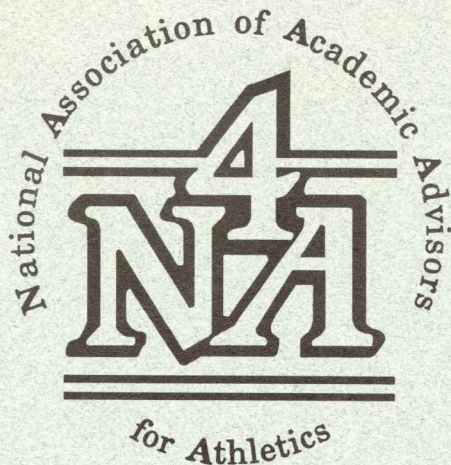




ACADEMIC ATHLETIC JOURNAL

*The Official Publication
of the
National Association of
Academic Advisors for Athletes*

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Submission Guidelines for the *Academic Athletic Journal*

AUDIENCE

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

PURPOSE

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

SUBJECT MATTER

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

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

REVIEW PROCESS

Manuscripts will be reviewed through the blind review process by at least three members of the editorial board. Their comments will be sent to the authors along with recommendations for acceptance, rejection, or revision.

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Manuscripts should be prepared utilizing the format and style described in the fourth edition of the American Psychological Association *Publication Manual*. Articles should be 1250-5000 words in length (i.e., roughly 5-20 pages of typed, double-spaced text) with ample margins for comments. Amplify the text with appropriate headings/subheadings, figures, and reference citations. The references and all figures and tables should be typed on separate pages in accordance with the APA *Publication Manual*. Submissions that deviate substantially from *Publication Manual* format will be returned to the authors.

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

Manuscripts must include the following:

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- (2) An abstract of 50-100 words that briefly summarizes the major points of the paper. The abstract should be typed on a separate page and appear after the title page.
- (3) A brief biographical sketch for each author. Sketches may be combined on one page, but must appear on a page separate from manuscript text.
- (4) A cover letter briefly describing the nature of the manuscript. Include relevant telephone and fax numbers and electronic mail addresses.

Submit the original manuscript and three copies to: E. Newton Jackson, Jr., Ph.D., Sport Administration Program, Department of Physical Education, 130 Tully Gym, The Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida 32306-4280.

Upon final acceptance of the manuscript for publication, authors should provide a copy of the final draft and the electronic version of the manuscript on computer diskette, formatted for IBM (compatible), in MS Word 5.0 or better. Please do not submit diskettes prior to final acceptance.

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EDITOR'S STATEMENT

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

THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

In the cycle of life, change must and will occur. It is from this perspective of time that I humbly acknowledge some of our dedicated colleagues. Dr. Eric Denson, most recently a former staff member of the University of Washington, has outstandingly served the N4A and this journal as the previous editor. Thank you so very much for countless hours of focused service. Dr. Ursula Walsh, most recently of the NCAA, your many contributions to the success of this journal will also be greatly missed. The NCAA national office and the membership of the NCAA and N4A will feel your absence. Best wishes to you both in all your new endeavors. Last, a word of thanks and appreciation to Dr. Ron Brown and Jill DeMichele for their leadership and support. This editor takes full responsibility for the delay of this issue.

Formal research papers and papers of an applied nature that describe innovative academic and advisement support programs and successful plus creative methods of service delivery are welcome. Social and cultural factors affecting the student-athlete experiences are encouraged among the membership, specifically those that work with student-athletes. An adjustment of attitude to embrace new ideas and vision must occur if the benefactors of our service are to earn life's rewards. Eric Denson challenged "the discussions that such factors are not better left to sociology journals, because current models of student-athlete support services view student-athletes as holistic beings with concerns spanning many domains." It is vital we investigate pertinent social and cultural influences and issues among our membership, and those issues affecting our youthful student athletes within the contents of our *AAJ*.

The articles presented by Yap & Nelson addressing the contributions of an outstanding advisement system will enlighten many, while creating vision for growth in others. Eiche and colleagues focus our attention to leadership, an ever popular and growing research item, while Carodine and colleagues describe an investigation of predicting academic success among student athletes at the Division I level.

There has been great discussion of the new role of technology, particularly electronic learning resources, in student-athlete support services. In-depth discussion has occurred addressing the concept of placing our valuable data on the internet web to inform and attract many more than just our fellow peers and association colleagues. Suggestions to include remarks from guest speakers at recent regional N4A conferences shall be met in upcoming issues of *The AAJ*. As always, the *AAJ* is still extremely interested in outcome studies. The literature on student-athlete services is sorely lacking in the psychology, counseling and sport administration fields. Although the N4A has aggressively encouraged and progressed with our vital task of enhancing this body of literature, more members must contribute in this important area of athletic advisement, the research.

Perceived Contributions of a College Athletic Advising Program to Graduates

Susan E. Yap

Eileen S. Nelson

James Madison University

Research has indicated that college student-athletes face many challenges which may make resolving the developmental tasks in the age-relevant stage difficult. The present study examined the contributions that the Office of Academic Development for Student-Athletes (OADS) has made in terms of the accomplishment of certain tasks related to this critical transitional stage between adolescence and adulthood. First-year and transfer varsity athletes who were involved in the academic advising program in 1987 were interviewed over the telephone. Results indicate that the former athletes reported themselves as satisfied with the OADS and with the following developmental tasks: self-acceptance, making a contribution in a career, relating to others, achieving intimacy, and developing one's spirituality.

During the college years, young adults engage in the final resolution of important developmental tasks. Havighurst (1972) and Levinson (1986) identified these tasks as establishing appropriate relations with peers of both sexes, becoming emotionally independent of adults, becoming economically independent, preparing for a career, developing cognitive skills necessary for social competence, acquiring socially responsible behavior, preparing for marriage and family, and developing an ethical system that is harmonious with an appropriate scientific world-picture. Chickering (1969) postulated seven vectors along which college student development sequentially occurs. The seven vectors are: developing competence, managing emotions, developing autonomy, establishing identity, freeing interpersonal relationships, developing purpose, and developing integrity. The accomplishment of developmental tasks is significantly difficult for any individual, but a large body of research has indicated that college athletes experience unique challenges and demands in addition to those challenges faced by non-athletes. These challenges make it particularly difficult for the student-athlete to resolve age-relevant developmental tasks (Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Morrissey, 1995; Nelson, 1983; Parham 1993).

It appears that student-athletes may endure additional stressors through participation in intercollegiate athletics (Cooker & Caffey, 1984; Ferrante, Etzel, & Lantz, 1996; Figler, 1987; Parham, 1993). Researchers have discussed the importance of attending to the developmental advising needs of athletes and providing extended student services (Denson, 1994; Ferrante et al.). Academic advisers for student-athletes may be in an advantageous position to positively assist the student-athletes by providing them with additional guidance and support.

Learning to balance academics and athletics is one of the most difficult challenges faced by student-athletes who have limited availability because of their inflexible practice

schedules (Jordan and Denson, 1990). Athletes attributed the greatest impediment to their success as students to the amount of time and energy required for practices and games (Boone & Walker, 1987). Consequently, they have difficulty benefiting from the spectrum of university services during the typical working hours. Since many athletes place a higher priority on successful college sports careers than on a sound college education (Adler & Adler, 1985; Purdy, Eitzen & Hufnagel, 1982; Sack, 1988), their academic achievement and developmental maturation may suffer. Successful high school athletes who continue participation in college athletics often feel pressure to maintain a high level of performance in college. If difficulties are experienced in attaining this performance level, student-athletes may feel as if they are disappointing coaches, parents, and friends. This often leads to feelings of disappointment and loss in control of their athletic careers (Parham, 1993).

Another difficulty faced by athletes is developing a feeling of integration with the college community. Adler and Adler (1985) found that many athletes felt isolated from the general student population due to decreased opportunities to interact with the rest of campus. This lack of interaction can create difficulties for athletes developing friendships with the rest of the student population. Not only do athletes have to deal with the difficulties initiating and maintaining friendships with other students, relationships with coaches can also be extremely stressful. Coaches often have a pervasive influence on college athletes and play a central role in determining the direction of the athletes' lives (Lide, 1983). Sack (1988) and Purdy, et al. (1982) found that many coaches are under intense pressure to win. Therefore, they can be excessive in time demands placed on athletes both during and between seasons (Lambie, 1990; Purdy, et al.).

Possibly the most difficult challenge college athletes face is the potential termination of their participation in school athletics, an activity which contributed significantly to the development of their identity (Wittmer, Bostic, Phillips, & Waters, 1981). Parham (1993) described three factors which contributed to the tension felt by student-athletes as their senior years approached and athletic careers came to a close. These tensions include the amount of time and effort the athletes invest in the sport, the exclusivity of sports in their lives, and the extent of the success that they have enjoyed over the years. According to Parham, if these factors have only minimally affected the athlete, there may be a smoother transition to the world outside of athletics.

Developmental Tasks

Erikson (1968) identified several developmental tasks which must be accomplished during the college years. His fifth stage called *Identity v. Role Diffusion*, focuses on identity development and establishment of occupation and sex roles. One's sense of identity can be experienced simply through a sense of psychosocial well-being and the assurance of anticipated recognition by those who are most important to him or her. Erikson's sixth stage, *Intimacy v. Isolation*, includes the transition into adulthood. True intimacy, the fusing of identities, is possible only after one has developed a personal identity. An individual who is unsure of his or her identity either does not become intimate with someone or involves him or herself in acts of intimacy which are indiscriminate, without true fusion (Erikson, 1968).

Levinson (1986) also identified developmental milestones which must be achieved in the college years. He introduced the notion of a *life structure*, which is the underlying

pattern of a person's life at a given time. The main component of a life structure is the development of relationships with others. These relationships involve an investment of oneself, such as desires and commitment, with the reciprocal investment of the other person or activity. A life structure may include many components, however, usually only one or two components play a central role at any given time. The *Early Adult Transition* is a period between the pre-adulthood era and early adulthood and is followed by the *Entering the Adulthood* stage. During the *Entering Adulthood* stage, a great deal of energy is expended on the development of new roles and increased level of contradiction and stress. Early adulthood can be very overwhelming in terms of love, sexuality, family life, occupational advancement, creativity, and realization of major life goals. Individuals at this stage are pulled between their own ambitions and passions, and by the demands of family, community and society. Even in under fairly favorable conditions, while the rewards of this era are immense, the costs often equal or possibly exceed the benefits (Levinson, 1986). This stage includes the establishment and pursuit of what Levinson terms the *Dream*, which is a person's general expectation of what he or she would like to achieve or become.

Athletes may have difficulty integrating acceptable new roles and values into a stable personal identity and might be unsure of their capabilities. Confusion may exist between the role of student and that of the athlete (Nelson, 1983). For many athletes, self-esteem and identity are closely linked to athletic accomplishments; subsequently, expectations regarding future accomplishments follow (Morrissey, 1995). Sparent (1988) reported that athletes often view the world in dichotomous terms of right and wrong, and see authority figures as guides to the right decisions. The athlete's coach-dominated world often consists of making few decisions, or decisions of little worth when ideally they could be making more decisions and gaining in independence and autonomy.

Need for Support Services

Many athletes feel that college is simply a necessary path to take on the journey towards professional sports (Hall & Crawford, 1987). Blann (1985) found that student-athletes at high levels of competition were less able to form mature educational and career plans as compared to non-athletes. Similarly, Kennedy and Dimick (1987) reported that athletes were significantly lower in career attitude maturity than were non-athletes. When the time arrives for athletes to plan for a life outside of athletics, those who are more committed to athletics often find it harder to separate from sports and more uncomfortable to look ahead and plan for an unpredictable future (Goldberg & Chandler, 1995).

Further, the environment for athletes seems to be less supportive in college than in high school. Those in administration generally view athletes as a problem group, while other students see them as overprivileged (Nelson, 1983). Athletes who are able to find other sources of support and "emotional nourishment" in college tend to manage their developmental challenges with less difficulty (Parham, 1993). Goldberg and Chandler (1995) stated that one of the vital roles school counselors can play is helping athletes develop the skills and values that are needed in life after athletics. Literature has shown that counseling enhances the development of the athlete (Figler, 1987; Goldberg & Chandler; Kirk & Kirk, 1993; Nelson, 1982). To this end, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) has mandated that every recruited freshman

athlete must be in contact with an academic adviser for student-athletes at each Division I institution (NCAA, 1995). According to this governing body, academic advising needs to be an integral part of contributing to the college athlete's development throughout college in areas such as academics, athletics, social and career development.

The Office of Academic Development of Student-Athletes (OADSA) program at James Madison University, initiated informally in 1987 and mandated by the NCAA in 1991, has grown considerably, especially over the last five years. The OADSA is responsible for the organization and coordination of the programs which support the academic needs and requirements of student-athletes. These goals are structured with regard for compliance with NCAA guidelines and continuing eligibility and satisfactory progress toward graduation for all student-athletes. In addition, the OADSA coordinates and directs the tutoring program for student-athletes and makes referrals to appropriate campus and community resources. Given these rapidly expanded efforts and the resources invested in these support services, it seems plausible that an emphasis on evaluation of these programs in order to justify their continuation and to ensure that the athletes' holistic needs are being met in the best possible ways (Denson, 1996).

There are 13,000 students currently enrolled at James Madison University in Harrisonburg, Virginia, with approximately 650 athletes participating in 27 varsity sports (13 men's and 14 women's). Presently, the OADSA is headed by the Assistant Athletic Director for Academic Development, three full-time academic advisers who have Master's degrees, two graduate assistants who serve as part-time academic advisers, and a full-time supervisor of the tutoring program. In addition, to responding to the academic needs of the athletes towards graduation, the staff is dedicated to assisting the athletes with the resolution of their other developmental tasks. OADSA members meet with each first-year student or transfer from every varsity sport on a weekly basis to monitor their academic process. During the meetings, these students are assisted in the exploration and choice of a major course of study, and develop class schedules relative to their progress and future needs. The athlete and his or her adviser discuss a variety of topics, from personal issues to ways of becoming involved in activities outside athletics. The OADSA coordinates study halls and tutoring for the athletes, as well as referring them to other services provided by the University when necessary.

Levinson (1986) identified issues he felt were relevant to the transition stage between adolescence and adulthood and the *Entering the Adult World* period immediately following. This exploratory study assessed former athletes' perceptions of the OADSA's contributions in terms of their satisfaction levels with the resolutions of issues arising during those periods.

METHOD

Intervention

The OADSA began operation in 1987. That year, the athletic academic adviser served as adviser to all first-year athletes. Consequently, the first year of this program was initiated with the target group (Group 1) of first-year athletes participating in football, men's and women's basketball, men's and women's track required to meet with the academic adviser on a weekly basis. All first-year athletes came to the OADSA to receive information concerning registration and other services offered by the OADSA.

In February of the athletes' first year, they were also assigned to an academic adviser

for their major interest of study. If they had not declared a major, they were assigned to an adviser for undeclared majors. Athletes continued to be welcomed at the OADSA for any reason.

Participants

We attempted to survey all former varsity athletes who were first-year students in 1987 using a one-point-in-time measurement. Although the OADSA now advises athletes in all 27 varsity sports, only the first-year student-athletes had participated in the Academic Advising program in 1987, comprising the convenience sample for this exploratory study. Eighty-two first-year athletes participated in the academic advising program. The researchers were unable to contact all of the first-year athletes even though several attempts were made. There were a total of 46 (56%) former JMU athletes surveyed (30 men and 16 women) with a minority population of 10 African American students (7 men and 3 women).

The first-year athletes were divided into two groups depending upon where the athletes in each sport were on the academic continuum of the student population. Those sports which had the majority of first-year athletes in the lower end of the continuum (under 2.5 GPA) were in the first group which included football, men's and women's basketball, and women's and men's track. The second group consisted of a combination of seven men's and six women's sports. Both groups received all of the first-year academic advising services, and told they were welcome to visit the office as often as they desired. However, Group 1 was required to meet with the academic adviser on a weekly basis, whereas Group 2 was not required to meet. Some of the first-year student-athletes in Group 1 were also involved in a transitional program in the summer before they began classes. This program assisted minority students in preparing for the academic rigors of college. The weekly meetings with the academic adviser were seen as a continuation of the transitional program.

Procedure

Approval for the study was received from the university's Institutional Review Board. The freshmen athletes of 1987 were surveyed by telephone interview by one of the researchers (neither of whom are involved with athletic programs). It was possible for the participants to add their comments throughout the interview following each subset of the survey. Unfortunately, it was not possible to obtain every former athlete's current telephone number because they changed addresses or the university Alumni Office had no forwarding addresses.

Once reached by telephone, the participants were asked if they would voluntarily respond to questions about their experiences with the athletic academic advising. Participants were read an informed consent statement before agreeing to respond to the questionnaire. They were assured of the confidentiality and anonymity of their responses, and told that their names would not appear with their responses or in reporting the results of the study. Guidelines established by the American Psychological Association were strictly adhered to throughout the study (American Psychological Association, 1994). All participants were asked the same questions in the same order.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire used was a survey constructed by the researchers. It was patterned after an instrument developed by one of the researchers for use as a senior exit survey by the university Department of Psychology. (Nelson & Johnson, 1997). The first 19 questions covered the topics of athletic academic advising, academic advising by their college major adviser, and the university's Reading and Writing Lab. Responses, which were recorded in writing by the interviewer, were given either in terms of "Yes" or "No", or on a Likert-type scale of 1-5, where 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = disagree, 4 = strongly disagree, and 5 = not-applicable. The remaining 35 questions covered the topics of life satisfaction, career satisfaction and satisfaction with relationships. Responses were given on a Likert-type scale of 1-5, where 1 = very satisfied, 2 = satisfied, 3 = dissatisfied, 4 = very dissatisfied, and 5 = not-applicable, and responses of "Yes" or "No" for certain questions. There were opportunities for each participant to give comments and suggestions concerning each of the services they received. There were also open-ended questions concerning the following: participant's "Dream," occupation; leisure activities; and problems associated with participation in intercollegiate sports.

RESULTS

Overall, the participants' responses to the questions were positive. All participants felt that their athletic academic adviser had sufficient knowledge of JMU policies and requirements, and provided them with accurate, useful information. They strongly agreed or agreed that their academic adviser was available during scheduled hours or scheduled alternative times (86.6%), and the majority of the participants (84.4%) responded favorably towards their athletic academic adviser's ability to advise them on immediate academic problems. The majority of the participants (63.0%) responded positively with regard to their athletic academic adviser's ability to advise them on long-range planning and vocational opportunities, although the response of 10 participants was "Not-applicable." The majority of the participants (80.5%) strongly agreed or agreed that their athletic academic adviser was well informed about campus support services and referred them to other sources of information when necessary with seven participants responding with "Not-applicable." All but one participant (98.0%) felt that their athletic academic adviser respected their feelings and concerns by responding with "Strongly agree" or "Agree," and all but one participant (98.0%) felt that their academic adviser was helpful and effective.

Only 19 (31.6%) of the former athletes reported interaction with the academic adviser for their major. Participants were asked the same questions about the major adviser as they had been previously asked about their athletic academic adviser. The majority of the former athletes (63.1%) responded favorably towards each of the questions about their major academic advisers. It appears that the participants only interacted with their major adviser for reasons specific to their major. When comparing the responses between the athletic academic adviser and the major academic adviser, the participants responded more favorably towards the athletic academic adviser for each of the questions in the categories of "Strongly agree" and "Agree."

Developmental Tasks

A number of questions dealt with participants' level of satisfaction with the developmental task of self acceptance. All of the participants were "Very satisfied" or "Satisfied" with the question dealing with their life in general. The majority of the participants (97.8%) responded with "Very Satisfied" or "Satisfied" with the question dealing with self-esteem, and all of the participants were very satisfied or satisfied with the choices they have made in their life. The majority of the participants (95.6%) were very satisfied or satisfied with the amount of control over circumstances in their lives, and all of the participants were very satisfied with their leisure activities.

Questions concerning the developmental task of "feeling as if they made a contribution in their career" indicated high satisfaction percentages. The majority of the participants (87.0%) responded as "Very satisfied" or "Satisfied" with their occupation. Again, the majority of the participants (78.3%) were very satisfied or satisfied with their current income, and (84.8%) responded as "Very satisfied" or "Satisfied" with their opportunities for advancement. The majority of the participants (91.3%) were very satisfied or satisfied with their responsibility on the job, and the majority (82.2%) were very satisfied or satisfied with their mentorship relationship. When asked about their work environment, the majority of the participants responded as "Very satisfied" or "Satisfied" (86.6%), benefits (80.0%), and travel opportunities (60.0%). The majority of the participants (88.9%) were very satisfied or satisfied with feeling like a valued member making special contributions.

The subsequent questions pertained to the level of satisfaction with the task of "relating to others." All of the participants were "Very Satisfied" or "Satisfied" with the relationships with friends, and with coworkers. The majority of the participants (78.3%) responded as "Very satisfied" or "Satisfied" with their relationships with their community members. Most of the participants (91.4%) continued to keep in contact with old teammates.

There were a number of questions dealing with satisfaction levels with the developmental task of "achieving intimacy with others". All of the responses fell in the categories of "Very satisfied" or "Satisfied" pertaining to relationships with their parents, and to the relationships with their siblings (93.4%), significant others (97.4%), and (if applicable), their children (100%).

One question dealt with the participants' level of satisfaction with the task of spirituality. Eleven (23.9%) of the participants were very satisfied, 23 (69.6%) participants were satisfied, and three (6.5%) were dissatisfied with the spiritual dimension in their life. The term spirituality was not defined in the question; therefore, each participant defined it in his or her own terms.

DISCUSSION

Limitations of the Study

Before interpreting the results, the limitations of this study should be kept in mind. As indicated earlier, this is an exploratory study to examine the effectiveness of a program still in its infancy, mandated by the NCAA. The results contain reported differences in percentages of levels of satisfaction for each question. Not all of the teams were

represented, including men's and women's swimming, women's golf and women's tennis; and only a small number of these former students were able to be reached. Therefore, the results shown in this study should not be construed to be attitudes of the entire first-year athlete class of 1987, only of those interviewed. Also, with the small sample size and lack of a control group, results must certainly be eyed with caution.

Another limitation was the difficulty in obtaining the current telephone numbers of the participants. Once the correct number was obtained, it was often difficult to reach the athlete, even if he or she was called after work hours. One former athlete opted not to answer the survey and one male was in a situation in which he could not communicate via the telephone. Calling the participants was thought to be a more personal method of gathering information, and that participants may have been put off by a paper and pencil technique where return rates are often very low. It is possible that factors other than the adviser relationship shaped the responses given. For example, it may be that with maturation, the former student-athletes had a more idealized picture of the value of the relationship. Finally, there may have been many intervening, unaccounted for variables occurring during the progression of five years following graduation.

Implications for Intervention

The results of this study indicate that the former athletes report themselves as successfully resolving the developmental tasks during Levinson's *Early Adult Transition* and *Entering the Adult World Stage* (Levinson, 1986). These tasks include self acceptance, making a contribution in one's career, relating to others, achieving intimacy, and the spiritual dimension. The athletes reported themselves as more satisfied with the dimensions of achieving intimacy and the development of a spiritual dimension. In addition, the participants reported themselves as satisfied with the career and self tasks, but not as "Very satisfied" as they were with the intimacy and spiritual dimensions. Academic support services might use information of this sort to help identify areas where improvement is needed and ultimately to devise intervention methods to facilitate student-athletes' accomplishments in all developmental areas.

The developmental task of achieving intimacy was perceived to be the task in which the participants were the most satisfied. Questions regarding this dimension covered the participants' satisfaction levels towards their parents, siblings, significant others, and their children. Parham (1993) reports that athletes tend to handle their developmental challenges with less difficulty if they are able to find sources of support in college. These participants reported themselves as most satisfied with the questions regarding the accomplishment of this task.

The participants reported satisfaction with their resolution of the task of developing spirituality. In general, they seemed to be satisfied with their spiritual development thus far. Each participant also described their Dream, as defined by Levinson (1986). This open-ended question resulted in a rather distinct pattern where responses fell into the following categories: to be successful in general; to be successful in their career; to have a successful intimate relationships; to achieve their goals or potential; to provide for their family; to be a good parent; to be financially sound; or to be happy.

The reported levels of satisfaction between Groups 1 and 2 resulted in few differences. A majority of the athletes reported they sought academic advising from the OADSA on their own. Therefore, it is impossible to determine the extent of advising each athlete

received. It appears, then, that three groups actually formed. The first group included those athletes who visited their athletic academic adviser on a weekly basis because they were required to do so by the head of the OADSA. The second group were those athletes who met with the athletic academic adviser sometimes more often than once a week, although not required to do so. These particular athletes took advantage of the opportunity to meet with the athletic academic adviser when they felt a need for advising. Many of these athletes used the athletic academic adviser throughout their college career and did not seek out their major adviser. The third group included those athletes who were not required to meet with the athletic academic adviser on a weekly basis, and did not elect visits other than those necessary for class registration.

In the questionnaire, there was a specific open-ended question which asked for comments or suggestions concerning the athletic academic advising the athletes received. From the participant responses, it appears that athletic academic advisers must have certain salient characteristics which are necessary to provide the additional support and guidance that many athletes need. Many of the athletes commented that the athletic academic adviser really cared about them and all of the athletes he/she advised. The "open-door" policy provided by the OADSA seemed to be advantageous for athletes, especially those who needed additional assistance with their developmental needs. The athletic academic adviser appeared to be committed to ensuring the support which the athletes needed. According to Denson (1996) this ability of the adviser to establish rapport and to reach out to the athletes in a caring manner may provide the cornerstone for a successful advising program.

It is hoped that this study will be able to be used as a model for subsequent studies for assessing the athletic academic advising at JMU and at other universities. Because the NCAA mandate required all recruited freshman athletes to be in contact with an academic adviser for student-athletes at each Division I institution beginning in 1991, there is a need for accountability to achieve and maintain high quality academic advising for student-athletes in all Division I institutions. Assessment will enable academic advising programs to continually grow and improve in order to provide the student-athletes with the holistic support programs endorsed by researchers for the benefit of their developmental as well as their academic needs (Denson, 1996). There have been significant developments within the OADSA since the NCAA mandate. As previously described, the OADSA must organize and coordinate the programs supporting the academic needs and requirements of student-athletes. There are two new programs which have been implemented into the OADSA this year. The Life Skills program, which is sponsored by the NCAA, is a program in which student-athletes are educated in five broad areas deemed important by the NCAA. The Academic Commitment involves topics such as academic counseling, goal setting, and study skills. The Athletic Commitment covers coaching and support staff sensitivity, adequate accommodation of needs of each sport, and support programs. The Personal Development Commitment includes social development (manners and etiquette), personal health, fundamental values, emotional health (i.e., self-esteem, spiritual), peer education and counseling, and fiscal responsibility. The Service Commitment involves community outreach. Finally, the Career Development Commitment entails counseling, applying/ interviewing, networking and placement. The universities are responsible for educating their student-athletes on the topics under each commitment which they consider the most important.

Other researchers have addressed the significance of attending to the developmental advising needs of athletes and to offer extended student services to them (Ferrante et al., 1991). This study attempted to assess former athletes' perceptions of the OADSA's contributions in terms of its satisfaction levels with the resolution of certain issues relevant to the transitional stage between adolescence and adulthood and the period immediately following *Entering the Adult World* stage identified by Levinson (1986). On the basis of this preliminary study, it appears that the OADSA at JMU is successful in their attempts to assist student-athletes with their developmental advising needs.

In the future, strong efforts should be made to contact all targeted former athletes. Use of paper and pencil surveys could be contrasted with telephone interviews for effectiveness. Also, having larger representations from all sports at the university may yield more distinct differences between sports.

Another suggestion is the need for continued, ongoing assessment of the services provided by the OADSA. Along with the mandate of the NCAA requiring all Division I institutions to make counseling services to all recruited first-year athletes, comes a concomitant mandate for evaluation of those services. According to Jordan and Denson (1994) institutions have heretofore focused on the providing of services to student-athletes with the evaluation of those programs seen as more of a luxury than a necessity. As these programs have increased in prominence and financial support the time has come for the evaluation of support services. A study is currently underway in the form of an exit survey of graduating senior athletes to assess the current program and the resources they have been afforded during their matriculation at JMU.

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TELEPHONE SURVEY FOR FORMER STUDENT ATHLETES

(Introduction and informed consent section preceded the questionnaire)

First I am going to read some questions that have to do with your level of satisfaction of the Athletic Academic Advising you received. As I read each question, would you please tell me whether you: Strongly Agree with the statement, Agree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree, or Not Applicable, if you received no help in that area.

Your Athletic Academic Adviser:

1. Had sufficient knowledge of JMU policies and requirements to provide you with accurate, useful information.
2. Was available during scheduled hours or scheduled alternative times.
3. Advised you on immediate academic problems.
4. Advised you on long-range planning and vocational opportunities.
5. Was well informed about campus support services and referred you to other sources of information and assistance when you needed them.
6. Respected your feelings and concerns.
7. Was helpful and effective.

What additional comments or suggestions do you have concerning the athletic academic advising you received?

Now I am going to read some questions which have to do with your level of satisfaction with some of the student services provided by JMU. As I read each question, would you please tell me whether you: Strongly Agree with the statement, Agree, Disagree, or Strongly Disagree.

8. Did you ever visit the Reading and Writing Lab? Yes/No
9. You were given helpful advice from the Reading and Writing Lab.
10. You were treated in a courteous manner by the staff of the Reading and Writing Lab.

What additional comments or suggestions do you have concerning the Reading and Writing Lab?

11. What was your college major at JMU?
12. Did you ever interact with your academic adviser for your major in order to obtain advising assistance information? Yes/No

I am going to read a list of areas in which you may have received help from your

academic adviser for your major. As I read each one, would you please tell me whether you: Strongly Agree with the statement, Agree, Disagree, or Strongly Disagree.

Your academic adviser for your major:

13. Had sufficient knowledge of your major and JMU policies and requirements to provide you with accurate, useful information.
14. Was available during scheduled hours or scheduled alternative times.
15. Advised you on immediate academic problems.
16. Advised you on long-range planning and vocational opportunities.
17. Was well informed about campus support services and referred you to other sources of information and assistance when such referral better suited your needs.
18. Respected your feelings and concerns.
19. Was helpful and effective.

What additional comments or suggestions do you have concerning your major department adviser?

The next questions have to do with your life satisfaction in general. For these questions, please respond with Very Satisfied, Satisfied, Dissatisfied, Very Dissatisfied.

20. In general, how satisfied do you feel with your life at this point?
21. How satisfied are you with yourself in comparison with your peers?
22. How satisfied are you with the spiritual dimension in your life? Since people have different definitions of the spiritual dimension, just respond in the way that seems most appropriate for you.
23. How satisfied are you with the choices you have made in your life so far?
24. How satisfied are you with the amount of control you feel over circumstances in your life?

Leisure activities are important in everyone's life, and they involve your interests and activities when you are not working.

25. What are some of your leisure activities?
26. Do you think they relate in any way to the sport you played at JMU? Yes/No
27. How satisfied are you with your leisure activities?
28. How satisfied are you with your physical and mental health at this point?

What additional comments or suggestions do you have concerning your general life satisfaction?

The next questions have to do with your level of satisfaction with your career.

29. What is your present occupation?
30. How satisfied are you with your occupation?
31. How satisfied are you with your income?
32. Do you think you have had adequate opportunities for advancement with your career? Yes/No
33. How satisfied are you with the academic and career services preparation you received at JMU?
34. How satisfied are you with the amount of responsibility you take on your job?
35. How satisfied are you with the way in which you deal with criticism?
36. Would you say playing a sport helped your ability to accept criticism? Yes/No

37. Would you say playing a sport helped you find a job? Yes/No
38. How satisfied are you with your ability to establish a mentorship relationship on the job?
39. How satisfied are you with your work environment?
40. How satisfied are you with your coworkers?
41. How satisfied are you with your benefits?
42. How satisfied are you with your opportunities to travel?
43. How satisfied do you feel that you are a valued member making special contributions to the workplace?

What additional comments do you have concerning your career?

The next questions have to do with your level of satisfaction regarding your relationships.

44. In general, how satisfied are you with the relationship with your parents?
45. In general, how satisfied are you with the relationship with your brothers and sisters?
46. If you are married or in an intimate relationship, how satisfied are you with that relationship?
47. If you have children, how satisfied are you with your relationship with your children?
48. How satisfied are you with the relationships you have with friends?
49. How satisfied are you with your relationships you have with the members in your community with whom you interact (for example, your neighbors, physician, banker)?
50. Of all the relationships I just mentioned (recap), which relationships are the most satisfying to you?
51. Do you still correspond with old teammates from college? Yes/No
52. Would you say participation in a sport helped you with the relationships in your life? Yes/No

What additional comments do you have concerning your relationships?

The Dream is a person's general expectation of what he or she would like to achieve or become. How would you describe your Dream?

On a scale of 1 to 10 where 1 is low and 10 is the highest, how satisfied are you with the overall contributions of the OADSA with regard to the following areas: Your life satisfaction? Your career satisfaction? Your satisfactions with your relationships?

(A debriefing statement concluded the survey)

Predicting Academic Success for NCAA

Division I Student-Athletes

Keith Carodine

Milledge Murphey

Iris Orbach

Edward T. Rulka

Shane Frehlich

Douglas Barba

The University of Florida

Demographic data were obtained on the population of all freshmen student-athletes admitted to the University of Florida (UF) during 1995 ($N=91$). Demographic data included gender, race, age, distance from home, and several subjective measures. The researchers analyzed the relationship between UF's predictive index and student-athletes' actual Grade Point Average (GPA) and found a significant correlation ($r_{(89)}=.60$). The correlation between athletes' High School GPA (HSGPA) and their UF GPA was also significant ($r_{(89)}=.61$). No correlation was found between UF GPA and any of the subjective measures administered to the athletes. Recommendations are made for future testing and prediction of academic success for National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I student-athletes.

Over the last few years as a result of the Student Right-to-Know act (Zuckman, 1990) and NCAA legislation (NCAA, 1997) forcing schools to disclose graduation rates there has been increased scrutiny of the graduation rates of athletes participating in intercollegiate athletic programs. The issues involved are the result of two competing principles: the first being the university's responsibility to admit students who have a reasonable chance of academic progress including graduating, and the second the ability of the university's athletic programs to compete at a national level. This research is a preliminary investigation of the effectiveness of predictive devices used to identify the expected academic success of incoming student-athletes.

Administrators seeking to minimize the occurrence of admitting academically ill-prepared students to their institutions have long sought measures for accurate prediction of a high school student-athlete's likelihood of success at NCAA Division I schools. During 1965, the NCAA devised a formula which reliably predicted a student-athletes' first year college GPA (Wagner, 1972). This "1.600 Rule" mandated that in order to be eligible to play, an individual must achieve a minimum GPA of 1.600 college prep curriculum (based on a maximum 4.00). The 1.6 was the result of research conducted under the direction of the Academic Testing and Requirements Committee, chaired by

James H. Weaver of the Atlantic Coast Conference during 1963 and 1964. The committee's research analyzed the academic performances of 40,900 students at 80 member institutions and produced an expectancy table. The table was based upon high school academic performance in college preparatory curriculum correlated with scores on the SAT or other standard college entrance tests. Its purpose as explained by committee member Laurence C. Wood of the University of Kansas was to enhance a college's ability to judge a student's probability of academic success prior to being considered for an athletic scholarship (Falla, 1981).

Critics believed that the 1.6 rule was too lenient and suggested that it interfered with autonomy and responsibility of member institutions. Further, they suggested that the validity of the predictive tests was questionable. As a result, the 2.0 rule was implemented. This rule, however, turned out to be too lenient, as it simply required a student-athlete to graduate from high school with a 2.0 GPA without requiring credit in any specific college preparatory courses. During the 1980s, Proposition 48 was devised and implemented in order to tighten admissions standards for high school athletes (Lederman, 1992). Proposition 48 required the student-athlete to complete 11 core (college prep) courses with 2.0 GPA and to score a minimum of 700 on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) or 15 on the American College Test (ACT).

Proposition 48 has improved graduation rates, however, it has not provided an accurate indication of a student's actual chance to graduate from NCAA Division I schools. As a result, a predictive index (PI) was developed to predict the first year GPA of students admitted to the University of Florida (UF). According to Bill Kolb, Director of Admissions at UF, the predictive index was originally developed for the institution by the Educational Testing Service (ETS). The formula has been updated several times by faculty members at the UF, with the most recent update completed by David Denslow Ph.D., Professor of Economics at UF during 1990. The current formula used at the University of Florida follows:

For students taking the SAT (Old Scoring System):

(Verbal Subscore x .00081)+(Quantitative Subscore x .00102)

(HSGPA x .61) - .3184 = UF predicted first year GPA

For students taking the ACT:

(Eng. x .0314)+(Math x .0201) + (HSGPA x .44) = UF predicted first year GPA

An individual student-athlete who meets the minimum Proposition 48 requirements has a predictive index of only 1.54 based on the above formula, and thus is an academic risk.

Another issue which has arisen as a flaw in utilizing Proposition 48 and Proposition 16 as admission criteria is the practice of grade forgiveness. In order to determine a student-athlete NCAA core GPA only the 13 "best" courses are considered. University of Florida policy does not allow grade forgiveness for current students in determining HSGPA for admission purposes. Therefore all college prep courses are calculated in the HSGPA. For example, if a student takes algebra I in the ninth grade and earns a "D", but repeats the course in the eleventh grade and earns a "B" both the "D" and "B" grades are calculated in the predictive index. As a result, a person who met the NCAA standards, but repeated several high school courses could remain inadmissible to UF. A student-athlete is admissible to UF if he or she meets NCAA qualifier requirements and if the

predicted first year GPA is 1.6 minimum on a 4.0 scale. The reason 1.6 is used as the admission criteria instead of 2.0 is because research conducted by UF faculty indicates that student-athletes perform at .40 of a letter grade higher than non-athletes with comparable admissions records. This performance increment is attributed to the academic support provided to student-athletes by the University Athletic Association Office of Student Life.

Although proposition 48 has increased the graduation rates of student-athletes, admissions officials at UF believed that this standard did not indicate that a student-athlete had more than a reasonable chance to graduate from the institution. As a result, the predictive index developed by ETS was adopted for admissions of special populations (inclusive of student-athletes) at the University.

Currently college and university administrators nationwide continue to search for a tool that will accurately predict which student-athletes will be successful in their academic programs. Details of current databased predictions, methods, and results, are presented in this paper, and recommendations are rendered based on continuing study. Admission offices and athletic departments of NCAA Division I universities nationwide may choose to consider these methods and suggestions in their own programs.

METHOD AND HYPOTHESES

Predictive and demographic data reflective of the freshman student-athletes at UF during 1995 were obtained from UF's Office of Student Life ($N=91$). Predictive data consisted of each athlete's HSGPA, SAT and/or ACT score, UF Predictive Index (PI), and several subjective measures. The PI combines the scores of the SAT or ACT with the HSGPA to predict the student-athletes' academic performance for the freshman year at UF. The subjective measures included the following: Dropout proneness, predicted academic difficulty, educational stress, receptivity to institutional help, academic motivation, social motivation, general coping, receptivity to support services, and initial impression of the staff concerning the student-athlete. Demographic data used consisted of family background, which included age, gender, race, parents' education level, and distance from home.

Because the PI includes HSGPA and admission test score, it was hypothesized that the PI would be a better predictor of first year college GPA than either of its component measures. Each of the subjective measures was designed to correlate positively with GPA, and it was therefore predicted that this relationship would hold true for the present data.

Demographic data was expected to follow established patterns. Results of other studies have suggested that relative to Caucasians, African-Americans receive lower grades and score lower on standardized tests of academic ability (Bachman, 1970; Demo & Parker, 1987; Herring, 1989; Howard & Hammon, 1985; Levine & Eubanks, 1990; Osborne, 1995; Reyes & Stanic, 1988; Simmons, Brown, Buch, & Blyth, 1978; Steele, 1992). It was further demonstrated that female student-athletes are better prepared for university work and perform better academically at that level than their male counterparts (Eitzen, 1987-1988). It was expected that these relationships would be evident in the present population.

Intuitively, it was expected that the farther from home an individual is at college, the lower would be her/his academic performance (i.e., lower GPA). Students matriculating great distances from home might not often be able to visit with or talk with parents and friends, severing the support network that existed during high school. Thus, there was an anticipated negative correlation between miles from home and GPA.

Finally, it was predicted that students would have a higher GPA if their parents were educated. It was hypothesized that parents who earned college degrees would be better able to prepare their children for the university experience than would parents with high school education or less.

All predictive and demographic variables were analyzed using Microsoft Excel to determine the Pearson Product Moment correlation between all variables of interest including actual UF GPA. Several Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) were calculated for UF GPA to determine significant differences as a function of gender, race, parents' education level, and distance from home.

RESULTS

The overall correlation between UF's predicted GPA and the athlete's actual GPA was strongly positive $r_{(89)} = .603, p < .001$. By sport, significant correlations were found for football, $r_{(21)} = .634, p < .01$, men's basketball, $r_{(4)} = .913, p < .01$, men's track, $r_{(3)} = .879, p < .05$, women's soccer $r_{(16)} = .778, p < .001$, and women's track, $r_{(5)} = .908, p < .01$. For some sports there was no significant correlation. Baseball, men's golf, men's swimming, and women's swimming yielded little correlation between predicted and actual GPA. A correlation could not be computed for gymnastics, and women's golf because of small samples.

The overall correlation for the athletes' HSGPA and their actual UF GPA was significant $r_{(89)} = .613, p < .001$. No other significant correlations were found between UF GPA and any of the subjective measures administered to the athletes.

The descriptive statistics of race, gender, parents' education level, and distance from home were also compared. Significant differences were observed between GPA in two categories. Caucasian GPA were significantly higher than African-American GPA, $F_{(1,84)} = 4.61, p < .013$ ($M = 2.63, M = 2.20$, respectively), and female GPA were significantly higher than male GPA, $F_{(1,88)} = 21.80, p < .001$ ($M = 2.89, M = 2.28$, respectively). No significant differences were found between GPA of student-athletes coming from different levels of parental education, $F_{(2,87)} = 1.12, p = 0.332$. Nor was a significant difference found between student-athletes GPA and their distance from home, $F_{(5,85)} = .80, p = 0.551$.

DISCUSSION

While it is encouraging that the UF PI, as indicated by this sample, is strongly correlated with actual UF GPA, it is interesting that HSGPA is an equally accurate predictor of success. Clearly, both measures are not required in order to make a reasonable prediction. However, the UF PI does possess one advantage over HSGPA. By using an

objective measure (SAT or ACT), UF PI controls for relative differences in quality of education at different high schools. Similar correlation studies should be conducted with subsequent admission classes before selecting one method over another. However, at the present time, maintenance of the UF PI seems warranted.

None of the subjective measures used were correlated with GPA. Therefore, continued use of these measures needs to be evaluated with other samples in order to make an appropriate evaluation of their use in a predictive equation. The factors studied were dropout proneness predicted academic difficulty, educational stress, receptivity to institutional help, academic motivation, social motivation, general coping, receptivity to support systems, and initial impression. Of most interest was the relationship between initial impression of the institution and GPA. The Initial Impression (II) construct is a cumulative rating made by an admissions counselor based upon all other subjective measures. The II was negatively correlated with GPA. While the correlation was not strong ($r = -.152$), it should alert the admissions staff at the university that in its present formulation these subjective measures are not positively correlated with GPA. The preliminary nature of this investigation would indicate that the use and formulation of these subjective measures in a predictive tool needs to be re-evaluated.

Demographic data examined were race, gender, and parents' education level. Significant differences were found between GPA of African-American and Caucasian student-athletes, and between female and male GPA. No significant differences were found between students of parents possessing different levels of education.

As predicted, Caucasian GPAs were significantly higher than African-American GPAs. This is congruent with previous research finding that African-Americans receive lower grades than Caucasians (Demo & Parker, 1987; Levine & Eubanks, 1990; Reyes & Stanic, 1988; Steele, 1992). Furthermore, as expected females GPAs were significantly higher than males GPAs. This effect was not surprising, as it has been suggested in the literature numerous times (Eitzen, 1987-1988). That no difference was found between students from different parental education levels was not expected. The researchers predicted that a significant difference would be revealed because of the intuitive appeal of the idea that children of highly educated parents would be academically more proficient (i.e., possess higher GPA) than children of less-educated parents. It appears logical that educated parents would have a more academically enriched home environment, and in families in which both parents are educated, income is likely to be higher than in those homes with less educated parents. However, it is possible that some children of these more affluent, better-educated families do not feel a need for the financial security of substantial post-college employment, and are therefore not motivated to succeed academically. Conversely, it is possible that many students whose parents are uneducated are driven by the desire to be the first member of the family to earn a college degree. These exceptions to the rule may have kept the mean GPA of the two groups' close.

The findings of this study support the use of predictive measures for use in NCAA Division I universities. It is suggested that universities continue to evaluate the use of subjective measures in an attempt to establish criteria with more stringent predictive value. In the future the use of more advanced statistical techniques such as multiple regression techniques will enable universities to develop more sensitive predictive tools. Furthermore, the continued statistical investigation of the at risk student-athlete population will provide supportive data for the universities assistance programs.

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Author Notes. Edward Rulka, M.E.S.S. recently completed graduate study at the University of Florida, where he was involved in several applied research projects.

Milledge Murphey, Ph.D. directs the Applied Sport Psychology Research Group at the University of Florida, where his primary research focus is high-risk sport. He is coordinator of the Sport Psychology graduate track and recently completed a 20-year longitudinal study of personality variables among high-risk sport participants.

Shane Frehlich, Ph.D. is an Assistant Professor at SUNY of Cortland, where he is studying visual search and attentional focus.

Douglas Barba, M.A., is a doctoral candidate at the University of Florida, where he is studying sport psychology. He has served as the Sport Psychology Consultant for the Women's Golf team at the University of Florida.

Iris Orbach, M.E.S.S., is a doctoral student at the University of Florida, where she is studying attribution retraining. She serves as a graduate assistant, teaching Sport and Fitness classes, and is active in a number of research projects.

Keith Carodine, Ph.D. is Associate Athletics Director at the University of Florida. He heads the Office of Student Life where he oversees the admissions and counseling of student-athletes.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Milledge Murphey, Ph.D., 142 FLG, UF, P.O. Box 118205, Gainesville, FL 32611-8205. Electronic Mail may be sent to: mmurphey@hhp.ufl.edu

An Exploration of Leadership Characteristics in College Athletes

Keith Eiche

William Sedlacek

Javaune Adams-Gaston

The University of Maryland at College Park

Research has been unclear as to what is associated with being a student athlete with leadership qualities. The purpose of this study was to provide more descriptive information regarding the attitudes and behaviors associated with leadership qualities in university athletes. The data suggested that leadership in university athletes is associated with: expecting higher grades, certainty of college major, decreased need for emotional/social counseling, increased social adjustment, and lower expectancy for transferring to another university. These results are discussed in terms of advising issues for student athletes.

A great deal of attention has been given to the parts athletes play in being role models and leaders. Indeed, the media have kept this topic in our national dialogue and cultural awareness (Attner, 1994; CNN, 1994; Telander, 1991). Athletes are often heralded as successful achievers that our children should emulate although they are vilified in the press when they show they are human by making mistakes (Attner, 1994). It is no wonder that athletes seem ambivalent towards our culture which was best exemplified by Charles Barkley's 1994 statement: "I am not a role model!"

This begs the question of whether or not athletes see themselves as leaders and/or role models. In particular, what are the basic leadership dynamics for college and professional athletes? In reviewing relevant research, it seems that the research community has lagged behind the popular sports media in offering hypotheses. Moreover, it is the responsibility of researchers to explore this topic, which has been relatively neglected.

Before examining leadership behaviors in athletes, it may be useful to review current leadership research in general. Most empirical work concerning leadership has been done in organizational and social psychology. In the 1950s and 1960s critical underlying dimensions to the leadership construct were investigated. This trait-factor type approach assumed that leadership effectiveness was associated with certain personality characteristics of the leader. However, the assertion that general leadership dimensions can be isolated has been abandoned due to the complex nature of this construct (Stogdill, 1974). Conversely, other theorists hypothesized that leadership was a function of the environment. This situationist view was based on environmental characteristics and the needs and motivations of the group (Stogdill, 1974).

Another position that has been asserted is an interactional perspective. Fiedler (1971) contended that the only reasonable model of leadership behavior is not based on general dimensions but on situational factors and their interaction with leader characteristics. Other interactional models of leadership have focused on the dyadic relationship between the leader and the follower. However, Fiedler's (1971) theory best exemplifies this person-environment interactional perspective.

Some researchers have tried to translate some of these concepts to the realm of athletics (Chelladurai, 1980; Smoll & Smith, 1989). Smoll and Smith (1989) posited a cognitive-behavioral model of leadership incorporating individual difference variables, situational factors, and cognitive processes that mediate the interactions between athletes and coaches. Chelladurai (1980) proposed a Multidimensional Model of Leadership in which the characteristics of the leader and group members interact with situational factors such as the athletic program philosophy. Thus, the specific characteristics of an effective leader are hypothesized to vary as a function of context. Therefore, the sport leader characteristics that are the most effective for male tennis players may be different than the characteristics of effective leaders on a women's lacrosse team. Glenn and Horn (1993) recommended that diverse samples of athletes should be studied in order to get a clearer picture of effective sport leadership.

In the sports research literature, leadership has been studied primarily in terms of coaching leadership and its effects on player performance (Serpa, Pataco, & Santos, 1991; Summers, 1991; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990). These studies have basically explored leadership from the coaching perspective. In particular, coaching leadership has been explored from the coach's point of view or from how the players' perceive the coach's leadership. In addition, some work has been done in exploring the impact of women's leadership/role modeling in increasing participation by females in athletics (Thorngren & Eisenbarth, 1994). Also, there has been some research regarding the effectiveness of programs using athletes as role models and educators in rape-awareness projects (Caron, 1993), violence against women prevention (Katz, 1995), and drug and alcohol abuse prevention (Palmer, Davis, Sher, & Hicks, 1989).

However, research concerning athletes' leadership behavior from the athletes' perspective seems limited. Some researchers have examined characteristics of team leaders that differentiate them from non-leaders. Kim (1992) explored four types of leadership by team captains and their effect on performance norms in high school and university athletic teams. She found that performance norms were highest when the team captain was rated high on goal achievement and group orientation (Kim, 1992). A study by Pascarella and Smart (1991) described the impact of collegiate athletic participation on a wide array of variables including leadership behavior. They concluded that athletic participation in college had a positive impact on leadership behavior and interpersonal skills (Pascarella & Smart, 1991).

Rierner and Chelladurai (1995) studied the association of preferred and perceived leadership with leadership satisfaction on a college football team. The authors found congruence between preferred and perceived leadership critical to the satisfaction of the players, but the authors only examined how the players perceived and preferred the leadership of the coaches (Rierner & Chelladurai, 1995). Glenn and Horn (1993) examined predictors of leadership behavior in female soccer athletes. The athletes who rated high in competence, femininity, and masculinity rated themselves higher in

leadership ability. Participants who rated high in leadership ability by their peers also exhibited high levels of competitive trait anxiety, masculinity, skill, and perceived competence. Glenn and Horn's (1993) study is noteworthy in the fact that the athletes' leadership ability was measured and not the coaches' leadership as in the majority of the current leadership research in sports.

It may be useful to conceptualize leadership as a construct that varies with group membership. Noncognitive variables such as leadership have been shown to be related to academic performance for what have been called nontraditional groups (Sedlacek, 1996). Nontraditional groups are defined as those receiving prejudice and who may show their abilities in unique ways, which may include university athletes (Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992).

The research on athletes' leadership dynamics can be characterized as incomplete. For example, the majority of studies look at coaches' leadership, which is a narrow perspective. Relatively few studies take on the task of measuring and describing leadership in the athlete from the athlete's perspective. Clearly, more exploration is needed in this area by obtaining a more thorough description of leadership in athletes and the behaviors and attitudes associated with athletes' leadership. The current research study will provide more information concerning what leadership looks like in college athletes. Furthermore, factors associated with leadership such as attitudes and behaviors of athletes will be assessed so that more accurate theories can be developed regarding leadership behavior in athletes.

METHOD

Participants

The participants were 73 freshman athletes at a large mid-Atlantic research university with an NCAA Division I athletic program. Participants were recruited from freshman orientation to college classes that are offered to assist incoming freshmen with adjusting to college life. The study was done in cooperation with the university athletic department.

Instrumentation

The SLBI (Sport Leadership Behavior Inventory), NCQ (Noncognitive Questionnaire), and the New Student Census for the university were administered to the 73 participants. Data were analyzed using Pearson correlations and the Eta statistic.

The SLBI was used as one way to operationalize leadership for the purposes of this study (Glenn & Horn, 1993). This scale was developed from a sample of high school varsity athletes and coaches concerning what characteristics and behaviors determine effective leadership. The SLBI was chosen because it is one of the only instruments available that was developed using primarily feedback from the perspective of team athletes. The SLBI has a fairly high alpha coefficient .85 and an acceptable test-retest reliability of .74 and an internal consistency rating of .91 for self-ratings of leadership behavior.

The SLBI consists of 25 items, 19 of which describe personal characteristics and/or behaviors that are deemed desirable for athletic team leaders and 6 filler items not related to leadership. The respondents were asked to indicate on a 7-point Likert

type scale the extent to which that item is descriptive of the individual being evaluated. The scores for the items were summed together to get a composite leadership score.

The leadership scale from the NCQ was also used to operationalize leadership in this study. The NCQ leadership scale consists of items using a 5-point Likert type scale (where 1 = strongly agree and 5 = strongly disagree) and an open-ended item concerning leadership positions held. The NCQ leadership scale has a test-retest reliability of .80 with a sample of university athletes (Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992).

The University New Student Census (Sedlacek, 1996) was used to evaluate the athletes' perceptions of leadership related activities and attitudes. Topic areas covered by census items included: attitudes towards campus life, willingness to utilize campus services/resources, relationships with others, and career/educational aspirations. The items are either forced-choice questions or 5-point Likert type scale items (where 1 = strongly agree and 5 = strongly disagree), and have content validity by being judged to be important by faculty and administrators. Previous forms of this instrument were shown to have test-retest reliability in the .80's.

Procedure

The participants were informed of the nature and purpose of the study and told they could withdraw their participation at any time. They were then asked to respond to the questionnaires and returned them to the experimenter. No participants declined to participate in the current study.

RESULTS

Demographics

The participants ranged in age from 17 to 22. There were 51 males and 22 females in the sample, and the ethnicity composition was 23% African American, 3% Asian/Asian American, 68% White/Caucasian, 2% Hispanic, 3% Biracial. The participants engaged in either revenue (e.g. football) or non-revenue (e.g. tennis) sports. However, no data were collected concerning the specific sports in which each athlete participated.

Validity Evidence of Leadership Indicators

The SLBI was significantly correlated with the census item directly pertaining to leadership. There was a significant relationship between SLBI scores and the statement "I do not have the skills to be a leader on campus" ($r = .26, p < .05$). As SLBI scores increased, athletes were more apt to feel they had leadership skills. The leadership domain of the NCQ was more strongly correlated with the same statement ($r = .36, p < .05$). However, the SLBI was only moderately correlated with the leadership scale of the NCQ ($r = .23, p < .06$).

The SLBI did show a positive correlation with the NCQ leadership domain, but the correlation was nonsignificant which suggests that the NCQ and the SLBI may be measuring somewhat different constructs and may not have psychometric statistics established with a college sample. This makes sense in light of the fact that the SLBI was developed with high school athletes.

Strength of association was calculated for the census items and the NCQ leadership domain using Pearson correlations or the ETA statistic. All of the relationships discussed in the following sections were significant either at the .01 level ($p < .01$) or the .05 level ($p < .05$). A total of 61 correlations were computed among all of the items. Since so many correlations were computed, Type I error is a concern with some of the findings possibly occurring by chance. However, given the number of correlations computed (61), we would expect that approximately 6 correlations would be significant by chance at the .05 level (Sakoda, Cohen, & Beall, 1954). However, we found 16 out of 61 correlations significant at the .05 or .01 level. Furthermore, if we found only significance by chance, the results would have no real organizing patterns or themes. However, our results did yield patterns of findings that are coherent and non-random. In addition, since this is a topic area and population that does not receive a great deal of research attention, we are less concerned with a Type I error and more concerned with a Type II error.

Positive Expectations from College Experience

As leadership scores on the NCQ increased, expectations to obtain good grades and expecting that it will not be difficult to obtain at least a B average increased ($r = -.35, p < .01$). In addition, SLBI leadership behavior was positively associated with athletes feeling that instructors will care about students ($r = -.23, p < .05$) and that their courses would be stimulating and exciting ($r = -.30, p < .01$). As leadership scores decreased on the NCQ, expectations of not receiving a degree increased ($r = .25, p < .05$). Furthermore, increased leadership behaviors as measured by the NCQ were associated with a decreased expectation of transferring to another college ($r = .29, p < .05$). In addition, increased leadership tendencies in athletes as assessed by the SLBI were associated with the desire to attend college even if better jobs were available ($\text{Eta} = .51, p < .01$).

Social/Psychological Resources

As leadership scores in the athletes increased on the NCQ, the expressed need to seek emotional/social counseling decreased ($r = -.24, p < .05$). In addition, as NCQ measured leadership increased the expectation that it will be difficult to adjust to the social life of college decreased ($r = .28, p < .05$). Leadership was positively associated with awareness of study skills resources available to the athlete ($r = -.29, p < .05$). A last finding was that as leadership scores increased on the NCQ expectations of being able to balance the demands of a job and a personal life increased ($r = -.26, p < .05$).

Emphasis on Education

Higher SLBI leadership scores were associated with gaining a general education and self-improvement as the main reasons to attend college ($\text{Eta} = .51, p < .01$). Conversely, lower leadership scores were associated with getting a better job as the main reason to attend college ($\text{Eta} = .51, p < .01$). A related finding is that high SLBI leadership scores were associated with plans to go on to graduate school while lower

scores were associated with being undecided or working full-time after college ($\eta^2 = .50, p < .01$).

DISCUSSION

It seems from the current results that college athletes who exhibit leadership tendencies are optimistic and expect good things from their college experience. These attitudes take the form of: expecting to get good grades, feeling that instructors will care about students, expecting to graduate with a degree, not wanting to transfer to another college, and expecting that classes will be stimulating. These positive expectations can lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy of success for an athlete. This could take place in the classroom or on the playing field. Noncognitive variables such as leadership have been shown to be correlated with academic performance and retention (Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992). The current findings serve as a useful link to previous results pointing to noncognitive factors associated with making good grades. It can be argued that "leader" athletes may feel more in control of satisfying long and short-term goals than athletes who do not possess these skills. Moreover, the athlete may feel more able in influencing people in the environment in such a way that satisfies the athlete's needs.

An interesting finding is that athletes who responded high in leadership did not expect to have a problem with social adjustment to college and were not interested in counseling for emotional or social issues. This would further indicate an attitude of confidence and an internal ability to cope with stressors. This finding may seem to be positive except that an athlete may feel that he or she should be able to handle a situation that is actually overwhelming. From an interactionist perspective, leader athletes who tend to look inward for solutions to problems and are placed in a competitive environment with little support may have difficulty and may be overwhelmed. It is important to consider these individual leadership attitudes/behaviors in college athletes in terms of the competitive context in which they operate.

In addition, leadership in athletes was associated not only with graduating with a degree but higher leadership scores were associated with wanting to obtain a graduate degree. Moreover, leadership in athletes was associated with the desire to stay in school even if better jobs were available. These findings provide evidence for a strong value placed on education and runs counter to the popular media stereotype of the college athlete turning professional to get more money when given the opportunity. Therefore, leadership seems to be associated with an investment in education and the institution the athlete attends.

In conclusion, leadership in college athletes appears to be associated with a strong internal sense of control and an optimism when dealing with problems. Athletes are certainly placed in situations where they can develop their leadership skills, and these situations may draw out leadership behaviors in individuals who may not otherwise exhibit such characteristics. Competing with other intercollegiate schools and with each other intrateam gives the college athlete multiple opportunities to exhibit leadership. Which athletes are the leaders and which are the followers when the coach is absent is an important question that may help athletic directors and coaches gain more insight into team dynamics. Theories in leadership research in college athletics have often addressed coaching leadership and not leadership in the athletes.

Leadership is a highly complex construct that has been shown to change with the individual and situation. Future research can be directed at operationalizing leadership from the athlete's perspective. The current study is an attempt to begin this work in describing what attitudes and behaviors are associated with leadership with this population so that theories may be formulated. A future research project that would contribute to this area would be a qualitative study where college athletes describe what they think leadership is. Clearly, more descriptive research needs to be conducted before leadership in college athletes can be understood.

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