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Submission Guidelines for the *Academic Athletic Journal*

AUDIENCE

The primary audience of the *Academic Athletic Journal* is the membership of the N4A, that is, professionals providing counseling, life skills, and academic support services to student-athletes.

PURPOSE

The primary purpose of the journal is to assist its readers in providing the best possible counseling, advising, and life skills services to student-athletes. Toward that end, articles should add new knowledge, challenge existing opinion, and/or explain the implications of research. The arguments should be well-grounded in theory or research and clearly related to practice. Articles should be original and stimulating, written in a clear and concise style. Where applicable, authors should strive for methodological and statistical soundness, while avoiding unnecessary technical excursions.

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Relevant topics include, but are not limited to, the following: historical overviews of topics related to student-athletes; reviews of publications related to student-athletes; practical applications of theoretical or research-based conclusions; research on student-athletes and on professionals working in support service capacities, including a full discussion of results and implications.

Do not submit a manuscript that has been previously published, is scheduled for publication elsewhere, or is being considered for publication elsewhere.

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Authors should avoid sexist language at all times and terms such as subject when describing research participants.

Manuscripts must include the following:

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EDITOR'S STATEMENT

E. NEWTON JACKSON, JR., PH.D.

THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

Live for today, but plan for tomorrow. Since life in our nation was changed forever, due to the events of September 11, we must alter the patterns of lifestyle with which we have grown so accustomed. Sporting events came to a halt at all levels for the first time in many decades. A true sense of priority fell upon this nation, as we re-focused our lives.

Our professional responsibility is to strive in assisting young student athletes achieve the goals of matriculation and degree attainment. This too, is living for today while planning for the future.

This issue of the *Academic Athletic Journal (AAJ)* explores and compares new and different aspects of the college student athlete and those that advise and direct them. Patterson and Wooten examined career decisions in an NCAA Division II institution. Gillentine, Nix, and Hunt compare student perceptions of the academic athletics advisement services. These articles should be of special interest to many readers. Jackson, Quarterman, Lyons and Yoo described the present day academic athletic advisors at major institutions, specifically those with membership in the National Association of Academic Advisors (N4A). Singer and Armstrong explored an often untouched and rarely discussed topic of Black Coaches' developmental impact, holistically, of today's student athletes, while Brewer and Cornelius identify new and hard research examining the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale for both genders. Adding to these new areas of research and discussion will be the first book review in the *AAJ*.

We are constantly in need of more research and manuscripts to further strengthen this important ever-growing body of knowledge to fortify the profession. My common cry continues: The growth, quality and depth of this journal strongly depends upon those that assist in its scholarly contribution. What shall we leave behind as our legacy during the next 25 years? Let us face the dawn of tomorrow committed to give our best daily.

College Student-Athletes in Career Development: A Comparison of Career Decision-Making, Role Salience, and Values

Howard Y. Patterson, Incarnate Word University

H. Ray Wooten, St. Mary's University

ABSTRACT

Student athletes are faced with a variety of struggles not encountered by their non-athletic peers. Chief among these struggles are the development of a personal identity, socialization, and self worth that is separate and distinct from their athletic lives. Decisions regarding career choices are related to developmental success in identity formation and self-efficacy. Student-athletes at NCAA Division I schools have been found to be significantly different from non-athletes in their readiness to make career decisions. This investigation explores whether similar deficiencies exist with student-athletes at a small private NCAA Division II university. This study compares career decision-making, role salience, and values of student-athletes and non-athletes.

Students who choose to compete in intercollegiate athletics face a unique set of challenges and circumstances, namely, (a) balancing athletic and academic roles, and (b) planning for athletic retirement (Jordan & Denson, 1990). The difficulty in negotiating these challenges can often be traced back to the degree to which the individual's identity development and self worth are defined by his/her participation and achievement in sports. (Greendorfer & Blinde, 1985; Ogilvie & Howe, 1982; Svoboda & Vanek, 1982). Athletes who focus solely on sports activity to the exclusion of involvement in other activities develop a self-identity that can be characterized as unidimensional. Ogilvie and Howe (1986) coined the phrase "role restricted" to characterize athletes whose socialization process occurs primarily in the sports environment. As a result, alternative role-taking following termination from the sports context can be inhibited or limited (Greendorfer & Blinde, 1985). Pearson and Petitpas (1990) suggest that without input from their sport, these athletes have little to support their sense of self-worth.

The lack of a non-athletic identity and social system may have profound developmental effects on the individual when compared with his/her peers. Career development is one area in which this developmental distinction between athletes and non-athletes has been evident. Smallmen (1993) found that student-athletes at NCAA Division I schools were significantly different from non-athletes in their readiness to make career decisions. This difference in readiness regarding career decisions may have particularly significant consequences for an athlete whose world view has been isolated to sports. Another common theme in the research literature concerning athletes is the denial of student-athletes' inevitable termination from sports. The denial not only exacerbates natural difficulties in the transition from sports, but can also create a potentially negative and threatening situation in terms

of self-identity, self-efficacy, and learned helplessness. Athletes may suddenly find themselves confronted with issues concerning reconstructing an identity outside athletics, developing personal competencies, and developing career-life plans.

Career-life planning can address developmental deficiencies and raise career consciousness. This awareness illuminates possibilities of new identities, develops new competencies, facilitates short and long range goal setting, and creates decisions based on new data.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study was concerned with potential developmental deficiencies of Division II level student-athletes in career decision-making, role salience, and career values as compared to non-athletes. Previous studies investigating career-life concerns of student-athletes have focused on NCAA Division I schools and have included revenue sports. This study examined student-athletes and non-athletes at a small private NCAA Division II university where there is no large revenue sport.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study proposed the following questions:

1. Do student-athletes and non-athletes differ on: (a) attitudinal components (i.e., career exploration and combined attitudinal scale), (b) knowledge components (i.e., decision-making skills, knowledge of the world of work, and combined knowledge skills), and (c) career maturity, as measured by the Career Development Inventory (CDI) (Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Jordaan, & Meyers, 1981)?
2. Are the attitudes and knowledge associated with progress and satisfaction in occupational careers the same for student-athletes and non-athletes as measured by the CDI?
3. Are there significant gender and athletic status interactions (i.e., simple effects) on the dimensions as measured by the CDI?
4. Do student-athletes and non-athletes differ on participation commitment and values expectation scores as measured by the Salience Inventory (SI) (Super & Nevill, 1985a)?
5. Are there significant gender and athletic status interactions for these scores as measured by the SI?
6. Do student-athletes and non-athletes differ on values as measured by the Values Scale (VS) (Super & Nevill, 1985b)?
7. Do males and females differ on values as measured by the VS?

From the preceding questions, the following three hypotheses were proposed:

- (1) there will be no differences between the athletes and non-athletes attributed to the Career Development Inventory (CDI), Salience Inventory (SI), or the Values Scale (VS); (2) there will be no significant differences that can be attributed to the interaction of the gender and athletic status regarding the CDI, SI, VS; (3) there will be no differences between male and female student variables attributable to the CDI, SI and VS.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Subjects

Fifty-three full-time undergraduate student-athletes were selected at random from a pool of 165 student-athletes. Fifty-one undergraduate non-athletes were selected at random from a pool of approximately 2015 students. Subjects were contacted by mail, the purpose of the study was explained, and their cooperation was requested.

The sample consisted of 104 total subjects, of which 75 (72.1%) were female and 29 (27.9%) were male. Subjects were evenly distributed across the four classes of freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior. The average age of the sample was 20.7 (SD 3.2), with subjects in both groups representing a variety of majors.

INSTRUMENTS

A demographic form and three instruments were used to collect the data. The Salience Inventory (SI), the Values Scale (VS), and the Career Development Inventory (CDI) were used due to their high reliability and validity, as well as their consistent use in career development research.

The Salience Inventory (SI) (Super and Nevill, 1985a) is a self-report instrument helpful in evaluating an individual's orientation to life roles, readiness for career decisions, and exposure to work and occupations. It measures the degree to which major life satisfactions are expected to be found in a particular role. The SI assigns a participation and commitment score by asking about attitudes toward the roles of student, worker, home/family, community service, and leisure.

The Values Scale (VS) (Super and Nevill, 1985b) seeks to discern the degree of importance an individual places on a variety of values. The VS contains a total of twenty-one scales: ability utilization, achievement, advancement, aesthetics, altruism, authority, autonomy, creativity, economic rewards, economics, security, life style, personal development, physical activity, physical prowess, prestige, risk, social interactions, variety, working conditions, and "cultural identity".

The Career Development Inventory (CDI) (Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Jordaan, & Myers, 1981) assesses five areas that include: career planning, career exploration, decision-making, world of work information, and knowledge of preferred occupational group. The CDI indicates the kind of help a student needs to make career decisions, and thus, identifies those who need arousal, exploratory training, and improved decision-making skills. Subjects completed inventories at predetermined group administrations.

RESULTS

Factorial ANOVAs examined the main effects of the independent variables of athletic status (i.e., athlete vs. non-athlete) and gender on the dependent variable as measured by the CDI, the VS, and the SI. Factorial analysis also allowed the examination of interaction of the independent variables (i.e., gender x athletic status) to determine whether there were simple effects. For example, it was possible to determine whether there were differences in how female athletes and male athletes answered the items on the various dependent measures.

Hypothesis One investigated the differences between athletes and non-athletes on the CDI. The statistical results for the CDI indicated there were no statistically significant differences between athletes and non-athletes on career planning, career exploration, combined attitudinal scale, career decision-making, knowledge of world of work information, combined knowledge scale, and career maturity.

The statistical analysis of the Salience Inventory found no statistically significant differences between athletes and non-athletes on the variables of participation, commitment, and values expectations.

A statistical summary of the differences between athletes and non-athletes on the Values Scale found two variables statistically significant at the .0003 level. These two variables were life style and prestige. Life style refers to living according to one's ideas and prestige refers to being admired for one's knowledge and skills. This result rejects the null hypothesis, although interaction effects due to gender could not be isolated as they were not tested under this hypothesis.

Hypothesis Two stated there would be no significant differences between the interaction of athletic status and gender regarding the CDI, SI, and VS. Interaction effects for gender and athletic status for the variables on the CDI, SI, and VS respectively were not significant, thus confirming the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis Three stated there would be no significant differences between male and female students that could be attributed to variables on the CDI, SI, and VS. Results indicated no significant differences between male and female students on the CDI. Results of the SI suggest no significant differences on the variables of Participation and Values Expectations. However, there was a significant difference between male and female students on the SI variable of Commitment at the .003 level of significance. Female students had significantly higher Commitment scores ($M=165.4$) than their male counterparts ($M=155.2$). Variables on the VS were found to be statistically insignificant except for the variable Cultural Identity which was significant at the .001 level. Female students produced statistically higher scores on the Cultural Identity scale ($M=17.6$) than male students ($M=14.8$). Based on the significance of the variables Cultural Identity and Commitment, the null hypothesis was rejected.

The comparison of athletes and non-athletes yielded a number of variables which approached significance. The Career Planning scale on the CDI examined the career planning in which one has engaged and the level of this engagement. Athletes had a lower mean score ($M=105.7$) than that of non-athletes ($M=114.2$). The F value and probability figures indicated a large, but not statistically significant difference. This difference may reflect tendencies toward deficient career planning.

Another area where results approached significance, but was not statistically significant, was between athletes and non-athletes was in the World-of-Work Information. This scale examined two areas, namely, knowledge of career development tasks in the early stages and knowledge of occupations ranging from semi-skilled to professional. Athletes had a lower mean score ($M=78.2$) than non-athletes ($M=90.5$). The difference indicates that athletes may be lacking in the areas of planfulness, exploratory attitudes, decision-making, and world of work information as compared to their non-athletic counterparts.

The third area where the difference approached but was not statistically significant was between athletes and non-athletes was Career Development

Knowledge and Skills. This area examines how career decisions are made with knowledge of the world-of-work. The non-athletes mean score ($M=89.2$) was higher than athletes ($M=77.4$). This difference may indicate that non-athletes are better prepared to apply career development principles to decision-making scenarios as well as demonstrate more knowledge of skills in what it takes to get a job and succeed.

The last area where the difference approached but was not statistically significant was on the CDI, Career Orientation Total, between athletes and non-athletes. This scale combines the results of Career Planning, Career Exploration, Career Decision-Making, and World-of-Work Information. It approaches a measure of career maturity, but only uses four of the five measures of adolescent vocational maturity. The difference between the athletes score ($M=90.1$) and the non-athletes score ($M=103.1$) might indicate that non-athletes are more vocationally mature and aware than athletes.

CONCLUSION

This study was concerned with potential developmental deficiencies of Division II college-level student-athletes in the areas of career decision-making, role salience, and values.

The data indicate that athletes and non-athletes at a Division II university tend to be similar in the areas of career decision-making, planning, and role salience. Athletes did project higher life style and prestige scores. Higher life style scores indicate that athletes tended to value the opportunity to plan one's own activities and to live the way one wants to. Many athletes feel most of their time is controlled by others (e.g., coaches, practice, classes), as a result, time for leisure is a premium. Elevated prestige scores indicate that athletes value being acknowledged for their skills more than non-athletes. The prestige score may highlight a desire by athletes to not only be acknowledged for their athletic ability but appreciated for their contribution, role, and sacrifice to the team.

Collegiate athletes must investigate their current career/life expectations and their level of understanding and preparedness in career planning and decision-making. The student-athletes' mean scores for all the CDI scales in this study were below the mean scores for the freshmen in the undergraduate sample upon which the instrument was normed. This indicates that student-athletes may have a variety of unmet needs regarding career development. Student-athletes need career expansion that facilitates their interests (i.e., known or currently unknown) and choices, and aids in dealing with barriers that deter decision-making. Student-athletes also need to find career alternatives that maintain their feelings of self-worth and personal identity. Finally, student-athletes need development of career self-efficacy when participating in life-career planning. Continued career self-efficacy relies on experiences that are reinforced with solid career models and individuals advocating career exploration in a positive manner.

Many career and transitional programs have been designed that address the career and life problems of the student-athlete. However, many of these approaches are "one shot" or semester long career planning programs. While an occupationally focused course is a good introduction, they fall short when student-athletes' problems are more developmental. Programs should be longitudinal over the course of the athletes' participation and facilitate self-reflection and critical analysis by way of assignments sequencing journal writing, group work, and self-assessments. By

constructing a portfolio of work done over each semester and by meeting periodically with a academic athletic advisor, the athlete can investigate the parts (assessments, field of study, and decision-making) to understand (1) what meaning these components have, (2) how they work in everyday life and the future, and (3) why they are important.

A portfolio approach addresses the aforementioned developmental issues (identity, competencies, and career planning) that are often deemed deficient in student-athletes. The portfolio process can assist in reversing learned helplessness by providing an opportunity for students to showcase work representing their accomplishments, thus focusing on strengths rather than deficits. Likewise, reflections on the successful and unsuccessful outcomes by athletes can help identify faulty attributions. Many athletes label themselves poor performers in the classroom. The portfolio process can help advisors encourage a new self-reflection and help transfer competitive strategies and goals to the classroom. Because the portfolio process is longitudinal, student-athletes can begin to change their limited attitudes about themselves and develop more accurate self-perceptions.

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A Comparison of Student-Athlete and Non-Athletes Perceptions of Academic Advisement Services

Andy Gillentine, Mississippi State University

Charlie Nix, Mississippi State University

Barry Hunt, Mississippi State University

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine academic advisement expectations of student athletes. One hundred and eighty-nine students completed a survey instrument addressing expectations of their academic advisor. Student-athletes surveyed in this study demonstrated advisement expectations similar to those of the general student population. Mean responses to survey items indicated non-athletes placed more importance on individual survey items than did the student athletes. Advisor's knowledge of course offerings within the department was considered important by 92.5% of all students. These findings assist in identifying specific elements useful in improving the academic advisement process and meeting student expectations.

Over the past decade, great emphasis has been placed on reform in collegiate athletics. Reform recommendations have come from within the governing bodies of collegiate sport and through external interest groups. The Knight Commission (1993) generated a series of reports in an attempt to minimize potential academic problems in collegiate athletics. A major focus of each of these reform measures has been to ensure the status of the collegiate athlete as a "student-athlete". Additional measures have also been introduced in order to minimize the separation of student athletes and the general student body. Separate housing and dining facilities for collegiate athletes were abolished in 1996 through NCCA bylaws 16.5.1 and 16.5.2.2 (NCAA, 2000). One separate entity that has been allowed to continue to exist and actually grow during this same time period has been the office of athletic advisement/counseling. NCAA bylaw 16.3.1.1 allows for:

Academic counseling. Division I institutions shall make available general academic counseling and tutoring services to all recruited student-athletes. Such counseling and tutoring services may be provided by the department of athletics or through the institution's non-athletic student support services. (effective 8/1/91)

The need for separate academic services for student athletes has been justified by citing extreme time demands/constraints of student athletes, separate admission standards, separate grade eligibility requirements, and mandatory graduation progress (Gerdy, 1997). The quality and quantity of academic services available play a major role not only in a student-athlete's collegiate experience but also in his/her introduction to the professional world (Dodge, 1992). Accountability demands, decreased public confidence in athletic administration, and competition for student-athletes have served

as catalysts for evaluation of academic services (Mullins, 1999). Evaluation of advisement quality is also important due to increased scrutiny of academic institutions by legislative bodies and the general public. In order to improve academic advisement services, it is imperative that students be involved in the evaluation process. Educational research indicates that the quality of educational services in colleges and universities could be significantly improved if two critical elements of educational effectiveness; 1) student involvement and 2) assessment and feedback were consistently emphasized and utilized (Money, 1992). These elements can be incorporated into improving academic advisement programs through the implementation of student evaluations of their academic advisement experience (Juneau, Kher, & Donahue, 1998).

Student perceptions (attitudes) regarding academic advisement are important in regards to the potential effect on student satisfaction with the academic experience (WPI, 1998; Truell, Price & Joyner, 1998). A national survey of college presidents (WPI, 1998) identified academic advising as the number one factor in student retention. The relationship between attitudes and achievement has been subject to widespread study and analysis (Truell et al, 1998). The outcomes of these studies could assist in providing solutions and/or guiding principles for the development of improved academic advisement services. In addition, it is important to examine the academic advisement needs of student-athletes in comparison to those of the general student population. This comparison will further explore the need for separate academic advisement services for student-athletes.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the academic advisement expectations of collegiate student-athletes. This paper will report the overall general findings and compare the results of the student-athletes to those of the general student population.

METHODS

Subjects

Participants in this study included 189 graduate and undergraduate students enrolled in a variety of courses offered through the Health, Physical Education, Recreation, & Sport program at a large Southeastern University. Students were instructed not to identify themselves or their advisor on the instrument in order to assure anonymity. The subjects completed the survey instrument within the class settings that required no more than 15 minutes to complete.

Instrument

Subjects were asked to supply demographic information and to indicate the approximate number of times per semester they met with their academic advisor and to indicate their overall level of satisfaction with academic advisement and their individual academic advisor. The survey instrument utilized 11 student expectations of academic advisement that had been identified in previous research (Gillentine & Hunt, 1999). Subjects were asked to indicate on a Likert-type scale the degree of importance for each of the expectations. Responses were assigned the following numerical value: 1 = Very important, 2 = Important, 3 = Unsure, 4 = Unimportant, 5 =

Very Unimportant. In addition to the 11 student expectations, two survey items used a similar scale to indicate students' overall satisfaction with the academic advisement process and with their academic advisor. For these two items, responses were assigned the following numerical value: 1=very satisfied; 2=satisfied; 3=neither satisfied nor dissatisfied; 4=unsatisfied; 5=very unsatisfied.

RESULTS

Demographics

One hundred and eighty nine subjects successfully completed the survey instrument. (Table I). The majority of the students, 83%, were undergraduates ($N = 156$), while 17% were graduate students ($N = 33$). Thirty-eight percent ($N = 71$) of the participants identified themselves as collegiate athletes. A wide variety of colleges throughout the university were represented, including education, business, arts and sciences, agriculture, veterinarian, and engineering. The largest representation came from the College of Education as 122 students (65%) indicated it was their college of enrollment. The largest group according to classification were seniors (39%, $N = 75$) whereas the smallest group identified themselves as freshmen (5%, $N = 11$). Of the participating subjects, 107 were male and 82 were female. Seventy-six percent identified themselves as Caucasian ($N = 144$) and 18% ($N = 35$) identified themselves as African American. Age group 18-21 represented the largest group of subjects at 47% ($N = 88$), whereas 42% of the subjects ($N = 80$) indicated they were between 22-26 years of age.

Student Expectations of Academic Advisement

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed on the 11 student expectations of academic advisement to examine the effect of group on expectations. Log linear transformations were performed to account for the normalcy of the data. Results indicated that there was no significant group effect ($\Lambda(11, 177)=1.669$, $p>.05$) on expectations. Athletes and non-athletes did not significantly differ on academic advisement expectations.

Table II illustrates the percentage of all students responding to each expectation as important, unsure, and unimportant. The category *important* is the result of combining the responses very important and important for each subject. *Unimportant* combines unimportant and very unimportant responses while unsure remains an exclusive category.

TABLE I

Demographic Characteristics by Group

		ATHLETES		NON-ATHLETES	
GENDER	N	%	N	%	
Male	45	63	65	55	
Female	26	37	53	45	
RACE					
Caucasian	56	79	88	75	
African American	14	20	24	21	
Hispanic	1	1	0		
Native American	0		0		
Asian American	0		3	3	
Other	0		2	2	
CLASSIFICATION					
Freshman	5	7	6	5	
Sophomore	6	9	14	12	
Junior	24	34	26	22	
Senior	23	32	52	44	
Graduate Student	13	18	20	17	
AGE					
18-21	36	51	52	44	
22-26	29	41	51	43	
27-30	3	4	6	5	
31-35	0		6	5	
36+	3	4	3	3	
COLLEGE ENROLLED					
College of Education	47	67	74	63	
College of Engineering	2	3	5	4	
College of Business	12	17	16	14	
College of Agriculture	0		4	3	
College of Arts & Sciences	8	11	18	15	
College of Architecture	1	1	0		
College of Veterinary Med.	1	1	1	1	

TABLE II

Comparison of Student Response Percentages

Item	Important	Unsure	Unimportant
<i>Advisor's knowledge of course offerings within the department</i>			
TOTAL (N = 189)	92.6	2.6	4.7
ATHLETES (N = 71)	91.5	2.8	5.6
NON-ATHLETES (N = 118)	93.2	2.5	4.2
<i>Advisor's knowledge of course offering schedule</i>			
TOTAL (N = 189)	90.5	5.3	4.3
ATHLETES (N = 71)	87.3	7.0	5.6
NON-ATHLETES (N = 118)	92.3	4.2	3.4
<i>Advisor's sensitivity to student needs</i>			
TOTAL (N = 189)	90.0	4.2	5.8
ATHLETES (N = 71)	87.3	5.6	7.0
NON-ATHLETES (N = 118)	91.5	3.4	5.0
<i>Advisors ability to identify potential job opportunities</i>			
TOTAL (N = 189)	86.3	5.8	8.0
ATHLETES (N = 71)	83.0	9.9	7.0
NON-ATHLETES (N = 118)	88.1	3.4	8.4
<i>Advisor's willingness to offer suggestions and stimulate conversation</i>			
TOTAL (N = 189)	86.2	5.3	8.5
ATHLETES (N = 71)	83.0	7.0	9.8
NON-ATHLETES (N = 118)	88.1	3.4	8.4
<i>Advisors familiarity with student</i>			
TOTAL (N = 189)	85.2	7.9	6.8
ATHLETES (N = 71)	81.6	11.3	7.0
NON-ATHLETES (N = 118)	87.2	5.9	6.8
<i>Advisor's knowledge of course offerings outside the department</i>			
TOTAL (N = 189)	84.2	10.1	5.8
ATHLETES (N = 71)	83.0	11.3	5.6
NON-ATHLETES (N = 118)	84.7	9.3	5.9
<i>Advisors knowledge of other instructors</i>			
TOTAL (N = 189)	79.9	11.6	8.4
ATHLETES (N = 71)	83.0	7.0	9.8
NON-ATHLETES (N = 118)	77.9	14.4	7.6

TABLE II (cont.)

Comparison of Student Response Percentages

Item	Important	Unsure	Unimportant
<i>Professional approach to advisement</i>			
TOTAL (N = 189)	77.8	14.3	7.9
ATHLETES (N = 71)	73.2	14.1	12.7
NON-ATHLETES (N = 118)	80.5	14.4	5.0
<i>Ability to reflect current trends</i>			
TOTAL (N = 189)	56.6	29.6	13.7
ATHLETES (N = 71)	49.2	29.6	21.1
NON-ATHLETES (N = 118)	61.0	29.7	9.3
<i>Length of advisement session</i>			
TOTAL (N = 189)	51.9	22.2	25.9
ATHLETES (N = 71)	49.2	22.5	28.2
NON-ATHLETES (N = 118)	53.3	22.0	24.5

Advisor's knowledge of course offerings within the department was considered important by 92.6% of all students. This reflects the highest ranking of all expectations by both athletes (91.5%) and non-athletes (93.2%). Nine of the expectations of academic advisement were rated important by 77% or more of all students (range 77.0-92.5%). The two remaining expectations, *Ability to reflect current trends* (56.6%) and *Length of advisement session* (51.9%) were considered important by slightly more than half of all respondents. Over one fourth (29.6%) of all students were unsure whether *Ability to reflect current trends* was an important or unimportant expectation and 25.9% felt that *Length of advisement session* was unimportant.

When asked to rate their *overall satisfaction with academic advisement*, 68.8% of all students indicated that they were satisfied (the category satisfied is the result of combining the responses very satisfied and satisfied for each subject). Over 17 percent were unsatisfied and 13.8% were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with academic advisement. The response to the item *satisfaction with the academic advisor* had similar findings. Nearly 70% of all students were satisfied with their academic advisor while 22.8% were unsatisfied. Only 7.4% indicated being neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

A Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine if athletes differed from non-athletes in their level of satisfaction with academic advisement. No significant difference was found between athletes and non-athletes ($U=3787$, $p>.025$). Similarly, no significant difference was found between the two groups when comparing their satisfaction with their academic advisor ($U=3654.5$, $p>.025$). Table III illustrates the percent satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction of the academic advisement process by group.

TABLE III

Level of Satisfaction with Academic Advisement and Advisor by Group

Item	Satisfied %	Neither%	Unsatisfied%
Athletes (N = 71)			
Overall Satisfaction With Academic Advisement	74.7	8.5	16.8
Overall Satisfaction With Academic Advisor	74.7	7.0	18.3
Non Athletes (N = 118)			
Overall Satisfaction With Academic Advisement	65.3	16.9	17.8
Overall Satisfaction With Academic Advisor	68.9	7.6	25.5

DISCUSSION

Student-athletes surveyed in this study demonstrated advisement expectations similar to those of the general student population. Similarities between the two groups were also evident upon examination of percentages of important, unsure, and unimportant responses (Table II). While there were no statistically significant differences between athletes and non-athletes in their advisement expectations, non-athletes consistently demonstrated a higher level of importance on most items. The only inconsistency was "*Advisor's knowledge of other instructors*". Overall, 83.0% of the student athletes viewed this as important compared to 77.9% of the non-athletes (Table II). This difference may reflect student-athletes' perceived need for instructor understanding of the demands of participation in collegiate sport previously reported by Byers (1995) and Chu (1994). This finding does seem paradoxical in that response to "*Advisor's sensitivity to student needs*" 87.3% of the athletes felt this expectation was of importance compared to 91.5% of the non-athletes.

The length of advisement sessions was considered least important by both groups. Fifty-one percent of the total respondents indicated this was of importance in academic advisement. Advisors are often warned that students do not want to feel hurried or under time constraints during advisement sessions. This finding may indicate however, that students are more interested in quality of advisement over quantity. This interpretation is further supported by student response to number of times they consulted with student advisor. Eighty-one percent of all students met with their

advisor three or less times per semester. Eighty-four percent non-athletes visited their advisor 1-3 times per semester, seven percent more than non-athletes.

The students also reported that the "Ability to reflect current trends" was low in order of importance. Only 49.2 % of the athletes felt this expectation was important, whereas 56.6 % the entire student population indicated this was of importance. This result seems to be contradictory when compared to the expectation "Advisor's ability to identify potential job opportunities." A great majority of subjects (86.3%) indicated this was an important expectation of their advisor. This is seemingly inconsistent with the previous findings concerning current trends. If the advisor is not knowledgeable of current trends within the student's field, how can the advisor meet student expectations regarding job opportunities? Additionally, is this expectation of job opportunity knowledge realistic if the advisor is not connected with a specific academic discipline? Can athletic academic advisors provide current and relevant career information as adequately as discipline specific advisors?

While the responses of the non-athletes were consistent in their indication of higher levels of perceived importance for 10 of the 11 expectations, the overall level of satisfaction of student-athletes with *academic advisement* and overall level of satisfaction with their *academic advisor* were higher than those of non-athletes. Seventy-five percent of the student-athletes indicated they were satisfied to both survey items. Interestingly, 17 % of the non-athletes were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with academic advisement, whereas 25 % were unsatisfied with their academic advisor. The question must be investigated to determine if these responses reflect the use of separate athletic academic advisement services versus the academic services used by the general student body.

The findings of this study support earlier findings regarding student perceptions of areas of importance in student advisement (Gillentine & Hunt, 1999). Each of the items utilized in the survey instrument were perceived as important to academic advisement by over fifty percent of the sample population. The findings also generate areas in need of further study. Given that the levels of importance were similar for both groups, is there a need for separate academic advisement for student-athletes? Also, is the overall perceived level of satisfaction of student athletes due to separate academic services or other unidentified factors? Further, can academic advisement services offered outside the academic department be as effective as those offered through an academic department?

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BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Dr. Andy Gillentine is an associate professor and director of the Sport Administration Graduate Program at Mississippi State University. His research interests are career development, ethical issues in sport and management theory. He served as athletic director and coach for over 15 years. He is currently active as a mentor to the MSU athletic academic program. agillentine@colled.msstate.edu

Dr. Charlie Nix is an assistant professor at Mississippi State University. His research interests are in pedagogy and children's physical activity. He served for 9 years as head basketball coach and as an academic advisor in higher education for 10 years. cnix@colled.msstate.edu

Dr. Barry Hunt is an associate professor and director of the Health Promotion Graduate Program at Mississippi State University. His research interests are in the area of comprehensive school health and community based health promotion and disease prevention programs. bhunt@colled.msstate.edu

Demographic Characteristics of Academic Advisors for Intercollegiate Athletics of NCAA D-I Member Institutions

E. Newton Jackson, Jr., The Florida State University

Jerome Quarterman, The Florida State University

Robert Lyons, The Texas A & M University

Euidong Yoo, The Florida State University

ABSTRACT

This investigation examined selected demographic factors of National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletics (NAA) professionals. A 23 item self-reported questionnaire was mailed in Spring 2001. A non-experimental descriptive exploratory design was implemented utilizing the field survey format. Research variables investigated were individual primary & secondary characteristics. Results indicated 2/3 (67.4%) of advisors were likely to be 39 years or less in age and 1/3 (32.6%) were 40 years or older. Cross-tabulations implied male and female advisors were likely to have earned degrees at the same levels. White females were more often employed as academic athletic advisors in NCAA D-I institutions than male or females of other ethnic minority groups collectively.

INTRODUCTION

The largest entity of sport within this nation is college sports. There are more people viewing, attending, and buying into college sport than ever before. "Intercollegiate athletics in the United States is a huge, complicated, demanding, and controversial enterprise" (Abney & Parks, 1998, p. 119). The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) is the governing organization comprised of over 1,000 institutions with membership at separate divisional levels, I, II, III. Abney and Parks (1998) expressed a perspective concerning individuals at different institutions with the same position title very possibly were performing different duties and those performing the same duties may have different titles. Academic reform has been a major focus and discussion for nearly the last twenty years at the NCAA annual convention and the member institutions' leadership provided more than 'mere lip service' attempting to address this concern. During the past decade, the NCAA Manual was revised and mandated by the membership, to require academic progress towards degree attainment. This NCAA by-law (14.4) forced many member institutions to monitor the academic progress of their student athletes. In some cases, institutions had to provide academic support for their student athletes. At selected departments, this meant hiring professional staff, peer tutors and mentors, while other institutions had such staff personnel already in place.

The employment field of academic advisement, specifically for student athletes, has grown and dramatically changed since the 1975 creation of the professional association presently known as the National Association of Academic Advisors for

Athletics (N4A). Academic support professionals responsible for providing assistance to student athletes are commonly referred to as academic counselors. This critical division of intercollegiate athletics has been strongly emphasized during the last decade. The obvious growth in hiring paid professionals within this unit of intercollegiate athletics supports this premise. The purpose of this investigation was to describe select primary and secondary diversity characteristics of professional individuals employed as academic advisors for student athletes of NCAA Division I institutions during the 1999-2000 academic year. Moreover, to determine relationship among age, gender, race and educational levels. Little empirical evidence exists about the characteristics of academic advisors of intercollegiate athletics programs.

Research examining each intercollegiate athletic position should be conducted, and currently only the athletic director position has been thoroughly investigated. This investigation is another step towards a clear understanding of college athletics specifically, and sport management in general. The faculty athletic representative, the compliance personnel, the fundraising/external affairs staff are each vital components to the success of any intercollegiate athletics program. This study is merely a part of this huge research agenda. Prior to investigating various tasks and duties of these staff positions, it would be prudent to know about these professionals and their background, so a closer myopic view may be applied.

The objective of this research was to yield descriptive knowledge of population parameters (i.e., age, gender, race, educational levels) of academic advisors of intercollegiate athletics programs. This level of description also reveals relationships or associations between the variables; however, it will not show that one variable causes another.

This study attempts to illustrate some important trends in the field of academic athletic advisement. Individuals considering employment within this unit of intercollegiate athletics will gain selected insight concerning career planning options as an academic athletic counselor including that of upward mobility and educational level expectations based upon the measure of current advisors.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This investigation was guided by the dual conceptual approach to diversity that was coined by Loden and Rosener (1991). According to this concept, people possess two basic diverse characteristics: primary diverse characteristics and secondary diverse characteristics. *Primary diversity characteristics* refer to human differences that are inborn and cannot be changed or modified during a person's life such as age, race, ethnicity, gender, physical abilities, and sexual orientation (Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1994). These categories are further supported by Arredondo (1996) who outlined generic characteristics, which affect an individual's socialization and sense of self as primary, while those characteristics in life, which are attained and learned, should be considered secondary. *Secondary diversity characteristics* are human differences that are inherited from the environment and can be changed or modified during a person's life such as educational level, work experience, income, marital status, religious beliefs, geographical location, parental status, behavioral style, etc. (Loden & Rosener, 1991).

BACKGROUND LITERATURE

The documented literature on this sub-group of athletic administrators continues to be extremely sparse. Kurpius and Rose (1982) discussed the "big name" institutions and their initial hiring practices of advisors for student athletes. Brennan (1983) conducted a quantitative study illustrating the slow but inevitable change within the academic community concerning athletic advising, but it was Mand and Fletcher (1986) that investigated the background and characteristics of the 1986 N4A conventioners employed full-time as academic advisors. This research project was prompted by the noticeable institutional differences among N4A professionals after the N4A Silver Anniversary Convention. These differences included, but were not limited to ages, gender, educational degree attainment, and salary ranges of association members. Numerous researchers have examined other athletic administrative positions and most often presented the demographic data pertaining to career paths (Terry, 1988), career characteristics (Hartfield, Wrenn, & Bretting, 1987), leaders of historically black colleges and universities athletics departments (Quarterman, 1992), in addition to intercollegiate athletic conference leaders (Quarterman, 1999).

METHODS

Design

The research design was an exploratory descriptive non-experimental investigation. DePoy and Gitlin (1994) stated that the purpose of descriptive is to "yield descriptive knowledge of population parameters and relationships among those parameters" (p.78). The researchers of this investigation employed field survey procedures for data collection. This design is based in a priori theory, a category of research regularly utilized in human services (DePoy & Gitlin, 1994).

Study Population

The target population for this study was the academic advisors of NCAA Division I member institutions listed as professional members within the directory of the National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletics (N4A) during the 1999-2000 academic year. The study population consisted of 457 academic athletic advisors and of this amount 252 (55.14%) were females and the remaining 205 (44.86%) were males. The researchers deemed this investigation as exploratory and therefore wanted to offer the entire association membership the opportunity to participate. Thus, the concept of using a sample of the professional membership would therefore have been inappropriate.

Survey Instrument

The survey instrument was a self-administered 23-item questionnaire previously developed by Quarterman (1992; 1999). It contained research variables indicating individual, self-reported primary and secondary characteristics (ethnic background, gender, age, educational preparation, and years of experience in employed position). Of the 23 items, 11 (47.8%) were open-ended questions and the remaining 12 (52.2%) were closed-ended.

In reference to validity, content validity was employed in the current investigation. A draft of the questionnaire for the current study was sent to two faculty members in sport management programs, two doctoral students (ABD status) of sport management programs and two athletics administrators. None of these professionals were part of the study population. Based upon their recommendations, the questionnaire was slightly modified to address the degree of measuring the items it was designed to measure.

Data Collection Procedures

In the Spring of 2001, a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study was sent to each of the advisors. The participants were informed within the cover letter that the completion and return of the mail questionnaire signified consent to participate in the study. Each survey informed the potential respondent that their personal and institutional anonymity would be protected and un-identified. The participants were also informed the survey results would be published in an academic and scholarly journal. All data were coded for computer analyses using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 10.0.

Data Analysis

The responses from 213 questionnaires were coded and included in the SPSS computer analysis. Not all participants responded to all items; as a result, the sample sub-totals varied from 202-213. Based on the purpose of this investigation, the descriptive statistical analysis was utilized employing the three measures of central tendency (mean, mode and median), two measures of condense data (frequency count, histogram), and one measure of variability (range). The data was displayed showing the frequency of the relationship between dependent and independent variables via cross tabulation procedures. The data for the primary and secondary characteristics were measured on a ratio scale, therefore, the mean scores were the most appropriate (Malhotra, 1999). The reader must be aware that the mean is sensitive to extremely small or extremely large scores, therefore scores for the median, mode, and range were reported.

Results of the Study

Data were collected from a sample of academic advisors of NCAA Division I member institutions who were listed as members in the National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletics (N4A) during the 1999-2000 academic year. Of 457 questionnaires mailed, 213 (46.61%) participants returned the questionnaire in its completed form.

The results of this investigation are reported in Tables I through IV and Figures 1 through 3. Table I provides a summary of the primary and secondary diversity characteristics of the responding advisors by gender. Table II presents a cross-tabulation of race and age by gender and Table III shows a cross-tabulation of two secondary characteristics (i.e., educational characteristics) by gender. Figures 1-3 provide cross-tabulated histograms of selected work status characteristics by gender.

A Summary of Primary and Secondary Diversity Characteristics by Gender:

As portrayed in Table I, 212 of the advisors responded and of that amount 83 (39.3%) were males and 129 (60.7%) were females. The average age of the respondents was 36.9 years and they ranged in age from 23 to 66 years (median age 34; mode age 29). Annual mean salaries of the advisors were \$40,956 and ranged from \$18,000 to \$96,000 (median salary \$39,000, mode \$30,000). The average salary for the male advisors was 8.45% or \$6,804 higher than the average salary for the female advisors. A similar trend was also shown for salary. The median salary for male advisors was \$42,000 and \$36,000 for female advisors. The difference in salary depicted an 8.57% or \$6,000 increase for the males than females.

In the third and fourth tiers of Table I, a summary of the advisor's *years in present position and years employed as an advisor* was examined. The participants were employed in their present positions an average of 5 years and ranged from less than one year to 26 years. The participant's average years of employment as an advisor were two years longer than the average years in their current positions.

TABLE I.

Summary of Primary & Secondary Diversity Characteristics by Gender of Academic Advisors for Athletics of NCAA D-I Members (1999-2000)

Primary and Secondary Diversity Characteristics	Gender Characteristics		
	Male Advisors	Female Advisors	Total Advisors
Age	(n=83)	(n=129)	(N=212)
Mean Age	36.58	37.10	36.89
Median Age	34.00	34.00	34.00
Mode Age	31.00	29.00	29.00
Range in Age	23-66	24-62	23-66
Salary	(n=77)	(n=127)	(N=204)
Mean Salary	\$45,192.53	\$38,388.41	\$40,956.64
Median Salary	\$42,000	\$36,000	\$39,000
Mode Salary	\$35,000	\$30,000	\$30,000
Range in Salary	\$18,000-\$96,000	\$20,000-\$75,000	\$18,000-\$96,000
Years in Present Position	(n=83)	(n=129)	(N=212)
Mean Years	4.99	5.01	5.00
Median Years	4.00	3.00	3.00
Mode Years	1.00	1.00	1.00
Range in Years	0.50-21.00	0.00-26.00	0.00-26.00
Years as an Advisor	(n=82)	(n=130)	(N=212)
Mean Years	8.39	6.68	7.34
Median Years	7.00	5.00	6.00
Mode Years	5.00	3.00	3.00
Range in Years	0.50-28.00	0.00-26.00	0.00-28.00

A Summary of Race and Gender:

Shown in Table II are cross-tabulations for the association between gender and two select primary diversity characteristics (race and age) of the responding academic athletic advisors. With respect to race, both male and female academic athletic advisor groups were composed predominately of White Americans. Nearly two-thirds (61.3%) of the responding advisors were females and slightly more than one-third (38.7%) were males. When specifically looking at gender and race, the cross-tabulations show that White Americans (74.0 %) were more likely to be academic advisors in NCAA Division I member institutions than African Americans or other under-represented groups.

TABLE II.**Cross Tabulation of Primary Diversity Characteristics by Gender of Academic Advisors for Athletics of NCAA Division I Members**

Primary Diversity Characteristics	Gender Characteristics		Total Advisors
	Male Advisors # (%)	Female Advisors # (%)	
Race (Primary)	(n=82)	(n=130)	(N=212)
African American	25 (30.5%)	21 (16.1%)	46 (21.6%)
Asian American	3 (3.7%)	1 (0.8%)	4 (1.9%)
Hispanic American	1 (1.2%)	3 (2.3%)	4 (1.9%)
Native American	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.8%)	1 (0.5%)
White American	53 (64.6%)	104 (80.0%)	157 (74.0%)
Total	82 (100.0%)	130 (100.0%)	212 (100.0%)
Age (Primary)	(n=83)	(n=129)	(N=212)
<30 Years Old	17 (20.5%)	42 (32.6%)	59 (27.9%)
30 to 39 Years Old	43 (51.8%)	41 (31.8%)	84 (39.6%)
40 to 49 Years Old	16 (19.3%)	26 (20.1%)	42 (19.8%)
>50 Years Old	7 (8.4%)	20 (15.5%)	27 (12.7%)
Total	83 (100.0%)	129 (100.0%)	212 (100.0%)

When specifically considering females, nearly all of the advisors were White Americans (80%). Less than one fifth (16.1%) of the advisors were African American females. When looking at males nearly two thirds (64.6%) were White Americans and less than one-third (30.5%) were African American males. Other underrepresented groups (Asian, Hispanic and Native Americans) accounted for less than 5% of academic athletic advisors when gender was associated with race. The cross-tabulations indicated that White Americans, specifically females, were more likely to be academic advisors in NCAA Division I member institutions than African Americans or other ethnic minority groups.

In reference to gender and age, the cross-tabulations showed that two-thirds (67.5%) of the advisors were likely to be 39 years or less in age and the remaining third (32.5%) were 40 years or older. The largest number of advisors (39.6%) were associated with the 30-39 age segment. When specifically looking at the respondents by gender, it was found that half (51.8%) of the males were in the 30-39 age segment, however, less than one-third (31.8%) of the females were within this category.

A Summary of Educational Characteristics by Gender:

Shown in Table III are the cross-tabulations between gender and educational characteristics for the responding academic athletic advisors. Gender characteristics were considered as independent variables and educational characteristics (highest degree earned, and years since highest degree) as the dependent variables. Based on the results of the cross-tabulations, both male and female respondents primarily held master's degrees as the highest degree earned. Three-fourths of the males and females (74.7% and 80%) respectively, held the master's degrees. Less than 15% of the respondents held a doctorate as the highest degree. Less than 10% held the bachelor's as their highest degree. The cross-tabulations implied that both male and female advisors were likely to have earned degrees at the same levels.

TABLE III.**Cross Tabulation of Primary Diversity Characteristics by Gender of Academic Advisors for Athletics of NCAA Division I Members (1999-2000)**

Primary Diversity Characteristics	Gender Characteristics		Total Advisors
	Male Advisors # (%)	Female Advisors # (%)	
Highest Degree Earned	(n=83)	(n=130)	(N=213)
Bachelors	7 (8.4%)	13 (10.0%)	20 (9.4%)
Masters	62 (74.7%)	104 (80.0%)	166 (77.9%)
Doctorates	14 (16.9%)	13 (10.0%)	27 (12.7%)
Total	83 (100.0%)	130 (100.0%)	213 (100.0%)
Years Since Highest Degree	(n=82)	(n=122)	(N=204)
< 1 Year	9 (11.0%)	25 (20.5%)	34 (16.6%)
2 to 3 Years	8 (9.8%)	23 (18.9%)	31 (15.2%)
4 to 5 Years	9 (11.0%)	21 (17.2%)	30 (14.7%)
6 to 7 Years	16 (19.5%)	6 (4.9%)	22 (10.8%)
8 to 9 Years	11 (13.4%)	12 (9.8%)	23 (11.3%)
≥10 Years	29 (35.3%)	35 (28.7%)	64 (31.4%)
Total	82 (100.0%)	122 (100.0%)	204 (100.0%)

Figures 1 through 3 present the cross-tabulations between years of work experiences and gender of the advisors.

A Summary of Years In Present Position:

When looking at the total group (N=212), two-thirds of the advisors (69.8%) had been in their present positions for five years or less and slightly more than half (52.3%) were in their position no more than three years (Figure 1). Nearly one-fifth (15.6%) of the advisors had ten or more years of experience in their present positions. Overall, there were no discernible differences in the years of work experiences of male and female advisors.

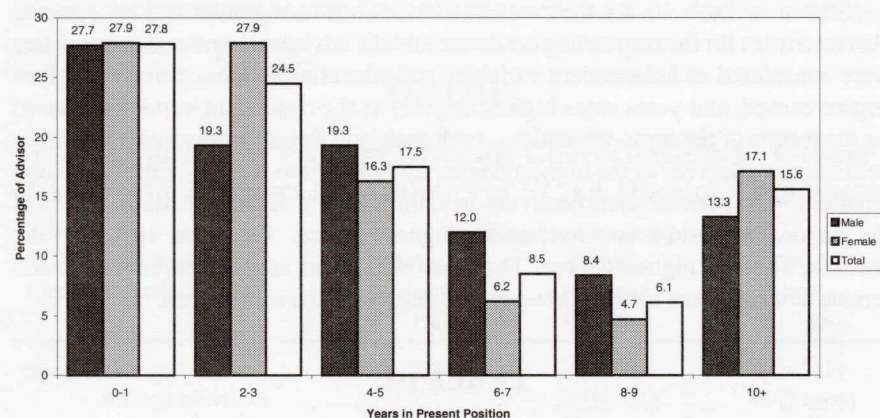


Figure 1. Years in Present Position

A Summary of Years as an Academic Advisor:

As shown in Figure 2, the largest number of advisors had been in that position for nine years or less. This includes two-thirds (65.9%) of the males and three-fourths (72.3%) of the females. The cross-tabulations show that a larger number of males (63.4%) had been advisors for six or more years and nearly half (47.7%) of the female advisors served for this same amount of time.

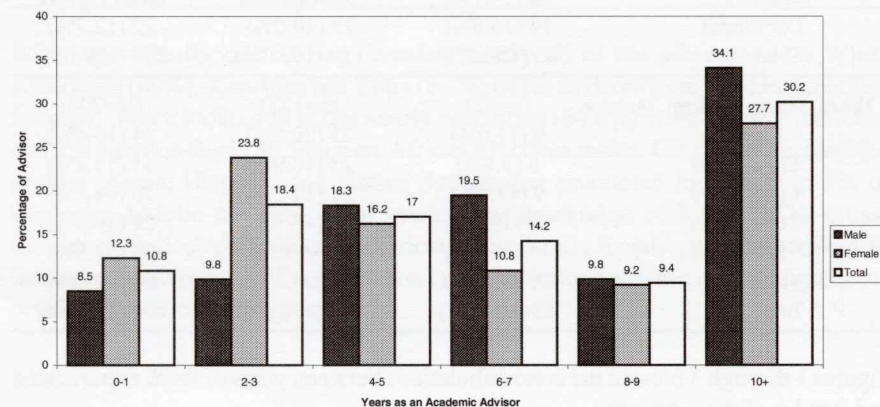


Figure 2. Years as an Academic Advisor

A Summary of Years in an Administrative Position:

As shown in Figure 3, the cross-tabulation analysis revealed that a larger percentage of males had more experience in administrative positions than did females. Over three-fifths (62.0%) of the males had 6 or more years of administrative experience and less than half (44.71%) of the females had 6 or more years of administrative experience. Overall, there were considerable differences between male and female academic athletic advisors in reference to both years as an academic advisor and years as an administrator. The male respondents were associated with longer years in each category.

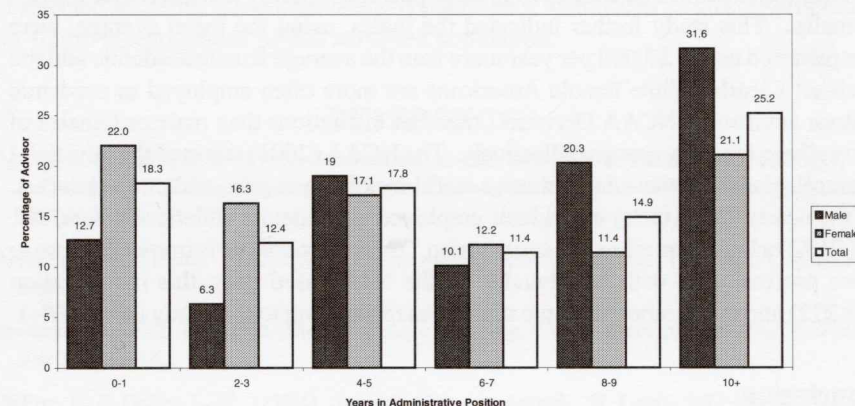


Figure 3. Years in Administrative Position

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to depict select primary and secondary diversity characteristics of professional individuals employed as academic athletic advisors of NCAA D-I institutions during the 1999-2000 academic year by gender. In this current research, attention must first focus to the inclusion of a conceptual framework by Loden and Rosener (1991) that provided a clear foundation and perspective into this investigation. This framework identified the primary characteristics that people have no control, which included age, gender, race and sexual orientation, and secondary characteristics as the assorted peripheral influences initiated by practices and society.

An interesting comparison can be between the current study and the Mand and Fletcher (1986) study. They also (1986) found male academic athletic advisors to be older by age, generally employed longer, and more educated in terms of highest degree earned than female advisors. The results of this study indicated that in the year 2000, female academic athletic advisors are slightly older, equally educated, yet, still making less money than their male counterpart. The employment trend of hiring more females in this division of intercollegiate athletics was identified sixteen years ago with only signs of more of the same ahead.

The investigation from which these data were derived affords the limited foundation of literature a solid springboard for future research on intercollegiate athletic academic advisors. This paper addressed the professionals employed within the intercollegiate experience designated to assist and support the primary product, the student athlete.

Career planning and vision of upward mobility are but two of the benefits generated from this study. Clearly females are hired at a greater rate, even though the nation's higher education institutions have not yet met gender equity among their student athletes. The data indicated of the academic athletic advisors reporting, females were found to be employed in these positions slightly less than twice the rate of males. This study further indicated the males, using the mean average, were compensated nearly \$7,000 per year more than the average female academic athletic advisor. Clearly, White female Americans are more often employed as academic athletic advisors in NCAA Division I member institutions than male or females of other ethnic minority groups collectively. The NCAA (2001) reported the Division I intercollegiate athletics administrative staff breakdown in print and on the internet. Of the nearly 750 (100%) individuals employed as academic athletic advisors, 201 (26.91%) belong to an ethnic minority group. These percentages is ironically close to those professionals with membership in the N4A based upon this investigation (n = 212) and the number of ethnic minorities responding to this study (n = 26.0%).

Conclusion

In conclusion, this investigation enhances the greater body of knowledge concerning intercollegiate athletics administration. Empirical research on the various units of intercollegiate athletic positions, their true functions, background and efficiency, with exception of the athletic director position, is extremely sparse. Academic athletic advisors have become so vital to the present system of major college athletics this paper should support the varied interests of not only academicians, practicing professionals, but the future career aspiring athletic academic advisor as well. They will have some data to examine concerning degree attainment within these types of athletic administrators, in addition to viewing the employment patterns thus far of these association members. Most academic athletic advisors are fairly new to the field, and this study identified the trend for continuous education and training to access the upward mobility ladder. Also, this study pointed out the salary disparities based upon gender, which if evaluated and controlled for years of experience and education may point to a continued disturbing trend of paying women less than men for the same job.

There are a few suggested directions for future research in this subject area. A thorough examination of each sub-unit comprising the multi-billion dollar industry, college athletics, should be conducted. This would provide a better understanding among all entities of the complexity created by and involved with intercollegiate athletics.

Further exploration into which sports are advised by gender and ethnicity should be examined to delineate possible sociological patterns in the management and academic success of specific intercollegiate sports. A thorough examination of the salary earnings of academic athletic advisors should be investigated to identify the potential earnings achieved within this unit of intercollegiate athletics. Future research could further identify institutional hiring practices for ethnic minority advisors compared with the population of minority student athletes on campus.

The question and status of academic athletic advisement among the Historically Black Colleges and Universities should also be addressed. A qualitative examination of selected academic athletic advisors by conference would also be most appropriate for future investigations of this surveyed population.

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Norms and Factorial Invariance of the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS)

Britton W. Brewer, Springfield College

Allen E. Cornelius, Springfield College

ABSTRACT

This study examined the factorial invariance of the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS; Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993) and developed norms for its future use. Results indicated that a multidimensional model in which three highly correlated first order factors (social identity, exclusivity, and negative affectivity) are subordinate to a higher order athletic identity factor demonstrated factorial invariance across genders and athletic statuses. The findings suggest that a 7-item composite AIMS score is appropriate for assessing athletic identity in both men and women. Applications of the AIMS with student-athletes are discussed.

Success in competitive sport typically requires a high level of commitment. Indeed, some athletes are so invested in achieving excellence in sport that they neglect other important areas of functioning. In intercollegiate sport, for example, a major challenge for support staff is to help student-athletes strike a balance between their development as athletes and their development as individuals, students, and future professionals. At the heart of this struggle for balance is a quest for identity, which is a critical task of adolescence (Erikson, 1959) that has important implications for the personal and career development of college students (Blustein, Devenis, & Kidney, 1989; Blustein & Phillips, 1989; Marcia, 1966). Identity, which refers to "a clearly delineated self-definition comprised of those goals, values, and beliefs which a person finds personally expressive and to which he or she is unequivocally committed" (Waterman, 1985, p. 6), has been examined recently in athletes in the context of "athletic identity" (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993). Researchers have documented associations between athletic identity and phenomena that are directly relevant to those providing support services to student-athletes, such as career maturity (Murphy, Petitpas, & Brewer, 1996), burnout (Baysden, Brewer, Petitpas, & Van Raalte, 1997; Gould, Udry, Tuffey, & Loehr, 1996; Raedeke, 1997), adjustment to injury (Brewer, 1993), and adjustment to sport career termination (Grove, Lavalley, & Gordon, 1997).

A standardized, psychometrically sound measure of athletic identity could be of great utility to athletic counselors and academic athletic advisors in identifying student-athletes at risk for difficulty adjusting to sport career transitions or committing to the full array of responsibilities associated with being a student-athlete (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Petitpas, 2000). A reliable and valid measure of athletic identity would also facilitate conceptual clarity and provide a strong foundation for subsequent assessment and research. The instrument that has been used to assess athletic identity most frequently to date is the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS; Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993), a 10-item scale designed to reflect the strength and exclusivity of identification with the athlete role. Item content of the AIMS,

which was designed to encompass social (e.g., "Most of my friends are athletes,"), cognitive (e.g., "I have many goals related to sport,"), and affective (e.g., "I feel bad about myself when I do poorly in sport") elements of athletic identity, taps thoughts and feelings central to the daily experience of student-athletes. AIMS items are rated on 7-point Likert-type scales and are summed to create an overall athletic identity score. Thus, the AIMS is consistent with a conceptualization of athletic identity as a superordinate construct incorporating disparate aspects of sport-specific self-identity.

Research has provided general support for the psychometric integrity of the AIMS. Evidence for the test-retest reliability ($r = .89$ over a two-week period) and internal consistency (alphas = .81 to .93) of the AIMS has been obtained (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993; Good, Brewer, Petitpas, Van Raalte, & Mahar, 1993). With regard to validity, AIMS scores have been found to increase with level of sport involvement (i.e., non-athlete, recreational athlete, competitive athlete), perceived importance of sports competence, and other constructs conceptually related to athletic identity (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993; Good et al., 1993). Further, AIMS scores have been found not to be significantly correlated with measures of constructs conceptually dissimilar to athletic identity, including social desirability, self-esteem, self-rated sports competence, and coach-rated sport skill (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993).

One unresolved issue is whether the AIMS is uni-dimensional or multidimensional. Although Brewer, Van Raalte, and Linder (1993) found the AIMS to be uni-dimensional using exploratory factor analysis in the initial validation study, exploratory factor analyses in other studies (Brewer, 1990; Brewer, Boin, & Petitpas, 1993; Hale, 1995) have suggested that the AIMS is comprised of three factors, tentatively labeled "social identity," "exclusivity," and "negative affectivity" based on item content (Brewer, 1990). Martin and colleagues furnished additional evidence for the multidimensionality of the AIMS, yielding a four-factor solution in an exploratory factor analysis in one study (Martin, Mushett, & Eklund, 1994) and demonstrating the adequacy of a four-factor model through confirmatory factor analysis in another study (Martin, Eklund, & Mushett, 1997). Most recently, Hale, James, and Stambulova (1999) presented confirmatory factor analytic support for a three-factor AIMS model, casting further doubt on the uni-dimensionality of the scale.

For the most part, research on the dimensionality of the AIMS has been hampered by the use of small samples from specific sports or with specific characteristics (e.g., athletes with disabilities [Martin et al., 1994, 1997]). Consequently, one purpose of the current study was to evaluate the viability of uni-dimensional and multidimensional AIMS models through confirmatory factor analytic techniques with a large sample with diverse characteristics. More pertinent to academic athletic professionals, a second purpose of the current study was to provide norms for the final form of the instrument and determine whether the factor model on which the final form of the instrument is based is applicable across genders and athletic statuses.

METHOD

Participants

A sample of 2,856 participants was assembled from multiple administrations of the AIMS over the past 10 years. Because the data were aggregated in a single computer file from various questionnaire-based studies that differed somewhat in intent and population sampled, the same demographic information was not available for all participants, so the description of the sample's characteristics is based on only those observations for which there are information. The mean age of the sample (based on $n = 2,018$) was 20.61 years ($SD = 3.86$), with participant ages ranging from 13 to 55 years. Of those participants for whom gender was reported ($n = 2,729$), 64.3% were male and 35.7% were female (1,755 males, 974 females, 127 gender not reported). Of those participants for whom race/ethnicity was reported ($n = 1,476$), 82.1% ($n = 1,212$) were Caucasian, 13.9% ($n = 205$) were Black, 1.6% ($n = 23$) were Hispanic, 0.8% ($n = 12$) were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1.6% reported "other." Information on race/ethnicity was not available for 48.3% ($n = 1,380$) of the sample. The sample was composed of varsity athletes ($n = 1,607$, 56.3%), non-athletes ($n = 529$, 18.5%), sports medicine clinic patients ($n = 171$, 6.0%), and participants for whom athlete status information was not available ($n = 720$, 25.2%). It should be noted that the athlete status categories are not mutually exclusive, as participants from a sports medicine clinic may also be varsity athletes. Of college student participants, 1,545 (57.5%) came from NCAA Division I institutions, 90 (3.4%) came from NCAA Division II institutions, and 928 (34.6%) came from NCAA Division III institutions. Divisional status was not reported for 122 (4.5%) of college student participants. Athlete participants reported involvement in 20 different sports, the most frequently reported being football ($n = 533$, 33.2% of athletes), soccer ($n = 254$, 15.8% of athletes), baseball ($n = 132$, 8.2% of athletes), basketball ($n = 126$, 7.8% of athletes), swimming and diving ($n = 89$, 5.5% of athletes), and lacrosse ($n = 88$, 5.5% of athletes). Data from non-athletes were included for validation purposes.

The total sample was divided into two samples: a derivation sample ($n = 1,462$) and a validation sample ($n = 1,394$). The samples were stratified to insure equivalence in gender and varsity athlete/non-athlete composition. No significant differences were detected between the derivation and validation samples in AIMS item mean scores or demographic variables (all $ps > .10$).

Analysis

Confirmatory factor analytic (CFA) methods were performed on the derivation sample data to examine four AIMS models (the original uni-dimensional model and three multidimensional models, designated Models A, B, C, and D) that have been previously proposed and investigated in the literature. The results of these analyses, which are described in the Appendix, supported the development of a new higher-order model, Model E. As shown in Figure 1, Model E consists of seven items. Three items from the original 10-item scale (item 6 – "I need to participate in sport to feel good about myself," item 7 – "Other people see me mainly as an athlete," and item 9 – "Sport is the only important thing in my life") were deleted due to poor performance in the factor analysis. The seven remaining items were renumbered 1 to 7 (see Table

I) and were modeled to comprise three first order factors. Items 1, 2, and 3 were indicators of social identity; items 4 and 5 were indicators of exclusivity; and items 6 and 7 were indicators of negative affectivity. These three first order factors were modeled to be related directly to one higher order athletic identity factor. Using AMOS version 4.0 (SmallWaters Corporation, Chicago, IL), the covariance matrix of the validation sample ($n = 1,394$) was used in a CFA to evaluate the adequacy of fit of Model E. In addition, two multi-group CFA were performed to examine the factorial invariance of Model E across athletes and non-athletes and across males and females. Factorial invariance means that items are measuring their underlying constructs the same way across different groups. This is a necessary condition for the instrument to be validly used for comparisons of these different groups. Participants were not included in analyses involving variables for which their data were missing.

RESULTS

The 7-item version of the AIMS indicated in Model E is displayed in Table I. The magnitudes of the fit indices for the validation sample indicate an acceptable fit for Model E (see Table II) and were very close to those obtained for the derivation sample. The validation sample was used to test Model E in two multi-group analyses: one comparing the model for males and females ($n = 1337$ due to 57 participants not reporting gender) and one comparing the model for athletes and non-athletes ($n = 1032$ due to 362 participants whose athletic status was unknown). The model was an acceptable fit for males ($n = 845$) and females ($n = 482$) separately, and when combined in a multi-group model allowing all parameter estimates for the two genders to be free to vary, the fit continued to be acceptable (see Table II). This supports the equivalence of the factor form across samples, meaning that the hypothesized factor structure of three first-order factors and one higher-order factor is acceptable for both samples. Constraining the factor loadings to be equal for males and females also provided an acceptable fit, indicating factor invariance across samples. These additional constraints on the model did not significantly worsen the fit ($\chi^2_{diff} (6) = 8.85, p < .05$), indicating that the items are measuring their respective factors in a similar way for males and females. The mean AIMS score for males ($M = 35.92, SD = 8.59$) was significantly different from the mean AIMS scores for females ($M = 30.15, SD = 10.68, t = 10.23, p < .01$), indicating that males tend to have higher athletic identity than females.

When tested on samples of athletes ($n = 788$) and non-athletes ($n = 244$) separately, Model E provided an acceptable fit for each of these samples (see Table II). When combined in a multi-sample analysis (i.e., athletes and non-athletes) allowing factor loadings to vary for each sample, the model continued to perform well, again indicating that the factor form was consistent across samples. When the factor loadings were constrained to be equal across samples, there was a significant deterioration of fit ($\chi^2_{diff} = 44.12, df = 6, p < .05$), though the fit of the model was still acceptable. Examination of the un-standardized factor loadings for the athlete and non-athlete samples showed that all the loadings were substantially smaller in magnitude for the non-athlete sample when compared to the athlete sample. This reduction in magnitude for the factor loadings for the non-athlete population makes sense, as the instrument is geared toward assessing a characteristic of athletes, and it is reasonable that a non-athlete sample would have reduced relationships between the items and their

corresponding latent constructs. The mean AIMS score for athletes ($M = 38.21$, $SD = 6.54$) was significantly different from the mean AIMS scores for non-athletes ($M = 24.45$, $SD = 9.56$, $t = -21.01$, $p < .01$), supporting the validity of the AIMS by showing that athletes score substantially higher than non-athletes.

The total sample for which complete data was available ($N = 2114$) was used to compute norms for the 7-item version of the AIMS separately by gender and by athlete status. These norms, which are presented in Table III, will enable researchers and practitioners to compare individual AIMS scores to this large, diverse sample of athlete and non-athletes.

DISCUSSION

In combination with the findings of previous psychometric research with the AIMS (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993) and studies in which the AIMS has been used (e.g., Brewer, 1993; Brewer, Selby, Linder, & Petitpas, 1999; Cornelius, 1995; Dollinger, 1996; Good et al., 1993; Gould et al., 1996; Grove et al., 1997; Lavalley, Gordon, & Grove, 1997; Matheson, Brewer, Van Raalte, & Andersen, 1995; Murphy et al., 1996; Wiechman & Williams, 1997), the results of the current study suggest that AIMS is a valid and reliable means of assessing athletic identity. The abbreviated, 7-item version of the AIMS developed in this investigation is internally consistent ($\alpha = .81$) and highly correlated with the original 10-item version of the AIMS. The higher order factor structure of the AIMS was found to be applicable to both men and women, and to both athletes and non-athletes. Nevertheless, further research is needed to determine whether the factor structure of the higher order model is generalizable to populations not sampled in the current study, particularly those in cultures where English is not a primary language.

Of particular relevance to academic athletic professionals, norms on the AIMS were developed for both male and female athletes and non-athletes. The norms enable practitioners to determine the extent to which student-athletes with whom they are working are invested in the athlete role relative to other athletes. Given that high levels of athletic identity are associated with increased risk for experiencing mood disturbance following injury (Brewer, 1993), encountering difficulty adjusting to sport career termination (Grove, Lavalley, & Gordon, 1997), possessing low career maturity (Murphy et al., 1996), and implementing potentially dangerous performance enhancement strategies such as using anabolic steroids (Hale & Waalkes, 1994; Smith & Hale, 1997), it can be useful for providers of support services to student-athletes to know their clients' levels of athletic identity. Such knowledge can facilitate greater understanding of student-athletes' orientations toward academics and athletics, and may assist in the process of matching student-athletes to appropriate personal and career development interventions. The AIMS provides a rapid, reliable, and valid tool for assessing an important aspect of student-athletes' personalities, and can serve as a tool to help identify those student-athletes who may be at elevated risk for experiencing some of the pitfalls of maintaining a strong and exclusive athletic identity (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993; Brewer et al., 2000).

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TABLE I

7-Item Version of the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS)

Please circle the number that best reflects the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your sport participation.

1. I consider myself an athlete.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
2. I have many goals related to sport.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
3. Most of my friends are athletes.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
4. Sport is the most important part of my life.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
5. I spend more time thinking about sport than anything else.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
6. I feel bad about myself when I do poorly in sport.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
7. I would be very depressed if I were injured and could not compete in sport.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

TABLE II

Fit Indices for Model E for Validation Sample and Subsamples

Sample	n	c ²	df	SRMR	CFI	c ² _{diff}
Validation sample	1394	174.12	11	.04	.97	
Males	845	122.41	11	.04	.96	
Females	492	54.17	11	.03	.98	
Athletes	788	71.51	11	.05	.96	
Non-athletes	244	25.22	11	.03	.98	
Multi-group models						
Males and females						
Factor loadings free		176.57	22	.04	.97	
Factor loadings equal		185.43	28	.05	.97	8.85
Athletes and non-athletes						
Factor loadings free		96.74	22	.05	.97	
Factor loadings equal		140.86	28	.06	.95	44.12*

Note. SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; CFI = Comparative Fit Index * $p < .01$

TABLE III

Norms for 7-Item AIMS

Percentile	Group			
	Male athletes	Female athletes	Male non-athletes	Female non-athletes
	(n = 1254)	(n = 331)	(n = 195)	(n = 334)
100	49	49	49	49
95	47	46	41	39
90	46	44	38	36
85	45	43	36	34
80	44	42	34	32
75	43	41	33	29
70	42	41	32	27
65	41	40	31	26
60	41	39	29	24
55	40	39	28	23
50	39	38	27	21
45	38	37	26	20
40	37	36	25	19
35	37	35	24	18
30	36	34	22	16
25	35	33	20	14
20	33	32	18	12
15	31	30	17	11
10	29	27	13	10
5	25	24	11	8

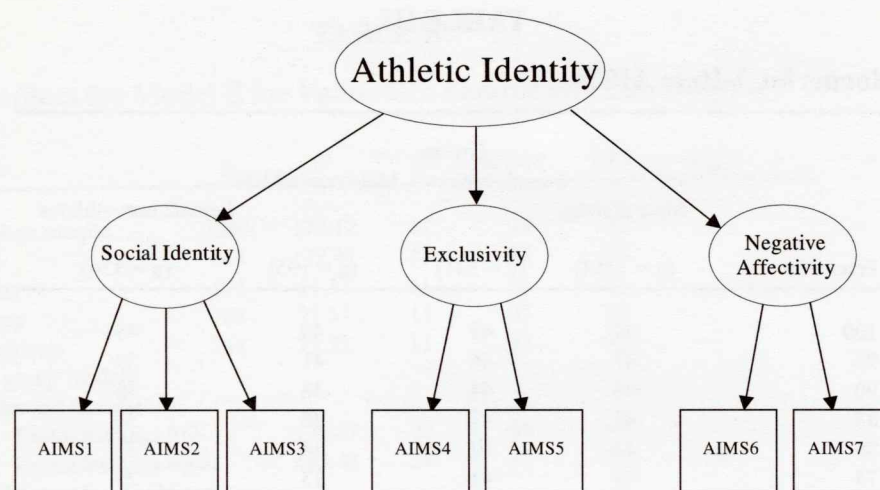


Figure 1. Model E of the AIMS depicting three first order factors subordinate to one higher order athletic identity factor.

AUTHOR NOTE

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Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Britton W. Brewer, Center for Performance Enhancement and Applied Research, Department of Psychology, Springfield College, Springfield, Massachusetts 01109 U.S.A.

Black Coaches' Roles in the Holistic Development of Student-Athletes

John N. Singer, The Ohio State University

Ketra L. Armstrong, The Ohio State University

ABSTRACT

This study examined Black coaches' ($n=123$) roles in the holistic development of student-athletes, and barriers impeding the coaches' contributions. The results revealed differences based on coaches' personal and team demographics. The findings indicated that: (a) coaches generally agreed with their responsibilities regarding assisting student-athletes with personal problems and academics, yet were in less agreement concerning offering spiritual guidance and monitoring student-athletes' friends and social support groups; (b) Black student-athletes' experiences are less favorable than others; and (c) time constraints, institutional barriers, and coaching demands are the most prevalent barriers coaches face (regarding their contributions to student-athlete development). MANOVA were performed to examine differences in the responses based on the coaches' demographics (i.e., whether a head or assistant coach) and team demographics (i.e., the race and gender composition of teams coached).

INTRODUCTION

Chickering (1969) highlighted the role of educators in contributing to the holistic and psychosocial development of students. Cheatham and Berg-Cross (1992) further contended that the educational system has the "ostensible purpose... of student development" (p. 167). Since organized school sports are under the auspices of the educational system, they are not exempt from addressing and reinforcing the overall mission of higher education regarding student development. As such, collegiate and high school sports should also promote the overall development of students [i.e. student-athletes].

Blake and Darling (1994) contended that as the primary socializing agent, "elementary and secondary education has negatively affected the achievements and self-concepts of African-American men by disproportionately tracking them and not providing positive role models" (p. 405). Hare and Hare (1991) concurred with this position. Gaston (1986) criticized organized school sports and popular culture for being destructive to the development of young Black men. Therefore, while there is a need to examine the holistic development of all student-athletes under the system of higher education, there is a particular need to examine the factors that influence the experiences of Black student-athletes who appear to be disproportionately impacted by the perils of school sport participation (Anderson & South, 1993).

ROLES OF COACH IN STUDENT-ATHLETE DEVELOPMENT

A host of factors may influence student-athletes' holistic development, and thus the experiences of Black student-athletes. Among them are factors at the macro level, such as the change in the institution of sport as a model that shifted its focus from the balance of "unified physical, mental, and spiritual excellence" (Zimbalist, 1999, p. 51) to a focus on physical excellence or performance. Factors at the micro level, however, tend to have a more direct impact on student development. Thus, regarding student-athletes, perhaps the most effective way to improve the overall development of student-athletes is to examine the roles and responsibilities of individuals who have direct and immediate influences on their collegiate and interscholastic sport experiences – their coaches. Herein lies the focus of this study.

In an address at a national coaches convention, Farrakhan (1996) commented on the need for coaches to take a more active role in the holistic development of their student-athletes. He articulated the need for the coaches to give proper guidance to Black student-athletes in particular. According to Farrakhan (1996), coaches must perform a myriad of roles for their student-athletes, which include [sometimes] being there: teacher, father, mother, preacher, counselor, doctor, lawyer, defender, nurturer, psychologist, and cultivator, all wrapped up in one. As such, Farrakhan (1996) contended that coaches have a responsibility to offer much needed personal and social support to their student-athletes. Farrakhan (1996) further lamented that it would be vain for coaches to focus solely on the athletic prowess of the young people while ignoring the intellectual, moral, and spiritual development.

Blann (1992) also commented on the coaches' roles in student athlete holistic development. He suggested that the developmental needs of elite athletes such as achievement and success in sports, combined with their developmental experiences (i.e., feelings of power, being special, and exhilaration), result in the need for programs specifically designed to prepare them for career and life transitions after sports. Cosby (1991) also advocated for a holistic approach to developing student-athletes and suggested coaches' should be involved in the academic, social, personal and career development of student-athletes. Cosby further asserted that the rapport a coach establishes with athletes creates an "ideal guidance climate" (p. 104). Williams (1987) highlighted the role of high school coaches in particular, regarding the development of student-athletes, and contended that a reformation process should begin at the high school level. According to Williams (1987), "The high school coach can and must act as a sculptor, molding and shaping the character of the high school athlete to include high esteem for academics" (p. 261).

The primary focus of this paper is on the roles of collegiate and scholastic sport coaches in the overall development of their student-athletes. However, it may also be argued that, with the growth and popularity of youth sports, the process of sport participants' holistic development should begin long before high school or college, and should commence in the early and formative years (i.e., during youth and community sport participation). Nevertheless, when the most appropriate stage for the onset of holistic development should occur (i.e., at the youth, high school, or collegiate level) may be debatable. However, it is a widely held belief that the coach's role in student-athlete/sport participant development is critical.

BARRIERS TO THE COACHES' ROLES IN STUDENT-ATHLETE DEVELOPMENT

Notwithstanding the critical roles coaches may play in the overall development of their sport participants, a host of political, economic and social forces may undoubtedly influence decision-making within educational institutions, and therefore infringe upon collegiate and scholastic coaches' ability to contribute to the holistic development of student-athletes. At times, the life of a coach is filled with contradiction as the coach is often faced with many conflicting roles (as posed by the pressures of the administration, the media, the student-athletes, alumni, faculty, parents, and [in many instances] the coaches' family). According to Steir (1995) barriers such as time constraints, hardships on family life, discrimination (racial and sexual), burnout, routinization, outside pressures, win-at-all-cost attitudes, problems and disagreements with administrators, lack of job security, lack of control, and teacher/coach role conflict are some of the negative aspects of coaching. Role conflict in particular (Vernacchia, McGuire, & Cook, 1996), often creates friction and incompatibility between coaches' personal values, beliefs, and attitudes regarding their behavior and the behavioral expectations of external constituents such as alumni, the media, and administration. Although they may vary in effect, each of the barriers identified has the potential to create adverse situations for high school and college coaches regarding their contribution to the holistic development of student-athletes.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

While the rhetoric continues about the role coaches should play in the overall development of their student-athletes, few studies (if any) have actually examined the coaches' perceptions of such roles. The focus of this study was on Black coaches. The specific objectives of this study were to: (a) ascertain Black coaches' perceptions of their roles in student-athlete development, along with the barriers they perceived as interfering with their ability to fulfill such roles/responsibilities, (b) assess Black coaches' evaluations of the overall sport experiences of student-athletes in general, and Black student-athletes in particular, and (c) capture Black coaches' suggestions for improving the experiences and holistic development of student-athletes in general and Black student-athletes in particular.

METHODS

Sample Participants

Personal Profile of Participants.

The sample ($n = 123$) was comprised of 71% male and 29% female coaches from various parts of the United States. Over half (56%) of the sample participants were married and over one third (36%) were single, with the remaining 8% in committed relationships. The sample was young-middle aged (see Table 1 for the age ranges). The highest level of educational attainment for 61% of the sample was the receipt of a Bachelor's degree, 39% received a master's degree, and only 1% received a GED or high school diploma. The academic majors of the sample participants were varied; however, the majority of the sample majored in Physical Education and the least amount majored in Counseling. See Table 2 for the participants' major areas of study in college.

TABLE I

Age Ranges of Coaches in Sample

Age Ranges	Percentage of Sample
25 and under	4%
26 – 34	46%
35 – 44	37%
45 – 54	12%
55 and older	4%

TABLE II

Major Area of Coaches' Academic Study

Academic Major	Percentage of Sample
Miscellaneous Disciplines	37%
Physical Education	31%
Business/Marketing	20%
Sociology	7%
Counseling	6%

PARTICIPANTS' COACHING PROFILE

The majority (62%) of the participants in the sample were assistant coaches, approximately one-third (32%) were head coaches, and only 6% had dual head and assistant coaches roles. The majority (63%) of the participants was employed at the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I level, and the least amount (3%) worked at the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) and Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) levels. See Table 3 for a presentation of the types of institutions and sport settings in which the participants coached.

TABLE III

Type of Educational Institution in which Coaching Occurred

Coaching Setting	Percentage of Sample
NCAA Division I University	63%
Historically Black College/University	13%
Community College	10%
High School/Jr. High School	8%
NCAA Division II University	6%
NCAA Division III University	6%
National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA)	3%
Amateur Athletic Union (AAU)	3%

Regarding the longevity of the participants' coaching career: (a) the average number of years the participants had been coaching in their present position was 4.5 ($M = 4.7$ for men and $M = 4.1$ for women), and (b) the average number of total years the participants had been in the coaching profession was 12.2 ($M = 13.2$ for male coaches and $M = 8.8$ for female coaches). Regarding the gender composition of the teams coached, the majority (64%) of the participants coached male sport teams, 33% coached female sport teams, and 2% coached both men's and women's sport teams. Regarding the racial/ethnic composition of the athletes comprising the teams coached by the sample participants: (a) half (51%) were responsible for coaching teams comprised of a majority of Black athletes, (b) less than one-third (28%) were responsible for coaching teams with majority White athletes, and (c) 20% coached mixed raced sport teams, and only 2% worked with sport teams in which the majority of the athletes were Hispanic, Asian, or Native American. The sports the participants coached were varied; however, the majority (63%) of them had responsibilities for coaching the sport of basketball. See Table IV for a depiction of the sports coached by the sample participants.

TABLE IV

Sports Coached

Primary Sport Coached	Percentage of Sample
Basketball	63%
Football	30%
Volleyball	4%
Track and Field	1%
Other Miscellaneous Sports	2%

INSTRUMENT AND MEASURES

To examine the coaches' perceptions of their roles in student-athlete development, some of the social support items contained in Chelladurai and Saleh's (1980) Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) was utilized (yet modified for the purpose of this investigation - see Appendix A). In addition to measuring the coaches' perceptions of their roles in the holistic development of student-athletes, the questionnaire used in this study also ascertained the coaches': (a) evaluations of coaches' general contribution to student-athlete development, (b) evaluations of the experiences of student-athletes, (c) perceptions of barriers that may impede their ability to contribute to student-athlete development (see Appendix A), (d) suggestions to improve the holistic development of student-athletes, and (e) demographic information such as personal and coaching profiles, as well as the racial and gender compositions of the teams they coached. To establish content validity, the instrument was given to three Black college coaches (1 football, 1 basketball, 1 track & field) to review. Based on their feedback, one item was eliminated from the questionnaire.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

The data were obtained by surveying Black coaches in attendance at a national Black coaches convention. This convention provided a selection frame appropriate for the objectives of this study because it allowed for exposure to a large and representative sample of Black coaches. One of the researchers was allowed to address the coaches at some of the convention meetings, during which time, questionnaires were distributed. Additionally, questionnaires were placed at the convention registration area. The researchers requested that all questionnaires be returned by the beginning of the third day of the convention, at which time the data collection process was terminated. The estimated attendance at the conference was 342.

The questionnaire distribution procedure previously described enabled the researchers to gather 132 questionnaires. One questionnaire was unusable for the purpose of the analyses because the individual who completed it was not currently in the coaching profession, and seven questionnaires were excluded because the participants were not Black/African-American (as deemed so by their self-reported race/ethnic identification). The sampling procedure yielded a usable sample size of 123, which represented 36% of the conference attendee population, and contained an estimated margin of sampling error of approximately 5%.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The researchers coded the questionnaires and utilized the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to analyze the data. To examine the manner in which the coaches' responses were influenced by: (a) their demographics such as gender (male or female) and coaching position held (head coach or assistant coach), and (b) their teams' racial demographics (majority Black team or majority White team) and gender demographics (female team or male team), two 2 x 2 between group multivariate analysis of variances (MANOVAs) were performed (one to examine the influence of personal demographics and one to examine the influence of team demographics). Thus, the analyses examined the interactions and main effects on the coaches' responses based on their personal and team characteristics.

RESULTS**Coaches' Perceptions of their Roles in Student-Athlete Development**

Coaches were asked to respond to the manner in which they agreed with statements that reflected responsibility in a variety of areas (i.e., academic, personal, social, and spiritual) regarding the overall development of student-athletes using a scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). The results revealed that the coaches generally agreed that they had some responsibility in each of the areas identified. They were in stronger agreement with their responsibilities regarding assisting the athletes with personal problems and taking an active role in study tables and the athletes' academic progress, than they were regarding their responsibilities to offer student-athletes spiritual guidance and monitor the athletes' friends and social support groups. See Table 5 for a presentation of the mean rankings of the coaches' level of agreement with the roles identified.

TABLE V

**Coaches' Agreement with Roles in Student-Athlete Development
(1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)**

Factor	Mean Rating (SD)
1. Help athletes with their personal problems.	4.68 (.470)
2. Take active role in study table/academic progress.	4.50 (.625)
3. Encourage the athletes to confide in the coach.	4.44 (.649)
4. Have regular meetings with athletes to discuss life (non-sport related) issues.	4.32 (.806)
5. Actively seek cultural support for athletes.	4.24 (.750)
6. Help athletes within a group settle their conflicts.	4.22 (.778)
7. Establish constant communication w/athletes' parents.	4.09 (.881)

A subsequent analysis using the 2 x 2 MANOVA design was performed to examine whether significant differences existed (i.e., among the head and assistant coaches, male and female coaches) due to 2-way Coaching Position x Gender interactions. No Coaching Position x Gender interactions were revealed for any of the items listed regarding the coaches' perceptions of their roles in overall student-athlete development. No main effect for coaching position was found; however a main effect for coaches' gender was found on three items: male coaches had stronger levels of agreement than did the female coaches on: (a) encouraging athletes to confide in the coach, $F(1, 108) = 3.93, p = .05$; $M = 4.52$ and $M = 4.26$, respectively; (b) establishing constant communication with athletes' parents, $F(1, 108) = 5.37, p = .02$; $M = 4.20$ and $M = 3.77$, respectively; and (c) monitoring the friends/social support groups of athletes, $F(1, 108) = 14.17, p < .001$; $M = 3.77$ and $M = 3.03$, respectively.

A 2 x 2 MANOVA analysis was also performed to examine whether coaches' perceptions of their roles in the overall development of student-athletes differed based on the racial and gender composition of the teams they coached. No 2-way Team Race x Team Gender composition interaction was revealed for any of the items. Main effects for team's race and team gender were found only on one of the items: monitoring friends/social support groups of student-athletes. (Corresponding to one of the gender differences revealed previously) the participants who coached male teams were more likely to agree ($M = 3.93$) with the need for coaches to monitor the friends of student-athletes than were coaches who were responsible for female teams ($M = 3.25$), $F(1, 91) = 5.02, p = .01$. Regarding the racial composition of the teams, participants who coached teams comprised of predominately Black student-athletes were in higher agreement ($M = 3.85$) that coaches had a responsibility to monitor the friends of their student-athletes than were participants who coached predominately White student-athletes ($M = 3.30$), $F(1, 91) = 5.82, p = .02$.

Coaches' Perceptions of Student-Athletes' Experiences

Coaches were asked to evaluate the experiences of student athletes in general and Black student-athletes in particular, using the scale: "excellent" (1), "good" (2), "fair" (3), and "poor" (4). The results were as follows.

Experiences of Student-Athletes in General. The coaches rated the experiences of student-athletes in general as "good". No 2-way Gender x Coaching Position interaction was revealed for the coaches' evaluation of the student-athlete, $F(1, 100) = .285, p = .59$. Also, no main effect for coaching position was found, $F(1, 103) = .251, p = .62$ ($M = 2.00$ for head coaches and $M = 2.04$ for assistant coaches), nor was there a main effect for coaches' gender $F(1, 103) = .265, p = .61$ ($M = 2.04$ for male coaches, and $M = 2.00$ for female coaches).

Regarding the influence of team demographics on the coaches' evaluations of student-athletes' experiences in general, no 2-way Team Gender x Team Race composition interaction was revealed, $F(1, 100) = .453, p = .50$. No main effect was found due to gender composition of team, $F(1, 86) = .094, p = .76$ (M for male teams = 2.02, M for female teams = 2.03); however a main effect for racial composition of the team was found, $F(1, 86) = 4.47, p = .04$: participants who were responsible for coaching teams with predominately Black student-athletes rated the student-athlete experience in general less favorably ($M = 1.91$) than did participants who were responsible for predominately White teams ($M = 2.23$).

Experiences of Black Student-Athletes. The coaches rated the experiences of Black student-athletes in particular as "good-fair". No 2-way Gender x Coaching Position interaction was revealed, $F(1, 100) = 1.31, p = .26$. No main effect for coaching position was found for the ratings of the head and assistant coaches, $F(1, 100) = 1.85, p = .18$ ($M = 2.38, M = 2.53$, respectively); nor was there a main effect for gender on the ratings of the male and female coaches ($M = 2.49$ and $M = 2.57$, respectively), $F(1, 100) = .173, p = .68$.

Regarding the influence of the team composition on the coaches' evaluations of the experiences of Black student-athletes, no 2-way Team Gender x Team Race composition interaction was found, $F(1, 86) = 1.43, p = .24$. No main effect for racial composition of team was found, $F(1, 86) = 2.45, p = .12$ (M for majority Black team = 2.39, M for majority White team = 2.70); nor was there a main effect for gender composition of the team coached) $F(1, 86) = 1.94, p = .66$ (M for male teams = 2.49, M for female teams = 2.50).

A one-sample t-test to examine whether the participants' evaluation of the experiences of the Black student-athletes differed from those of student-athletes in general, revealed statistically significant differences, $t(df=118) = 36.31, p < .001$. The results indicated that the coaches rated the experiences of the student-athletes in general more favorable ($M = 2.03$) than they did the experiences of Black student-athletes in particular ($M = 2.52$). See Table 6 for the frequency ratings of the student-athletes' experiences.

TABLE VI

Coaches' Perception of the Overall Sport Experiences of Student-Athletes

	Student -Athletes	Black Student-Athletes
	(In General)	
Excellent	16%	6%
Good	67%	48%
Fair	15%	37%
Poor	2%	10%

Perceptions of Coaches' Contributions to S-A Psychosocial Development

Coaches were asked to evaluate their personal contributions and the contributions of other coaches in general to student-athletes psychosocial development using the scale: "excellent" (1), "good" (2), "fair" (3), and "poor" (4). The results were as follows.

Personal Contributions. The coaches rated their personal contributions to the overall psychosocial development of student-athletes as "good". No 2-way Gender x Coaching Position interaction was revealed, $F(1, 100) = 1.80, p = .41$. No main effect was found for coaching position and among head and assistant coaches, $F(1, 100) = .274, p = .60$ ($M = 1.74$ and $M = 1.79$, respectively); nor was there a main effect for the coaches' gender, $F(1, 100) = .078, p = .78$ ($M = 1.74$ for males, $M = 1.77$ for females).

Regarding the influence of team composition on the coaches' evaluations, no 2-way Team Race x Team Gender composition interaction was found, $F(1, 86) = .915, p = .34$. No main effect for racial composition of the team was found, $F(1, 86) = 2.45, p = .13$ (M for predominately Black team = 1.68; M for predominately White team = 1.93); nor was a main effect for gender composition found, $F(1, 86) = .673, p = .41$ (M for male teams = 1.71; M for female teams = 1.88).

Contributions of Coaches in General. The coaches rated the contributions of coaches in general to the psychosocial development of student-athletes as "good". No 2-way Gender x Coaching Position interaction was revealed, $F(1, 100) = 1.80, p = .41$. No main effect was found for coaches' positions, $F(1, 100) = 3.39, p = .07$ (ratings of head and assistant coaches was $M = 2.06$ and $M = 2.37$, respectively); nor was there a main effect for the coaches' gender, $F(1, 100) = .303, p = .58$ (ratings of male and female coaches were $M = 2.25$ and $M = 2.30$, respectively).

Regarding the influence of team composition on the coaches' evaluations, no 2-way Team Race x Team Gender composition interaction was found, $F(1, 86) = .415, p = .52$. No main effect was found for racial composition of the team, $F(1, 86) = 1.89, p = .17$ (M for predominately Black team = 2.18; M for predominately White team = 2.37); nor was a main effect found for gender composition of the team, $F(1, 86) = .220, p = .64$ (M for females = 2.28; M for males = 2.22).

To examine whether there were significant differences between the coaches' personal evaluations regarding their contributions to the psychosocial development of student-athletes and the contributions of coaches in general, a one-sample t-test was performed. The results revealed significant differences, $t(df = 121) = 35.38, p < .001$, and indicated that the coaches' evaluated themselves more favorably ($M = 1.74$) than they did other coaches in general ($M = 2.25$). See Table 7 for the percentages of the sample and their corresponding ratings regarding coaches' contributions to the psychosocial development of student-athletes.

TABLE VII

Coaches' Evaluations of Contribution to the Psychosocial Development of Student-Athletes

	Coaches' Personal Contribution	Contribution of Coaches (In General)
Excellent	32%	9%
Good	63%	60%
Fair	5%	29%
Poor	0	2%

Barriers to Coaches' Roles and Contributions

A number of barriers were posited to infringe upon coaches' ability to assist in the overall development of student-athletes (i.e. time constraints, family obligations, institutional factors, etc.). The results revealed that the top three barriers as perceived by the coaches were: (a) time constraints, (b) institutional barriers (as imposed by their universities, conferences, or the NCAA), and (c) the demands of coaching. See Table VIII for a listing of order in which the coaches ranked each barrier presented, with the corresponding percentages.

TABLE VIII

Rank Order of Barriers Perceived by Coaches

Barriers Identified	Percentage of Sample
1. Time Constraints	45%
2. Institutional Barriers	38%
3. Coaching Demands	33%
4. Lack of Resources	22%
5. Lack of Responsibility or Interest from Athletes	16%
6. Family or Personal Obligations	11%
7. Lack of Support from Athletes' Parents	8%

To examine whether coaches experienced different barriers based on their coaching role and their gender, a subsequent 2 x 2 MANOVA was performed. No 2-way Gender x Coaching Position interaction was found to influence any of the barriers identified. A main effect for coaching position was found for three items: (a) family or personal obligations, was more of a barrier for head coaches ($M=1.85$) than it was for assistant coaches ($M = 1.92$), $F(1, 109) = 3.69$, $p = .03$; (b) head coaches were more likely to perceive the lack of support from athletes' parents as a barrier, ($M = 1.91$) in comparison to assistant coaches ($M = 1.94$), $F(1, 109) = 8.32$, $p < .001$; and at the marginally statistically significant level ($p = .058$) (c) head coaches were more likely to report lack of resources as a barrier ($M = 1.71$) more so than assistant coaches ($M = 1.85$), $F(1, 109) = 2.93$. A main effect was also found for coaches' gender on one item: the male coaches perceived the lack of responsibility or interest from student-athletes as a barrier to their overall development ($M = 1.87$) more than did female coaches ($M = 1.74$), $F(1, 109) = 3.95$, $p = .05$.

Regarding the influence of the team composition on the barriers perceived by the coaches, no 2-way Team Race x Team Gender composition interaction was found for any of the barriers identified, nor was a main effect found for the gender composition of the teams. A main effect was found, however, for racial composition of the teams, $F(1, 86) = 7.65$, $p = .02$, as participants who were coaching majority Black teams were more likely to report institutional barriers ($M = 1.70$) than were coaches of majority White teams ($M = 1.43$).

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT

The coaches offered a variety of suggestions that would improve the overall development of student-athletes and contribute to them having more rewarding sport experiences. The suggestions offered by the coaches focused on: (a) the encouragement of more interaction between student-athletes and coaches, (b) greater attention to life skills issues, (c) collaborations with community and campus entities, and (d) better student-athlete support programs. The coaches also suggested that Black coaching organizations could play a major role in assisting them to improve the psychosocial development of their student-athletes by: (a) increasing their membership of Black coaches, (b) offering student-athlete support services and encouraging student-athlete involvement, (c) offering convention sessions and workshops to assist coaches with the overall development of student-athletes, (d) developing role models and mentoring programs for Black student-athletes, and (e) increasing their overall presence and visibility as a voice for Black coaches, Black administrators, and Black student-athletes.

DISCUSSION

Sample Characteristics

This sample was comprised a young to middle-aged educated constituency with professional training in physical education and business, who were increasing their longevity in the coaching profession. The majority of the coaches coached at the college level and had responsibilities for basketball teams comprised of majority Black student-athletes. Because of the reported salience of basketball to Black youth and the Black community (Harrison, Lee, & Belcher, 1999; Sachs & Abraham, 1979) these coaches are, therefore, in a high visibility position to evoke change and promote the overall development among Black student-athletes. The majority of the coaches were also assistant coaches. Assistant coaches usually serve as liaisons between athletes and head coaches, and therefore athlete development may be inherent in the job responsibilities of their respective positions. As such, the propensity with which this sample of coaches was cognizant of their roles in the overall development of student-athletes was overwhelmingly favorable. In addition, the respective coaching organization from which the data were obtained should maximize the resources and expertise of their member coaches regarding the psychosocial development of student-athletes by mobilizing and seeking input from the 13% of the coaches who had received formal training in the areas of Sociology and Counseling (which are disciplines that address factors that could enhance student-athlete development).

COACHES' ROLES AND STUDENT-ATHLETES' EXPERIENCES

Coaches believed that student-athletes in general are having "good" sport experiences, however, they believed that Black-student-athletes' experiences are less favorable than the experiences of most athletes in general. The factors contributing to these evaluations were not ascertained, thus, the researchers are unsure "why" these assessments prevailed. These findings suggest a need for subsequent examinations/future study on this topic. Further, more participants who coached predominately Black student-athletes reported institutional barriers (i.e., NCAA regulations, conference regulations, etc.), regarding their ability to contribute to student-athletes holistic development than did participants who did not coach predominately Black athletes. In addition, the coaches perceived themselves to be making contributions that were more viable to student-athlete development in comparison to the contributions of coaches in general. Since coaches generally perceived themselves as doing a "good" job of contributing to the overall development of their student-athletes, perhaps barriers posited to interfere with their roles were not substantial enough to be perceived as such. Nevertheless, the three major barriers that infringed upon the coaches' progress in assisting with the overall development of their student-athletes (i.e., time constraints, institutional barriers, and the demands of coaching) were comparable to the ones listed by Steir (1995) and Vernacchia et al. (1996). Based on the barriers identified, there is a need for the respective institutions and sport settings to examine "systematic" ways of facilitating coaches' contributions to the holistic development of student-athletes.

Responsibilities coaches were generally in strongest agreement with were: assisting athletes with their personal problems, taking an active role in study table and athlete's academic progress, and encouraging athletes to confide in them. Responsibilities coaches expressed moderate agreement with included: having regular meeting with athletes to discuss life (i.e., non-sport related) issues, helping athletes settle their conflicts, actively seeking cultural support for athletes, and encouraging close and informal relations with athletes. Responsibilities coaches expressed the least amount of agreement with included: offering some sort of spiritual guidance for athletes and monitoring the friends/social support groups of athletes.

The findings regarding the coaches' roles were generally more similar than dissimilar considering the coaches' gender, their coaching positions (i.e., head or assistant coaches), and the racial and gender compositions of the teams they coached. However, based on the main effects found, some differences were revealed in the coaches' level of agreement with their roles based on the coaches' personal demographics as well as the demographics of the teams they coached. For instance, male coaches had stronger levels of agreement than females regarding the encouragement of athletes to confide in the coach, the establishment of constant communication with athletes' parents, and the monitoring of the friends/social support groups of athletes. In addition, participants who coached male teams (in comparison to female teams) and majority Black teams (in comparison to majority White teams) were in stronger agreement with the need to monitor student-athletes' friends and social support groups. These findings illustrated that coaches may approach their responsibilities in student-athlete development differently based on the variability of their personal demographics and team characteristics.

THE NEED FOR CULTURALLY RELEVANT STUDENT-ATHLETE DEVELOPMENT

The results of this study revealed that Black coaches perceived the overall experiences of Black student-athletes to be less satisfying than those of all student-athletes (male, female, Black, White, etc.) in general. In addition, participants who coached teams comprised of predominately Black athletes were more likely to report experiencing institutional barriers that interfered with their ability to contribute to the student-athletes' holistic development. The process of improving the overall experiences of Black student-athletes will require coaches (and athletic administrators) to be mindful that Black student-athletes are (first and foremost) Black individuals, who (consequently) are not exempt from the social constructions and manifestations of race (and gender for Black female student-athletes) that may influence their educational, developmental, and athletic experiences. Thus, addressing the holistic development of Black student-athletes begins with recognizing the manner in which their cultured (racial/ethnic) identity influences their development process.

Cheatham and Berg-Cross (1992) have argued that African-American (used interchangeably with Black) student development differs from student development in general. While African-American students experience developmental challenges that are experienced similarly by the general student populace, African-American students must also respond to the emerging concerns related to their racial and cultural identities, which ultimately influence their overall development (Cheatham & Berg-Cross, 1992). Boykin (1983) contended that there are specific values that most discern African-American culture. McEwen, Roper, Bryant, and Langa (1990) further contended that there are nine dimensions that are related to developmental tasks of African-American students that have not been adequately addressed: (a) developing ethnic and racial identity, (b) interacting with the dominant culture, (c) developing cultural aesthetics and awareness, (d) developing identity, (e) developing interdependence, (f) fulfilling affiliation needs, (g) surviving intellectually, (h) developing spiritually, and (i) developing social responsibility (p. 430). The Black student-athletes' referenced in this study may have also been (directly and/or indirectly) influenced by the culturally related developmental issues identified by McEwen, et al (1990); however, the rankings of this sample of coaches' agreement with varied responsibilities on a scale ranging from one (highest) to 10 (lowest) placed "cultural support" at #5 and "spiritual guidance" at #9.

McEwen et al. (1990) further contended that, "Those responsible for teaching and helping Black students must create models of human and student development that take into account the unique needs and experiences that Black students bring to college campuses" (p. 430). Most of the coaches in this study were employed at Predominately White institutions (PWI). PWI's were founded to educate the White middle class and were based on Anglo-Saxon and Euro-American values (McEwen et al., 1990; Kovel, 1970), and perpetuates a culture that is likely to exert a profound influence on the overall development of Black students. According to Cheatham and Berg-Cross (1992), "collegiate environments that do not acknowledge and incorporate the cultural values of African-American and other ethnic minority students retard rather than promote these students' psychosocial development" (p. 179). Therefore, notwithstanding the challenges of doing so, (as suggested by Cosby, 1992, Farakhan, 1996, and others) there is a particular need for coaches to examine ways to contribute

to the broader cultural, spiritual, and psychological dimensions of the holistic development of Black student-athletes that ultimately influence: (a) their overall experiences as student-athletes and (b) their readiness for life after sports.

CONCLUSION

Organized school sports are under the auspices of the educational system. As such, coaches and athletic administrators (as employees of the educational system) have a responsibility to make positive contributions to the overall development of their student-athletes. In addition, sports that are youth or community oriented (such as AAU teams) also have a responsibility regarding participant/student development. In light of the dynamic challenges confronting student-athletes in general and Black student-athletes in particular (Brooks & Althouse, 2000), coaches might need to revisit the manner in which they prioritize the dimensions of overall student-athlete development. Rather than focusing solely on the immediate and acute personal and academic problems that student-athletes must contend with, there is also a need for coaches to increase their understanding of the impact of the social, cultural, and spiritual dimensions of student-athletes' well being.

The results of this study may not be generalizable to coaches not included in this sample. Further, using a coaching convention as a selection frame may have represented a selection bias. In addition, the predominate sample of college coaches (with only 8% high school coaches and 3% AAU coaches) prevented any reliable examinations of the differences that may exist in the perceived roles and factors influencing them based on the setting in which coaching takes place (such as high schools or AAU programs). Moreover, consequent to having a majority sample of male college coaches, the suggestions offered were more relevant to the college campus environment (than to other sport settings) and perhaps more relevant to men's rather than women's sports. However, it is likely that the influence of some of the factors identified as roles and barriers may differ with a more heterogeneous sample of coaches. As such, future examinations should seek to obtain samples comprised of representative numbers of: (a) coaches from various academic levels and sport settings and (b) female coaches.

Future research should also: (a) ascertain roles and responsibilities as identified by coaches (rather than researchers) regarding student-athlete development, (b) identify the factors that adversely influence the experiences of Black student-athletes such that their experiences are less favorable than those of students-athletes in general, and (c) seek to itemize specific institutional barriers that inhibit coaches' contributions to student-athlete development. Additionally, there is a need to (not only examine the manner in which the performance based-business orientation of the institution of sport may reinforce practices that negatively influence student-athlete development), but to also examine the manner in which the business discourages or inhibits responding to student-athletes' unique social, cultural, or psychological needs. Lastly, and perhaps most importantly, there is a need to examine student-athletes' perspectives (as suggested by the American Institutes for Research, 1989) regarding their overall development. Nevertheless, (notwithstanding the limitations of this study and the need for future study) the findings of this study offered valuable insight into coaches' perspectives on factors that influence their role in student-athletes' overall (i.e., holistic) development.

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APPENDIX

A. Items Relating to Coaches Responsibilities in Holistic Development of Student-Athletes

I believe that coaches have the responsibility to:

- a) Help athletes with their personal problems.
- b) Help athletes within a group settle their conflicts.
- c) Encourage the athletes to confide in the coach
- d) Encourage close and informal relations with athletes.
- e) Establish a constant communication with the parents of the athletes.
- f) Monitor the friends/social support groups of athletes.
- g) Take an active role in study table/academic progress of athletes.
- h) Offer some sort of spiritual guidance for athletes.
- i) Have regular meetings with athletes to discuss "life" (e.g. non-sport related issues).
- j) Actively seek cultural support for athletes.

B. Barriers Perceived to Influence Coaches' Role in Psychosocial Development of Student-Athletes

- a) Time constraints
- b) Family/Personal obligations
- c) The demands of coaching
- d) Lack of resources (financial, social, cultural, psychological, etc.)
- e) Lack of support from athletes' parents
- f) Lack of responsibility, interest, and/or cooperation from athletes.
- g) Institutional barriers (Universities, NCAA, Conferences, etc.)

BOOK REVIEW

Gaining the Competitive Edge: Enriching the Collegiate Experience of the New Student-Athlete

By Stephen Robinson (Eds.) Published 1999 by The National Resource Center for the First-Year Experience & Student in Transition. The University of South Carolina.

Reviewed by Matthew L. Kelly, The Florida State University

This book contains eleven concise chapters regarding the experiences of first-time and continuing student-athletes in a collegiate setting. The chapter authors – some of the most well respected people within the profession of intercollegiate athletics – have a background in the subject areas examined in their particular chapters. The editor of this book, Stephen Robinson, is the Associate Vice Chancellor for Enrollment Services at the University of Nebraska at Kearney. Robinson's introduction details the importance of the relationship between student-athletes and the other areas of the university outside of athletics. He sets up the reader for the many ideas that will follow.

Chapter one, which sets the tone for the entire book, is an insightful interview of Mike McGee, the Athletics Director at the University of South Carolina. McGee, who has had a lengthy and successful career, is candid in his remarks. The main revelation of this first chapter, however, is that it shows how the book can be useful for those in athletics as well as other members of the campus community.

The remaining chapters have a logical and systematic connection as they build upon each other. Following McGee's interview are chapters that cover areas on providing effective support services, successful collaboration between advisors and coaches, problems and innovations in counseling student-athletes, and a brief history of student-athlete counseling as a profession. This set of chapters is wrapped up nicely in chapter five by author Daniel Boggan, Jr., Senior Vice-President for Internal Operations at the NCAA. Boggan, through his use of citations of many of the NCAA bylaws that pertain to the welfare of the student-athlete, gives strength to the ideas and suggestions from the previous chapters.

The middle chapters of the book focus on the potential for student-athlete development through the use of the NCAA CHAMPS / life skills programs. Meg Murray successfully shows and relates the results of the "Help Seeking Survey Research Project" in chapter 6. The following chapters discuss the evolution of the CHAMPS / life skills program and the historical effects of Proposition 48 and 16 on preparation for college by the student-athlete. Jerry Kingston uses this information to show how these initiatives have affected graduation rates over the last decade and how they are helpful when planning for the future. Unfortunately, the chapter on the history of the CHAMPS / life skills program lacks original ideas. Although this chapter is well written, six of its seven pages are a mere adaptation of the NCAA book on CHAMPS / life skills program administration.

The book concludes with a series of connected specialty chapters that each covers a unique subject area of concern when dealing with student-athletes. Karl Mooney writes on the challenges of dealing with the junior college transfer as they enter their second "first-year experience." Involved in this is a discussion on how to deal with a new student-athlete on campus with some college experience. Carol Gruber deals with the first-year female student-athlete and the unique challenges that she may face. Finally, Richard Lapchick writes on the current state of race and college sports.

Overall, each author provides a well-written, unique, and valuable perspective concerning his or her particular subject area. Although this book is quite short at 126 pages, it does contain a lot of useful material and ideas throughout its overview of college athletics and student-athlete services. There is certainly room for additional material on each topic as eight of the eleven chapters could be expanded into stand-alone books. The information offered, however, is a great starting point and helpful generator of ideas. Any individual in the profession could take these thoughts as a jumping off point into other more detailed writings. Lastly, athletic departments that find they are lacking in any one content area could certainly learn and brainstorm after reading this book.