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ACADEMIC LIBRARIES AND ATHLETIC DEPARTMENTS: A NURTURING COLLABORATION

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ABSTRACT

Student-athletes must meet the demands of the NCAA regulations known as Propositions 48, 42, and 16 to be eligible for athletic scholarships. University libraries can develop nurturing relationships with athletic departments. This article describes how College Library at the University of Wisconsin, Madison helps with recruitment of "at-risk" student-athletes through precollege outreach programs and with retention by initiating contact and by presenting library user skill modules for student-athletes.

INTRODUCTION

Colleges and universities have revenue-generating sports such as football and men's basketball as an integral part of the educational system. Since the 1980's, there has been severe criticism of intercollegiate athletics based on graduation rates of student-athletes. Many consider the hyphenated term "student-athlete" inherently contradictory since they find that the "athlete" part often outweighs the "student" part (Ross, 1983). Educators and the public became greatly concerned when they learned that only a low percentage of student-athletes graduate. For example, it was found (Blum, 1992) that a graduation rate of only 36.4 percent accounts for all scholarship athletes who entered the University of Central Florida as freshmen in 1983 and 1984 and graduated within six years.

Criticism is harsher about the graduation rates of African American student-athletes who represent a large percentage of football and men's basketball players. In 1989, even though African Americans received only 10 percent of all college athletic scholarships awarded, they represented 52 percent of all Division I men's basketball players and 36 percent of its football players (Ashe, 1989). According to Richard Lapchik at Northeastern University's Center for the Study of Sport in Society (cited in Ashe, 1989), 80-85 percent of

African American football and men's basketball players never graduate from college.

This article will explore the effect of Propositions 48, 42, and 16 as well as the "Student 'Right To Know' Bill" on the eligibility of African American student-athletes for athletic scholarships. Then, it will show how academic libraries can help in the recruitment and retention of these "at risk" African American student-athletes. It will focus on the importance of building a nurturing collaboration between academic libraries and athletic departments (especially the academic counseling sections) to assist student-athletes in keeping their academic eligibility by using the electronic library. The University of Wisconsin's College Library program for student-athletes is described as a model for developing such relationships between university libraries and athletic departments. The article will conclude by explaining how such a collaboration between academic libraries and athletics helps everyone.

REGULATIONS FOR REFORM

The public outcry about the low graduation rates of student-athletes has resulted in Congressional and NCAA efforts to take remedial steps. The "Student 'Right To Know' Bill" requires colleges and universities awarding athletic scholarships to disclose annually the graduation rates, broken down by race and sex, of the students who received such aid. This landmark legislation was designed to make it easier for student-athletes to assess their prospects for obtaining a degree at any given school (Angle, 1993).

Proposition 48 (P48) was enacted by the NCAA as an initial step in reforming the state of intercollegiate athletics by mandating certain minimum requirements for high school coursework and grades as well as a minimum score on a standardized test (Jesudason, 1991). Despite its restrictive requirements, P48 provided a loophole of sorts—a "partial eligibility" clause which allowed student-athletes who did not meet all its requirements to be recruited on athletic scholarships but to sit out their freshman seasons. To close this loophole, the NCAA passed another ruling named Proposition 42 (P42), stating that student-athletes cannot receive any financial aid if they do not meet all the requirements of P48 (Jesudason, 1990). A new reform, Proposition 16 (P16), has been enacted to tighten the admissions requirement and will become effective in August 1995 (Lederman, 1993).

CRITICISMS AGAINST PROPOSITIONS 48, 42, AND 16

Severe criticism has been leveled against all three propositions. One outspoken critic of P48 is Joseph P. Johnson, President of Grambling State University, who argues that an NCAA survey proved P48 is a racist rule instituted by racist people intent on denying black students an education (cited in Farrell, 1987). According to the Knight Foundation Report issued in 1990, 86.5 percent of the football and men's basketball players who have been affected by P48 are African Americans (cited in Wiley, 1991).

Most of the uproar has centered on the NCAA's use of standardized test scores as an absolute cut-off for eligibility. African American coaches argue that the tests are culturally biased, while testing company officials insist that their tests were never intended to serve that function (Lederman, 1991). Many African American student-athletes come from backgrounds in which drugs, poverty, large families, violence, and fatherless homes are a way of life. Disparities in the way of life and educational facilities are reflected by Kelly C. Richards (personal communication, November 11, 1992), an African American library science student at the University of Pittsburgh:

I was raised in a city of about 150,000 people that is about 60% African American. I was raised in an all-black neighborhood and the only time I saw any white people were my teachers in school. I can't remember a time when I was told to go to the library or taken to the library by the teacher in elementary school. . . . In class, I am astonished at the amount of the white students who read some of these books when they were kids and the teachers in my class that assign these books to their 6th grade classes.

Harry Edwards (1983), a sociologist at the University of California, Berkeley argues that the issue centers on the controversy over the parity between black and white institutions involved in the collegiate athletic race. Edwards insists that measures such as the SAT and ACT discriminate principally on the basis of social class, not on the basis of race. He also contends that class-specific values can be learned and that the test standards should be set as post-enrollment goals and not as pre-enrollment obstacles. Temple University head men's basketball coach John Chaney (Davis, 1992) vehemently opposes all three propositions, calling this a game between "the haves and the have-nots:"

What it [all propositions] would mean is that a youngster would have to pay his way to go to school or we end up without him. The only chance for the small school is to get the hell out of the NCAA. That's the only chance they've got. All of the black schools should get out and some of the other small schools should get out of the NCAA. Just formulate their own policies. (p. 10C)

Both Harry Edwards and Arthur Ashe, the renowned African American tennis player, contend that setting up academic standards for admission with athletic scholarships sends the right message to prospective student-athletes. They need their education just as much as any other student on campus for life after their college days. Myles Gordon (1992) states that many high school student-athletes think that they are going to be the next Michael Jordan or Barry Sanders and adds that the chances of a high school athlete getting to the pros are 1 in 10,000. Ashe (1989) points out the cold hard facts that, of the roughly 5.5 million high school varsity and junior varsity athletes, about 1 in 50 will make a college team and 1 in 1000 will sign a professional contract. Ashe also predicts that the ratio of African American male varsity athletes in football and basketball as compared to the total number of African American males in

college will rise within five years in spite of P48 and P42 because African American high school student-athletes will finally realize that their grade point averages are more important than their points-per-game average.

HOW LIBRARIES AID RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION

Recruitment

Since all three propositions aim at academic preparation with required grade point averages in high school and certain scores at or above a required minimum on standardized tests, it has become necessary for academic librarians to do outreach programs to high school "at risk" students as well as academically excellent ones. In addition, as part of the educational reform in the 1990's, outreach programs at colleges and universities seek out "at risk" school populations at an earlier age. It is also part of some strategic planning at the national level, as reflected in various reports from the United States Department of Education and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, to keep the work force in the year 2000 literate and productive in the global market when one-third of United States employees will be minorities. It has been found that the earlier the outreach, the better the chances are of helping students with their grades. Academic libraries are beginning to be team players in outreach programs to middle schools.

The College Library at the University of Wisconsin, Madison provides a library user skills module for many outreach programs such as Upward Bound, Academic Advancement Program, and Summer College Experience Programs. These are special summer programs for students, grades 6 through 12, in target minority groups, namely African American, Hispanics, Native Americans, and Southeast Asian Americans (Hmongs, Cambodians, Laotians, and Vietnamese). Some programs are residential and others non-residential; the programs vary in the length of time that students spend on campus. Librarians in the College Library work with the coordinators of these programs and arrange for students to attend library orientation tours and use self-instructional library skills worksheets.

The library skills module consists of 90 minutes of locational tour and hands-on exercises to familiarize students with on-line computer catalogs for books on Network Library System (NLS) and periodical indexes in CD-ROM (Computer Disc-Read Only Memory) for magazine and journal articles. This module teaches students the basic library search strategy using author, title, subject, and keyword searches. The library orientation tour and hands-on exercises using the computers are designed to achieve the following five goals:

- (1) An understanding that academic libraries are user-friendly and not discipline-oriented areas in colleges and universities.
- (2) Knowledge of the many service desks such as Reference, Information, Circulation, Media, and Microcomputers.

(3) Awareness of special collections in areas such as ethnic studies, women's studies, careers, and recreational reading.

(4) Familiarity with various aspects of library research on their own, encouraging them to build independent study skills and thus their self-esteem.

(5) Consideration of attending this university which has such rich library resources to help them excel academically.

Retention

For many reasons, a large number of minority student-athletes are admitted to colleges and universities ill-prepared to meet the academic demands of the institutions they have chosen. To help these student-athletes meet such rigorous academic standards, there is a need for a network of support services in addition to the individual tutoring provided by athletic departments. These support networks consist of tutoring programs in areas such as mathematics, chemistry, and other subject departments; term paper counseling; study skills; and library skills workshops offered by academic libraries. Student-athletes are at times not able to take advantage of these workshops because of their practice and competition schedules, so special efforts are needed to see that opportunities offered to other students to enhance their academic acumen are also offered to student-athletes at convenient times. Academic libraries play an important role as one of the support services to help student-athletes excel academically.

ONE USER EDUCATION PROGRAM FOR STUDENT-ATHLETES

Most people will agree that during recent decades there has been an explosion of knowledge and that to be able to graduate by using the rich resources of colleges and universities, students need to be library-literate in the electronic libraries of this decade. To achieve the goal of making student-athletes library-literate, the first step is collaboration between academic libraries and athletic departments.

At the University of Wisconsin, Madison, arrangements for library user education classes for football players start even before the end of their summer practice session. This schedule was initiated by the librarians and athletic academic advisors in 1985. Early in September each year, the librarian and athletic advisor negotiate a suitable date for the class to begin.

For sports other than football, a brochure entitled "Library Instruction: A Guide for Coaches" is sent to the coordinator of athletic advisors for distribution. The body of the brochure explains how library user skills are needed to maintain academic eligibility under P48. This is followed by a description of the basic library skills or course-related instruction, giving various components to choose from: (1) learning to use computer catalogs to find books, magazine or journal articles, and newspapers; (2) individual

counseling on researching term papers; and (3) learning the library search strategy. The fourth page is a tear-off sheet with the name of the coach/contact person, office phone number, best time to call, preferred date and time for classes, alternate date and time, number of students, preferred components to be covered in the library user education class, and the address to which the tear-off sheet is to be returned. The library education coordinator then assigns the classes to librarians on the days that classes are requested by the athletic department and academic advisor.

Library user education modules are scheduled for student-athletes from 7:30 PM to 9:00 PM since they are in practice during the early afternoon hours. Only librarians who are willing to volunteer for after-hours library skills classes and who believe in the need to help student-athletes as a special group are encouraged to participate in this program. These librarians must also understand the group dynamics among student-athletes who spend numerous hours together and hence "jive and josh" around, unlike students in course-related classes who sit quietly and listen to the presentation. Class sessions for student-athletes may at times appear to be boisterous. Librarians who are used to orderly and quiet participation by students may find classes for student-athletes to be different.

At the beginning of the fall semester, the student-athletes are sent as a group with a monitor for their study hall in the athletic facility. Usually two groups of 10-15 students each attend the library skills classes; each group has two sessions, and each session lasts one hour. The first session is comprised of basic steps in library search strategy, library survival tips, and using the on-line computer catalog to find books by author, title, subject, and keyword searches. The computer catalog search skills are taught using a microcomputer and a crystal display panel to project the computer screen display on the screen while the librarian does a search for a book using author, title, keyword, or subject access. The student-athletes are given a worksheet to search for books on football and other athletics-related topics to keep their interest levels high while searching. It takes about 30 minutes to do the hands-on exercises and locate a title on the shelf using the call number.

The second session is held on the third day from 7:30 to 8:30 PM and covers how to find relevant articles using CD-ROM periodical indexes. Student-athletes are taught Boolean strategy using the connector words "and" or "or;" they prepare sets of concepts and combine sets. They are also taught the mechanics of using the PROQUEST full text database and print out full articles or find them in print in the various libraries.

At present, because student-athletes have little free time, the library at times has combined both sessions into a single session of ninety minutes. The hands-on session at CD-ROM indexes is left to the discretion of the student-athletes to complete on their own at a later date.

The library and the athletic department have worked out an arrangement of passes for football players to be excused from monitored study

hall to use the library. This is usually done when the players need to give speeches or write term papers for their subject courses. It is another effort to integrate student-athletes with the student population which uses the library frequently with ease for studying or for library research. College Library also conducts sessions for basketball, soccer, and volleyball players when their academic advisors request such classes.

The two instructional sessions help student-athletes feel confident of their skills in finding library resources like any other student. They feel that they do not stand out as "dumb jocks," and they learn to approach the librarians for help without hesitation. Thus, the librarians and libraries build a nurturing relationship with student-athletes and the athletic department.

RATIONALE FOR THIS COLLABORATION

For student-athletes, like other students on campus, graduation is crucial in order to lead a meaningful, financially comfortable life after college days. Frequent visits to the library help with getting better grades and improving the ability to graduate. There is also the additional advantage of integrating student-athletes with the rest of the student population on campus by their frequent visits to the library for research and preparation for classes. For minority children in elementary, middle, and high schools aspiring to go to college, student-athletes on campus will be excellent role models with their good academic and athletic skills and continue in that role as productive citizens in society after graduation.

For institutions, the athletic skills of student-athletes bring prestige and rank in the sports world. But the graduation rates of student-athletes give a sense of pride to the athletic departments of the colleges and universities, making them feel that they have met their obligation to the student-athletes who work so hard to meet the departments' expectations athletically. When critics raise questions about the graduation rates of student-athletes, such library user education programs bring prestige to institutions for their commitment to helping in every possible way all its students, including student-athletes, to graduate. Libraries are recognized for their assistance in achieving some of the goals of their parent institutions, namely, minority recruitment and retention plus an increase in the graduation rates of student-athletes. Such programs also give a sense of pride to the athletic departments and other support services by helping a segment of the "at risk" student population to graduate and become contributing citizens of society, since, according to the American Library Association (1990), "the society, at large, gains when we send student-athletes information literate into the world to cancel out their traditional 'dumb jock' image." Yet because of the current explosion of knowledge, it is important for all students (and perhaps especially student-athletes) to be information literate:

Ultimately, information literate people are those who have learned how to learn. They know how to learn because they know how information is organized, how to find information, and how to use information in

such a way that others can learn from them. They are people prepared for lifelong learning, because they can always find the information needed for any task or decision at hand. (Mensing, 1988, p. 95)

CONCLUSION

With Propositions 48 and 42 implemented and Proposition 16 becoming effective in August 1995, it becomes crucial that college and university athletic departments build collaborative programs with academic support services such as libraries to help student-athletes (and especially "at risk" groups) upgrade their academic skills and earn at least the minimum required grade point average to be eligible for athletic scholarships. Most prospective "at risk" student-athletes cannot otherwise afford to attend college because of their low socioeconomic status. Such programs will help in the recruitment of student-athletes, and continued support of libraries will help not only with the retention of student-athletes, but also with increasing the graduation rates of minority student-athletes. Academic libraries fulfill a nurturing role in support of their universities' athletic programs.

This article is written with the hope that other colleges and universities will be able to use the library user education program for student-athletes at the University of Wisconsin, Madison as a model for developing their own programs to increase the graduation rates of their student-athletes. It is also hoped that successful programs will be shared with others so that academic libraries can modify their programs to meet the changes and challenges of electronic libraries in the decades to come.

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ADVISING FEMALE AND MALE STUDENT-ATHLETES: HOW GENDER DIFFERENCES AFFECT THE ADVISING PROCESS

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ABSTRACT

There is much discussion in the advising profession today regarding the special needs of student-athletes. However, the issue of how gender affects the advising process has been a neglected topic. How does being male or female affect the way students behave in academic and athletic settings? How does gender affect self-esteem, expectations for success, stress, and the resulting behavior of student-athlete populations? How do these issues and advisors' own assumptions affect the way they advise students? The present paper begins a much needed exploration of this important topic.

INTRODUCTION

Since the early 1970's, academic advising has taken on a developmental framework wherein the advisor and the student have shared the responsibility for the academic, social, and career-related progress of the student. According to Crockett (1979), academic advisors concern themselves with the process by which students learn the following tasks: (1) clarifying values and goals; (2) understanding the nature and purpose of higher education; (3) learning about educational and occupation options, requirements, policies, and procedures; and (4) learning to have control over and monitor their academic progress.

Additionally, students are assisted by academic advisors to "... realize the maximum educational benefits available to them by helping them to better understand themselves and to learn to use the resources of an educational institution to meet their special educational needs and aspirations" (Grites, 1979, p. 1). Research on the advising process has based itself primarily upon the theoretical underpinnings found in individual development theory, moral

reasoning theory, and student development theory (Gordon, 1992). Additionally, recent trends in research have been to address the needs of special student populations, such as first-year students, adult students, multicultural student populations, student-athletes, honors students, high-risk students, and others.

One common thread that weaves its way through each of these student populations, but which is rarely discussed, is gender and how it affects the advising process. This paper will explore research on gender-based differences and how these differences are translated into behaviors which affect the educational process. This paper will also discuss implications for advisors and how sensitivity to gender differences can be of assistance in the growth and development of college-aged students.

THEORETICAL ISSUES

In order to look at gender differences in college-aged students, it is first necessary to review what has been said regarding earlier stages of development for girls and boys. Most student development professionals have at the minimum a working knowledge of Erikson's (1950, 1968) theory regarding the eight stages of psychosocial development. Additionally, Chickering (1969) has identified seven developmental tasks which college students need to master in order to move into the realm of adulthood. Along with Erikson and Chickering, most professionals are somewhat familiar with Kohlberg's (1969) six stages of moral development and Piaget's (1965) theory regarding children's moral judgement.

Critics of these traditional theories of human development have pointed out that the original research done to validate these theories used male subjects only and that the male point of reference became the generalizable norm for female development as well. When females have been tested using these norms, differences have been found, which have for the most part been explained as deficiencies in female development (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986; Chodorow, 1978; Gilligan, 1982; Lyons, 1983). These critics contend that the study of women's development cannot be generalized from statistics about men and that women's development is legitimately and qualitatively different from that of men.

Chodorow's (1978) work discusses the gender identity formation of children as related to the mother, who has typically been designated as the primary care-taker in the family during the early childhood years. She believes that mothers experience their daughters as more like themselves, whereas they experience their sons as male opposites. Consequently, as girls begin to identify themselves as females, they see a closeness, similarity, and certain attachment with their mothers. Boys, however, see themselves as separate and different from their mothers, as Chodorow indicates:

Girls emerge with a stronger basis for experiencing another's needs or feelings as one's own. From very early, then, because they are

parented by a person of the same gender . . . girls come to experience themselves as less differentiated than boys, as more continuous with and related to the external object-world. (p. 167)

Gilligan (1982) agrees with the theory espoused by Chodorow and extends it:

For boys and men, separation and individuation are critically tied to gender identity since separation from the mother is essential for the development of masculinity. Since masculinity is defined through separation, while femininity is defined through attachment, male gender identity is threatened by intimacy while female gender identity is threatened by separation. (p. 8)

In a society where individual development has been defined and valued through individuation, self-knowledge, separation, and independent thought and action, it is difficult to believe that there might be an equally valid alternative—one that may be more appropriate for females and that allows males to explore the connectedness that exists in all of us. Perhaps an alternative exists that sees value in both individuality and connectedness.

What do these theoretical issues regarding human development have to do with how college students pursue their education and interact with their college environment? How does gender affect the way students learn? To what do they attribute their academic successes and failures? Are there differences in what women and men expect with regard to academic success, and how do these expectations match actual academic performance? How does this affect their stress levels, their self-esteem, and their resulting actions? What are the advising implications of these needs for female and male college students? In light of any differences which may exist because of gender, how do academic advisors approach advising student-athletes? In particular, how do female and male student-athletes interact with and utilize information about their college experiences? What differences can be seen in the educational and advising needs of female and male student-athletes? Are these perceived differences contrived through advisors' biases, or are they real differences based upon the student behaviors that advisors see on an everyday basis?

Five specific issues found in the literature are of primary concern to the educational development of students: (1) parental attachment; (2) attributions for success and failure; (3) expectation for success; (4) approach to the learning process; and (5) effects of stress. A discussion of each factor as it pertains to gender differences will be followed by specific implications for the advising process.

PARENTAL ATTACHMENT

A recent investigation by Kenny and Donaldson (1991) explored the area of adjustment of first-year college women. The authors confirmed existing research which indicates that most college women remain closely connected to their parents. In fact, parental positive affect, support for autonomy, and

emotional support are clearly associated with the personal and academic adjustment of college women. Additionally, Kenny and Donaldson found support for the idea that parental relationships fraught with guilt, anxiety, or resentment by young women indeed interfere with personal and academic adjustment during the college years.

Other supporting research (Kenny, 1987, 1990; Kenny & Donaldson, 1991) shows that male college students are less attached to parents and more independent of parents in general than are college women. Also, maladjustment to the college experience does not appear as a result of the separation of males from their parents.

The implications for collegiate academic advisors seems clear in this area. When an advisor is working with a female college student who is having difficulty adjusting to her college experience, it is important to explore the student's connection to her family, including the type of parental support that is available. It is critical for advisors to validate the connectedness which females maintain with their families, rather than mistakenly interpreting these feelings as unhealthy dependency. Additionally, it is important to discuss specific parental pressures, expectations, or conflicts which exist, since these may contribute substantially to difficulties in adjustment. This is not to say that males, especially student-athletes, will not also experience stress or parental pressures to perform both academically and athletically. Indeed, for student-athletes the differences which exist with regard to gender and parental attachment might not be as great as with non-athletes. However, advisors should pay particular attention to the debilitating effects which may occur for women.

ATTRIBUTIONS FOR SUCCESS AND FAILURE

A second area of investigation which has been active in the literature for nearly twenty years deals with the attributions which college students make for academic successes and failures. Strong evidence supports the conjecture that in successful situations both males and females tend to use the internal attributions of perceived effort and ability to explain their successes. However, in failure situations females typically use internal attributions, while males use more external attributions (Sweeney, Moreland, & Gruber, 1984). These differences may have a connection with evidence indicating that women report lower levels of self-esteem than do men (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Zuckerman, 1989). In other words, if women believe that the reason they fail is because they do not have the ability or cannot put forth the required effort, they may be more likely also to believe that they are not worthy of success. Additionally, feelings of self-esteem tend to drop as college women move through their academic careers, whereas for males self-esteem tends to rise during the college years. This low self-esteem has been directly related to levels of stress and levels of depression in females (Makosky, 1982).

How can advisors use this information on attributions of success and failure in academic advising settings? First, they can discuss with students what the students believe to be the causes of their successes and failures in specific academic situations. If it is found that a student has difficulty taking personal responsibility for success, areas where success is directly tied to the student's own actions and decisions can certainly be pointed out. If a student attributes failure to a lack of ability in understanding the material, advisors can help the student find strategies to improve in the comprehending or interrelating of the material. If the student believes that the problem was lack of effort, then advisors can suggest alternative behaviors that will connect effort to success, since effort is a changeable factor and one that the student can control.

Because females are more inclined to blame their failures on personal factors, advisors should watch for these patterns of reasoning. Additionally, because males tend to attribute their failures to external factors, advisors may want to consider the implications for a lack of personal responsibility in some situations. The practice of reattribution training, which teaches individuals to attribute successes and failures to more appropriate and psychologically healthy factors, could be used to assist students to modify their beliefs about themselves.

EXPECTATION FOR SUCCESS

A related area of concern in the academic realm is the level of expectation that students have concerning success and failure. Research has indicated strong support for the finding that females have lower expectations of success than do males in academic settings (Basow & Medcalf, 1988; Erkut, 1983; McMahan, 1982). These lower expectations may be a second contributor to women's feelings of lower self-esteem and self-confidence. A critical factor in this research, however, is that although females expect to do worse than males, evidence indicates that there are basically no gender differences in actual academic performance (Basow, 1986; Erkut, 1983).

The advising implications of these differences in expectations for success in males and females are two-fold. First, advisors can assist students to set expectations for achievement based upon past information and behaviors in similar situations. For example, if a student believes that poor performance is likely on an algebra exam, the advisor can explore the student's past experiences and current beliefs about why the student is convinced of this. Then a connection can be made between the reality of past success or failure with the activities and behaviors which led to that outcome. Once a student can connect a series of successful events to specific modified behaviors, then given these same types of behaviors, the expectation for future successes may rise.

Secondly, because males' levels of stated expectations are generally more realistic in relation to actual performance than are females' levels of stated expectations, advisors can work with female students to set realistic, attainable

goals and expectations, to evaluate those goals and expectations periodically, and to make adjustments which more closely match their performance.

THE LEARNING PROCESS

A fourth area of interest for which gender differences have been found is how female and male students approach the learning process. Recent work by Miller, Finley, and McKinley (1990) has shown several major gender differences in how students approach learning. These authors indicate that women tend to be more organized in their approach to learning information than are men. They also appear to be more intrinsically motivated than men. Males are more likely to adopt a learning style that emphasizes the meaningfulness and interrelatedness of material, whereas females tend to move more slowly in the learning process, using an approach which emphasizes memorization and attention to factual evidence. Males score higher on achievement motives than do women but also tend to have more negative attitudes about the purpose for being in college. Men also tend to believe that it is more acceptable to "just get by" academically than do women. Both females and males have difficulty with procrastination and the ability to get started on projects or assignments.

There is certainly a plethora of advising implications for both females and males with regard to learning approaches and motives. First, student services personnel should assess the various learning approaches and strategies used by students and discuss how successful those strategies seem to be in specific learning situations. Secondly, strategies which focus upon a deeper, more integrated method of learning should be used in connection with specific course content. The introduction of an organized and systematic approach to studying can be followed with regular feedback on how useful these strategies are or on how they can be modified to meet the needs of individual students. Males can be encouraged to reflect upon and discuss specific reasons for pursuing their academic careers, thereby connecting professional and personal goals to academic goals. Females can be shown specific methods and learning strategies which will help them more fully integrate material into contextual meaning. Both males and females can be taught step-by-step methods on how to begin preparing for a variety of projects such as research papers, various types of exams, and presentations, so that the feeling of being lost or not knowing where to start will not be transformed into procrastination.

Many of these suggestions and implications regarding the learning process go far beyond the scope or realistic workload of an advisor who has a caseload of 100+ student-athletes. However, student-athletes generally enter the college experience with lower academic performance histories than non-athletes, and they have time and pressure constraints that non-athletes may not experience. Because of these factors, student services personnel must explore the availability of assistance in these areas, looking for way that students can benefit from adjusting the methods they use in approaching their studies.

STRESS

Research has shown that both self-esteem and self-concept are directly related to stress for both women and men (Zuckerman, 1989). In the general literature, females report greater stress in family relationships than do males. Additionally, females tend to avoid rather than confront the problems which they encounter. Males tend to react to stress by becoming more active. A recent report by Smallman, Sowa, and Young (1991) gives additional, specific information on student-athletes' response to stress. These authors found that male student-athletes showed more anxiety around stressful life events but felt more comfortable and less anxious in the competitive athletic setting than did female student-athletes, who showed the reverse reactions.

The implications for academic advisors of student-athletes regarding the different responses that females and males have to stress in their lives are several. First, it is apparent (but not conclusive) that males cope with stress in the athletic setting better than do females and that females cope with stress in their roles as students better than do males. Consequently, academic advisors may wish to assess the specific environments for which stress is the most obvious for both their male and female students. Activities which focus on stress management should be specific to the nature of the stress which is evident. Gender differences in life situations and settings which produce stress should be attended to by student services professionals. Further, advisors must consider the possible differences in how females and males react to stressful situations and help them find coping mechanisms to relieve the stress in a physically, mentally, and emotionally healthy manner.

CONCLUSION

This paper has discussed several basic differences in how female and male college students experience themselves in relation to their college environment. Where appropriate, specific concerns for student-athletes which go beyond those of non-athletes have been discussed. Men and women make certain general assumptions about how they relate to the world and how they develop into healthy adults. There exists an emphasis in the literature upon theoretical paradigms of individual development which have historically been validated and valued in terms of a male model. Females have virtually been ignored in this process. Further research on gender differences among student-athletes may also produce some interesting implications for advisors.

The purpose of this paper was to bring to light some of the differences in how males and females relate to their life experiences and to validate those developmental patterns. The available information regarding college-aged women indicates that student services personnel must acknowledge and validate the differences which exist for both female and male college students. Advisors must also legitimize the process by which both genders relate to the world, while promoting life skills which allow each person to develop and grow toward individual potentials.

Finally, it is important for student service professionals to continue to assess their own ways of relating to the world as individuals, family members, significant others, advisors, colleagues, and friends. How are such professionals connected to each other and how are they separate? What sorts of gender expectations, myths, and identity development have been experienced? How do those experiences affect the ways advisors relate to each other and to their students? How can advisors advocate healthy, caring, goal-oriented development of their students in ways that are valid for both men and women? These are questions which require continual reflection and dialogue—questions which can be answered only through the day-to-day challenges which confront advisors and the ways in which they choose to respond.

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CAREER ISSUES FOR THE FEMALE STUDENT-ATHLETE

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ABSTRACT

This article discusses the career development needs, issues, and concerns of female student-athletes, a group which faces a variety of problems that are not encountered by male student-athletes. Implications for counseling female student-athletes are identified.

INTRODUCTION

Female student-athletes are receiving greater attention with respect to their personal, academic, and career development. Since the implementation of Title IX and greater involvement by the NCAA in women's sports, women's participation in both team and individual sports has steadily increased. But just as the social and cultural expectations are different for men and women in the society at large, female student-athletes face unique issues that must be explored. It is recognized that female student-athletes face a variety of problems that are not encountered by male student-athletes. Issues such as pursuing a professional career after college, choosing marriage and family, and combining a number of roles may pose a dilemma for these women. Without an understanding of the whole person, as well as the institutional and societal limitations encountered by female student-athletes, coaches and administrators will be presented with formidable barriers in recruiting, retaining, and promoting the personal, academic, and social development of young female student-athletes.

As intercollegiate and professional athletics become increasingly more visible and as participation opportunities for girls and women grow, there is a greater need to become aware of those issues specific to female student-athletes. Women are challenging the old guard and beginning to achieve equity in sports; consequently, career development becomes more important in their lives.

Therefore, it is appropriate to devote attention to the examination of the specific career development needs of female student-athletes.

SEX ROLE SOCIALIZATION

Most experts agree that by the time children reach the age of three, they are aware of themselves as being a particular sex; some experts suggest that sex role socialization begins as early as the cradle (Richmond-Abbott, 1983). Children quickly learn the roles that society expects, and prominent differences appear frequently between the attitudes and behaviors of boys and girls. During early childhood, girls surpass boys in nearly every area of learning. However, as girls enter adolescence, their intellectual functioning appears to plummet. This intellectual deterioration is seen by some to be in response to the way girls are treated socially as they mature (Harrison, 1973) and is of concern because it has been found that the consistency of a person's past behavior with gender stereotypes will affect predictions of future behavior (Berndt & Heller, 1986). Also, it has been shown that, although girls begin working in jobs with higher status, boys receive higher wages despite the status of their jobs (Meyer, 1987). This type of information may be extremely frustrating and may adversely influence young girls in pursuit of career aspirations.

Teenage girls quickly recognize that being smart can easily threaten the self-esteem of teenage boys. For example, almost twenty years ago, Kundsén (1974) suggested that girls exhibiting their intelligence may conflict with their own well-learned concepts of what is feminine. The female adolescent may find that the socializing influence of parents and peers also affects her involvement in sports (Brown, 1989; Kane, 1988). Consequently, girls' commitment to athletic career goals tends to lessen, while their interest in marrying and having children increases.

The female student-athlete usually does not have the career options for professional sports that are presented to males. Despite her athletic prowess, she may receive pressure from society to adhere to the traditional roles of wife and mother, and she will inevitably encounter few role models, discrimination, stereotypes, and a host of other pressures from society. Female role models in leadership positions are limited (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985). For example, there is a steady decline in the number of women who coach girls' interscholastic athletic teams (Hasbrook, 1987), and collegiate athletic programs reveal very low percentages of female administrators (Farrell, 1985).

BARRIERS

Career development and educational barriers are erected as early as the initiation of sex role socialization. Lack of encouragement toward independent behavior, differences in social expectations at home and school, sex discrimination, lack of role models, and an unfriendly campus climate, as well as devaluation of those areas mastered by females, all contribute to the career

and educational barriers women encounter (Harrison, 1983; Association of American Colleges, 1985; Hall & Sandler, 1984). Being a female student-athlete only exacerbates this situation. Coleman and Barker (1991, 1992) have previously identified barriers to the career development of student-athletes; these barriers assume greater significance for the female student-athlete. Internal barriers for female student-athletes include, but are not limited to, lack of information, fear of failure and/or success, and limited work experience in sports, while external barriers include those of few mentors and role models, family and public expectations, discrimination, and lack of opportunities in the profession.

Certainly, when it comes to preparing for a career, a young woman must approach her decision from a much different perspective than her male peer because of society's expectation of the wife/mother role. Women's ability to achieve their career goals may, still today, depend on such varying factors as whom they choose as a husband, the location of his job, his earnings, and the number of children in her care.

Despite recent attempts to provide an equal education for every citizen who qualifies, colleges and universities are still struggling to achieve equity for all students. Higher education, with its costs, procedures, and rigid schedules, may be especially problematic for female student-athletes. Aside from the now well-known gender bias in areas such as textbooks, staffing, and athletic programs, discrimination has been observed and documented in the attitudes of faculty and administration at all levels. This may be particularly apparent in athletic departments. Such attitudes tend to create a more hostile environment for female student-athletes and may greatly reduce their opportunities for success.

Although the academy or the athletic departments cannot be expected to resolve what are, in many cases, normal developmental crises for women, educational institutions can work toward creating an environment in which women can manage their unique conflicts with more support from the school system. For example, academic counselors who are knowledgeable regarding the special needs of female student-athletes can facilitate the recruitment process, as well as increase retention. Accordingly, personal, academic, and career development will be enhanced and athletic performance improved.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALE STUDENT-ATHLETES

There is a dearth of research on female student-athletes and specifically on their career development; the research that exists does not follow a common theme. The NCAA and other organizations have indicated that female student-athletes graduate at a much higher rate than male student-athletes. Marsh and Jackson (1984) found that female student-athletes have substantially higher scores in masculinity as compared to non-athlete females, while femininity scores did not differ. In more recent studies, female student-

athletes indicate more positive feelings toward their bodies than non-athletic women (Brylinsky, 1990). More research is critical to understanding how such variables relate to the personal, academic, and professional lives of female student-athletes.

Clearly, career development models used by males must contain components that will accommodate the special needs and concerns of female student-athletes. For example, in order to be able to identify specific career objectives, two areas which must be given in-depth exploration are self-assessment and decision-making.

Self-assessment, in terms of the female student-athlete's values, interests, abilities, and personality, is a significant factor to consider when counseling this population. Are her values congruent with those of female professional athletes? Will home and family assume a role in her life, and if so, when? Can the university she selects be sensitive to her unique needs as a female student-athlete and to her long-term career goals?

Decision-making is a skill that can be learned. How the female student-athlete makes decisions will determine the direction and quality of her life, be it in athletics, another career area, or more traditional roles. As a woman, the complexity of such decisions may require her to seek special training in the decision-making process. Helping young female student-athletes identify their decision-making strategies and styles can facilitate more positive choices.

Another area in which girls and women have fallen behind is gathering information about educational, occupational, and community information. Oftentimes, access to information and resources is limited; for example, female student-athletes frequently are not provided appropriate career counseling that would facilitate their exploration of non-traditional roles and positions like those available in athletics. Therefore, gaining occupational information may be more of a challenge for women seeking opportunities in the athletic arena. While males predominate in all levels of this field, career positions for women are frequently restricted.

IMPLICATIONS

If it is true that female student-athletes will usually have different issues and concerns than male student-athletes, there are a number of implications for the counselors, academic advisors, or other professionals involved in the lives of these young women.

Those interested in the career development of female student-athletes must be aware of the specific needs of this special population. An understanding of sex role socialization and its societal effects is necessary for the delivery of comprehensive educational services for female student-athletes. Young women and girls must also be informed of the unlimited career options available to them. Self-management skills related to self-assessment,

assertiveness, decision-making, time management, and other necessary social skills should be integral components of any career development program for female student-athletes.

In addition, professionals will need specific training in a variety of areas in order to better understand the varying academic, psychological, and physical responses of women in sports. As women develop more aggressiveness on the playing fields and enter new sports, trainers, coaches, and administrators must learn to deal with increases in certain injuries (Poters, 1986). Injuries and reproductive or sex-related issues, as well as successful entry into the work force, must be discussed in terms of the extent of insitutional responsibility (Evans, 1986). Personnel who work with female student-athletes must expand their knowledge base to include the specific dimensions of the student-athletes' psychological, medical, legal, and ethical concerns.

Research on female student-athletes should add to the current literature by examining such issues as the effects of interpersonal relationships on female student-athletes, the impact of race on women's sports, the influence of sex equity on athletics, and the newly apparent training needs of those involved with female student-athletes.

SUMMARY

This article addressed some of the career development issues encountered by female student-athletes. As this population attempts to gain more equity in the sports arena, it is imperative that counselors, academic advisors, coaches, administrators, and educators identify the many forces that may impinge upon the success of this group. Implications for professionals were also discussed.

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GENDER DIFFERENCES IN UNIVERSITY STUDENT-ATHLETES' EXPRESSED LEVELS OF ACADEMIC AND ATHLETIC MOTIVATION

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ABSTRACT

A survey conducted among 670 student-athletes at five campuses of a large western university system revealed differences between males and females in the level of motivation they expressed for pursuing athletic versus academic success. Teams on three of the campuses surveyed compete at the Division I level, whereas teams on the remaining two compete in Division III. At both divisional levels, females expressed greater academic motivation than did their male counterparts. Implications of these results for university administrators and counselors are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Recent NCAA investigations into gender equity among college and university athletic programs have begun to focus attention on economic differences between men's and women's athletics. These financial analyses point out some factual differences but stop short of probing the educational aspects of male and female orientations toward athletics and academics.

Women's sports at the university and college levels have not developed and proliferated to the degree that men's sports have. Title IX, a federal statute which mandates equal expenditures in all areas of education for men and women, was instituted in 1974. Thus, it could be speculated that over the last two decades women's athletic programs have had some "catching up" to do in terms of funding and development. It is also expected that, as there are far fewer post-college occupational options for women in sports, the level of college sport participation among women might reflect a lack of involvement and motivation.

Research into the area of gender differences regarding academics and athletics has increased in recent years. Brown and Holzman (1955) noted significant differences in favor of college women over men on 65% of questions regarding orientation to academic study. Mayo (1982) found that female student-athletes at Ohio State University achieved significantly greater academic success than did male student-athletes who participated in either revenue or non-revenue sports. Purdy, Eitzen, and Hufnagel (1982) and Kiger and Lorentzen (1988) found significant gender differences in favor of female over male student-athletes on various measures of academic performance, including grade point average, graduation rates, and academic probation. The American Institutes for Research (1989) found that women student-athletes spent significantly more hours preparing for and attending classes than did their male counterparts. Curry and Weiss (1989) found differences in the amount and type of athletic motivation between male and female college student-athletes.

One contradictory piece of evidence was reported by Henschen and Fry (1984). In their longitudinal study, an "alarming decline" was found in female student-athletes' graduation rates from 1973 to 1982 at the University of Utah. The authors noted that the decline had occurred since the implementation of Title IX.

The purpose of this study was to examine possible differences between male and female student-athletes in regard to their expressed levels of academic versus athletic motivation. It was expected that across all levels of college sport competition and professionalism, the mean academic motivation scores of female student-athletes would be significantly higher than those of male student-athletes.

METHOD

Two terms necessary to assess motivational aspects of college student-athletes are academic motivation and athletic motivation. Academic motivation has been defined as "the persisting motive to achieve in school" (Buxton, 1966, p. 192). A general definition of athletic motivation is "the persistent need or desire to persevere, excel, or succeed in physical tasks" (Hilgard, Atkinson, & Atkinson, 1971, p. 579). This is a broader construct distinct from "episodic" athletic motivation, which "consist[s] of [motivational] demands occurring over periods as long as a season as well as those occurring within a more constricted time frame" (Cratty, 1989, p. 198).

As a method of standardizing the academic backgrounds of the sample, student-athletes from three different Division I programs and two different Division III programs in a large western university system were surveyed in February 1992 (see Table 1). These schools do not offer physical education as an academic major, so there was no carryover from the student-athletes' sport into the vocation or field of study they may choose upon graduation.

Table 1

Background Data (Divisions I and III Combined)

	Males	Females
U.S. Citizen	93.1%	96%
Admitted as freshman	66%	71.4%
Year in school	Sophomore +	Sophomore
Parents' Education	Beyond Bachelor's degree	Bachelor's and/or Master's degree
Parents' Income	Less than \$60,000	Less than \$60,000

In the survey, the subjects put themselves in seven different situations where they had to choose between responses more athletically inclined versus those that were academically oriented (see appendix). After reading each scenario, they chose from among four alternatives. The fixed alternatives forced the male and female respondents to articulate differences between a more athletic choice and a more academic one.

The respondents' choices were scored on a Likert scale from 1 to 4, with 1 being a more academically and 4 being a more athletically inclined response ("a" = 1, "b" = 2, "c" = 3, "d" = 4). T-tests of statistical significance were run on each of the seven items.

RESULTS

Based upon the prior research cited in this study, it was hypothesized that differences between male and female student-athletes in regard to their athletic and academic motivation would not be great. However, very dramatic gender differences were seen in both levels of intercollegiate competition, as revealed by the data in Table 2. These means reflect the expressed levels of academic/athletic motivation.

There is ample evidence, as exhibited in Table 2, to support the hypothesis that male student-athletes, regardless of divisional level, have significantly lower levels of expressed academic motivation than do female student-athletes. At the Division I level, in five out of the seven situations (i.e., road trip, field trip, graduation choice, final exam study, and roommate choice) female student-athletes chose more academically inclined responses than did their male counterparts. Four of these five items were significant at the .01 level. Similarly, Division III female student-athletes also chose at statistically significant levels the more academically inclined responses in five items (i.e., road trip, field trip, graduation choice, roommate choice, and late start options). Four of these were significant at the .01 level. Interestingly, the Division I

women showed gender differences in the "final exam" situation, but not in the "late start," whereas the Division III women's responses were the reverse. Results for each situation are described below.

Table 2

Gender Comparison of Athletic versus Academic Motivation

Division I	Male n=282	Female n=153	T-value	Prob.
Motivation Items	mean (s.d.)			
1. Road trip	2.129 (1.013)	1.743 (0.759)	4.106	.000**
2. Preregistration	2.032 (0.835)	1.980 (0.685)	0.655	.513
3. Field trip	3.150 (0.780)	2.868 (0.660)	3.779	.000**
4. Graduation choice	1.874 (1.317)	1.105 (0.447)	7.002	.000**
5. Final exam study	1.929 (0.921)	1.625 (0.735)	3.503	.001**
6. Roommate choice	2.873 (1.355)	2.520 (1.464)	2.486	.013**
7. Late start options	2.469 (1.202)	2.284 (1.082)	1.568	.118
Division III	Male n=135	Female n=100	T-value	Prob.
1. Road trip	1.978 (0.926)	1.710 (0.782)	-2.338	.020*
2. Preregistration	1.637 (0.698)	1.650 (0.702)	-0.140	.888
3. Field trip	3.045 (0.793)	2.710 (0.820)	-3.147	.002**
4. Graduation choice	1.585 (1.142)	1.121 (0.500)	-3.783	.000**
5. Final exam study	1.607 (0.713)	1.640 (0.759)	-0.337	.736
6. Roommate choice	2.440 (1.459)	1.909 (1.348)	-2.837	.005**
7. Late start options	2.400 (1.134)	1.990 (0.927)	-2.957	.003**

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .01 level

Weekend Competition Road Trip

In situation #1, male student-athletes at both divisional levels were less likely than were females to prepare on the road for a Monday midterm after a weekend competition. The males were more likely to read only a portion of the material necessary to prepare for the exam, whereas the females tended to want to read and take notes on "as much if not all of the [exam] material."

Preregistration

In situation #2, when determining preregistration class load, females were not significantly more academically oriented than the males at either the

Division I or III level. Both male and female Division I student-athletes would make sure to include "at least one other class [that] is not very vigorous" in their preregistration class load. The Division III males and females would both choose their class load without a necessary regard for one less rigorous class.

Field Trip

The decision of whether or not to choose to go on a field trip, as posed in situation #3, resulted in female student-athletes at both divisional levels being more likely to go on the field trip, with the coach's approval. Males, on the other hand, would try to find some way of making up the field trip or miss it altogether.

Graduation Choice

It is somewhat self-evident that among all the student-athletes in the sample, few have the opportunity to turn professional, and even fewer female student-athletes have this opportunity. Thus, in situation #4 when choosing whether or not to graduate, most female student-athletes chose to return after their fourth year to finish their degrees. Male student-athletes, on the other hand, in both Divisions I and III were more likely to choose other options, such as traveling, taking a job, or turning professional.

Studying for Final Exams

Division I female student-athletes were more likely than males to spend more time studying for their final exams in order to get the best possible grades, as reflected in situation #5. This gender difference was not found at the Division III level.

Choice of Roommates

Female student-athletes' choices of roommates in situation #6 was more likely to be based on non-athlete criteria than their male counterparts' choices at both divisional levels. At the Division I level, this difference was based upon the choice of team member or non-athlete. At the Division III level, the difference was based upon dormitory versus sorority and fraternity environment.

Late Start

Finally, when faced with a late start on the day in situation #7, females were more likely to choose to miss one half of the morning class and miss part of the afternoon practice in order to make up the academic material. Male Division III student-athletes were more likely to get notes for the second half of

the class they missed and not miss practice for their sport. This difference was not as prevalent in Division I, nor was it significant at that level.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study examined the levels of expressed academic and athletic motivations among male and female student-athletes at five campuses of a large western university system. As consistent with research reported earlier in this study, female student-athletes seem consistently to prioritize academics over athletics more so than male student-athletes, regardless of whether they are competing at the Division I or III level. At the Division I level, this disparity between male and female academic inclinations does not seem surprising. Most studies comparing males and females in Division I have agreed that female student-athletes prepare more conscientiously and achieve at higher levels than their male counterparts.

What is unusual is that these differences occur at the Division III level also. Without the influence of athletic scholarships, it might be expected that a closer set of perspectives and motivational levels between Division III male and female student-athletes exists. Such was not the case.

It was also curious that Division III males and females were very close in terms of their final exam study preferences (situation #5). This could mean that grades, in the context of their relationship to final exams, are still very important to male student-athletes in Division III, at least in comparison to Division I male student-athletes. Another anomaly between Divisions I and III appears to be the differences in starting late for classes during the day (situation #7). Female Division I student-athletes appear to be closer to the choice of getting notes for classes missed than either their Division I or III male counterparts. In contrast, Division III females seem more inclined to go to a repeat class and miss part of their athletic practice.

An underlying question not answered in this research is why the levels of academic motivation are higher for women than men. Situation #4 (the graduation choice), which produced the largest reported mean difference in answers, might provide some insight into the academic/athletic gender difference. Because there are few professional sports avenues for women to pursue, the college degree takes on more meaning and is a more important goal for female than for male student-athletes. Mayo (1982) made note of this lack of a female professional sports career in her study. She also went on to say that female student-athletes may not feel the "pressure" of competition because of the lack of professional options.

Another underlying factor perhaps relevant to the disparity in the academic inclinations of male and female student-athletes is parents' educational background (see Table 1). This difference, which shows the female student-athletes as having parents with a higher level of educational background, is significant at the .05 level. This point deserves further research.

From another perspective, these results could lead to the conjecture that female student-athletes do not place as much importance on athletics as do their male counterparts. Perhaps there is a connection with the underlying motivational aspects of participating in sport, and these may be different for males than for females. Mathes and Battista (1985) and Curry and Weiss (1989) noted that women rated competition lower and social experience higher as motives for participating in physical activity and sport. Whitson (1990) argues that sport (especially if combative in nature) "ritualizes aggression and allows it to be linked with competitive achievement and, in turn, with masculinity" (p. 28). Thus, as gender specific traits begin to change for both men and women in our society, perhaps the motivations of males and females in athletics will transform also.

The results of this study should alert athletic academic advisors and administrators. The priority of academics over athletics is a necessary goal for male student-athletes, regardless of whether they are competing at the Division I or III level. Male student-athletes, more so than their female counterparts, must be sensitized to the value of attaining their college degrees and putting forth conscientious efforts to achieve their goals.

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APPENDIX

SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE

Situation 1: You are on a weekend competition road trip. You have competed already on Friday and Saturday. Your last competition on Saturday ended at 4:00 p.m. You have approximately 6-8 hours of open time left on Saturday. Your first midterm is on Monday at 9:00 a.m. and it comprises 40% of your grade in that class. Your only preparation for this midterm thus far has been going to class and taking notes. Your choice for the next 6-8 hours of the day would be:

- ☐ a. After eating, read and take notes on as much if not all of the material for the Monday midterm.
- ☐ b. After eating, read a portion of the material for the midterm and review my notes.
- ☐ c. After eating, read a portion of the material for the midterm and then relax.

- ☐ d. After eating, relax and do something not requiring a good deal of concentration such as reading a newspaper or magazine.

Situation 2: You are doing pre-registration for the upcoming term. You know that this term will be your most demanding for your sport. The NCAA minimum for eligibility is 12 units. (An average class load is 15 units.) In choosing your class schedule, there is one class that you must take as a requirement for your major. This class is only offered once a year and will put you at 15 units. Assuming you could get all of those classes you want, you would:

- ☐ a. Take the class that is only offered once a year. [Total = 15 units]
- ☐ b. Take the class, but be sure that at least one other class is not very rigorous. [Total = 15 units]
- ☐ c. Take the class, but be sure to take all the other classes that aren't as rigorous. [Total = 15 units]
- ☐ d. Not take the class, and be sure to have the minimum 12 units.

Situation 3: A field trip, which happens to conflict with a competition, has been planned for one of your classes. The field trip is offered only once during the quarter and has a write-up which is not part of your final grade. The athletic competition is against an average opponent. Your choice would be:

- ☐ a. To go on the field trip, letting the coach know.
- ☐ b. To go on the field trip, with the coach's approval.
- ☐ c. To try and find some way of "making up" what is missed on the field trip.
- ☐ d. To miss the field trip.

Situation 4: It is the end of your fourth year of school and you have finished your last season of eligibility. You find that you need more than one term's worth of units to finish your Bachelor's degree. Your options (assuming there would be necessary school funding from parents, relatives, job, etc.) are:

- ☐ a. Go back to the university and finish the necessary units as soon as possible.
- ☐ b. Travel, take time off, and return to finish the units necessary for the degree.
- ☐ c. Accept a job offer in your sport that might not be available one year from now.

- ____ d. Turn professional in your sport, assuming this option exists.

Situation 5: Final examinations are one week away (dead week). For each of your classes your grade going into the final is between a "B" and a "C." The finals can determine all grades one full letter above or below the grade you currently hold (e.g., Hi: "A," Lo: "D"). In deciding how much time to spend in preparation for the exams, your expectations and demands on yourself would be:

- ____ a. To spend as much time studying as was spent during the rest of the term so that the classes are passed and I could possibly keep the grades I currently have (and stay athletically eligible).
- ____ b. To spend more time studying than during the regular term so as to ensure that for at least some classes my grades will be the same or better than they now stand.
- ____ c. To spend much more time than during the regular term so as to ensure that for all classes my grades will be better than they now stand.
- ____ d. To spend as much time as is feasibly possible in order to achieve the highest possible grade in every class.

Situation 6: Your plans for rooming next year need to be done within a week. As you are a popular and likeable person, you have many options to choose from. These housing options are:

- ____ a. A dormitory or apartment with non-athletes who are above average students.
- ____ b. A fraternity or sorority with non-athletes who are average students.
- ____ c. A fraternity or sorority with team members who are average or less than average students.
- ____ d. An apartment with team members who are average or less than average students.

Situation 7: Your day has started off on the "wrong foot." Your alarm did not go off so that, at best, you would only be able to attend half of an early morning class. This same class is offered at a time that starts in the middle of practice for your sport. It is close to the midterm so there may be "more" important material being covered in the class. However, the athletic practice is close to an upcoming competition. Your choice would be to:

- ____ a. Go to the repeat afternoon class interfering with practice.

- ____ b. Go to half the class and half the repeat afternoon class, making as much of the athletic practice as possible.
- ____ c. Go to half the morning class and get the rest of the notes from another student in the class.
- ____ d. Not go to class that day and get the notes from another student in the class.

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BUILDING RAPPORT WITH STUDENT-ATHLETES: A SURVEY OF COUNSELOR STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT

The importance of rapport in counseling student-athletes is commonly accepted, but the process of developing rapport has received little attention. Members of the National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletics (N4A) completed a questionnaire about methods they believed were important and effective in building rapport with student-athletes. Respondents also described the ways in which they enticed student-athletes to use the services offered. Results and implications for athletic counselors are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

It is commonly accepted among counselors and psychotherapists that a strong therapeutic relationship is the cornerstone of client change (Brammer, 1979; Ivey & Simek-Downing, 1980; Rogers, 1957, 1975). Rogers (1957) has identified several "necessary and sufficient" conditions that facilitate client change. One of these preconditions is empathy. Empathy can be defined as the counselor's or therapist's ability to genuinely and appropriately share in the client's experience from the client's perspective (Brammer, 1979; Rogers, 1957) and permits the development of rapport. Rapport, in turn, permits the process of change to occur. Without a strong alliance between client and

therapist, facilitating change—never an easy process under the most favorable of circumstances—is made particularly difficult.

The importance of rapport is not limited to the formal relationships of counseling and psychotherapy. Less formal helping relationships, such as those engaged in by counselors with student-athletes, also benefit from the same precondition of rapport. Its necessity and value with student-athletes are well understood by counselors who work with this population. Discussions of the various support services for student-athletes on college and university campuses across the country attest to the importance of empathic relationships with student-athletes (Ferrante & Etzel, 1991; Jordan & Denson, 1990). A common characteristic that makes support programs effective is the time and effort devoted to fostering relationships with student-athletes. Other writers have addressed the barriers facing student-athletes who use—or might like to use—the services offered by counselor and psychologists (Linder, Brewer, Van Raalte, & DeLange, 1991; Linder, Pillow, & Reno, 1989; Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989). The presence of a strong counselor/athlete relationship can serve to reduce the potency of these barriers.

While the importance of rapport in counseling student-athletes has been acknowledged both directly and indirectly (Coleman & Barker, 1992; Kirk & Kirk, 1992), the strategies and techniques used by athletic counselors to build rapport have not been widely discussed. In essence, while the counseling and psychotherapy literature supports the intuitive knowledge that rapport is important, the literature relevant to counseling student-athletes has not yet explored or articulated how rapport is built.

PURPOSE

The present study sought to identify the different methods that counselors use to develop rapport with student-athletes. The study examined what techniques are actually used as well as the effectiveness of these methods. A secondary purpose of this study was to discover how athletic counselors attract student-athletes to programs, workshops, and other activities sponsored by student-athlete support services. The study also sought to chronicle significant developmental experiences of counselors in building rapport, as well as seeking their advice for new counselors. The latter issues are discussed elsewhere (Denson & Green, 1993).

METHOD

Participants

The participants in this study were members of the National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletics (N4A). All registered members affiliated with a college or university were contacted and asked to participate.

Procedures

The literature on counseling student-athletes did not provide a model or methods for studying the questions of interest. Therefore, it was necessary to devise an instrument to explore the ways in which rapport is developed. The Student-Athlete Rapport Survey (SARS) was developed to elicit responses from academic advisors and athletic counselors about the methods they use to build rapport. The SARS is a 38-item questionnaire; 10 items use a forced-choice, 4-point Likert scale (see appendix). Respondents were asked to rate the effectiveness of a method based on how effective the methods actually are for them. Five items were open-ended to acknowledge that there would be effective methods not covered in the forced-choice items. Follow-up questionnaires were sent out approximately six weeks after the initial mailing to those who failed to return their questionnaires.

Analyses

Descriptive methods were the primary means of data analysis. Cross tabulations were also run on the methods employed and the effectiveness ratings of those methods. In addition to the descriptive methods, correlations were computed for rapport-building methods to explore the relationships of the methods used. T-tests were conducted to compare method effectiveness ratings by gender.

RESULTS

Responses to SARS provided information in four general categories: (1) demographic information about the sample of respondents; (2) general information about the respondents' athletic support programs; (3) methods of rapport-building and their impact; and (4) respondents' recommendations for those interested in pursuing a career in the field. The recommendations to novices are described elsewhere (Denson & Green, 1993).

Sample Characteristics

The survey was sent to 385 members of the N4A; 213 usable surveys were returned (55%), comprising the final sample used for the data analysis. Of the respondents, 112 (53%) were female and 99 (46%) were male. The gender of two respondents could not be determined. The sample was comprised of support service personnel working with student-athletes at all three divisions of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA), and the National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA). The vast majority (84%) of respondents was affiliated with NCAA Division I institutions ($n = 178$). Eight percent ($n = 16$) were at NCAA Division II institutions, six percent ($n = 12$) were from NJCAA colleges, and approximately one percent each were from NCAA Division III ($n = 3$) and NAIA ($n = 2$) institutions. Affiliations for two respondents could not be

determined. Respondents had worked with student-athletes for periods ranging from 1 month to 30 years, with an average length of service of 7.03 years ($SD = 5.11$).

Support Program Staffing Characteristics

Respondents worked within athletic programs of various sizes, up to 1100 student-athletes ($M = 397.38$, $SD = 190.34$). Staff size for full-time support services ranged from 1 to 13 ($M = 3.85$, $SD = 2.99$); part-time staff size ranged from 1 to 16 ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 2.87$). Part-time staff included secretaries and graduate students. Neither category included tutors. With some programs, especially the smaller ones, respondents were responsible for all intercollegiate student-athletes. Other programs divided primary responsibility by teams among support service personnel.

Rapport-Building Methods

Counselor Use of Methods. Results of the survey revealed that a variety of methods was employed to build rapport. The most frequently cited method that athletic counselors used was inviting student-athletes to their offices (94%). Counselors requiring student-athletes to meet with them and counselors making their presence known at home games were both used by 85% of the respondents. A number of respondents also mentioned that they attended study hall (80%) and practice (78%), and that coaches required the student-athletes to meet with them (78%).

Survey respondents identified a variety of rapport-building techniques in addition to those suggested on the survey form. Nearly half of all respondents reported using other methods. The most frequently mentioned methods were talking to recruits, attending team meetings, and holding a freshman orientation meeting. Other methods included teaching classes, contacting family members personally, visiting student-athletes at residence or dining halls, working out in the weight room, dropping notes in lockers, meeting informally "on purpose" with student-athletes, sponsoring a student-athlete advisory board, monitoring academic progress, writing letters to student-athletes, attending awards banquets, participating in community service clubs, having phone conversations, and producing student-athlete newsletters. One respondent summed up the scope of their efforts succinctly by writing, "... we utilize every means possible to reach out and meet student-athletes."

Effectiveness of Methods. Ratings of the effectiveness of the different methods used to build rapport were similar, with counselors indicating that the various methods were generally quite effective. Effectiveness ratings are summarized in Table 1. Inviting students to the counselor's office was rated as very effective by the most respondents (63%). Requiring students to meet the counselor in the office was rated as very effective by 57% of the respondents, while coaches requiring student-athletes to meet with the counselor was rated as very effective by 56%. Fifty-three percent of the

respondents felt that attending study hall was very effective. Results of ANOVAs comparing ratings of method effectiveness by gender were significant only for the perceived effectiveness of the "word-of-mouth" method. Females rated that method as more effective ($F[1,182] = 8.48, p = .004$).

Table 1

Ratings of Method Effectiveness

Method	Effectiveness (%)			
	Ineffective	Slightly	Moderately	Very
Attending Practices	7.0	24.3	31.4	37.3
Attending home competitions	1.5	19.6	31.4	47.5
Attending road competitions	8.9	23.3	29.4	37.8
Inviting student-athletes to office	0.0	7.8	29.4	62.7
Requiring student-athletes to meet with you	1.5	11.6	30.2	56.8
Attending student-athlete study hall	3.8	13.8	29.2	53.0
Recommendations/"word-of-mouth" of other student-athletes	2.7	26.5	32.4	37.8
Coaches required student-athletes to meet with you	2.1	13.9	28.4	55.7
Introduced to student-athletes by other support staff members	8.0	30.7	36.2	25.2
Introduced to student-athletes by coaches	2.8	13.0	34.5	49.7

More than half of the respondents rated each method listed as either moderately effective or very effective. Introductions by support staff received the lowest effectiveness rating, with 39% evaluating it as only slightly effective or as ineffective. This may be, however, because most programs divide staff responsibility by teams. It may be unlikely that one support staff member would know another staff member's team well enough to introduce student-athletes to the person who is responsible for that team.

Relationships of Methods Used. Pearson product moment correlations were computed by method, with a number of significant relationships emerging. Although it was not the purpose of this study to provide a factor analysis of methods, it is possible to view several sets of correlations as comprising informal clusters. Counselors who invite student-athletes into their offices appear to use virtually any means they can to enhance rapport. Inviting student-athletes to the counselor's office was significantly correlated with all other methods except for introductions by other support staff, word-of-mouth from other student-athletes, and attending study hall. The strongest correlation was counselors inviting and counselors requiring student-athletes to meet with them ($r = .2285, p = .01$).

Attending practice was significantly related to being introduced to student-athletes by the coach ($r = .3301, p = .01$), making presence known at away games ($r = .2494, p = .05$), and making presence known at home games ($r = .1936, p = .05$). One explanation of this cluster of correlations is that some counselors feel that interacting with student-athletes in their competitive environment is especially valuable. The competitive arena or playing field may foster a greater sense of comfort for student-athletes than does the office. Counselors requiring student-athletes to meet with them was significantly related to the coach requiring the student-athlete to meet with the counselor ($r = .2459, p = .01$), being introduced by the coach ($r = .2126, p = .01$), and attending study hall ($r = .1646, p = .05$). This particular pattern of correlations suggests utilization of a more coercive style and methods on the counselor's part.

Counselors making their presence known at home games was significantly related to making their presence known at away games ($r = .4809, p = .01$), being introduced by the coach ($r = .2634, p = .01$), and attending study hall ($r = .1469, p = .05$). Making their presence known at away games was significantly correlated with relying on word-of-mouth ($r = .2556, p = .01$) and being introduced to the student-athletes by the coach ($r = .2462, p = .01$).

Relying on word-of-mouth was also significantly related to coaches requiring student-athletes to meet with the counselor ($r = .2938, p = .01$), being introduced to student-athletes by the coach ($r = .2661, p = .01$), and being introduced to the student-athletes by support staff ($r = .1838, p = .01$). Coaches requiring student-athletes to meet with the counselor was significantly related to being introduced to student-athletes by the coach ($r = .2942, p = .01$) and being introduced to student-athletes by support staff ($r = .2850, p = .01$). Being introduced by support staff was also significantly related to being introduced to

the student-athlete by the coach ($r = .4335$, $p = .01$). These patterns of correlations suggest that there are some counselors who are most comfortable using a more passive approach.

Scope of Programming. As expected, respondents reported a wide range of programs and workshops that were offered by their institution's support service. Given the individual nature of each institution and its respective support services, it was difficult to determine precisely how some specialized programming was defined, especially if respondents did not provide a specific, detailed description of a particular program being offered. Despite this limitation, it was possible to identify some of the most commonly offered types of programs.

The most frequently mentioned programs and workshops offered by support services were career development programming and study/test-taking/learning skills. That career development programming was provided with greatest frequency supports Kirk's (1992) report of a recent survey of services. Career development programming—involving activities such as self-assessment of abilities, values, interests, and goals; resume writing; and interviewing skills—was cited by 51% of the respondents. Half the respondents indicated that their programs provided some type of assistance to student-athletes involving the enhancement of study skills, test-taking skills, and learning skills. This was mentioned with considerably greater frequency than reported by Kirk (1992). Also part of a cluster of academically-related services frequently cited were the provision or coordination of tutoring services, provision/coordination of a study hall for student-athletes, and participation in academic advising/counseling activities with student-athletes. A number of other academically-related services (e.g., academic monitoring, registration assistance, academic assessment) were also mentioned.

A significant proportion of respondents reported that their services provided educational programming related to health issues, such as wellness (including nutrition and sexually transmitted diseases) and substance abuse (including steroids). Interestingly, Kirk (1992) reports that none of the programs he surveyed offered programming related to drug/substance abuse. A number of respondents reported that their services sponsored or participated in an orientation for new student-athletes. Table 2 itemizes the most frequently cited programming services.

Numerous, infrequently identified but nonetheless interesting programming services were cited by the survey respondents. For example, transfer assistance was an important offering of community and junior colleges. Also noted were community outreach programs, mentoring programs, student/faculty dinners, and workshops on cultural diversity, intimate relationships (including sexual assault), injury/athletic retirement, classroom etiquette, formal dining etiquette, and financial management. Computer skills, campus safety and self-defense workshops, and freshman seminars were identified, as was programming targeted toward returning student-athletes. It is also worth noting that several respondents indicated that some services were

provided by other departments and units on campus and that their role as counselors was primarily that of a coordinator or liaison with these other units.

Table 2

Prevalence of Programming Services

Service	% Respondents Providing Service
Career Development	51
Learning/Study Skills	50
Tutoring	36
New Student Orientation	30
Study Table	21
Time Management	19
Substance Abuse	18
Academic Advising/Counseling	15
Health/Wellness	15
Personal Counseling	10

Note. Fifteen respondents did not respond to question on program/workshops. Percentage based on respondents ($n = 198$) offering programs/workshops.

Attracting Student-Athletes

Just as respondents identified many types of programming offered by their support services, a host of methods was also employed to attract student-athletes. Over half the respondents indicated that attendance at some (or all) programs was mandatory for student-athletes, often as a condition of receiving their athletic scholarships. Other popular methods included general publicity (e.g., fliers, letters, and advertisements) and notifying coaches about programs. Table 3 summarizes the most frequently used methods.

Less frequently cited methods of enticing student-athletes to attend programming included serving food, substituting program attendance for study table attendance, offering academic credit, using recommendations from administration, showing motivational films, offering T-shirts, providing guest speakers, and eliciting recommendations from alumni student-athletes. Other methods of informing student-athletes about programs included team meetings conducted by counselors as well as publicizing the programs in newsletters.

Table 3

Prevalence of Methods to Attract Student-Athletes to Services

Method	% Respondents Using Method
Mandatory Attendance	60
Notify Coaches	34
Publicity	30
Personal Contact/Invitation	15
Word-of-Mouth	13
Advisory Board	8

Note. Nineteen respondents did not respond to question on methods. Percentage based on respondents attempting to attract student-athletes to programs and workshops ($n = 194$).

Anecdotally, several respondents reported difficulties attracting student-athletes to workshops and programs in the absence of mandatory attendance regulations or strong recommendation and support from coaches. Thus, it appears that for proactive programming—particularly that which is not directly related to eligibility or academic performance—to have any chance of being successful, it is important to have the support of coaches or high-level athletic administrators before attempting to introduce such programming.

DISCUSSION

In developing rapport with student-athletes, counselors effectively employed an array of methods. No clear pattern emerged in regard to the types of methods that were employed, as most respondents used many of the methods listed. Not surprisingly, the methods most frequently endorsed as “very effective” were those in which counselor/athlete contact was either encouraged or required. Without interpersonal contact, there is, of course, no possibility of rapport. The results of this study suggest, then, that counselors and support service personnel have a variety of rapport-building methods at their disposal and that as many of these methods should be used as possible. However, particular emphasis should be given to those methods that encourage direct, spontaneous contact with student-athletes, especially those that demonstrate the counselor’s interest in the student-athletes.

While rapport—which is the cornerstone of effective work in the helping professions—cannot be imposed from the outside, there is some evidence to suggest that it is possible to encourage the conditions under which rapport can flourish. Petipitas and Champagne (1988) discuss the important role that coaches play in this process by requiring student-athletes to meet with

counselors. The present study supports their conclusions. The most effective methods of developing rapport were inviting student-athletes into the counselor’s office, requiring them to meet the counselor in the office, and the coaches requiring student-athletes to meet with the counselor.

While requiring student-athletes to meet with a counselor may intuitively seem detrimental to the rapport-building process, it may be a necessary first step. There are many reasons why student-athletes may be reluctant to meet with a counselor. Research suggests that athletes may be reluctant to admit weakness, desire to maintain their autonomy (Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989), and fear derogation by others (Linder, Brewer, Van Raalte, & DeLange, 1991; Linder, Pillow, & Reno, 1989). Requiring student-athletes to meet with counselors provides an initial opportunity for a positive experience with the counselor that might not otherwise exist. Thus, it becomes a catalyst for more spontaneous contact in the future. A potentially positive side effect of this is that student-athletes may then recommend that other student-athletes work with the counselor. Although counselors may not rely on word-of-mouth and recommendations from other student-athletes, they can certainly benefit. Furthermore, personal experience of the authors suggests that student-athletes do rely on their peers for information and recommendations and that a positive recommendation from a respected student-athlete can lead to numerous referrals to the counselor. In short, the coach plays a pivotal role in the rapport-building process, both directly and indirectly.

The importance of the coach is not limited to facilitating the rapport-building process. Coaches are also vital to the success of the support program in general. Support services for student-athletes were found to offer a variety of programs to enhance the student-athlete experience, although most of the programming was focused upon academic enhancement/achievement and career development. Relatively less attention appears to be paid to more developmental and holistic programming, despite recommendations to the contrary (Denson, 1992; Jordan & Denson, 1990; Lottes, 1991; Stier, 1992). Among those support services that did provide extensive programming of any nature, attendance by student-athletes was either mandatory or strongly supported and encouraged by coaches, who were often the vehicle through which support service personnel disseminated important information. As with rapport-building, making attendance mandatory at support service functions may provide an initial opportunity for a positive experience which may lead to voluntary student-athlete attendance in the future.

The present study represents a first step in understanding the rapport-building process with student-athletes; therefore, the results should be interpreted with caution. One limitation of the study is that for those questions about the types of programming and services offered, some information was lost in condensing categories of programs because complete and precise descriptions of programming were not requested or generally provided. Thus, some subtleties of programs were undoubtedly lost. Another limitation is that when the number of support services offering a given program were considered,

the numbers may be slightly inflated because of multiple respondents from a single institution. However, to maintain confidentiality, respondents were not asked to identify their institutions, nor was the number of respondents from a school limited, as the study was interested primarily in individuals rather than institutions. However, despite these limits, it should not be overlooked that certain types of programs and services predominate in the athletic academic counseling field.

As this was an initial attempt to study the process of rapport-building with student-athletes, there are a number of questions which remain to be addressed. Future research should explore whether or not the type of affiliation that counselors have with their institutions affects the methods they use when developing rapport. For instance, counselors affiliated with an academic office may depend more on methods related to academics, such as attending study hall or being introduced to student-athletes by other support staff members. Counselors affiliated with athletic departments, on the other hand, may rely more on methods such as attending practices and being introduced to student-athletes by the coaching staff at practice. It would also be helpful to explore the relationship between the amount of counselor experience and the methods used, as well as the impact of the size of the counselor's "caseload" on the methods used. More experienced counselors may use different methods than do novices. Counselors with responsibility for large numbers of student-athletes may be forced to use less personal and less intensive methods. Finally, it would be of interest to examine counselor training and background as influences on the methods used. Counselors trained as psychologists may well use different methods than do those who were trained as educators or who gained their primary experience as coaches. These three backgrounds may have very different perspectives on the individual and how to relate to the individual.

CONCLUSIONS

Because there are no guidelines on how to develop rapport with student-athletes, it is hoped that the results of this study will be especially helpful to new athletic counselors. New counselors may be able to incorporate a number of techniques described here into their own styles to be most effective in their programs. It is hoped that the results of this research will also provide seasoned athletic counselors with some new suggestions for developing rapport with student-athletes. Many athletic counselors may also have responsibilities in other facets of campus life, such as serving as an academic advisor for non-athletes or as psychologists at a counseling center, which may restrict the amount of time and energy that they can spend developing rapport with student-athletes. By providing athletic counselors with a variety of techniques and a sense of the effectiveness of those techniques, this study may help them develop even more successful and efficient ways of developing rapport with student-athletes.

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APPENDIX

Student-Athlete Rapport Survey (SARS)

Survey ID # _____

STUDENT-ATHLETE RAPPORT SURVEY (SARS)

Kelly E. Green, University of Delaware

This survey is an attempt to identify effective techniques for developing rapport with student-athletes. It is anticipated that the results will be helpful to athletic advisors and counselors. You will be asked to describe your experiences in this questionnaire which will take approximately 30-45 minutes to complete. Your responses will be kept confidential. Thank you for your cooperation.

Gender (circle one) F M

Program Level (circle one) NCAA: Div. 1 Div. 2 Div. 3
NAIA

1. How long have you been working with student-athletes?
2. How many individuals comprise your support staff?
3. Approximately how many student-athletes participate in intercollegiate (NCAA or NAIA sanctioned) athletics at your school?
4. Approximately how many of these individuals are you personally responsible for assisting?
5. Are there particular teams/sports you are personally responsible for? If so, which ones?
6. What types of workshops and programs does your service offer?
7. How do you attract student-athletes to your workshops and programs?
8. In your effort to develop rapport with the student-athletes with whom you work, which of the following methods did you use? Please check all that were used.

Attending practices _____

Making your presence known when attending home competitions _____

Making your presence known when attending road competitions _____

Inviting student-athletes to your office _____

Requiring student-athletes to meet you _____

Attending student-athlete study hall _____

Relying upon recommendations/"word of mouth" of other student-athletes _____

Coaches required student-athletes to meet you ____

Introduced to student-athletes by other support staff members ____

Introduced to student-athletes by coaching staff at practice ____

Other (please explain) _____

9. Please rate the effectiveness and importance of the methods (described above) that you used. First rate the effectiveness and then the importance of each. Effectiveness ratings should be based on how effective the methods actually were for you, not on whether you believe they are effective. Importance ratings should be based on whether you believe they are important. Circle your responses.

Attending practices

very effective moderately effective slightly effective ineffective
very important moderately important slightly important unimportant

Attending home competitions

very effective moderately effective slightly effective ineffective
very important moderately important slightly important unimportant

Attending road competitions

very effective moderately effective slightly effective ineffective
very important moderately important slightly important unimportant

Inviting student-athletes to your office

very effective moderately effective slightly effective ineffective
very important moderately important slightly important unimportant

Requiring student-athletes to meet with you

very effective moderately effective slightly effective ineffective
very important moderately important slightly important unimportant

Attending student-athlete study hall

very effective moderately effective slightly effective ineffective
very important moderately important slightly important unimportant

Relying upon recommendations/"word of mouth" of other student-athletes

very effective moderately effective slightly effective ineffective
very important moderately important slightly important unimportant

Coaches required student-athletes to meet with you

very effective moderately effective slightly effective ineffective
very important moderately important slightly important unimportant

Introduced to student-athletes by other support staff members

very effective moderately effective slightly effective ineffective
very important moderately important slightly important unimportant

Introduced to student-athletes by coaches

very effective moderately effective slightly effective ineffective
very important moderately important slightly important unimportant

10. Please use the space below to summarize the events, actions or processes that occurred that you believe helped in developing rapport with your student-athletes.
11. What advice would you give to someone just starting out as an athletic advisor?

Thank you for your time.

Kelly Green is a graduate student in college counseling and student personnel at the University of Delaware. She works as a graduate assistant in Student Services for Athletes.

Eric Denson is a psychologist at the Center for Counseling and Student Development at the University of Delaware. He also serves as programming coordinator in Student Services for Athletes there. Denson has presented and published on many issues pertaining to the delivery of support services for student-athletes.

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The primary audience is the membership of the N4A, that is, athletic academic counselors. The secondary audience includes other professionals working with student-athletes in the fields of education or counseling at the secondary and post-secondary levels.

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Articles should add new knowledge, challenge existing opinion, and/or explain the implications of research. The arguments should be well grounded in theory or research and clearly related to practice. In essence, the material should be original and stimulating without being extremely technical.

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

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