

INVESTIGATING COLLEGE ATHLETES' ROLE IDENTITIES AND
CAREER DEVELOPMENT

A Dissertation

by

BRYAN LEWIS FINCH

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

August 2007

Major Subject: Kinesiology

INVESTIGATING COLLEGE ATHLETES' ROLE IDENTITIES AND
CAREER DEVELOPMENT

A Dissertation

by

BRYAN LEWIS FINCH

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Approved by:

Chair of Committee, Michael Sagas
Committee Members, George Cunningham
Gregg Bennett
Robert Hall
Head of Department, Robert Armstrong

August 2007

Major Subject: Kinesiology

ABSTRACT

Investigating College Athletes' Role Identities and Career Development. (August 2007)

Bryan Lewis Finch, B.S., University of Oklahoma Health Sciences Center;

M.B.A., Arizona State University

Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. Michael Sagas

This study investigated the relationships between student identity, athlete identity, and career development among National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I college athletes. In Study 1, participants completed measures of student identity, athlete identity, career self-efficacy, and demographic information including race, sex, and sport played. Results indicated that student identity of the college athletes in Study 1 was a significant predictor of career decision-making self-efficacy ($\beta=.33$, $t=3.86$, $p<.001$). Study 2 included in-depth individual interviews with twelve college athletes. The goal of Study 2 was to better understand the conflict of student and athlete identities and how this conflict affected career planning for college athletes. Several themes emerged from the interviews, including adjustments the athletes undertook to cope with the conflicting roles. A conceptual model was developed to illustrate the complex and fluid nature of the role conflict and the athlete's management strategies. The results from both studies provide insight into the nature of the relationships between these identities and career development. Suggestions for future research on influences to career development for college athletes are included.

DEDICATION

To my wife, Amy,
and to my girls, Miriam and Mazie

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | Page |
|--|------|
| ABSTRACT..... | iii |
| DEDICATION..... | iv |
| TABLE OF CONTENTS..... | v |
| CHAPTER | |
| I INTRODUCTION..... | 1 |
| Current Research..... | 6 |
| Operational Definitions..... | 7 |
| Summary..... | 8 |
| II STUDY 1..... | 9 |
| Research Question Development..... | 9 |
| Method..... | 12 |
| Results..... | 15 |
| III STUDY 2..... | 18 |
| Overview of Qualitative Research..... | 18 |
| Method..... | 23 |
| Results..... | 24 |
| IV DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS..... | 50 |
| Overview of Findings from Study 1..... | 50 |
| Overview of Findings from Study 2..... | 52 |
| Implications from Both Studies..... | 54 |
| REFERENCES..... | 61 |
| APPENDIX A..... | 74 |
| APPENDIX B..... | 93 |
| APPENDIX C..... | 94 |

| | Page |
|-----------------|------|
| APPENDIX D..... | 95 |
| APPENDIX E..... | 96 |
| APPENDIX F..... | 97 |
| APPENDIX G..... | 103 |
| APPENDIX H..... | 104 |
| APPENDIX I..... | 105 |
| VITA..... | 106 |

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of competitive intercollegiate sports on college campuses and the merit of the athletes who compete in these sports have been questioned almost since the beginning of college athletics (Burgess, 1911; Waldo, 1903). Critics warned of the dangers of over-emphasizing athletic endeavors in college, and listed several areas of concern, including commercialism, exploitation, bribery, and gambling (Williams, 1949). Today, scholars and critics continue to echo many of the same concerns regarding commercialism, greed, and ethical downfalls (Sperber, 2001; Thelin, 1996). Meanwhile, the National Collegiate Athletics Administration (NCAA) continues to generate billions of dollars in revenue from the sponsorship and commercialization of the amateur sports they are charged with overseeing (Benford, 2007; Roach, 2004).

Sports such as rowing and football were the most popular at the beginning of the 20th century. However, basketball, created by James Naismith in 1894, began to increase in popularity across college campuses. In 1939, the first NCAA men's basketball championship tournament was held in Evanston, IL (Isaacs, 1984). The NCAA Division I Men's Basketball Championship, as it is now known, has continued to grow in popularity, financial impact, and exposure, especially over the past two decades. Along with men's football, men's basketball has proven to be a key source of revenue for the NCAA and its member institutions. For instance, the NCAA and CBS Sports are

This dissertation follows the style of *Sociology of Sport Journal*.

currently in the midst of a \$6 billion exclusive rights agreement for the NCAA Division I Men's Basketball Championship played each March (Baade & Matheson, 2004; Junnarkar, 1999). During the 2006 tournament, millions of viewers watched tournament games over television and the internet. This growth in popularity and economic success has been met with continued calls from scholars and critics regarding long-standing concerns about the welfare of the college athletes involved in these college sport competitions (Bowen & Levin, 2003; "A Call to Action", 2001). These wide-ranging concerns include undue stress from the pressure to win, lack of academic motivation, poor integration to campus, and delayed career maturity (Blann, 1985; Person & LeNoir, 1997).

The academic and athletic endeavors of NCAA athletes have been commonly reported in the media and the literature. Researchers have investigated various influences on college athletes' academic and athletic performances, looking for variations according to sex, race, socioeconomic status, sport played, and strength of athletic identity (Ewing, 1975; Blann, 1985; Kennedy & Dimick, 1987; Sack & Staurowsky, 1998; Martens & Cox, 2000; Sellers, 2000; Lapchick, 2007). Meanwhile, many reports in the sports media, and other outlets, have called for academic reform in NCAA athletics, claiming the system exploits college athletes, enables universities and conferences to gain enormous wealth, and makes a mockery of the value of our collegiate educational system (The Knight Foundation, 2001). Recently, the NCAA introduced the Academic Progress Rate (APR). The APR requires university athletic programs to prove that their college athletes are making satisfactory progress towards a

degree. If certain pre-set scores are not reached, university teams face a loss of athletic scholarships and other penalties (NCAA, 2006).

As previously mentioned, the experiences of college athletes have been examined from numerous perspectives using numerous research techniques. One noteworthy area of research has examined college athletes' career maturity and career decision-making abilities. Some literature holds that college athletes are less able to prepare for careers beyond college due to the additional constraints of participating in intercollegiate athletics (Ferrante & Etzel, 1991; Jordan & Denson, 1990; Lottes, 1991). Other research has suggested that college athletes are at greater risk than other students on campus to be unable to avoid identity foreclosure (Good, Brewer, Pepitas, Van Raalte, & Mahar, 1993). Identity foreclosure occurs when one role becomes predominant at the expense of all other roles, and thereby limits personal exploration of alternative ideas and experiences (Marcia, 1966). Several scholars have suggested that college athletes are at greater risk for this identity foreclosure, and this in turn leaves them ill-prepared for career decision-making and preparation (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Nelson, 1983; Pepitas & Champagne, 1988).

Furthermore, researchers have shown that college athletes have lower levels of career maturity than do their colleagues on campus (Blann, 1985; Kennedy & Dimick, 1987). Murphy, Pepitas, and Brewer (1996) found that a strong identification with athletic identity resulted in delayed career development for college athletes. A subsequent study did not entirely support this finding, but did suggest that the relationship between "athletic identity and the career behaviors of student-athletes may

be moderated by one's student role identity" (Brown, Glastetter-Fender, & Shelton, 2000, p.60).

The term "student athlete" has been used exclusively by the (NCAA) since the 1950's to describe college athletic participants (McCormick & McCormick, 2006). The very title of the role itself suggests two unique roles: one of student and one of athlete. The actual term itself was created by the NCAA due to litigation concerns back in the 1950's (Sack & Staurowsky, 2005). For the current study, the term "college athlete" will be used to describe the students who are competing in collegiate athletics while attending university. Most observers or participants of collegiate sports recognize many conflicting factors between these two roles. A significant amount of research has been undertaken over the past five decades investigating how individuals balance various life roles (Parsons, 1951; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970; Settles, Sellers, & Damas, 2002). One particular area of inquiry has been role conflict. Role conflict occurs when "the demands of a particular role make it difficult for the individual to perform or meet the demands of another role" (Settles, Sellers, & Damas, 2002, p. 574). The importance of the student and athlete roles to NCAA athletes has been touted by recent NCAA television advertisements (McCormick & McCormick, 2006). Both roles have also been shown to be important to the athletes themselves (Adler & Adler, 1987; Snyder, 1985).

College athletes face numerous challenges during their collegiate careers. Along with the previously mentioned role conflict, athletes, particularly in men's football and basketball, may face additional pressures brought on by the time requirements and demands of their high profile sport participation. Many interested parties, including

researchers, faculty, and administrators, have raised fears that these athletes are not on par with fellow students on campus, and will leave college unprepared for a career outside of athletic competition (Kennedy & Dimick, 1987; Murphy, Petitpas, & Brewer, 1996).

The field of vocational psychology has many unique concepts that have been used to analyze and understand career processes. Career development is one important concept that itself incorporates many ideas and perspectives. Super (1957) outlined his model of career development, describing the growth process that occurs across the lifespan of an individual. An important aspect in the career development process is Crites (1978) career maturity theory. This theoretical construct that can be used to investigate the career preparedness, or lack thereof, of college athletes. Career maturity is the readiness of an individual to make informed and age-appropriate decisions and manage career development tasks (Savickas, 1984; Super, 1955). More specifically, concerns have been raised that male athletes may be prone to show lower levels of career maturity, particularly African-American men who compete in revenue sports such as basketball (Adler & Adler, 1991; Harrison & Lawrence, 2003). Another aspect of importance in career development is the idea of career decision-making self-efficacy. Taylor and Betz (1983) describe career decision-making self efficacy as a person's belief that he or she can successfully fulfill the tasks necessary to make career choices. These concepts will be covered in further detail, and will serve as the theoretical basis for investigating career development among college athletes in this study.

Current Research

In this study, I seek to fill in a gap in the literature regarding the possible interactions of athlete and student identities and career development. Several aspects of the relationship between athlete identity and career development have been examined, but no existing studies empirically examine the two identities along with career development measures. To further investigate career development in college athletes, a two-part study was undertaken. The purpose of Study 1 was to examine the relationships among the psychological constructs of athlete and student identity and the career decision-making self-efficacy levels of NCAA athletes at three Division I schools in the central United States. Race, sex, sport, student identity, and athlete identity were assessed as possible predictors of career decision-making self-efficacy. Results and discussion of the quantitative analysis from Study 1, as well as more detailed descriptions, will follow in Chapter II.

Study 2 was as an extension of Study 1. In order to further investigate such a complicated topic, qualitative methodologies were indicated. Semi-structured, phenomenological interviews were conducted with participants who volunteered for additional research from Study 1, as well as additional college athletes who volunteered.

Taken together, these studies are significant, as they make important contributions to the current body of knowledge in sport management and career development. Specifically, they a) bolster the limited amount of empirical research addressing career development in college athletes, b) expand the understanding of role identity conflict and career development in a high profile segment of college athletes, c)

provide additional analysis of race, sex, and sport effects on athlete and student identity and career development for collegiate athletes, and d) provide a more in-depth and richer view of the role conflict and career development concepts in the college athletes, using qualitative research methods.

Operational Definitions

The following terms were operationally defined for the present study as follows:

College athlete- a current college student who is on the active roster of an NCAA team (Sack & Staurowsky, 2005)

Career development- the process of growth through various life stages that an individual undergoes throughout a lifetime, including the selection of occupations that allow for functioning in a role consistent with a person's self-concept. According to Super (1957; 1990), the implementation and cultivation of the self-concept is a central theme in career development, and is part of an overall developmental pattern that individuals undergo across a lifetime

Self-efficacy- the personal belief in one's abilities or knowledge (Bandura, 2000)

Career Decision-Making Self-efficacy- a person's belief that he or she can successfully fulfill the tasks necessary to making career choices (Taylor & Betz, 1983)

Career Maturity- the readiness of an individual to make informed and age-appropriate decisions and manage career development tasks (Savickas, 1984; Super, 1955)

Athlete Identity- the degree to which an individual identifies with the athlete role to the exclusion of other social and occupational roles (Brewer, 1991)

Student Identity- the degree to which an individual identifies with the academic role of

a college student (Shields, 1995; White, 1988).

Summary

The structure of the dissertation is as follows. Chapter I serves as the introduction. Chapter II includes a review and the results from Study 1. Chapter III included a review and results for Study 2, the qualitative follow-up. In Chapter IV, discussion and conclusions from both studies were provided. Appendix A supplied a review of the literature, including the following key concepts: career development theory, self-efficacy and career decision-making, career maturity, identity development theory, athlete identity, student identity, and college athlete development literature.

CHAPTER II

STUDY 1

According to the life stage approach to career development (Super, 1957) and identity development theory (Chickering, 1969), the college years represent an important time for development for adolescents transitioning into adulthood. While most college students endure various challenges and hardships, several scholars have suggested that college athletes must deal with the unique challenges of competing in collegiate sports while maintaining their status as full-time students (Jordan & Denson, 1990). As such, the academic and career development of college athletes has been an area of concern for many years.

Research Question Development

Several studies have suggested college athletes who overemphasize their athletic identities exhibit delayed career development, lower career maturity, and delayed career decisions (Murphy, et al., 1996; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Remer, Tongate, & Watson, 1978; Cornelius, 1995). Adler and Adler (1987) described what they termed “role engulfment”, as they followed Division I NCAA basketball players through their careers at the University of Tulsa in the 1980’s. According to the authors, the basketball players began college with a commitment to maintaining a proper balance between academics and athletics, but quickly were overtaken by the social, time, and systematic pressures of playing big-time college basketball. In response, the athletes disengaged from their student roles and gradually accepted their dominant role of college athlete.

Strong attachment to the athlete identity was related to a failure to explore and develop alternative roles, such as academics (Murphy et al., 1996).

Additionally, the possible connections between the role conflict for college athletes and their career development have been addressed, with some researchers suggesting that student identity may be an important variable in understanding the relationships (Brown, Glastetter-Fender, & Shelton, 2000; Brown & Hartley, 1998; Martens & Cox, 2000). Interestingly, researchers have failed to examine the collective effects of athlete identity, student identity, and career development on subsequent academic and career outcomes. The first research question, therefore, is posed to better understand the relationships among these important psychological constructs and career development for selected Division I college athletes.

Research Question 1

What relationships exist between athletic identity, student identity, and career development among Division I college athletes?

Race has been analyzed as an important factor impacting overall development of college athletes and warrants an additional research question. African-American college athletes have been found to have lower graduation rates and retention rates than those of White athletes (Sack & Staurowsky, 1998; Sellers, 2000). More specifically, Snyder (1985) suggested minority groups may place greater emphasis on the athletic role while de-emphasizing the student role. The second research question deals with the possibility of differences between White and minority athletes among the role identities and career development.

Research Question 2

Does athlete identity, student identity, or career development differ for White and minority athletes?

Sex may also serve as another differentiating variable for the constructs involved in this study. As mentioned earlier, male college athletes have been found to have lower career maturity than non-athletes (Murphy, Petitpas, & Brewer, 1996) and more specifically, male football and basketball players have been noted to have lower career maturity levels than other athletes (Blann, 1985; Kennedy & Dimick, 1987; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992). Male college athletes have also been shown to lag behind female athletes on developmental tasks, graduation rates (NCAA, 2006), and career planning (Blann, 1985). Given the previous findings regarding sex differences, a question to analyze the impact of sex is warranted.

Research Question 3

Does athlete identity, student identity, or career development differ for male and female athletes?

One other area of interest involves a comparison of male athletes who compete in revenue sports (football and basketball) to other athletes that compete in non-revenue sports. Academic measures, such as graduation rates, have historically shown that males in revenue sports lag behind academically relative to their athlete peers (Lapchick, 2007; NCAA, 2006). Various researchers have also suggested that male athletes in revenue sports may exhibit lower levels of career maturity (Adler & Adler, 1991; Harrison &

Lawrence, 2003). The fourth research question addresses this possible differentiation of career development by type of sport played.

Research Question 4

Does athlete identity, student identity, or career development differ for athletes in revenue sports versus athletes in non-revenue sports?

Method

Measures

An online questionnaire was created and served as the measurement instrument for Study 1. The online questionnaire included a general demographic page (race, sex, sport, and year in college). It also included three other instruments: the Student Identity Scale (Shields, 1995), Athlete Identity Measurement Scale (Brewer et al., 1993), and Career Decision-Making Self-Efficacy Scale- Short Form (Betz, Klein, & Taylor, 1996). A final question was added, asking the athletes to include an email address if they would be willing to participate in further career related research.

Procedure

Email addresses were obtained from online rosters for each men's and women's varsity sport at two of the three universities. Email messages were sent to 536 college athletes at two of the three schools in the study. The assistant athletic director, in charge of the career development center at the third university, agreed to send emails to the 395 athletes participating in varsity athletics at their school, asking them to participate in the research study. The emails included a short description of the study and information explaining the voluntary and confidential nature of the project. The population was

made up of 1,290 college athletes, with 162 athletes, or 13% of the population participating.

Participants

The population consisted of college athletes enrolled in the 2006 fall semester at one of three large, NCAA Division I universities in the central U.S. Participants were males (n= 88, 46%) and females (n=74, 54%) and ranged evenly across their year in school: 30.2% freshman (n=49), 23.5% sophomores (n=38), 25.3% juniors (n=41), and 21.0% seniors and graduate students (n=34). College athletes who played revenue sports (football and men's basketball) represented 17.3% (n=28) of the sample, while 82.7% (n=134) played non-revenue sports. The sample was made up of athletes who participated in one of fifteen varsity sports, including baseball, softball, football, men's and women's golf, men's and women's tennis, men's and women's basketball, men's and women's track and field, and volleyball. The racial composition of the sample was 82% Caucasian (n=133) and 16.8% non-Caucasian (n=27), with 1.2% choosing not to select a race (n=2).

Instrumentation

Demographic Questionnaire. A demographic questionnaire was used to collect descriptive information. Information gathered included the race, sex, year in school, and sport played. For analysis, race was divided into minority and White athletes, sex was divided into male and female groups, and sport was divided into revenue and non-revenue.

Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS). The AIMS included 10 items that were scored on 7-point Likert-type scales ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (7) (Brewer, VanRaalte, & Linder, 1993). The scale was designed to measure an individual's strength and exclusivity of identification to the athlete identity role (Brewer, et al., 1999). The score from the AIMS is derived from the mean of the 10 items. The AIMS has been shown to have strong internal consistency, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients reported from .81 to .93, as well as appropriate validity evidence (Brewer, VanRaalte, & Linder, 1993).

Student Identity Scale (SIS). Shields (1995) developed and tested a measure of student identity made up of fifteen items based on previous literature and interviews. This Student Identity Scale was reported to have a Cronbach's alpha of .70, and was the measure of student identity for Study 1. Responses on the SIS are scored using a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). Scores from the SIS were derived from the mean of 14 items. One item, #11, was removed due to possible confusion on the question. Items were alternated between standard and reverse scoring. An example of a reverse score item is "in general, I believe in only doing enough in a course to get a passing grade."

Career Decision-making Self-efficacy Short Form (CDMSE-SF). The CDMSE-SF was developed by Betz, Klein, and Taylor (1996). This form was based on the social cognitive theory of self-efficacy from Bandura (1977). The CDMSE-SF consists of 25 items meant to measure the degree of confidence an individual has in his or her ability to

make career related decisions. The scale was modified from a 10-point Likert scale to a 7-point Likert scale to provide more consistency in research design.

Results

Data Analysis

For Study 1, the data analysis included three main statistical techniques. First, reliability scores were calculated for each of the three instruments used in the study. Second, descriptive statistics and correlations were derived. Third, a hierarchical regression analysis was run to determine the contribution of the psychological variables of athlete and student identity. In addition, other statistical analysis techniques are described below.

Reliability scores were recorded for each instrument selected for the study. The Student Identity Scale Cronbach's alpha was .74. This score is consistent with the initial Cronbach's alpha of .70 in the previous literature (Shields, 1995). However, one item (#11) was found to have significant scoring errors, with nearly every student-athlete selecting "strongly agree" to a question about dropping out of school. The scores on this item were not consistent with any other items on the scale, so this item was removed from the student identity scale before calculating an average. The Athlete Identity Measurement Scale Cronbach's alpha was .79. Finally, the Cronbach's alpha for the Career Decision-Making Self-Efficacy Scale- Short Form was .93. These coefficient alpha scores suggest good reliability for each of the three instruments.

After calculating reliability scores for the three scale items, average scale scores were derived. For the SIS, odd numbered questions were reverse scored. Categorical

variables of race, sex, and sport were coded into male and female, White and minority, and revenue and non-revenue, respectively. Descriptive statistics were computed. Also, Pearson and point-biserial correlations were produced (Bruning & Kintz, 1997). Means and standard deviations for each instrument measure and demographic category appear in Table B-1 in Appendix B. Several significant relationships were identified, including sex and student identity ($r=.32, p<.001$), type of sport and student identity ($r=.20, p=.01$), student identity and athlete identity ($r=-.26, p=.001$), and student identity and career self-efficacy ($r=.32, p<.001$). Correlations appear in Table C-1 in Appendix C.

To determine the contribution of the demographic variables (race, sex, and sport) and the student and athlete identities on career decision-making self-efficacy, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed. Demographic variables were entered as the first block for the regression analysis. Athlete and student identity were entered in the second regression equation to determine how much variance was explained after controlling for the demographic variables. The demographic variables did not account for a significant amount of the variance in career self-efficacy ($R^2=.04, F(3,146)=1.90, p=.13$). The psychological variables did account for a significant amount of the variance ($R^2=.13, F(5,146)=4.26, p=.001$). Results from the hierarchical multiple regression analysis appears in Table D-1 in Appendix D.

Results indicated that student identity of the college athletes in Study 1 was a significant predictor of career decision-making self-efficacy ($\beta=.33, t=3.86, p<.001$). Beta's for all predictors from Study 1 appear in Table E-1 in Appendix E. Previous studies suggested that this relationship be investigated (Brown & Hartley, 1998).

Consistent with previous studies, no relationship was found between athlete identity and career self-efficacy (Brown & Hartley, 1998; Kornspan & Etzel, 2001).

A significant negative relationship was discovered between athlete identity and student identity. Two demographic variables, sex and type of sport, were found to have significant relationships with student identity. Females showed significantly higher student identities than their male counterparts. Athletes in revenue sports (football and men's basketball) showed significantly lower student identity than did athletes in non-revenue sports.

Finally, a test for moderation was completed. Previous literature that had failed to find a direct relationship between athlete identities and career development measures suggested that student identities may moderate this relationship, thus explaining the lack of specific evidence of a direct link (Brown & Hartley, 1998; Kornspan & Etzel, 2003). After centering the variables of interest and creating an interaction term from the product of the identities, I ran a hierarchical multiple regression analysis (Frazier, Tix, & Barron, 2004). Neither athlete identity ($\beta=.01$, $t=0.06$, $p=.95$) nor the interaction term ($\beta=-.07$, $t=-0.80$, $p=.43$) were significant, suggesting that student identity was not moderating a relationship between these variables for the participants in Study 1.

CHAPTER III

STUDY 2

Overview of Qualitative Research

In order to gain a deeper and richer understanding of the results from Study 1, I conducted a follow-up study. Study 2 was a qualitative study that included analysis of in-depth, one-on-one interviews with twelve college athletes. The goal of Study 2 was to better understand the conflict of student and athlete identities and how this conflict affected career planning for college athletes.

Qualitative research often includes multiple methods of analysis with a common goal of securing an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of interest (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Qualitative methods seek to add a depth and richness to research, and are often employed for inquiries into complicated and complex phenomena such as human interaction and behavior (Flick, 2002). Lincoln (1992) describes two main types of qualitative methods: human-to-human and artifactual. Human-to-human techniques include observation, interviews, and nonverbal communication. Artifactual techniques include the use of artifacts, documents, and records.

Qualitative research methods include a wide range of data collection techniques and approaches. Among these varied forms of qualitative research are case studies, narratives, participant observations, interviews, and focus groups. One of the most common qualitative techniques, and the technique selected for Study 2, is the in-depth interview followed by content analysis. This is also the prominent qualitative protocol in the sport management literature (Biddle, et al., 2001).

Some scientists from a classic quantitative perspective claim qualitative research is inherently subjective and unscientific when compared to the objective findings of quantitative work. These scholars often view science from a positivist perspective where truth is a discoverable and understandable fact that can be found and analyzed (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 22-30). Many qualitative researchers, however, have a constructivist view of the world, where truth for one person may be different for another. The world is defined not through the scientist, but through the reality of the subjects (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p.8).

One or both types of techniques may be appropriate based upon the research questions and subjects of interest (Morgan & Smircich, 1980). In-depth interviews and content analysis are qualitative approaches that allow for rich, exploratory analysis and understanding of a complex topic, such as role identities and individual career development strategies (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

In general, the design of qualitative interviews lies somewhere along a spectrum from structured to unstructured (Y. S. Lincoln, personal communication, March 27, 2007). Structured interviews often include standardized surveys. Interviewers are trained to ask the same questions with the same tone to each interviewee, to minimize variation and interviewer effect. Questions usually do not allow for open-ended responses, and sometimes responses are provided for the interviewee to select from. This format does not allow for follow-up questions or probing. An example of a structured interview is a United States census survey.

At the opposite end of the spectrum, unstructured interviews often do not include specific questions and take on a conversational pattern (Y. S. Lincoln, personal communication, March 27, 2007). These types of interviews are meant to allow the interviewee to flow freely into the area of discussion he or she feels most pertinent. Examples of unstructured interviews are storytelling and life experience interviews. A life experience interview may begin with a statement such as: tell me about your life experiences as an athlete.

Semi-structured interviews may be the most popular qualitative interview method. Semi-structured interviews contain elements of both structured and unstructured interviews. Semi-structured interviews may include a list of questions or topics which provide a general outline for the format of the interview. If questions are included, they are usually open-ended to allow for follow-up questions or probing for additional clarification and understanding of responses (Rubin & Rubin, 2005).

Berry (1999) lists and discusses several questioning and probing techniques pertinent to qualitative interviews. Questions used in interviewing should be appropriate for the setting involved and use language that is clear to the person being interviewed. To encourage deeper responses, questions should be open-ended. Questions should also be asked individually and not as part of a string of three to four questions.

Follow-up questions and probing techniques allow the interviewer to draw out more information (Patton, 1987). Some probing techniques include contradicting, challenging, encouraging, or acknowledging. Contradicting offers an opposing viewpoint to stimulate a response from the interviewee. Challenging involves asking for

more information to support the person's previous comments. Encouraging and acknowledging probing techniques include complements and repeating answers to show understanding and interest regarding the interviewee's responses (Berry, 1999).

Although quantitative methods have dominated the sport management literature (e.g., Cunningham & Mahony, 2004) numerous examples of qualitative methods can be found (Skinner & Edwards, 2005). Qualitative techniques are frequently applied in the sport psychology and sport sociology literature. As mentioned previously, interviewing and content analysis are the most dominant approaches, but many other techniques have been applied (Biddle, et al., 2001). For example, Friedman and Silk (2005) used an historical and storytelling approach to express the heritage and brand management of Fenway Park in Boston.

Qualitative Research Involving College Athletes

Adler and Adler (1987) used a participant-observation technique in their four-year study of men's collegiate basketball players in the 1980's. One of the authors spent a significant amount of time interacting with the men's basketball team over the course of the study. Their writings were published in subsequent journal articles and as a book- *Backboards and Blackboards: College Athletes and Role Engulfment* (Adler & Adler, 1991). The authors found that student athletes arrived at college with intentions to succeed academically as well as athletically, but eventually became engulfed by the demands and pressures of their athletic responsibilities, to the neglect or abandonment of their student roles (Adler & Adler, 1987).

Harrison and Lawrence (2003) used qualitative interviews and visual elicitation to stimulate discussion with African American student athletes. Several themes emerged from the research, including academic and athletic success and life after sports. The authors discussed the need to analyze career development on an individual basis rather than treating African American student athletes as a homogeneous group.

Lally and Kerr (2005) used in-depth interviews with eight college student athletes to examine their athletic and student identities and levels of career planning. The authors began interviews with a broad, open-ended, “grand tour” question. They followed this question with various probing techniques and additional questions. The interviews were transcribed, and data analysis consisted of separation into units, categories, and finally themes. The findings suggested that college athletes could identify with both their student and athlete roles simultaneously, but that identifying with the student role allowed for greater career exploration in non-sport areas. They also found that the salience of the identities changed over time, and that some athletes delayed attention to their student identities lead to unrealistic career goals (Lally & Kerr, 2005).

Current Study

Study 1 sought to find what relationships exist among athletic identity, student identity, and career development among Division I college athletes. Additional research questions were posed to analyze differences in the relationships by race, sex, and type of sport. In order to acquire greater understanding of how these identities interact, and how the conflict of these two roles may affect career development for college athletes, a

qualitative methodology was appropriate. Through qualitative interviewing, a deeper understanding of the complexity of these relationships could be obtained.

Method

Procedure

The qualitative approach used for Study 2 included a semi-structured, phenomenological interview (Lincoln, 1992; Frey & Fontana, 1993) and formal content analysis. All interviews occurred over the telephone, and lasted from twenty to thirty minutes. In-depth interviews began with a broad, “grand tour” question (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Sparkes, 1998). Additional questions probed the interviewee’s responses. Questions regarding athlete and student identity, as well as career development, followed in the semi-structured interview format. Answers and insights from each interview were recorded through detailed written field notes. Field notes were selected to encourage open and honest responses from the athletes, given the somewhat personal questioning of the college athletes’ experiences. The questions were derived from the literature and were deemed appropriate by an expert panel. Depending on the content and direction of each interview, each question may not have been asked to every interviewee. The semi-structured approach allows for this exploratory nature of the interview to seek deeper, more meaningful and insightful data. The general question outline appears as Appendix G. Peer debriefing and methods triangulation were used to provide credibility during the data collection and analysis process (Denzin, 1978; Patton, 1999).

Participants

The sample for Study 2 consisted of seven female and five male college athletes. Appendix F provides a synopsis and short background of the 12 participants. This purposive sample of participants was drawn from two sources. First, a group of 28 college athletes provided their email addresses from Study 1 indicating that they would be willing to participate in future career research. An email message and follow-up message were sent to these athletes inviting them to participate in the qualitative interview follow-up. These 28 college athletes were students at one of the three large, central United States universities included in Study 1. This group included black, white, and Hispanic male and female athletes participating in one of several sports. Secondly, college athletes from a fourth university were personally contacted by the author and invited to participate in the interviews. These participants were familiar with the author or members of the authors' academic department at the university. The athletes were selected from a defined generalized group with characteristics of interest to the study to capture responses from a variety of athlete perspectives (Coyne, 1997).

Results

Data Analysis

The formal content analysis began after transcribing the field notes from each interview. Data was categorized into initial clusters or constellations of ideas using card sorting and thematic categorization (Holsti, 1969). With each interview, additional data was coded into the previous categories. Themes were analyzed with respect to frequency and emphasis or importance to the interviewee. After identifying the themes

and sub-themes (Stake, 1995), a knowledge terrain map was produced to provide a wide-lens view of the collected data. Pertinent quotes were used during the write-up to illustrate key themes from the interviews. Themes and sub-themes were presented and discussed with regard to similarities to previous research as well as new ideas and insights that were interesting and beneficial to the topic matter.

Three broad categories emerged from the data analysis: (a) conflict, (b) benefits, and (c) adjustments. These three broad categories were further delineated into eleven key sub-groups. Under conflict, the five sub-groups included: (a) physical stress and pressure, (b) class and scheduling difficulties, (c) poor advising, (d) social impact, and (e) athlete reputation and responsibility. Under benefits, the sub-groups included (a) advantages gained as a college athlete, (b) helpful academic support, and (c) professorial support. Finally, under adjustments, the sub-groups were (a) time management, (b) high school to college transition, and (c) areas of improvement. An outline of this information appears in Appendix H.

Conflict

Physical Stress and Pressure. A recurring theme from the responses about the college athlete experience and the student and athlete role conflict was the physical stress and strain that the college athletes experienced. This stress, often due to time constraints and travel requirements, seemed to produce a domino-type effect. The physical demands (lack of sleep, strain) affected the athlete's performance academically as well as their selection of an academic major. This, in turn, impacted the athletes' career goals and career planning, as several of them gave up on earlier aspirations and

found the path of least resistance to help decrease their stress levels. Pete described his busy daily schedule. He had 7 a.m. meetings, then class, then practice from 1 p.m. to 7 p.m., and then he would eat. This was a very tiring schedule. At night, Pete would attempt to study before sleeping. Pete decided that he would have to give up some of his usual sleep time to focus on his academics:

It was tough to keep up with the school and the hours from practice and travel. I realized that I just had to accept the late nights. I didn't want to miss out of the college experience. You can't recreate it. So I just decided to do what I needed to do with school.

Dan, a tennis player, described a similarly grueling schedule. Dan had 5 a.m. workouts, and then had to get cleaned up for 8 a.m. classes. After classes and practice, he would study from 8 p.m. until midnight. The days were long and tough. Dan mentioned the amount of work, both mental and physical, that was involved with his athlete experience:

From the outside, being an athlete looks glamorous. It's not as easy as the regular students think. There is a lot of work involved. All they think is you get to travel, you get free clothes, you get to be with the team, and you get travel money. But they don't see the work.

Sid, another football athlete, felt that a significant amount of time and effort was required for an athlete to succeed in college. He also commented on the pressure exerted by his coaching staff regarding practice time:

Being an athlete was very time consuming. There is a rule that we are only supposed to practice 20 hours a week, but the coaches always would try and push it. And then they would say stuff like the summer workouts are voluntary.

Yeah, right.

Some of the athletes felt that no matter how hard they worked, they would still find themselves falling behind on assignments or other responsibilities. Rachel, a basketball athlete, said “my life was get ready for a test, study a little, practice, go to class, and then still get behind.” Rory, a softball player, commented on how much more stress there is during the athletic season:

The weeks after a test, you want to relax, but you have to gear up for the next week. The roles are very conflicting. Like next week I have five tests and a game on Wednesday after we travel for the weekend. It’s very stressful with lots of tests and projects. In-season is worse with all the hours of practice and travel.

Many of the athletes commented on a lack of sleep or a general fatigue from a poor sleeping schedule. Lucy, another soccer athlete, said: “It’s gone both ways.

Sometimes I am tired, and it’s hard to get school done. It’s hard to devote the time. It’s really hard when you miss a class or notes or quizzes.”

Beyond the indirect impact that the physical and emotional stress had on the athletes’ academic performance and career planning, several interviewees commented on how the stress affected other areas of their lives. Cal, a football athlete, commented:

“Athletes are always under the spotlight. Everyone knows you. Some people have good reputations, some have bad ones.” Dan believed that his college experience as an athlete

was limited: “The coaches always told us to watch out when we went out. People were always watching us because we were student athletes. We had to be careful how we acted in public.”

Another impact of stress was noted by Will, a football player. He noted a negative overlap from athletics to his academic and social life:

Some times, I would have a bad day at practice. I would take that bad day and it would carry over after practice. It would be hard for me to study or do anything. But finally I had to realize that football isn't everything.

The coaching staff was another source of stress for a number of the athletes. Will noted the pressure involved in big-time collegiate football: “There is a pressure with football at a big university like this. Some guys get real stressed out about it.” Faye, a track-and-field team member, described an on-going conflict with her coach. Faye is not as committed to her sport as her coach wants her to be. She says that she does not practice as much every day as the coach wants her to. This has strained their relationship, and the coach has told her that she is not giving her full attention to her athletics. Faye is disillusioned in general. She described her frustrations with her strained relationship with her coach: “During recruiting he told me and my parents that they are all one big, happy family, and that academics would always come first. That was a load of bull. Nothing matters to the coaches but the sport.”

Class and Scheduling Conflicts. Beyond the physical stress of the college athlete experience, the scheduling conflict between class and athletic requirements was an

important point with many of the athletes. Athletic practice, training, games, and travel were all mentioned as factors in class and major selection.

Sarah, a basketball player, explained how her conflict was the greatest during her senior year. Sarah had just started graduate school in September and found it difficult to schedule her classes. She estimated that being an athlete set her back a year because she could not take the pre-requisite classes she needed. Sarah could have completed her Masters' degree a year earlier. Sarah provided some detail of the conflict:

The athletes could never [emphasized] miss practice, the coaches wouldn't allow it under any circumstances. I had to fill my schedule with stuff [easy classes or classes that fit her athletic schedule] that I didn't need [in order to not miss practice].

Faye commented on the restricted class scheduling due to conflicts with athletics: "Yes, practice in the afternoon limits what classes I can take. And people don't realize how busy you [the athlete] really are." Regarding class absences, Faye feels that she is fortunate that the track meets are always on the weekend, so she misses few classes. She said other athletes may miss one or two days of class each week depending on their sport:

Most athletes stay to themselves, and their schedules are determined by their practice times. If they practice in the morning they take afternoon classes. If they practice in the afternoon, they take whatever morning classes they can. My track practice began at 2 p.m., so I had to be done with classes by 2 p.m. every day of the week. Practice and meets dominate everything.

Faye occasionally had the opportunity to volunteer for service projects, but most of her time was consumed by practice, travel, or competitions.

Rachel discussed how she decided to make school a priority over her athletic responsibilities. This included taking some classes that caused her to miss a portion of the basketball team's regularly scheduled practices. Rachel believed that this decision to make academics a priority cost her favor and playing time from the coaching staff: "My schedule conflicted with practice time. It affected my level as an athlete. Other people were at every practice, and I was penalized, I think."

Poor Advising. The academic advising experience with the academic counselors from the various athletic departments was a recurring theme. A number of the athletes complained about their experience with the athletic advisors from their university. Sarah said that the academic advisors in the athletic department did not help her academically, but rather hurt her, by discouraging her from taking psychology classes. Sarah reported: "I finally quit going to them. I went to the psychology advisor and scheduled my classes myself. The other girls are stuck in hotel and restaurant management now. They have accrued too many hours to switch to anything else." Sarah also mentioned that a lot of her teammates were hotel and restaurant majors. She said this is the 'easy' major at her school, and she assumed that every university had a similar type of major. "The advisors put them [Sarah's female teammates] in easy courses during the season. They also discourage them from taking too many hours."

Sarah then relayed two very interesting and descriptive stories regarding how poor academic advising affected career planning for some of her fellow teammates. The

first story involved another female basketball player who had decided that she wanted to work with kids, possibly as a teacher, but definitely working with children. She found out that she had taken so many hours in hotel and restaurant management that she couldn't switch majors and still complete her degree before her scholarship was exhausted. So she stuck it out and was trying to get an internship at a camp to work with kids after college.

The second story involved another talented basketball player. The coaches and advisors told her she was good enough to go professional, which she was. They told her this constantly. She did not worry about classes or her grades or a degree, because she knew she was going to play basketball professionally. Her teammate was drafted by a Women's National Basketball Association team. On her first day of mini-camp she tore a knee ligament and was cut from the team. The athlete ended up graduating but had no career plans nothing to help guide her beyond college.

Like Sarah, Faye gave up on the academic advisors and made her own academic schedule. She indicated that the academic coordinator enrolled many of the athletes: "The girls don't really have a say in it [selecting classes]. They don't even know that they can enroll themselves. The athletes are steered away from any conflicts with practices or meets." Faye also says that the football players in particular are steered away from more difficult majors. Pete relayed a similar advising experience. "I did my own advising. I was in a bad major, but I changed it to sport management and I have really enjoyed it."

Dan admitted that some athletes would be put into an easy major if they were struggling academically. They would also be put into the easiest classes during their season. Sid, a football player, supported this view:

Some guys, the athletic people really baby their schedule. They are trying to keep them on the field, but eventually they will have to take certain classes when they are juniors and seniors, and some even during the fall [during football season]. Some guys do get put in the easy major. Some take it seriously, but some don't. The younger kids, when they get here, don't know up from down. They are concerned about football.

Will also believed that the academic advisors could hold an athlete back from academics. He relayed his experience:

I enrolled during the summer before I got to campus. I was going to be an engineering major. When I arrived for football, I got a copy of my schedule and it was completely changed. They [the advisors] had changed it. They had dropped all of my math and science classes, and now I had a class in turf management and one for adjusting to college. They discouraged me from going into engineering; they said I can't handle the time commitments with that degree.

Rachel also went against the advice of her academic advisors and chose a more difficult major in which she was interested:

Advisors can lead you into the easy majors; that does happen, but I wanted something more. I wasn't interested in the easy major. The advisors didn't want

any classes to overlap with practice. At first I didn't want it to interfere, but then I realized I want to get out.

Some of the athletes used their career interests and planning to help shape their decision regarding their major selection. At first, Dan just wanted to graduate. He was a business major but didn't particularly enjoy the classes. Dan switched to sport management and enjoyed the course material much more. Will felt a similar disinterest in his course material. Will was in an 'easy' major, but was not interested in the coursework. It was too easy, and he couldn't get into it. His interest was peaked by the new sport management major, and he switched to it his sophomore year.

Rachel was very interested in working with computers after college. Even though she chose to focus on academics over athletics, her selection of a major was affected by her athletic role. "I thought about engineering, but it was too much for me. I always liked computers, so I went into technology management."

Cal was also interested in working with computers, but chose to major in technology management rather than computer engineering. He did not think that he could handle the academic rigors of the engineering degree due to his participation with football.

Social Impact. Another area of concern for the athletes was the social impact caused by their athlete and student role conflicts. These social impacts led some of the athletes to believe that they missed out on opportunities that could have given them a more meaningful and rich college experience.

Faye lived on campus and made friends in the residence hall where she lived. This helped her feel more connected to the campus and the student body. She said that the athletes are not encouraged to be involved with student organizations by the athletic department and coaches. Pete mentioned the difficulty of trying to 'balance' the many roles together: "There is a time conflict between practice and school. It's difficult to find the line needed to balance the school and athletics and friends and social life." Dan said: "It is hard to make friends outside of athletics due to the scheduling. You are always with athletes in practice or at games. All of your friends end up being athletes."

Other athletes did not seem to feel that their social experiences were limited by their athlete status. Sid was one who dissented, saying:

Overall, my experience was just as good or better than regular students. In the fall, I took 15 hours. I missed a few trips with my classes that I wish I could have gone on. But football takes priority, and I wouldn't trade it for anything.

Sid added:

Being a student athlete, there is a lot of time spent between sports and academics. Athletes have to budget their time. Being an athlete didn't hinder me as a student. It sucked not having any vacation time, like in the summer or holidays, though.

Will mentioned the travel conflicts and how the athletes would miss some campus activities: "There was a lot of travel, especially on the weekends. We were always going somewhere for games, so we did miss a lot on campus, and some classes."

Rachel also reported missing a lot of the campus experience: “You can still party and meet people if you make the effort. Yes, it’s harder, but you can if you want to. Maybe you couldn’t be active in some other organizations or volunteer groups on campus.”

Athlete Reputation and Attitudes. A final sub-theme under conflict was athlete reputation and attitudes. A number of the athletes discussed how some of their fellow athletes failed to focus on academics or career development. Some focused on athletics, while others chose to sacrifice academics for a part of the social scene. Sarah mentioned the constant battle to keep two or three of her teammates eligible to play during the basketball season:

I didn’t understand why the coaches even recruited some of those girls- they can’t stay eligible. It’s a constant problem. Why recruit them?

Sarah also felt that men and women struggled for different reasons:

With the men, they focused on pro sports. They think they are so gifted; they seem to struggle because of their focus on athletics. For the women, they are into the social scene. They are worried about partying and drinking, not as much about the sports as the guys are.

Faye complained that the good athletes got away with a lot of bad behavior, while the football players “walked around like they own the school.”

For Pete, he viewed many of the athletes’ struggles as a personal lack of work ethic:

The biggest problem is laziness. It starts in high school. These kids were superstars in high school, like a Greek god or something; they didn’t have to do

much in high school, in the classroom or on the field. But that really hinders them now. They have to learn how to work on the field and in the weight room [to compete athletically]. They have to learn how to work hard again.

Dan echoed Pete's comments about the personal aspect of success in college:

Academic success is all about personal effort. If you don't want to do it, they will find an easy way for you to get through. Some guys never cracked a book, they just hung out at the hotel all the time. They never studied and they didn't care.

Sid followed with these comments: "Some people [athletes] struggle because of personal drive and discipline. Some guys are just in college to be an athlete, and aren't concerned about school."

Cathy, a tennis player, believed that the trend in some sports (football and basketball) was to be in easy majors. She felt that this was not due to the advisors, but rather due to an athlete's lack of desire for a challenge. Cathy noted the academic and career goals of her teammates:

The tennis team is all focused on graduation. They are all going to stay 5 years to graduate, they aren't concerned about going pro. Some do want to go pro, but they are both committed to getting a degree. In other sports, many athletes also want to graduate. The stereotype is that some of the men don't care about finishing. So many of the athletes do want to graduate. We're not all like Kevin Durant [University of Texas basketball player who played one year at Texas then turned professional].

Rory, a softball player, also believed that success was a matter of personal effort: It depends on the athlete. Do they look for opportunity to succeed? Some of them are laid back and don't want to go and they let things slip past them. They should use their resources and networking. Some teams like football and basketball make it look worse on the other athletes and teams, but we're not all like that reputation sometimes.

Paula, a soccer athlete, said that some of the girls on her team were going to try out for the new women's professional soccer league in 2008, but they did not have any other career plans if they did not make it professionally. She described two of these girls: "Two friends on my team have taken an easy major. They just gave up on classes. Now they are studying chickens."

Benefits

Advantages Gained as a College Athlete. All twelve college athletes discussed several benefits from their experiences as an athlete. Faye mentioned the advantage that athletes have due to their unique experiences. Faye attended several student-alumni activities on campus. At one such outing, a networking dinner held on campus, she was able to meet and greet several university alumni. Faye says being an athlete opens doors that are not open to other students. She relayed a story about a dinner she was invited to at a major sports booster's home:

The kids on campus have to be president of the school board or something to be invited, but I got in because I was an athlete. Being a student athlete is always

the trump card, it overshadows other things. At the table, people always were interested in hearing from me when I told them I was an athlete.

Faye also used her position as an athlete to be involved in service activities.

However, the same three or four athletes volunteer each time. Faye was able to read books to a class of 1st graders in a rural town through the distance learning program on her campus. She really enjoyed interacting with the kids across the television hook-up.

Pete viewed the athlete experience as a powerful and enjoyable experience:

I wouldn't trade any of the last four years for anything. I made some best friends for life with some of the athletes. Being a letterman will be some thing I will cherish for the rest of his life.

Dan was able to use his experience and networking through athletics to secure an internship and possibly future employment. Dan received an internship obtained through a networking contact with his former tennis coach. He also has a job offer at the same tennis center after graduation.

Sid felt that he gained valuable skills that will be important for his future career:

“Being an athlete has helped me develop as a person, and developed a work ethic. It's a point I can talk about with business people.”

Cathy felt that the effort required to succeed academically and athletically was worth it: “Being a college athlete is great, there's no other way to be. It was difficult to manage school and tennis. In season it was really tough and the season was very long.”

Cal listed several skills that he felt would be beneficial later in life:

It has been a great experience. College football was a big step up from high school. I'd definitely do it again. It helped me build skills. I can work in the classroom, I developed team work, hard work, and the employers will know I have some of these skills.

Lucy said being a college athlete is the opportunity of a lifetime. Off the field, she has made best friends. She enjoys the traveling and the games. "It's been good. I haven't been involved in all of the organizations I would have liked to." Lucy continued with other benefits:

Most of my friends are athletes, and I get to see them all of the time. It's a lot of fun being an athlete. I like to attend the other sports' games, too. Having the experience from the game experience, from the inside, will help me in my career. I know what the athletes need.

Helpful Academic Support. While several comments dealt with poor experiences with academic advising, a number of interviewee's relayed positive dealings with advising. Through a positive advising experience, the athletes felt that they were able to balance their schedules. This led to better performance academically, as well as allowing them the ability to stay on track for graduation. Indirectly, this allowed the athletes to consider some career options as they explored the major options at their university. Sid stated that the academic center helped him out tremendously: "Having all of the tutors and computers right there, in one place, really helped me out. I could go from practice to upstairs and get all of my work done at on place." Sid's advisors helped him balance his schedule so he did not overload himself during the football season.

Cathy used the advisors in athletics more than the ones in the Communication Department. She used to use the advisors more often, but learned to do her own schedule. Cathy explained that her advisors in athletics were more understanding of her scheduling needs than others outside of the athletic department. The advisors helped Cathy with choices of professors who were more understanding of athletes, as well as class scheduling. She was very pleased overall: “At this school, they make it almost impossible not to graduate. The facilities and the people make a big difference.”

Likewise, Cal described a positive experience with counseling. The advisors helped Cal pick classes. Cal did disagree with the counselors a few times, when they enrolled him in ‘schedule filler’ courses, but overall he thought that they were very helpful.

Rory explained how the tutors assisted her in staying ahead of her coursework: “I have gone to a lot of tutoring. I try to find extra time here and there. I don’t have much time for friends. I have to buckle down so I don’t get behind.” Rory also described her maturing process, as she found herself needing the counselor’s assistance less and less throughout her college years:

At my first school [Rory transferred from a smaller D-I university] I had to find my own resources and tutors. I had to change majors after transferring, and decided on sport management since I love sports so much. Each year the advisors have had to help me less and less. Now I know the load I can handle. Now I talk to other student athletes and find out about different classes and professors.

Paula described a similar maturing process: “Once I was in the swing of things the second semester was easier. Actually, maybe after the first couple of months I started to figure things out.”

Professorial Support. Almost all of the twelve athletes in Study 2 commented on the positive relationships they had with their professors at their respected universities.

Sarah challenged the myth of the athlete versus professor relationship:

You hear about the academic horror stories, but my experience hasn't been that way at all. All my professors were very understanding when I had to miss class. They were all helpful, I never had a problem.

Sarah also had no problems with her professors at all. She felt that building relationships with professors was important, as was showing them that you care and are willing to work. Faye also said things were good overall with the faculty. She takes the time to get to know the professors, and thinks this is important for the athletes to do.

Rachel blamed the athletes for any conflicts that arose with professors:

Sometimes the roles conflicted. Some professors were helpful and they understood the travel and missing class. They would let you make up a test. Some profs were not lenient, but partly because the athletes didn't arrange for things ahead of time. They would come up the day before they were leaving and say they had to miss the test.

Cal agreed that the athletes would be fine if they simply showed the professors that they were willing to participate and work diligently: “I would put a lot of, you

know, effort in to class. Some teachers don't like football players, so I had to show them I wasn't a slacker." Rory echoed Cal's comments:

The professors have been awesome with me missing class and tests, or for missing for games. They are very understanding. I don't want them to think I'm slacking off, because I'm not. I show them from the very first day.

Lucy also stated that her professors had been accommodating, and had been easy to deal with.

Adjustments

Time Management. Time management was the most mentioned phrase throughout the twelve interviews. This skill seemed to hold the key for an athlete's ability to succeed both in the classroom and in athletics, or to fall under the pressures and demands of their sport. Sarah discussed her strategy to study during travel:

Prioritizing your time is the only way to do it. I would study on the plane on the way to games and on the way back. Other girls wouldn't; they would sleep or whatever. Then they wondered how they got behind with their school work.

Faye also mentioned that athletes need to work on their balance of time, and make priorities with school and athletics. Dan, at his new university, had to study and work a lot harder to keep up with tennis. Dan studied on trips and on airplanes. He said that many of the other team members chose not to study, and hung out around the hotel pool during trips.

Will said that athletes get behind and their problems start snowballing:

One thing that was very important was time management, for sure. For football players, time management is the #1 problem. Kids in high school don't take class seriously, they don't really have to work. But now they actually have to study. The guys have to learn the plays, the whole playbook: it's like another class. And they have to learn their school stuff, too. They have to study for football like it's a class. Only in football, you get yelled at more when you forget something.

Cathy said "being an athlete will help me in the future. I really learned time management. I had to learn it. I was like a child out on the first time on my own." Her high school experience was not rigorous. Cathy had no need to study, only to do the daily assignments. In college, however, Cathy discovered that she did have to study. In the beginning she had to try and find time to study and to get into a routine.

In high school, there was no routine, just study the day before the test. I've managed it well, I haven't failed any classes. I think it grows, how to manage things. In season, you get into a study routine, get organized, which is very important for time management. I kept an agenda, a list of things to do that day. Cal compared the greater amount of work in college compared to his high school days:

In season, I had to study harder than in the off-season. Regular students don't have to worry about things like practice. In high school, I could study for two hours for a final. In college, I studied three hours for each test. There was

tremendously more work; but I was more organized and had more time management. I got his priorities in order.

Rory stays on top of things to get them done as soon as possible. “In high school, you could wait until the last minute. Now you have to be on the ball.” Rory says that her time management and help from the advisors and the department helped her so much.

Paula has developed team work and time management. She learned how to sacrifice for the team, to be on time. The lessons she has learned will be a benefit over her own life. High school was good, but it was tough to get her time management in order. Paula never had a break her first year [soccer is a fall semester sport].

Lucy wasn't as concerned about time management as some of the other interviewees:

It wasn't as bad as I thought. Time management, yeah, I make sure and get 2 hours here and there. I have to be disciplined with it. I'm actually better on trips, like during plane trips, where I can study. There's nothing else to do on the plane.

High School to College Transition. For most of the athletes, the transition year from high school to college represented their highest levels of stress, anxiety, and poorest academic performance. Sarah explained her difficulty:

You have to study, a lot! Study, study. My first 2 semesters my grades were OK, I had a 3.5. As a freshman, I was consumed with parties and the social life, not concerned about grades. But by my sophomore year, I could predict the

toughness of the classes. Undergrad was easy with only lectures, not much reading [she was able to adjust and predict time requirement of classes]. I could look at the syllabus and know whether or not it would be a hard class.

Pete was appreciative of a football coach who provided him with some key motivation:

I was lucky enough to have a coach that sat me down and kicked me into gear. My first two semesters I had a 2.0. I finished 22nd in my high school class of over 400, and I wasn't used to C grades. So coach helped me get refocused, told me to get it in gear.

Pete learned how to study again, learned that his time was very limited, and that even though it was tough, he must focus to get his work done. His coach and advisors were very supportive and helped him during this time.

Dan, who returned to college as an older student, thought that the personal maturity that he developed in life made a big difference in his ability to cope with college athletics: "Personally, I was lucky because I came back to college much more mature. It really made a difference to not be an 18 year old. I transferred back in at 23."

Will acknowledged the early struggles, but pointed out a benefit for his bad habits:

It was hard to start out, the time commitment was tough. You had to really be disciplined. But it also helped. The time deadlines were good for me- they helped me get my work done. I need those deadlines because I'm a procrastinator. High school was really easy, but college was hard, with all the

reading and stuff. The academic staff helped me with some study plans, and the study hall my freshman year really helped me adjust to college.

Rachel noted a difference between high school and junior college when compared to the pressures at a Division I university: “High school and junior college were the same, not much pressure. But at D-I, you have to stay eligible to play.”

Cal described the process he went through, realizing that his education had to become a goal of his:

At first, I spent a lot of time in tutoring. I went three or four times a week each week for my entire career. My freshman and sophomore year I was focused on going pro. But reality set in, and I figured I better get an education!

Cal said the coaches and employees were very supportive of the football players overall.

Paula was overwhelmed coming in as a freshman from out of state. She was on a natural high, she loved soccer.

My first year was my weakest year. The classes weren't hard, but it was just the transition. I had to learn how to take notes. I wish I could go back and take the classes again. I would do better now.

Paula continued to discuss the difficulties that freshman athletes faced:

The freshman really struggle. They make their schedule fit them the best they can. Some of them take all night classes so they can sleep all day. They are the innocent newbies. They think they can do it all, we upperclassmen have to help them out a little bit.

Suggested Improvements

Several participants discussed possible improvements to various aspects of the college athlete experience. For instance, Sarah despised required study hall. It was hard to study, and she felt as if she wasted eight hours a week her freshman year in there. The administrators didn't help [keeping people quiet, stop talking]. It became easier when she could make her own schedule to study.

Sarah said she would change the requirement of freshman study hall by making it voluntary unless the athlete actually needs it. Have more 1-on-1 rooms for tutoring. The tutors did a good job. Also, she said she would fire the jerks in academic advising; they didn't need to be there anyways.

Other athletes offered their opinions about improvements that are necessary. Pete said, "There should be more discipline for some of the guys in social outings. They get away with a lot of behavior. Overall, I had a great experience, that's about it." Will commented that he has been successful so he doesn't see much need for changes. Will did mention the importance of counseling classes about the social pressures would be beneficial for the kids coming into the program as freshman.

Rachel suggested:

Orientation was OK, but we needed more skill training. I wish we had had more training to get ready. We had orientation, but we needed more to get ready for college. We have study hall and tutors, but not many of the girls take advantage of it.

Miscellaneous comments

Several comments from the college athletes did not fit into any of the previously outlined themes and sub-themes. These comments were included because they provide additional insight into the college athlete experience or other personal academic and career planning developments.

Sarah reported a surprising relationship change with her coaches after her senior season of competition was completed: “There is always the political side of things. I wasn’t expecting it, but after I was playing the coaches really didn’t talk to me. It was like I wasn’t as asset anymore. I wasn’t ready for that.”

Sid described how he made the decision to focus on school and career goals once he realized that playing professional sports was not a realistic option: “Personally, it took a lot of balance. My goal was to get an education. This [being a college athlete] was a stepping stone into life after college. I wasn’t going pro in football.”

Sid also mentioned his belief that many of the athletes eventually determine that academics should be an important goal, but this decision may be delayed due to an initial focus on athletics: “Most of the athletes do realize that school is important, but their grades may have suffered before they realize this. They realize they aren’t going pro, and they need a backup plan.”

Rachel commented that the female athletes with whom she was familiar may have been able to assess their academic and career plans earlier than their male counterparts, due to their limited opportunities in professional sports: “The women

athletes really don't have the opportunity to go pro, so they have to look at academics. They have to have something else."

Rory discussed her personal academic goals: "The main thing for me is my education. It's very different to having time like a regular student, because of practice and travel. But being an athlete is great, you get help for your academics."

Paula discussed how the roles of athlete and student conflicted. She felt that the roles did indeed conflict, but for her personally, she enjoyed being able to step away from one role to fulfill the other:

The roles did conflict, but it was also a chance to do something else I could be good at. I was good at sports, but it was nice to be able to concentrate on something else and succeed at that [academics]. I had to work at school, but I enjoy the challenge. It is almost a break from athletics, a rest.

Lucy mentioned an important academic adjustment that helped her while she was absent from class for practice or at games. Lucy makes friends in class who can take good notes and share them with her when she returns from road trips. She felt that this was an important skill for the athletes to develop in order to avoid missing vital class materials.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Overview of Findings from Study 1

In Study 1, I investigated relationships between sex, race, and type of sport with athlete identity, student identity, and career decision-making self-efficacy. With research question one, I sought to examine the relationships among athletic identity, student identity, and career development among Division I college athletes. Results indicated that student identity of the college athletes in the sample was a significant predictor of career decision-making self-efficacy. Previous studies suggested that this relationship should be investigated (Brown & Hartley, 1998). Consistent with previous findings, no predictive relationship was found between athlete identity and career self-efficacy (Brown & Hartley, 1998; Kornspan & Etzel, 2001). A significant negative relationship was discovered between athlete identity and student identity. That is, athletes with higher levels of athlete identity demonstrated lower levels of student identity. Despite recent efforts to improve student-athlete integration to campus and provide academic and career counseling, these results suggest that these two roles still remain in conflict.

The second research question in Study 1 was developed to analyze possible differences in career development by race. Some scholars have suggested that minority athletes may place less emphasis on the student role while focusing heavily on the athletic role (Snyder, 1985). Other academic struggles have been reported, such as lower graduation rates and retention rates for minority athletes (Sack & Staurowsky,

1998; Sellers, 2000). However, the results from Study 1 failed to show any significant relationship, based on minority or non-minority status, for either identity or career decision-making. These results are limited, however, due to the small sample size of minority athletes included in the study.

The third research question was created based on a number of previous studies regarding a difference in academic and career performance between male and female athletes. Male college athletes have been found to have lower career maturity than non-athletes (Murphy, Petitpas, & Brewer, 1996) and more specifically, male football and basketball players have been noted to have lower career maturity levels than other athletes (Blann, 1985; Kennedy & Dimick, 1987; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992). Male college athletes have also been shown to lag behind female athletes on developmental tasks, graduation rates (NCAA, 2006), and career planning (Blann, 1985). The findings from Study 1 support the previous research in that female college athletes did have significantly higher scores on student identity than did the male athletes.

The fourth and final research question sought to examine differences between revenue and non-revenue sport participants. In addition to academic measures (Lapchick, 2007; NCAA, 2006), research has suggested that male athletes in revenue sports may exhibit lower levels of career maturity (Adler & Adler, 1991; Harrison & Lawrence, 2003). Results showed that athletes who competed in non-revenue sports had significantly higher student identity scores than did athletes from revenue sports. No difference was noted for athlete identity or for career decision-making self-efficacy.

The results from Study 1 suggested that the only significant predictive variable for career decision-making self-efficacy was student identity. The other variables in the study may have an indirect effect on career development, but several groups do demonstrate differences in student identity. Female athletes and non-revenue sport athletes had higher student identity levels than did male and revenue sport athletes, respectively. This suggests, as has been indicated in the literature previously, that male football and basketball players may be the most likely group to demonstrate poor academic and career development.

Overview of Findings from Study 2

I conducted Study 2 in order to gain additional insight into the complicated interface of these two roles and career development. The results of the interviews suggested that the college athletic experience is a trade-off and balancing act. An athlete must balance between educational and athletic goals, skill development and stress relief, and academic and career goals. Many of the athletes chose to self-limit their educational and career goals by selecting easier majors or classes that fit into their athletic schedule. Several of these athletes were encouraged to lighten their academic load, especially during their competitive seasons. Some, in fact, were pressured into changing majors by their academic advisors or coaching staff. These behaviors may not have directly impacted their career planning, but they did impact their immediate academic performance and pathways. These changes sometimes produced negative consequences by the time their athletic careers were ending, including extended the amount of time

required to graduate and a lack of congruence between their major choice and their developing career aspirations.

The role conflict between student and athlete led some of the college athletes into self-limiting academic behavior. Time constraints from practice, training, travel, and athletic contests were important factors in their decision process academically. Class selection, major selection, and academic progress were often only addressed after athletics were given priority. The short-term adjustment of an easier major or lighter class schedule sometimes put the athlete in a major track that they were not interested in, or delayed their academic progress because of prerequisite requirements. These were similar challenges reported earlier in the literature (Blann, 1985; Adler & Adler, 1991). The outcome of this self-limiting behavior on career development was more of a longer-term, indirect effect. By the time the athletes began to make serious career plans or goals, they realized that the major they were involved in would not help them reach their goals. Lally and Kerr (2005) found similar delayed career planning from their qualitative interviews with college athletes in Canada.

In addition to self-limiting academic behaviors, many of the college athletes noted a curtailing of their academic and career goals. For some, poor academic performance, especially in their freshman years, led them to drop more difficult majors. For others, they lowered their goals after losing interest in the 'easy' major that they had been pressured into by their advisors or coaches. Adler and Adler (1991) reported similar changes in goals in their study of University of Tulsa basketball players in the 1980's. These decisions helped delay their career planning and development. Several of

the athletes interviewed, however, were able to make an adjustment later on in their college experience to set some realistic career goals, and to alter the balance between their academic and athletic roles to meet these goals. This decision for some of the athletes did have consequences, as some mentioned they had to sacrifice playing time or status with their coaches in order to commit themselves to success academically. This is likely a decision that few undergraduate students are likely to make, especially during their first two years in college.

Implications from Both Studies

Several implications are noteworthy given the results of the two studies. Academic advisors and researchers may find it beneficial to concentrate their efforts on gaining further understanding of the lower recognition of the student role by male student-athletes, particularly in football and basketball. Additionally, several of the athletes noted their own personal and observed difficulties of the transition from high school to college. The freshman year experience may set the tone for the athlete's entire academic pathway, either by causing them to self-limit their goals, or discouraging the athlete from being able to create long-term career plans.

A number of key skills were mentioned during the interviews, including time management and academic planning. Results suggest that a concentrated effort to develop these skills in incoming freshman athletes may be beneficial in helping them make the transition to college from high school, as well as help them prepare to be successful academically. If these skills were developed before the athlete falls behind

academically or begins to limit their goals due to the stress of their role conflict, perhaps more appropriate and challenging career goals can be fostered.

While the first study provided additional support for previous ideas from the college athlete career development literature, Study 2 allowed for insight into the complex interaction of the roles of athlete and student, as well as insight into the nature and possible impacts of the conflict between these two roles. A key point of discussion is the repeated nature of the decision-making process for the college athletes. The choices of which role to commit to are not one-time events, but occur repeatedly over the course of their collegiate experience. Each commitment to the responsibilities and pressures of the athlete identity, whether for practice, training, travel, or competition, often coincided with a decision to ignore or delay attention to the student role. This may impact the athlete's selection of a major, selection of classes, participation in internships or extracurricular academic activities, or study time and grade performance. The cumulative effect of these decisions results in an impact on career development, planning, and opportunity. To better illustrate the cumulative effect concept, a model was created (Appendix I). The track model gives a visual illustration of the cumulative effect of decisions to perform the athlete and student roles on career opportunities for the college athletes. Using the track analogy, each lap around the track represents additional experience gained during an athlete's time in college. This additional experience could be anything that would benefit career development, whether academic achievement, skill development, or career planning and exploration. The more laps completed, the deeper, thicker, and more broad the development. Athletes are competing amongst themselves,

as well as other students in their peer group. At the end of their college experience, the amount of career development (laps) they are able to achieve will give them advantages over other peers who produced fewer laps.

The main purpose of the conceptual model is to illustrate the fluid, complex, and cumulative effect of the conflict between the athlete and student roles and the career development and opportunity for the college athletes. An athlete may begin his or her college careers on an inside lane (focused on their student identities and career planning) but through the course of their athletic experience, they may slowly drift further into the outside lanes. The longer the athlete runs in the outside lanes, the more they will fall behind their competitors running inside of them. Several forces may push athletes into the outside lanes, as were mentioned during the interviews. These forces may include self-motivation, laziness, stress, fatigue, poor advising, lack of long-term planning, or schedule conflict.

If the runners in this career development race can be pushed to the outside of the track, then they can also move from an outside lane into an inner lane. Again, several forces may assist the athletes in improving their career development and academic progress, including: additional studying, tutoring, professorial support, academic advising, academic and athletic balance, and time management. These skills and support groups play important roles in helping the athletes continue their course through college as well as help them progress more effectively and efficiently.

Other aspects of the model may be extrapolated. For instance, some would argue that given the academic struggles and lower career maturity scores of male revenue sport

athletes, these groups of athletes may be at a disadvantage from the beginning of the race. They may be starting the race from lane four or five rather than on the inside lanes. Further, African-American Division I athletes may be starting even further outside on the track. While some groups may be running the career development track in a less advantageous lane, the results from Study 2 suggest that if these athletes are able to develop critical skills, such as time management, and are able to receive proper and timely academic support, they can improve their situation.

Additional research to support, revise, or clarify this process would prove beneficial to our understanding of the potential consequences of the athlete's decisions over time. The track model may also prove useful as tool to illustrate the concept of career development to populations of college athletes and athletic department academic advisors who would likely be very familiar with the sport analogies. Additional materials utilizing the track model could be produced to introduce key terms and concepts such as academic progress, career exploration and planning, and career development.

Limitations

A number of limitations to the current study should be noted. The participants were all members of large, Division I NCAA institutions, which may limit the results being generalized to other NCAA divisions or other collegiate athletic populations such as junior colleges. Results may be much different depending on the career and academic support available at smaller universities or smaller Division I schools. Also, given the fact that only 10% of the total variance for career self-efficacy was explained, numerous

other factors remain to be identified. These may include socioeconomic status, family background, or academic prowess. Other variables that may prove beneficial to address include student-athlete motivations, goals, and satisfaction levels. Finally, this study was exploratory in nature and included correlational data, and therefore does not suggest causality.

Additionally, the data for Study 1 was a convenience sample consisting of school from only one conference. A broader sample of schools, even among D-I universities, may provide a better sample for analysis. Two other limitations of note include self-reported measures and a low response rate for the online survey in Study 1.

In Study 2, the sample included only two students who were not seniors or graduate students. The athletes in the sample were relied on to accurately reflect on their college experience. Future follow-up research would benefit from asking athletes who are in their first two years of college what their academic and career planning are for comparison.

Another limitation is the lack of African-American male interviewees. While significant effort was undertaken to include African-American male athletes in the purposeful sampling process, none who were invited accepted the offer to participate. While the interviews give insight to several areas of interest in college athletes, including male and female sport participants, key insight could be gained from additional study of African-American athletes, specifically in men's basketball and football.

Future Directions

Future research could provide additional insight into the conflict of student and athlete roles and the effect this conflict has on academic and career development. A follow-up interview study with African-American male athletes may prove beneficial into understanding the specific challenges that these athletes have during this process. The literature has previously suggested that these groups of athletes struggle academically more than their counterparts (Sack & Staurowsky, 1998; Sellers, 2000). In order to accomplish this task, additional assistance from the athletic department or coaching staff may be necessary to ensure participation.

Additionally, an expansion of the research into other Division I conferences, as well as other levels of schools such as Division II and III, may provide a greater understanding of the challenge of balancing the role identities. The level of competition, academic support, and travel schedules may all factor into a difference between school levels and even conferences.

The current study provided a review of the athletes' experience from one set point in time. A longitudinal study, taking assessments at various times throughout an athlete's career may provide greater insight into the career planning process. More can be learned about when and how the transition is made to focus on longer-term career development issues, and how this may affect athletic performance and relationships with peers, coaches, and others.

Longitudinal studies tracking initial career placement of student-athletes and comparing it to career maturity and development levels would provide useful insight into

the transition of student-athletes into the workforce. Limited analysis in the literature has suggested that some college athletes may have greater earnings success in their future careers than non-athletes (Henderson, Olbrecht, & Polachek, 2005). Although costly and time-consuming, further longitudinal research into the careers of former college athletes could provide additional understanding of the career process.

Other studies have shown that career self-efficacy is related to career maturity (Luzzo, 1995; Kornspan and Etzel, 2001). Future research could further examine the relationship between student identity, athlete identity, career self-efficacy and career maturity. In addition, the effectiveness of programs such as the NCAA Challenging Athletes Minds for Personal Success (CHAMPS) Life Skills could be assessed in terms of the effect they may have on student identity or career development. A greater understanding of the complex nature of role conflict for Division I college athletes would also be beneficial in developing and implementing effective training programs and administrative policies. Greater recognition and awareness of role conflict and effective strategies to balance the role identities should allow for improved career development strategies for college athletes, administrators, coaches, and faculty.

REFERENCES

- A Call to Action: Reconnecting College Sports and Higher Education. Report of the Knight Foundation Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics (2001). Retrieved from http://www.ncaa.org/databases/knight_commission/2001_report/index.html, 9 Jan., 2007.
- Adams, G.R., Shea, J., & Fitch, S.A. (1979). Toward the development of an objective assessment of ego-identity status. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, **8**, 223-237.
- Adler, P., & Adler, P. A. (1987). Role conflict and identity salience: college athletics and the academic role. *The Social Science Journal*, **24**, 443-455.
- Adler, P. A., & Adler, P. (1991). *Backboards and blackboards: college athletes and role engulfment*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Albert, K.A. & Luzzo, D.A. (1999). The role of perceived barriers in career development: a social cognitive perspective. *Journal of Counseling and Development*. **44**, 431-436.
- Alvi, S. A., & Khan, S. B. (1983). An investigation into the construct validity of Crites' career maturity model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, **22**, 174-181.
- Baade, R. and Matheson, V. (2004). An economic slam dunk or March Madness? Assessing the economic impact of the NCAA basketball tournament. In *Economics of college sports*, J. Fizel and R. Fort, eds. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavior change. *Psychological Review*, **84**, 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (1983). Self-efficacy determinants of anticipated fears and calamities. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, **45**, 464-469.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: a social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American Psychologist*, **44**, 1175-1184.
- Bandura, A. (2000). Exercise of human agency through collective self-efficacy. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, **3**, 75-78.
- Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (1996). Multifaceted

- impact of self-efficacy beliefs on academic functioning. *Child Development*, **67**, 1206-1222.
- Benford, R. D. (2007). The college sports reform movement: reframing the 'edutainment' industry. *The Sociological Quarterly*, **48**, 1-28.
- Berry, R. S. Y. (1999). *Collecting data by in-depth interviewing*. Retrieved March 27, 2007, from <http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/000001172.htm>.
- Betz, N., Klein, K., and Taylor, K. (1996). Evaluation of a short form of the career decision-making self-efficacy scale. *Journal of Career Assessment*, **4**, 47-57.
- Biddle, S. J. H., Markland, D., Gilbourne, D., Chatzisarantis, N. K. D., & Sparkes, A. C. (2001). Research methods in sport and exercise psychology: quantitative and qualitative issues. *Journal of Sport Sciences*, **19**, 777-809.
- Blann, F. W. (1985). Intercollegiate athletic competition and students' educational and career plans. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, **2**, 115-118.
- Bowen, W. G., & Levin, S. A. (2003). *Reclaiming the game: college sports and educational values*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Boyd, V. S., Hunt, P. F., Kandell, J. J., & Lucas, M. S. (2003). Relationship between identity processing style and academic success in undergraduate students. *Journal of College Student Development*, **44**, 155-167.
- Brewer, B. W. (1991). *Athletic identity as a risk factor for depressive reaction to athletic injury*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ.
- Brewer, B. W., Van Raalte, J. L., & Linder, D. E. (1993). Athletic identity: Hercules' muscles or Achilles heel? *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, **24**, 237-254.
- Brown C., & Hartley D. L. (1998). Athletic identity and career maturation of male college student athletes. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, **29**, 17-26.
- Brown, C., Glasttetter-Fender, C., & Shelton, M. (2000). Psychosocial identity and career control in college student-athletes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, **56**, 53-62.
- Bruning, J. L., & Kintz, B. L. (1997). *Computational handbook of statistics*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Educational Publishers, Inc.

- Burgess, T. C. (1911). Athletic relations of Illinois colleges. *The School Review*, **19**, 513-522.
- Burke, P. J., & Reitzes, D. C. (1981). The link between identity and role performance. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, **44**, 83-92.
- Chartrand, J. M. & Lent, R. W. (1987). Sports counseling: enhancing the development of the student-athlete. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, **66**, 164-167.
- Chemers, M., Hu, L., & Garcia, B. (2001). Academic self-efficacy and first-year college student performance and adjustment. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, **93**, 55-64.
- Chickering, A. W. (1969). *Education and identity*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Chickering, A. W., & Reisser, L. (1993). *Education and identity* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Cornelius, A. (1995). The relationship between athletic identity, peer and faculty socialization, and college student development. *Journal of College Student Development*, **36**, 560-573.
- Coyne, I. T. (1997). Sampling in qualitative research. Purposeful and theoretical sampling: emerging or clear boundaries? *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, **26**, 623-630.
- Crites, J. O. (1965). Measurement of vocational maturity in adolescents. *Psychological Monographs*, **79**, 1-36.
- Crites, J.O. (1978). *Career maturity inventory: administration and use manual* (2nd ed.). Monterey, CA: CTB/McGraw-Hill.
- Cunningham, G. B., & Mahoney, K. (2004). Self-efficacy of part-time employees in university athletics: the influence of organizational commitment, valence of training, and training motivation. *Journal of Sport Management*, **18**, 59-73.
- Cunningham, G. B., Bruening, J., Sartore, M. L., Sagas, M., Fink, J. S. (2005). The application of social cognitive career theory to sport and leisure career choices. *Journal of Career Development*, **32**, 122-138.
- Davis, F. W., & Yates, B. T. (1982). Self-efficacy expectancies versus outcome expectancies as determinants of performance deficits and depressive affect. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, **6**, 23-35.

- Denzin, N. K. (1978). *Sociological methods*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Introduction: the discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 1-32). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Edwards, H. (2000). Crisis of black athletes on the eve of the 21st century. *Society*, **37**, 9-13.
- Erikson, E.H. (1950). *Childhood and society*. New York: Norton.
- Erikson, E. H. (1963). *Childhood and society* (2nd ed.). New York: Norton.
- Ewing, L. E. (1975). Career development of college athletes: implications for counseling activities. Ed. D. dissertation, Blacksburg, VA: Virginia Polytechnic and State University.
- Ferrante, A. P. & Etzel, E. (1991). Counseling college student-athletes: the problem, the need. In E. F. Etzel, A. P. Ferrante, & J. W. Pirkney (eds.), *Counseling college student-athletes: issues and interventions* (pp. 1-18). Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.
- Flick, U. (2002). *An introduction to qualitative research* (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Frazier, A. P., Tix, P. A., & Barron, E. K. (2004). Testing moderator and mediator effects in counseling psychology research. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, **51**, 115- 134.
- Frey, J. H., & Fontana, A. (1993). The group interview in social research. In: D.L. Morgan, Editor, *Successful focus groups: advancing the state of the art* (pp. 20-34). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Friedman, M. T., & Silk, M. L. (2005). Expressing Fenway: managing and marketing heritage within the global sports marketplace. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, **1**, 37-55.
- Gasper, T. H., & Omvig, C. P. (1976). The relationship between career maturity and occupational plans of high school juniors. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, **9**, 367-375.
- Ginzberg, E., Ginsburg, S., Axelrad, S., & Herma, J. (1951). *Occupational choice: an approach to a general theory*. New York: Columbia University Press.

- Glesne, C., & Pshkin, A. (1992). *Becoming qualitative researchers: an introduction*. New York: Longman.
- Good, A. J., Brewer, B. W., Pepitas, A. J., Van Raalte, J. L., & Mahar, M. T. (1993). Identity foreclosure, athletic identity, and college sport participation. *The Academic Athletic Journal*, Spring, 1-12.
- Graham, S., & Weiner, B. (1996). Theories and principles of motivation. In D. C. Berliner & R. C. Calfee (Eds.). *Handbook of educational psychology* (pp. 63-84). New York: Simon & Schuster Macmillan.
- Grove, J., Lavalley, D., Gordon, S., & Harvey, J. (1998). Account-making: a model for understanding and resolving distressful reactions to retirement from sport. *The Sport Psychologist*, **12**, 52-67.
- Hackett, G., Lent, R. W. & Greenhaus, J. (1991). Advances in vocational theory and research: A 20-year retrospective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, **38**, 3-38.
- Harrison, C. K., & Lawrence, S. M. (2003). African American student athletes' perceptions of career transition in sport: a qualitative and visual elicitation. *Race Ethnicity and Education*, **6**, 373-394.
- Healy, C.C., O'Shea, D., & Crook, R.H. (1985). Relation of career attitudes to age and career progress during college. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, **32**, 234-244
- Henderson, D. J., Olbrecht, A., & Polachek, S. (2005). Do former college athletes earn more at work? A nonparametric assessment. IZA Discussion Papers 1882, Bonn, Germany, Institute for the Study of Labor (IZA).
- Hinkle, J. S. (1994). Integrating sport psychology and sports counseling: Developmental programming, education, and research. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, **17**, 52-59
- Holland, J.L. (1966). *The psychology of vocational choice*. Waltham, MA: Blaisdell.
- Holland, J. L., Whitney, D. R., Coles, N. S., & Richards, J. M. (1969). An empirical occupational classification derived from a theory of personality and intended for practice and research. (ACT Research Report No. 29). Iowa City, IA: The American College Testing Program.
- Holland, J. L., Daiger, D., & Power, P. (1980). *My Vocational Situation: Description of an experimental diagnostic form for the selection of vocational assistance*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

- Holsti, O. R. (1969). *Content analysis for the social sciences and humanities*. Reading, MA, Addison-Wesley.
- Isaacs, N. (1984). *All the moves: a history of college basketball*. New York: Harper & Row.
- James, W. (1890). *The principles of psychology*. New York: Henry Holt.
- Jordan, J. & Denson, E. (1990). Student services for athletes: a model for enhancing the student-athlete experience. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, **69**, 95-97.
- Junnarkar, S. (1999). CBS, NCAA deal will boost sports web site. Retrieved from <http://news.com.com/2100-1017-233299.html>, 9 Jan., 2007.
- Kennedy, S. R., & Dimick, K. M. (1987). Career maturity and professional sports expectations of college football and basketball players. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, **28**, 293-297.
- Kornspan, A. S., & Etzel, E. F. (2001). The relationship of demographic and psychological variables to career maturity of junior college student-athletes. *Journal of College Student Development*, **42**, 122-132.
- Kornspan, A. S., & Etzel, E. F. (2003). What do we know about the career maturity of college student-athletes? A brief review and practical suggestions for career development work with student-athletes. *Academic Athletic Journal*, **17**, 15-33.
- Lapchick, R. (2001). *Smashing barriers: race and sport in the millennium*. Lanham, MD: Madison Books.
- Lapchick, R. (2007). *Racial and gender report card*. Orlando, FL: Institute for Diversity and Ethics in Sport.
- Lally, P. S., & Kerr, G. A. (2005). The career planning, athletic identity, and student role identity of intercollegiate student athletes. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, **76**, 275-285.
- Lawrence, M. J. (1986). A comparative study of student development levels of varsity athletes at the Florida State University. Ph.D. dissertation, Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL.
- Lee, C. (1982). Self-efficacy as a predictor of performance in competitive gymnastics. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, **4**, 405-409.
- Lent, R., Brown, S., & Hackett, G. (1994). Toward a unified social cognitive theory of

- career academic interest, choice and performance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, **45**, 79-122.
- Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Hackett, G. (1999). A social cognitive view of school-to-work transition. *The Career Development Quarterly*, **48**, 297-304.
- Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Larkin, K. C. (1986). Self efficacy in the prediction of academic success and perceived career options. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, **33**, 265-269.
- Lent, R.W., Brown, S.D., Nota, L., & Soresi, S. (2003). Testing social cognitive interest and choice hypotheses across Holland types in Italian high school students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, **62**, 101-118.
- Lincoln, Y. S. (1992). Sympathetic connections between qualitative methods and health research. *Qualitative Health Research*, **2**, 375-391.
- Lincoln, Y. S. & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lottes, C. (1991). A “whole-istic” model of counseling student-athletes on academic, athletic, and personal social issues. In E. F. Etzel, A. P. Ferrante, & J. W. Pirkney (eds.), *Counseling college student-athletes: issues and interventions* (p. 31-50). Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.
- Luzzo, D. A. (1992). Ethnic group and social class differences in college students' career development. *The Career Development Quarterly*, **41**, 161-173.
- Luzzo, D. A. (1993). Reliability and validity testing of the career decision-making self-efficacy scale. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, **26**, 137-142.
- Luzzo, D. (1995). Gender differences in college students' career maturity and perceived barriers in career development. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, **73**, 319-325.
- Marcia, J. E. (1966). Development and validation of ego identity status. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, **3**, 551-558.
- Marcia, J. E. (1993). The relational roots of identity. In J. Kroger (Ed.), *Discussions on ego identity* (pp. 101-120). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Martens, M. P., & Cox, R. H. (2000). Career development in college varsity athletes. *Journal of College Student Development*, **41**, 172-180.

- McCormick, R. A., & McCormick, A. C. (2006). The myth of the student-athlete: the college athlete as employee. *Washington Law Review*, **81**, 71-157.
- McPherson, B. D. (1980). Retirement from professional sport: the process and problems of occupational and psychological adjustment. *Sociological Symposium*, **30**, 126-143.
- Morgan, G., & Smircich, L. (1980). The case for qualitative research. *Academy of Management Review*, **5**, 491-500.
- Moritz S. E., Feltz D.L., Fahrbach K.R., Mack D.E. (2000). The relation of self-efficacy measures to sport performance: a meta-analytic review. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, **3**, 280-94.
- Multon, K. D., Brown, S. D., & Lent, R. W. (1991). Relation of self-efficacy beliefs to academic outcomes: a meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, **38**, 30-38.
- Murphy, G. M., Pepitas, A. J., & Brewer, B. W. (1996). Identity foreclosure, athletic identity, and career maturity in intercollegiate athletics. *The Sports Psychologist*, **10**, 239-246.
- NCAA Academic Reform. (2006). Retrieved from http://www.ncaa.org/wps/portal!/ut/p/kcxml/04_Sj9SPykssy0xPLMnMz0vM0Y_QjzKLN4j3CQXJgFjGpvqRqCKOcAFfj_zcVH1v_QD9gtzQiHJHRUUAc0tpTA!!/delta/base64xml/L3dJdyEvUUd3QndNQSEvNEIVRS82XzBfTFU!?CONTENT_URL=http://www2.ncaa.org/portal/academics_and_athletes/education_and_research/academic_reform/index.html, 6 Mar 2006.
- Nelson, E. S. (1983). How the myth of the dumb jock becomes fact: a developmental view for counselors. *Counseling and Values*, **27**, 176-185.
- North, J., & Lavallee, D. (2003). Active athletes' perceptions of career and education services in the United Kingdom. *Academic Athletic Journal*, **17**, 34-51.
- Ogilvie, B.C., & Howe, M. (1982). Career crisis in sport. In T. Orlick, J.T. Partington, & J.H. Salmela (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Fifth World Congress of Sport Psychology* (pp. 176-183). Ottawa, Canada: Coaching Association of Canada.
- Pajares, F. (1997). Current directions in self-efficacy research. In Maehr, M. & Pintrich, P. R. (eds.), *Advances in motivation and achievement*, **10**, 1-49, Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

- Parsons, F. (1909). *Choosing a vocation*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Parsons, T. (1951). *The social system*. New York: The Free Press.
- Patton, MQ. (1999). "Enhancing the quality and credibility of qualitative analysis." HSR: Health Services Research. **34** (5) Part II. pp. 1189-1208.
- Patton, M. Q. (1987). *How to use qualitative methods in evaluation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Pearson, R. E., & Petitpas, A. J. (1990). Transitions of athletes: Developmental and preventative perspectives. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, **69**, 7-10
- Pepitas, A. J., & Champagne, D. E. (1988). Developmental programming for intercollegiate athletics. *Journal of College Student Development*, **29**, 454-460.
- Person, D. R., & LeNoir, K. M. (1997). Retention issues and models for African American male athletes. *New Directions for Student Services*, **80**, 79-91.
- Pintrich, P. R., & Garcia, T. (1991). Student goal orientation and self-regulation in the college classroom. In M. Maehr & P. R. Pintrich (Eds.), *Advances in motivation and achievement: Goals and self-regulatory processes* (Vol. 7, p. 371-402). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Pintrich, P. R., & Schunk, D. H. (1995). *Motivation in education: theory, research, and applications*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Powell, D. & Luzzo, D.A. (1998). Evaluating factors associated with the career maturity of high school students. *The Career Development Quarterly*, **47**, 145-156.
- Reitzes, D. C. (1977). The college student role identity: processes and consequences for academic performance. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN.
- Reitzes, D. C., & Burke, P. J. (1980). *College student identity: measurement and implications*. Pacific Sociological Review, **23**, 46-66.
- Remer, R., Tongate, F. A., & Watson, J. (1978). Athletes: counseling the overprivileged minority. *Personnel and Guidance*, **56**, 626-629.
- Rizzo, J. R., House, R. J., & Lirtzman, S. I. (1970). Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, **15**, 150-163.

- Roach, R. A. (2004). Academics and athletics: playing for the same team: NCAA president discusses the challenges of leading the organization in an era of academic reform. *Black Issues in Higher Education*, **21**, 26-31.
- Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (2005). *Qualitative interviewing: the art of hearing the data*. (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Sack, A. L., & Staurowsky, E. J. (1998). *College athletes for hire: the evolution and legacy of the NCAA's amateur myth*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Sack, A. L. & Staurowsky, E. J. (2005). Reconsidering the use of the term student-athlete in academic research. *Journal of Sport Management*, **19**, 103-116.
- Sadri, G., & Robertson, I. T. (1993). Self-efficacy and work-related behavior: a review and meta-analysis. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, **42**, 139-152.
- Savickas, M. L. (1984). Construction and validation of a physician career development inventory. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, **25**, 106-123.
- Scanlan, T. K., Carpenter, P. J., Schmidt, G. W., Simons, J. P., & Keeler, B. (1993). An introduction to the sport commitment model. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, **15**, 15-19.
- Sedlacek, W. E., & Adams-Gaston, J. (1992). Predicting the academic success of student-athletes using SAT and noncognitive variables. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, **70**, 724-727.
- Sellers, R. M. (2000). African American student-athletes: opportunity or exploitation? In D. Brooks and R. Althouse (Eds.), *Racism in college athletics* (pp. 133-154). Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.
- Settles, I. H., Sellers, R. M., & Damas, A. (2002). One role or two? The function of psychological separation in role conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, **87**, 574-582.
- Sharf, R. S. (2006). *Applying career development theory to counseling* (4th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Shields, N. (1995). The link between student identity, attributions, and self-esteem among adult, returning students. *Sociological Perspectives*, **38**, 261-273.
- Skinner, J., & Edwards, A. (2005). Inventive pathways: fresh visions of sport management research. *Journal of Sport Management*, **19**, 404-421.

- Smallman, E. & Sowa, C. J. (1996). Career maturity levels of male intercollegiate varsity athletes. *Career Development Quarterly*, **44**, 270-278.
- Snyder, E. E. (1985). A theoretical analysis of academic and athletic roles. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, **2**, 210-217.
- Sowa, C. J., & Gressard, C. F. (1983). Athletic participation: its relationship to student development. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, **24**, 236-239.
- Sparkes, A. (1998). Validity in qualitative inquiry and problems of criteria: implications for sport psychology. *The Sport Psychologist*, **12**, 363-386.
- Sperber, M. A. (2001). *Beer and circus: how big-time college sports is crippling undergraduate education*. New York: H. Holt.
- Stajkovic, A. D., & Luthans, F. (1998). Self-efficacy and work-related performance: a meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, **124**, 240-261.
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stryker, S. (1980). Toward an adequate social psychology of the self. *Contemporary Sociology*, **9**, 383-385.
- Super, D. E. (1955). The dimensions and measurements of vocational maturity. *Teachers College Record*, **57**, 151-163.
- Super, D. E. (1957). *Psychology of careers*. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- Super, D.E. (1961) Some unresolved issues in vocational development research. *Personnel Guidance Journal*, **40**, 11-25
- Super, D. E. (1970). *Computer-assisted counseling*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Super, D. E. (1990). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. In D. Brown, L. Brooks, & Associates (Eds.), *Career choice and development* (2nd ed., 197-261). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Super, D.E., Thompson, A.S., Lindeman, R.H., Jordaan, J.P., & Myers, R.A. (1981). *Career Development Inventory: college form*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

- Taylor, K. M., & Betz, N. E. (1983). Applications of self-efficacy theory to the understanding and treatment of career indecision. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, **22**, 63-81.
- Thelin, J. R. (1996). *Games colleges play: scandal and reform in intercollegiate athletics*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Trice, A. D., Haire, J. R., & Elliott, K. A. (1989). A career locus of control scale for undergraduate students. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, **69**, 555-561.
- Waldo, C. A. (1903). Regulation of athletics: what's next? *The School Review*, **11**, 305-315.
- White, C. L. (1988). Ethnic identity and academic performance among black and white college students: an interactionist approach. *Urban Education*, **23**, 219-240.
- Williams, J. F. (1949). The crucial issue in American college athletics. *The Journal of Higher Education*, **20**, 12-17.
- Winston, R. B., Jr., Miller, T. K., & Prince, J. S. (1979). Assessing student development: a preliminary manual for Student Developmental Task Inventory (rev. 2nd ed.) and the Student Development Profile and Planning Record. Athens, GA: Student Development Associates.
- Wood, R. E., & Locke, E. A. (1987). The relation of self-efficacy and grade goals to academic performance. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, **47**, 1013-1024.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1989). A social cognitive view of self-regulated academic learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, **81**, 329-339.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1990). Self-regulating academic learning and achievement: the emergence of a social cognitive perspective. *Educational Psychology Review*, **2**, 173-201.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1994). Dimensions of academic self-regulation: a conceptual framework for education. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Self-regulation of learning and performance: issues and educational implications* (pp. 3-21). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1995). Self-efficacy and educational development. In A. Bandura (Ed.), *Self-efficacy in changing societies* (pp. 202-231). New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Zimmerman, B. J., & Bandura, A. (1994). Impact of self-regulatory influences on writing course attainment. *American Educational Research Journal*, **31**, 845-862.
- Zimmerman, B. J., Bandura, A., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1992). Self-motivation for academic attainment: The role of self-efficacy beliefs and personal goal setting. *American Educational Research Journal*, **29**, 663-676.

APPENDIX A

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Several research studies from each relevant topic for Study 1 and Study 2 were reviewed, including career development, self-efficacy and social cognitive career theory, career maturity, identity development theory, and the college athlete career development literature. These career development approaches were selected based on their prevalence and acceptance in the career development literature and practice. The purpose of the literature review was to provide a brief examination of each of these related, but unique, career development approaches and theories, as well as to connect these approaches with the current career development research literature for college athletes.

Career Development Theory

For the first half of the twentieth century, trait and factor theory dominated the field of vocational guidance. A trait is defined as a characteristic of an individual, and a factor is a characteristic required for success with a particular job (Sharf, 2006). Frank Parsons' book, *Choosing a Vocation* (1909), promoted three key steps to choosing the proper vocation. First, an individual needed to identify the self, along with unique traits, interests, and abilities. Second, the individual needed to learn the conditions necessary for success in various lines of work. And third, the individual must reason between the information collected in the first two steps to come to a vocational decision (Parsons, 1909). Other researchers used the trait and factor approach to vocational research. Elton

Mayo, from Harvard, and Frederick Taylor, in private business, both studied fatigue and boredom at repetitive jobs. The trait and factor theory remained the predominant theory guiding industrial psychology throughout the 1930's and 1940's, as the United States military became more interested in studying personnel placement leading up to and including the second World War. The Army General Classification test was created based on the military research using the trait and factor approach. Edmund G. Williamson, working at the University of Minnesota, became a prominent proponent of trait and factor theory through his research during the 1940's and 1950's (Sharf, 2006).

Another prominent scholar who followed the trait and factor theory in his research of career choice was John Holland. Holland investigated the relationship between career choice and personality, eventually producing his model of stereotypes (Holland, 1966). Holland's hexagon figure (Holland, Whitney, Cole, & Richards, 1969) displays the six types of occupational environments from his model, as well as the personality types of the people that typically worked in those environments. The types include Realistic, Conventional, Enterprising, Social, Artistic, and Investigative.

During the 1950's, another theoretical approach to career development was introduced, commonly referred to as the life-span approach. Life span theorists began to propose that peoples' interests and desires change over time, as does their level of career development. This viewpoint was in contrast to the trait and factor theories prevalent in career research. Trait and factor theorists tended to regard career choice as a static, singular intervention. The life span models conceptualized career development as an ongoing, fluid process occurring over several stages of an individuals' development.

Ginzberg et al. (1951) introduced the first life-span theory for adolescents, which included three phases of development: fantasy, tentative, and realistic. Super (1957; 1961), a doctoral student of Ginzberg, expanded the development model into five stages, taking into account the changes in an individual's self-concept with time and experience. Super's five stages were: a) growth, b) exploration, c) establishment, d) maintenance, and e) decline. Super's developmental life-span approach drew many parallels from Erikson's Psychosocial Development model. Super used the concept of "roles" to describe the many aspects of careers that occur during one's lifetime. He has continued to update and explore career development through the developmental framework (Super 1970, 1990).

Self-efficacy and Social Cognitive Career Theory

A number of additional frameworks have been created to conceptualize and measure various aspects of career development. Lent, Brown and Hackett (1994) developed the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) based on Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory. Bandura (1986) believed that self-efficacy (the belief by an individual that he or she can accomplish a given task) is bolstered through mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, and social persuasion. SCCT posits that interaction with the environment, along with the constructs of self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and choice goals, help predict an individual's educational and career choices (Lent, et al., 2003).

The concept of self-efficacy was introduced into the literature by Albert Bandura (1977). Self-efficacy, or personal belief in one's abilities or knowledge, has significant

impacts on goals, motivation, and outcome expectations (Bandura, 2000). Bandura (2000) suggested that personal self-efficacy, or the inner belief that one has the power to generate desired effects, regulated human functioning in key areas of behavior.

Numerous studies across varied fields have supported the causality or moderating effects of self-efficacy beliefs in human motivation and performance (Multon, Brown, & Lent, 1991; Sadri & Robertson, 1993; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Moritz, Feltz, Fahrback, & Mack, 2000).

The self-efficacy construct has been studied in various settings and academic fields, as well as in concert with other theoretical constructs. A sample of these various areas includes organizational effectiveness (Bandura, 2000), human agency (Bandura, 1989), human psychological problems (Bandura, 1983; Davis & Yates, 1982), motivation (Graham & Weiner, 1996), education (Pintrich & Schunk, 1995), and athletic performance (Lee, 1982).

Bandura introduced the concept of social cognitive theory based on the interactions of an individual and his or her environmental influences. Bandura (1986) suggested that people's self-beliefs work in concert to affect human behavior. He argued that people regulate their behaviors based on a combination of their own self-belief in their abilities, environmental factors, and experiences. Pajares (1997) mentions that these self-beliefs act as a filter through which behavior is mediated and new information is interpreted, and suggests that this view is consistent with many works in the literature.

Academic and career research is one of the prominent areas of inquiry that social cognitive theory has been expanded into. Several researchers have studied the effects of self-efficacy beliefs on academic performance, persistence, and achievement (Wood & Locke, 1987; Zimmerman, 1989, 1990, 1994, 1995; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Pintrich & Garcia, 1991). Research has supported the notion that elements of self-efficacy contribute to academic efficacy, achievement, persistence, and performance (Pajares, 1997).

Other academic research has suggested that self-efficacy has strong relevance to performance and freshman year adjustment to college (Chemers, Hu, & Garcia, 2001), plays an important role in children's academic achievement (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996); has significant effects on persistence and perceived career options (Lent, Brown, & Larkin, 1986), impacts academic performance and persistence (Multon, Brown, & Lent, 1991), and affects personal academic goal setting (Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martinez-Pons, 1992). From the initial research of social cognitive theory and academics grew a line of inquiry examining social cognitive theory and career development. Hackett, Lent, and Greenhaus (1991) reviewed more than twenty years of research in career development.

Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1994) sought to create a unified theory of career development, encompassing three key aspects: career interests, career and academic selection, and performance and persistence in academic and career pursuits. Their framework, the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT), was based on Bandura's self-efficacy (1986) work and included three major tenants: self-efficacy, expected outcome,

and goal mechanisms (Lent, Brown, and Hackett, 1994). The SCCT has been included in a number of career related research studies over the last twelve years. Career development studies, using SCCT, have been undertaken to examine ethnic and class differences (Luzzo, 1992), sport and leisure career choices (Cunningham, Bruening, Sartore, Sagas, & Fink, 2005), perceived barriers to careers (Albert & Luzzo, 1999), career maturity (Powell & Luzzo, 1998), and school-to-work transition (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1999).

Career Maturity

Another important framework for this study is the career maturity theory championed by Crites. Career maturity is conceptualized as an individual's readiness to make informed, age-appropriate career decisions and manage career development tasks (Savickas, 1984). Career maturity is a part of the developmental approach to career research, introduced by Super (1957). This construct allows for a measurement and analysis of the college athlete's career development at a critical stage in his or her life. Since it is theoretically grounded in Erikson's (1950) identity development theory, it provides relevant and appropriate symmetry for the current investigation of role identity and career development. Career maturity is comprised of both cognitive and affective domains. The affective domain includes attitudes towards the career decision-making process, while the cognitive domain includes the skills and abilities involved in career decision-making (Crites, 1965). As is apparent, the concepts of career maturity and career decision-making are closely related, and both provide perspectives on the career development process. In fact, career maturity has been shown to have significant,

positive relationships with career self-efficacy (Luzzo, 1993). Career maturity has also been related to self-esteem (Alvi & Khan, 1983), career development skills (Gasper & Omvig, 1976), and academic success (Healy, O'Shea, & Crook, 1985).

Identity Development Theory

Three developmental theory frameworks have provided the background for a majority of the research of college student role development and college athlete role identities. Erik Erikson (1950) developed a theory of ego development that accounted for the interaction between psychological, social, historical, and developmental factors in the formation of personality. Erikson conceptualized the development of an individual's identity through eight stages over the life cycle- the model of Stages of Psychosocial Development (Erikson, 1950). Erikson posited that development takes place over these life stages through a series of conflicts that need to be resolved by the individual before moving into the next stage. Erikson's Eight Stages of Psychosocial Development are (a) Trust versus Mistrust, (b) Autonomy versus Doubt, (c) Initiative versus Guilt, (d) Industry versus Inferiority, (e) Identity versus Role Confusion, (f) Intimacy versus Isolation, (g) Generativity versus Stagnation, and (h) Integrity versus Despair. For the interests of researchers investigating career development, most attention is focused on the fifth (late adolescence) and sixth (early adulthood) stages of Erikson's model (Erikson, 1950).

The establishment of a new identity takes place during the Identity versus Role Confusion stage (Erikson, 1963). Individuals in the fifth stage are in the process of developing a sense of self in relationship to others and to their own internal thoughts and

desires. As an individual struggles with the conflict that is inherent in this stage of identity development, one of two outcomes will likely resolve. A positive resolution to the conflict in this stage, such as acceptance of a particular role, leads to identity formation. A negative resolution, in which no definitive acceptance can be made, leads to role confusion (Erikson, 1963).

Marcia (1966) operationalized the concept of identity development by forming a paradigm with exploration and commitment as the key foundational dimensions (Boyd, Hunt, Kandell, & Lucas, 2003). Marcia's four statuses of identity development include achievement, moratorium, foreclosed, and diffused. In achievement, an individual has made a commitment to their beliefs and values after a time of exploration. In moratorium, an individual has yet to make a commitment and is still actively exploring new identities. If an individual is diffused, he or she is neither exploring nor committing to any roles. In the foreclosed status, an individual has failed to explore identities, but rather has accepted roles based on advice or values of friends, family, or peers (Marcia, 1993).

Another key framework relevant to this study is Chickering's (1969) student development theory. Chickering proposed that college students' personal development could be tracked along one of seven vectors. According to this developmental theory, the process of career selection reaches its zenith from age 18 to 24, corresponding with most student's college experiences. The seven vectors are listed and described below (Chickering & Reimer, 1993).

- 1) Developing competence. An individual gains skills for comprehension, analysis, and synthesis. Competence grows in three areas- intellectual, physical and manual skills, and interpersonal skills.
- 2) Managing emotions. Acknowledgement and awareness of emotions leads to better management of potentially damaging feelings and thoughts.
- 3) Moving through autonomy toward interdependence. Students must establish recognition and acceptance of independence and responsibilities that accompany autonomy.
- 4) Developing mature and interpersonal relationships. Students build tolerance and a capacity for intimacy, and begin to build healthy relationships.
- 5) Establishing identity. Identity development involves comfort with one's body image, sexual orientation, sense of self, clarification of self-concept through roles and lifestyle, sense of self based on feedback from others, self-acceptance, self-esteem, and personal stability and integration.
- 6) Developing purpose. Many students lack direction. Priorities include development of vocational plans, personal interests, and family decisions. An important note here is Chickering uses the term vocation in the broadest sense, from paid employment to leisure to a higher calling.
- 7) Developing integrity. Development of core values and beliefs will aid students in identity development and growth.

Student and Athlete Identity. Throughout the history of intercollegiate athletics, college athletes have faced a common struggle, one between their role as an athlete and

their role as a college student. While college athletes may not be unique in their struggles to succeed academically at the university level, they have faced a unique challenge as students who simultaneously represent their university in an athletic competition. The conflict between these multiple identities seems inherent, as this battle for attention, importance, and prominence is not a new concept. The recognition of multiple selves has existed in the scientific literature for many years. James (1890) argued that individuals have many selves which are differentiated with respect to their importance to making up an individual's overall identity. Stryker (1980) introduced identity theory (also known as structural symbolic interactionism) as a framework to analyze identity salience. More specifically, the salience of an identity is based on the degree to which an individual is committed to the role that produces the identity.

Athlete identity has been described as the degree to which an individual identifies with the athlete role to the exclusion of other social and occupational roles (Brewer, 1993). Researchers have hypothesized that athletes with a strong commitment to the athlete identity may experience identity foreclosure, delay career decisions, and may engage in fewer exploratory activities (Hinkle, 1994; Nelson, 1983; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988). Other studies have failed to find a relationship between athlete identity and career maturity and suggested that the college athletes' student identity may serve as a moderator between their athlete identity and career maturity (Brown, Glastetter-Fender, and Shelton, 2000; Brown and Hartley, 1988; Martens and Cox, 2000).

This psychological construct has been used often in research of collegiate athletes. McPherson (1980) found that athletes who have been absorbed in their sport to the exclusion of other life activities will have a self-identity that is composed almost exclusively of their sports involvement. Without the support of self-worth from their sport role, these athletes have little to maintain their sense of self-worth (Pearson & Petitpas, 1990). Some athletes may limit their self-concept to their sport, thereby over investing in their athletic participation. This imbalance can lead to difficulties making a transition to other roles, or in finding satisfaction from roles outside of their athletic experiences (Ogilvie & Howe, 1982; McPherson, 1980). Over identification to the athlete role may also increase problems associated with retirement from athletics (McPherson, 1980).

For college athletes, overemphasis on their athletic identities may have numerous consequences, including role conflict (Adler & Adler, 1987), restricted career development (Remer, Tongate, & Watson, 1978), higher chances of reaching identity foreclosure (Nelson, 1983; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988), lower career maturity (Murphy, Petitpas, & Brewer, 1996), and increased difficulty dealing with sport career termination (Grove, Lavalley, & Gordon, 1997).

Although limited in number, a few studies have examined the importance of academic roles, specifically student identity, for college students (Reitze, 1977; Burke & Reitze, 1981). White (1988) described student identity as what it means to be a college student. Many athletes face a constant struggle attempting to balance their athlete and student roles. Time constraints, pressure to win, and performance expectations all have

been noted as factors that restrict exploration and commitment to other academic roles (Jordan & Denson, 1990). Two reports measured student identity and several counter-roles and concluded that students were motivated to perform activities that were consistent with their identities (Reitzes & Burke, 1980; Burke & Reitzes, 1981). Other studies looked at the relationship between student-identity and self-esteem, finding that strong student identity scores were positively related to aspects of self-esteem (White, 1988; Shields, 1995). As part of her study, Shields (1995) developed and tested a measure of student identity made up of 15 items based on previous literature and interviews. This student identity scale was reported to have a coefficient alpha of .7, and served as the measure of student identity for the current project.

College Athlete Career Development Literature

Several aspects of career development have been examined in the sport management literature. A number of studies have suggested that over commitment to the athlete role, and subsequent under attention to the student role, may lead to negative outcomes such as less exploration and interest in academic development, less career exploration, lower career maturity and development, identity foreclosure, and poor career planning (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Nelson, 1983; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Murphy, Petitpas, & Brewer, 1996; Sowa & Gressard, 1983; Good, Brewer, Petitpas, Van Raalte, & Mahar, 1993). Additionally, research suggests the college athletes may have delayed career maturity, planning, and goals when compared to their non-athlete peers (Kennedy & Dimick, 1987; Sowa & Gressard, 1983; Smallman & Sowa, 1996; Martens & Cox, 2000). Further, male college athletes have been found to have lower

career maturity than non-athletes (Murphy, Petitpas, & Brewer, 1996). Even more specifically, male football and basketball players have been noted to have lower career maturity levels than other athletes (Blann, 1985; Kennedy & Dimick, 1987; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992).

Ewing (1975) was one of the first researchers to investigate college athletes' career development. He compared the study habits, regularity between academic major and career interest, and academic-related decision-making on a sample of 107 students and athletes. Ewing (1975) found that college athletes scored lower than students on acceptance of the education role. Also, college athletes had an external locus of control regarding academic decision-making, often allowing friends or coaches to make choices for them (Ewing, 1975).

Sowa and Gressard (1983) analyzed the developmental task achievement of 75 college students and college athletes, using the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Inventory (Winston, Miller, & Prince, 1979). College athletes scored significantly lower than students on measures of educational plans, career plans, and mature relationships with peers (Sowa & Gressard, 1983). Lawrence (1986) also examined developmental tasks on a group of 302 college athletes. He found college athletes were behind students in developing purpose, maintaining mature relationships with other students. Further, male football and basketball players scored lower than female athletes on all developmental tasks.

Blann (1985) looked at the relationship between students' sex, class, and participation in athletics with their ability to create mature career plans. Results from the

sample (N=568) of Division I and III college athletes revealed that freshmen and sophomore male athletes did not create mature career plans to the extent that freshman and sophomore non-athletes. Blann (1985) suggested that the male college athletes' preoccupation with athletics may lead to insufficient career and educational planning.

Kennedy and Dimick (1987) compared career maturity levels in college athletes and non-athletes using the Career Maturity Inventory (CMI; Crites, 1978). The CMI was administered to 80 male football and basketball players and a matching group of 80 male undergraduate students. Results showed that the college athletes in the study scored significantly lower than the non-athletes for career planning and career maturity. They also reported that a majority of the athletes (66% of African Americans and 39% of Caucasians) expected to play profession sports.

Murphy, Petitpas, and Brewer (1996) analyzed the relationship between athlete identity and identity foreclosure with career maturity levels of college athletes. Athlete identity is defined as the extent to which an individual identifies with the role of an athlete (Brewer, et al., 1993). The second self-identity variable, identity foreclosure, is described as viewing oneself as only an athlete while neglecting attention to other potentially important roles. The authors administered the Career Maturity Inventory-Attitude Scale (Crites, 1978), the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS; Brewer et al., 1993), and the Foreclosure scale of the Objective Measure of Ego-Identity Status (OM-EIS; Adams, Shea, & Fitch, 1979) to 124 college athletes. Results showed that athletic identity and identity foreclosure were both inversely related to career maturity. Murphy, et al., (1996) suggested that college athletes who demonstrate a strong

attachment to their athlete identity and fail to explore alternative roles may be in danger of having delayed career development.

Smallman and Sowa (1996) examined the readiness of male college athletes to make career-related choices. The Career Development Inventory (CDI; Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Jordaan, & Myers, 1981) was administered to 125 college athletes. The career maturity dimensions of the CDI include career planning, career exploration, decision-making skills, and world of work information. No significant difference was found between the career maturity levels of the athletes in revenue sports (men's basketball and football) and those participating in non-revenue sports.

Brown and Hartley (1998) investigated the relationship between athletic identity and career maturity. The Career Development Inventory, College and University Form (CDI; Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Jordaan, & Myers, 1981) and the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale were administered to 114 male college athletes from five universities in the central United States. Results failed to show a significant relationship between athlete identity and career maturity, unlike much of the previous research. Brown and Hartley (1998) suggest that the college athletes' student identity may serve as a moderator between their athlete identity and career maturity. They call for further research to examine the possibility of moderation as well as to learn more about the relationships between athlete identity, student identity, and career maturity for male college athletes.

Brown, Glastetter-Fender, and Shelton (2000) explored the relationships between athletic identity, identity foreclosure, career locus of control, and career decision-

making-self efficacy among 189 college athletes. Participants completed several measures, including the AIMS (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993), the Foreclosure scale of the OM-EIS (Adams, Shea, & Fitch, 1979), the Career Locus of Control Scale (CLCS; Trice, Haire, & Elliott, 1989), and the Career Decision-Making Self-Efficacy Scale-Short Form (CDMSE-SF; Betz, Klein, & Taylor, 1996). The CDMSE-SF was used to assess the college athletes' self-efficacy expectations for career decision-making tasks. No significant relationship was found between athletic identity and career decision-making self-efficacy, but college athletes did score lower than the norms established for non-athletes on the CDMSE-SF. Brown, Glastetter-Fender, and Shelton (2000) suggest that the relations between career behaviors of college athletes and their athletic identity may be moderated by their student role identity.

Martens and Cox (2000) evaluated the association of athletic identity and sport commitment with college athlete's level of career development. The participants included 226 male and female students, of which 131 were college athletes and 95 were non-athletes. Instruments included the My Vocational Situation measure (MVS; Holland, Daiger, & Power, 1980), the AIMS, and the Sport Commitment Scale (SCS; Scanlan, et al., 1993). Significant differences were found between non-athletes and athletes on the career development measures, with athletes scoring lower than non-athletes. Career development measures were not significantly different among the athletes from various sports. However, Martens and Cox (2000) found no evidence that athletic identity and sport commitment are inversely related to career development.

Kornspan and Etzel (2001) investigated the relationship between demographic and psychological variables to career maturity of junior college athletes. Participants included 259 junior college athletes who completed four instruments: the Career Maturity Inventory (Crites, 1978), the Career Decision-Making Self-Efficacy Scale-Short Form (CDMSE-SF; Betz, Klein, & Taylor, 1996), the AIMS (Brewer et al., 1993) and the Career Development Locus of Control Scale (CLCS; Trice, Haire, & Elliot, 1989). Athlete identity did not help predict career maturity, which replicated the previous findings by Brown and Hartley (1998) and Martens and Cox (2000). Kornspan and Etzel (2001) encouraged future researchers to determine if student identity is a moderating variable between athlete identity and career maturity.

In 2003, Harrison and Lawrence used a qualitative methodology to investigate career maturity and highlighted the challenges and strategies used by African American athletes nearing career transition from athletics. In the study, the authors found that the 26 African American athletes who participated were aware of the importance of preparing for athletic career termination, but were in need on continued support for their academic roles.

Another qualitative study examined the relationships between career planning and college athletes' role identities (Lally & Kerr, 2005). Participants included four male and female college athletes who completed two in-depth interviews with the investigators. Results suggested that the college athletes had poorly defined career plans during their early years at college. During these years, the athletes invested heavily in their athlete role. However, by the end of their collegiate athletic careers, the athletes

had begun to develop more mature career plans. Lally and Kerr (2005) discuss that Blann (1985) also found that freshman and sophomore athletes scored lower on career planning than their non-athlete peers, but the levels of career planning had equalized by their junior and senior years. Addressing the previous ambiguous findings regarding the relationship between athlete identity and career maturity in the literature, the authors suggest “(w)hat initially appears as a contradiction may actually reflect a negative relationship between career planning and athletic identity that dissolves over time as college athletes’ identification with the athlete role declines” (Lally & Kerr, 2005, p.282).

Another topic of interest is the unrealistic career goals by college athletes regarding professional employment to play their sport of choice. According to Edwards (2000) and Lapchick (2001), only 1.6% of college athletes will play professionally. Reports have suggested that the number of college athletes that think they will play professionally is much higher than the reality. Unrealistic expectations to play professional sports have been previously reported and discussed in the literature (Kennedy & Dimick, 1987).

Summary

The previously mentioned career development theories and approaches have been utilized to a limited extent in the college athlete career development literature. While a number of authors have identified problems and challenges faced by college athletes when developing career maturity or self-efficacy, this body of literature lacks both depth and breadth. This literature review has provided a short description of the

career development theories as well as a review of their use in the college athlete developmental literature.

APPENDIX B

Table B-1 Descriptive Statistics for Study 1

| | N | <u>Student Identity</u> | | <u>Athletic Identity</u> | | <u>Career Self-efficacy</u> | |
|----------------------|-----|-------------------------|-----------|--------------------------|-----------|-----------------------------|-----------|
| | | <u>M</u> | <u>SD</u> | <u>M</u> | <u>SD</u> | <u>M</u> | <u>SD</u> |
| SEX | | | | | | | |
| Female | 88 | 3.90 | .33 | 4.64 | .84 | 3.90 | .51 |
| Male | 72 | 3.61 | .41 | 4.84 | .82 | 3.69 | .54 |
| RACE | | | | | | | |
| Caucasian | 133 | 3.81 | .40 | 4.73 | .84 | 3.68 | .54 |
| Minority | 27 | 3.74 | .32 | 4.81 | .84 | 3.66 | .45 |
| TYPE OF SPORT | | | | | | | |
| Revenue | 28 | 3.60 | .43 | 4.60 | .86 | 3.51 | .54 |
| Non-revenue | 132 | 3.84 | .37 | 4.69 | .83 | 3.83 | .52 |

APPENDIX C

Table C-1 Correlations of All Variables from Study 1 (N= 162)

| Variable | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|-------------------------|-----|-----|-------|------|------|--------|------|---|
| 1. Sex | | | - | | | | | |
| 2. Race | | | -.02 | - | | | | |
| 3. Type of sport | | | .34** | -.10 | - | | | |
| 4. Student identity | 3.7 | .40 | .32** | -.07 | .20* | - | | |
| 5. Athlete identity | 4.7 | .81 | -.10 | .07 | .07 | -.26** | - | |
| 6. Career self-efficacy | 3.8 | .52 | .13 | -.12 | -.04 | .32** | -.07 | - |

Notes. ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$. $R^2 = 13.1\%$.

APPENDIX D

Table D-1 Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis from Study 1

| | R | R ² | Adjusted R ² | Standard Error | F | Model Significance |
|--|------|----------------|----------------------------|-------------------|------|-----------------------|
| Career Decision Making Self-efficacy (n=146) | .363 | .131 | .101 | .492 | 4.27 | .001 |

Note: The following variables were entered into the regression model: (a) sex, (b) race, (c) type of sport, (d) athlete identity, and (e) student identity.

APPENDIX E

Table E-1 Summary of Multiple Regression Predictors from Study 1 (N=146)

| | Standardized beta | Significance |
|---------------|-------------------|--------------|
| Sex | .07 | .43 |
| Race | -.11 | .16 |
| Type of Sport | -.14 | .10 |
| AIMS | .05 | .59 |
| SIS | .33 | .00 |

Note: AIMS = Athlete Identity Measurement Scale; SIS = Student Identity Scale

APPENDIX F

Individual synopses of participants from Study 2

| Name | Sex | Race | Sport | Year in school |
|--------|--------|------------------|---------------|----------------|
| Sarah | Female | White | Basketball | Graduate |
| Faye | Female | White | Track & Field | Sophomore |
| Pete | Male | White | Football | Senior |
| Dan | Male | Other | Tennis | Senior |
| Sid | Male | White | Football | Senior |
| Will | Male | White | Football | Senior |
| Rachel | Female | African-American | Basketball | Senior |
| Cathy | Female | White | Tennis | Senior |
| Cal | Male | White | Football | Senior |
| Rory | Female | White | Softball | Senior |
| Paula | Female | White | Soccer | Junior |
| Lucy | Female | Hispanic | Soccer | Senior |

To provide context, a brief personal description from each interviewee follows.

‘Sarah’

Sarah is a white, female basketball player. She graduated in three years with a degree in counseling psychology. She is working on her masters in psychology, and plans to get her PhD in psychology at a different university than the one she competed athletically for. School was Sarah’s number one priority. As a freshman, she took a psychology class and loved it [also met her fiancée in class]. Since then she has continued her studies, and wants to get a PhD in forensic psychology. She has applied to a PhD program at the school where her fiancée will be transferring to next academic session.

‘Faye’

Faye is a white, female on the track and field team. Faye took some pre-college coursework in high school which helped prepare her for college. She also took some summer school before her freshman year, which helped get her ready too. Faye said her 1st semester was relatively easy, and that the tutors in the athletic department helped her when she needed it. She has been taking some classes in Parks and Recreation, which she really enjoys. Faye has defined her career plans. She is taking parks and recreation courses and wants to work as a camp director or worker. Faye worked at a camp last summer and is planning to work again at the camp this summer, after the spring semester. The coach is frustrated that she misses summer workouts, but she has been clear that she has made her career goals a priority over her athletics.

‘Pete’

Pete is a white, male football player. Pete wants to go into college coaching. Pete started to use his personal network to begin his career plans. His former coach was able to get him an internship in athletic operations. Pete decided he needed to find a major that would fit his interests, so he became a sport management major. He would like to coach football at the collegiate level. He said he knows the coaches go through many battles, but he looks forward to the challenge because he is determined that this is what he wants to do with his life. Pete is working on setting up an internship for coaching. He is already volunteering in the weight room with the football team, as well as assisting at practice a volunteer graduate assistant.

‘Dan’

Dan is a senior tennis player, originally from Morocco. Dan went to a high school tennis academy in Canada, so for him high school was very easy. He then attended a university in the northern United States for 1 year. At this school, he had to study a little more, and he was learning English as a fourth language. Due to a family situation, Dan had to return home to Africa for three years. After a period of three years, he began to search for an opportunity to return to the United States and play tennis at another university with more challenging academics. He contacted a coach in the central US, and after a year of paperwork with the government and the NCAA, he joined the tennis team. Dan is considering going to graduate school to get an MBA. He is currently completing an internship at a tennis center in a large, metropolitan city. He enjoys coaching tennis, but can't see himself doing the same thing in 10 years. Dan is interesting in banking and finance if he goes on to get his MBA.

‘Sid’

Sid is a white, senior football player. At first Sid was in general studies. He transferred from a junior college. He was interested in a career in sports, so he became a sport management major. Sid said that his career planning is constantly evolving and growing and changing. He is completing an internship in the ticket office for a professional football team. The internship has given him some real world experience in ticketing and public relations, as well as sales.

‘Will’

Will is a white, senior football player. “I’m going to try and make it to the NFL. If that doesn’t work out, I will go and get my masters in sport management.” Will doesn’t have a defined career plan. He has interned in the football recruiting office and got to work with the development office for athletics. He is interested in working in college sports, but not sure what exactly he would like to do.

‘Rachel’

Rachel is a senior, African-American, basketball player. Originally, Rachel was at a junior college. She had a better scholarship offer at junior college. “Junior college was much different than D-I. There was more travel and academics were a lot harder [at D-I]. Junior college was more like high school, not too hard, not too much pressure. But at D-I, the pressure got a lot higher.”

Rachel really enjoys technology management, and is glad she chose it as a major. She wants to work with computers for a career, but doesn’t have any set career plans other than that.

‘Cathy’

Cathy is a white, senior, tennis player. She is a communications major with a minor in psychology. She is worried about her career planning. “I’m stressed out about the decision. I don’t know what I want to do. My last resort is to teach tennis. I haven’t had an internship, it’s tough to make it work with summer practice and training.”

‘Cal’

Cal is a white, senior football player. “I am in technology management with a business minor. I am interested in Web design, IT design, networking. It is all very functional.” Cal’s relative works with computers and encouraged him to get involved with them. He has really enjoyed the technology classes.

‘Rory’

Rory is a white softball player in her senior year. Rory wants to work in promotions for a Major League Baseball franchise. Currently, she has set up an internship at a local parks and recreation department for promotions and events over the summer. This allows her to stay locally and to help with hosting a national softball tournament. She said getting a job with them may be a possibility.

‘Paula’

Paula is white, a junior, and a member of the soccer team. At first Paula wanted to be a teacher. After her freshman year, she was impressed with how her coaches did their job. She was able to perform an internship in sports and she loved it. She enjoys the business side of sports, and wants to be involved in coaching, whether kids or for pay. She definitely wants to work with kids, either in high school or college. Paula is planning to get her teachers certification after her bachelors, and teach physical education and coach soccer.

'Lucy'

Lucy is a Hispanic soccer player in her senior year in college. Lucy will graduate next year, and she plans on pursuing a master's degree in sport management. She is interested in working with women's sports, either in management or marketing. She has not secured an internship yet, she has been unable due to the conflicts an internship would have with her sport.

APPENDIX G

Question outline for semi-structured interviews for Study 2*Grand tour*

- 1) Can you tell me about your background?
- 2) Tell me about your experiences so far as a college athlete.

Student Identity

- 3) How have you adjusted to the academic requirements of college?
- 4) Tell me about your experiences as a student.
- 5) What kind of difficulties have you experienced as a college student?
- 6) What things were you not prepared for in college?

Athlete Identity

- 7) What does being an athlete at college do for you?
- 8) Does your role as an athlete and a student conflict? In what ways?
- 9) What does it take to balance the roles of student and athlete in college?

Career Development

- 10) What do you see yourself doing in 5 years?
- 11) What kind of jobs are you interested in?
- 12) What do you need to do to be ready to start your career?
- 13) Do you think being an athlete will help or hurt your future careers? In what ways?
- 14) Additional comments question.

APPENDIX H

Themes and sub-themes that emerged from results of Study 2

I. Conflict

- a. Physical stress and pressure
- b. Class and scheduling difficulties
- c. Poor advising
- d. Social impact
- e. Athlete reputation and responsibility

II. Benefits

- a. Advantages gained as a college athlete
- b. Helpful academic support
- c. Professorial support

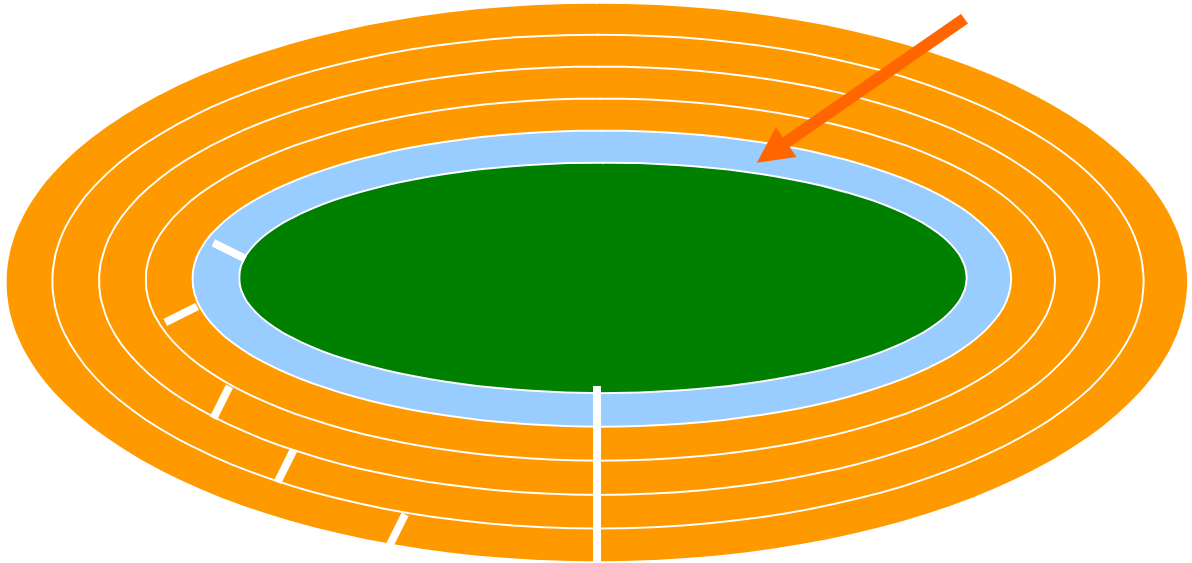
III. Adjustments

- a. Time management
- b. High school to college transition

APPENDIX I

Track model illustration

Lane 1: Focused on Student Identity



Each additional lap adds to academic progress, career development and planning.

VITA

Name: Bryan Lewis Finch

Address: Department of Management, 320 Spears School of Business, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078-4011

Email address: bfinch@hlkn.tamu.edu

Education: B.S., Physical Therapy, University of Oklahoma Health Sciences Center, 2000
M.B.A., Sports Marketing, Arizona State University, 2005