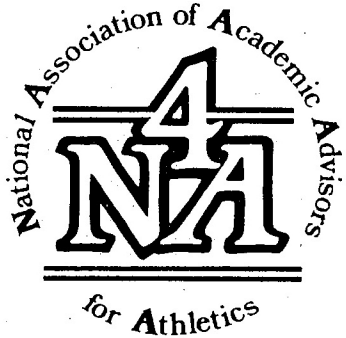
ACADEMIC ATHLETIC JOURNAL

The Official Publication of the
National Association of Academic
Advisors for Athletics



SPRING 1992
ISSN 0897-165X

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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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Articles for the fall issue should be submitted no later than August 1, and for the spring issue no later than February 1.

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ATHLETIC SCHOLARSHIPS AS CONTRACTS: LEGAL RAMIFICATIONS FOR THE UNIVERSITY AND OBLIGATIONS OF THE STUDENT-ATHLETE

Judy L. Reed
Texas A & M University

ABSTRACT

Scholarships based on athletic ability are the principal method used by universities to attract student-athletes to their schools. The idea that athletic scholarships are contracts between student-athletes and universities has been argued in the court system on a limited basis. Selected court cases pertaining to athletic scholarships for athletic performance are reviewed, and the contractual obligation that exists for universities to educate student-athletes is considered.

INTRODUCTION

On November 6, 1989, Rutgers University played Princeton University in what is recognized as the first college football game (Smith, 1988). From these early beginnings, its popularity spread quickly as colleges discovered the value of football, particularly winning football. However, the early games were filled with violence and corruption. In 1905, representatives of 13 colleges met in Washington, D. C., to discuss the fate of college football. At this meeting, President Theodore Roosevelt admonished the colleges either to reform college football or to give it up. On December 28, 1905, the Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States was formed to govern college sports (Smith, 1988). The association was renamed the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) in 1910.

Since its origin, the NCAA has grown to a membership of over 1000 institutions (Lapchick, 1989a). Through the years the role of the NCAA has

expanded to include specific rules concerning eligibility, ethical conduct, recruiting, financial aid, awards, playing and practice seasons, championships, and rule enforcement (Tow, 1989). Unfortunately, as institutions strive to put winning teams on the field, college athletics has again become filled with corruption and illegalities.

A recent case of dishonesty uncovered rules violations involving members of the University of Missouri men's basketball team (Horst, 1990). Violations included the use of an improper recruiting agent, scholarship payments to an ineligible player, and small cash payments to other players. As a result of these infractions, the Mizzou men's basketball team was banned from the 1991 NCAA basketball tournament.

Meggyesy (1989) suggests that, if college athletics is to survive, reform must occur. For reform to take place, a clear definition of the relationship between major college sports programs and scholarship student-athletes must be formulated. This involves clarifying and changing the public's misconceptions about the role of student-athletes in big-time sports programs. As Meggyesy states, the NCAA and its member institutions have developed and endorsed the idealized characterization of the scholarship athlete as a student who receives an athletic scholarship and becomes a student-athlete. The university provides the student-athlete with the chance to attain a college education while being promoted as an amateur.

According to Meggyesy (1989), this perception is greatly in error. A more realistic and honest depiction suggests that athletes have entered into an employment contract with the university through the athletic scholarship. The terms of the employment contract include an obligation by the athlete to participate in all activities connected with the sport, including games, practices, and off-season training and conditioning sessions. In many ways, from the athletic department's perspective, the student-athlete is an employee, not a student.

This paradox is reiterated by many concerned about the future of college athletics (Lapchick, 1989b). The purpose of this paper is to examine court decisions concerning athletic scholarships as contracts between student-athletes and universities and to discuss the legal ramifications and concerns associated with the employer/employee relationship embodied in scholarships as contracts. In order to analyze the legalities of athletic scholarships, the NCAA regulations pertinent to athletic scholarships and the contents of a legal contract will be discussed.

NCAA RULES AND REGULATIONS

An examination of all NCAA rules and regulations exceeds the scope of this paper. However, an understanding of the rules that govern student-athlete eligibility is necessary in order to scrutinize scholarships as contracts.

According to Tow (1989), one purpose of the NCAA is to initiate, stimulate, and improve intercollegiate athletics programs for student-athletes and to promote and develop educational leadership, physical fitness, athletics excellence, and athletics participation as a recreational pursuit. Therefore, students who participate in intercollegiate athletics must be amateurs. The NCAA defines an amateur student-athlete as one who engages in a particular sport for the educational, physical, mental, and social benefits derived therefrom and for whom participation in that sport is an avocation. Athletes lose their amateur status and, therefore, eligibility for participation in interscholastic athletics if they, among other things, use their athletic skills (directly or indirectly) for pay in any form in that sport.

However, student-athletes may receive scholarships or educational grants-in-aid administered by an educational institution. Financial aid means the funds provided to student-athletes from various sources to pay or assist in paying their cost of education at the institution. Full institutional financial aid is payment for tuition and fees, room and board, and required course-related textbooks, and it cannot exceed the total value of these items.

Other restrictions are placed on scholarships if athletic ability is taken into consideration in any degree when financial aid is awarded. Such aid cannot be awarded in excess of one academic year or for more than five years total. Institutions may gradate or cancel financial aid during the period of the award for three reasons: (1) the recipients become ineligible for intercollegiate competition; (2) they fraudulently misrepresent any information on an application, letter of intent, or financial aid agreement; or (3) they voluntarily withdraw from a sport for personal reasons.

Student-athletes often declare their intention to compete for a particular school by signing a National Letter of Intent. This letter is an official document administered by the Collegiate Commission Association and is used by member institutions to establish the commitment of prospects to attend particular institutions. The accepting institution then responds in writing to a prospect that a grant-in-aid for athletics will be offered by that institution.

CONTENTS OF A BINDING CONTRACT

Considering the issue of athletic scholarships as contracts requires an understanding of the criteria for a contract. A contract is any agreement expressed orally or in writing between two or more people to do or not do something in exchange for something else (Meehan, Milko, & Ostberg, 1989). In order to have a valid contract, five elements must be present: (1) offer; (2) acceptance; (3) consideration; (4) itemized terms; and (5) no valid defenses.

An offer is an invitation to make a deal or an invitation to exchange promises. Acceptance is the agreement to the deal on the terms offered. The offer and the acceptance may be oral or written. Acceptance, however, may be inferred when one party completes one side of the contract or, in some cases, when one party fails to complete one side of the contract (Meehan et al., 1989).

Consideration is the glue that binds a deal. To have a valid contract, there must be an exchange; i.e., each party must give up something of value. This exchange may not be a duty that one has already previously agreed to do or a duty by which one is legally bound. In these situations, there is no consideration and therefore no contract.

In making a contract, it must be clear who is making the contract and what property, time, place, price, and other pertinent details are involved (Meehan et al., 1989). These "terms" help define each side's rights and obligations in the contract. If the essential terms are missing or vague, no "meeting of the minds" has occurred and, technically, no contract is present.

When a contract has been entered into with an offer, acceptance, consideration, and clear terms, the contract may not be enforceable if one side has a valid defense against enforcing it (Meehan et al., 1989). Valid defenses may be that a contract was entered into for illegal purposes, that one or both sides were not competent to enter into the contract, that the contract violates the state's Statute of Frauds (generally, a law requiring certain obligations to be set forth in writing), that one side was forced or tricked into signing the contract, or that the contract includes unconscionable provisions.

ATHLETIC SCHOLARSHIPS AS CONTRACTS

Various definitions of scholarships have been suggested contrary to the definition used by the NCAA. According to Shea and Wieman (1977), the term "athletic scholarship" refers to financial aid awarded to a student primarily for athletic prowess. Stotlar (1985) defines an athletic scholarship as payment for athletic performance. It is distinguished from other aid because the amount of the scholarship is not based on need, because minimal academic qualifications are placed on the recipient, and because the scholarship may be withdrawn for nonacademic reasons.

The question persists whether scholarships are contracts between student-athletes and institutions; this has been argued in the court system on a limited basis. Weistard and Lowell (1979) proposed that, in order to resolve these cases, the courts must determine the relationship between student-athletes and institutions. Two alternative perspectives are suggested: traditional or contractual.

The traditional view considers student-athletes as members of the institution's student body participating in athletics as part of the educational program and receiving financial aid to defray the cost of an education. Conversely, the contractual view holds that athletic participation is undertaken in exchange for the promise of financial support. Athletics are judged not as a part of the general concept of education but more as a business activity conducted by the school. In this relationship, student-athletes are recognized as employees of the institution. Consequently, parties are subject to all legal principles attached to contractual transactions and the employer/employee

relationship. A review of court opinions provides an understanding of the current status of athletic scholarships as contracts.

COURT CASES

In the few cases that have interpreted athletic scholarships, the courts have treated the scholarships as contractual arrangements (Weistard & Lowell, 1979).

The case most often cited concerning scholarships as contracts is *Taylor v. Wake Forest University* (1972). In this case, Gregg Taylor and his father sued Wake Forest University for recovery of educational expenses and alleged wrongful termination of an athletic scholarship.

In February 1967, Gregg Taylor signed an application entitled "Atlantic Coast Conference Application for a Football Grant-In-Aid or a Scholarship," which in part stated the following:

> This grant will be for four years provided I conduct myself in accordance with the rules of the Conference, the NCAA, and the Institution. I agree to maintain eligibility for intercollegiate athletics under both Conference and Institutional rules. Training rules for intercollegiate athletics are considered rules of the Institution, and I agree to abide by them. . . .This grant is awarded for academic and athletic achievement and is not to be interpreted as employment in any manner.

Taylor enrolled as a student at Wake Forest in the fall of 1967, earning a GPA of 1.00. At the time, Wake Forest required student-athletes to attain an average GPA of 1.35 after the freshman year. In February 1968, Taylor informed the football coach that he would not participate in spring football practice until his grades improved. At the end of the spring semester, Taylor's grades had improved so that he met Wake Forest's minimum GPA for freshman student-athletes.

By that time, Taylor had decided he no longer wanted to participate in football and refused to attend practice sessions. In July 1969, the university notified Taylor that his scholarship had been terminated as of the end of the 1968-69 academic year. Taylor continued his studies at Wake Forest and received a degree in June 1971. For the two years he was not on scholarship, a total of $5,000 in expenses was accrued. Taylor and his father brought suit to recover this amount.

The trial court granted a summary judgment (i.e., judgment without trial) to the university, and the Taylors appealed. On appeal, the court found that Taylor failed to comply with his contractual agreement to attend and participate in football practice and therefore the summary judgment was proper.

The question of a contractual agreement between the student-athlete and the institution was also examined in *Begley v. The Corporation of Mercer*

University (1973), in which Mark Begley attempted to recover educational expenses when a basketball scholarship, awarded to him as a result of incorrect assumptions, was denied him. Begley and Mercer University entered into a "contract" in January 1972, agreeing that Mark would receive monetary aid to assist him in pursuing a degree from the university in exchange for his participation on Mercer's basketball team. The stipulations of the contract in part were as follows:

> The student will receive aid toward the completion of an undergraduate degree for participating in basketball provided that he abides by all University Regulations, keeps all training rules, maintains satisfactory progress toward graduating, maintains a minimum GPA of 1.60 and abides by all rules and regulations of the NCAA.

Prior to the university's offer of the scholarship, Begley's GPA had been figured at 2.90. Under NCAA regulations, scholarships were limited to student-athletes who had a minimum GPA of 1.60 (based on a 4.00 scale). Before Begley enrolled at the university, admissions officers at Mercer discovered that Begley's GPA had been figured on an 8.00 scale. One-half of the 2.90 GPA originally calculated gave Begley a GPA below NCAA standards. Begley was then notified that the scholarship from Mercer could not be honored. Based on these facts, Begley brought suit to retain the scholarship.

The court found that, from the commencement of the agreement, Begley was not able to comply with the fifth condition of the contract. Therefore, because Begley was unable to perform his part of the contract, he was not entitled to the performance of the contract by the university. Hence, Mercer University was correct in discontinuing Begley's athletic scholarship.

Another case focused on the contractual burden of an oral promise of a scholarship. In 1982, the oral agreement between a student-athlete and an institution was found to be obligatory ("Athlete Wins," 1984). In this case, Jeff Fishel sued Northeast Missouri State after he had been told he would not be given a full athletic scholarship for the 1982-83 academic year as promised by the university's football coach. Fishel had played junior college football for two years before enrolling at Northeast Missouri State in the spring of 1982, expecting to play football the following fall on a full scholarship. The scholarship was not granted, and Fishel brought suit against the school. The court found that the university had breached an oral contract made to Fishel. Fishel's position was strengthened by the fact that he had enrolled in the university, which was interpreted as a willingness on his part to fulfill his part of the contract.

Because of these decisions, some courts have begun to refer to athletic scholarships as contracts. For example, the case report for *Waters v. University of South Carolina* (1984) declares that the athletic scholarship is a contract, noting that "Waters signed an athletic grant-in-aid contract with the University of South Carolina to play football."

PROBLEMS WITH THE CONTRACTUAL VIEW

Although these decisions may seem reasonable, Weistard & Lowell (1979) suggest several problems which may arise when the relationship between student-athletes and institutions is perceived to be contractual. First, if the athletic scholarship creates a contractual agreement in which student-athletes participate in consideration of the award (i.e., financial aid), then they may be violating NCAA regulations which require participants to retain amateur status (since the award is an economic benefit, or "pay"). Second, if student-athletes wish to withdraw from school or transfer to another school, a breach of contract could be adduced on the part of the student-athletes. Institutions then might be able to sue student-athletes for breach of contract and demand that services be rendered (although public policy rarely requires such "specific performance" of an act a person doesn't want to do). Third, if scholarships are awarded in exchange for participation, the relationship could be viewed as the institution providing compensation to student-athletes for personal services. An employer/employee relationship could be construed, qualifying student-athletes for workmen's compensation if injured on the "job."

What have the courts found? With regard to the amateur status of scholarship student-athletes, no court to date has been asked to determine this question. In order to preserve the constitution of the NCAA, this may never be brought to issue. However, the question of breach of contract has been addressed. In most cases, the courts will not require specific performance in personal service contracts (Schubert, Smith, & Trentadue, 1986).

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION CASES

The question of workmen's compensation brings up many interesting issues. Some cases have followed the reasoning that a contractual relationship between student-athletes and institutions results in employee status for student-athletes, and attempts have been made to secure consideration for injured players under workmen's compensation legislation.

In *University of Denver v. Nemeth* (1953), Nemeth was injured while participating in spring football practice and asserted that he was employed to play football for the university. The court found that the injuries sustained by Nemeth arose out of and in the course of his employment, and Nemeth was granted compensation.

In *Rensing v. Indiana State University* (1982), Fred Rensing was on full athletic scholarship at Indiana State University. In April 1976, Rensing was injured while participating in spring football practice and was left 95-100% disabled. Following his disability, Rensing applied for workmen's compensation through the Industrial Board of Indiana and was denied. Rensing appealed. To reach a judgment, the court focused on the definition of "employee" under workmen's compensation statutes. An "employee" was defined as a person in the service of another, under any contract of hire or apprenticeship, written or implied, except whose employment is both casual and

not in the usual course of the trade, business, occupation, or profession of the employer. The court found that the financial agreement between Rensing and the university established an employer/employee relationship. Subsequent to this finding, however, Rensing was not granted relief because his "employment" was found to be seasonal and not the business of the university.

Other cases have found that student-athletes are not employees of the institution, and compensation has not been granted when student-athletes are injured while participating in college athletic competition. In *Coleman v. Western Michigan University* (1983), Willie Coleman sought workmen's compensation claiming that, as a scholarship athlete, he was an employee of the university. In determining whether there was a contract for hire, the court found none:

> We do not find that any contract existed between plaintiff and defendant university so as to bring plaintiff's claim. Per plaintiff's testimony, his purpose at the university was to further his education. In order to be able to financially accomplish this, he played football. It was understood that, in order to have his scholarship renewed each year, plaintiff had to attend practices and games and otherwise fulfill the requirements of a university football player. The record does not support the inference that plaintiff considered himself an "employee" for the university.

In *State Compensation Insurance Fund v. Industrial Commission* (1957) and *Van Horn v. Industrial Accident Commission* (1963), the courts found that the injured student-athletes were not under contract of hire and were not rendering services within the meaning of the Workmen's Compensation Act. Benefits were denied in both cases.

A case which may set precedent for workmen's compensation cases for student-athletes, however, is *Graczyk v. Workers' Compensation Appeals Board* (1986). The status of the student-athlete was determined not to be that of employee, based on a statute denying this relationship. In this case, Ricky Graczyk appealed a decision that he was not an employee of the university, although he was on athletic scholarship. In finding that Graczyk was not an employee of the university, the court cited the California Labor Code, Section 3352(k):

> Employee status is not granted to any student participating as an athlete in amateur sporting events sponsored by any public agency, public or private nonprofit college, university or school, who receives remuneration for such participation other than the use of athletic equipment, uniforms, transportation, meals, lodging scholarships, grant-in-aid, or other expenses incidental thereto.

CONCLUSIONS

College athletics is a valuable institution. Many people—students, administrators, players, spectators, and alumni—are committed to higher education because of college athletics (Rush, 1989). The opportunity for many young people to attend college is provided because of athletic scholarships. Since 1952, when the NCAA first allowed scholarships based on athletic ability alone, many students have had the opportunity to further their education because of the athletic scholarship.

For college athletics to survive, the relationship between student-athletes and universities must be clearly defined (Meggyesy, 1989). According to some recent court decisions, a contractual agreement binds the athlete and the university through the athletic scholarship even before the student-athlete arrives on campus. The student-athlete agrees to perform in the competitive arena, and the university agrees to provide the student-athlete with the opportunity for an education.

However, the courts have ruled that the athletic scholarship does not imply that the student-athlete is an employee of the university. The most recent court case to examine the student-athlete/university relationship (*Graczyk v. Workers' Compensation Appeals Board*, 1986) found that the relationship was not that of employee/employer. Also of interest is the decision in *Rensing v. Indiana State University* (1982), in which the court found that student-athletes are not employees of the university based on the idea that athletics is not the "business" of the university.

What, then, is the business of the university? Logically, its primary business is to educate all students. Johnson (1985) suggests that the athletic scholarship implies a contractual obligation to educate student-athletes that is no different from the obligation to educate the general student body. However, he emphasizes that a stronger case of liability can be made for student-athletes. According to Johnson, athletes go to college under different conditions than ordinary students do. The conflict of interest in the universities' bargaining position refutes the assumption that schools act in good faith, for, as Meggyesy (1989) found, many athletic departments view student-athletes as employees of the university.

Because neither the NCAA nor any other external regulatory bodies have prevented many of the academic abuses in college athletics, legal recourse based on contract theory is an appropriate means of insuring justice for student-athletes. As Johnson (1985) states, "recognition by the courts of the contract to educate the student-athlete resurrects the 'student first, athlete second' contention as a fundamental premise of American higher education."

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PLANNING ALCOHOL EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR INTERCOLLEGIATE STUDENT-ATHLETES

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ABSTRACT

Issues and concerns in planning and implementing alcohol education programs for student-athletes are outlined. Factors that may contribute to alcohol abuse by student-athletes are discussed, and structural and implementation problems with existing alcohol education programs are addressed. Finally, a six-part comprehensive alcohol education program is presented which includes the following components: education, enhancement, support, counseling, follow-up, and evaluation.

PLANNING ALCOHOL EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR INTERCOLLEGIATE STUDENT-ATHLETES

During the last decade, academic advisors for student-athletes have seen their roles expand to include counseling and career development functions (Mand & Fletcher, 1986). With the advent of the NCAA's alcohol and drug education efforts, it is likely that many athletic counselors will also be asked to organize and implement alcohol education programs. The purpose of this article is to provide athletic counselors with an introduction to alcohol education. Specifically, three general questions will be discussed: Why are student-athletes at risk for alcohol problems? Why have some alcohol education programs failed? What are the components of successful alcohol education efforts?

WHY STUDENT-ATHLETES ARE AT RISK FOR ALCOHOL PROBLEMS

In general, drinking has become an integral part of the developmental process of adolescence (Jessor & Jessor, 1977). The independence inherent in the college experience, coupled with the availability of alcohol, places college students at risk for developing alcohol-related problems. For example, the rate of binge drinking, defined as five or more drinks during some occasion in the past month, has been reported at 52% for males aged 18-24 (Centers for Disease Control, 1983).

Although there has been some debate over whether student-athletes use more alcohol than their non-athletic student counterparts, recent investigations suggest that alcohol is the drug of choice for intercollegiate student-athletes and is used at a significantly higher rate than that of the general college student population (Nattiv & Puffer, 1991). Some studies have shown that as many as 91% of college student-athletes and 90% of non-athletes use alcohol (Toohey, 1978; Toohey & Corder, 1981) and approximately 20% have either misused or abused alcohol (Murphy et al., 1985).

It is likely that the factors motivating the drinking behavior in the general population as well as factors specific to the athletic experience contribute to student-athletes' alcohol problems. Nine of these factors are discussed below.

Identity Foreclosure

The quest for athletic excellence typically requires intense attention to be focused on sports goals. Student-athletes invest an enormous amount of time and energy in sport, often at the expense of academic, career, and social pursuits (Remer, Tongate, & Watson, 1978). The need to give "110%" is often demanded by coaches and internalized by student-athletes. While this focus may facilitate athletic excellence, it often leaves student-athletes with little time or energy to engage in the developmental tasks necessary to establish a personal identity (Petitpas & Champagne, 1988).

An important developmental task of college students is exploration and experimentation with different roles and behaviors (Marcia, 1966; Super, 1963). Through the process of exploratory behavior, individuals learn about themselves and develop a wider range of coping resources. Unfortunately, the athletic experience may inhibit opportunities for exploratory behavior and promote a premature commitment to athletics (Heyman, 1987; Nelson, 1983; Petitpas, 1981).

The process of making ideological and occupational commitments without exploratory behavior has been labeled "identity foreclosure" (Marcia, 1966). Foreclosed individuals exhibit considerable anxiety in the face of threats

to their careers or challenges to their beliefs. For student-athletes, the selection process, injury, and other types of forced retirement are continual threats (Pearson & Petitpas, 1990). With a limited number of coping resources, some student-athletes apparently may turn to alcohol to cope with their unplanned disengagement from sport (Ogilvie & Howe, 1986).

Pressure

Sport competition is a public activity observed by teammates, coaches, fans, friends, and in some cases the media. Student-athletes are under constant public and personal pressure to win (Heyman, 1990). If they perform well, student-athletes are expected to "keep up the good work"; if they perform poorly, they are challenged to improve, to "do it next time." The desire to reach peak performance capacity in athletics is great (McGuire, 1990). When the pressure becomes too great, some student-athletes use alcohol to escape (Heyman, 1990; Ogilvie, 1981).

Alcohol in the Sport Culture

Alcohol is inextricably linked to sport: beer and football, champagne in the locker room, beer commercials during the game, and "let's go out for a few" afterwards. The message to student-athletes is clear: it's "sporting" to drink, and <u>really</u> sporting to drink a lot (Heyman, 1990). Some student-athletes look to role models in the sporting world to see how they manage alcohol use. In general, highly visible athletes publicly support alcohol use. Indeed, a Special Report (1982) indicated that 90% of the major light beer spokesmen were athletes. Student-athletes are often under great pressure to drink, particularly those who want to "fit in." The links between sport ("cool") and alcohol are so strong that student-athletes may have to come up with excuses for NOT drinking.

Social Lubricant

Student-athletes often appear to have a lot of self-confidence. Unfortunately, this confidence may be sport-specific; that is, off the playing field, student-athletes may feel socially inept (Remer et al., 1978). They want to present the outward appearance of social confidence, but inwardly they may question their ability to "look good" in social situations. Alcohol is often used to reduce fears or social awkwardness.

Isolation from Family and Other Social Supports

For many student-athletes, going off to college is their first experience living away from home. Typically, they are quickly absorbed into campus life, and their teammates become their primary source of social support (Pearson & Petitpas, 1990). Unfortunately, teammates are not good sources of emotional support (Rosenfeld, Richman, & Hardy, 1989). Teammates are often friendly

and social but frequently hesitate to share their emotional concerns with those who are competing with them for positions or status on the team.

Problems associated with the lack of emotional support can be compounded for student-athletes who are isolated from family and other home-based sources of support and who may not have learned how to initiate new sources of social support beyond their teammates. Lack of social support (low density of support network, low social contact, lack of closeness of support network members, and low levels of companionship) has been observed in the athletic experience (Pearson & Petitpas, 1990) and has been found to be associated with the quantity and frequency of drinking behavior (Fondacaro & Heller, 1983).

In addition, many student-athletes view seeking help as a sign of weakness and try to cope with problems and pressures on their own. When left to their own limited coping resources, some student-athletes find alcohol a convenient escape mechanism.

It Won't Happen to Me

To measure up in athletic competition, student-athletes have to excel under pressure. Student-athletes may be able to perform in part because of the "delusion of invulnerability" (McGuire, 1990) that allows them to believe that bad things won't happen to them. Risk taking and thrill seeking that are so important on the playing field can be dangerous once off the field. Student-athletes may feel that they are invulnerable to harm and addiction, but all are not so lucky (McGuire, 1990).

Athletic Transitions

Beyond the normative events that all college students must face, student-athletes must also cope with the threat of injury, managing pain, surviving the selection process, and adjusting to being a "small fish in a big pond." In addition, "non-events" such as not making the travel squad or not starting can also cause considerable stress (Danish, Petitpas, & Hale, in press). Using alcohol can allow student-athletes to repress or temporarily forget their concerns.

It Feels Good

Some student-athletes use alcohol because of the specific physiological effects it has on them. Simply put, drinking can feel good. Alcohol reduces pain and relaxes the body by slowing the activity of the sympathetic nervous system (Myers, 1992). In low doses, alcohol reduces self-awareness and thus self-doubts over shortcomings and failures (Hull & Bond, 1986; Hull, Young, & Jouriles, 1986). Alcohol also decreases control over inhibitions, allowing people to establish "pseudointimacy," the friendliness and assertiveness that lead to closeness when using alcohol (Heyman, 1990). In large doses, alcohol

slows reactions, slurs speech, hinders skilled performances, and disrupts memory processing. Although student-athletes may begin using alcohol for the specific medicative properties, the negative results of alcohol use may also occur (Heyman, 1990).

Face Saving

Using alcohol can become for some student-athletes an excuse for poor play and help them "save face." When performing poorly, a student-athlete may say, "Imagine what I would have done if I hadn't been drinking." A student-athlete may also say, "It was the booze that got me kicked off the team, not my lack of ability."

For some student-athletes, it may be better to be the "best drinker" if they cannot be the best athlete. Whatever the case, alcohol can provide a convenient excuse to ease the pain of not playing or of not playing well, while protecting the student-athletes' sport identity.

PROBLEMS WITH ALCOHOL EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR STUDENT-ATHLETES

Drinking behavior in late adolescence is strongly linked with three motivational factors: habit (e.g., Friday afternoon "happy hour"), drinking to facilitate social contact (e.g., to reduce shyness), and drinking for personal effects (e.g., to reduce stress) (Kwakman, Zuiker, Schippers, & deWuffel, 1988). As outlined above, intercollegiate student-athletes may have experiences that facilitate regular drinking, drinking for social contact, and drinking for relief of stress and negative affect (Johnston & O'Malley, 1986).

It is evident that something needs to be done about alcohol abuse by collegiate student-athletes, but how can institutions help student-athletes avoid, reduce, or eliminate alcohol-related problems? To date, most interventions have relied on brief, one-time educational programs in an attempt to address the problem. However, it is important to note that in general these educational efforts have met with little success (Tricker, Cook & McGuire, 1989). In order to plan comprehensive alcohol education programs, it may be helpful to examine some of the problems associated with existing programs.

Structural and Implementation Problems

As mentioned above, most of the previous attempts at alcohol education have relied exclusively on one-time lecture-based formats. These programs have been effective in increasing knowledge about alcohol and other drugs but have not made any significant change in drinking attitudes or behaviors (Damn, 1991). After all, it is unrealistic to expect that attitudes and behaviors that have been acquired over years can be changed by a two- to four-hour lecture.

Many of these one-time lectures are given by former professional athletes who are recovering alcoholics. Although bringing in a famous athlete will typically insure a large audience, many of these speakers inadvertently send a mixed message. The audience is often more fascinated by the speakers' stories of their athletic feats than they are about hearing of the potential pitfalls of alcohol abuse. The audience observes the speakers dressed in expensive clothing, driving a new car, and surrounded by adoring supporters. The audience hears about the dangers of alcohol abuse but sees little that indicates any real costs of alcohol abuse.

Many of the lecture formats do not provide information relevant to the specific population or situation. It is difficult for the typical college student-athlete to relate to a former professional athlete's self-disclosure about the many temptations of life on the road or to a drug enforcement officer talking about the life of a "born loser." Lectures are more effective when they identify specific situations that student-athletes are apt to face at their particular schools (Tricker et al., 1989), e.g., some of the specific pressures and time demands facing this specific group of student-athletes at this specific school.

Most of these lecture presentations have no follow-up or long-term evaluation system. A college coach would not expect to get much change in offense by giving a two-hour lecture and not having any additional practice or evaluations of skill acquisition, yet many alcohol education programs expect behavior change without follow-up. In terms of program evaluation, it may be more important to determine if a lecture on alcohol use and abuse changed drinking behaviors or increased knowledge of how to refer a teammate for help, rather than how much the participants liked the speaker.

Many alcohol education programs are enacted without the full support or input of coaches, athletic administrators, or student-athletes. These programs are offered as "band-aids" or "for show" and do not have political or financial support, are not afforded sufficient time or personnel resources, and are not clearly understood (Tricker et al., 1989). The problems associated with lack of support among those persons directly affected can lead to poor adherence and little interest in the success of an alcohol education program (Meichenbaum & Turk, 1987).

In addition, many alcohol education programs focus exclusively on the dangers of alcohol use and punishment. As outlined earlier, student-athletes get some positive benefits from alcohol use, such as tension reduction and face saving, and it is unlikely that they would believe that drinking is all "bad." Also, the threat of punishment or other scare tactics have seldom been effective as long-term deterrents to drinking (Damn, 1991).

PLANNING COMPREHENSIVE ALCOHOL EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR STUDENT-ATHLETES

An understanding of some of the problems with existing alcohol education programs helps in the planning and development of more effective

intervention strategies. To this end, a comprehensive alcohol education program should have the following six components: education, enhancement, support groups, counseling, follow-up, and program evaluation.

Education

Educational programs alone have not been sufficient to deter problem drinking behaviors. However, the education component is still a necessary part of the total intervention. Educational programs provide essential information to student-athletes about alcohol use, abuse, laws, and policies related to alcohol.

To plan an effective educational program, a committee of student-athletes, coaches, academic and athletic administrators, academic athletic advisors, counselors, and student affairs professionals should be assembled. The input of each of these constituencies is critical to insure support and ownership of the program (Petitpas & Champagne, 1988).

The initial charge to the committee should be to gather relevant information about alcohol use and abuse on the specific campus. While maintaining confidentiality, this data should be organized into brief lectures, case studies, and discussion questions that highlight the concerns and typical scenarios of this specific campus. These materials, along with the campus substance abuse policy (i.e., state and local laws concerning substance abuse violations and punishments for infractions) and information on how to recognize, confront, and refer teammates with drinking problems, comprise the content of the educational portion of the program.

Implementation of the educational program is particularly effective when small group discussions are held and activities are led by members of the planning committee or upperclass student-athletes who have received training in group facilitation (Petitpas & Champagne, 1988).

Enhancement

Student-athletes experience many stressors in addition to those of the typical college student (Pearson & Petitpas, 1990). There is considerable evidence that adolescents drink primarily to reduce stress and negative affect (Johnston & O'Malley, 1986). Thus, a critical component of an alcohol education program is life skills training that helps student-athletes reduce stress and increase coping abilities.

Enhancement programs typically include training skills such as stress management, decision making, communication skills, peer refusal strategies, peer pressure resistance, and assertiveness training (Botvin, 1985; Botvin, Baker, Resnick, Filazzola, & Botvin, 1984; Koll & Pearman, 1990; Lenhart, 1984). It is important to note that training in life skills requires considerable time and practice to be effective (Marcell, Danish, & Stolberg, 1989). For example, Pennsylvania State University has instituted a four-year skill building program consisting of a credited health class in the first year, supplemented by

workshops and seminars during the student-athletes' sophomore, junior, and senior years (Knuttgen et al., 1990). Although this program is only in its second year, the initial evaluation data are encouraging.

By allocating sufficient time and resources for an enhancement effort, institutions not only enable student-athletes to make better choices about alcohol use, but they also assist student-athletes in becoming more resourceful people in general. The life skills that student-athletes acquire are transferable and will enable them to perform better in athletics as well as in academics and interpersonal relationships (Danish et al., 1990).

Support Groups

In developing alcohol education programs, it is important to recognize the importance of social support for drinking behaviors. Student-athletes tend to spend considerable time with other student-athletes. Many are often absorbed into a social system made up almost exclusively of other student-athletes (Remer et al., 1978). As outlined earlier, the amount of social contact, density, and closeness of support system members are correlated with the quantity and frequency of drinking (Fondacaro & Heller, 1983). Thus, the nature of the athletic environment may foster drinking as part of companionship. Changes in the types of support that student-athletes give and receive may help re-direct energies from excessive alcohol use toward healthier ways of socializing and coping with stress.

In designing a program, it is important to get input from the team leaders. These individuals often set the tone for the team and have considerable influence over new players. Virginia Commonwealth University, for instance, has developed a program, Athletes Coaching Teens (ACT), in which college student-athletes train high school athletes in the use of life skills as a way of altering health endangering behaviors. The results of this intervention indicate that the greatest improvements took place with the student-athletes who were teaching the skills. It appears that student-athletes who have had the opportunity to teach life skills may be good role models for future participants in life skills programs.

Support groups can also be helpful in addressing some of the transitional problems that college student-athletes face. Support groups have been shown to reduce stress effectively in a number of situations (Gottlieb, 1983) and may deter student-athletes from using alcohol in order to cope with negative affect. For example, at Springfield College one hour of the freshman football players' study table was set aside for small group discussions about the transition to college. Participants reported that they found this time valuable "in clearing up some of the doubts" and "allowing them to have a clear head to study."

Counseling

The goal of the counseling component of the program is to provide student-athletes who abuse alcohol with the resources to alleviate their current problem and to provide assistance in developing adequate coping skills to manage subsequent problems. Once student-athletes have been identified as having alcohol problems, the institution should have a variety of counseling and referral options available to assist them. The range of options available should include counseling with qualified substance abuse specialists, group counseling, intensive hospital-based outpatient treatment programs, and residential treatments. The options appropriate for a particular student-athlete would be dictated by the severity of the alcohol-related difficulties and the student-athlete's degree of ownership of a "drinking problem." Many of these interventions would also use Alcoholics Anonymous or other support groups as part of the treatment.

Each institution should develop working relationships with these counseling and referral services. Often these relationships have been fostered by the university counseling center or alcohol education staff as a routine function of their services. A committee on alcohol education for student-athletes, which should include representatives from the counseling center and alcohol education departments, can be particularly helpful in supporting interventions that are relevant to the life experiences of student-athletes.

Treating alcohol problems is a difficult process which often necessitates working through denial, family and social support system interventions, and changes in attitudes and coping behaviors. To have lasting impact, a complex program including life skills training and social support components is necessary (Damn, 1991). Without adequate life skills, social support, and other coping resources, relapses are likely to occur.

Follow-up

Earlier, the importance of allocating sufficient time and practice for skill acquisition was addressed and will not be repeated here. However, it should be underscored that the literature on counseling effectiveness clearly indicates that new behaviors are likely to be maintained longer if people stay in treatment longer (Meichenbaum & Turk, 1987). That is to say, the longer people are connected to a treatment intervention, the greater the likelihood that the new behaviors will be internalized and replace the older ones. Relapsing into old behaviors is most apt to happen when people are faced with new, stressful situations. Extended follow-up training and involvement enhance the chances that people will continue to practice new coping behaviors and gain additional confidence in their ability to manage stress (Meichenbaum, 1985). Therefore, alcohol education programs that encompass the four- or five-year academic experience of student-athletes are most likely to be successful.

Program Evaluation

The final component of a comprehensive program includes program evaluation. To be able to measure program success, valid baseline data on the target population's alcohol use and the types of coping behaviors employed are needed. Does the institution know how many student-athletes are using or abusing alcohol? How many student-athletes have never used alcohol? In what situations is drinking most likely to occur? What types of coping resources are used? How do student-athletes resist offers to drink? How do the drinking patterns of student-athletes compare with those of their non-athletic classmates? Gathering this kind of information allows institutions to get a valid picture of the specific usage and coping patterns that exist on their campus.

From this starting point, the effectiveness of alcohol education programs can be evaluated on a regular basis. Yearly evaluations may be useful to assess the viability of the program as well as to determine if components of the program need adjusting. Evaluation of the alcohol program should include assessment of changes in the level of alcohol use as well as changes in knowledge about alcohol use, coping resources, peer pressure resistance techniques, and other variables. It should be pointed out that well planned evaluation procedures require considerable time, money, and energy. However, the benefits of evaluation in terms of information about program effectiveness and opportunities to modify programs to enhance their impact are certainly worthy of this investment.

CONCLUSIONS

Alcohol abuse is of great concern for the population in general and college student-athletes in particular. Attempts to reduce alcohol abuse among student-athletes have resulted in various educational programs. Unfortunately, many of these "one shot" programs have proven to be less effective than initially hoped. Alcohol-related problems are extremely difficult to prevent or remediate.

It has been proposed that alcohol education programs can assist student-athletes in making better choices about alcohol use. High quality programs allow student-athletes to increase their knowledge about alcohol and its effects. However, education alone is not a sufficient strategy to address alcohol-related problems. Comprehensive programs must also provide enhancement, support, and counseling services within the framework of a well planned follow-up and evaluation process. This more thorough approach to alcohol education will enable student-athletes to learn about alcohol-related issues and will increase their ability to cope with stressful life events and peer influence without turning to alcohol abuse.

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COUNSELING MULTICULTURAL STUDENT-ATHLETES: AN EXAMINATION OF BARRIERS

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ABSTRACT

This article identifies some barriers to the academic and career development of multicultural student-athletes. Barriers may have an adverse effect on the academic progress and athletic performance of this population. Consequently, it is imperative that academic advisors and professionals in counseling and development become aware of the obstacles that might be encountered as student-athletes from different backgrounds seek to maximize their academic and athletic potential. These barriers are discussed, along with implications for professionals who work with this population.

COUNSELING MULTICULTURAL STUDENT-ATHLETES

Multicultural student-athletes experience many barriers to their academic and athletic performance. "Multicultural" is defined as the following populations: Black American, Hispanic American, Asian-Pacific American, and Native American. Their alternative perspectives and different experiences present a challenge to professionals providing academic, personal, and career counseling services—a challenge that can no longer be overlooked. In the athletic environment, issues of cross-cultural differences are frequently encountered; in order to deal more effectively with the academic needs of these populations, academic advisors and counseling professionals must identify and examine the major factors that hinder the academic development of multicultural student-athletes.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Brooks (1984) and Isaacson (1986) have identified multicultural clients as having special needs. However, while it is agreed that these clients face somewhat unique circumstances in preparing for their careers, specific research related to this issue is quite limited. Often, the research that is available is confounded by race and class variables. Inconsistencies are common, and much of the research is debatable (Osipow, 1983; Brooks, 1984).

But, as the issues concerning the academic success of multicultural student-athletes gain more attention, there are areas of agreement among researchers. It has been shown that preparation, aspiration, and expectations may differ by cultural groups (Minatoya & Sedlacek, 1983). Therefore, early outreach becomes important when working with multicultural clients (Lourenco, 1983; Hoyt, 1989). The need to bridge the gap between school and career decision making is a priority, along with understanding the importance of family influence (Stronge, Lynch, & Smith, 1987). For example, since white students more often have parents who attended college, this may give them an advantage that many multicultural students lack (Hall & Post-Kammer, 1987).

Additionally, multicultural student-athletes frequently demonstrate an insufficient knowledge of available academic and career options, and the need to broaden the knowledge base of multicultural clients in this area is recognized (Dunn & Veltman, 1989; Hall & Post-Kammer, 1987). Most ethnic minorities are under-represented in engineering and science programs (Smith, 1980), while Asian-Pacific Americans have been under-represented in the social sciences (Sue, 1975).

However, career information and planning alone will not solve the academic problems faced by multicultural student-athletes. Hoyt (1989) presents sobering statistics in regard to the limited educational equity of minorities. His recommendations include renewed attention to Sinick's (1977) suggestions that counseling professionals be actively involved in producing and using new knowledge to reduce bias and stereotyping. Hoyt (1989) also promotes massive social service efforts that include comprehensive educational reform from pre-school years through adulthood. Cheatham (1990), while presenting a culture-specific model of career development for African-Americans, suggests that society is best served by models that incorporate the experiences of all its co-cultures. However, there is agreement that issues related to the academic and career development of multicultural populations are unique. Counseling models that recognize cultural differences as well as the psychological stress experienced by minority student-athletes are needed.

BARRIERS ENCOUNTERED BY MULTICULTURAL STUDENT-ATHLETES

Student-athletes often encounter barriers to their academic, career, and athletic development (Coleman & Barker, 1991), and multicultural student-athletes will perhaps experience an even greater number of barriers. Coleman

(1989) has identified a number of barriers and categorized them as internal or external. Internal barriers are related to the self, while external barriers tend to focus on the environment. Some of the barriers encountered by multicultural student-athletes are listed below.

Internal barriers:
- Low self-esteem
- Unrealistic attitudes, aspirations, and expectations
- Verbal and nonverbal communication problems
- Low self-confidence
- Internal vs. external locus of control
- Fear of failure and/or success
- Low level of career maturity
- Limited previous work experience
- Lack of information (personal, academic, and career)

External barriers:
- Poor adjustment to the college environment
- Time and schedule restrictions
- Few role models
- Mentors, tutors, and counselors not trained in cross-cultural relations
- Unfavorable stereotypes
- Racism and discrimination
- High family and public expectations
- Low socioeconomic status
- Inadequate educational preparation
- Limited career/vocational guidance
- Different ethnic or cultural background of counselor
- Different or inadequate conceptualization of work ethic
- Intense peer pressure to adapt to a particular norm

DISCUSSION OF BARRIERS

In an examination of the aforementioned barriers to the academic and athletic development of multicultural student-athletes, it must be recognized that values differ significantly from one culture to another. For example, the American concept of success includes individualism, hard work, and perseverance. Some multicultural student-athletes may have difficulty fitting into this "winner" stereotype. Indeed, such values may be antagonistic to the values of their own cultures, especially those valuing cooperation and teamwork over individuals. Class-bound values, including adherence to time schedules and establishing goals, can cause real conflict in multicultural student-athletes' academic success as well as their athletic performance. Further, it has been shown that student-athletes, especially

football and basketball players, have lower career maturity than the general student population (Kennedy & Dimick, 1987). For multicultural student-athletes, culturally influenced perceptions of career success such as those promoting group progress rather than individual success may present additional barriers to career maturity.

One of the primary barriers is self-esteem. Sometimes multicultural student-athletes, as a result of political, economic, educational, and other factors, exhibit lower levels of self-esteem than the majority student-athletes. If multicultural student-athletes do not feel good about themselves, it probably will be more difficult for them to focus on their performance in the classroom or in the athletic arena.

Multicultural students often perceive themselves as having little control over their environments (Dean, 1984); consequently, students who have this external locus of control need to feel empowered (de Charmes, 1972). Counseling that promotes movement from an external to an internal locus of control can enhance self-esteem and enable multicultural student-athletes to become more goal-oriented.

Additionally, language barriers may often exist. This can be a serious handicap if neither the student-athlete nor the counselor is bilingual (Everett, Proctor, & Cartmell, 1983). Even non-verbal communication such as proxemics, eye contact, and use of silence may be quite different for multicultural student-athletes.

The unrealistic expectations and aspirations of many multicultural student-athletes have increased phenomenally as the financial rewards of superstar status are projected by the media into their lives on a daily basis (Kennedy & Dimick, 1987). Despite the odds, minority student-athletes frequently believe that they will be drafted by a professional team and thereby significantly improve their economic situation. Counseling professionals must intervene and help these student-athletes better assess their career options.

Adjustment to the college/university environment poses probably one of the greatest threats to the academic and athletic success of multicultural student-athletes. A sense of social isolation is a common complaint among multicultural students (Lunneborg & Lunneborg, 1986). For many of these students, their arrival on campus may be their first exposure to a culturally diverse or predominantly white population. In many instances, the multicultural student-athlete is part of a very small minority within a vast array of cultural differences. Oftentimes there are few if any multicultural administrators, faculty, staff, students, or other role models to support or interact with these students. Many multicultural students perceive insensitive attitudes and unfair grading among faculty (Edmunds, 1984). In addition, the community in which the college or university is located may not include a significant number of minorities and may be less than receptive to the issues and concerns of multicultural populations. These factors may combine to cause psychological distress and frustration for young multicultural student-athletes.

Certainly some of the differences seen in multicultural student-athletes may be attributed to experiences encountered in an oppressive environment rather than to culture alone (Jones, 1982; Sue, 1981). Individuals usually acquire confidence based on previous life experiences. Consequently, academic advisors and other counseling professionals must carefully examine the history of these groups within the United States in order to gain a better understanding of the social milieu in which multicultural student-athletes' identities and behaviors originate and also of the relationship between these factors and academic progress.

IMPLICATIONS

Academic advisors and other counseling professionals have a responsibility to identify and understand the barriers that affect the academic performance of multicultural student-athletes. For professionals to facilitate the success of such students, an awareness of these barriers is essential. Implications related to counseling, training, research, program development, and policy are discussed below.

Counseling

Academic advisors and counseling professionals must be aware of the special needs and concerns of multicultural student-athletes with respect to their academic progress. Traditional counseling theories and techniques may not be appropriate for certain races, ethnic groups, and cultures. Academic advisors should also assess their own cultural identities to determine how those might influence the counseling and advising process.

Training

Higher education must establish and implement academic counseling and development programs that will train individuals to address the varying learning styles and needs of multicultural student-athletes. Curricular revision and expansion should include not only the traditional courses in counseling and psychology, but also anthropology, history, sociology, political science, and other disciplines in reference to a given culture or group. Ideally, cross-cultural information related to these subjects should be infused in all courses. Faculty from multicultural backgrounds are needed in order to foster a more diverse educational environment.

Research

There are tremendous opportunities for academic advisors and educators to conduct research on issues related to multicultural student-athletes. An in-depth investigation of internal and external barriers, developmental problems, effects of support services, and cross-cultural training are only some of the areas that require analysis.

Program Development

The literature suggests that programs related to the academic development issues of multicultural student-athletes can have a significant impact on their academic and athletic success. Such program development and the design of specifically targeted instructional materials will facilitate the success of this population on campus. Counseling and development professionals must carefully examine their role in designing academic support programs for multicultural student-athletes.

Policy

Advocacy for the educational success of multicultural student-athletes is a role that academic counseling professionals are equipped to assume. Institutional, state, regional, national, and international policies are being established in order to facilitate the academic success of all student-athletes.

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THE TRIAD ASSISTING, ADVISING, AND ASSESSMENT MODEL: ONE INSTITUTION'S ATTEMPT TO SUPPORT THE STUDENT-ATHLETE

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ABSTRACT

The Triad Assisting, Advising, and Assessment Model is a multi-faceted approach to meeting the needs of young men and women who are placed in the dual roles of college student and athlete. Student-athletes face numerous pressures, on and off campus, both real and perceived. To enable student-athletes to successfully meet these pressures and challenges, the State University of New York, Brockport, has instituted the Triad Model. The model, depicting a methodology of academic, personal, and athletic advising, utilizes an approach which has both traditional and innovative components.

INTRODUCTION

The Triad Assisting, Advising, and Assessment Model is a multi-faceted approach designed to meet the needs of young men and women who are placed in the dual roles of collegiate student and athlete. This model evolved in response to a need to provide growth experiences for these student-athletes in terms of the social, athletic, and academic dimensions of college life (see Figure 1). All students need assistance in making appropriate, timely, and effective decisions which facilitate their progress toward the prized diploma and their mastery of the basic skills needed for survival in our society. By assuming the dual roles of student and athlete, such individuals are often in a position of needing special support to enable them to experience success in both roles.

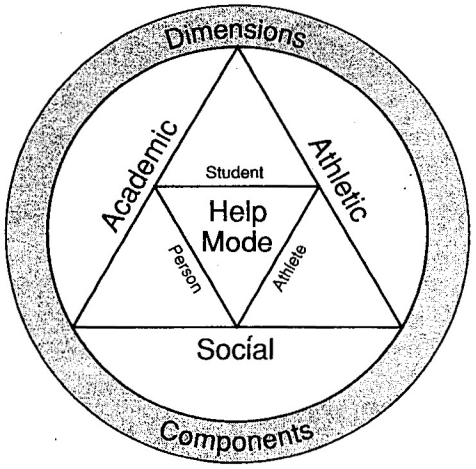


Figure 1. Viewing the Student-Athlete

As a result, institutions have a responsibility to provide a variety of meaningful and effective support mechanisms necessary to handle the challenges posed by being a student-athlete ("Study Challenges," 1990). Specifically, institutions need to adopt a proactive stance rather than a reactive posture (see Figure 2). In doing so, institutions can help individual student-athletes experience success in the classroom and in a sport as part of the total educational experience. Student-athletes can be taught to develop and refine decision making skills; to acquire an appropriate social, cultural, and moral expertise; and to develop proper self-esteem and establish appropriate personal and professional goals in light of personal, academic, and athletic priorities.

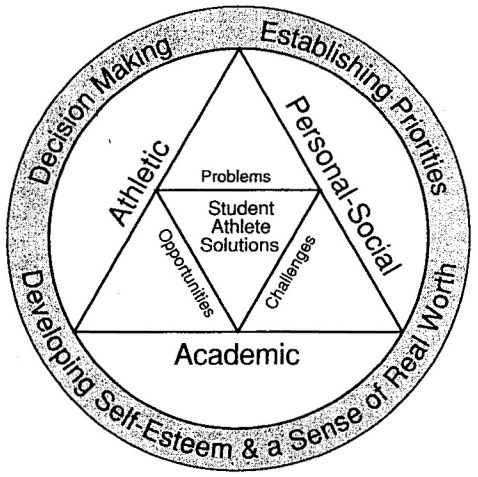


Figure 2. Being Proactive Rather than Reactive

SCOPE OF THE MODEL

The all-inclusive support program which evolved at the State University of New York, Brockport, involves academic, counseling, and athletic staff and provides opportunities for such successful experiences. The Triad Model revolves around three components: (1) the use of special advising efforts; (2) the use of special programs and tactics; and (3) the use of formalized evaluation and assessment strategies and programs. All activities are conducted with the goal of assisting student-athletes in the academic, personal/social, and athletic dimensions of college life (see Figure 3).

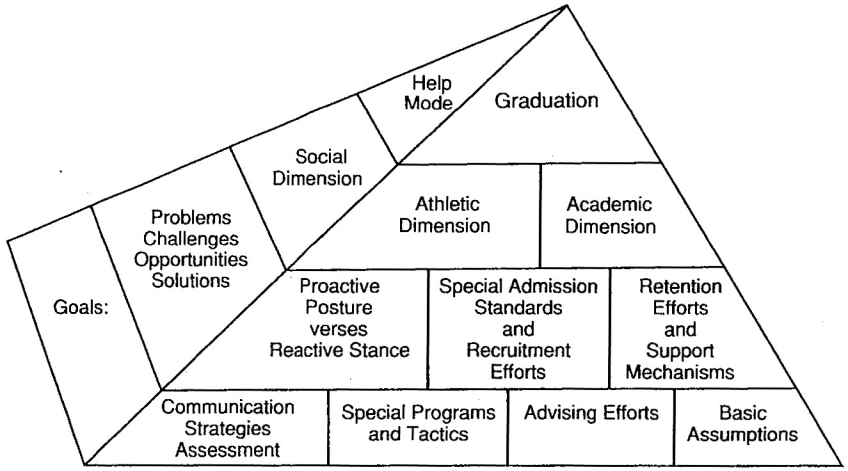


Figure 3. The TRIAD Model

The program is based on the following assumptions:

(1) College students, in general, face many severe pressures, demands, choices, challenges, and hardships.

(2) Student-athletes face these and additional challenges, pressures, constraints, and demands. By the very nature of being involved in athletics, student-athletes experience greater stress and have distinct needs, which in turn deserve special attention from the institution.

(3) There is a need to demonstrate a real concern to all constituencies about the seriousness of the challenges facing student-athletes within the collegiate setting. There must be recognition of the need to develop and implement a systematic and sound mechanism to address the needs of modern day student-athletes (Ostro, 1989).

(4) Institutions need to be in a proactive posture rather than a reactive stance in terms of assisting student-athletes. Athletic departments need to remain in a helping and cooperative mode rather than a punitive mode in their relationships with student-athletes (Berg, 1989).

(5) There is a real need to inform and educate student-athletes so that they might make right choices—now and in the future (Toye, 1989).

(6) Individuals usually improve upon whatever they consciously and consistently work at improving.

(7) Public relations exposure of successful counseling and support programs is essential if such efforts are to reap the maximum benefits possible for student-athletes, the athletic department, and the institution.

SELECTION AND RETENTION PROCESS

Institutions must remain proactive rather than reactive in terms of the recruitment of qualified student-athletes, the admission of student-athletes who can earn a degree in an appropriate amount of time, and the retention of student-athletes through appropriate advising, counseling, monitoring (tracking), and encouragement.

The State University of New York, Brockport, utilizes special admissions programs for student-athletes and provides support via the Transition Program, the Equal Opportunity Program, and the Special Talent Program. Both the Transition Program and the Special Talent Program are special admissions categories which allow students who fail to meet the publicized minimum entrance requirements to gain admittance to the institution. Such admission is gained by successfully satisfying specific remedial requirements, i.e., by passing specific summer classes and/or designated first-semester courses and by obtaining endorsement by a faculty member/coach at the college.

COUNSELING STUDENT-ATHLETES

A wide variety of offices in addition to intercollegiate athletics within the school's environment are called upon to support, monitor, and guide student-athletes. Through proactive individual and group counseling, assistance is available to student-athletes in terms of decision making, establishing priorities, and developing self-esteem and a sense of real worth in the academic, athletic, and the personal/social dimensions.

Advising

Selected student-athletes, generally those at high risk, are assigned specific academic advisers from throughout the campus. Interested professors volunteer to serve in this capacity. Such efforts take place as planned, periodic occurrences and/or incidental opportunities, as well as on an unplanned basis.

Monitoring

Student-athletes and their activities are monitored weekly by the Dean's office (Arts and Performance) and the athletic director's office. Attention is given to suitable class selection, class attendance, study habits, completion of assignments, suitable academic progress in each class, academic progress towards graduation, mandatory study hall attendance, and general behavior in and out of classes.

Student-athletes are able to receive specific assistance from other areas on campus, including testing and diagnostic services available in the counseling center, remedial assistance from the learning skills center, and job placement assistance from the career placement office.

In terms of the timing of advising and counseling efforts by athletic personnel, it has proven essential that the staff obtain feedback from student-athletes on a consistent basis. Additionally, all questions from student-athletes are fully answered in a forthright manner. The gathering of data, exchange of information, and sharing of feelings and ideas take place during the actual recruitment of the student-athlete, while the individual remains a student-athlete (pre-season, in season, and post-season), and following the conclusion of the student-athlete's eligibility to compete.

THE EVALUATION PROCESS: INPUT FROM STUDENT-ATHLETES

In an attempt to secure consistent and reliable feedback from student-athletes on their total athletic and educational experience, the athletic department conducts periodic open forums, drop-in opportunities, and planned meetings with teams and with individuals. These opportunities enable the athletic director to meet student-athletes on an individual basis, in small group meetings, and on a team-by-team basis. To establish a relationship with student-athletes, the athletic director meets at least three times with each team (pre-season, in season, and post-season).

During the process of seeking input from individual student-athletes, the athletic department utilizes a variety of tools to gain a snapshot of the student-athletes' perceptions of their own athletic, academic, and social experiences. The department has established an assessment or evaluation system which involves face-to-face meetings with individual student-athletes and with teams. During these meetings, verbal comments are solicited from the student-athletes; open-ended, written questions are answered in writing by the student-athletes; and a formal, computer-scored instrument called the Student-Athletic Assessment Form (SAAF) is used (Stier & Humm, 1988).

The efforts of the athletic department to support student-athletes can be categorized into three areas: (1) actions taken in terms of athletic and institutional policies; (2) actions taken in terms of the student-athletes themselves; and (3) actions taken in terms of the coaches. Specifically, the following are some of the actions taken by the department to provide appropriate and timely support for student-athletes at the university.

Policies for the Department and the Institution

(1) A combined Physical Education and Sport Department was established in 1983 as an academic department. Full-time employees (athletic director, coaches and teachers) can be tenured as teachers within that department.

(2) Special academic advisers interested in helping student-athletes were secured for many athletic teams.

(3) Faculty senate approval was obtained for fifty "special admission slots" for students with special talents in such areas as drama, sports, communication, and dance.

(4) Policy was established regarding class attendance by student-athletes.

(5) One of the first comprehensive drug education programs for a Division III institution was established in 1987. The program consists of workshops, clinics, guest speakers funded through an NCAA grant, and individual counseling and referral services.

(6) The support of a large number of other institutional offices in assisting intercollegiate athletics was secured. Included are the offices of the vice president for academic affairs, the dean of Arts and Performance, the registrar, career counseling, public relations, financial aid, admissions, library (study hall program), residential life, learning skills lab, writing clinic lab, public safety and health center, and the office of the president.

(7) A system of more accurate data collection was developed to gather information on team and individual grade point averages, standards, and achievements.

(8) The effectiveness in monitoring and detecting potential problems in terms of individual behavior and academic progress was increased.

(9) A department handbook was created, containing the policies, practices, procedures, and priorities of the department, including academic support policies such as academic standards and academic support, the department's mission and philosophy statement, and orientation materials for staff and student-athletes (Stier, 1988).

(10) So-called "mickey mouse" courses available for student-athletes were eliminated ("Athletes More Likely", 1989).

(11) Informational recruiting and public relations workshops were established for various high schools in central and western New York on the topic, "Everything the Student-Athlete and Parents Wanted To Know about

Selecting a College—But Were Afraid To Ask" (Stier, 1974). This series of workshops was funded by a grant from the western New York physical education professional organization.

Policies for the Student-Athletes

(1) Minimum academic and personal standards were established for eligibility to practice and play on an athletic team.

(2) Support mechanisms such as study hall, a monitoring system, and advising assistance were established for student-athletes.

(3) A true open door policy for all student-athletes was created, i.e., the home phone number of the athletic director is given to all 600+ student-athletes each year, and arrangements are made for immediate access to the athletic director by any student-athlete on a confidential basis.

(4) The amount of time student-athletes missed class was reduced by providing limits on pre-season, in-season and out-of-season involvement (practice and game opportunities); by limiting the times and numbers of days each week for practices; and by reducing overnight trips and the number of contests.

Policies for the Coaches

(1) The minimum qualifications used in selecting coaches were raised.

(2) In-service workshops and educational experiences in counseling and advising were established for all athletic staff members.

(3) Salaries for part-time coaches were raised, thereby attracting a higher caliber of coaching candidates.

(4) More full-time faculty became coaches. Only seven of the twenty teams had full-time employees coaching in 1989-90.

(5) More administrative and recruitment support for full- and part-time coaches was provided.

(6) Full- and part-time athletic staff, other staff, and administrators were educated in terms of the mission and philosophy of the athletic department and its priorities and efforts concerning the successful academic progress of student-athletes.

THE NEED FOR AN EFFECTIVE PUBLIC RELATIONS EFFORT

Public relations, both internal and external, is an essential component of these efforts. Great strides are taken to make others—student-athletes, parents, faculty, administrators, and the general public—aware of the programs

and the achievements realized under the Triad Model. This awareness plays no small part in the success of the model. Attempts are made to publicize activities in these seven ways:

(1) Academic and athletic honor rolls announced on a semester basis and publication of student-athletes' names and actual policies in news releases and in an annual informational brochure (Andriatch, 1990)

(2) Special displays on campus highlighting programs and selected student-athletes

(3) Personalized letters from the athletic director to parents congratulating them on behalf of the achievements of their sons or daughters

(4) Scholar-athlete honors on campus and for conference and NCAA recognition

(5) "Athlete of the Week" designation

(6) "Academic All-American" recognition

(7) Periodic publicity in the form of news releases about the components of the support program and about successful present and former student-athletes

PRODUCTIVITY OF THE PROGRAM

What have been the results of all of the institution's activities? Have they been worthwhile in terms of efforts expended and costs incurred? The answer is a resounding YES. Four major consequences have been deemed to be direct or indirect results of the implementation of the Triad Model. First, admission and retention standards were raised for all student-athletes, and better qualified student-athletes were recruited by coaches and admitted by the institution. Second, the average grade point average of the majority of student-athletes and the majority of athletic teams increased. Third, the retention rate of freshman and sophomore student-athletes increased. Finally, the image of the athletic department improved on and off campus as a result of the athletic staff's work with the Triad Model.

SUMMARY

The Triad Assisting, Advising, and Assessment Model involved a conscious, proactive effort to help student-athletes experience success in the academic, athletic, and social dimensions of college life. This has been accomplished by using a multi-faceted approach to the problem of monitoring the activities of student-athletes and providing them with definitive support.

The use of special admission criteria, coupled with appropriate support mechanisms and special programs, has proved effective in assisting student-athletes to make right choices in terms of the total college experience.

Intelligent, frequent, and non-threatening use of evaluation and assessment strategies has enabled the athletic staff to obtain a realistic picture of how student-athletes view their total athletic and academic experience. And, of course, effective publicity and public relations efforts have enhanced all of these efforts by making others in and out of the college setting aware that the athletic department has earnestly attempted to assist student-athletes meet the vigorous challenges of college life. Generally speaking, one tends to improve in that which one works at improving. In the case of the Triad Model, this is indeed the case.

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A MORAL REASONING INTERVENTION PROGRAM FOR STUDENT-ATHLETES

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ABSTRACT

A study was conducted to assess the effects of an intense intervention program on the moral reasoning and development of intercollegiate student-athletes. One hundred and sixty-nine subjects were pre-, post-, and postpost-evaluated with the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory and the Defining Issues Test. Thirty-seven student-athletes were randomly selected to enroll in the two-credit course, with 132 serving as controls. This study shows that an intense "Moral Reasoning in Sport" course appears to increase cognitive moral reasoning and development in intercollegiate student-athletes.

A MORAL REASONING INTERVENTION PROGRAM FOR DIVISION I STUDENT-ATHLETES

Historically, moral reasoning, moral development, and character development research within sport and physical education has been descriptive and prescriptive in nature, with a limited number of intervention programs implemented exclusively in physical education classrooms. The studies typically describe a physical education or sport participant's current state of moral knowledge or behavior with no research directed toward what ethically should be. Two intervention studies that investigated moral reasoning or development in sport were limited to elementary or junior high sport participants (Bredemeier, Weiss, Shields, & Shewchuck, 1986; Wandzilak, Carroll, & Ansorge, 1988). No studies were identified that examined the effects of an intervention program on intercollegiate student-athletes. Most studies

noted equivocal differences in moral reasoning and development by gender (Beller, 1991; Bredemeier & Shields, 1984, 1986; Hahm, 1989; Hall, 1981; Penny & Priest, 1990). All current studies used a psychological research base to study moral reasoning or development in sport; no programs used philosophy or ethics as the applied intervention strategy.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the effects of an experimental applied normative ethics intervention program on the moral reasoning and moral development levels of Division I university age student-athletes.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The theoretical framework for moral reasoning and moral development models is typically based in psychological theory as either internalization or constructivist. Within the two models are more specific theories such as behavioral, psychoanalytical, social learning, and structural development [cognitive development] (Weiss & Bredemeier, 1990).

Basically, internalization models are comprised of psychoanalytic and social learning theories, with the latter most commonly used in sport and physical education. Social learning theorists hold that morality is learned through socialization processes, a kind of "bag of virtues" approach (Kohlberg, 1976, 1981). Social learning theorists believe that individuals model their behavior after others who personify the particular trait, value, or virtue desired (Haan, 1978; Kohlberg, 1976, 1981; Weiss & Bredemeier, 1990). Moral development, therefore, is the process by which individuals adopt society's notions of acceptable values and behaviors (Bandura, 1977; Kleiber & Roberts, 1981; McGuire & Thomas, 1975).

Constructivists, on the other hand, disagree with the social learning approach to moral development and moral education (Haan, 1978; Kohlberg, 1981; Piaget, 1932; Rest, 1973; Weiss & Bredemeier, 1990). Essentially, constructivists concern themselves with cognitive development relative to moral growth (Bredemeier & Weiss, 1990; Haan, 1978, 1983; Kohlberg, 1971, 1976; Piaget, 1932; Rest, 1973). Defined, morality reflects the extent to which individuals use principles to guide action. These researchers hold that moral understandings are logically structured and developed through stages of growth, with reasoning as the foundation for moral functioning. Constructivist theory is based on developmental stages that are linear and hierarchical, with the higher stages requiring more complex reasoning. Theorists posit that through maturation and education, moral reasoning increases.

The former models offer a psychological perspective concerning how individuals mature morally; however, a debate exists among social scientists as to the best method of approaching moral reasoning/development research: by means of internalization, constructivist, or philosophic models.

Of concern with the psychological models is their limited philosophical foundation. Typically, psychological theorists shy away from values and concern themselves entirely with dialogue or the description of "what is." In contrast, philosophers are concerned with the values and beliefs that underlie moral understandings, dialogue, and behavior, as well as what ethically ought or should be.

While Kohlberg's (1981) work is primarily psychological, his theory relies heavily on the premise that universal values and ethical principles are formulated and justified by philosophy, not simply by psychological methods. Basic to his philosophic theory of moral change is cognitive disequilibrium. Individuals must be exposed to conflicting information, just ahead of their current stage of moral development. By producing conflict, individuals move toward a higher or more principled level of moral development. The introduction of conflict and questioning encourages students to develop rational, critical thinking processes. Kohlberg's description of cognitive disequilibrium parallels the philosophic method.

Although Haan (1977, 1983) and others may have used Kohlberg's (1981) cognitive disequilibrium strategy, the intent behind the dialogue is different. In particular, Haan stated that the purpose behind moral dialogue is to develop a consensus of views between two individuals. For the dialogue to function, participants involved in conflict are removed to a "listening bench" where individuals learn sensitivity toward the moral dialogue process. The process is more concerned with sensitivity to moral balance, maintaining the status quo, and harmony, rather than the fostering of critical thinking toward underlying moral principles.

The only studies on moral reasoning in sport to incorporate intervention strategies used social learning theory, cognitive development strategies, or a combination of the two to affect moral reasoning and development during actual gymnasium or field experiences. Specifically, the study by Wandzilak et al. (1988) involved a nine-week intervention of approximately fifteen minutes of daily discussion concerning moral issues and dilemmas relevant to male junior high school basketball athletes. Although the experimental group approached significance, no significant differences in either group's moral stage development or ability to reason morally were found from pretests to posttests. Interestingly, sportsmanlike behaviors decreased, while unsportsmanlike behaviors increased in the control group.

Using peer-oriented dialogue strategy, Bredemeier, Weiss, Shields, and Shewchuck (1986) studied children five to seven years of age in a youth sport setting. Significant differences were found for students involved in the oral dialogue program as compared to controls. Both Wandzilak et al. (1988) and Bredemeier et al. (1986) posited that intervention strategies were productive and beneficial for sport participants.

In terms of moral reasoning and moral development differences by gender, several descriptive studies have found that females score higher than

males on moral reasoning (Beller, 1991; Bredemeier & Shields, 1984, 1986; Hahm, 1989; Hall, 1981; Penny & Priest, 1990). The studies used the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (Beller, 1991; Hahm, 1989; Penny & Priest, 1990), life and sport moral reasoning questionnaires (Bredemeier & Shields, 1986), and Hall's Sport Questionnaire (Hall, 1981), which have foundations in justice. The results appear to contradict Gilligan's (1982) and Murphy & Gilligan's (1980) theories which posit that females score lower as compared to males on moral reasoning and development when justice-defined instruments are used.

To date, no applied moral reasoning intervention programs based in normative, philosophic theory have been applied to NCAA Division I student-athletes. The question remained whether the philosophic method would produce moral reasoning and moral development changes in college age student-athletes. Using philosophic theory as a foundation and a course methodology founded in both psychology and philosophy, the current study was concerned with assessing cognitive developmental stages and moral reasoning processes in college age student-athletes. This study went beyond current psychological research in assessing and understanding current moral development levels, to actively produce an environment that would change cognitive development in university student-athletes.

METHOD

Course Development and Subjects

The university academic vice president granted permission to institute a two-credit university "Moral Reasoning in Sport" course during the 1989-1990 school year. The academic vice president authorized that the course met the NCAA 24-credit satisfactory progress rule, with the athletic director and staff strongly encouraging student-athlete participation.

The course was limited to an 18-week semester course and two 50-minute class periods per week. The course was taught by a physical education/sport philosopher, who is recognized as a master teacher and distinguished faculty member.

With probabilities proportionate to team size, 37 student-athletes out of a possible 169 were randomly selected to enroll in the moral reasoning course (24 males and 13 females). The remaining 132 student-athletes served as controls. During the moral reasoning/development course and its evaluation, all student-athletes were involved in their competitive seasons.

Treatment student-athletes received an intervention program consisting of an 18-week "Moral Reasoning in Sport" course, while the controls did not enroll in such a course. Both the course and the control student-athletes attended two 2-hour informational seminars on alcohol and drug use and rape prevention.

Course Content

With moral reasoning (Fox & DeMarco, 1990) as the foundation, the course content focused on analyzing four values: honesty, responsibility, justice, and beneficence. Student-athletes used theoretical as well as contemporary readings and sources. Class materials included a 210-page course guide with instructor notes, Simon's (1985) Sport and Social Values, and 14 contemporary readings concerning gender/racial inequalities, drug testing, performance enhancing drug use, gambling, rule violations, eligibility scandals, commercialized sport, winning, and competition. Class lectures and discussions involving both theory and application were supplemented with videotapes highlighting current sport moral issues.

Teaching Methodology

The course mode of instruction was "maieutic," meaning relating to, or resembling, the Socratic method. The interactive teaching method challenged participants to argue, question, and discuss an issue and all its collateral fibers and to understand the ramifications of all possible moral actions. The method used discussion, questions, and analysis, and student-athletes were encouraged to analyze their own beliefs as well as the beliefs of others. The discussion drew on the students' skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening and used those skills to sharpen the ability to think critically.

The instructor did not moralize; that is, the instructor did not prescribe rightness or right action rules. Rather, the instructor used maieutic questioning first to have student-athletes establish what they value and believe and second to encourage them to examine those beliefs and values relative to sport, academic, and personal moral issues. The only contact that student-athletes had with scenarios or hypothetical moral dilemmas was with the evaluation instruments.

Course Requirements

Course requirements included daily 5-point quizzes over reading and class discussions or lectures. Six papers of three to five pages concerning reasoning in sport, steroids and mechanization, beneficence to opponents, the need to win, winning, and athlete abuse were assigned. The final examination asked student-athletes to use good moral reasoning and resolve two of six moral dilemmas in sport. All classes were videotaped for student-athletes to view if they were absent from class.

Instruments

While a number of psychological, sociological, or philosophical instruments were available to measure moral reasoning and development, many suffer from problems in construct and content validity, threats to internal

validity, non-existent theoretical constructs, or subjective testing and scoring methods.

The current study was interested in the student-athletes' abilities to reason morally in both social and sport settings and in the research positing that student-athletes use different reasoning systems between sport and social settings (Bredemeier & Shields, 1986; Hall, 1981; Wandzilak et al., 1988). To date, no single instrument is available that measures both social and sport moral reasoning and development levels, so the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory in the Sport Milieu [Hahm-Beller] (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989a) and the Defining Issues Test [DIT] (Rest, 1979) were chosen.

The Hahm-Beller evaluates moral reasoning in the sport context, while the DIT assesses reasoning within the social construct. Both tests have a philosophical foundation, are objectively measured and scored, and have high validity and reliability indexes. Studies using both instruments have found that the Hahm-Beller and the DIT correlate at the .82 level (Hahm, 1989; Stoll & Beller, 1991). Furthermore, the theoretical foundation of both the Hahm-Beller and the DIT is deontic ethics.

Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory. The Hahm-Beller is comprised of 21 questions that ask participants to answer using a Likert Scale of Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree (Hahm et al., 1989b). The scenarios ask participants to reason critically about various common moral dilemmas in sport, from the implications of the intentional foul, performance-enhancing drug use, and drug testing, to retaliation, responsibility for their own actions, and fairness to teammates and competitors. Higher scores reflect a consistent use of principles and reasoning which can be universally applied.

Defining Issues Test. The DIT (Rest, 1979) assesses moral development based on Kohlberg's interpretation of Piaget and deontic theory. Participants are asked to reason through six hypothetical moral dilemmas and rate the importance of the "moral issue" statements to decide on a course of action (Rest, 1986). Each statement corresponds to a particular developmental stage. As each stage is scored, the actual developmental stage, as well as the importance placed on "principled moral thinking" (or the "P" index), is obtained. Social rather than sport focused, the DIT gives an actual age group development score based on Kohlberg's stages of moral development.

Questionnaire Collection

All 169 subjects, university student-athletes in fall 1989, signed a letter of informed consent and were evaluated with the Hahm-Beller and the DIT. All student-athletes were given sixty minutes to complete the inventories.

During week 17, 30 of 37 treatment student-athletes (81%) were re-evaluated using the Hahm-Beller and the DIT. Seven students either disenrolled from the course by the end of the term or failed to finish the term. During

weeks 16-17, 99 of 132 control student-athletes (75%) were reevaluated using the Hahm-Beller and the DIT. The lower number of control student-athletes to be reevaluated was attributed to three factors: (1) non-scholarship student-athletes who tried out for positions on the fall teams but did not earn a place on the roster; (2) ineligible student-athletes who did not actually practice or compete during the term; and (3) scholarship student-athletes who quit their respective teams by the end of the term.

In August 1990, the year following the course, 21 course student-athletes post-posttested (57%), while 75 controls post-posttested (57%). The lower numbers in both groups' post-posttests were affected by those student-athletes who graduated or quit their teams.

Design and Analysis

The observational study used a pretest/posttest, randomized groups design. An ANOVA using a repeated measures design was used to detect significant differences between main effects and interactions. Sources of variation for the main effects were Treatment (course or control), Gender (male or female), and Time (pretest or posttest). Interaction effects included Gender*TRT, Time*TRT, Time*Gender, and Time*TRT*Gender. Because of uneven cell sizes, the General Linear Model (GLM) was used to detect significant differences in main effects as well as interactions. After a significant F test, Fisher's Protected LSD procedure was performed to determine which means were significantly different. Experimentwise error rates were controlled at a level to the F test alpha level, $p < .05$.

The study's independent variables included treatment, gender, and time. The dependent variables included the Hahm-Beller total scores (21 questions) and the DIT's "P" index scores.

RESULTS

Relative to the interaction of Time*TRT on the Hahm-Beller, significant differences were found, with student-athletes enrolled in the "Moral Reasoning in Sport" course scoring significantly higher from pretest ($\underline{M}$ = 66.96) to posttest ($\underline{M}$ = 72.27) and control student-athletes scoring significantly lower from pretest ($\underline{M}$ = 62.06) to posttest ($\underline{M}$ = 56.02) ($F[1,2] = 584.13$, $p < .0001$). (See Table 1.)

A significant difference was found by gender on the Hahm-Beller in Division I student-athletes' moral reasoning scores, with females ($\underline{M}$ = 66.62) regardless of whether controls or enrolled in the course scoring significantly higher than males ($\underline{M}$ = 57.13) ($F[1,2] = 1501.65$, $p < .0001$). (See Table 2.)

No significant differences were found in the DIT's "P" index scores with TRT ($F[1,2] = 0.72$, $p > .05$), Gender ($F[1,2] = .06$, $p > .05$), and the interactions of Time*Gender ($F[1,2] = 1.28$, $p > .05$), TRT*Gender ($F[1,2] = .06$, $p > .05$) and Time*TRT*Gender ($F[1,2] = 0.60$, $p > .05$). Although no

Table 1

Least Square Means for Time*TRT Total Reasoning Scores on the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory

Time*TRT			
	Course		
	N	LSM	SEM
Pre	30	66.96_a	0.48
Post	30	72.27_b	0.48
Post-posttest	21	71.01_b	0.62
	Control		
	N	LSM	SEM
Pre	99	62.06_a	0.30
Post	99	56.02_b	0.30
Post-posttest	75	57.12_b	0.46

Note: Moral reasoning maximum score = 105. Means with different subscripts differ signifcantly at p<.0001.

significant differences were found with Time ($F[1,2] = 11.02$, $p < .09$) or the Time*TRT interaction ($F[1,2] = 10.16$, $p < .08$), both approached significance. Specifically, course student-athletes' scores increased from pretest ($M = 23.85$) to posttest ($M = 33.66$), while controls' scores remained relatively stable (pretest $M = 31.47$ and posttest $M = 31.11$). (See Table 3.) Matched pair return rates, however, were extremely low: course = 44.7% and control = 26.8%.

Using the Hahm-Beller, post-posttests in both course ($M = 71.01$) and control ($M = 56.02$) found no significant differences ($F[1,2] = 579.23$, $p > .05$) in moral reasoning scores from the initial posttest (course $M = 72.27$ and control $M = 57.12$). (See Table 1.) Due to limited funds, no DIT post-posttests were administered.

Table 2

Least Square Means for Gender Reasoning Scores on the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory

Gender	N	LSM	SEM
Male	92	57.13_a	1.48
Female	37	66.26_b	2.69

Note: Total moral reasoning score = 105. Means with different subscripts differ signifcantly at p<.0001.

Table 3

Least Square Means for Time*TRT "P" Index Scores on the Defining Issues Test

Time*TRT			
	Course		
	N	LSM	SEM
Pre	20	23.85_a	3.16
Post	20	33.66_b	3.10
	Control		
	N	LSM	SEM
Pre	33	31.47_b	2.22
Post	33	31.11_b	2.18

Note: A higher score reflects a higher stage level of moral development. Means with different subscripts approach significance at p<.08.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this philosophic experimental study was to analyze changes that occurred in student-athletes' cognitive moral reasoning during an

intensive 18-week "Moral Reasoning in Sport" course. The current study is unique in the fact that philosophical, psychological, and experimental methods were used to attempt changes in student-athletes' abilities to think critically. The course's goal was to teach student-athletes to think for themselves, question the status quo, and make decisions based on impartiality, reflection, and consistency.

Overall, student-athletes who enrolled and finished the course used a significantly higher reasoned approach on the Hahm-Beller from pretests to posttests compared to their student-athlete peers. Of interest, however, is that while course student-athletes scored significantly higher from pretest to posttest, control student-athletes significantly decreased their total reasoning scores. While it was posited that an intensive "Moral Reasoning in Sport" course would increase student-athletes' abilities to reason critically, the significant decrease in control scores from pretest to posttest was unexpected. Perhaps the results reflect current research and theory stating that the longer an individual participates in sport, the less moral their actions become (Coakley, 1982; Kroll, 1975; Potter & Wandzilak, 1981; Stevenson, 1975; Wandzilak et al., 1988). Possibly the scores decreased because posttests were given during the height of the student-athletes' competitive seasons and control student-athletes were unable and/or unwilling to step back and reflect on questions of moral significance in sport and society.

The significant decrease suggests that control student-athletes had limited ability to use moral reasoning. After 18 weeks of intense competition and practice, control student-athletes were apparently less tolerant of the concepts of fairness, responsibility, and honesty, while course student-athletes were more tolerant. This result may be related to what Bredemeier (1984) states are tendencies to objectify opponents and to place responsibility for personal actions onto coaches and officials for personal gain. Because student-athletes are so immersed in their athletic world, they might be expected to have at least a minimal notion of what is morally right and wrong within the sport context. Student-athletes before taking the course and control student-athletes, however, appeared out of touch with their beliefs and values.

In a subjective sense, the scenario described above seemed to be played out in the classroom. During initial class discussions, course student-athletes appeared to consider right relative to winning, championships, and prestige, with little regard for the rights and feelings of others. Yet the course student-athletes seemed to have a conception of what was morally right. Statements such as "We know what is right and wrong; it's just that we forget when we get here" and "My mother taught me what was right and wrong; it's just that sometimes we have to cheat to win" were common during the first few weeks of the course. Consequently, while trying to reason through sport and social dilemmas, these student-athletes appeared to encounter much confusion concerning their beliefs and values. As the course progressed, however, student-athletes seemed to realize their inconsistencies and gained knowledge of good moral reasoning strategies (i.e., impartial, reflective, and consistent

reasoning). They began to defend better their beliefs and values relative to sport and social moral issues. Perhaps the decrease in control scores is directly attributable to the fact that they did not have reasoning skills as good as those of course student-athletes and/or they were not in touch with their values relative to current moral issues.

Of interest is that women scored significantly higher than males from pretest to posttest on total deontological reasoning, which agrees with studies by Beller (1991), Bredemeier and Shields (1984, 1986), Hahm (1989), and Penny and Priest (1990). The results are interesting in that, on the whole, few methodologically or theoretically sound psychological studies have found significant differences by gender. The results appear to refute Gilligan's (1977) and Murphy and Gilligan's (1980) theories that women score lower on justice defined instruments. Future research must establish whether the gender differences hold true across a broader student-athlete population and, if the results do hold true, must posit reasons for the differences.

The DIT was used to determine "P" index scores of all student-athletes enrolled in the course or serving as controls. Because the test has three stringent consistency checks to question the subjects' seriousness and understanding concerning the test, Rest (1986) states that as much as 30% of a sample may be lost. Although most of the current study's student-athletes appeared focused and directed toward taking the tests, the high number of tests that did not pass consistency checks may prove otherwise.

Student-athletes enrolled in the course had DIT pretest least square means of 23.85 and posttest means of 33.66. In contrast, control student-athlete scores remained stable from pretest ($\underline{M}$ = 31.47) to posttest ($\underline{M}$ = 31.11). Consequently, the increase in course student-athlete scores and the stable control scores made the time factor approach significant. Moreover, when the Time*TRT interaction was analyzed, student-athletes increased their "P" index scores from pretests to posttests, which is consistent with the results found on the Hahm-Beller. Even though the increase in course DIT "P" index scores only approached significance, the DIT results may be meaningful because the scores reflect a significant increase found with the Hahm-Beller, and the DIT and Hahm-Beller correlated at .82.

While control student-athletes appeared to have a higher level of pretest principled moral thinking compared to course student-athletes, course student-athletes increased their stage level over time. The control least square means, however, account for only 26.8% of the total control sample. Thus, the conclusion that controls used more highly principled moral thinking on the pre-evaluation is suspect. Because of low return rates for both groups, however, results from the DIT must be viewed with caution. Of interest is that consistency checks for course student-athletes substantially increased to 66% for posttests, while controls only improved to 39%.

Past studies have shown that student-athletes do not reason as well as non-athletes (Beller, 1991; Hahm, 1989; Penny & Priest, 1990). Perhaps this

has to do with immaturity, limited social lives, and non-sophistication (Mandell, 1975). Because student-athletes may not reason as well as non-athlete populations, and because the DIT's scenarios are hypothetical and too removed from daily life, the DIT may not be the best evaluative tool on the moral development of athletic populations.

While student-athletes enrolled in the course significantly increased their moral reasoning scores on the Hahm-Beller from pretest to posttest, post-posttest scores eight months later showed no significant change for either course or control groups. Student-athletes who enrolled in the course were still able to use moral reasoning in moral issues directed toward sport, which perhaps implies that the reasoning effect was longitudinal and resisted change. The scores for the control group remained at their posttest levels, which was still significantly lower than their pretest scores from the previous August. This finding supports the theories of Coakley (1982), Kroll (1975), Potter and Wandzilak (1981), Stevenson (1975), and Wandzilak et al. (1988) that the longer student-athletes are involved in sport without intervention, the less reasoned and moral their actions become.

CONCLUSION

Intervention programs to improve moral reasoning and development in sport participants are difficult in the sense of teaching methodology and course content. The present study, however, holds promise and potential for incorporating moral reasoning intervention for sport participants. The program is based on a single concept: teaching people to think critically, through cognitive disequilibrium. Such research should foster a new age of intervention for moral reasoning in sport. Future studies should focus on applying the moral reasoning concept and intervention to different age groups and possibly within the sport setting, i.e., on the playing field or in the gymnasium.

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