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FOREWORD

The National Advisor is the journal of the National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletics (NAAAA). This is the 12th edition of the publication, intended as a vehicle for NAAAA members to share their professional opinions. The publication also serves as a resource for any academic advisor attempting to keep abreast of issues relating to the student-athlete.

Produced in the Spring and Fall of each year, a membership directory and constitution is included in the Spring issue. The Fall issue is intended exclusively for articles of professional interest only.

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A Metacognitive-Attributional Approach to Tutoring Student-Athletes: Putting Theory Into Practice At UNLV

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Abstract

The following article offers a psycho-educational approach to tutoring high risk collegiate student-athletes. A four component approach is detailed. The four components are: 1) a metacognitive reading process, 2) a relationship of this process to athletics, 3) an attributional component to assist in motivation, and 4) a cognitive problem solving component that can be used on a personal computer. When appropriate, the various components are supported by relevant research. A discussion section summarizes the application of each component and suggests areas where further research is needed.



Problems associated with intercollegiate athletics have been numerous and well documented (Axthelm, 1980; Sanoff, 1980; Underwood, 1980). In

particular, recent research has demonstrated that a distinct proportion of student-athletes competing in major, revenue generating, intercollegiate athletics are ill-prepared to face the rigors of higher education (Mayo, 1982; Purdy, Eitzen, and Hufnagel, 1982). Male student-athletes, particularly in revenue generating sports (e.g. football and basketball) have shown to have significantly lower high school grade point averages (GPA's), significantly lower college GPA's, significantly lower college board examination scores, and significantly lower college graduation rates than the general student population (Purdy, Eitzen, and Hufnagel, 1982). These tendencies may reflect underlying psycho-educational deficits which, in turn, could drastically hinder academic progress. If the psycho-educational deficit theory is accepted, then "high risk" student-athletes may need more than academic counseling to benefit from their college experience.

At the University of Nevada, Las Vegas (UNLV), during the Summer Semester of 1985, an ambitious project was conducted based on a psycho-educational approach. In addition to the academic counseling and guidance afforded student-athletes in the men's basketball program, daily tutoring was provided that reflected major theoretical foundations of education. The tutoring was comprised of a four part approach. First, metacognitive techniques were taught to the student-athletes as they read their course textbooks. Secondly, these techniques were related to athletic concepts. Thirdly, an attributional component was used to motivate the student-athletes to use the techniques in their coursework. Finally, a cognitive, problem solving approach was taught on Apple II computers to enhance the student-athletes' visualization and solution to graphical problems. This article contains a description of each of the four components, followed by a discussion of their application.

The Metacognitive Approach

The metacognitive component advanced in this article focuses on reading comprehension. Reading comprehension was selected because it is a major variable through which success in college curricula can be affected (other variables might include: listening comprehension, note taking, time management, and assessment of task difficulty).

The metacognitive reading process has been termed "reciprocal teaching" (Brown and Palincsar, 1982) and has been shown to be effective in enhancing the reading comprehension of adolescents with reading problems (Elrod, 1984).

Metacognition has been defined as "one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and products" (Flavell, 1976). As an example,

Flavell offers the following scenario: "...I am engaging in metacognition...if I notice that I am having more trouble learning A than B; if it strikes me that I should doublecheck C before accepting it as fact;...if I sense that I had better make a note of D because I may forget it..."

Therefore, the reading process that follows has a two-fold purpose. First, it provides the student-athlete with a systematic approach to reading content area textbooks. Secondly, and no less importantly, the process gives the student-athlete a means with which to engage in a planning, checking, and monitoring strategy to foster better comprehension. The following steps are an adaptation of the reciprocal, teaching strategy proposed by Brown and Palincsar (1982). Following the nine step process is a section that relates the process, specifically, to student-athletes.

Pre-Reading Activities

STEP 1: *Establishing a Purpose for Reading.*

A key element to being successful in content area classes is the ability to extract important, thematic information from course textbooks. Yet, all students do not utilize this ability. Canney and Winograd (1979) demonstrated that poorer comprehenders viewed reading as solely a decoding, word identification task; while more successful students viewed reading as a process to glean relevant information from a text. It is critical, therefore, that students be directed toward thinking of reading in terms of an information processing medium.

The student-athlete should address the question: "Why do we read?" More relevant questions that may assist in eliciting a response from the student-athletes are: "Why did the author(s) write this text?" or "If you were to write a letter to a friend, why would you write it?" The theme of the responses to these questions focuses on "information." That is, no matter what we read, a letter, a newspaper, or a textbook, there is information contained therein that must be extracted if we are to understand what is written. A first step in tutoring the high-risk student-athlete therefore, is to establish a foundation for the purpose of reading: processing important thematic information.

STEP 2: *Skimming for Contextual Cues.*

Skimming for relevant textual cues has been shown to be a technique that is spontaneously employed by more successful, mature readers (Kobasigawa, Ransom, and Holland, 1980). If we accept the notion that reading is an information processing activity, then it seems logical that to get a "preview" of the content that is contained within a reading assignment could enhance our opportunity to detect important, thematic information.

The student-athlete, therefore, should be instructed to skim the reading assignment for relevant cues, prior to actually reading the assignment. The following list of cues may not be applicable for all texts, depending on the text format:

- a) chapter title.
- b) major heading.
- c) subheadings.
- d) minor headings.
- e) topic sentences.
- f) words printed in italics or bold face type.
- g) graphics, such as: illustrations, photos, maps or charts.

If the text format is structured with major headings, subheadings, etc., the student-athlete can be taught to use these cues as a basis for outlining the reading assignment. Otherwise, the cues can be brainstormed and listed on a chalkboard or a sheet of paper. It is important, at least in the initial stages of training, that the contextual cues be transcribed for later reference.

STEP 3: Making Predictions.

Sullivan (1978), and Spiro and Tirre (1979), in two separate studies, demonstrated that poor readers at the high school and college level have difficulty in relating prior knowledge to material that they are reading. A key element to this relationship is the ability to hypothesize the possible content of a reading passage, prior to actually reading the passage. If there are suppositions as to the forthcoming content of a passage to be read, then a cognitive memory search can begin to seek out, and retrieve relevant prior knowledge.

Step 3, therefore, involves the student-athlete making a set of predictions based on what he/she thinks will be included in the content of the passage to be read. By making these predictions, the student-athlete takes a step toward being actively involved with the reading material, which is an entirely different cognitive process from passively watching television, or listening to music on tape cassettes. If the student-athlete is to be successful in the classroom, he/she should be actively engaged in information processing, whether that information comes from a text or a lecture. With the constant bombardment of our adolescents from televisions, stereos, video-games, etc., it is sometimes difficult for them to make the transition from a passive receiver of information, to an active *seeker* of information.

For student-athletes who have difficulty in forming their own predictions, the academic tutor should model appropriate predictions, always referring to the cues derived in Step 2, from which the predictions are based. An example of this modeling technique might be: "Based on the chapter title, I might

predict..." It might be helpful, in the initial stages of training, to form one prediction for each cue listed in Step 2. As with the previous step, the set of predictions should be transcribed for later use.

STEP 4: Reading the Assignment.

With the predictions in mind, the student-athlete would proceed to read the assignment. Student-athletes who have particular decoding or vocabulary deficits may benefit from keeping a running record of unknown words. Please see Figure 1 for a sample of a vocabulary tracking sheet currently used at UNLV.

Post-Reading Activities:

STEP 5: Altering/Verifying Predictions.

Following the actual reading of the assigned passage, the student-athlete should be directed toward re-assessing his/her predictions. Were the predictions correct? Did they reflect the actual content of the reading passage? A lack of accuracy in self-assessment is a characteristic that has been shown to be prevalent in poor readers (Brown, Campione, and Barclay, 1979). Therefore, the academic tutor may have to model the assessment of the predictions formulated in Step 3.

Each prediction should be taken, in turn, and analyzed from the standpoint of accuracy. The academic tutor may assist the student-athlete in this assessment by referring to *specific* elements of the passage to confirm or deny the accuracy of the predictions. Each incorrect prediction should be corrected to conform to the actual content of the passage. As the training sessions with the student-athlete continues, the student-athlete should take over more of the responsibility for prediction formation and prediction assessment.

STEP 6: Clarifying Unclear Points.

A critical element to successful comprehension is the clarification of unclear points in the assigned passage *before* that passage is considered "completed." With respect to the present process, the predictions altered in Step 5 provide both tutor and student-athlete with "benchmarks" from which to assess comprehension of important, thematic information. Since the predictions were based on relevant, textual cues (and refined according to actual content), they should be reflective of the most salient points of the passage.

At first, the academic tutor may want to simply ask the student-athlete if he/she had any difficulty with any portion of the passage. However, if the student-athlete is reluctant to admit that he/she does not comprehend, the academic tutor may want to model some questions, based on important, thematic information. If such an approach is warranted, the tutor may question the student-athlete by asking: "I was a little unclear about...Can you help me understand this?" It may take some weeks before the student-athlete feels comfortable in admitting that he/she does not fully comprehend the reading passage.

STEP 7: *Forming Questions.*

Readers who employ some form of self-questioning technique tend to be better comprehenders than readers who do not use such a technique (Elrod, 1984). The steps that are discussed above provide the student-athlete with an excellent foundation on which to form questions. A good strategy to use with a student-athlete is to have him/her turn the revised predictions into questions. It might be helpful to provide the student-athlete with a list of question precursor words such as: How, When, Where, Why, What, Who and How many. Using these precursor words, the student-athlete can be prompted to make up his/her own questions from the revised prediction. Student-athletes who have difficulty making questions can be prompted by the tutor in this way: "Make a 'who' question out of the prediction number ____."

Following the formation of the questions, the student-athlete should answer them. As much as possible, the student-athlete should be encouraged to answer the questions from memory. Those questions that could not be answered from memory should be answered from the text.

STEP 8: *Summarizing.*

The next phase in the process is to have the student-athlete paraphrase the content of the reading passage. He/she should be prompted to use the revised predictions and answered questions to assist in the summarization. As with previous sections, the academic tutor may elect to model appropriate summaries by saying, "I might summarize the selection by saying..."

STEP 9: *Executive Control.*

Executive control has been defined as the activity of deciding whether to maintain, modify, or abandon a particular technique in response to the degree of success (or failure) that is provided by feedback. The major functions of executive control are planning, monitoring, and checking (Brown and Palinesar, 1982). These functions of executive control have been

linked to components that make up intelligence (Sternberg, 1980).

In the current process, planning would involve predicting outcomes prior to reading. Monitoring would include the revising of predictions, and self-questioning phases. Checking would be comprised of self-evaluation. To accomplish an overall self-evaluation of whether or not the important material of a reading passage has been learned, the student-athlete should be directed to thinking about various steps in the reading process outlined above. If, on his/her own, the student-athlete could not make predictions on reading content, alter/verify those predictions, form and answer key questions on content, or summarize the contents of the passage, then the student-athlete should be cued that the material was not learned well enough. In this case, alternative techniques must be considered. The student-athlete could engage in one or more of the following:

- a) re-read the entire passage.
- b) re-read portions of the passage.
- c) re-examine contextual cues (Step 2).
- d) re-examine predictions (Step 3, Step 5).
- e) re-examine self-generated questions (Step 7).
- f) consult a dictionary or glossary to get meanings to unknown words.
- g) consult with another individual who might provide some assistance (e.g. course instructor, academic tutor, student who had previously taken course).

The purpose of executive control is to systematically turn the responsibility for learning over to the student-athlete. In addition to this responsibility, the student-athlete is provided with a process by which he/she can plan, check, and monitor his/her own learning.

Relating the Metacognitive Process to Athletics

No matter what the academic background of the student-athlete, he/she is gifted in the area of athletics. Therefore, by using athletics as a medium to teach the metacognitive process outlined above, the student-athlete has an immediate, tangible referent with which to make cognitive associations.

The following section demonstrates how the metacognitive process is related to athletics; in this case, basketball: Step 2: Skimming for Contextual Clues and Step 3: Making Predictions. These two steps are related to the act of watching opponents' game films. When players and coaches watch opponents' game films, they are usually looking for cues and tendencies. What cues does the opponent give as to the way they are playing? How can you tell the type of defense the opponent will play? Does their top scorer favor one type of shot? By watching game films, the players and coaching staff are looking for cues on which to base predictions of the opponents' method

of play. These tendencies will permit the team to "play the percentages" in certain game situations.

Likewise, by predicting the outcomes of a reading passage based on contextual clues, the student-athlete is cued into "tendencies" of the textual material. These "tendencies" reflect the important, thematic information of the assigned reading.

Step 7: Forming Questions. This step is referred to as "scrimmage." In a pre-game scrimmage, the players and the coaching staff attempt to practice, under game conditions, the opponent's tendencies that have previously been detected. The team will also practice how to respond to those tendencies.

If a mid-term or final exam is likened to a "game," then forming and answering questions that might be included on that exam could be viewed as a "scrimmage." During this step, the student-athlete has the opportunity to create "game situations" (i.e. form questions), and to practice how to respond to those situations by answering the questions.

Step 9: Executive Control. The student-athlete should picture himself/herself as a player-coach. Not only must the player-coach actively play the game, but he/she must also determine how well the techniques that were worked on during practice are succeeding. If the techniques are not successful, as provided through feedback on the scoreboard (i.e. exam score), then alternative techniques must be employed before the game is "lost."

The Attributional Component

A growing theme in educational and psychological research is related to attribution theory. By "attribution," we usually refer to those variables to which a student attributes his/her successes or failures. Four explanations have primarily been found as being the reasons people account for their successes and failures. These explanations are: the individual's self-perceived ability level, effort (study), task difficulty, and luck (Covington, 1983).

Students who feel that they have some control over their destiny in the classroom, tend to perform better than students who feel as though their achievement is related to more external factors. Perceptions of personal control are necessary for the learner to develop a sense of competence following successful mastery attempts (Stipek and Weisz, 1981). It follows, therefore, that increasing students' perceptions of personal control can increase motivation and academic achievement (Baird and White, 1982; Bandura, 1982; Schunk, 1984; Stipek, 1981; Stipek and Weisz, 1981; Thomas, 1980; Wang, 1983; Weiner, 1979, 1980, 1983).

The metacognitive process outlined above is designed to provide the student-athlete with both immediate and delayed perceptions of personal

control. Research has demonstrated that success, alone, is not sufficient to motivate learning. What is needed is a perception of control over the situation that promoted success (McCombs, 1984).

The student-athlete, therefore, should be "programmed" for success at each step of the metacognitive reading process. The following review of the steps will detail how this can be accomplished.

Step 2: Skimming for Contextual Cues. The goal is to have the student-athlete take the responsibility for picking out relevant cues. At first, the academic tutor may wish to model appropriate cue selection. As the student-athlete takes over more of the responsibility of cue selection, he/she should be immediately praised. The tutor may even want to probe the student-athlete with questions such as: "Why did you select that [heading]?" Following a short discussion relating the cues to the theme of the reading passage, the tutor may wish to have the student-athlete close the text and answer (orally) questions that reflect the specific cues that were selected. The student-athlete will usually get a significant percentage of the questions correct, and it should be pointed out by the tutor that these correct answers, from total recall, were derived because the student-athlete took control of the learning situation by picking out contextual cues.

Step 3: Making Predictions. As with Step 2, when the student-athlete assumes more responsibility for turning contextual cues into predictions, immediate praise should be given. When a set of predictions have been made, the tutor should reinforce the notion that now the student-athlete has created a set of predictions which tell him/her what to look for when reading the selection.

Step 5: Altering/Verifying Predictions. The student-athlete should be praised for accuracy on correct predictions, and made to realize that incorrect predictions are to be expected. The nature of forecasting reading content does not guarantee accuracy. The student-athlete could be probed as to other cues imbedded in the text that may have enhanced accuracy.

Step 6: Clarifying Unclear Points. The student-athlete should be encouraged to ask questions on points that he/she does not understand. Furthermore, the tutor may wish to relate how the student-athlete's question is important to the overall understanding of the reading passage.

Step 7: Forming Questions. During the "scrimmage," the student-athlete should be praised for making relevant questions. The tutor should relate how these questions relate to theoretically relevant information. If there are review questions at the end of the passage, for example, the tutor may wish to show the student-athlete how "close" his/her questions are to the ones that the author felt were important.

After the questions are discussed, the student-athlete should be urged to answer the questions from memory. The effort expended on the process (i.e. predictions, question formation, etc.) should be related to the student-athlete's success in answering from memory.

Step 8: Summarizing. Point out to the student-athlete that he/she has controlled his/her ability to summarize important points because of the active involvement in the reading process. In other words, important, thematic material has been selected and rehearsed. This selection and rehearsal has prompted better recall.

Step 9: Executive Control. The student-athlete should be made to realize that he/she controls his/her success in the classroom. If the aforementioned process is undertaken, and the results are poor, then the student-athlete should analyze: 1) his/her effort in activating the metacognitive process, or 2) alternative methods to achieving comprehension success.

The Cognitive Problem Solving Component

To promote the activation of cognitive problem solving skills, and to receive an introduction to computer interaction, one day per week is spent in the University computer lab, in lieu of conducting reading tutoring. The key to a model of motivated learning is the amount, and kind, of cognitive engagement brought to the learning situation by the student (Corno and Mandinach, 1983). Examples of the engagement would include: alertness, selectivity, and connecting. Thus, at UNLV, the computer is used as a teaching tool to encourage the activation of cognitive processes.

The student-athletes are introduced to the Terrapin Logo program (Terrapin, Inc., 1983), and are given basic commands with which to manipulate the "turtle." The Logo program affords the student-athlete with an immediate, visual referent from which to base self-evaluations of success or failure.

Once the student-athletes have acquired the basic commands of the Logo program, they are introduced to simple programming that can be used to complete designs, figures, or drawings. An example of this programming would be a series of commands that are repeated (a loop) to form a particular figure. Once the basic idea of programming is obtained, the student-athletes move on to more complex programming, and editing programs. Problem sets are given to the student-athletes where they can work in pairs or individually to create a program to form a drawing or solve a problem (such as changing the dimension on a drawing or figure).

Summary and Discussion

This article has presented an alternative method of teaching reading

comprehension and problem solving to student-athletes. The underlying philosophy of the method presented above is that academic counseling, alone, may not be sufficient to ensure the successful completion of college-level curricula by student-athletes. The approach offered in this article is designed to assist student-athletes in a specific educational activity: reading comprehension. A boost in reading comprehension ability, along with academic counseling may be one step to upgrading the services provided to student-athletes by colleges and universities. Thus, the current approach may be viewed as psycho-educational in nature, rather than emanating from a counseling or guidance origin.

Four facets to the approach are offered, all of which should be done simultaneously. The basic foundation of the current method is a metacognitive approach to reading. This approach is designed to: 1) provide student-athletes with a systematic method of reading textual material, and 2) give student-athletes a framework within which they can plan, monitor, check, and alter their approach to reading.

Secondly, a relationship is made between the metacognitive process and athletics. This "translation" may facilitate the acquisition of the procedure by student-athletes by relating the metacognitive process to an already known tangible referent. Thirdly, the need for motivational training is recognized through the adoption of an attributional approach. A motivational (attributional) component is necessary to increase the likelihood that student-athletes will apply the metacognitive approach to their coursework.

Finally, a cognitive, problem solving component is discussed. This component can be viewed as being motivational and relevant to cognitive skills needed at the higher education level. The approach offered in this article should be viewed by athletic, academic coordinators as an alternative method of enhancing athletes' chances of success. Use of the methodology could take the form of pre-service training that can be provided to prospective academic tutors. Academic advisors may wish to teach the process to a group of student-athletes, especially if they are enrolled in the same class. Finally, the methods offered in this article could be viewed as the foundation of a course to be offered to high-risk students (including high-risk student-athletes).

Future research is essential in a number of areas. First, it would appear that a population profile is needed. Although there have been many descriptive studies on the make-up of intercollegiate student-athletes, there still needs to be an analysis of the psycho-educational composition of this group, and possibly sub-groups. For example, success/failure attributions of student-athletes in specific content areas should be analyzed. It is possible that

The Eligibility Game: Legal Issues Relating To Participation In Intercollegiate Athletics

by

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The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) is a voluntary unincorporated association, composed of four-year colleges and universities, whose purpose it is to regulate the nation's intercollegiate athletics. A significant part of the NCAA's regulatory function deals with the establishment and enforcement of rules concerning the eligibility of participants for competition. These rules are established to encourage compliance with satisfactory standards of scholarship, sportsmanship, and amateurship.

Given the widespread popularity of college athletics, its growth, the financial considerations for both the institutions and the individuals participating, and the broad spectrum of participants engaged in intercollegiate competition, it is not surprising that disputes have arisen concerning questions of eligibility, particularly the application and interpretation of rules. It is even less surprising to find that individuals who find themselves dissatisfied with decisions rendered concerning those rules would seek redress in the courts.

This paper will explore some of the issues and particular cases concerning athletic eligibility that have been brought before the courts. It will look at the decisions and reasoning of the courts in those cases and attempt to project the present status of eligibility cases and how those cases may be decided in the future.

A key element in determining the outcome of many cases, not only in athletics, but in Higher Education generally, is the concept of "state action". This is important because an institution involved in state action must adhere to the principles and protections outlined in the Constitution. Although the

distinction is generally made between public (tax-supported) and private institutions, there are enough circumstances and complicated situations where that distinction cannot be so neatly drawn.

Because of varying patterns of governmental assistance and involvement, a continuum exists ranging from the obvious public school (such as the tax-supported state university) to the obvious private school (such as the religious seminary). The large gray area between these extremes provides a continuing source of debate about how far the government must be involved before a "private" institution may be considered "public" under the Constitution (Kaplan, p. 21).

The NCAA falls into the "large gray area" because more than half of its member institutions are public. The state is not only involved in financial support of these schools, but also control of their budgets and regulation of their policies. The NCAA also receives state funds in the form of dues paid by those member institutions. Additionally, the NCAA depends on facilities such as fieldhouses and stadiums that are built and are supported by the state. Numerous courts, including five federal courts of appeals, have held that NCAA activities constitute state action for purposes of constitutional scrutiny. These courts relied primarily on a theory of entanglement: since state instrumentalities form a dominant and pervasive force in the NCAA, governmental actions are sufficiently intertwined with those of the Association to form state action (Springer, pp. 333-34).

The issue of eligibility becomes critical when the student "does not qualify for participation because of an institutional eligibility rule or some external rule which the institution has agreed to apply" (Cross, p. 157). The source for the external rule will either be the conference to which the school belongs or the NCAA, or both. "The external rule may relate to the circumstances of enrollment, such as the transfer rules..., or to the amateur status, academic standards, previous competition, or financial support" (Cross, p. 157). Finding state action in such cases thus affords the students certain constitutional protections, primarily including (but not limited to) due process and equal protection found in the fourteenth amendment. Most of the litigation brought against the NCAA has involved the equal protection clause. In analyzing the way the courts interpret these cases it is important to understand the criterion they use to distinguish between them.

In deciding equal protection claims, the judiciary has developed a two-tier standard of review to ascertain if a classification is constitutionally impermissible. In the upper tier, where suspect classifications or fundamental interests are involved, the court subjects the classification to strict scrutiny. The state must demonstrate a compelling state interest by proving that the state purpose is substantial and that the classification as drawn is necessary to accomplishment of that purpose. If neither a suspect classification nor a fundamental interest is present, the lower tier test is applied. The state must establish that the classification bears a rational relationship to a legitimate state objective (Springer, p. 334).

Suspect classifications, of which the Supreme Court has found only three, are: race, national origin, and alienage—not athletes. Fundamental interests include: abortion, voting, criminal appeals, procreation and interstate travel, but not eligibility to compete in intercollegiate athletics, or at least not yet (Springer, p. 334). Consequently, when finding state action, the courts have consistently applied the lower tier, or rational relationship test.

In what has been described as the leading case in this area *Parish v. NCAA*, the question involved the constitutionality of the "1.600 rule" which used a formula created by using test scores and high school grade point averages or class rank to determine if a student could earn a 1.6 average on a 4.0 scale during his freshman year in college. While the court found "state action" on the part of the NCAA, if applied the lower tier test to determine if the classification of being ineligible to participate was appropriate. It ruled that the determination of probable academic success had a "rational relationship" to the "legitimate state objective" of insuring maintenance of certain academic standards.

Additionally, it ruled that loss of tournament appearances and the chance to appear in games that were televised were not a deprivation of "property" or "liberty" interests. This points out another area of debate, namely whether or not participation in inter-collegiate athletics and all the concomitant trappings, recognition, publicity, and rewards that go with it create a "property interest" for the student deserving Constitutional safeguard.

Not only have courts divided over the claim that a student-athlete's interest in participating in intercollegiate athletics is a property right, but they also have utilized five distinct tests in reaching their

conclusions. One test reflects an argument...that an interest in reputation is a liberty right. The four property-oriented tests focus on: Intercollegiate competition as a preprofessional training ground, participation in intercollegiate sports as an integral facet of the educational process, the athletic scholarship as a property right, and the athletic scholarship as contract (Springer, p. 339).

While there is no denying that there is a legitimate interest on the part of the athlete in establishing or maintaining his or her eligibility, the contractual argument appears to provide the strongest base for arguments for establishing the property right (Springer, p. 339-40).

Other cases where state action was found to exist include *Regents of the University of Minnesota v. NCAA* where the court ruled that the NCAA could put an institution's athletic teams on probation if it failed to declare its athletes ineligible. In *Associated Students, Inc. v. NCAA*, the court did not apply the "strict scrutiny test" and found that the "1.600 rule" had a "rational relationship" to the creation of the classification.

A slightly different case is *Howard University v. NCAA*. The District Court of the District of Columbia found state action and ruled that the "five year limit on eligibility" and the "1.600" rules were reasonable, but found the "Foreign Student Rule" unconstitutional because it created an unreasonable alienage classification and qualified for the "strict scrutiny" interpretation.

Justice v. NCAA found state action, but ruled that participation in intercollegiate athletics is not a constitutionally protected interest. The District Court of Arizona went on to say that even if it was a protectable property interest, sanctions by the NCAA limiting post-season competition and television appearances did not deprive them of regular season play or their scholarships. The court further stated that even granting all of the above, the NCAA's notice and hearing procedure constituted sufficient due process.

In a related case dealing with due process, *Williams v. Hamilton*, the District of New Hampshire found state action and ruled that the "one year residency requirement" for eligibility was rationally related to the legitimate state interest of preventing athletes from transferring from one school to another, year after year. The court also stated that the "privilege" of competing was not protected by due process.

In a more recent case, *Jones v. Wichita State University*, the 10th Circuit Court of Appeals again applied the "rationality test" to an academic standard. The "2.0 rule" requires a student to have a cumulate high school grade point average of 2.0 in all subjects in order to be eligible for

competition during his or her first year. The student did not have a 2.0 without his grades from his physical education classes included. His high school had originally used those grades, enabling him to attain the minimum 2.0 requirement, but did not use physical education grades when computing averages for regular students. The NCAA has a rule that specifically states that the formula used to compute final grade point averages must be the same as those used for all students. When Wichita State discovered what had happened, they declared the student ineligible and precipitated the resulting litigation. The court held for Wichita State.

The courts found no property interests in *Parish v. NCAA*, *Justice v. NCAA* or in *Spath v. NCAA*, where a Canadian student lost a year of eligibility because he participated in an organized hockey league after the age of 20. The 1st Circuit Court of Appeals did not find the rule referred to an "alien" class only and asserted that there was no fundamental right to play hockey. It also stated that an athletic scholarship was not a property interest.

However, in *Gulf South Conference v. Boyd*, the Alabama Supreme Court did find that the right to participate is a property interest and further stated that the non-interference doctrine in voluntary association by which the courts have traditionally abided, did not apply to an athletic conference in this case.

At this time it should be pointed out, that while in the majority of cases, the NCAA has been found to be engaged in state action, there are two significant exceptions.

In *McDonald v. NCAA*, which was also a case challenging the old "1.600 rule", the Central District Court of California found that there was no "state action" in the other private action of a voluntary association. The court stated that the state must be "inextricably involved" in the private action or be able to control the private action.

Perhaps, even more significant is a most recent case, (decided October 25, 1984) *Arlosoroff v. NCAA* where the 4th Circuit Court of Appeals declined to find state action. It mentions several of the cases cited previously and continues in part:

These earlier cases rested upon the notion that indirect involvement of state governments could convert what otherwise would be considered private conduct into state action. That notion has now been rejected by the Supreme Court, however and its decisions require a different conclusion (*Arlosoroff v. NCAA*, p. 1021). The opinion cites *Rendell-Baker v. Kohn*, a case heard by the Supreme Court in which the court ruled that the operation of a school is not traditionally an exclusive prerogative of the state. The opinion continues:

There is no precise formula to determine whether otherwise private conduct constitutes "state action". After "sifting facts and weighing circumstances", *Burton v. Wilmington Parking Authority*, 365 U.S. 715, 722, 81 S. Ct. 856, 860, 6 L.Ed.2d 45 (1961), the inquiry in each case is whether the conduct is fairly attributable to the state...

The fact that NCAA's regulatory function may be of some public service lends no support to the finding of state action, for the function is not one traditionally reserved to the state (*Arlosoroff v. NCAA*, p. 1021).

It will be interesting to see the impact of this case of future NCAA litigation, but it clearly attempts to establish a new direction based on the Supreme Court ruling. Whether or not other courts will follow this line of reasoning remains to be seen.

Any attempts to invoke the protection available under the fourteenth amendment for a college athlete penalized by the NCAA must be qualified with the caveat that such an invocation resides on the borderline of established constitutional doctrine. Aside from a limited number of high school athletic cases, courts generally have not dealt with infringement of athletic interests in constitutional terms (Philpot, Mackall, p. 920).

Another source of law that relates to questions of eligibility are those principles known as "common law". "Primarily these principles would require the NCAA and other conferences and associations to adhere to their own rules and procedures, fairly and in good faith, in relations with their member institutions" (Kaplan, pp. 291-292).

An example of this type of law can be found in *Weiss v. Eastern College Athletic Conference*, where the Eastern District Court of Pennsylvania found that there was no irreparable harm done to a tennis player who was required to sit out one year after transferring schools. Another example is *English v. NCAA* where the Louisiana Appellate Court ruled that an NCAA rule whose interpretation was questioned had been applied correctly and that the rule was not arbitrary, capricious, unfair or discriminatory.

It seems almost a certainty that the enactment of Bylaw 5-1-(j) (formerly known as Proposition 48) by the NCAA will result in litigation of some type. This new rule, which goes into effect August 1, 1986 is a requirement for initial eligibility out of high school and replaces the current 2.0 rule. It requires a 2.0 grade point average in a designated core curriculum from 11

identified academic courses and a minimum test score of 700 (combined) on the SAT and a 15 composite score on the ACT.

While the courts in the past have held that such standards satisfy the "lower tier test" for the equal protection clause because they have a rational relationship to the interest of maintaining a certain level of academic standards, there may be a problem with this particular rule. The 2.0 requirement in the core curriculum is not that different from either the 1.600 rule or the cumulative 2.0 rule and would probably be interpreted in the same manner by the courts. However, the minimum test score requirement poses a different problem.

It has been reported and confirmed by various sources that there is a real difference between the performance of blacks and whites on these standardized tests. As a group, blacks achieve lower scores than whites. As mentioned earlier, race qualifies as a "suspect classification" to protect minority groups from the historical and current elements of discrimination. As such, this would qualify any litigation for the "upper tier" or "strict scrutiny test" where the state must demonstrate a "compelling interest" in creating the classification. Obviously, this is much harder to do than merely establishing a "rational relationship".

Also the question of finding "state action" is addressed differently because courts have shown a willingness to act in cases where racial discrimination appears to exist. "Courts appear more likely to find state action in race discrimination cases than in any other kind of case" (Kaplin, p. 25).

With these two factors, the willingness to find state action and the application of the strict scrutiny test, it would appear that once racial differences on the test have been established in court, the minimum test score requirement could be in real trouble.

From its inception the NCAA has attempted to control eligibility by tying it to some academic standards.

The first Association Convention in 1906 includes a discussion of faculty control of athletics. This discussion leads to the adoption of the Association's first policy concerning academic eligibility: 'No student shall represent a college or university in any intercollegiate contest who is not taking a full schedule of work as prescribed in the catalogue of that institution.' (Falla, p. 144).

Obviously, the question of eligibility has become far more complex and complicated since 1906, but the basic issue of maintaining reasonable and legitimate academic standards has remained the same. The courts have consistently demonstrated, time and again, that they will support and

recognize this effort, and not replace the institution's discretion with their own.

College administrators must remember that they have two legal sources with which they must deal: the Constitution and common law. Critical to the application of the Constitutional protections is the finding of "state action" which has been discussed at length. While the NCAA has been bound to be involved in state action, in most instances, a recent court decision has said it is not. Whether this new interpretation is a trend, only time will tell, but the NCAA should be careful to avoid any rules that create a "suspect classification." For the time being, administrators and those who make eligibility rules at the institutional, conference and NCAA level would be well advised to keep court decisions and Constitutional principles in mind when developing policies that have such a profound effect on both students and our institutions.

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The College Student Athlete: Special Needs And Development Interventions A survey of the literature

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INTRODUCTION

Counselor education has for years addressed itself to the needs of special populations. Yet, until recently, the legitimacy of student athletes as a special population has been questioned (Lanning, 1982). In many ways, freshmen students athletes are like all freshmen, they "Face all the (same) issues and tasks—independence; separation from old friends and making new acquaintances; group living; lack of supervision/monitoring regarding class attendance and studying; a new environment with its mix of values, attitudes and expectations; the need for academic planning and pursuit of leisure expectations. It is generally recognized that the transition from school to college is a big step for most entering freshmen. "(Yet) students athletes have some additional tasks and issues to confront—the impact of moving from a "star" situation back home to being one of many competent performers in a much larger arena; media pressure from radio, newspapers and TV, which for many means living in a fishbowl; learning to live with new coaches and their expectations; heavy time pressures because of practice, game demands and

travel; and little time for socializing during one's "sports participation. In addition, for many freshmen, there are the realities of little actual game playing time and unrealistic expectations regarding the relationship between being a student first and an athlete second (...conflicting messages...result in many value and attitude conflicts)" (Farwell and Perrone, 1983, pp. 24-25).

Given this introduction by Farwell and Perrone, it will be the purpose of this paper to: (1) elaborate on the college experience as it is lived by many Division I athletes, including the resultant differences in the athletes' socio-emotional development, and (2) review the literature describing currently existing developmental counseling and/or educational support programs which enhance the athletes' college experience.

THE ATHLETIC EXPERIENCE AND SOCIO-EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The athletic experience affects many aspects of a student's life: peer relationships, time management, education and career planning, the development of self-concept, the perceptions of the student athlete by others, and the fan/media environment. Black athletes and female athletes express additional concerns based on their unique experiences as blacks and females. It has been estimated by some that the Division I athlete in season commits up to 40 hours per week in athletic-related activities (Gurney, Robinson & Fygetakis, 1983); simply because of the time spent on this activity, the athlete experience has probably the single greatest influence on the student's college experience.

For example, because of the time factor, student athletes experience specialized peer group relationships; their friends are almost always other athletes. Yet, athletic friendships involve a competitive aspect not found in non-athletes' friendships, for often teammates compete for the opportunity to play (Lanning, 1982; Remer, Tongate & Watson, 1978). Further, if practice time and competition combine to informally segregate the athlete from his/her non-athlete peers, athletic housing arrangements make it formal (Harrison, 1981). Having spent so little time in non-athletic environments, many athletes feel uncomfortable approaching a typical university situation. In some cases, their behavior is irresponsible (Harrison, 1981). In almost any case, there are few peer relationships which are experienced as automatically comfortable and safe (Lanning, 1982). Together with this, one of the biggest difficulties in the non-athletic arena is

the combination of highly positive and highly negative perceptions of athletes held by others.

Coaches, under the gun to win, see as their main job recruiting, scouting, organizing and planning. The coach can arrange for tutors and advisors; the coach can spend much time counseling and advising; but ultimately, the athlete must take the tests and write the papers. Faculty members are often resistant to helping athletes when "the only time the Athletic Department calls is to ask if I'll pass some guy who hasn't done a lick of work all semester." The Athletic Director, beset with financial problems, can't always provide the funds for academic support s/he might like. Finally, the athlete's non-athlete peers exert perhaps the most difficult combination of pressures of all: high expectations and negative stereotypes. Non-athletes alternate between excitement, awe and fan club mentality on the one hand, and jealousy with regard to academic support and "pandering;" anger with regard to "typical Jock attitudes"; and accusations about narrow social skills on the other (Remer, Tongate & Watson, 1978). Clearly, the only friend the athlete may feel s/he has is another athlete.

A second area of concern faced by the students athlete centers around time management and study skills (e.g., note taking, reading and writing skills, and test-taking). A tremendous amount of time is already planned for the athlete, but that does not mean s/he manages well the time left over. Time management and study skills, like athletic skills, can be taught. However, in attempting to do so, the counselor/advisor often encounters attitudinal resistance which is a by-product of the third area of concern: inadequate career planning (Lanning, 1982).

It is well-known that many male Division I athletes, particularly those in football and basketball, aspire to a professional career (Coakley, 1978; Nelson, 1982; Remer, Tongate and Watson, 1978). What is less well-recognized is that for women athletes and many male athletes, the college experience is the athletic career (Nelson, 1982). As a result, for the vast majority of men, professional athletics is an unrealistic expectation; and for women and men playing non-revenue sports, career expectations may be absent altogether. Either way, male and female students-athletes are usually ignorant of alternative career options or don't know how to make sense of them. Many men are focused into business and sales—which, from a career development perspective, is often an exploitation of the athletic image and/or discrimination against the individual's other skills and interests. Often the results are frustration and unhappiness and, sometimes, disaster (Lanning, 1982). For women, career patterns following athletic participation is less clear.

A fourth area of concern is the athlete's development of self-concept. As with all these areas, the athlete is not unique in this concern so much as the context within which it develops. The university athlete, by virtue of his/her skills, has the potential to excel. Not unlike others with unique abilities, the challenge of coming to a bigger arena filled with peers of equal or greater talent can be overwhelming. Suddenly the high school "star" may be a bench-warmer and the athlete's formerly secure self-concept is challenged. The freshman (and/or non-starting) athlete who has tied who s/he is and what s/he can do to his/her performance on the field is at a loss for defining his/her self-worth, not only to him/herself, but to teammates and non-athlete peers when s/he does not play. The impact of injury is similar, if not even more difficult, since the loss of athletic participation may be permanent. In either case, the non-playing athlete must cope with a self-perceived loss of self-worth, an often traumatic re-direction of goals, and changes in peer relationships, team relationships, and social lives. Often, these adjustments are characterized by debilitating anger and confusion (Lanning, 1982).

Finally, the athlete exists in a fan/media environment different from virtually all but an occasional student leader. As implied earlier, the fan/media phenomenon reinforces only a small slice of the spectrum of an athlete's abilities—the athletic abilities. Therefore, unless the athlete possesses a natural scholastic aptitude, it is unlikely that academic performance can assume equal importance in the athlete's mind or ego. In fact, given scholastic deficiencies, classwork is viewed by many athletes as a bothersome and ego-threatening experience. The fan/media factor has the additional effect of influencing the athlete to think and feel obligated, i.e., the athlete receives praise, recognition and respect in return for performance. While playing for praise and recognition may adequately satisfy the athlete's immediate emotional and psychological needs, it has definite drawbacks in the long run when the athlete is unable to continue playing (Harrison, 1981).

In addition to these concerns, black and female athletes are faced with other issues. Of the black athletes interviewed by Green (1972 a,b), only seven percent felt that their coaches expected them to graduate. In addition, many expressed concerns about athletics as an alternative mode of servitude, and felt frustration with a loss of individual identity, the rigidly controlled life, and regulated social relationships. While interracial relationships have improved since this study was conducted, it is unfortunate and probable that many stereotypes and, consequently, many of these concerns continue to exist. Female athletes experience similar frustration. In this case, "stereotyping occurs in three forms: (1) a negative stigma...is attached to all female athletes, but more so to those in 'masculine' sports; (2) a loss of femininity...(is) perceived as a possible outcome of sport competition; and

sport in general....(is) believed to masculinize the female participant, not only physically, but also psychologically and behaviorally" (Anthrop & Allison, 1983). In any event, both black and female athletes perform in the face of stereotypes and conditions even more complex socio-emotionally than do white male athletes and each deserves sensitivity and support.

In conclusion, the experiences and, therefore, the needs of student athletes differ significantly from those of non-athletes (Sowa, 1983). While on the one hand, student athletes may benefit from the attention they receive, on the other they may be blocked from "normal" development. According to Remer, Tongate & Watson (1978), "Athletes are a group in need—in a predicament they aren't aware of, and locked into a system that has a vested interest in perpetuating itself" (p. 626). Among the typical problems they face as students include: lack of opportunities for psycho-social maturation, including the development of social skills and self-confidence in areas other than athletics, lack of realistic life expectancies and career goals, lack of reinforcement for the development of academic skills, and lack of time management skills.

CURRENTLY EXISTING PROGRAMS IN ASSESSMENT AND COUNSELING: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Recently, a Task Force of Student Athletes sponsored by the American College Personnel Association (ACPA) surveyed 260 institutions supporting NCAA Division I Football and Men's Basketball programs (survey reported in Gurney, Robinson and Fygetakis, 1983). Of these institutions, 43% (n=114) returned the survey questionnaires.

The report described staffing patterns and support programs, including the degree to which institutions used assessment in designing these programs. Among the surveyed institutions, 55% of the athletic programs provided one or more staff members for psychological or academic support. These individuals typically served as: liaisons with faculty, counselors, scholarship administrators, advisors and rule interpreters. Of the principle athletic counselors, 30.6% had a professional counseling background, 38% were para-professionals and 27.4% had coaching backgrounds. Those programs without trained counselors sponsored traditional modes of academic support: academic monitoring, tutoring and study-table. One of the most disturbing findings, say Gurney, Robinson and Fygetakis (1983), is that fully 50.9% of the responding athletic departments were engaged in direct scheduling of student athletes without the concurrence of faculty members.

"Recent criticism and legal suits directed at athletic departments for willfully impeding the normal academic progress of student-athletes may be warranted if this practice is to continue. Institutions must be aware of the obvious dangers of conflict of interest..." (p. 44).

A table of the types and frequency of assessment programs (from Gurney, Robinson and Fygetakis, 1983) is given below:

| Assessment Target | % Responding Institutions Conducting | Frequently Used Assessment Tools |
|---|--------------------------------------|---|
| Pre-admission identification of high academic-risk student-athletes | 68%* | High school class rank SAT, ACT scores Personal interviews High school transcripts |
| Reading Skills | 33% | Nelson/Denny Reading Test McGraw-Hill Reading Test Stanford Reading Test |
| Career Development | 18% | Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII) Kuder Occupational Interest Inventory |
| Writing Skills | 25% | Writing Sample |
| Study Skills | 18% | |
| Learning Disabilities | 13% | Woodcock-Johnson Weschler |
| Personality Assessment | 15% | Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) Cattell's 16 PF |

*72% of the institutions routinely assessed their athletes; 27.3% tested in special cases only

Reviewing these results, it is somewhat disheartening to turn these results around and realize how much assessment isn't being done. Needs assessment is critical to the design of developmental programs. "Developmental" is distinguished from "remedial" philosophically: "developmental" implies a pro-active enhancement intervention, in contrast to the reactive, almost crisis-to-crisis approach which typifies a "remedial" intervention. Jones (1983) suggest a three-step approach based on Coyne's (1983) Model of Primary Prevention: Diagnose (Assess), Intervene, Prevent. Essentially, what she describes is a pro-active, population-based program that anticipates needs when possible, minimizes harmful circumstances, and focuses on the student-athlete's overall development through direct and indirect service delivery. While the ACPA report and the existence of such professional associations as the National Association of Athletic Academic Advisors attest to the fact that there is both strong interest and steady growth in staffing and developmental programming, it is evident there yet remains much to be done before Jones' approach can be considered typical of most athletic departments.

Despite the overall need for improved support services for student-athletes, there are a number of model programs already in existence which deserve recognition.

Toscano (1982) describes a primarily academic support program at Charles County (Maryland) Community college in which each athlete is paired with an academic advisor who reviews with the athlete his/her reading and math assessment results. The advisor ensures that there are no academic-athletic conflicts in the athlete's program, and coordinates academic information and assistance directly with the faculty and coaches. The athlete is an active participant in this process. The goal is to achieve a campus-wide support network in which the athletic department is viewed as an integral and supportive member. While Toscano does not provide quantitative data to demonstrate the effectiveness of this approach, he asserts that it has led to increased cooperation and understanding among the various constituencies of the community college campus.

Nelson (1982) reports that the assessment of an athlete's career interests (using the SCII) combined with the athlete's participation in five 2-hour career counseling workshops: improves academic performance, increases realistic career aspirations, and establishes a higher degree of satisfaction with college majors. She conducted this study in the Fall of 1979 with 65 freshman athletes representing 22 men's and women's teams at James Madison University in Virginia. The purpose of the Experimental workshop sessions was to examine personal characteristics and influences (including SCII results) in an organized, structured fashion. In addition, the exercises

were intended to facilitate the integration of increased personal knowledge with new information about existing careers and the job market. She notes that these career counseling workshops were complemented by academic advising workshops at the close of each Fall and Spring semester.

In contrast to the Control athlete group, which earned an average G.P.A. of 2.17 at the close of Fall semester, Nelson (1982) reported that the Experimental athlete group earned a 2.41. At the close of the second semester, the rest of the freshman class (non-athletes) averaged 2.61, while the Experimental athlete group averaged 2.5; the Control group averaged 2.25. Analysis revealed that, in contrast to the athlete controls, there was no significant difference between the Experimental athlete group and the rest of the freshman class. All athletes were enrolled in University required core courses.

Similar findings were revealed at the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA) where, in 1983, the athletic department in conjunction with the campus career development center, established a trial skills-identification program for 30 freshman athletes. When it is fully implemented, the career planning program will involve four components: Skills Identification and Goal-Setting for Skills Development (year one); Educational Exploration (year two); Career Exploration and Internship (year three); and Job-Seeking Skills (year four). Although the program was not designed to bolster grades, a preliminary analysis conducted following the program's first year showed a marked improvement in 28 of 30 participants' academic performance. So successful was this program judged to be, 100 freshman athletes were scheduled for those workshops in 1984 (Naylor, 1983).

Furthermore, that career workshops are effective in raising G.P.A.'s is consistent with work by Super (1957) and Holland (1973) who believed that vocational choice (and, for students, choice of major) is more enhancing to the individual when it is congruent with the self-concept. The implications of these studies are great, for they suggest by fostering realistic goals consonant with the student athlete's personality, the athlete's likelihood of persistence to graduation is enhanced (Nelson, 1982).

Tootle (1980) describes a developmental program in place at the Ohio State University which involves four components. As with the previous two programs (Nelson, 1982; Toscano, 1982), freshman athletes attend University Orientation programs with the other freshmen. Parts of this program are specifically directed at the athletes, however: reminding the athletes of the eligibility requirements and their responsibilities towards them, reinforcing the cooperative attitude and efforts between the Academic Advising Office and the Athletic Department, and encouraging the student

athletes to participate in *all* aspects of University life, not just athletics. The second component involves a 1:1 relationship with an academic advisor. The third component is a required 1-credit survey course offered Fall quarter, taught by the academic advisor, which encompasses the following topics: study methods, career planning, university resources, time management, adjusting to the positive and negative perceptions of athletes held by the University community, involvement in student government, clubs and activities, and establishing goals and priorities. Finally, the fourth component is a Spring quarter reception honoring those athletes who have begun to distinguish themselves academically and/or through student activities, and featuring Ohio State alumni athletes who are successful in a variety of careers, emphasizing the importance of a well-rounded University experience.

Finally, Wittmer, Bostic, Phillips and Waters (1981) describe the University of Florida program. Here, too, freshman student athletes are required to enroll in a course, this time including such topics as: interpersonal skills and effective communication, communal (residence hall) living, university support services, leadership skills, career planning and decision-making, academic planning, effective social skills and the understanding of one's self-concept, time management, and skills in meeting the press. Personal and career assessment are vital aspects of this course, and each freshman athlete takes the SCII (Strong, 1935), the MBTI (Myers-Briggs, 1976), the Incomplete Sentences Test (Wittmer, Bostic, Phillips & Waters, 1981) and the Athletic Motivation Inventory (Ogilvie, Tutko & Lyon, 1973). Following this, each athlete meets with a trained counselor for the interpretation of each inventory, and writes a paper entitled "Understanding Myself" based on the results of these instruments. The remainder of the course involves outside assignments, guest lecturers, group projects and class participation.

As in the previous model programs, all athletes in the Florida program are paired with a facilitator/counselor, in this case, graduate student in the Student Personnel Services for Athletes Program (a sub-speciality in the Counseling and Student Personnel Services Program). In an attempt to improve accessibility, the counselor's offices are located in the athletics residence hall. In addition to the 1:1 counseling, several discussion groups are established each year to provide additional structure and support; while student athletes experiencing personal and/or academic difficulties are required to participate, all athletes are welcomed. Approximately 40 athletes were involved in this program at the time the authors published their articles.

Finally, senior athletes participate in a non-credit Senior Exit Seminar intended to ease the transition associated with graduation. Senior Exit Seminar topics have included: Marriage and Your Future, Resumes and Job Interviews, How to Finance a Home, Buying an Automobile, Insurance: How Much? What Kind? and Your Role as a Florida Alumnus. These seminars were held over dinner and featured former Florida lettermen with a competency in the area of interest.

In conclusion, a variety of academic and psychological support programs exists which foster the full development of the student athlete. Assessment tools have been used to diagnose individual needs and to design appropriate interventions. In each of these programs, support by the coaches was instrumental in the program's success. In at least two of the programs, strong connections between the institution's Athletic Department and Counseling and Student Personnel Services Department maximized the developmental aspects of the programs. The goals of these programs included: to ease the freshman transition into college; to integrate and enhance the athlete's physical, intellectual and socio-emotional growth; to provide a foundation for the future; and to use a systematic assessment program for the purpose of developing both self-understanding on the part of the athlete and developmental interventions on the part of the staff.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Systematic assessment and developmental interventions are increasingly becoming a part of the Athletic Department's daily functioning, as evidenced by the establishment of the National Association of Athletic Advisors in 1976 (Gurney, Robinson and Fygetakis, 1983). Nevertheless, several authors suggest that progress on particular campuses may be difficult and slow. Remer, Tongate and Watson (1978) suggest that individuals initiating developmental programs: (1) move slowly along the paths of least resistance, (2) meet immediate academic support and performance-related needs (e.g., anxiety reduction, motivation) before attempting longer-range developmental needs, and (3) be supportive and understanding of the unique pressures and traditions of athletic life. Simply because of the time requirements involved, athletes' lives often revolve around the athletic department, creating both special needs and special opportunities. A variety of assessment tools have been described, including the extent to which they are currently being used among NCAA Division I institutions. Model programs integrating assessment with developmental programs do exist and should be recognized. The success of these programs required the support of coaches, and several of the programs coordinated their efforts with the

graduate department of Counseling and Student Personnel Services. Contrary to popular belief, participation in collegiate athletics provides very few opportunities for upward mobility (Coakley, 1978; Dubois, 1979); nevertheless, it does give some athletes a "free" education that, if taken seriously, can provide a future basis for upward mobility (Coakley, 1978). It would be this author's hope that as much as student athletes enhance the lives of their respective universities, so will the universities provide the programs necessary to enhance theirs.

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Group Academic Counseling for First Year Student-Athletes

Bob Wilson, Academic Counselor for Student-Athletes
College of Arts and Sciences, Syracuse University

Group counseling aimed at improving academic achievement is worthy of consideration for student-athletes. It has some advantages over classroom courses in study skills or college orientation, and also over individual counseling. Group counseling is obviously more efficient in terms of time and resources than individual counseling. It enables (indeed is most appropriate for) emotional issues to be dealt with and writers from Stevenson (1944) to Frenza (1983) have noted the link between emotional difficulties and maladaptive study habits and also study skills deficits. Group counseling also facilitates the use of peer support strategies and has a tradition of successfully dealing with emotional adjustment (Arbuckle 1944) and academic improvement (Spielberger 1962).

After a proposal to the Athletic Department a group program was initiated in January 1984. A beginning group of eight freshman football players was identified by the Athletic Advisor as having had academic difficulties in the first semester. The group met one hour per week during study table for eight weeks. The group activities had a dual focus on study skills and emotional support.

The topics covered were:

- Responsibility for learning;
- Frustrations and blocks to learning;
- Listening skills;
- Group support for academic progress;
- Assessing strengths and weaknesses;
- Characteristics of successful student-athletes;
- Goal setting;
- Academic contracting;
- Time management;
- Memorization;

- Preparing for examinations;
- Test taking techniques;
- Study tips;
- Motivation to study;
- Relationships with teachers;
- Semester planning;

Some topics were specific to one session or a part of a session and some were cumulative and built on previous sessions such as examination preparation and test taking. Many ran in some form or another through all sessions like personal responsibility, listening skills and group support. There was a continuous effort throughout the program to accept each individual in his identity as an athlete and also develop a genuine identity as a student.

Critique and Evaluation

As the group developed, the members were able to make some personal statements about themselves and others although these were mainly in response to structured exercises such as "How I see you as a student" or "You will do better this semester because...". There remained a level however, at which they became nervous about and resistant to feedback that was too honest and found difficulty working with possible failure either academic or athletic. Lanning (1982) has discussed the negative effects on relationships that the competitive environment of athletics can have.

The group members showed a great deal of sensitivity toward issues such as campus relationships, independence within their structured regime, psychological strategies of coaches and difficulties with time and sleep. Working with partners became important to them. They took pride in helping and encouraging each other and obvious elements of mutual support developed with the group. Coming together and sharing difficulties was mentioned as beneficial. Writing contracts, making predictions and giving public statements about academic intentions acted to keep academic progress and study skills in a significant position. The group members developed a list of the study behaviors of successful student-athletes against which they could compare their own academic efforts. Although the group became an important entity for them, there was a predominant sense that it was more "my" group than "their" group despite a stated aim that their agenda should take precedence as the group developed. Complete confidentiality was stressed and observed but several members obviously expected that confidentiality would be broken and material shared with coaches. Stress coping techniques and career development might be valuable topics to add to the program.

Academic progress was encouraging. Original G.P.A.'s ranged from 1.2 to 2.1 (on a 4.0 scale) with an average of 1.4. After the group program, the average G.P.A. rose by a half grade to 1.9. A pleasing feature was continued progress over the next semester without further contact. The average grade rose to 2.3 with a range from 1.8 to 3.1. A comparison group of freshman football players with the next lowest grades in the same college began with an average G.P.A. of 1.86 which dropped to 1.6 over the second semester without group counseling and rose to an average of 2.0 after the next semester.

An evaluation questionnaire was completed anonymously by group members after the program. In answer to the question "How was the group helpful (if at all) to your academic performance?", there were some interesting comments indicating the significance of the emotional and group support.

"It showed that other people suffered similar problems. Allowed me to express my problems—get it off my chest."

"It made me aware of the reason that caused me to do poorly first semester. The opinions of the other group members about me also helped."

"It told me about what other people felt about what and how I was doing. They told me things I did not recognize for myself."

"It gave me confidence."

"It helped me face my problems, which were often the same as others were having."

The group was also seen as a practical venture. In answer to the question "What practical suggestions do you have for helping student-athletes achieve academically?", some comments reflected this sentiment.

"This program should be introduced to each student-athlete the first semester."

"Have more groups at different times to improve study habits."

Recent surveys (C.F.A. 1984, Mathes and Gurney (1985) indicate an increased interest by student-athletes in the academic programs and provisions of various institutions. Mathes and Gurney claim that now,

"College athletes are more concerned with academic support services that help them succeed as students than with athletic facilities and programs that enable them to succeed as athletes." Given this trend and the continuing demands of practice, road trips, media, alumni, etc., a grouped counseling program may be an effective way of enhancing student and career identities and facilitating progress in both these important areas.

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ABSTRACT

In Support of By-Law 5-1-(j)

By Charles Browning
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1. There is an implicit relationship between high school curriculum and test scores that should be made explicit.
2. Graduation should not be the sole concern. Education and personal development are also important issues and are broader than graduation alone.
3. Athletic grants-in-aid are a very poor vehicle for socio-economic mobility.
4. College athletics and NCAA legislation can provide a tremendous impetus for improvement in high school academic performance of students.
5. By-Law 5-1-(j) makes legitimate discriminations based upon academic preparation and performance.
6. College athletes can serve an important function as role models for American youth.

In Support of By-Law 5-1-(j)

The continuing controversy which surrounds the approaching implementation of By-Law 5-1-(j) of the NCAA Constitution reminds one of the old adage "emotion is the enemy of clear thinking". True enough, the proposal—Proposition 48—was passed at the 1983 NCAA Convention amidst waves of emotion, both for and against, and it is also true that the original proposal was composed and presented before even preliminary research was conducted. But having made this point we must now confront the fact that

the flimsily researched Proposition 48 is now firmly in place as By-Law in the NCAA Constitution. Accepting this, we should make every effort to divorce emotion from our discussion from this point onward.

The 1986 Convention is a last opportunity for discussion and alteration of By-Law 5-1-(j) before implementation on August 1 of that year. It seems most appropriate that consideration be given to the arguments for modification as the NCAA concludes a major research effort which considers the effects that By-Law 5-1-(j) would have on student-athletes at Division I institutions. One may question the utility of such a discussion when hard data will be available in such a short time, but, in the interest of complete honesty, it must be stated that the study, as it is being conducted, will hold few surprises.

The data will show that, based on test scores, a disproportionate number of blacks will be denied freshman eligibility if they are provided with an athletic grant-in-aid. Surprised? The data will also indicate that a respectable percentage of the individuals, both black and white, who would be ineligible under By-Law 5-1-(j) for athletic aid as freshmen can be expected to graduate. Surprised yet? Of course not. Unfortunately, the investigation will not discuss the implicit relationship between high school curriculum and test scores. The fact that there is a relationship is understood and accepted by most individuals in the business of education and represents the rationale for the curriculum requirement, for, most educators would agree that the high school curriculum should contain coursework in math, English, natural science, social science and foreign language in order to maximize the opportunity for academic success on the college level. The commonly held belief that there is a relationship between high school curriculum and test scores should be made explicit despite the difficulty in quantifying this relationship. Then, while controlling for the variable of high school curriculum, it would be interesting to view the performance of blacks and other minorities on the standardized tests and to discover the percentage of minority students who, having completed the mandated curriculum, would fail to qualify under By-Law 5-1-(j). One would predict a severe reduction in the percentage of minority students who would be disqualified.

The argument that a sizeable number of athletes who would not qualify for aid under By-Law 5-1-(j) could still be expected to graduate certainly can be accepted as a valid one and is not particularly shocking. Athletes are provided with study table, tutoring, and academic counseling, benefits which ought to improve the graduation rate of any population of students and certainly graduation itself has great value, both intrinsic and extrinsic, but there is another significant question that should be asked, namely, what are the academic majors chosen by those individuals who did graduate but who would not have qualified under By-Law 5-1-(j)? It is commonly understood

that among college academic majors there is a great variance in terms of rigor and future economic worth. Further, it can be assumed that there is a significant positive correlation between rigor and the economic worth of a particular degree, so the question that must be addressed is, are those individuals who have failed to qualify, distributed across majors in a fashion similar to those who would have qualified? Do these individuals have the number and quality of career options? Will they have an opportunity to reach comparable levels of personal development and fulfillment? In short, are we preparing all athletes for real economic and career success or are we simply handing them a degree, a degree with minimal value? One can easily speculate, but clearly, this question should be answered.

If those who desire modification are sincerely concerned about guarding the interests of minorities, in particular their access to higher education, they should first recognize that about 4,000,000 high school students graduate each year. Of this number, something less than 5,000 can expect to be awarded athletic grants at Division I institutions; that is, just over one tenth of a percent. Clearly, athletic grants are a poor vehicle for the socio-economic advancement of minorities or for the populace generally. Parenthetically, one must observe that this mythical vehicle surely has an even more abominable record in the case of Hispanics and Asian-Americans as evidenced by their underrepresentation on Division 1-A athletic squads. Further, one must accept that over 99% of high school seniors are deemed ineligible for an athletic grant for purely athletic reasons. To state this differently, coaches discriminate on the basis of athletic ability. They recruit only the very best athletes without regard for socio-economic status or race. If extreme elitism of this nature is acceptable, surely the disqualification of individuals for academic reasons must be acceptable, especially when one considers that the total number of grants awarded will not be reduced, but they will simply be awarded to more academically able individuals.

The entire argument that By-Law 5-1-(j) will reduce access for minorities is based on the assumption that a significant percentage of minority students depend on Division I athletic grant-in-aid for their access to higher education. As I have indicated, this does not appear to be the case, however it must be admitted that By-Law 5-1-(j) will very likely have a disproportionately large impact on minorities at the start of implementation. This fact, while lamentable, is not the fault of the legislation for the By-Law legislates without regard to socio-economic status or race. The objective of the By-Law is to discriminate on the basis of academic preparation in order to better ensure that student-athletes are actually representative students. One must conclude that the responsibility for the discrepancy in performance lies with the high schools.

Since it seems to follow logically that those individuals who do receive athletic grants-in-aid are indeed a privileged few, it seems reasonable that they should be expected to serve as role models for their peers. This expectation applies equally to minority student-athletes and non-minority student-athletes. Actually, it is arguable that the obligation of student-athletes to serve as exemplary role-models far outweighs their other obligations. Finally, by providing high school students with exemplary role models and by requiring enrollment in proper high school curriculum one can surmise that the result will be enhanced performance on the standardized tests and more successful academic performance in college and a concomitant reduction in the test score differential between minority students and non-minority students. With foresight and disciplined patience, college athletics can be a powerful engine for positive change.

In the April 10, 1985 issue of *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, Jesse N. Stone, president of Southern University and a critic of By-Law 5-1-(j) demonstrated that he does understand the importance of standards when he said, "A youngster knows that one way to move from the ghetto, if he's good enough, is to participate in college athletics and hopefully go on to the pros." Mr. Stone was referring to athletic ability when he qualified his statement with "if he's good enough." By-Law 5-1-(j) simply says that a youngster must be "good enough" in the classroom as well as on the playing field. Surely a college president like Mr. Stone understands the importance of being explicit about expectations in order to maximize success in the ongoing effort to achieve excellence.

How to Build a Winning Climate in Academic Support Services

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The theme of the 80's for intercollegiate athletics programs is academic integrity. For those of us in the area of academic support services, the academic integrity issue translates into a major emphasis on the academic path of student-athletes. The function of academic support services has evolved from the retention of eligibility for student-athletes to the academic development and progress. Are we equipped to meet this colossal challenge or will we simply reinvent the wheel?

The recent growth and proliferation of academic support services has paralleled the emphasis on academic integrity and the quality of academic support services offered student-athletes. Underwood (1984) asserted that academic support services is the key determinant in the overall success of the student-athlete. Professionals in the field of academic support services can readily identify the qualities required to operate an effective academic support program. A few of these attributes are: outreach services, personnel, coaches support, objectives, fiscal resources, and recruiting. One quality that is seldom mentioned is Organizational Climate.

One of the more accurate mechanisms for gauging the effectiveness of a program is the Organizational Climate. Pritchard and Karasick (1973) defined Organizational Climate as "a relatively enduring quality of an organization's internal environment distinguishing it from other organizations which (a) results from behavior and policies of members of the organization, (b) is perceived by members of the organization, (c) serves as a basis for interpreting the situation, and (d) acts as a source of pressure for directing activity." One can conclude from this definitive statement that the behavior of members in the organization is influenced through Organizational Climate.

Organizational Climate impacts the direction and outcome of the organization. Before we can attain some measure of success in the academic

support services area, the Organizational Climate must be designed to facilitate organizational effectiveness and to permeate the total Athletics program. Once the ingredients are included in the operational activities of academic support services, Organizational Climate will become a major factor in determining the framework for the student-athlete's academic success.

There are several elements which comprise an effective Organizational Climate. For the academic support services program to attain a measure of effectiveness, these qualities should become woven into the program's functional activities. There are five key elements in the Organizational Climate Construct:

1. **Commitment.** Academic support services must be organized through commitment. Professionals in the field must demonstrate commitment in spirit and operational activities. Commitment comes in the form of attitudes, promotion of goals, and dissemination of results. In short, commitment is difficult to measure if academic support service officials do not consistently highlight and visualize the results and direction of their program.
2. **Enthusiasm.** The academic support program must have infectious enthusiasm. Most successful academic support programs will organize activities to express the zest and excitement of the contributions made to the lives of student-athletes. Words, symbols and articulation of student-athlete academic achievement should become standard procedure. Academic support services professionals must believe in people and believe that people like to be around people and share the celebration of success.
3. **Vision.** A vision must be developed of a desired future state with key members of the academic support services network. Athletic administrators and coaches must be mobilized to support this vision. Academic support professionals must communicate their vision consistently and with fervor.
4. **Values.** An academic support program must have a sound set of beliefs on which it bases all its policies and actions. A guiding principle is that each student-athlete has the capacity to encounter a successful educational experience as a result of participation in your academic support program. Once the values are firmly in place, a consistent channel of communication is essential to maintain the effectiveness of your program.
5. **Structure.** A key premise to guide your thinking on structure is to "Keep it Simple Stupid (Kiss)." Structure in the academic support area must embrace creativity, informality, competence, systematic planning, and assessment. The design and implementation of structure into the academic

support program greatly increases the opportunity for the attainment of successful results.

Organizational Climate has seldom been considered as a key variable in the efficient operation of academic support service activities. Obviously, administrative support and human and fiscal resources are essential variables in the academic support program. With the intensity and pressure of academic integrity expanding at a rapid rate, academic support service professionals must incorporate Organizational Climate as a key component in their quest to enhance the academic success of student-athletes.

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Keynote Letters From The Publisher, President-Elect And President



LETTER FROM THE PUBLISHER

Dear Members,

You're all to be commended for making this issue of The National Advisor the best ever.

Your positive response with articles of academic significance has sent clear signals to the academic community about our unique expertise. Simply put, the upgrades have helped project a more professional image of this all-important publication. This is a result of the NAAAA's Executive Board commitment to deliver a quality journal. Soon we will meet in New Orleans for the annual convention at which time you will have the opportunity to further the direction of the National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletics. I would like to take this opportunity to urge all of you to communicate your ideas to the Executive Board about the continued growth of the NAAAA. The stronger the membership, the stronger the association and hence the more impact we'll have on academic-athletic issues.

Congratulations to the new Editor Gerry Gurney. I'm confident he'll continue to upgrade The National Advisor. I will again stand poised to offer support to Gerry, the Executive Board, and the members to assist in the continued upgrading of this all-important publication.

Sincerely,

Richard Esquinas
Career Guidance Foundation
Athletic Guidance Center



LETTER FROM THE PRESIDENT-ELECT

Dear NAAAA Members:

After serving six months as a Director of Athletics, I have had the opportunity to compare this role to the role of the Academic Advisor. Because of my continued commitment to the student-athlete concept I have found my experiences in academic counseling an invaluable asset. From my standpoint there are many similarities. Even though I consider my job demanding and extremely challenging I stand by my previous conclusion that academic counseling is not only the most important facet of an athletic program, but it is also the most challenging and difficult of any other position in athletics.

I'm determined more than ever when I take office in January to make a concerted effort to see that academic advisors in athletics are recognized, respected and rewarded for the tasks that they do. Athletic Directors must continue to be educated on the challenges we are faced within the immediate future, as we all respond and adapt to the new academic standards and the continued pressures placed on winning in athletics.

We must more than ever be strong in our convictions and share our expertise to those powers that can effect changes. It is an exciting time for the association and I'm looking forward to meeting with each and every one of you in New Orleans, so I can better represent you in 1986.

Sincerely,

Lynn Lashbrook
President-Elect

LETTER FROM THE PRESIDENT

Dear N4A Colleagues:

I had the pleasure of hosting the N4A Executive Board meeting in Tallahassee, July 10-13, 1985. The meeting was quite productive and I hope all of you will enjoy the 1986 Convention we have planned.

Every suggestion and proposal submitted to the Executive Board by the membership was presented and given serious consideration and many appear on the tentative convention agenda.

The Executive Board decided to move up the starting time of the convention this year to accommodate an expanded program. Thus, the 1986 N4A Annual Convention will kick off—Thursday evening, January 9th with an early registration and hospitality session for early arrivals. As in the past, we will conclude with a General Meeting on Sunday morning, January 12, after which the new Executive Board will meet before bidding farewell to New Orleans. In addition to our featured keynote and guest speakers from the NCAA and possibly, the Presidents' Commission, the program will include workshops conducted by N4A Members covering such topics as:

- °New member orientation and implementing new programs
- °Study hall-tutoring, assessment tools and study skills
- °Ethical standards
- °Marketing your program
- °Degree completion programs
- °Special panel of NASPA officers

I want to commend President-Elect Lynn Lashbrook and Richard Esquinas for the outstanding job they've done pinch hitting as Editor/Publisher of The National Advisor. I feel confident that Dr. Gerald Gurney, the new Editor, will provide the guidance and leadership to further upgrade the National Advisor into a professional publication of which our membership can be proud.

Looking forward to seeing you in New Orleans.

Yours In Advising,

Brian S. Mand

Brian Mand
President, NAAAA

