knowledge and practice in order to achieve conceptual understanding to make the necessary clinical decisions (Jamshidi et al., 2016; Uys, Gwele, McIerney, Van Rhyn, & Tang, 2004; Tanner, 2006). In order to equip students with these competencies, they progress on an experience continuum from novice to expert (Benner, 2001). This experience accumulates over time until students have internalised it in order to become self-directed, independent, and evidence-informed decision makers who are fully competent to improve their patients' health (Jamshidi et al., 2016; Lombard

& Grosser, 2008; Straus, Tetroe, & Graham, 2009). Competency-based learning focuses on the capacity and responsibility of each and every student as well as the development of autonomy and self-reliance (Sanchez et al., 2008).

We, therefore, need to transform this knowledge into practical knowledge by providing innovative education through non-traditional approaches to learning where knowledge is integrated with attitudes and values appropriate for the student's personal and professional life – that which enhances lifelong learning (Sanchez et al., 2008). Right now, universities are caught up in a particularly uncertain space between the IT-revolution, the market, and community demands. We require blended learning approaches combining face-to-face learning activities with online or computer-based learning. This involves the integration of classroom learning with e-learning whereby students have at their disposal an element of control over time (Jacob, 2011). There is a mania over open online courses, and Ulrich (2009) refers to the innovation exhaustion of Higher Education: Instead of debating possible problems, many academics have jumped into the chase. Those involved have overexposed it as it is right at the intersection of higher quality and lower cost, causing a peak of inflated expectations. Another fear is that corporations – instead of universities – will end up controlling the future of higher education. Failed attempts at change in higher education have costs: When enthusiastic university staff members commit themselves to a changed project that subsequently fails, they take the scars of that experience with them (Scott, Coates, & Anderson, 2008). New initiatives, therefore, should not be at the expense of programmes that are already running well, as this will damage the morale of these academics. At the same time, however, we need educational leaders who are fearless and who are prepared to take risks to stay current, who are prepared to admit when they are wrong, and who are prepared to face the consequences and yet carry on.

Integrated learning addresses the relationship between learning activities and their physical environment, for example through mobile technologies. The educator becomes the conductor who orchestrates the sequence of activities and may change the scenario in real time. It is important to note that we have to change the technology – not the educator's freedom (Button, Harrington, & Belan, 2014; Dillenbourg & Jermann, 2006). Integrated learning also refers to the organic interleaving of computerised activities (e.g., simulation, forums, and exercises) with the diverse activities in on-campus courses (e.g., lectures, exercises, and practical work).

The challenge regarding nursing students starts with recruiting candidates who have the qualities necessary for a professional nurse: They must be caring and compassionate about helping others, and they must be resilient and able to meet the demands and challenges of their training so they will not only complete their studies but also remain in the profession and make a difference by providing quality care. A support network, therefore, should be in place to ensure the students have scheduled times and places to discuss their problems and share their experiences. One of the strategies the school implemented previously is a buddy–mentor system in which all the fourth-year students, as part of their research project and clinical teaching experience, provide guidance to the first-year students on a weekly basis concerning their practical skills. This initiative also involves measuring the first-year students' resilience and conducting focus groups with them to explore their experience. The feedback from both groups of students has so far been very positive. The school also introduced a men's socialising group, and the ladies subsequently established their own group to give students an opportunity to spend their free time constructively and to give them a voice.

Professional nurses (scholarly practice). South African nurses daily find themselves in a high-risk, stressful work environment that affects both their physical health and emotional well-being (Khamisa, Oldenburg, Peltzer, & Ilic, 2015; Phiri, Draper, Lambert, & Kolbe-Alexander, 2014; Van der Berg et al., 2007). Research findings and literature indicate that professional nurses feel emotionally overburdened, stressed, fatigued, helpless, hopeless, angry, and grieved with moral distress and lack of personal accomplishment. For these reasons, they often actually leave the profession (Khamisa et al., 2015; Phiri et al., 2015; Smit, 2004; Van Rensburg, 2004). It is thus clear that there must be a serious attempt to retain professional nurses in practice: We need to care for the caregivers. We can do this by increasing resilience among professional nurses and by providing support and lifelong training. There is an outcry from nurses to be acknowledged and recognised for their professional value, and their plea is that the caring concern that lies at the heart of nursing must be honoured and rediscovered. We suggest the exploration of the strengths of the positive end of the health continuum (Nelson & Simmons, 2002; Ryff & Singer, 2003; Keyes, 2007). Resilience is a multi-dimensional construct, and some used it as an umbrella term for specific facets of psycho-social well-being. Literature and previous research identify these facets. We conceptualise resilience in terms of high levels of hope, optimism, coping, self-efficacy, a sense of coherence, and flourishing mental health – all of which literature describes as characteristics of resilient people (Brown, 2014; Kaplan, 1999; Lifton, 1993; London, 1993; Risher & Stopper, 1999; Seligman, 1998).

Research among professional nurses in private and public hospitals in Gauteng, South Africa, found the prevalence of resilience in the total group of professional nurses (n=312) to be as follows: 30 participants (10%) seemed to be less resilient, 149 participants (47%) seemed to be moderately resilient, and 133 participants (43%) seemed to be highly resilient (Koen, Van Eeden, & Wissing, 2013). Stories and discussions with resilient professional nurses identify resilience as an enabling factor they conceptualise as a self-sustaining strength. Resilient characteristics of identified professional nurses correspond with the concepts in literature to measure aspects of resilience, namely hope, optimism, coping, self-efficacy, a sense of coherence, health, mental health, and well-being (Brown, 2014; Huber & Mathy, 2002; Kaplan, 1999; Masten, 2001; Tedeschi & Calhoun, 2004). Data also identify other important characteristics such as joyfulness, a sense of purpose and dreams, being appreciative of life, being thankful, being forgiving, having self-respect, having perseverance, overcoming obstacles, rejoicing in success, having self-control, having self-reflection, having vigilance, being constructive, being self-disciplined, being efficient, being committed, taking responsibility, being passionate, being able to handle emotions, striving to improve, being confident and mature with inner strength, being caring, and – proudly – being a professional nurse. Resilient behaviour reinforces resilience in attitude and ability in nurses. The latter facilitates positive outcomes that, in turn, enable nurses to overcome difficulties, to adapt to circumstances, to become stronger and more committed to the unique profession they value (Koen, Van Eeden, & Wissing, 2011).

This research provided evidence about resilience as a strategy to facilitate and enhance nurses' ability to survive and thrive in their demanding nursing profession and to manage the rapid health and organisational changes. We recognise the importance of a solid foundation (spiritual, personal, and professional), of sound knowledge and skills (sound basic education and ongoing training), a healthy lifestyle, and supportive networks and relationships (an environment or workplace conducive to learning) as part of this. It also shows the ongoing interaction between protective and risk factors. We can promote positive adaption and resilient integration by using

the suggested guidelines and thus can yield resilient professional nurses. These nurses work in a unique profession that can be both rewarding and satisfactory, and if the work they do receives acknowledgement and they get recognition, their professional image and morale will improve. The positive outcome of this will be quality nursing care.

We formulated guidelines with appropriate strategies while taking into account existing findings on resilience that we got from resilient professional nurses, as well as other findings on psychosocial health and the building of resilience. These findings we organised according to the six components of Kumpfer's model (1999). The complexity of resilience as a multidimensional construct and the interrelatedness of components, as well as the fact that internal factors link with interactional processes, made this a difficult task. Kumpfer's model was useful for this, and we used the empirical data from research and relevant literature (theoretical data) in the formulation. Although we understand the factors that promote resilience, we know little of how we can move from theory to practice, or how we can formulate guidelines and strategies that we can use in real-life settings (Newman & Blackburn, 2002; Weichselgartner & Kelman, 2015). These guidelines, together with the strategies, are practical, and the implementation thereof does not have to be expensive, as implementers can curtail costs with creative and careful use of existing resources. As part of our service delivery, and specifically our RISE programme, which strives to strengthen the resilience of health caregivers and other risk groups, we are striving to improve the resilience of professional nurses, thereby improving the quality of nursing care and the health care service in general.

The scholarship of practice has emerged in nursing as a critical component in the maintenance of the clinical competency of a faculty in a university setting, and in the advancement of clinical knowledge in the discipline (Norbeck & Taylor, 1998; Rudy, Anderson, Dudjak, Robert, & Miller, 1995; Twigg & McCullough, 2014; Wright, 1993). Practice scholarship encompasses all aspects of the delivery of nursing service, where we present evidence of the direct impact of solving health care problems or of defining the health problems of a community.

Competence in practice is the method through which we both advance and apply knowledge in the profession. Practice roles for a faculty that include health care delivery systems may involve those of the direct caregiver, educator, consultant, and administrator (Brown et al., 1995; Norbeck & Taylor, 1998; Wright, 1993). In the school, we also believe we are in partnership with the professional nurses in the practice where we place our students for their practical experience. The Clinical Grant, NECQIP, funds an initiative in the faculty. The abbreviation refers to Nursing Excellence and Clinical Quality Improvement Partnership. The objective is to work in a partnership to create a positive clinical learning experience for students to provide competent nursing professionals in the health service delivery system in the province and countrywide. We have regular stakeholder meetings with all our partners to get feedback, and the model in the school is thus a work-integrated approach through partnership with our nurses. They provide the care in practice, while we equip them to be role models for the nursing students.

We also need to develop short courses in order to meet the needs of the nurses, and these form part of ongoing training that we provide with a view to building their skills and knowledge. This also relates to the importance of teamwork skills, collaboration, and mutual engagement. It furthermore shows how higher education can take the lead in working closely with leaders in practice, as well as with the community at large, to thus ensure we can identify suitable mentors

and role models in a real-world setting. We must constantly keep in mind the relationship between teaching, research, and community engagement. People are important: They are our partners, and we should be people-driven, rather than policy-driven, while keeping in mind that although we are not culturally the same, we are all human. Figure 1 provides a visual depiction of resilience in nurses.

Perception of stressors, nurses that grow from stressful experience - resilience

Stress-coping processes, strategy: I bounce back, positive outcome: resilience in nurses
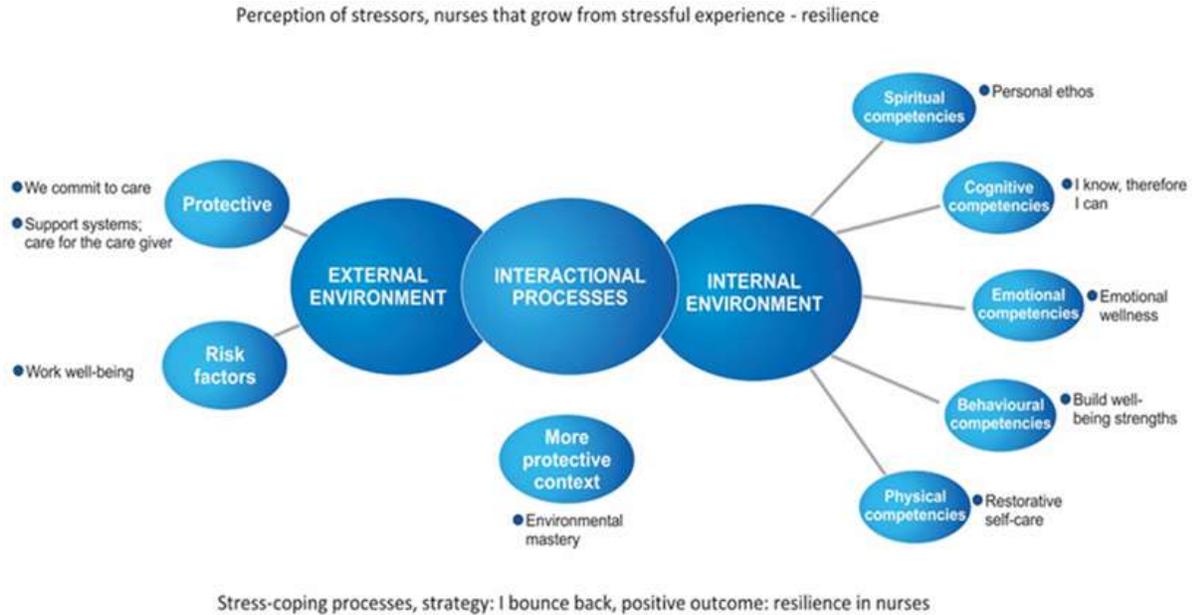
Figure 1. Resilience in nurses

Nurse educators (scholarly discovery and integration, scholarship of teaching and learning). The path toward becoming a scholarly leader in Nursing is long and often has many obstacles. There is sufficient evidence of this widespread problem of traditional gender-based obstacles: lower salaries, lower ranking appointments, slower rates of promotion, or even less recognition. For women in academia, the timing of tenure often coincides with the optimal childbearing years, thus presenting a conflict between biological and career milestones. Moreover, women academics who do have children still shoulder the majority of domestic responsibilities (Ginther & Kahn, 2006; Popescu, 2016).

The report of the Ministerial Committee on Transformation and Social Cohesion and the Elimination of Discrimination in Public Higher Education Institutions (30 November 2008) expresses the vision of the establishment of a single coordinated higher education system that is "democratic, non-racial and non-sexist" (p. 9). Among some of the transformational elements it mentions, there is the importance of an academic climate of diversity in scholarship we must accomplish by guaranteeing intellectual space for freedom of scholarly approaches, and encouraging diversity and innovation in academic disciplines. It is essential that all members of the university – Black and White, male and female, of whatever language, cultural, or economic background – must experience a sense of belonging. We creatively apply the multilingual language policy of our university to include all of our students. One of the methods we use to achieve this is simultaneous interpretation of lectures. Yet, regardless even of this innovative strategy to bridge the language divide, there still remain challenges in class for both students and

lecturers regarding the promotion of equal learning opportunities for such a language-diverse body of students.

It is safe to say that most educators would like to be scholarly teachers. Staying current professionally, updating course material, and examining student understanding are all examples of scholarly teaching. The scholarship of teaching involves inquiry that produces knowledge to support the transfer of the science and art of nursing from the expert to the novice, building bridges between the teacher's understanding and the student's learning (Boyer, 1990; Zeichner, 2012). This scholarly approach supports the development of educational environments that embrace diverse learning styles and that, increasingly, places the focus of education on the learner (Edgerton, 1997; Zeichner, 2012). We conduct the scholarship of teaching through application of knowledge of the discipline in the teaching-learning process, the development of innovative teaching and evaluation methods, programme development, learning outcome evaluation, and professional role modeling. Research has proved that students do not lose courage and motivation because of a heavy workload or the difficulty levels of the work, but rather because of uninteresting and non-engaging presentations (Eastwood, Frischen, Frenske, & Smilek, 2012; Feldman, 2007). Students praised those educators who were warm, friendly, and humorous in their manner and criticised courses that educators did not organise well, or that used methods that were not stimulating and did not retain their attention (Hativa, 2008). Any attempts at watering down course material, reducing workload, and giving undeserved grades will be tantamount to counter-productive teaching strategies, while research evidence shows that if success is achieved too easily, students also may lose interest and may devalue such learning. The challenge, therefore, is to maintain quality and to be innovative to retain students' interest by investing time and effort in their studies (Eastwood et al., 2012; Marsh & Roche, 2000).

Furthermore, scholarly teaching should advance to the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL). Huber and Hutchings (2005) define SoTL as an emerging construct, with its foundation in pedagogy, assessment, and in classroom and action research. SoTL involves critically questioning existing practice, collecting and analysing appropriate data, implementing action(s) based on data analysis, and disseminating results (Huber & Hutchings, 2005). The transformation from scholarly teaching to scholarship of teaching and learning requires a deliberately constructed research context, a lens through which to view and apply knowledge in an environment conducive to learning. Instructional communication and the motivational theory of self-determination focus on the learning environment as a means to help the student understand the learning process. An important aspect of communication in the learning environment refers to the educator's "immediacy," which can be either verbal or nonverbal processes that can increase and decrease a student's feeling of closeness to the educator. Examples of positive immediacy behaviours include humour, teacher narratives, eye contact, and smiling (Noland & Richards, 2014; Witt, Wheeless, & Allen, 2004). Researchers have found that students who express higher levels of self-determination are more likely to be internally motivated and to demonstrate more ability to apply course material in practical settings (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991; Noland & Richards, 2014).

Mutual engagement (ME) and a comfortable learning environment illustrate that the teaching process has emerged as an ongoing cyclical pattern of investigation and offers guiding principles that embrace the formation of group dynamics as the basis of learning, one applicable to all disciplines. It is the process in which students and their educator co-construct a safe environment in which to give and receive feedback for the betterment of learning. Ongoing

assessment throughout the course is another pedagogical technique whereby we should establish a developmental approach to learning – instead of regarding learning as a relatively constant trait. Thus, time to practice, manipulate, and master course content is important, as is as the educator's flexibility. The idea is for students to increase their sense of ownership in their learning and to gain a greater sense of their affective learning. A final component of ME is action research. Utilising ME as a framework to monitor and assess student understanding requires a rigorous ongoing pattern of inquiry, action based on class inquiry, and reflecting on past actions.

Paths to leadership in a school of nursing science often involve directing academic programmes, chairing committees, or leading a research centre or institute that the school has to initiate and often fund from its own resources. The position of the departmental–school director or chair is the only discipline-specific leadership position that resides entirely with one's scholarly peers; thus filling this position or being on one's way to a leadership position enhances a candidate's credibility as a scholarly leader within that particular field. These roles are often under-resourced and do not make allowance for more contemporary types of effective leadership. In order to compensate for that, we are looking at a 24/7 professorial role. There is also a perceived lack of organisational value that may undermine the credibility of these leaders and put a damper on the recruitment of younger women for leadership positions. Faculty leaders should consider and be accountable for the cultural changes that can bring women's contributions to the university into full development by, for example, establishing more family-friendly policies, and visions for a more diverse and inclusive faculty in terms of gender, ethnicity, and race (Freeny, Bernal, & Bowman, 2014; Ginther & Kahn, 2006).

In order to qualify for a position as a lecturer in the school, a candidate must have a basic degree (4 years), must have completed one year's community service, must have passed both Nursing Education and Nursing Management (minimum two years), must have a higher qualification in the field of choice (Advanced Diploma or master's degree, 2-3 years), and must have experience in the field of choice (at least 3 years). This amounts to a total of 12-13 years. The academic journey in the school may well start here, with the demands of teaching theory and providing clinical guidance to the nursing students in practice. Management recommends Community Nursing as well as Psychiatric Nursing for lecturers (3-4 additional years) as a result of the 'recurriculation' process for the new programme regarding the nursing degree. The university also requires its lecturers to obtain a Ph.D. degree (2-3 years). This amounts to a minimum of 19 years of ongoing study and obtaining the necessary experience to become a true academic–scholar. Teaching, research, and community engagement are the core functions of universities (Essack et al., 2012), and all lecturers have to be part of all these activities (also see Figure 2).

A leadership role in a school of Nursing Science also has a negative side, however, because of the enormous amount of time that administrative responsibilities require. This means that less time is available for other professional responsibilities, including research and teaching; even less family time remains for persons in these positions. Leadership also implies taking risks, like testing new approaches and having to deal with resistance and even failure, but we need to embrace true scholarship, and educators need to be committed to pedagogical inquiry and innovation (Hutchings, Huber, & Ciccone, 2011). The positive side of such a position is its potential for a major impact on many levels.

Participation in leadership in a school of Nursing Science should start early, through responsibilities like leading a group of peers in the school or serving on committees. The

scholarship of discovery takes the form of primary empirical research, historical research, theory development and testing, methodological studies, and philosophical inquiry and analysis. This is increasingly interdisciplinary and collaborative by nature – across professional groups and within nursing itself. The scholarship of integration refers to writings and other products that use concepts and original works from nursing and other disciplines to create new patterns, to place knowledge within a broader context, or to illuminate the data in a more meaningful way. The scholarship of integration emphasises the interconnection of ideas and brings new insight to original concepts and research. Critical analysis and interpretation are two common methodologies, but interdisciplinary work may occur through any medium for scholarship, such as those that Boyer (1990) describes as discovery, teaching, or practice. Original work in the scholarship of integration takes place at the margins, or interface, between two disciplines. It serves to respond to both intellectual questions and pressing human problems by creating knowledge or combining knowledge in applications that offer new paradigms and insights.

The responsibilities of a nurse educator is typically inclusive of education, research, and community engagement, which also illustrates the typical career path to qualify for promotion from junior lecturer to a full professor in Nursing Science. Many leaders find that they have "no room to lead." They are, for example, so busy complying with bureaucratic and reporting procedures that do not add any real value to achieving the core purpose of their roles; they are so occupied with dealing with complaints arising from faulty systems or miscommunications; so involved in responding to unexpected events or attending meetings that coordinators have poorly formulated, chairpersons have poorly chaired, or that have no outcome, that they have little time left to lead, or to think and operate strategically. Similarly, line staff may find they do not have enough time to teach or to learn how to make desired changes work (Scott, Coates, & Anderson, 2008; Yarbough, Haas, Northam, Duke, & Wieck, 2016).
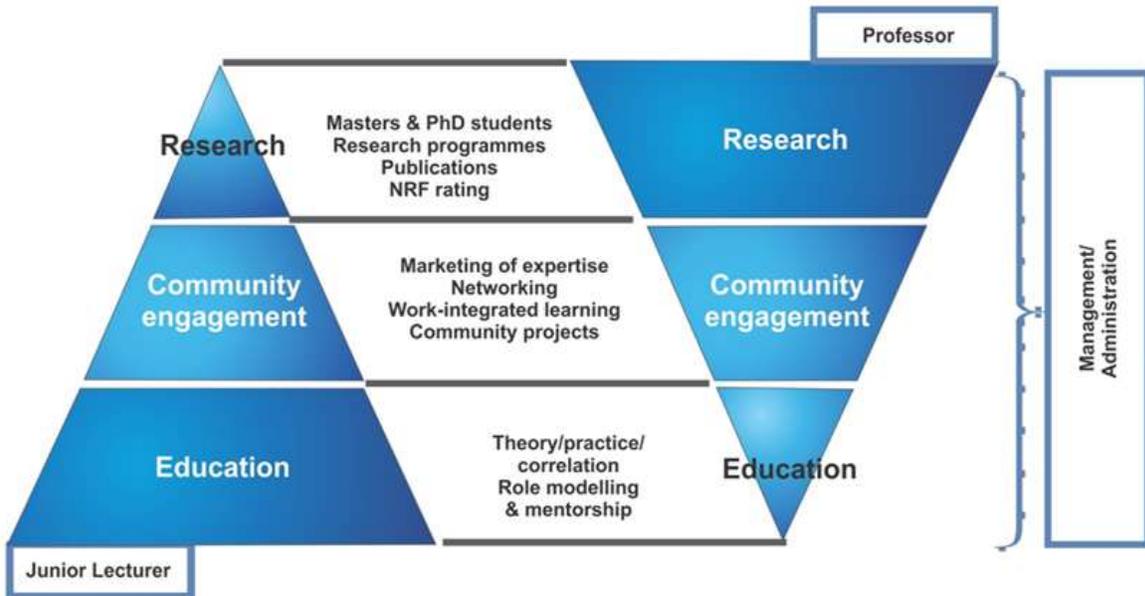

Figure 2. Scholarship in nursing science

Conclusion

The above discussion clearly outlines the challenges we face, and there is an urgent call for action on the part of the nursing profession to play its full and proper role as an equal partner in all arenas to ensure quality health for all South Africans. The commitment to scholarly approaches creates common bonds across the academic nursing community and can serve as a framework for the advancement of nursing knowledge that ultimately will improve the health of all people in our country. If we believe the best way to predict the future is to invent it, if leaders in the nursing profession are willing to accept the responsibility to discover where our country's health system is heading, and if we prepare ourselves for tomorrow while acknowledging and addressing the current challenges, we will be able to stay ahead and to deal with new challenges (Fahlberg & Toomey, 2016; Kay, 1998).

With regard to nursing students, this process starts with responsible selection of students, identifying candidates who are resilient and caring and of preparing them to become our future leaders. With regard to professional nurses, we need strategies that maintain and enhance resilience, ongoing development, and a close relationship between theory and practice to ensure good clinical role models and leadership. We also need resilient nurse educators who can embrace the opportunity to empower the students and to join hands with the professional nurses who are taking the initiative in practice. Through mutual engagement, they must ensure that we as nurses in South Africa can play a leading role in ensuring health for all South Africans.

The interrelationship between nursing students–education, professional nurses–practice and nurse educators–research is clear. We can use partnerships by means of initiatives like NEQUIP to facilitate the process. Nurse educators, as scholars, can contribute to nursing students' resilience and leadership by equipping them with a solid knowledge base and clinical skills (scholarly teaching), by maintaining partnerships with professional nurses in practice to support and empower them by means of CPDs or short courses, which also will contribute to students' positive experience in practice by means of true mentorship and role modeling (scholarly practice). As educators, we must assume full responsibility to embrace both scholarly teaching and practice, we must continue to uncover evidence, and we must integrate it with the health context (scholarly discovery and integration). Figure 3 illustrates this process.
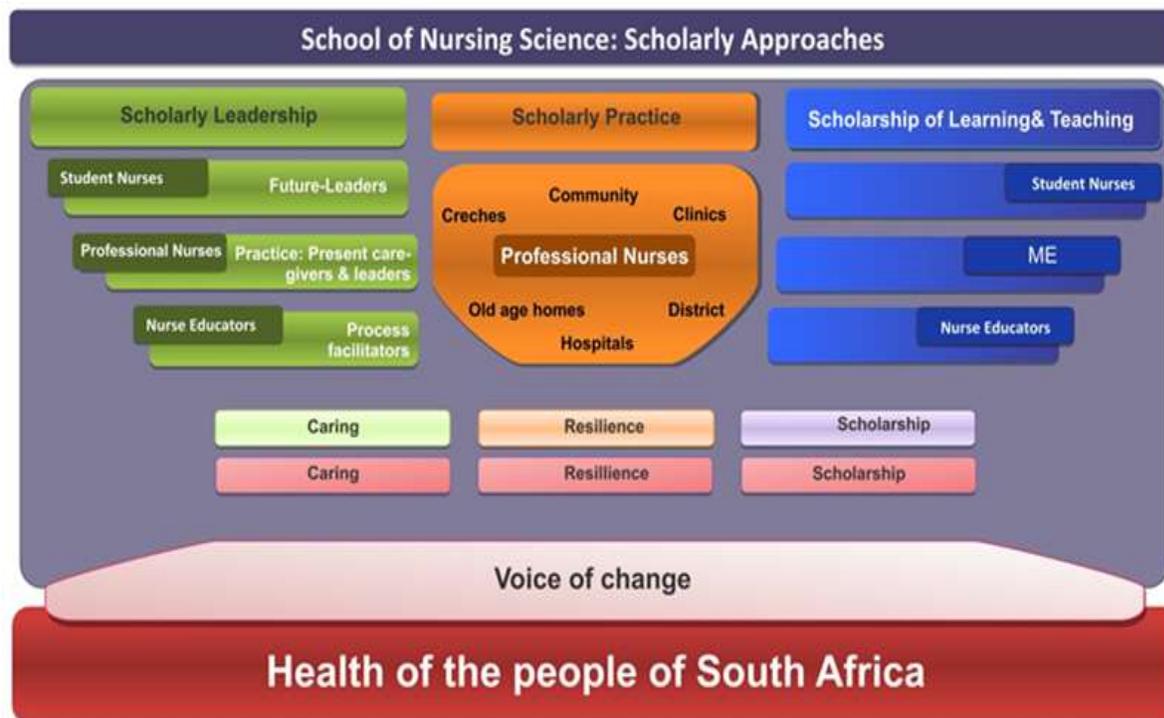
Figure 3. School of Nursing Science scholarly approaches

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Discussion Questions

1. What have you learned regarding the interrelationship between nursing students and education, professional nurses and practice, and nurse educators and research?

2. What are the main scholarly leadership challenges with regard to nursing in South Africa?

3. Which aspects can facilitate leadership in nursing students, professional nurses, and nurse educators?

To Cite this Article

Role of Fanship in College Satisfaction through Using SNS for Sports

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Abstract

This study investigates the effects of being a fan for college sports on college students' motivations of using sport-related social network site and their overall college satisfaction under four conditions from two binary variables: Domestic students vs. International students, high frequency vs. low frequency. Using data from 289 college students, the findings indicate the positive relationship between fanship and motivations, fanship and college satisfaction, and motivation (e.g., entertainment and self-status) and college satisfaction. Interrelationships among the constructs vary between domestic and international students. Furthermore, the effect of fanship for high frequency group on motivations is relatively higher than low frequency group. These findings suggest that a sport-related SNS might provide greater benefits for college students' experiences on campus.

Keywords: sport fan, motivation, SNS usage, college satisfaction, and domestic and international students.

Introduction

Social interaction plays an important role in human well-being. Fortunately, sports can serve as an easy and quick medium through which individuals can form affiliation with friends because sport exhibits the human spirit and social bonding (Funk, Mahony, & Ridinger, 2002; Wann, 1995). For example, college students can easily build a social relationship by following and talking about intercollegiate sports such as football and basketball, resulting in increased student interactions, friendships, sentiments, and social affiliation with various groups (Duderstadt, 2001; Sperber, 2000). Sports fans also spend their spare time online and participate in activities such as playing, discussing, watching, and shopping. These sports fans comprise about 19% of all Internet users in the United States (Sachoff, 2008, n.p.). In addition, the growth of social network sites (SNS) could further assist individuals in developing social interactions through sports.

In 2015, Facebook, the most popular SNS, has 1.49 billion active users (Smith, 2015, n.p.). Connecting with other users is one of the most influential motivations for online users to formulate an online community (Clavio, 2008). Many college students maintain social relationships with their peer groups through Facebook. Previous research revealed that most college students, approximately between 85% and 99%, enjoy using Facebook (Junco, 2012, p. 162). We live in a high technology generation and can connect with others through various means, including SNS, virtually anywhere and with an increasing number of devices. For example, Choi (2006) revealed that 85% of the study participants "listed the maintenance and reinforcement of pre-existing social networks as their main motive for Cyworld use" (p. 181).

Facebook Groups provide a useful medium that members can participate in and on which they can discuss issues based on their interests and activities (Gordon & Stephens, 2007). Thus, sports and various SNSs, especially Facebook groups, provide more opportunities than ever for college sports fans to facilitate their social relationships. Nevertheless, this popularity of sports-related social media usage has not received equal research attention. Of note, no research has ever empirically focused on the potential structural relationships among sports fanship, motivations to use sports-related SNS, and college students' life satisfaction.

In sum, this study focuses on the effects of being a fan for college sports on college students' motivations to participate in sport-based SNS and thus their overall satisfaction with college experiences. More precisely, considering the popularity of intercollegiate sports and college students' active participation in Facebook sports groups, the researchers posit that students who are college sports fans would be highly motivated to join Facebook groups and subsequently become more satisfied with their college life. This study further explores this proposed structural relationship among fanship, motivations, and college life satisfaction in four different conditions determined by a student's country of origin (i.e., domestic vs. international) and usage frequency (i.e., high vs. low).

Conceptual Framework and Background

Sports Fan and Facebook Groups Usage

The popularity of college football is generally known as the third-most favorite sport in US, behind only the National Football League and Major League Baseball. College football is the

second-most popular sport in the United States (U.S.) sports landscape (Dodd, 2015) as well as among those who have a college degree (Clavio & Walsh, 2014). Of note, college-aged young millennials are often SNS users. According to the EDUCAUSE Center for Applied Research (ECAR), among the 36,950 college students surveyed in 127 U.S. and Canadian universities, 90% of college students utilize SNS, and 97% of them are active users of Facebook on a daily basis (Smith & Caruso, 2010, p. 162). This is a reason why some athletic departments now perceive social media as a useful platform to market college athletics and have progressively incorporated Facebook and Twitter in their marketing programs to facilitate ticket giveaways, fan interaction, and general feedback (Tomko, 2011). For example, well-promoted social media allowing easy access to college basketball results in more attendance in regular season and tournament games (Clavio & Walsh, 2014). Further, Facebook provides a way for sports fans to communicate with each other. According to GMR Marketing, about 41% of people are more likely to check breaking sports news through Facebook and Twitter than both of national news websites and traditional mass media such as television (13%) and radio (4%). Interestingly, 83% sports fans even try to log on social media during live broadcasting on television as well as 63% check sports updates in stadiums (Laird, 2012, n.p.).

SNS provides a distinctive function to community members. SNS offers a place for members in the same community to interact each other on a virtual community page such as Facebook Groups (Ellison, Steinfield, & Lampe, 2007), helps companies communicate with their customers and increase brand value (Qualman, 2012), and attracts consumer attention (Kane, Fichman, Gallaugher, & Glasser, 2009). Many sport teams, therefore, try to establish online social communities by creating Facebook fan pages so that sports fans can join and stay in touch with fans affiliated with the same teams. For example, the Dallas Cowboys is the most popular NFL team on Facebook and has more than 7,500,000 Likes. Even the least popular NFL franchise, the Jacksonville Jaguars, also attracts over 480,000 Likes on its Facebook fan pages (NFL Teams on Facebook, 2014, n.p.).

Sports fans tend to maintain their social identities by affiliating themselves with one or more sports teams, or a specific group or community such as a university, city, or local sports team (Haridakis, 2010). Fan pages can lure sport fans to share their interests and ideas with others because fan pages often provide team-themed information, activities, breaking sports news, and score updates (Reysen, Lloyd, Katzarska-Miller, Lemker, & Foss, 2010). Thus, through these interactions, fans can strengthen their interpersonal relationships with other admirers of their affiliated teams, and thus promote common goals and value (Liao & Welsch, 2005).

Motivations for SNS Usage

Increasing popularity of SNS has gradually become one of the most interesting research topics, attracting researchers to examine the underlying reasons that motivate people to partake SNS and social media (Brandtzæg & Heim, 2009; Jung, Youn, & McClung, 2007; Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2008). Adopting uses and gratifications theory, many studies have investigated motivations for SNS. The uses and gratifications theory provides a conceptual framework to explain the way people satisfy their psychological needs and desires by consuming media (Katz, Blumler, & Gurevitch, 1974; Roy, 2009). Studies based on the uses and gratifications approach have shown that Facebook can help users gain interpersonal feedback and peer support and affect individuals' self-esteem (Ruggiero, 2000). On Facebook, users can join selected groups

according to their priorities of needs so that users can share common interests with peers in the same communities. The desire for integration and social interaction thus is the most prominent motivation for Internet users to work in SNS as people try to gain a sense of belonging and connection with family, friends, and communities (McQuail, 2005).

Most researchers have found a positive association between motivations to use SNS (e.g., informational, recreational, communicative, entertainment, self-status, or socialization) and social interaction (Park, Kee, & Valenzuela, 2009), and demonstrated that maintaining friendships and information seeking are major reasons for people to use SNS (Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2008). Jung, Youn, and McClung (2007) suggested six motivations to use SNS in Korea, including entertainment, self-expression, pass time, communication, profession advancement, and trends. Brandtzaeg and Heim (2009) also identified four reasons to use SNS in Norway, including information, entertainment, social interaction, and personal identity, and found that social interaction was the most impactful drive for SNS participation. Furthermore, other researcher (Nyland, Marvez, & Beck, 2007) discovered that social interaction is the most influential gratification that encourages people to participate in SNS to gain peer support, get along with interesting people, belong to a community, and keep in touch with friends. In addition, peer groups have been shown to positively influence an individual's socialization than other group agents including parents, school, etc. (Eitzen & Sage, 1986), and individuals' affiliation to a community is the most important factor for human socialization (Miracle & Rees, 1994). Consistently, interpersonal relationships satisfy the need of users the most (Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000), because one of the most attractive advantages for using SNS is communication that helps users to engage in interpersonal utility.

One study found that the information motivation of SNS usage was a stronger driver for social involvement than was entertainment motivation, even though the purposes of online SNS groups were to satisfy social contacts, community engagement, and attachment to the whole community through networks (Kavanaugh, Reese, Carroll, & Rosson, 2005). For sports fans, sports Web or Facebook Groups provides breaking news about the team issues and the progress in a game, and team information about rankings, schedules, or specific promotional events. For example, most professional or intercollegiate sports teams have launched Facebook Group fan pages to satisfy the needs of sports fans. Consequently, by joining these fan pages, sports fans can now share their knowledge with others who also have similar interests and fulfill their desire to improve and maintain human relationships (Korgaonkar & Wolin, 1999). Thus, sports fans enjoy sharing their personal opinions and discussing several issues in regards to individual athletes or team performance and general topics happening in sports leagues. In light of these viewpoints, this study suggests that becoming college sports fans who have fanship for a certain intercollegiate sport lead to motivations to use Facebook fan pages. Therefore, the researchers hypothesized:

> H1: College sports fanship will be significantly related to motivations for sport-related SNS usage.

College Life Satisfaction and SNS Use for Intercollegiate Sports

Most educational institutes have focused on strengthening life satisfaction of students (O'Neill, 1981). According to Yoh, Mohr, and Gordon (2008), college satisfaction refers to

college students' overall feeling about their experience in college. Satisfaction focuses on how people live their lives in favorable ways, and the term satisfaction connotes a perceived better quality of life (Cummins & Nistico, 2002). College satisfaction mostly has defined with two different terms: Quality of College Life (QCL) (Sirgy, Grzeskowiak, & Rahtz, 2007; Yoh et al., 2008) and Subjective Wellbeing (SWB) of students (Cha, 2003). The use of media technology as well as access to leisure activities have assessed QCL (Wei & Leung, 1998) because the use of media technology as a leisure activity plays an important role in predicting psychological well-being (Cotten, 2008).

McQuail (2005) notes social interaction and integration are the most explicit motivation for online members to use an SNS. Social capital plays a role in understanding social interactions among people (Lin, 2001; Putnam, 2004). The resources generating in interpersonal social relationships are broadly referred to social capital (Coleman, 1988). A definition of social capital is "the resources accumulated through the relationships among people" (Ellison et al., 2007, p. 1145) and appreciated in various ways (Adler & Kwon, 2002), and people can regard social capital as both a cause and an effect of social relationships (Williams, 2006). Individuals are more likely to have social capital in a large and diverse network than a small and less diverse network. People often are willing to earn social capital through frequent interactions with peers and new acquaintances (Resnick, 2002). Additionally, much research has taken place to examine the potential positive when researchers see the uses of the correlations between motivations of Internet usage (e.g., informational, recreational, communication, or entertainment motivation) and social capital (Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2008). Specifically, informational motivations, online news, political blogs, and virtual communities are all positively related to social capital. In contrast, entertainment and diversion motivations, games, and online movies are negatively related to social capital (Shah, Schmierbach, Hawkins, Espino, & Donavan, 2002). This is why people tend to use Facebook to keep in touch with friends. Because communication with others on SNS can enhance individuals' self-esteem and improved life satisfaction, using SNS help could help individuals to maintain and strengthen their social networks (Valkenburg, Peter, & Schouten, 2006). That is, college students can identify with common issues of peer groups, feel a sense of belonging, and connect with friends and their community, allowing them to accumulate social capital that is closely associated with life satisfaction (Ellison et al., 2007).

Some also consider social interaction as the most central part of leisure activities (Auld & Case, 1997), and often people have the most positive experiences with their friends (Leung & Lee, 2005). Previous studies also suggest that an individual's well-being in society most likely relates to social interaction (Ellison et al., 2007; Valkenburg et al., 2006). Of note, sport is the most important and easiest for individual's affiliation with friends because sport exhibits human spirit and social bonding (Funk et al., 2002). Intercollegiate sports are helpful for college students' interactions such as friendships and social affiliations with peer groups (Sperber, 2000; Duderstadt, 2001). Further, social capital allows individuals to gain opportunities and information that are unavailable in other ways, improving people's well-being and quality of life (Lin, 2001). For example, an early study reveals that friendship and social integration are positively related to college satisfaction (Spady, 1970). Satisfaction itself shows a positive quality of life (Cha, 2003; Sirgy, et al., 2007), and college satisfaction reflects the overall feeling of students' experience in campus life. Thus, engaging in sports relates positively to improved quality of life (Wankel & Berger, 1990).

College sports, in particular, college football, are as popular as, if not more so than, professional sports among college students in the United States. College sports potentially permeate all university campuses because college sports allow students to gain pride by attracting media attention from all over the country (Crompton, 2004). College students' pride of belonging to a collegiate sport institution could affect positively individual students' emotions through forming a positive image of themselves because their university features a prominent, big-time athletic program (Johnson & Whitehead, 2000). People feel pleasurable and triumphant when they set their personal meanings on a sport with individual involvement (Havitz & Dimanch, 1999), and the team then serves as a means to strengthen their status and show personality (Crompton, 2004). Emotional involvement with their college teams enhance college students' sense of motivation and interest into their college athletic teams so that college students can feel better about themselves and stay committed to their college. Thus, online activities of college students seeking gratifications through using Facebook sports groups fan pages may have a positive impact on their social capital, ultimately college life satisfaction. This leads to following hypotheses:

H2: Motivations for sport-related SNS usage will be significantly related to college satisfaction.

H3: College sports fanship will be significantly related to college satisfaction.

Recently, sociodemographic characteristics such as race and ethnicity researchers have investigated different types of SNS use. Cultural background is a crucial sociodemographic variable that could affect how students use SNS for sport-related purposes. Asian countries such as China and Korea generally observe collectivism, whereas Western cultures such as the United States are more likely to associate with individualism (Cho, Kwon, Gentry, Jun, & Kropp, 1999). Previous studies have provided some preliminary evidence showing that students with different cultural orientations use SNS for different purposes. U.S. college students are more likely to use SNS for seeking entertainment, whereas Asian college students (e.g., Korean) have greater motivation for information and social support (Kim, Sohn, & Choi, 2011). Accordingly, this study hypothesized that:

H4: The relationships among fanship, motivations, and college life satisfaction will be moderated by country of origin (Domestic vs. International students).

Another stream of research has focused on the frequency of SNS participation. In fact, the frequency of Internet usage is also an important factor to predict individuals' psychological well-being in online activities (Cotten, 2008). Previous studies have intended to classify Internet users as either heavy or light users, and investigated the relationship between usage frequency and different motivations (Korgaonkar & Wolin, 1999; Roy, 2009). Consistent with previous studies studying frequency of using SNS, the researchers hypothesized:

H5: The relationships among fanship, motivations, and college life satisfaction will be moderated by frequency (High vs. Low frequency).

Method

Participants

The participants were college students (*N* = 289) at a large southeastern university playing in National Collegiate Athletic Association's (NCAA) Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS). The participants consisted of a relatively even mix of male (*N* = 153, 52.9%) and female (*N* = 136, 47.1%). There were 40.8% Whites, 5.2% Blacks, 15.2% Hispanics, 37.1% Asian, and 1.7% listed as Others. The mean age was 22.43 years (SD = 4.78).

Procedures and Data Analysis

The researchers used AMOS 8.0 and SPSS version 18 to analyze the day. The researchers carried out Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to test the psychometric property of the survey instruments and then Structural Equation Modeling to test this study's hypotheses. The researchers accessed the reliability of the construct indicators with Cronbach's alpha, Construct Reliability (CR), and Average Variance Extracted (AVE). In addition, the researchers accessed the overall fit of the measurement and structural models based on the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA).

Measures

The researchers used six motives, including interpersonal utility (IPU), entertainment (ENT), pass time (PT), self-status (SST), information (IFM), and socialization (SCZ) to represent college students' motivations to participate in sports-related SNS. The researchers determined the inclusion of these six motives by two steps. First, The researchers conducted a literature review to identify suitable motives for SNS usage among college students. Previous studies examined college students' SNS usage by using several motives such as SCZ, ENT, SST, IFM (Park et al., 2009), IPU, SCZ (Lou, Nickerson, & McMorris, 2012), PT, ENT, IPU, SCZ (Kim, Kim, & Nam, 2010), and ENT (Lin & Lu, 2011). The researchers subsequently chose the six motives because they are in common usage to measure college students' motivations to engage in SNS. College students with higher scores indicated they had higher motivations for using sports-related SNS than those with lower scores. Second, an expert panel containing faculty from sport management and communication further reviewed the six selected motives. According to the feedback of the panel, all six motives were appropriate and thus the researchers retained them.

To measure the six motives for SNS usage among college students, this study adapted 11 items from the Computer-Mediated Communication motivations scale (CMC, Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000) to measure IPU (α = .95), ENT (α = .91), and PT (α = .94), six items from the Scale of Motivation for Online Sport Consumption (SMOS, Hur, Ko, & Valacich, 2007) to measure IFM (α = .91) and SCZ (α = .95), and three items from Park, Kee, and Valenzuela's (2009) scale to measure SST (α = .89).

In addition, the researchers adapted five items from the Sport Fanship Scale (SFS, Wann, 1995) to access participants' level of fanship (α = .96). The researchers measured the outcome

variable, College satisfaction (CS), with three items they adapted from Sirgy, Grzeskowiak, and Rahtz (2007) ($\alpha = .95$). The researchers measured all survey items on a 7-point Likert-type scale.

Results

Measurement Model

The results of CFA yielded an acceptable model fit ($x^2 = 712.05$, $df = 322$, $x^2/df = 2.21$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .95, IFI = .95, TLI = .95, Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). All factor loadings exceeded the 0.7 threshold and ranged between .80 and .95. All loading of items on measurement model were statistically significant ($p < .001$).

The researchers examined the construct reliability estimates of the measurement model using AVE and CR. The AVE values were greater than .50, and CR values also met the suggested .70 cutoff (Hair et al., 2006). In addition, the Cronbach's alpha of all survey constructs exceeded the .70 threshold, providing evidence for internal consistency and reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Furthermore, the researchers carried out a correlation analysis for discriminant validity among all factors to test discriminant validity. The inter-construct correlations were all below .85 and ranged between .03 and .79, suggesting discriminant validity (Kline, 2005).

Hypotheses 1 – 3

The results of the SEM showed a good model fit ($x^2 = 712.05$, $df = 322$, $x^2/df = 2.21$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .95, IFI = .95, TLI = .95). First, the results fully supported hypothesis 1. Specifically, fanship has a positive impact on IPU ($\beta = .48$, $p < .001$), ENT ($\beta = .53$, $p < .001$), PT ($\beta = .31$, $p < .001$), IFM ($\beta = .24$, $p < .001$), SCZ ($\beta = .51$, $p < .001$), and SST ($\beta = .43$, $p < .001$), suggesting that sport fans are mostly driven to participate in sports-related SNS from such motivations.

Furthermore, among the six motivations for SNS usage, only the paths between ENT ($\beta = .17$, $p < .01$) CS and SST ($\beta = .27$, $p < .001$) and CS were significant, providing partial support for hypothesis 2. Last, the results of SEM revealed that fanship was significantly related to CS ($\beta = .57$, $p < .001$), and thus supported hypothesis 3. The results from hypotheses 1 – 3 are visible in Figure 1.
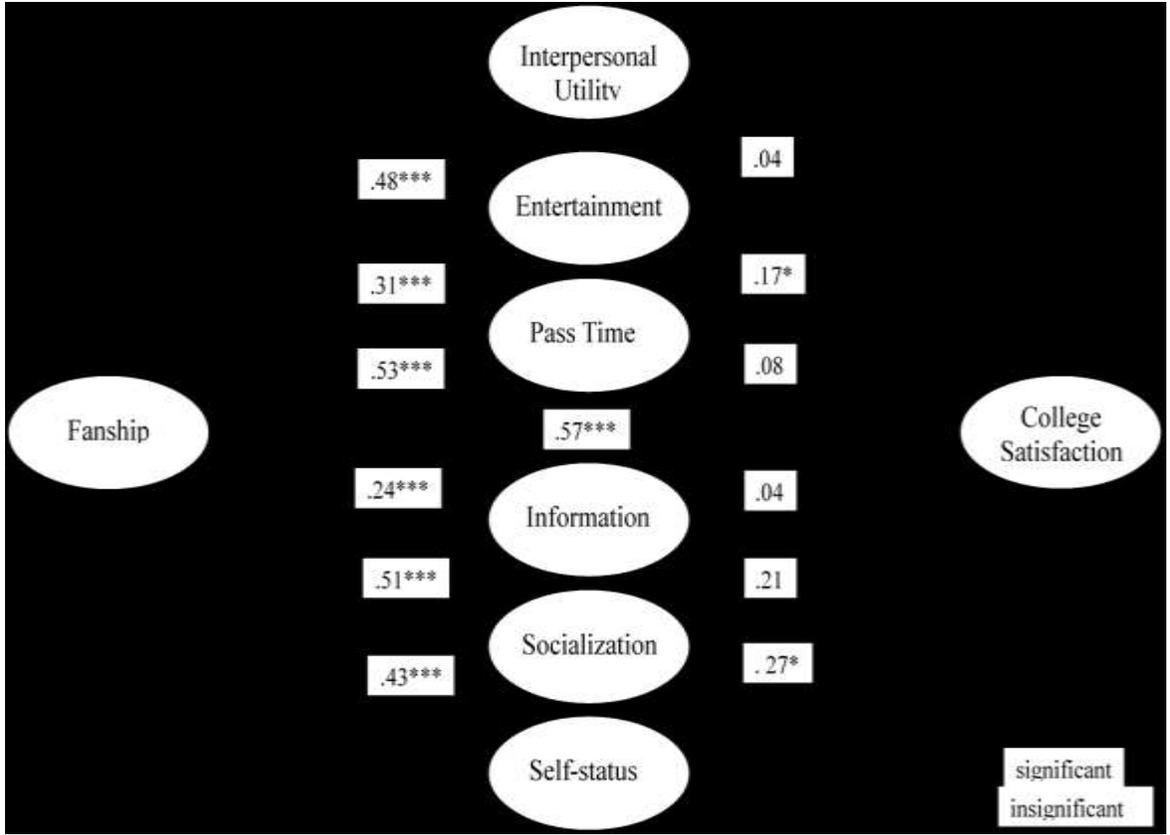
Figure 1. Result of structural model for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4

The researchers conducted a multiple-group SEM to understand whether U.S. students ($N = 152$) and international students ($N = 137$) had differences in the relationships among fanship, motivations, and college life satisfaction (hypothesis 4). The result of a chi-square difference test ($\Delta x^2 = 30.88$, $df = 20$, $p =.06$, $x^2 < 31.41$, $p > .05$) was not significant from group invariance (unconstrained model: $x^2 = 1317.46$, $df = 644$, $x^2/df = 2.05$, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .06, measurement weight: $x^2 = 1348.34$, $df = 664$, $x^2/df = 2.03$, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .06).

This result indicates that, compared with the results from the international students, the fanship of domestic students had significantly weaker effects on IPU ($\beta_{domestic} = 0.43$ vs. $\beta_{international} = 0.57$, $p < .001$), ENT ($\beta_{domestic} = 0.29$ vs. $\beta_{international} = 0.48$, $p < .001$), SCZ ($\beta_{domestic} = 0.45$ vs. $\beta_{international} = 0.67$, $p < .001$), and SST ($\beta_{domestic} = 0.27$ vs. $\beta_{international} = 0.57$, $p < .001$) but stronger effects on IFM ($\beta_{domestic} = 0.28$ vs. $\beta_{international} = 0.09$, $p < .001$) and PT ($\beta_{domestic} = 0.61$ vs. $\beta_{international} = 0.50$, $p < .001$). In terms of the direct effect of fanship on college life satisfaction, a stronger effect was among domestic college students than among international students' level of fanship, and had a stronger impact on their college life satisfaction (CS) than that of the international students ($\beta_{domestic} = 0.63$ vs. $\beta_{international} = 0.51$, $p < .001$).

Furthermore, the effects of the six motivations on college students' life satisfaction also varied between the two groups of students. For domestic, U.S. students, similar to the results from hypothesis 2, ENT ($\beta =.48$, $p < .001$) and SST ($\beta =.57$, $p < .001$) accounted for their

overall satisfaction with their college experience. On the contrary, none of the six motivations significantly determined international students' overall college satisfaction – evidence supported hypothesis 4, which predicts that the interrelationships among fanship, motivations for SNS usage, and college life satisfaction vary between international and domestic students. Table 1 and 2 summarize the results of hypothesis 4 testing.

Table 1
Measurement Invariance Test for U.S. Student and International Student

Model fit indices	Invariance test
M0: x^2 = 1317.46; df = 644; x^2/df = 2.05; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .06	x^2 = 30.88; df = 20
M1: x^2 = 1348.34; df = 664; x^2/df = 2.03; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .06	*Calculate p* = .06

Note. M0 = Unconstrained model; M1 = Measurement weight; df = 20, x^2 < 31.41 represent insignificant from x^2 distribution table; p > .05

Table 2
U.S. and International Student Standardized Path Coefficients

Path	β		Critical Ratio	
U.S. VS International	U.S.	INT	U.S.	INT
Fanship → Interpersonal Utility	.43***	.57***	5.44	7.47
Fanship → Entertainment	.29***	.48***	3.51	6.11
Fanship → Pass Time	.61***	.50***	8.40	6.20
Fanship → Information	.28***	.09	3.34	Insignificant
Fanship → Socialization	.45***	.67***	5.58	9.01
Fanship → Self-status	.27**	57***	3.19	7.24
Fanship → College Satisfaction	.63***	.51***	6.65	5.43
Interpersonal Utility → College Satisfaction	.03	.12	insignificant	insignificant
Entertainment → College Satisfaction	.21*	.05	2.39	insignificant
Pass Time → College Satisfaction	.02	.11	insignificant	insignificant
Information → College Satisfaction	.04	.05	insignificant	insignificant
Socialization → College Satisfaction	.05	.15	insignificant	insignificant
Self-status → College Satisfaction	.30*	.21	2.27	insignificant

Note. *** p < .001; ** p < .01; * p < .05

Hypothesis 5

To test hypothesis 5, the researchers further classified participants into two independent groups the frequency of SNS usage determined. Participants in the low frequency group (N = 159) used the sport-related SNS few than one time daily, whereas those in the high frequency group (N = 130) visited the sport-related SNS twice or more on a daily basis. A multi-group SEM of the unconstrained model (x^2 = 1207.31, df = 644, x^2/df = 1.88, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .06) and measurement model (x^2 = 1226.733, df = 664, x^2/df = 1.85, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .05) showed an acceptable fit of the data.
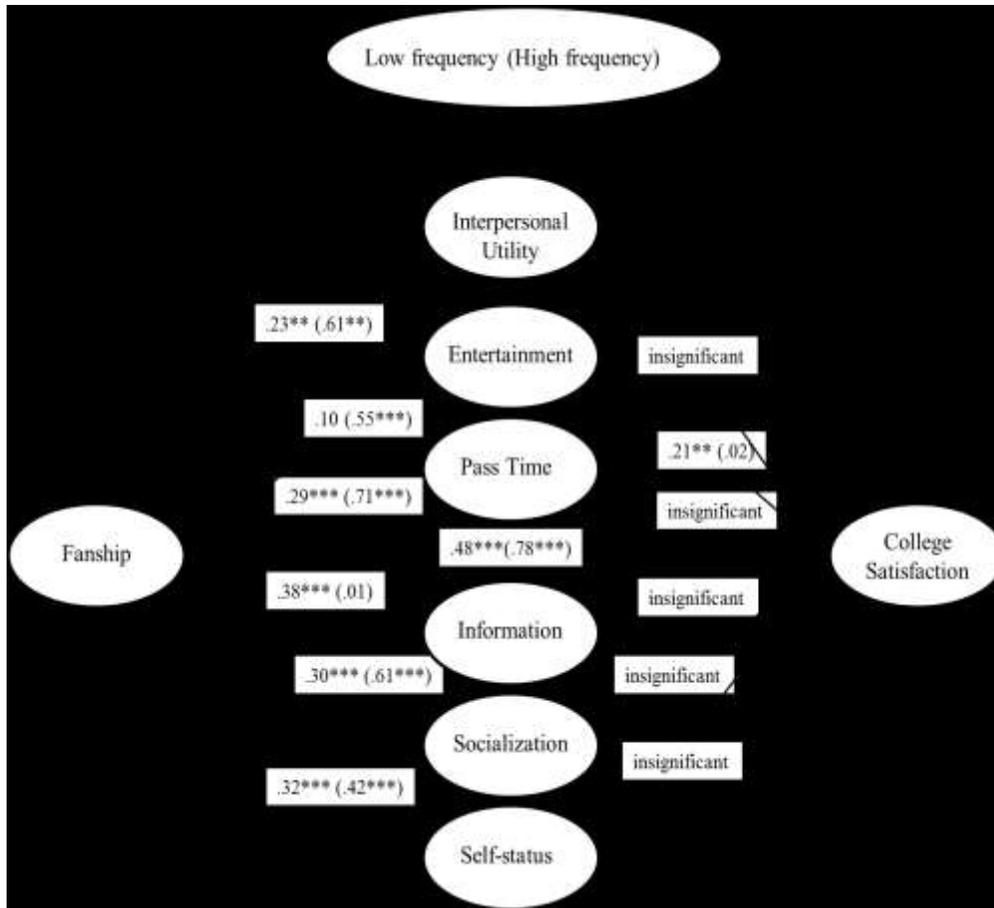
Figure 2. Result of multi-group structural model for a moderating effect of frequency.

Regarding the hypothesized moderation effect by usage frequency, the results showed, regardless of the two group memberships, participants' fanship significantly affected their college life satisfaction and all six motivations for SNS usage, except ENT in the low frequency group and IFM in the high frequency group (see Figure 2). More importantly, compared with the high frequency group, the low frequency group exhibited significantly stronger fanship effects on IFM (β_{low} = 0.38 vs. β_{high} = 0.01, p < .001) but significantly weaker fanship impacts on IPU (β_{low} = 0.23 vs. β_{high} = 0.61, p < .001), ENT (β_{low} = 0.10 vs. β_{high} = 0.55, p < .001), PT (β_{low} = 0.29 vs. β_{high} = 0.71, p < .001), SCZ (β_{low} = 0.30 vs. β_{high} = 0.61, p < .001), SST (β_{low} = 0.32 vs. β_{high} = 0.42, p < .001), and CS (β_{low} = 0.48 vs. β_{high} = 0.78, p < .001). Last, the results also suggested that participants in the low and high frequency groups varied in the path between entertainment and college life satisfaction (β_{low} = 0.21 vs. β_{high} = 0.02, p < .001). In sum, evidence supported hypothesis 5, which predicted that usage frequency further moderates the structural relationships among fanship, motivations for SNS usage, and college life satisfaction.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the structural relationships among college students' fanship, motivations for sport-related SNS usage, and their satisfaction with college

lives. According to extant literature, people often use SNSs such as Friendster, CyWorld, MySpace, Twitter, or Facebook, or combinations of these, to present themselves, build their social networks, and maintain the links with others (Ellison et al., 2007). Nevertheless, existing studies on SNSs have predominantly focused on the network structure of friendship of what motivates individuals to join particular communities (Backstrom, Huttenlocher, Kleinberg, & Lan, 2006). In this study, we investigated the relationships among fanship, motivations to use Facebook sports groups, and college life satisfaction, by extension, to different effects of U.S. students and international students, and low frequency and high frequency users on the relationships.

Fanship and Motivations for SNS Usage

The results of the study showed that the need to discuss sports with their peer students, pass free time, find entertainment, acquire information about sports, socialize with others, and seek self-status when using sport-based SNS tend to motivate college students who are fans of intercollegiate sports. Importantly, college students' fanship can contribute to their college life satisfaction both directly (i.e., hypothesis 3) and indirectly (i.e., hypothesis 2) through the entertainment motivation (ENT) and social status motivation (SST). This result provides an important implication for higher education institutions. First, the importance of being a sport fan for college students is not deniable. According to the results, avid fans are the ones who are more satisfied with their college lives. These individuals are also highly motivated to participate in sport-based SNS. Accordingly, school officials should develop sport-based SNS forums for students and fans to engage in SNS discussions.

Interestingly, when one further divides the student body based on a student's nationality, domestic, U.S. students exhibit a structural relationship among fanship, motivations for SNS usage, and college life satisfaction that is different from that of international students. First, although fanship relates closely to all motivations to use sport-based SNS for domestic students, fanship has no effect on international students' need for information (IMF). Moreover, for international students, their fanship has stronger impacts on motivations that relate more closely to the social aspect, including interpersonal utility, entertainment, socialization, and self-status, compared with their domestic counterparts. In contrast, domestic college students are more likely to consider participations in sport-based SNS a simple tool to kill time. These differences between domestic and international students could ascribe to the differences in their cultural backgrounds. Previous studies that argued that U.S. users representing individualism are more likely to use the Internet for seeking information, while users with collectivistic cultural background, such as those in Hong Kong, tend to join the Internet for seeking social interaction (Chau, Cole, Massey, Montoya-Weiss, & O'Keefe, 2002).

Of note, two motivations for SNS usage, including entertainment and self-status, determine only domestic college students' life satisfaction. Thus, offering sport-based SNS that focuses on fulfilling students' need for entertainment and self-esteem, two important indicators of social capital and subsequently college life satisfaction would benefit only domestic students.

Services such as e-mail and instant messaging allow college students to establish or maintain friendship with their high school friends after entering different colleges and becoming apart from each other (Cummings, Lee, & Kraut, 2006). In contrast, college students often are proud of themselves as being members of collegiate sports belonging in the NCAA Division I

(Johnson & Whitehead, 2000), thus boosting college students' status and personality (Crompton, 2004). According to Crompton (2004), media all over the country pay attention to collegiate sports. For example, on a college football game day, students tailgate and make plans with others to enjoy the game. For them, performance of the team is extremely important in their life. College sport is not just a sport per se but a culture that is the center of college students' life. Because the continuation of existing relationships for students who recently entered colleges is pivotal to many SNSs and the prominence of college sports on college campuses in the United States, domestic students might have well accustomed to sport-based SNS. Thus, domestic students may be more likely to be concerned with self-status and the entertainment value that associate with college sports than do international students.

Sport-based SNS Usage and College Satisfaction

Another interesting result indicates that being a college sports fan exerts different impacts on college students' satisfaction with their college life that their SNS usage frequency are determine. First, as the researchers expected, light users or those who visit sport-based SNS once a few per day exhibited weaker fanship effects on interpersonal utility, pass time, socialization, self-status and a stronger fanship effect on information, compared with the heavy users. This patter is straightforward. Compared with heavy users, light users only log onto sport-based SNS once a fewer per day primarily for the need to obtain the updated information about sport competition outcomes.

Interestingly, despite the various positive relationships between fanship and motivations for SNS usage, most of the six motivations do not determine both heavy users' and light users' college life satisfaction but their fanship does. Although these patterns may seem surprising, they are not beyond expectation. To be more precise, considering the role of collegiate sports in U.S. universities, it is logical to expect that avid fans have the edge over lukewarm fans or none fans with regard to accumulating their college social capital. As a result, although avid fans still engage in sport-based SNS, their participation in SNSs does not necessarily make their college life more satisfying because avid fans can already secure their social capital through in-person interaction with others. Nevertheless, the researchers observed a stronger fanship effect among heavy users than among light users, suggesting the benefits of participating in sport-based SNS. That is, accumulating social capital in the virtual world also could benefit college students' college life satisfaction, despite the positive effect being an avid college sport fan has on a college students' life satisfaction.

Limitations and Future Directions

In addition to students' nationality and usage frequency, other demographic factors could also affect students' satisfaction with college life (Koilias, 2005); however, this study failed to consider other demographic variables. Future research should include demographic or even psychological variables (e.g., cultural differences) to further investigate the effect of fanship and sport-based SNS on college students' life satisfaction. Furthermore, because the researchers collected data from only one large university competing in NCAA's FBS division, they could not generalize the findings to all college students all over the country. Thus, future research should replicate the current findings in schools that compete at different levels. It would also be

interesting for future research to consider the effect of schools' academic performance and rankings on the effect of sport fanship on college students' life satisfaction.

Conclusion

This study provided new tools for U.S. higher education institutions to increase college students' satisfaction with their college life. First, sport is again a crucial driver for college life satisfaction. Accordingly, it is not surprising that schools often strive to expend their athletic programs by adding prominent sports. Second, given that sport-based SNS, such as the Facebook, is the most popular channel for college students to meet new friends, maintain existing interpersonal relationships, and thus accumulate social capital, schools also should develop sport-based SNS that focuses on increasing entertainment value and assisting college students in building self-status.

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To Cite this Article

Exploring Accuracy and Impact of Concurrent and Retrospective Self-Talk Among Golfers

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Abstract

The current study aimed to provide insight into the types and frequency of self-talk of skilled golfers ($n = 6$) by considering and comparing concurrent verbalization and retrospective reports. Each participant wore a microphone to record his thoughts while verbalizing them for the duration of nine holes of golf on three separate occasions. The researchers transcribed and coded this verbalized self-talk. Participants also completed a retrospective self-talk questionnaire at the conclusion of each round. Results suggest that participants' concurrent verbalization and retrospective reports were inconsistent, specifically with regard to function (i.e., motivational versus instructional) and valence (i.e., positive, negative, and neutral), and that participants felt their concurrent verbalization more accurately reflected their experiences. The results support previous research that indicates that retrospective reports of self-talk may not provide accurate insight into what athletes actually say to themselves as they perform in their sports, while asserting that concurrent verbalization may be a more accurate representation of their self-talk experiences.

Introduction

Researchers (e.g., Hatzigeorgiadis, Zourbanos, Galanis, & Theodorakis, 2011; Shannon Gentner, Patel, & Muccio, 2012) have documented the potential for athletes' self-talk to influence the quality of their physical performances. Because of this relationship between self-talk and the success of athletic performance, many researchers have attempted to gain insight into the characteristics of what athletes say to themselves, yet much of this research has been based on retrospective reports of athlete self-talk. The purpose of this study is to explore an alternate approach to understanding athletes' self-talk through using concurrent verbalization in golf, as it allows mental processing time between athletic bouts. Practitioners and researchers expect that exploration of concurrent verbalization in such a sport is least disruptive of normal self-talk processes.

Traditionally, researchers have explored athletes' self-talk using retrospective methodologies, which necessitate that participants report on the thoughts they have had in the past during practice or competition (Weinberg, 1988); however, there are a number of limitations to this approach. Individuals may not be aware of the majority of their thoughts (Stanovich & West, 2000) and, therefore, might not accurately report on those thoughts at a later time (Williams & Leffingwell, 2002). In addition, participants may report their cognitions based on the likelihood that they occurred, rather than based on their actual occurrence (Dobson & Dozois, 2003). Finally, the quality of athletes' performance or feedback related to the quality of their performance may influence athletes' self-talk (Brewer, Van Raalte, Linder, & Van Raalte, 1991). Retrospective methods have been the predominant means of studying self-talk in sport and have generated significant information on how athletes use self-talk, yet another alternative method for collecting data related to thoughts does exist.

Concurrent verbalization requires participants to report their thoughts aloud as they occur (e.g., Nicholls & Polman, 2008), allowing spontaneous thoughts to emerge in relation to ongoing stimuli, which are not necessarily goal directed (Christoff, Gordon, & Smith, 2011; Latinjak, Zourbanos, Lopez-Ros, & Hatzigeorgiadis, 2014). This method provides information regarding the cognitive processes that occur while working to solve problems, such as attention or decision making (Christoff, 2012). Since athletes use concurrent verbalization during, rather than after, the performance of a task, they are less likely to experience memory limitations thought to be inherent in retrospection and are more likely to consider intra-personal dialogue. While verbalization of highly automatic tasks may be challenging because the information necessary to perform such tasks might not be available in short-term memory (Beilock, Wierenga, & Carr, 2002), researchers can help gather authentic thoughts by asking participants to speak their thoughts, rather than explain them (e.g., McPherson, 2000).

The valence and function of self-talk have received the most attention in sport psychology research. Valence, which researchers describe as either positive or negative, can facilitate performance (i.e., positive valence) (Blanchfield, Hardy, de Morree, Staiano, & Marcora, 2014; Hardy, 2006; Theodorakis, Hatzigeoriadis, & Zourbanos, 2012) or impede performance (i.e., negative valence) (Van Raalte, Cornelius, Hatten, & Brewer, 2000). With regard to function, instructional self-talk refers to statements that guide an athlete in the physical

execution of a performance by affecting focus, confidence, effort regulation, cognitive and emotional control, and automatic execution (Hardy, Gammage, & Hall, 2001; Theodorakis, Hatzigeorgiadis, & Chroni, 2008), while motivational self-talk refers to statements that sustain motivation, enhance focus, and manage energy levels (Hardy, Gammage, & Hall, 2001; Latinjak, et al., 2014).

The purpose of the current study was to consider the self-talk of skilled golfers and to understand the types and frequency of such types of self-talk while the athletes competed. We achieved this by gathering both retrospective reports of golfers' self-talk use and real-time verbalizations, concurrent verbalizations, of their self-talk. We compared and analyzed the verbalized and retrospective data for any trends of similarities and differences in each golfer's use of self-talk. The athletes provided their interpretations of the specific data and general trends in their self-talk use emerging from analysis and comparison of the concurrent and retrospective self-talk data.

Methods

Participants

We used convenience sample to recruit six skilled male golfers in the Louisville, Kentucky, area and required participants to be at least 18 years old (M = 33.17, SD = 16.28), have a handicap of less than 5 strokes (M = 0.83, SD = 1.60), not have worked one-on-one with a sport psychology consultant in the past, and be able to effectively communicate in English. We recruited a male-only sample to reduce variables due to an expected small sample size. Participants had played competitively between 8 and 50 years (M = 21.33, SD = 14.68). Each participant worked in a teaching position at a golf course at the time he was recruited to participate in this study.

Instruments

Retrospective self-talk. We used a modified version of the Self-Talk Use Questionnaire (STUQ; Hardy, Hall, & Hardy, 2005) to collect participants' retrospective reports of their self-talk use. The original STUQ contains four sections: when, content, functions, and how, and many of its questions requested information not relevant to the proposed study (e.g., the location of self-talk use, variations in self-talk use relevant to the timing of the athlete's competitive season). Therefore, we modified the original STUQ for this particular study. The internal consistency of the original STUQ is high (.94), with a marginal test-retest reliability (.66). All 24 items had agreement values greater than 85%, suggesting item stability (Hardy & Hall, 2005). Reliability and validity information for the modified STUQ was not available.

In addition to deleting particular questions, we also added items that asked participants to indicate if they had used self-talk that was positive, neutral, negative, instructional, and motivational during the previous round before asking them to estimate how much of their self-talk fell into each of these categories. This resulted in a modified STUQ in which each participant reported the following information: (a) whether he used self-talk that was positive, neutral, and negative; (b) what percentage of his self-talk used during the previous round was positive, neutral, and negative, which was to be based on the tone in which he made the

statement; (c) whether he used instructional and motivational self-talk; and (d) what percentage of his self-talk fell into the instructional and motivational categories. The percentages the participants provided had to total 100% for the valence (i.e., positive, neutral, and negative) and function categories (i.e., instructional and motivational). We copied these items directly from the STUQ without altering them. We provided definitions of the terms self-talk, instructional, and motivational on the questionnaire. While the questionnaire did not provide definitions for positive, neutral, and negative self-talk, it stated that these categories were based on the tone of the statements, and it provided examples that illustrated that wording was relevant as well (i.e., "150 yards to the hole," as the neutral example, as it was descriptive in nature; "That was a great shot," as the positive example; and "I really screwed that one up," as the negative example).

Concurrent verbalization. In order to capture the participants' verbalizations, participants wore a noise-reducing lavalier microphone with a wind cover that connected to the wireless system's (a Sony WCS-999 wireless microphone system) transmitter. The first author carried the receiver, which allowed her, by means of the attached headphones, to hear and monitor each participant's verbalizations in real time. The wireless receiver connected to an Olympus DS-2 digital audio recorder, which recorded the verbalizations made by the participants during each round of golf.

Procedure

We recruited participants and collected data through email. We required each participant ($n = 6$) to play three 9-hole rounds of golf while verbalizing his thoughts aloud and to complete a questionnaire at the conclusion of each round, allowing him to retrospectively report on his self-talk. We collected data on-site at each participant's home course. Immediately prior to starting his first round of golf, each participant completed the informed consent form and demographic questionnaire. The study received IRB approval through Boston University's Institutional Review Board.

We required each participant to play alone, play on his home course, and use all of his standard equipment during data collection. In addition, we asked each participant to walk the course and carry his clubs; the latter requirement ensured the participants were alone. The first author read standardized instructions to the participants prior to each of their three rounds, indicating that each participant should say everything he thought without restriction, and would ring an audible reminder (by means of a manual clicker) if a participant lapsed into a minute of silence. The first author also provided each participant an opportunity to ask questions or express concerns.

Each participant took three practice swings, and verbalized as he did so, prior to beginning each round. For the duration of each 9-hole round of golf, each participant was on the course. This allowed the first author to document the times at which he struck the ball, the outcome of each shot, any physical behaviors or other information that may have added context to the audio recordings, and while ensuring that the participant was verbalizing continuously. While observing the participants, the first author did not converse with or otherwise interfere with the rounds of golf. At the completion of each round, the participants completed the self-talk questionnaire. Each participant repeated this process a total of three times.

The first author listened to each recording and transcribed it into its smallest, individual statements (i.e., each statement representing an independent thought). These statements ranged

in size from one word (e.g., "Gotcha) to a full sentence (e.g., "You have to make these 20-footers all the time"). We assigned codes based on the function and valence of each statement. We used the work of Zinsser, Bunker, and Williams (2001) and Hardy et al. (2001) to develop the two primary function-related codes, with instructional statements indicating physical, technical, or strategic efforts in the execution of a shot or performance, and including statements that indicated the selection of the appropriate golf club, how far to hit the ball, picking a target, and instructions to change stance or grip (e.g., "I think we'll play this very conservative" and "Don't flip this cup"). Motivational statements, on the other hand, served a more mental purpose to include helping participants to focus, regulating emotion, increasing motivation, and setting performance goals (e.g., "Alright, just focus on the task at hand here" and "See if you can come back with one good drive,"). A second researcher independently coded the function and valence of each statement after listening to each recording and reading each transcription. Both researchers discussed coding until they agreed on both function and valence of each uttered statement.

For the purposes of the current study, researchers determined valence primarily based on each participant's intonation as he made the statement. More specifically, this coding was based on whether the participant conveyed any emotion as he spoke, word choice, and the circumstances of the participant's round. Positive statements were those that conveyed positive emotion, such as excitement or enthusiasm, included at least one word with a positive connotation (e.g., good, great, nice), and tended to occur following successful shots. Examples of positive statements included, "It's a real nice lie," "That [line] looks awful good to me," and "I'm too good for this putt." Negative statements were those spoken with intonation that indicated negative emotion, such as anger or frustration; these often, but not always, contained at least one word with a negative connotation and generally occurred following poor shots. Examples of negatively coded statements included, "Don't flip the cup" (angry intonation), "Don't take it back outside, d-mn it," and "How do you do that two in a row?" (frustrated intonation). In addition, negative statements could include a word with a positive connotation but spoken with a characteristic sarcastic intonation. Statements in this category included, "Alright, nice bogey, dipsh-t" and "Good putting, you freaking idiot." Researchers identified neutral statements, however, by a calm, emotionless intonation, but often containing words with either negative or positive connotations. Examples of statements that we coded as neutral based on their intonation rather than word choice included, "Not a bad lie" and "Hit a good tee shot."

We emailed participants' full, coded transcripts of his three rounds of golf along with the definitions of all the codes prior to each interview. We instructed participants to read through the codes and transcripts, and to make note of anything that caught their attention while reading the transcripts so that these points could be discussed during their interviews. During the interviews, the we presented participants with with the descriptive data generated from their verbalized and self-reported self-talk.

Following the deductive analysis of the data from the first participant's three rounds of golf, we developed an interview guide to facilitate each participant's interview. The interviews were conducted with the purpose of allowing each participant to address any emergent discrepancies, trends, or themes from the concurrent verbalization and post-play self-talk data collection, as well as to provide his overall impressions related to his use of self-talk. We provided a At the conclusion of each participant's interview, we gave him a $25 gift card to a store or restaurant that he had selected in advance.

Results

First, we examined the self-talk of skilled golfers to gain a deeper understanding of the categories, and frequencies of such categories, of self-talk that emerged while performing. The participants verbalized an average of 873.33 statements per round (SD = 153.48). Overall, instructional statements (M = 21.83%, SD = 4.60) accounted for the largest percentages of these participants' self-talk, while motivational statements made up much smaller percentages (M = 7.25%, SD = 2.83) of what they verbalized. Participants made small percentages of their verbalized statements in efforts to direct (M = 2.16%, SD = 0.93) or locate the ball (M = 4.56%, SD = 1.80). In addition, a substantial percentage of each participant's verbalized statements were not task-focused (M = 17.68%, SD = 10.71) or could not be coded for various reasons (M = 11.80%, SD = 3.38). The participants verbalized self-talk that was overwhelmingly neutral in its valence (M = 90.52%, SD = 4.81), as defined for the purposes of this study, with positive (M = 3.58%, SD = 1.76) and negative statements (M = 5.90%, SD = 3.79) accounting for much smaller percentages.

Difference between Concurrent Verbalization and Retrospective Self-talk

In terms of examining participants' concurrent and retrospectively reported self-talk, we began by comparing percentages of instructional and motivational self-talk that participants retrospectively reported (after each round of golf) with those that participants verbalized. Table 1 presents the comparison of each participant's concurrent and retrospective reports of his self-talk during each of the three rounds and Table 2 presents his reports averaged across all rounds. The difference between the reported and verbalized percentages varied greatly across the six participants (i.e., from a difference of 0.95% to 47.09% between what the participant retrospectively reported and what he verbalized, based on researcher analysis). Overall, three of the participants (Participants 1, 3, and 6) were fairly accurate in reporting the function of their self-talk, with an average difference of only 6.70% to 10.69% between retrospective self-talk and concurrent verbalization, while the other participants' reports differed from what they verbalized by more than 21%. Overall, only two of the participants (Participants 1 and 3) accurately retrospectively reported using more instructional self-talk than motivational across all three rounds; these participants were also two of the three top performers (i.e., shot the lowest scores).

Golfers Primarily Verbalized Neutral Self-talk Statements

Overall, all of the participants reported that the greatest percentage of their self-talk was either positive or negative, with neutral self-talk accounting for the smallest percentage. Four of the participants indicated using self-talk that was predominantly positive in valence, and the remaining two reported their self-talk had been mostly negative. None of the participants reported that more than approximately 33% of their self-talk, averaged across the three rounds, was neutral in its valence. These reports were not consistent with what the participants verbalized. Overwhelmingly, each participant's verbalized self-talk was primarily neutral in its valence (i.e., no less than 83% of a golfer's self-talk, averaged across the three rounds of golf).

Table 1

Concurrent and Retrospective Reports of Function and Valence of Self-Talk by Round

| | Participant | | | | | |
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Round 1						
Motivational						
Concurrent	15.81%	17.91%	30.36%	25.17%	17.97%	39.04%
Retrospective	20.00%	65.00%	15.00%	70.00%	40.00%	50.00%
Instructional						
Concurrent	84.19%	82.09%	69.64%	74.83%	82.03%	60.96%
Retrospective	80.00%	35.00%	85.00%	30.00%	60.00%	50.00%
Positive						
Concurrent	7.97%	2.96%	2.04%	4.70%	0.53%	7.68%
Retrospective	90.00%	20.00%	50.00%	20.00%	40.00%	40.00%
Neutral						
Concurrent	88.44%	90.70%	93.05%	88.52%	98.80%	79.15%
Retrospective	0%	30.00%	20.00%	40.00%	40.00%	10.00%
Negative						
Concurrent	3.59%	6.34%	4.92%	6.78%	0.67%	13.17%
Retrospective	10.00%	50.00%	30.00%	40.00%	20.00%	50.00%
Round 2						
Motivational						
Concurrent	16.00%	17.69%	28.78%	27.85%	20.83%	43.43%
Retrospective	20.00%	35.00%	25.00%	65.00%	60.00%	50.00%
Instructional						
Concurrent	84.00%	82.31%	71.22%	72.15%	79.17%	56.57%
Retrospective	80.00%	65.00%	75.00%	35.00%	40.00%	50.00%
Positive						
Concurrent	3.12%	5.93%	2.04%	3.02%	1.31%	4.38%
Retrospective	85.00%	20.00%	40.00%	70.00%	70.00%	40.00%
Neutral						
Concurrent	95.32%	90.51%	92.02%	88.10%	98.04%	81.62%
Retrospective	5.00%	42.00%	40.00%	15.00%	20.00%	10.00%
Negative						
Concurrent	1.56%	3.56%	5.94%	8.88%	0.65%	14.00%
Retrospective	10.00%	38.00%	20.00%	15.00%	10.00%	50.00%

Round 3

Motivational						
Concurrent	3.64%	21.64%	29.05%	20.43%	25.97%	45.45%
Retrospective	25.00%	60.00%	30.00%	20.00%	40.00%	60.00%
Instructional						
Concurrent	96.36%	78.36%	70.95%	79.57%	74.03%	54.55%
Retrospective	75.00%	40.00%	70.00%	80.00%	60.00%	40.00%
Positive						
Concurrent	4.73%	4.50%	0.30%	5.06%	1.88%	2.34%
Retrospective	90.00%	25.00%	30.00%	60.00%	20.00%	30.00%
Neutral						
Concurrent	93.53%	87.00%	95.18%	86.67%	93.88%	88.79%
Retrospective	5.00%	10.00%	40.00%	10.00%	40.00%	50.00%
Negative						
Concurrent	1.74%	8.50%	4.52%	8.28%	4.24%	8.88%
Retrospective	5.00%	65.00%	30.00%	30.00%	40.00%	20.00%

Table 2

Concurrent and Retrospective Reports of Function and Valence of Self-Talk Averaged across All Rounds

	Participant						
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**All**
Motivational							
Concurrent	11.82%	19.08%	29.40%	24.48%	21.59%	42.64%	24.84%
Retrospective	22.00%	53.00%	23.00%	52.00%	47.00%	53.00%	41.67%
Instructional							
Concurrent	88.18%	80.92%	70.60%	75.52%	78.41%	57.36%	75.17%
Retrospective	78.33%	46.67%	76.67%	41.67%	53.33%	46.67%	57.22%
Positive							
Concurrent	5.27%	4.46%	1.46%	4.26%	1.24%	4.80%	3.58%
Retrospective	88.33%	21.67%	40.00%	50.00%	43.33%	36.67%	46.67%
Neutral							
Concurrent	92.43%	89.40%	93.42%	87.76%	96.91%	83.19%	90.52%
Retrospective	3.33%	27.33%	33.33%	21.67%	33.33%	23.33%	23.72%
Negative							
Concurrent	2.30%	6.13%	5.13%	7.98%	1.85%	12.02%	5.90%
Retrospective	8.33%	51.00%	26.67%	28.33%	23.33%	40.00%	29.61%

Golfers Experience of Concurrent Verbalization

Each participant commented on his experience of the verbalized and reported self-talk in the interviews that followed the three rounds of golf. We asked each participant to discuss his experience of verbalizing his self-talk while playing. Participant 1 said, "It made me think about effectively trying to do what I wanted to do with my golf swing…I was always trying to do my pre-shot routine and give a thought to what I'd do on that exact shot, which I liked…I was in the moment." Participant 2 explained that verbalizing his thoughts on the course "really wasn't that unusual for me. It's something I do a lot." However, "the big difference was doing it *all* the time." Participant 3 reported that verbalizing was beneficial for him, saying, "It was more structured for me…[my non-verbalized self-talk] can almost feel like a bunch of jumbled up thoughts [when I am] standing over a golf ball. When you verbalize them you kind of put everything in order. It feels a little more organized." Participant 4 said verbalizing his thoughts "was awkward. It was really awkward." Similarly, participant 6 indicated that verbalizing "was weird at first, but I got used to it. About halfway through the first nine I was alright with it." The participants expressed a wide range of perceptions related to the experience of engaging in and any disruption caused by concurrent verbalization while playing golf.

Impact of concurrent verbalization on typical self-talk. We also asked participants to comment on what effect they thought verbalizing had on their self-talk, if any. Participant 1 reported that, overall, verbalizing did not result in pronounced changes to what he said to himself compared to a normal round, but he thought he "probably made sure there wasn't any unnecessary bad words said, for sure." Participant 2 described his first round, saying, "[I] found myself following every random thought that I had. Because I had to say it, it took so much longer to process so I drew everything out and it was really distracting the first time, but I got more used to it…I spent so much time…saying everything that I was thinking out loud, that it drew me a long ways away from golf, rather than just kind of wandering in and out of focus." In addition, he reported that he censored his verbalizations in the second and third rounds by deliberately excluding irrelevant thoughts from his verbalizations rather than saying them out loud. Participant 3 reported that he censored some of his thoughts, indicating specifically that he intentionally did not verbalize some negative statements. Participant 4 believed that verbalizing resulted in an increase in the overall quantity of his self-talk. Participant 5, on the other hand, explained that the requirement to verbalize all of his self-talk reduced how many thoughts he had; however, he thought verbalizing also provided the benefit of toning down his negative self-talk. His statements indicated that verbalizing his thoughts impacted the content and/or quantity of his non-task-focused self-talk more so than it did his task-focused self-talk. Participant 6 indicated that he censored his verbalizations, stating, "Yeah, there was stuff that I didn't want to say out loud." Participants' reflections indicated the varying impact of concurrent verbalization on their self-talk, ranging from minimal change to deliberate attempts by the athletes to screen out thoughts they perceived to be irrelevant to their performance, while others experienced an enhanced quality of their self-talk.

Golfer reflection on accuracy of concurrent verbalization. Four of the six participants specifically stated that their verbalized self-talk was an accurate depiction of what they would normally say to themselves while playing. Overall, participant 1 indicated that his verbalized self-talk was more accurate than what he reported retrospectively. Participant 2 thought the self-talk he vocalized on the course was an accurate depiction of what he would normally say to himself

while playing. Participant 3 did not think the content of the self-talk he verbalized was vastly different from what he would normally say to himself. He stated, "A lot of my thoughts were similar to what I would do at a tournament…I felt that everything that was going on in my mind and everything that I said felt natural to what I would do in competition…by first look of things this looks natural, this looks normal for me." Participant 6 also explained that his verbalizations were an accurate reflection of what he would normally say to himself on the golf course. Overall, the participants conveyed their belief that the self-talk they verbalized while playing was similar to the internal dialogues that would normally occur as they play golf.

Golfers perceived valence of concurrent verbalization accurately coded. Half of the participants also said the percentages of verbalized statements in each of the function and valence categories seemed accurate, while two participants indicated the self-talk they had verbalized, and the percentages generated based on coding these verbalizations, were actually more accurate than what they reported retrospectively.

Participant 1 thought the function and valence percentages calculated based on what he verbalized were accurate depictions of what he would normally say to himself while playing. In fact, he stated, "that what [he] verbalized is really closer to [the valence of his self-talk] than what [he] reported, that's for sure." When specifically shown the percentages of instructional and motivational self-talk he had verbalized, he said, "I think that's probably pretty correct…motivational is probably secondary to being fundamentally sound." Similarly, he indicated the percentages of positive, neutral, and negative self-talk he verbalized seemed to be accurate, and again stated that the percentages of motivational and instructional self-talk he verbalized were "probably a little bit more correct" compared to what he reported.

In response to seeing the percentages of motivational and instructional self-talk participant 2 verbalized during the three rounds, he said, "I'm a little bit proud of them…I think you have to have some motivational in there but I think somebody who's good would have much more instructional than motivation." His had a similar perception of the valence of the self-talk he verbalized, which was primarily neutral. He said, "I'm pretty happy about [the percentages]. I think most of what you do in golf requires a level head, so about 90% neutral on every round I think is pretty strong." He also thought the percentages of positive self-talk he had verbalized, in particular, were accurate and was proud of the discrepancy between what he verbalized and what he reported, saying, "I'm glad it wasn't the way I said it, what I reported… I like the actual results better than what I'd guessed."

Participant 3's transcripts included high percentages of instructional statements and much lower percentages of motivational statements. He commented on this, saying, "You gotta tell yourself how to do things…not just blow smoke up your own…you know." Participant 4 thought the percentages of instructional and motivational self-talk he verbalized were consistent with what he would normally say to himself. He stated, "Basically 40%, 38% was instructional. I mean I suppose that would be accurate…that's just reaffirming stuff that I'd either been working on in the past or I know I have problems with." When asked about the percentages of positive, neutral, and negative statements that he verbalized, specifically the very high quantities of neutral statements, he said, "I like 'em…for me when I get emotional that's when bad things happen."

Participant 5 was not surprised that he had verbalized much higher quantities of instructional statements than he did motivational self-talk because, as he said, "I tend to be very mechanical and very detail-oriented." He was also particularly surprised by the very low

percentages of his positive and negative statements, explaining, "I'm shocked that positive is so low but I can understand it because I don't have a lot of inflection in my voice...so maybe I'm positive but it may not have come across as being positive."

Participant 6 expressed surprise at the percentage of his verbalized instructional self-talk, expecting it to account for closer to half of his task-focused statements. He was also surprised by the valence of his verbalized self-talk, saying, "I was surprised at how negative I was...I'm very critical all the time of everything, constantly. And I know that, but you don't realize it until you say it out loud, someone writes it down and hands it to you to read." Most of the participants stated their verbalized self-talk, specifically the percentages of self-talk in each function and valence category as coded by the researchers, were accurate, in some cases satisfactory in their estimation, and in two cases more accurate than what they had indicated retrospectively.

Overall, the participants' retrospective reports of their self-talk were not consistent with what they verbalized. Two participants offered potential explanations for this disparity. In reference specifically to the verbalized versus reported differences in the valence of self-talk, participant 2 said, "maybe it was my not careful reading, but I don't think I was thinking about tone." Participant 4 explained thinking that he might have retrospectively reported on his self-talk based on how he felt during the rounds rather than by recalling what he was thinking. Regardless of what caused the disparity between the self-talk participants reported and what they actually verbalized, the differences were pronounced.

Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to gain an understanding of the valence and function of self-talk (concurrent verbalization) used by skilled golfers while playing golf. In addition, the study explored the consistency of self-talk data by comparing self-talk generated by retrospective reports and concurrent verbalization. Participants' reports were inconsistent with what they verbalized in terms of valence: positive, neutral, and negative self-talk. Of the 18 rounds of golf played by the six participants, participants reported that neutral statements in isolation (i.e., not in an equal proportion to either positive or negative statements) comprised the largest percentage of their self-talk only three times, and these reports were underestimated compared to the percentages of neutral statements they had verbalized. Interestingly, half of the participants stated during their interviews that they preferred the researchers' assessment of percentages of positive, neutral, and negative statements (based on the concurrent verbalization data) compared to what they reported retrospectively. Two of those also believed their verbalized self-talk was more accurate than what they reported. Additionally, two of the participants' (Participants 1 and 3) reports of the function of their self-talk were similar to their verbalized self-talk for one or two rounds, yet neither could maintain this accuracy across all three rounds of golf.

The potential limitations of retrospective and concurrent methodologies that were presented earlier may contribute to the discrepancies between the reported and verbalized data seen in the current study. Retrospective reports require athletes to be aware of their thoughts as they occur and, subsequently, remember and report on those thoughts after their occurrence, which may not consistently happen. Similarly, there is also the possibility that the concurrent methodology data analysis does not accurately assess intra-personal dialogue, given the additional steps that are required for verbalization of given thoughts. However, the analysis in this study

suggests limitations of retrospective self-talk data. The participants in the current study did not accurately report on their self-talk, especially its valence.

Given that the researchers have expertise in both understanding self-talk and conducting rigorous data analysis, it is unlikely that the participants in the current study accurately reported on their self-talk and the researchers inaccurately categorized the data. Yet it is possible that participants censored some of their thoughts. For example, participant 3 reported censorship of some of his thoughts, indicating that he intentionally did not verbalize some negative statements. Additionally, participant 4 reported that concurrent verbalization may have increased the quality of his self-talk. In both circumstances, concurrent verbalization may have affected participants' performances. Given the strengths and limitations to both approaches, it may behoove serious athletes to consider using both approaches to understand the type of self-talk in which they engage and how that self-talk potentially affects their performances.

A number of additional factors could have contributed to these participants providing reports that were inconsistent with what they verbalized. They may not have been aware of these thoughts in the first place and, therefore, could not accurately report them later; this would be consistent with past findings related to retrospective reports (Williams & Leffingwell, 2002). One of the participants in the current study said that he had no recollection of what he had thought about in previous rounds of golf (i.e., prior to his participation in this study), which lends additional support to this idea. On the other hand, if participants were aware of their self-talk as it happened, too much time could have elapsed before they were asked to report it.

Finally, Dobson and Dozois (2003) found evidence that participants in their research had based their retrospective reports on the likelihood that those thoughts had occurred rather than on their actual occurrence. The statements provided by several of the current study participants during their interviews provide additional weight to these findings. Participants indicated reporting their self-talk based on a number of factors, including their performance (i.e., they assumed if they played well that they had used more positive self-talk, and more negative if they played poorly) and how they felt. Regardless of what specific factors influenced the participants in the current study to report their self-talk the way they did, overall their reports were not consistent with the concurrent self-talk data.

Limitations

A number of factors may limit the strength and validity of the current study's findings, including the small sample size, the small number of data collections for each participant, and the lack of motivation to perform well across all three rounds of golf. One limitation is that while reliability and validity data is provided for the STUQ, it does not exist for the modified STUQ used in this study. While two researchers coded the verbalized self-talk and made every effort to operationalize the coding process and be consistent in applying the codes, some of the participants disagreed with elements of the coding, specifically the valence of their statements. For example, participant 5 was surprised by the low percentages of his positive and negative statements, explaining that he was unsure that the method of using inflection to ascertain positive, negative, or neutral self-talk accurately reflected his use of self-talk. While this may mean that the researchers were unable to capture all the incidents of self-talk accurately, it may also point to a discrepancy in participants' understanding of the meaning of positive, negative, and neutral self-talk despite them being provided with definitions for, and examples of,

statements in each category. To ascertain the validity of researcher coding of participants' self-talk, the researchers could have benefitted from asking participants to code their self-talk in terms of valence and function, and then compared participants' coding to researchers' coding to determine if researcher interpretation matched that of the participants.

Future Research

The current study points to a number of directions for future research. The first is to replicate the current study but increase participants' motivation to perform well, perhaps by offering a financial incentive to the lowest-scoring participant across rounds or have participants compete directly against similarly skilled participants. In addition, involving the participants in the coding process may provide insight into how athletes understand positive, negative, and neutral self-talk. Given that less than one third of the participants' self-talk served an instructional or motivational function, it behooves future researchers to further explore the function of self-talk that occurs spontaneously during competitive sport performance. However, what seems to be the most essential direction for future research, especially given the evidence that retrospective reports are not consistent indications of athletes' self-talk, is to conduct additional research into the accuracy and validity of concurrent verbalization as an alternative means of capturing athletes' self-talk. Finally, researchers might consider using a sport-specific model of self-talk proposed by Van Raalte, Vincent, and Brewer (2016) that builds upon existing theory to explore how golfers engage in self-talk and under what circumstances that engagement yields positive results.

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Discussion Questions

1. What might be some practical benefits of using concurrent verbalizations?

2. When might implementing concurrent verbalization – having a more accurate representation of what athletes say to themselves – be most beneficial to the athlete?

3. How can sport psychology consultants use the findings of this study in their practice when working with skilled athletes?

4. How might the use of concurrent verbalization impede the athletes' performances?

5. How might exploring the valence and function of self-talk help the athlete with performance?

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What Makes Consumers Overemphasize Monetary Gain? Purchase Decision with Initial Cost versus Maintenance Cost

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Abstract

Research in economics has developed a number of theories to explain and predict the behaviors of consumers based on the assumption that consumers are rational. However, a large portion of consumer behavior does not involve extensive search for information or a comprehensive evaluation of the given choice sets. At times, consumers behave in a manner that is just the opposite of the normative economic principles. The objective of this study is to explain the phenomenon that consumers overemphasize myopic gain rather than long-term gain when they are under the situation of facing two types of costs: one is the short-term cost for initial equipment purchase and the other is cyclical long-term cost related to maintenance and supplies.

Keywords: mental accounting, short-term gain, long-term gain, initial cost, maintenance cost, marketing

Introduction

Research in economics has developed a number of theories to explain and predict the behaviors of consumers (Bettman 1979; Engel, Kollat, & Blackwell, 1978; Howard & Sheth, 1969). The theories are based on the assumption that consumers are rational and intelligent to deal with problem solving and decision-making (Markin & Narayana, 1975). Economic theory also has tried to explain consumer behaviors by using normative theories based on a rational maximization model to describe how consumers should choose, rather than how they do choose (Thaler, 1980). However, a large portion of consumer behavior does not involve an extensive search for information or a comprehensive evaluation of the given choice sets (Olshavsky & Granbois, 1979). At times, consumers behave in a manner that is just the opposite of the normative economic principles or ignore the basic principles as the following anecdote says.

Around B.C. 700 in China, there was a man called Gong, who liked monkeys. Because of a bad harvest in a certain year, he did not have enough acorns to feed his monkeys. One day, when the man announced to his monkeys that he should limit the number of acorns to three in the morning and four in the afternoon, the monkeys were upset, and they complained. However, following Gong's suggestion with "four" acorns in the morning and "three" in the afternoon made the stupid monkeys think they could get more food, so they unanimously agreed to it.

The Chinese anecdote describes the phenomenon of failure to consider the long-term effect. The same situation frequently occurs in our everyday lives. For example, when one goes to the market to purchase a water purifier, one might face two types of costs: the purchase price of (1) the dispenser itself and (2) the filter. There might be a brand with $15 for a dispenser including a new filter and $12 for a box of three filters, while the other brand is $12 for a dispenser including a new filter and $15 for a box of three filters. More consumers may focus on the cheaper dispenser price and they do not check the maintenance cost, which is the filter price, when they make the purchase decision.

The behavioral decision literature provides a great deal of experimental evidence (Einhorn & Hogarth, 1986; Kahneman, Slovic, & Tversky, 1982; Okada, 2010; Poulton, 1994; Shen, Fishbach, & Hsee, 2015; Thaler, 1994) that the consumer's real decision often violates the axioms of rationality. Regarding the phenomenon, a second group of theoretical approach is consumer information processing, the integration process by which consumers combine the information about product attributes and consequences to form product evaluations and to make choice decisions (Bettman, Capon, & Lutz, 1975; Cohen, Miniard, & Dickson, 1980). The elaboration likelihood model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) explains that consumers' involvement and knowledge strongly influence their information process.

Despite general agreement on the importance of mental accounting and consumer information processing, previous research has not fully explained the continuum of consumers' information processing and mental accounting. That is the full process that consumers use to choose short-term gain over long-term gain.

The objective of this study is to explain the phenomenon that the consumers overemphasize myopic gain, rather than long-term gain when they are under the situation of facing two types of costs: one is the short-term cost for initial equipment purchase, and the other is cyclical long-term cost related to maintenance and supplies. As in Figure 1, this study addresses: (1) the reason why some consumers cannot reach the point to consider maintenance cost so they perform inaccurate cost-benefit analysis focused on myopic gain; and (2) the mechanism by which some consumers with full information and knowledge choose the equipment with high maintenance cost, not following the normative rule.
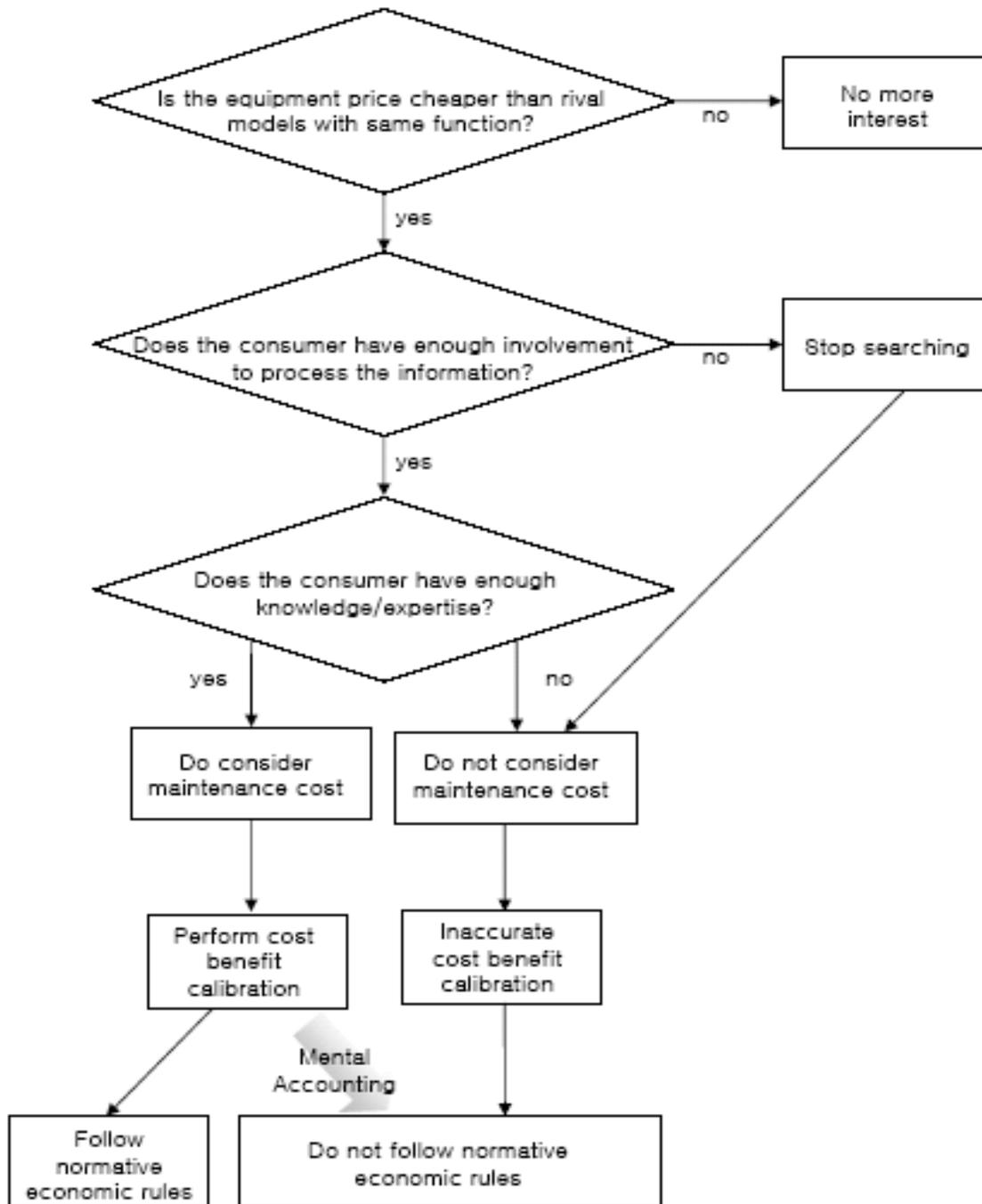
Figure 1. Factors influencing consumer decision.

Conceptual Development

Involvement

Many researchers have conceptualized motivation to process information (Bloch & Richins, 1983; Burnkrant & Sawyer, 1983; Cohen, 1983; Greenwald & Leavitt, 1984; Houston

& Rothschild, 1978; Lastovika & Gardner, 1979; Mitchell, 1981; Petty & Cacioppo, 1981; Wright, 1974). The degree of personal relevance and connections determines a consumer's level of involvement with a product (Engel & Blackwell, 1982; Krugman, 1965; Petty & Cacioppo, 1979; Sherif & Hovland, 1961). According to the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM, Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), as involvement to process arguments declines, the peripheral route becomes a relatively more important determinant of persuasion while the central route is better when involvement is high. Thus, under low involvement conditions, consumers are likely to reflect their use on heuristics such as the country of origin (Maheswaran, 1994) and price cue (Rao & Monroe, 1988), rather than attribute-performance knowledge. A preferred procedure for studying involvement is to hold recipient, message, and medium characteristics constant and randomly assign participants to high and low involvement groups (Petty, Cacioppo, & Shumann, 1983).

To validate the impact of different level of involvement on information processing, a closer empirical examination is necessary. Following the theories above, this study proposes the following proposition.

P1: Consumers with high involvement have motivation to process more information while consumers with lower involvement are solely attracted by initial equipment price, which is a strong heuristic cue.

Prior Product Knowledge

Consumer knowledge is important in understanding consumer behaviors such as information processing (Brucks, 1985; Rao & Sieben, 1992). Increased familiarity leads to better developed knowledge structures or schema about the product including evaluative criteria and rules (Hyers-Roth, 1977; Marks & Olson, 1981). Based on that logic, Bruks (1985) demonstrated that prior knowledge impacts on information search behavior and Sujan (1985) proved that experts and novices are different because prior knowledge and expertise affect their evaluation process.

Experts engage in comprehensive processing of all of the information to them (Maheswaran & Sternthal, 1990). A careful scrutiny of the attribute information makes it possible for experts to obtain and analyze information that is more diagnostic for the product. That is to say, experts are better at not missing important attributes that one should consider and after acquiring information on each attribute; they are more competent at calibrating the benefits from the product in a more rigorous way. In addition to the diagnostic evaluation, detailed attribute processing makes experts to form more positive evaluation when the attributes are strong (Maheswaran, 1994).

To measure consumer knowledge, there are two knowledge constructs (Brucks, 1985; Park & Lessig, 1981): one is objective knowledge, what is actually stored in memory; the other is subjective knowledge, what consumers perceive they know. Even if subjective and objective knowledge have some correlation, there are differences between measures of subjective and objective knowledge (Brucks, 1985) because measures of subjective knowledge include not only the level of knowledge but also self-confidence and heuristics. For this reason, the measure of subjective knowledge may distort the degree of real expertise and knowledge as consumers are usually overconfident—they think they know more than they actually do (Alba & Hutchinson, 2001). Moreover, Rudell (1979) proved that objective knowledge is more concerned with

analytic function as it facilitates deliberation and use of newly acquired information, while subjective knowledge increases the reliance on previously stored information.

Because benefit calibration and attitude formation for formerly unchosen products (or brands) rely more on analytic function, this study proposes the following:

P2: Consumers with more (less) objective knowledge have a more positive attitude toward the product with less maintenance cost (less initial equipment cost) as they do (do not) consider the maintenance cost.

Mental Accounting

One of the most important studies in decision theory is the relationship between consumer choice and the values of decision makers. Von Neumann and Morgenstern (1944) demonstrated that if a decision maker's choices follow certain rules called axioms, it is possible to derive utilities such that people prefer one alternative with probabilistic consequences to another if and only if its expected utility is greater than that of alternatives. However, people do not always choose in accordance with von Neumann and Morgenstern's axioms because (1) there are the irrationalities of decision-making; and (2) even if they are not irrational, people often make choices that contradict the axioms such as well-known examples of the Allais paradox and Ellsberg paradox.[1]

Tversky and Kahneman developed prospect theory, which has generated much interest with numerous extended studies (i.e., Thaler 1980 & 1985) that confirm the existence of mental accounting. Consumers implicitly use mental accounting to create their own rules to evaluate prospective gains and losses and their personal mental accounting rules often violate normative economic decision rules (Thaler 1985).

Returning to the Chinese anecdote earlier, the monkeys who choose four acorns in the morning and three in the afternoon, rather than three in the morning and four in the afternoon, seem to be stupid from the human perspective. However, the monkeys may have the threshold to start up the operation of all organs in the morning so that they wanted to acquire more food in the morning.

Likewise, some consumers who chose the product with high maintenance cost may have their own rationale (e.g., risk aversion, Okada 2010), while some others with the same choice purchase it heuristically. Considering the situation of facing two kinds of prices, initial cost and maintenance cost, it is possible to decompose choice as a function of initial price, maintenance frequency, and discount rate (time value of money) as follows:

Choice = f (Initial Price, Maintenance Frequency, Discount Rate)   (1)

By using the choice function, we can get cumulative real cost (RC) at each time t as follows:

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[1] According to the economist Maurice Allais and decision theorist Daniel Ellsberg, the paradoxes, respectively, are possible because von Neumann and Morgenstern's axioms assume too restrictive constraints on choice behavior.

$$RC_t = P_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{n} P_1(1-\delta)^t \tag{2}$$

where P_0 is an initial equipment price, P_1 is a maintenance cost at each time t, δ is discount rate, and t is the time of each replacement point.[2]

    Let us assume there is a consumer who plans to purchase a printer and use it for five years from the initial purchase and consume a cartridge every three months. If we consider the total cost for the consumer, it will be $RC_{19} = P_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{19} P_1(1-\delta)^t$ [3]. The consumer considers the two printers to make a purchase decision under the following situations: one printer with an initial price of P_{A0} and maintenance cost for each time t at P_{A1} (let us call this as printer A); and the other with an initial cost of P_{B0} and maintenance cost for each time t at P_{B1} (let us call this as printer B) where $P_{A0} = \frac{1}{2}P_{B0}$, $P_{A1} = 2P_{B1} = P_{A0}$, and the effective annual rate (EAR) of 4%[4]. Then, the consumer may compare the total cost up to t=19 for each of printer A and printer B as follows:

$$\underbrace{P_{A0} + \sum_{t=1}^{19} P_{A1}(1-0.01)^t}_{\text{lifetime cost for printer A}} \begin{smallmatrix} < \\ = \\ > \end{smallmatrix} \underbrace{P_{B0} + \sum_{t=1}^{19} P_{B1}(1-0.01)^t}_{\text{lifetime cost for printer B}} \tag{3}$$

lifetime cost for printer A lifetime cost for printer B

    According to the traditional theory, if the consumer plans to use the printer up to at least $t = 3$[5], he or she should purchase printer B. However, the traditional theory does not explain that some consumers with all of the above information may choose printer A. Why does this situation occur? There are several reasons for individual heterogeneity: (1) different coding system for gain and loss; (2) budget constraints at the time $t = 0$; (3) different maintenance frequency; and (4) different discount rate. In this given case, one assumes the effects from budget constraints, maintenance frequency, and discount rate are minimal.

    Okada (2001 and 2010) proved that gains and losses are separate systems, and overall net gain is the sum of the utilities of the two criteria. When the marginal benefit of the purchase exceeds its marginal cost, the utility function u( ) operates on the marginal decision criteria. In contrast, disutility function w( ) operates for the implicit psychological cost incurring when

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[2] For example, $t = 5$ means that it is fifth cartridge replacement for the consumer after purchasing the initial equipment, so that the consumer has paid $P_0 + P_1(1-\delta) + P_1(1-\delta)^2 + P_1(1-\delta)^3 + P_1(1-\delta)^4 + P_1(1-\delta)^5$.

[3] The first cartridge is usually enclosed with the initial equipment, so the t equals 19 (= 4 X 5 - 1).

[4] If EAR is 4% then quarterly interest rate will be 1%, so here we have δ =0.01

[5] In equation (3), we can get an answer that when $t \geq 3$, the total cost for printer A is higher than that of printer B.

consumers choose the equipment for the high initial cost because some people think they lose money by not choosing the product with low initial price, even if the choice of product with low maintenance cost brings profit in a longer term. Here, w( ) is strictly steeper than u( ) because consumers are loss averse (Kahneman, Knetsch, & Tversky 1990; Tversky & Kahneman 1991), so that they try to minimize losses in each of the accounts before maximizing total gains. When consumers practice mental accounting, their choice is concerned with the following equation:

$$\underbrace{u[E - \{P_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{n} P_1(1-\delta)^t\}]}_{\text{marginal decision criteria}} - \underbrace{w(PC)}_{\text{mental accounting}} \tag{4}$$

where E is expected total future enjoyment of the printer and PC is implicit psychological cost (=the price of printer B - the price of printer A), which occurs when one chooses the product with higher initial cost. Then, for some consumers with highly steeper disutility function, the choice of printer A is reasonable as follows:

$$\underbrace{u[E - \{P_{A0} + \sum P_{A1}(1-\delta)^t\}]}_{\text{total utility from printer A}} > \underbrace{u[E - \{P_{B0} + \sum P_{B1}(1-\delta)^t\}] - w(PC)}_{\text{total utility from printer B}} \tag{5}$$

Therefore, I propose the following:

P3: Among the consumers with enough knowledge and information, consumers (not) practicing mental accounting have less (more) intention to purchase the product with higher equipment and less maintenance cost.

Discussion and Conclusion

The current behavioral decision studies generally ignore the psychological information processes potentially involved in choice decisions. Extant research on mental accounting has not explained the continuum of information processing. This study indicates there are differences in information processing based on the degree of involvement, prior knowledge, and mental accounting. This research contributes to our understanding of the continuum of information processing, i.e., why some people cannot think about maintenance cost and why some people who already perceived maintenance cost choose the product with high maintenance cost.

This study has implications for the future study of unconsciousness in consumer choice. This study is also useful for managers to estimate the real fraction of their customer types and the choice decision by each group of the consumers. In addition, advertising agencies and stores can intentionally create an atmosphere that makes consumers focus on mental accounting or non-mental accounting, depending on their strategy (e.g., Yang, Vosgerau, & Loewenstein, 2013).

Future research might extend this study by carefully explicating the consumer replacement decision with maintenance cost. Consumers may face the opportunity to decide whether to change current flawless equipment to new equipment (say C_0 for equation 6) with lower maintenance cost (C_1) at the time t_1 ($t_1 < n$) as follows:

$$A_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{n}(1-\delta)^t A_1 > \{A_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{t_1}(1-\delta)^t A_1\} + \{(1-\delta)^{t_1+1} C_0 + \sum_{t=t_1+2}^{n}(1-\delta)^t C_1\} \qquad (6)$$

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Discussion Questions

1. What is the assumption of traditional economics theories regarding the behaviors of consumers?

2. How mental accounting is different from traditional economics theories?

3. What future research would be possible to extend this research?

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An Assessment of Hispanic Entrepreneurship in the United States

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Abstract

Hispanic businesses are the second-fastest-growing ethnic businesses in the United States, second to African American firms. This ethnographic research aims to contribute to the field of ethnic entrepreneurship by providing a holistic review of Hispanic entrepreneurs and Hispanic-owned businesses in the United States. The study analyses Hispanic-owned businesses based on ethnicity, geographic location, labor sector of operation, gender, and income inequality. The data obtained for this study comes from the 2007 *Survey of Business Owners* by the U.S. Census Bureau. The study finds that (1) immigrants are more likely than natives to become entrepreneurs, (2) discrimination in the labor market and place of employment forces minorities to enter self-employment, and (3) Hispanics earn significantly less than their African American and White counterparts. There is limited research on Hispanic entrepreneurships and its economic implications. Further analysis is needed as the Hispanic population continues to grow and as Hispanic businesses continue to flourish.

Introduction

Hispanics today represent the largest ethnic and racial minority in the United States. As of 2014, Hispanics accounted for 17.1% of the U.S. population, 55 million in total. Estimates indicate that by the year 2060, the Hispanic population will grow to 119 million, representing 28.6% of the total U.S. population (Pew Research Center, 2015). This growth in population has rippled across Hispanic-owned businesses. Hispanic firms comprise 8.3% of all business in the United States, the largest percentage amongst ethnic groups (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). Furthermore, Hispanics are starting businesses at a rate three times higher than the national rate (Llenas, 2015). According to a 2010 report by the U.S. Small Business Administration, Hispanic-owned businesses "had strong job creation through expansions in 19 states," in contrast to other groups, whose businesses lost jobs during and after the recession (Lowrey, 2010, p. 6). Hispanic-owned businesses are indisputably an essential part of the U.S. economy.

Major studies have focused on immigration patterns of Hispanics in the United States, including regional concentrations, levels of education, and economic assimilation (Wang, 2011; Wang & Li, 2007; Xie & Gough, 2011). Limited research over the recent years exists on Hispanic entrepreneurship and its manifestation in the United States. Current literature on ethnic entrepreneurship and migrant entrepreneurship supports the hypothesis that Hispanics face many challenges, like other ethnic groups. However, the demographics of Hispanic entrepreneurs (e.g. gender, education, and English proficiency) play a significant role in the success of their businesses. This article aims to contribute to the field of ethnic entrepreneurship by providing a holistic review of Hispanic entrepreneurs and Hispanic-owned businesses in the United States.

Data and Method

The data for this study comes from the 2007 *Survey of Business Owners* (SBO), produced by the U.S. Census Bureau every four years. At the time of this research, the latest 2012 data was not available. "The SBO provides the only source of detailed and comprehensive data on the status, nature, and scope of women-, minority-, and veteran-owned businesses" (U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.). This source provides a broad outlook on ethnic entrepreneurship growth rates and economic performance, particularly for Hispanic-owned businesses. Other descriptive analyses and academic literature identified further information, including socioeconomic characteristics of Hispanic entrepreneurs and labor market opportunities. The information is in a narrative manner along with illustrations and charts that summarize statistical data.

Literature Review

Entrepreneurship

There are several variations in the literature defining entrepreneurship. Ramirez-Bishop (2013) defines entrepreneurs as those "individual[s] who entered into self-employment as a primary economic activity—and ha[ve] not been enrolled in school on a full-time or part-time basis during that time" (p. 3). The concept "entering entrepreneurship" indicates business creation (p. 2). No distinction is visible in the literature between the terms "business-ownership," "entrepreneurship," or "self-employment" (Ma, Zhao, Wang, & Lee, 2013; Mavoothu, 2009; Piperopoulos, 2012; Wang & Li, 2007). For the purpose of this research, the terms "self-employment" and "entrepreneurship" are interchangeable.

Contemporary ethnic entrepreneurship is a growing field of study. "[C]ontemporary ethnic entrepreneurship studies have shifted from research on enclave economies, ethnic enterprises, and social embeddedness to research on immigrant entrepreneurs, immigrant networks, and transnational entrepreneurs" (Ma et al., 2013, p. 32). Piperopoulos (2012) indicates a boom in literature on the field of entrepreneurship and small businesses in the 1970s and 1980s, where ethnic and minority entrepreneurship emerged as branches of the academic field. "Researchers from the [U.S.] were among the first scholars to explore and document the fact that ethnic minorities were keener to self-employment than the native-born American population" (p. 193).

Ethnic Entrepreneurship

The origins of minority entrepreneurship in business literature can be traced to pioneering efforts by Joseph Pierce in his 1947 work, *Negro Business and Business Education*. According to Zhou (2004), "ethnic enterprises" generally refer to businesses owned or managed by members of an ethnic group "whose group membership is tied to a common cultural heritage or origin and is known to out-group members as having such traits" (as cited in Wang & Li, 2007, p. 167). Mavoothu (2009) provides a broader definition: an entrepreneur is that "business owner who does not represent the majority (p. 46). Sonfried (2014) presents a narrow definition of ethnic enterprises as a "businesses with at least 51 % ownership by one or more members of a minority group" (p. 207). Sonfried adds that minorities will surpass the commonly known "majority," and thus the term "minority" may become "meaningless few decades from now" (p. 207). Furthermore, the terms "minority" and "ethnic groups" oftentimes overlap since researchers identify ethnic groups as a population's minority.

Research on ethnic entrepreneurship is available in the fields of sociology and ethnic studies. According to Ma et al. (2013), "[current research is more concerned with the] social impact on regional development, and less on their roles as entrepreneurs involv[ed] in business activities" (p. 36). However, various scholars agree that ethnic entrepreneurship brings about many positive impacts, including individual, social, economic, regional, and international benefits (Ma et al., 2013; Mavoothu, 2009; Wang, 2011; Wang & Li, 2007). Additionally, it has widely been accepted that ethnic businesses pave the way for international expansion involving trade, thus contributing to the overall growth of the country's economy (Mavoothu, 2009, p. 49).

> [E]thnic minority entrepreneurship has proved itself to be an efficient means of socioeconomic integration contributing at the same time to the overall economic growth and development of countries . . . business ownership among minorities will ensure a competitive nation. (Mavoothu, pp. 49–50)

Immigrant Entrepreneurship

One can attribute the globalization of the economy to immigration and relocation patterns of certain groups. "Immigration itself is an entrepreneurial act, as one leaves one's home culture to 'invest' skills and human capital in another" (DelCampo, 2011, p. 331). Historically, self-employment rates among immigrant groups or foreign-born individuals exceeded those of locals or native-born individuals (Ma et al., 2013; Wang, 2011). Scholars have extended this concept to indicate immigrants have an "entrepreneurial spirit." Recent research has found "immigrant groups who had emigrated from countries with high self-employment rates did not necessarily have high self-employment rates in the [United States.]" (Ma et al., 2013, p. 42). In other words, self-employment among immigrant groups is not directly attributed to previous entrepreneurial activities.

Piperopoulos (2012) presents four theses to explain motives of immigrant entrepreneurship: (1) cultural thesis, the sole purpose for migration is to engage in self-employment and immigrants have experience in self-employment; (2) block mobility thesis, a reaction rather than a trigger—it presents the notion that ethnic immigrants turn to self-employment due to discrimination in the workplace, low wages, or limited employment

opportunities; (3) opportunity structures thesis, a commonly supported thesis in the literature—self-employment is attributed to competitive advantages in saturated ethnic communities, such as language or "knowledge of the specific needs and heritage of their co-ethnic consumers" (p. 197); and (4) ethnic resources thesis, the idea that ethnic entrepreneurs benefit from resources among their ethnic groups, such as family savings or inheritance of family-owned businesses. Researchers also have correlated the economic status of immigrants with entrepreneurship.

A relatively large body of literature concerns the economic well-being of immigrants. Xie and Gough (2011) present the "economic assimilation" theory, which indicates immigrants earn lower wages than native workers earn but eventually close the earnings gap. Pioneering research by Barry R. Chiswick in 1978 estimated that immigrants come to earn the same wages as native workers within 10 to 15 years of being in the United States. Current literature disagrees on the estimated time in years of economic assimilation, but agrees in that "[i]mmigrants who have stayed longer in the United States face less of an earnings disadvantage than recent immigrants" (Xie & Gough, 2011, pp. 1294-1295).

Motivational Factors for Entrepreneurship

Piperopoulos (2012) presents two factor categories influencing ethnic entrepreneurship: "pull" or "push" factors. Pull factors present positive opportunities for entrepreneurs (i.e., competitive advantages such as language skills). Push factors are negatively associated with self-employment and labor disadvantages (i.e., discrimination in the labor force). Push factors turn immigrants "to self-employment in order to overcome negative experiences and block mobility in the labor market" (p. 196). Furthermore, both internal and external factors contribute to the decision to start a business. External reasons include access to capital and perceived ability to meet market demands, while internal reasons include individual motivation and personality factors (Ramirez-Bishop, 2013, pp. 2-3). Table 1 illustrates a combination of internal/external factors and pull–push factors.

Table 1
Combination of Factors that Influence Entrepreneurship

	Internal Factors	**External Factors**
"Pull" Factors	- Human capital (language skills) - Market knowledge	- Market opportunities - Government assistance - Access to capital
"Push" Factors	- Low wages - Need for social integration	- Labor market discrimination - Unemployment

Note: Data for Hispanic-owned firms, from U.S. Census Bureau (2007).

According to Masurel et al. (2004), "the structuralism approach proposes that discrimination and marginalization forces some ethnic minority groups and immigrants to become entrepreneurs" (as cited in Wang & Li, 2007, p. 167). Mavoothu (2009) believes minorities enter

self-employment due to general disadvantages in the labor market such as low wages or discrimination. Mavoothu adds that while Whites enter self-employment to build wealth, minorities do so as an alternative to discrimination and as an attempt to achieve social and economic mobility (2009, p. 42). Furthermore, immigrants often face anti-immigrant sentiment from the natives, creating discrimination against ethnic groups in the labor market (DelCampo et al., 2011, p. 331). For example:

> [T]here has been a long argument among social scientists that immigrants may be competing with native workers in the labor market and especially those ethnic minority workers... [V]isibility-discrimination hypothesis argues that increases in minority groups will heighten the perceived economic and political threat posed to the majority and provoke discrimination from the majority. (Wang, 2011, p. 91)

Literature also identifies several positive factors as motives for self-employment among ethnic and immigrant groups. One particular factor is ethnic-concentrated regions that provide market advantages such as low-cost labor, knowledge of co-ethnic customer needs, and language skill (Piperopoulos, 2012; Wang & Li, 2007). Further more, social capital and ethnic networks play a crucial role in the creation and development of ethnic enterprises. "[S]ocial capital, derived from belonging to a particular ethnic group and the use of its associated network, greatly enhances the start-up and continuing business success of an ethnic business, by acting as an informal business incubator" (Wang & Li, 2007, p. 167).

Although the study of ethnic entrepreneurship dates back to 1980, there is limited research on Hispanic entrepreneurship in the United States and its economic implications. This topic is of particular importance since demographics in the United States have changed over the past decade (2005–2015), with new waves of immigration from Central America, Brazil, and Venezuela. Furthermore, immigration laws in the United States have recently changed with the implementation of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA). It is worth noting that literature published after 2010 uses data dating as early as the 1970s, and only a few use 2010 U.S. Census statistics.

Table 2
U.S. Minority Business Growth Rates

U.S. Minority Businesses	Total number as of 2007	Total % increase from 2002
Women	7.8 million	20.1
Hispanic	2.3 million	43.7
African American	1.9 million	60.5
Asian American	1.5 million	40.4
American Indian, Alaska Natives	236,967	17.7

Note: Data for Hispanic-owned firms, from U.S. Census Bureau (2007).

U.S. Small Business Demographics

Hispanic small businesses are key components of the U.S. economy. Hispanic firms represent 8.3% of all U.S. businesses, the largest percentage among U.S. ethnic groups, followed by African American-owned businesses, at 7.1%, and Asian-owned businesses, at 5.7%. Hispanic-owned businesses generated a total of $345.2 billion in sales in 2007 alone (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007).

Of the 2.3 million Hispanic-owned businesses, 2 million reported having no paid employees, and 1,906 firms reported having 100 or more employees. Although dated, the 2007 statistics are consistent with recent findings indicating that Hispanic firms are mostly microenterprises, businesses with zero to four employees. In general, microbusinesses represent more than 80% of businesses in the United States (Association of Enterprise Opportunity, 2015).

Despite the large number of Hispanic-owned business, they are not the strongest economic drivers in the country. Asian-owned and Asian-American-owned businesses were identified by the U.S. Census Bureau as having the strongest minority economic influence, with more than half a trillion dollars in sales in 2007. In contrast, the number of African-American-owned businesses increased since 2002 by more than three times the national rate, which is 18%. Women-owned business accounted for 28.7% of U.S. businesses. According to Ramirez-Bishop (2013), significant differences exist between ethnic groups. Education levels are particularly lower for Hispanic entrepreneurs as well as the education levels of their parents in comparison to non-black and non-Hispanic entrepreneurs. Hispanics reported overall lower levels of education as entrepreneurs and as salaried employees, which influence revenue generation by Hispanic-owned businesses (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007).

Table 3
Hispanic Business Growth Rates by Nationalities

Hispanic Groups	Total Firms (2007)	% of U.S. Total	% Increase from 2002
All Hispanic	2,260,309	8.3	43.7
Mexican	1,035,748	3.8	47.7
Cuban	251,070	0.9	65.5
Puerto Ricans	156,546	0.57	43.0
Other Hispanic	778,757	2.8	30.6

Note: Data for Hispanic-owned firms, from U.S. Census Bureau (2007).

Hispanic Entrepreneurship and Demographics

Growth Trends

Hispanic businesses are not new to the U.S. economy. In 2007, the U.S. Census Bureau surveyed 2.26 million Hispanic firms. Of those, 4.9% reported incorporation before the 1980s. This is a significant number given the short lifecycle of ethic small businesses. In the early 2000s, a rising and falling trend was observable in the establishment of new Hispanic-owned businesses.

But in 2007, Hispanic businesses reached a peak of 131,094 newly established businesses in a single year. In comparison, only 78,744 newly Hispanic-owned firms came into being in 2006. Furthermore, significant increases in Hispanic firms where found among Hispanics of Cuban and Cuban-American decent, with a 65.5% increase in the total number of Cuban firms from 2002 to 2007. Mexican or Mexican-American businesses also experienced a major increase by almost half the number of businesses than in 2002. Another significant increase was among "other" Hispanic groups in 2007, at 30.6% over 2002. "Other" Hispanics are likely of Central American decent given the recent increase in immigration from these countries to the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007).

Hispanic-Owned Business Demographics

Mexican-owned firms are the largest Hispanic group, making up half of all Hispanic firms nationwide, with total receipts of $155.5 billion. Cuban-owned firms make up the second largest group with 11.1% of all Hispanic-owned firms, and total receipts of $51.3 billion. Puerto Rican-owned firms come in third representing 6.9% of all Hispanic-owned firms, with total receipts of $16.7 billion. Last, "other" Hispanic groups make up 34.4%, with total receipts of $112.8 billion.

Geographically, Hispanic-owned businesses comprised 23.6% of all businesses in New Mexico, the highest among all states. Other states with significantly high numbers of Hispanic-owned businesses are Florida, with 22.4%; Texas, with 20.7%; California, with 16.5%; and Arizona, with 10.7%.

When looking at nationality and geographic location, 70.5% of Mexican-owned U.S. businesses are located in either California or Texas, 49.1% of Puerto Rican-owned U.S. firms are located in Florida or New York, and 74.2% of Cuban-owned businesses are located in Florida. Furthermore, more than half of "other" Hispanic-owned U.S. businesses find homes in Florida, California, and New York. Florida had the most "other Hispanic-owned" businesses, with 186,242 firms (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007).

Hispanic Labor Sectors

According to Wang and Li (2007), ethnic entrepreneurs tend to concentrate into specific labor sectors. Statistics from the U.S. Department of Labor indicate that Hispanics are more likely than Whites or African Americans to have employment in the private sector: As of 2012, more than 8 in 10 Hispanics find employment in the private sector. "[Hispanics are also] less likely to work for government than Whites or African Americans" (U.S. Department of Labor, 2012). One explanation for this trend could be lower education levels or lower percentages of eligible Hispanic citizens to fill these positions. Furthermore, Hispanics have been self-employed at a higher rate than African Americans, by 2%. Hispanics also are less likely to be in long-term unemployment. "Unemployed Latinos experience a shorter duration of unemployment" than unemployed Whites or African Americans, who are more likely to stay in long-term unemployment (U.S. Department of Labor, 2012).

The U.S. Census Bureau reported in 2007 that among all labor sectors, 30% of all Hispanic-owned firms in the United States operated in construction and repair, maintenance, personal, and laundry services sectors. Hispanic-owned businesses accounted for 10.4% of all U.S. businesses in these sectors. Among Mexican-owned firms, 32.3% operate in construction

and repair, maintenance, personal, and laundry services. Among Puerto Rican-owned firms, 28.8% operate in the health care, social assistance, repair, maintenance, personal, and laundry services (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007).

Latina-Owned Businesses

Female ethnic entrepreneurs share similar characteristics with their male counterparts. However, "ethnic women's unique qualities, characteristics, motivations, background, and business views distinguish them from their male ethnic counterparts bringing forth more their femininity rather than their ethnicity" (Piperopoulos, 2012, p. 192). Scholars describe female entrepreneurship as a recent phenomenon. Female entrepreneurs in the United States increased by nearly 37% since 1972, from 1.5 million to 10.1 million (p. 193). "The number of U.S. Latina-owned small businesses [also] increased at a rapid clip during the 1990s" (Robles, 2002, p. 307). Self-employment rates among Latinas in the United States increased two-fold between 1990 and 2000.

Despite the increase in female-owned Hispanic firms, women earn lower incomes than men in general. But, Hispanic women do not experience large differences in earnings from men. Surprisingly, White women experience the largest gap.
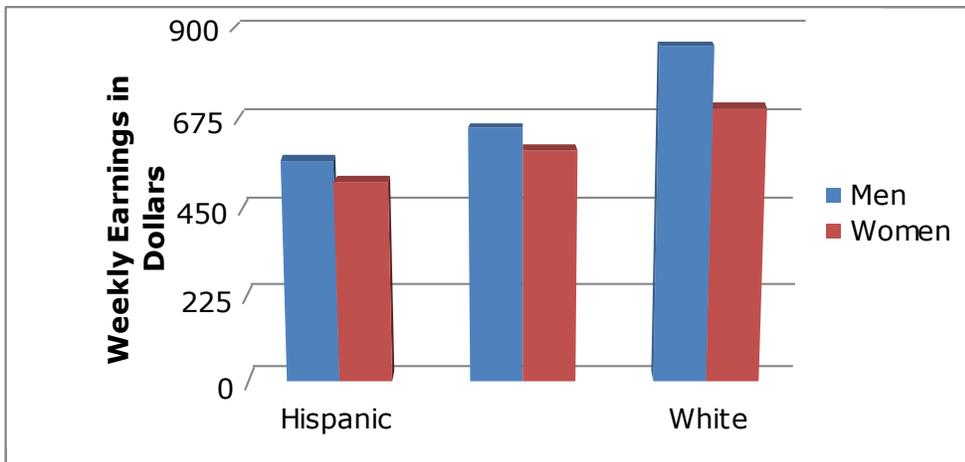
Figure 1. Annual estimates of the resident population by sex, race, and Hispanic origin for the United States. Graph illustrates weekly average earning in dollar amounts. Data Source: U.S. Department of Labor, 2014.

African-American women earn 8.9% less than African-American men, Hispanic women earn 9.3% less than Hispanic men, and White women earn 17.9% less than White men. However, Hispanic women earn lower incomes than their White counterparts do, by 26%. In contrast, Hispanic males earn 33% less than White males. Overall, Hispanics of both gender groups earn lower incomes than Whites and African-Americans, by 13% (U.S. Department of Labor, 2012).

Conclusion

After analyzing the data on U.S. businesses from the 2007 *Survey of Business Owners* and the current literature, this study concludes that Hispanic entrepreneurs are a key component of the U.S. economy. Hispanic firms are the second-fastest-growing ethnic businesses, second to African American firms. This study finds that immigrants are more likely than natives to become entrepreneurs. It identified several internal and external factors as motives for entering self-employment; and discrimination in the labor market and place of employment was determined to be a significant factor in the decision to enter self-employment. Statistics on Hispanic firms indicate Hispanic businesses are mostly microbusinesses, with less than 10 employees. Hispanics earn significantly less than their African American and White counterparts do. This is largely attributable to lower education levels among Hispanic entrepreneurs. Lastly, the earnings gap is more predominant among Hispanic males. Due to limitations in the literature and the unavailability of recent statistics, information on Hispanic entrepreneurship extends up to 2007. Additional research will be necessary to understand the impact of the 2007 recession on Hispanic businesses.

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About the Author

María D. Suárez, M.B.A. (*msuarez6@stu.edu*), is a law student at the University of the District of Columbia. She served as founding Editor-in-Chief of the *Journal of Student Research*. María is a former Huntington Fellow at the Library of Congress and a former Legislative Intern to the Congressional Hispanic Caucus Institute. She previously published work in the *Proceedings of the 38th Annual International Collegiate Conference of the American Marketing Association.* Her research interests focus on race, ethnicity, and economic policy. María is a student member of the National Society of Hispanic MBAs and the Association for Public Policy Analysis & Management.

To Cite this Article

Life Forward

Anthony Tripodo
Energy Industry Executive and Board Member

Anthony (Tony) Tripodo is an accomplished executive with more than 35 years of experience in the energy industry leading companies at both the board and management level. Tony possesses extensive board level experience serving on audit, compensation, compliance and governance committees, as well as chairing audit and compliance committees. His experience on both an executive and board level has involved companies with broad global reach for both publicly traded and private equity held companies. Tony currently serves as Executive Vice President and Chief Financial Officer (CFO) as well as a member of the board of directors of Helix ESG, a leading offshore energy service company listed on the New York Stock Exchange.

Tony's involvement at Helix began as an independent director in 2003 and in 2008 the board of directors asked him to step into the Company as CFO with a mandate to work with the CEO to restructure the Company for sustainable future growth and with a solid financial foundation. Tony was reappointed to the board in 2015.

Tony has served as Chief Financial Officer of three publicly traded companies in the energy industry – all of which possessed broad global reach requiring the CFO to deal with complex cross border transactions and hedging strategies. His global perspective has been enhanced while serving on the board of directors of an Oslo, Norway, and London, England, based company.

The *Houston Business Journal* named him CFO of the Year in 2014 in recognition of his efforts in successfully navigating Helix through the financial and industry crisis. He serves as a Governing Body Chair of the Houston CFO Executive Summit.

Tony also is a member of the St. Thomas University Gus Machado School of Business Advisory Board, in Miami, Florida. He has been invited as a Guest Lecturer to the St. Thomas University School of Business. He also has served on the board of directors of Opera in the Heights, a Houston based arts organization. He graduated *Summa Cum Laude* from St. Thomas University. Tony is married with five children, enjoys golf, and is an avid runner.

Interview
by Raúl Fernández-Calienes
Managing Editor, *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*

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

During the Arab oil embargo-crisis of the late 1970s, I owned a Chevy Vega - a vehicle that I realized was not very well made. After a couple of years, I decided to sell the Vega and put an ad in the local newspaper. The same day I put the ad in the newspaper, a man called me up wanting to come over to see the vehicle. The man who came to the door impressed me as a "country bumpkin" type who I immediately dismissed as someone that was unsophisticated and probably could not come up with the cash to buy the vehicle. Again, I remember how in my mind I was so dismissive of this individual. Well, this individual liked the vehicle and offered me hard cold cash on the spot, much to my surprise. After the transaction was concluded, I chatted with this individual some more and learned he was a pilot for a major U.S. airline who was merely looking for a second car to drive around town that might be more fuel efficient than his much larger luxury auto.

Lesson learned: Never judge a book by its cover, and never dismiss people "out of hand"; you'll often be surprised.

Q2. Why did this type of career interest you, and how did you get started?

At a relatively young age, I realized that I enjoyed working with numbers and tracking information. Thus, I decided to pursue an education and career in accounting, which ultimately led to me becoming a chief financial officer for various companies.

Q3. What is a typical day for you like?

Get up at 5:30 for either a 6 km run or walk before getting ready for work. Arrive at the office by 7:30 to work a full day dealing with the typical activities of a chief financial officer: speaking with investors, analyzing the business, interacting with my peers, mentoring my subordinates, etc. When I arrive home after the workday, I am committed to "decompressing" and winding down. Usually asleep by 9:30 p.m.

Q4. What are some talents or skills that are essential to be effective in your job?

The foundational skill set is my accounting education and experience. The talents necessary for succeeding in my job are the relationships built, both inside the company and with various stakeholders outside the company, along with knowledge of the business. There is no substitute for relationship-building.

Q5. What are the top three characteristics that contributed to your success?

* The hard work and sacrifice taught to me by my parents.

* The desire to succeed.

* The educational foundation I received at St. Thomas University; STU provided the right atmosphere for me to succeed both academically and in the future.

Q6. What life-changing events or decisions have guided your career?

The decision to walk away from a strictly accounting oriented position to enter the world of general management, as a chief financial officer, was a seminal career decision. Later on, the decision to start my own mergers and acquisition consulting firm transformed me from having an employee mindset to having more of an entrepreneurial (missionary) mindset. Results vs. tasks became more prominent in my thinking.

Q7. What have been some of your greatest challenges?

Working through the financial crisis of 2008-2009 to save the company for which I was the CFO.

Q8. What sources of strength have you drawn upon to face those challenges?

Experience is critical to facing challenges. Having faced many challenges during my career allowed me to respond to the financial crisis with a calm demeanor and a logical approach, which was important insofar as being in a leadership role and portraying a steady hand.

Q9. What is the biggest misconception about how to achieve success?

The biggest misconception is to view money as your measure of success (see my response to Q13 below). Individuals starting their careers should focus on building the skills that are easily mobile from company to company and industry to industry. Individuals graduating from college likely will change jobs five to ten times in their careers, and they need to make sure the skills they develop early can be transported across company and industry lines (not specific to the company they might be working for at the time).

Q10. Tell us of any expressions your parents often repeated with you.

"You need to get an education and you need to go to college. Education, education, education."

This was the mantra constantly repeated to me by my parents as they were essentially the product of poor Italian immigrants and understood the challenges they experienced as a result of not being that highly educated.

An education does not stop with a degreed education; education is a lifelong journey.

Q11. What books have you read lately?

I love historical books. The two most recent books I've read are both by the same author, Martin Dugard: *Killing the Rising Sun* (with Bill O'Reilly) and *The Last of Voyage of Columbus*.

Q12. Imagine your phone rings, and it's you from ten years ago. If you had only a minute to talk, what would you say?

Take more time for yourself and your family; enjoy life more, and avoid greed at all costs.

Q13. What elevator speech would you give children about success in life?

Success in life should never be measured by the accumulation of wealth. Success in life should be measured by engaging in activities that are meaningful for yourself and the people you interact with. Are you pursuing activities that give you joy, and are you contributing to society in a meaningful way. There is no substitute for building relationships.

Q14. What is the best advice you have ever received, and who gave it to you?

At a much younger age in my career, I worked for a very seasoned chief executive who was very focused on mentoring his young executive management team. This chief executive observed some of my behavior patterns and approached me with the following adage:

"You can catch more bees with honey than vinegar."

In other words, treat people like you would like to be treated; it goes a long way to building relationships as well as persuading people to come around to your way of thinking.

Q15. What would you like to see as your life's legacy?

I would like to see all five of my children lead meaningful, happy lives that positively influence the people they touch.

Q16. What message do you have for the next generation of people who choose to pursue a career in your field?

Take your educational opportunities seriously and leverage your technical (academic) skills toward relationship building as you move up the career ladder.

To Cite this Interview

Fernández-Calienes, R. (2016, Fall). Life forward: Anthony Tripodo, energy industry executive and board member. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research, 8*(3), 77-81.

"Beach Chairs"
2012

Photograph by Kim Cardwell.

Book Review

Book Details

Kilborn, M. (2016). *A Curriculum of Wellness: Reconceptualizing Physical Education*. New York, NY: Peter Lang, 186 pages, $40.95, paperback, ISBN: 978-1433129971.

Reviewer

Matthew Metzgar, Ph.D.

Synopsis and Evaluation

A Curriculum of Wellness is a broad, interdisciplinary book that takes a deep look at the existing curriculum and patterns of instruction in physical education. The author takes the reader with her on a personal journey to integrate holistic perspectives into her discipline. Importantly, this book does not purport to have the final answer, but instead to describe the solutions available on the current steps of this journey.

The author adopts the method of *currere* in her pursuit of curriculum reform. I was not previously familiar with *currere*, which is an autobiographical process of building a curriculum. This is not a rigid, standards-based approach, but instead a method that brings the human element into curriculum making.

The author also worked with a colleague, Kim, on this *currere* method of curriculum development. I think this was quite valuable to the development of the material, as it added another perspective and increased the diversity of the views. At the heart of *currere* is inquiry, and inquiry tends to be more productive when collaboration is involved. I actually think adding even more perspectives, as the author does somewhat later in the book, would add even more value to the process. Relationships with others often define a person; therefore, including a variety of relationships could help propel the autobiographical process of *currere*.

The next step in this development is to integrate different educational philosophies and perspectives. The author discusses and integrates philosophies such as mindfulness and other wisdom-oriented perspectives. This ultimately leads to her creation of a holistic wellness framework – one that puts wellness and wisdom as ultimate objectives and not just physical performance. The limitations of a performance-based system become obvious in her analysis – for example, doing jumping jacks or other exercises; the real question is how do they relate to long-term wellness? Or do they relate at all? While many physical education programs focus on these performance metrics, the author is seeking a much broader view of physical wellness, and we should applaud this.

One perspective I would have liked to see more discussion of here would be gender and motivation. For example, it could be the case that competitive sports within physical education are more popular with males versus females. In contrast, yoga often appears in the book, but perhaps this may be more popular with females. Whatever the specifics turn out to be, I would expect to see a gender difference in terms of motivation for different physical activities. Taking this perspective into account would have strengthened the material in this section.

A middle section of the book deals with balance. The author describes her and Kim's struggles with maintaining balance with regard to physical activity and other priorities. This is something we can all relate to, and it deserves praise. It makes perfect sense that this should be part of physical education. It is one thing to learn physical movements, but it is another to integrate them into a busy schedule. The author notes how students have "Healthy Habits" log books, which can motivate them to integrate these habits into their lifestyles.

The next major section deals with the eleven "pedagogical moments" in their curriculum. One of these is "this is not a kit." This moment in particular shows both the possibilities and potential problems with this method. As this curriculum development was the result of a very personal, autobiographical process, by definition, it will not easily translate to others with different circumstances. Instead, the method is a bit like sharing philosophical ideas – the principles remain the same, but the application differs depending on the situation. However, in a time-crunched age, schools may be looking for a pre-packaged solution, one that can be easily deployed and measured. The author's method does not fit this bill, though that does not reduce its value.

Along these lines, the author then focuses on four discussion points readers can use to start their own journey of curriculum development. She acknowledges the individual nature of this process and makes note of a few guideposts that can direct this process. These four ideas revolve around physical education for the whole self, including other dimensions such as spiritual wellness.

For the author to discuss spiritual wellness in an era of standardized testing shows her bravery and humanness. I am sure some would feel that spiritual wellness, given its elusive nature, should not be a part of physical education. However, the growing science on mindfulness (discussion in the book) shows how a non-religious approach to increasing spiritual wellness is observable and valid. There is definitely a need for more physical educators to consider this topic.

There is a brief mention of the "commodified culture" of wellness that deserves much more development. The rise of health clubs and gyms, for example, has radically changed the notion of physical education from just decades ago. Now more than ever, people are looking to "buy" wellness. Any wellness curriculum needs to combat this disturbing trend more vigorously.

The book ends with a metaphor of trees, noting that the earth is a living and changing natural system. This same principle holds true for curriculum – it should be a living document that is dynamic and open to new events and perspectives. This is a very wise observation that people often forget with the quick pace of schooling.

A strength of this book was embracing many different perspectives. However, one major perspective missing from the book was looking at physical activity from an evolutionary perspective. In recent years, there has been a large volume of research showing how our minds and bodies evolved during the Paleolithic era (O'Keefe & Cordain, 2004). In essence, we have Stone Age bodies and minds that are now engaging with a much different world from which we evolved.

For example, one major question the book should have addressed is simple: How did physical movement evolve? Research has noted the activities of our hunter-gatherer ancestors that we are suited for – such as walking, gathering, endurance running, etc. (O'Keefe et al, 2010) Given this information, educators could develop a physical education curriculum more in line with our genetic heritage.

An evolutionary perspective also could have strengthened the author's thoughts on motivation for physical activity. For example, another simple question follows: What is the purpose of human movement? Throughout human history, the purpose was clear: to obtain food and water. Ancient hunter-gatherers did not "exercise" but instead performed heavy physical movement on a daily basis to obtain food and other resources. In the modern environment, physical activity is now a choice and a luxury. Acknowledging this could help in understanding the motivation (or lack thereof) for physical activity in the modern world.

The author could strengthen her metaphorical use of trees by an evolutionary perspective. Research has shown exercising outdoors can be more beneficial and enjoyable than exercising indoors (Pretty et al., 2005). The evolutionary connection is obvious, as our hunter-gatherer ancestors spent their entire life outdoors. Some have studied this attraction to natural environments extensively as biophilia (Wilson, 1984).

One last point regarding evolutionary connections is with regard to exercising with others in a group. One of the reasons for the popularity of health clubs is the social element. Given that hunter-gatherers often performed their physical activities in groups, this attraction to group exercise situations is within expectation. I would have liked to see more development of this particular topic – the importance of collaboration and groups for physical movement.

Overall, *A Curriculum of Wellness* has a great deal to offer readers. The author shares her personal journey toward a new vision of physical education, one that is indeed more holistic and healthy. There are many valuable insights presented regarding the integration of mindfulness and other wisdom-oriented philosophies into physical education. People should reconceptualize physical education toward a broader definition of wellness. The author convincingly makes her case and gives direction for the reader to start his or her own journey.

In the Author's Own Words

"This tension between collective and individual identity is a core issue that explains why the physical education environment has not changed over the past 50 years. My identity as a physical educator, for example, was relational to the mentors and colleagues who held sport in highest regard as a curricular focus" (p. 30).

Reviewer's Details

Matthew Metzgar teaches undergraduate and graduate economic classes in the Belk College of Business. Previously, Matthew taught undergraduate and graduate classes in Ohio and New York. He also spent several years working in the private sector. His research interests include the economics of obesity and the analysis of healthy diets.

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Metzgar, M. (2016, Fall). Review of *A Curriculum of Wellness: Reconceptualizing Physical Education,* by M. Kilborn. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research, 8*(3), 83-86.

Editors' Choice
Recent Books of Interest – Fall 2016

Eugenia P. Treadwell
St. Thomas University

1.   Berger, J. (2016). *Invisible Influence*: *The Hidden Forces that Shape Behavior*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster, hardcover, $26.99, ISBN: 97814759692.
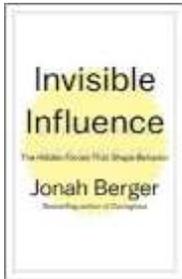
Berger, the author of the *New York Times* bestseller *Contagious*: *Why Things Catch On,* has picked up where he left off. In this recent follow-up to his successful work, Berger takes us on an explorative journey looking at what truly motivates human behavior and social influence. We do not normally realize it, as it tends to occur subconsciously, but others have a significant influence on the majority of choices we make on a daily basis, even something as basic as what cereal to purchase. U.S. culture views such influence as pejorative, but Berger sets out to change that perception. Everyone can benefit from the research compiled in this narrative – if you want to influence others, make better decisions, or just understand your own behavior, then this is the book for you.

2.   Zapruder, A. (2016). *Twenty-Six Seconds*: *A Personal History of the Zapruder Film*. New York, NY: Hachette Book Group USA, 480 pages, hardcover, $27.00, ISBN: 9781455574810.
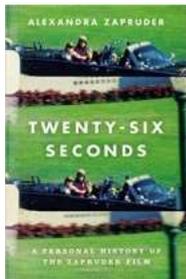
U.S. culture and society remains haunted by and obsessed with the assassination of President John F. Kennedy on November 22, 1963, in Dallas, Texas. Zapruder details the ethical and legal issues intertwined with the ownership of the 26-second home movie taken by her grandfather, Abraham Zapruder, who captured the assassination on his Bell & Howell movie camera. He only intended to create a home video but instead was thrust into the national spotlight. Real-life drama involving conspiracy theory, the federal government, copyright, and the always present public good versus private gain are all contained in this narrative. The impact of this historical artifact is noticeable in various landscapes, and the author takes the reader on this journey from a unique, personal point of view.

3.   Lawson, G. (2016). *War Dogs: The True Story of How Three Stoners from Miami Beach Became the Most Unlikely Gunrunners in History* (previously published as *Arms and the Dudes*). New York, NY: Simon & Schuster, 288 pages, hardcover, $16.00, ISBN: 9781451667608.
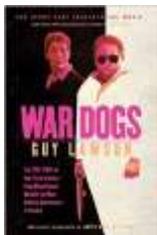
Lawson, a *New York Times* bestselling author and investigative journalist, takes the reader on a particularly different journey, one entrenched in the unexpected world of global arms dealing, in this new book. It has all the right parts – alleged government cover-up, conspiracy theory, murder, corruption, manipulation, Russian geopolitical intrigue, and Swiss arms dealers. Warner Brothers Pictures turned this unbelievable tale into a film, *War Dogs,* which opened on August 19, 2016, starring Jonah Hill and Miles Teller. Lawson easily guides the reader along the continuum of these events for an unexpected yet intriguing adventure.

4.   Foer, J. S. (2016). *Here I Am.* New York, NY: Farrah, Straus and Giroux, 571 pages, hardcover, $28.00, ISBN: 9780374280024.
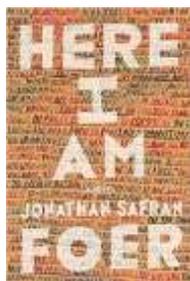
Foer, a bestselling novelist, pushes the boundary lines and conventions of fiction writing in his third novel, which explores the parameters of Jewish identity in a myriad of contexts. The title of the book comes from the Book of Genesis, and it is what Abraham tells God before God orders him to sacrifice his son Isaac. This is an intense and raw narrative, both intellectually and emotionally, leading the reader to the obvious place that calls for the re-examination one's own family and place. Foer urges us to do some necessary soul-searching, to explore the true meaning of life, and not to be afraid when confronted with pain and loss as we encounter disruptions personally, professionally, and socially.

5.   Kaminsky, S. (2016). *Adolfo Kaminsky: A Forger's Life* (translated by Mike Mitchell). New York, NY: Dopplehouse Press, 256 pages, hardcover, $26.95, ISBN: 9780997003406.
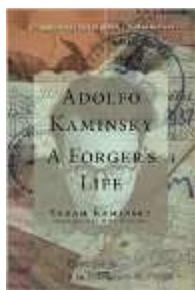
Kaminsky, a best-selling author, guides the reader in this biography, by detailing the delicate line of work her father performed as a volunteer forger for several freedom movements of the 20th century. Regardless of the numerous requests Mr. Kaminsky received for the forged documents, he sacrificed the normalcy of his own life to aid those in need. This riveting story captures the reader's imagination, bringing us back in time to Europe, Africa, and South America, including Nazi Germany, and the Algerian War of Independence. These harrowing moments of history are recreated through interviews with Mr. Kaminsky himself, offering rare insight from a forger's perspective and how one person truly can make a difference.

6.   McNeil, P., & Riello, G. (2016). *Luxury: A Rich History*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press, 336 pages, hardcover, $34.95, ISBN: 9780199663248.
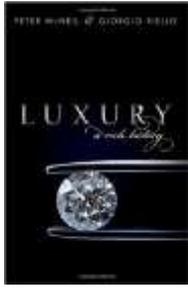
Luxury consumes modern U.S. culture and society. We are obsessed with all aspects of luxury, including fashion, living spaces, and vehicles, and celebrities exemplify this by showcasing different forms of luxury 24 hours a day, 7 days a week. As consumers, we are inundated with luxury, and how we can achieve or obtain some aspect of luxury. It has become the goal for many, to achieve at any cost. The authors challenge us to examine our indulgences, extravagances, and pleasures as they examine the specific objects themselves. The impact of our luxury-obsession is not only financial but also cultural, as items of luxury, such as a smartphone, have now become 'ordinary' and widespread. This first-ever global history of luxury, beginning in ancient Greece and Rome, leading to the 21st century, closely details this rapidly changing industry.

7.   Wu, T. (2016). *The Attention Merchants: The Epic Scramble to Get Inside Our Heads.* New York, NY: Penguin Random House, 384 pages, hardcover, $28.95, ISBN: 0385352018.
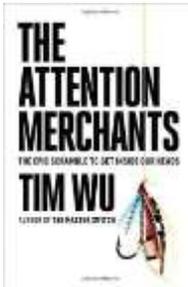
Advertising plays a critical role in contemporary society – it appears everywhere we turn. There is no escaping the effects of advertising. Corporations are constantly competing for our attention, and as the author notes, this has contributed to the distracted and fragmented vibes consuming our modern society. Wu points out that this frenzy is not only the end result of technological advances but also the result of the expansion of industries that rely on human attention. This applies to every sector of society – political, economic, entertainment – and this "attention merchant" business model has been consistently applied in these contexts as evidenced by celebrity brands like Oprah Winfrey, Kim Kardashian, and Donald Trump.

8.   Harari, Y. N. (2014). *Sapiens: A Brief History of Humankind.* New York, NY: HarperCollins Publishers, 443 pages, hardcover, $35.00, ISBN-13: 978-0062316097.
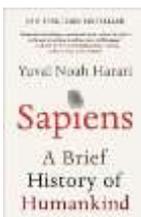
In this novel, Dr. Harari closely examines the entire life span of human history, beginning with the very first humans to walk the Earth. Harari looks at the cognitive, agricultural, and scientific revolutions and their impacts on the human species as a whole, and answers perplexing questions such as how was our particular species successful in overcoming numerous survival challenges. When reading this novel, Harari challenges the reader to question everything about what it means to be human such as our thoughts, and what the repercussions may be for future generations of the human species. A very thoughtful read!

9.   Kuh, P. (2016). *Finding the Flavors We Lost: From Bread to Bourbon, How Artisans Reclaimed American Food.* New York, NY: HarperCollins Publishers, 288 pages, hardcover, $26.99, ISBN: 0062219561.

Written by the multiple-James Beard Award-winning restaurant critic for the *Los Angeles Magazine*, this novel explores our cultural desire for 'artisanal' food in an attempt to rethink and redefine how we eat and what we eat. This is a must-read for all the foodies and anyone interested in food as Kuh explores the forgotten craft of bread-making, cheese-making, and beer-making, to name a few. In the process, Kuh helps us rediscover the inherent value in the individual production of food, and we learn to fully appreciate food that is not mass-produced. Truly transformative!

10.   Archer, J., & Jockers, M. L. (2016). *The Bestseller Code: Anatomy of the Blockbuster Novel.* New York, NY: St. Martin's Press, 256 pages, hardcover, $25.99, ISBN: 1250088275.
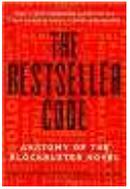
Archer and Jockers finally have cracked the code, so we can all participate and share in the success of contemporary writers such as John Grisham and Dan Brown! Questions such as why do we read fiction are explored in this novel, while revealing which themes tend to be more popular, thus yielding higher sales for publishers. The authors conducted extensive research over five years and 20,000 novels before cracking the code. This is an entertaining novel for anyone who enjoys reading fiction.

Reviewer's Details

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