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The Self-Reported Multicultural Sports Counseling Competencies Among Professional School Counselors and Play It Smart Academic Coaches

Taunya Tinsley

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THE SELF-REPORTED MULTICULTURAL SPORTS COUNSELING
COMPETENCIES AMONG PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL COUNSELORS AND PLAY
IT SMART ACADEMIC COACHES

by

Taunya Marie Tinsley, M.A.

Submitted in partial fulfillment of

the requirements for the degree

Doctor of Philosophy

School of Education

Duquesne University

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Abstract

This study compared the self-reported multicultural sports counseling competencies of professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches. Specifically, the study explored the differences in multicultural awareness, multicultural counseling knowledge, multicultural counseling skills, and the multicultural counseling relationship among professionals who provide counseling services to high school student athletes. Defining culture inclusively allows the extension of the definition of multicultural counseling to include the student athlete population. This study compared the multicultural sports counseling competencies of professional school counselors and academic coaches affiliated with high schools throughout the United States that utilize the National Football Foundation's Play It Smart Program. The participants of this study were deliberately sampled and included professional school counselors (n=26), Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees (n=9), and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees (n=62). The participants in the study completed a demographic questionnaire, the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI), and the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Form C) (MC-SDS Form C). The MCSCI assessed individuals' behavior and attitudes regarding the four multicultural counseling competency factors. The MC-SDS was used to measure social desirability responding. This study was designed to provide a foundation of research that connects multicultural counseling competencies, school counseling, and the student athlete population. The results from this study may provide a preliminary base to inform counseling professionals who provide services to and interact with culturally diverse

students, specifically student athletes. Additionally, counselor educators and counselors in training can use these results to develop affirming attitudes and behaviors towards student athletes and to develop culturally sensitive intervention strategies designed to respond to the unique needs of student athletes. Moreover, the information gained from this study may directly help Play It Smart and other programs designed to enhance the development of student athletes by clarifying the relationship between multicultural awareness, multicultural counseling knowledge, multicultural counseling skills, and the multicultural counseling relationship to this specific population.

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Autumn Rain

Do not stand at my grave and weep.

I am not there, I do not sleep.

I am a thousand winds that blow,

I am the diamond glints upon the snow.

I am the sunlight on ripened grain,

I am the gentle autumn rain.

When you awaken in the morning's hush,

I am that sift uplifting rush

of quiet birds in circled flight.

I am the soft star that shines at night.

Do not stand at my grave and cry,

I am not there, I did not die.

My Ph.D. is dedicated to my brother:

Ethan L. Graham

March 28, 1977 – February 18, 2002

Thank you for being my autumn rain,

I will always love you.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The multicultural movement, the “fourth force in counseling,” has contributed to the counseling profession’s greater and much needed understanding and appreciation of the real differences among racial, ethnic, and cultural groups (Pedersen, 1991; Speight, Myers, Cox, & Highlen, 1991). Training school counselors who are able to address the needs of an increasingly diverse student population presents major challenges and has been the attention of many counseling professionals for more than twenty years (Carey & Reinat, 1990; Herring, 1998; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001a, 2001b; Ponterotto et al., 1996; Speight et al., 1991; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001a, 2001b; Pope-Davis, Coleman, Liu, & Toporek, 2003). Training school counselors who are able to address the unique needs of the student athlete population, a group not always thought of as a specific and diverse culture, also presents major challenges. By extending the principles of multicultural counseling to include student athletes, counselor educators and professional school counselors may be in a better position to receive formalized training, respond to the developmental needs of athletes, and enhance the quality of counseling services they provide to a specific and diverse culture, student athletes (Engstrom & Sedlacek, 1991; Miller & Wooten, 1995). Defining multicultural counseling from an inclusive framework allows deeper investigation into the complexities of cultural differences and similarities between counselor and client (Gillispie, 1999; Pedersen, 1994; Triandis, 1972). This inclusive framework represents a view that all counseling is multicultural; where all humans differ in terms of cultural background, values, or life-style (Arredondo & Arciniega, 2001; Speight et al., 1991). Because all counseling is multicultural in nature,

counseling professionals have moved to be more inclusive in their services (Arrendondo & Arciniega, 2001; Sodowsky, Taffe, Gutkin, & Wise, 1994).

Engstrom and Sedlacek (1991), along with others, have contended that student-athletes are indeed a group of nontraditional students with their own culture (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a; Jordan & Denson, 1990; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992; Sowa & Gressard, 1983; Sweet, 1990; Valentine & Taub, 1999; Watson, 2003). Members of this cultural group have special issues and unique developmental needs (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Jordan & Denson, 1990; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston 1991; Sweet, 1990; Valentine & Taub, 1999; Watson, 2003). Several authors have also confirmed that norms of behaviors and values are well defined among the student athlete group (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Engstrom & Sedlacek, 1991; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Jordan & Denson, 1990; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston 1992; Valentine & Taub, 1999; Watson, 2003).

Sedlacek and Adams-Gaston (1992) reported that “athletes spend a great deal of time together and often have common goals and values generated by their experiences as athletes” (p. 724). Athletes are also “subjected to prejudice and discrimination much like groups thought of as *minority* [italics added] cultures” (Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992, p. 724; see also Engstrom & Sedlacek, 1991). Engstrom and Sedlacek (1991, 1993) and Engstrom, Sedlacek, and McEwen (1995) found that students as well as faculty seem to have negative stereotypes of student-athletes.

Athletes encounter a variety of psychosocial and emotional challenges as a function of participation in sports (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Jordan & Denson, 1990; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Petitpas, Van Raalte, Cornelius, Presbrey, 2004; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston 1991; Stryer, Tofler, & Lapchick, 1998; Valentine & Taub, 1999; Watson, 2003). Athletes and non athletes face many of the same developmental tasks as they move from childhood through adolescence to adulthood (Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Heyman, 1986; Hinkle, 1994; Parham, 1993). However, the experiences of athletes present not only unique opportunities, but also unique challenges to their psychosocial development that cannot be overlooked (Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Heyman, 1986; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Parham, 1993; Sweet, 1990; Wagner, 1996).

Within the sports culture, there are sub-groups and diversity within, as well as between individuals, that participate and compete with specific developmental needs (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b). For example, women and minorities differ in their goals and objectives for engaging in sports, which reflect individual developmental needs (Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Poinsett, 1996). Professional, collegiate, public school, and leisure athletes differ in their developmental needs (Hinkle, 1994a; Poinsett, 1996). In addition, athletes need assistance in dealing with a myriad of issues, including athletic competition, career development, psychosocial development, retirement from sport, and for some, personal clinical issues (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Jordan & Denson, 1990; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Petitpas, Van Raalte, Cornelius, Presbrey, 2004;

Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston 1991; Stryer et al., 1998; Valentine & Taub, 1999; Watson, 2003).

Sports Counseling

During the past two decades, counseling athletes and sports counseling has been the focus of a number of authors who have outlined the developmental needs and concerns of student athletes that require professional assistance (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Farrell, 1996; Frantz, 1967; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Ruffer, 1971; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; West, 1975; Valentine & Taub, 1999). However, the practice of counseling student athletes preceded the development of preparation programs for educating counselors for this specific population (Miller & Wooten, 1995). It was not until 1985 that competencies for athletic counseling were first outlined in the Association for Counselor Educators and Supervisors' project *Counselors of Tomorrow* (Nejedlo, Arrendondo, & Benjamin, 1985).

Sports counseling is defined as “a process which attempts to assist individuals in maximizing their personal, academic, and athletic potential. This [sports counseling] is accomplished through a proactive, growth-oriented approach that incorporates the principles of counseling, career development, movement science, psychology, and human development” (Nejedlo et al., 1985, p. 9). According to Nejedlo et al., athletic counselors should have specialized knowledge and skills beyond the basic counselor preparation. Furthermore, Engstrom and Sedlacek (1991) stated that it is critical for members of the athletes' world to become aware of their attitudes that may directly influence the type of treatment the athletes may receive.

Although school counselors have excellent skills in assisting students with developmental problems, self-enhancement, and program organization, many are not prepared or qualified to meet the needs of the student athlete experiencing emotional difficulties (Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b). School counselors may not be sensitive to the unique cultural needs of student athletes and the impact that their sport has on their identity (Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b). Furthermore, school counselors may lack a knowledge base about a particular sport and the psychoemotional difficulties associated with the sport (Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b).

School Counseling Role

Over 7 million high school students in the United States participate in school athletics each year (Stryer et al., 1998; Koester, 2003). There have been many debates whether interscholastic student athletes are being adequately prepared for life after high school and the academic challenges of college (Goldberg, 1991, 1992; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Petitpas et al., 2004). The social, cognitive, and physical challenges facing interscholastic student athletes are well documented and present a serious, yet often neglected, challenge to those who work with high school student athletes (Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Heyman, 1986; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Parham, 1993; Wagner, 1996). School counselors in particular may not be aware and sensitive to the unique cultural factors that contribute to the difficulties some student athletes may have in meeting their developmental needs (Goldberg & Chandler, 1995).

Larson (2000) found that most high school students are bored or disinterested in their studies. One in four students who are engaged in high-risk behaviors has the

potential of damaging their school performance and even endangering their health (Poinsett, 1996). The programming challenge for professional school counselors is to reach underserved kids, including student athletes, engage them in activities that they view as intrinsically rewarding, link them with caring adult mentors, and assist them in identifying skills and interests that can facilitate their progress to productive adulthood (Petitpas & Champagne, 2000).

Moreover, given the current emphasis and debates on the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act, public schools must ensure that they are meeting the needs of each and every one of their students (United States Department of Education [USDOE], 2002). Public schools have to make sure they are working to close the achievement gap and make sure that all students, including those who are disadvantaged, achieve academic proficiency (USDOE, 2002). Meeting the educational needs of all children provides the rationale to hold school counselors more accountable for improving the academic achievement for all students while providing proven educational methods that adhere to the NCLB Act (USDOE, 2002).

Within the school environment, educational strategies that can connect students with positive activities have an enormous potential to improve academic performance and buffer students from situations that could place them at risk (Eccles & Appleton-Gootman, 2002). The Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (1996) offers several key factors that must be met to facilitate adolescents' personal and social development: (a) forming close, durable human relationships, (b) finding a valued place in a constructive group, (c) gaining a sense of worth as a person, (d) achieving a reliable

basis for making informed choices, (e) developing support, (f) helping others, (g) believing in a promising future with real opportunities, (h) cultivating the problem-solving habits of mind for lifelong learning and adaptability, and (i) learning the requirements of responsible citizenship. “Meeting these requirements has been essential for human survival into adulthood” (The Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1995, p.6). In addition, the multicultural counseling competencies emphasize interpersonal counseling that is grounded in the context of culture (Holcomb-McCoy, 2001).

School counselors working with high school athletes should be aware of and sensitive to the unique cultural factors that contribute to the difficulties some student-athletes may have in meeting their developmental needs (Goldberg, 1991, 1992; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a). This could be accomplished through the school counselors’ academic training, within the context of the existing network of school support services, by adopting the college model of providing special services for athletes, who are seen as a unique sub-culture of the general student population (Goldberg, 1991, 1992; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a). This would promote the implementation of effective sport-based programming that provides the participants with experiences that are conducive to positive development (Petitpas et al., 2004). The National Football Foundation’s Play It Smart Program is one example of an effective sport-based program that has been culturally modified and serves as a framework for youth development through sports (Cornelius, Petitpas, & Presbrey, 2002; National

Football Foundation [NFF] Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005).

Play It Smart Program

The Play It Smart program is a school-based mentoring program created by the National Football Foundation (NFF) in 1998 that seeks to use the sport experience as a vehicle to enhance the academic, athletic, career, and personal development of high school student-athletes (Cornelius et al., 2002; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2004; Petitpas, et al., 2005). The Play It Smart program began as a pilot project that targeted student-athletes who were playing football in four inner city high schools (Cornelius et al.; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al.; Petitpas et al.).

Play It Smart's design and practices are consistent with both the NCLB Act and the Carnegie Council's goal of using educational strategies that work systematically and provides the foundation for the program's service delivery model (Cornelius et al., 2002; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005). Over the six years of Play It Smart's existence, the great majority of its participants are the kind of students that NCLB has designated most in need (Cornelius et al.; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al.; Petitpas et al.).

Despite the amount of research that confirms the benefit of sport participation, Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, and Hawkins (2002, 2004) found that involvement in sport or other extracurricular activities is not enough to promote positive attitudes.

Participants must also establish close relationships with caring adult mentors and have the benefit of parental involvement (Perkins, 1997). The quality of the relationships established with a caring adult mentor is also critical for the development of positive assets during adolescence (The Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1995). The two key components of these relationships are empathy and holding young people to high expectations (Catalano et al., 2002, 2004; Perkins, 1997).

Play It Smart academic coaches are examples of caring adults that create empathetic and constructive mentoring relationships with youth (Cornelius et al., 2002; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005). Additionally, the academic coaches implement various strategies for involving and empowering other caring adults, including parents, who are concerned with the educational efforts of their children (Cornelius et al.; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al.; Petitpas et al.).

Play It Smart works by building a bridge between the athletic field and the classroom and creating relevance between a student's academic and athletic experiences (Cornelius et al., 2002; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005). Academic coaches, who are also trained mentors, are the primary bridge builders (Cornelius et al.; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al.; Petitpas et al.). Many academic coaches possess master's degree in counseling and have had training and experiences in providing counseling and support services to student-athletes (Cornelius et al.; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al.; Petitpas et al.).

Based on the fact that both Play It Smart academic coaches and professional school counselors are in unique positions to support student athletes, some important questions about their competencies arise. Do Play It Smart academic coaches and professional school counselors influence student athletes' growth because they are knowledgeable of the developmental needs of student athletes? Do Play It Smart academic coaches and professional school counselors influence student athlete growth because they implement culturally appropriate intervention strategies specific to this population? Do Play It Smart academic coaches and professional school counselors display positive attitudes toward the student athlete population? Ultimately, do Play It Smart academic coaches and professional school counselors have the competencies to respond to the developmental needs of student athletes?

Statement of Problem

Although many school counselors have been trained to look for sources of problems within the individual, among culturally diverse students, the sources of the students' problem could be the result of external or contextual forces such as racial discrimination, social disadvantage, and/or poverty (Pope-Davis et al., 2003). Unless the school counselor is aware of and culturally sensitive to the effects of these external forces, the school counselor may focus only on what may be perceived as the student's internal deficits when the focus should also be on external conditions and their effect on the student (Pope-Davis et al.). It would behoove school counselors to incorporate a paradigm shift to a more systemic way of conceptualizing student problems in order to provide culturally appropriate counseling interventions in schools (Pope-Davis et al.).

School counselors working with high school student athletes may not be aware of and sensitive to the unique factors that contribute to the difficulties some student athletes may have in meeting their developmental needs (Goldberg, 1991, 1992; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a). They may not recognize that in fact, they are working with a specific cultural group who is experiencing adolescence in a different way than the non-athlete (Engstrom, et al., 1995). To assist student athletes, school counselors must be aware of these cultural subgroups' unique characteristics, contexts and needs, and also come to terms with their own attitudes toward this group (Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a). Furthermore, school counselors must realize that student athletes might be trying to negotiate a system that was not designed to promote their success (Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1991; Valentine & Taub, 1999).

Many Play It Smart academic coaches possess “a master’s degree in counseling and has had training and experience in providing counseling and support services to student-athletes” (Petitpas, et. al., 2004, p. 328). However, there are some academic coaches who do not hold degrees in counseling but have had some training on providing support services to student athletes (Petitpas et al.). The lack of formal training in counseling may limit Play It Smart academic coaches ability to focus on the athlete’s psychoemotional difficulties and developmental needs as an individual (Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b).

During the 2004-2005 academic school year, Play It Smart was expanded to 128 high schools across the United States (NFF Center for Youth Development through Sports, 2004). As the Play It Smart program continues to grow, there may be a need to

hire more effective academic coaches with a combination of training in counseling and training and experience in providing counseling and support services to student athletes. Additionally, as the number of high school student athletes' continues to increase, there is a need to ensure school counselors who work with athletes are multiculturally competent.

For both Play It Smart academic coaches and school counselors, there is a question as to how they are trained to develop the appropriate competencies to work with student athletes. Specifically, there is a need to understand if these professionals have the multicultural competencies necessary to work with the unique needs of student athletes.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to assess and compare the multicultural sports counseling competencies of Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, professional school counselors, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. The academic coaches and school counselors' competencies were assessed and compared by measuring the four multicultural counseling characteristics described by Sadowsky et al. (1994). These characteristics are: (a) multicultural awareness, (b) multicultural counseling knowledge, (c) multicultural counseling skills, and (d) the multicultural counseling relationship.

Rationale

During the past two decades, counseling athletes and sports counseling has been the focus of a number of authors who have outlined the developmental needs and concerns of student athletes that require professional assistance (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Farrell, 1996; Frantz, 1967; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Ruffer, 1971; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; West, 1975; Valentine & Taub, 1999). Training school counselors and academic coaches who are able to address the unique developmental needs of the student athlete population, a group not always thought of as a specific and diverse culture, presents major challenges. Although there is some literature linking multicultural counseling, counseling student athletes, and the services provided to student athletes, there is very little literature that has examined the training of both school counselors and other professionals that provide counseling services to the athlete population (Goldberg, 1991, 1992; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b).

The investigator's own experiences of providing counseling services to the athlete population both at the high school and collegiate level also provide an impetus for this study. Based on previous conversations with athletic coaches, athletic administrators, and professional school counselors, it has come to the investigator's attention that many of the professionals do not view athletes as a unique cultural group with specific developmental issues. Additionally, many of the professionals do not feel the need to develop specific intervention strategies specific to the athlete population. Another issue that is of concern to this investigator is the fact that some professionals do not even

realize that athletes are subjected to prejudice and discrimination much like other minority groups who encounter oppressive attitudes and behaviors.

Preparing school counselors and other professionals who work with the athlete population is crucial in meeting the athletes' developmental needs (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Goldberg, 1991, 1992; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Valentine & Taub, 1999). While much research validates this knowledge, it is important to assess what counselor education programs, school districts, and athletic organizations are doing to develop multicultural competent counselors in response to this validated information. Specifically, it is important to investigate if school counselors and academic coaches are multicultural sports counseling competent to effectively work with the student athlete population. Therefore, based on the literature reviewed and the investigator's personal experiences, this investigator finds it necessary to assess the multicultural counseling competencies with regards to a specific cultural group, student athletes (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Engstrom & Sedlacek, 1991; Goldberg, 1991, 1992; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Jordan & Denson, 1990; McMahon, 2002; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992; Valentine & Taub, 1999).

Research Questions

The specific research questions addressed in this study were:

1. Are there differences in multicultural awareness toward student athletes among professional school counselors, Play It Smart academic coaches with

counseling degrees, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees?

2. Are there differences in multicultural counseling knowledge of student athletes and their developmental needs among professional school counselors, Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees?
3. Are there differences in multicultural counseling skills utilized for student athletes among professional school counselors, Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, and academic coaches without counseling degrees?
4. Are there differences in the multicultural counseling relationships with student athletes among professional school counselors, Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, and academic coaches without counseling degrees?
5. Is there a relationship between socially desirable responding and the professional school counselors' and Play It Smart academic coaches' self-report on the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI)?

Significance of the Study

This study was designed to contribute to the literature and provide a foundation of research that connected multicultural counseling competencies, school counseling, support services for student athletes, and the athlete population. There is very little literature linking multicultural counseling competence, counseling with culturally

different students [student athletes], and the services that school counselors and sports counselors provide (Goldberg, 1991, 1992; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Holcomb-McCoy, 2004; Pope-Davis et al., 2003). The knowledge gained from this study provides a foundation for both school counseling and sports counseling professionals to work from when providing services to and interacting with interscholastic athletics and student athletes.

Furthermore, this study assists professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches by helping them to be more sensitive to the unique problems of student-athletes and in helping them to seek successful preventative and intervention programs appropriate for this special population (Chartrand & Lent, 1987). The outcomes of this study can also be used to inform school counselors and academic coaches about the personal and societal factors that may promote or inhibit student athletes' psychosocial development (Goldberg, 1991, 1992; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a). Moreover, the results of this study can assist school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches with becoming more aware of the challenges presented by this special population by identifying some of the development problems student athletes' face and exploring the implications of these problems for programmatic intervention (Goldberg, 1991, 1992; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a).

Counselor education programs benefit from the results of this study as well. In preparing multiculturally competent school counselors, counselor education programs have not currently advocated a unified plan for multicultural counseling (Herring, 1998; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001a, 2001b). If counselor education programs are to meet the

multicultural needs of school counselors in training, programs must be able to discern the multicultural concerns of those students (Herring, 1998; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001a, 2001b). Specifically, counselors in training could gain accurate information regarding student athletes, develop affirming attitudes and behaviors towards student athletes, and develop culturally sensitive intervention strategies designed to respond to the developmental needs of student athletes.

The results of this study help to inform the development or revision of the training standards for counselors, including the 2008 CACREP and the ASCA (2004) program standards. In addition, these results support Miller and Wooten's (1995) suggestion to CACREP to establish specialty standards in counseling student athletes. Once training standards are in place, institutions will be able to formalize training programs for the counselors of student athletes and enhance the quality of counseling services provided to student athletes (Miller & Wooten, 1995).

The information gained from this study can directly assist Play It Smart and other programs designed to enhance the development of the athlete population. These results provide documentation needed for hiring, training, assessing, and evaluating qualified academic coaches. Additionally, the results of this study help to define the professional credentials for both high school academic coaches and academic counselors for collegiate student athletes.

Furthermore, programs designed to work with student athletes like the Play It Smart Program have more specific documentation of the success of the program that allow for further promotion of the program. The results of this study assist Play It Smart

by increasing the attractiveness of the program to national and state educational policy makers, school districts, school administrators, and professional school counselors.

Definition of Terms

The following terms used in this study are defined in this section.

Multicultural Sports Counseling Competencies is defined as the extent to which the counselor has developed and integrated the awareness, knowledge, and skills while maintaining a positive counseling relationship necessary to work with the athlete population based on the scores from the MCSCI.

Multicultural Awareness is operationally defined by scores on the Multicultural Awareness of Student Athletes subscale of the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI).

Multicultural Counseling Knowledge is operationally defined by scores on the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge of Student Athletes subscale of the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI).

Multicultural Counseling Skills is operationally defined by scores on the Multicultural Counseling Skills for Student Athletes subscale of the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI).

Multicultural Counseling Relationship is operationally defined by scores on the Multicultural Counseling Relationship of Student Athletes subscale of the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI).

Play It Smart Academic Coaches are being defined in this study as a member of the National Football Foundation's Play It Smart Program. The academic coach serves as an

assistant to the head coach and focuses on the enhancement of transferable skills, such as goal setting, teamwork, and commitment that are essential both on and off the field (Petitpas et al., 2004).

Play It Smart Program is a school-based program created by the National Football Foundation that seeks to use the sport experiences as a vehicle to enhance the academic, athletic, career, and personal development of high school student athletes.

Professional School Counselors are being defined for this study as certified secondary school counselors who are employed in high schools with the National Football Foundation's Play It Smart Program.

Summary

This chapter provided a framework for extending the multicultural counseling competencies to include the student athlete population. Additionally, a brief overview of sports counseling was highlighted along with an introduction to the developmental needs of student athletes. The importance of becoming a multicultural competent sports counselor was introduced, specifically for helping professionals working with interscholastic student athletes. This chapter included the purpose of the study, the research questions that were addressed, a rationale for the study, and definition of key terms utilized in the current study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to assess and compare the multicultural sports counseling competencies among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, professional school counselors, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. The academic coaches' and school counselors' competencies were assessed and compared by measuring the four multicultural counseling characteristics described by Sadowsky et al. (1994). These characteristics are: (a) multicultural awareness, (b) multicultural counseling knowledge, (c) multicultural counseling skills, and (d) the multicultural counseling relationship.

There is very little literature linking multicultural counseling competence, counseling with culturally different students, and the services that school counselors provide (Constantine, 2001; Holcomb-McCoy, 2004; Pope-Davis et al., 2003). The purpose of this chapter is to provide a broad review of the literature that connects the multicultural counseling competencies, school counseling, support services for student athletes, and the athlete population. This literature review examined selected literature regarding the benefits and risks of sports participation on the psychological, physical, and social development of student athletes. Additionally, an overview of positive youth development theory and the Play It Smart Program is highlighted. Finally, a review of multicultural counseling competency assessment instruments along with a review of the instruments' limitations is provided.

Although many leading scholars and researchers endorse the multicultural movement, disagreement over the boundaries of the concept of culture exists among

practitioners, as well as among other scholars and researchers (Alkin, 1992; Speight et al., 1991; Sue et al., 1998). Many common conceptions or terms for culture exist in today's society, including racial designations, more sociopolitical terms, or specific groupings such as visible racial-ethnic groups (Sedlacek, 1996). "The lack of attention within the counseling profession does not mean that these groups [athletes] do not have unique counseling needs" (Lanning, 1982, p. 19). Thus, it is this investigator's belief that it is important to first provide an overview of why student athletes can be considered a specific and unique cultural group prior to linking the multicultural counseling competencies to the school counseling profession and the athlete population.

Student Athlete Culture

While there is not one categorical definition of what is meant by the term culture, Sedlacek (1996) represented a widely accepted version where he said, "we may still be discussing the same people: those with cultural experiences different from those of White middle-class men of European descent, those with less power to control their lives, and those who experience discrimination in the United States" (p. 200). Engstrom and Sedlacek (1991) along with others have contended that student-athletes are a group of nontraditional students with their own culture (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a; Jordan & Denson, 1990; McMahon, 2002; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992; Sowa & Gressard, 1983; Valentine & Taub, 1999; Watson, 2003). Further evidence to support this group's status as a sub-cultural group is the fact that student athletes have faced prejudice and are a group that has been oppressed and discriminated against, similar to such groups as

women, disabled students, and African Americans (Engstrom & Sedlacek, 1991; Sedlacek, 1996; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992; Sweet, 1990). Sedlacek and Adams-Gaston (1992, p. 724) stated, “athletes are also subjected to prejudice and discrimination much like groups thought of as minority cultures.”

Triandis (1972, p. 4) defined subjective culture “as a cultural group’s characteristic way of perceiving the man-made part of its environment. The perception of rules and the group’s norms, roles, and values are aspects of subjective culture. People who live next to one another, speak the same dialect, and engage in similar activities are likely to share the same subjective culture.” Moreover, Pedersen (1994, p. 16) proposed a social systems approach to culture “to include demographic variables, status variables, affiliation (formal and informal), as well as ethnographic variables.”

Several authors have confirmed that norms of behavior and values are well defined among the student athlete group (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Engstrom & Sedlacek, 1991; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Jordan & Denson, 1990; McMahon, 2002; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992; Valentine & Taub, 1999; Watson, 2003). For example, Sedlacek and Adams-Gaston (1992) reported that “athletes spend a great deal of time together and often have common goals and values generated by their experiences as athletes” (p. 724).

Culture has also been defined in broader terms, encompassing thoughts, communication, actions, customs, beliefs, and values (Pedersen, 1991; Sue et al., 1998). Sodowsky et al. (1998, p. 258) stated, “in using the word multicultural, the emphasis is not on any specific minority group differences, but rather on dealing with differences that

exist among people in the United States owing to national origins, acculturation, sociopolitical conditions, socioeconomic status, minority identity, worldview orientations, language, and so on.” The athlete population is a group of people who appear to have a unique culture and set of experiences in life that differentiate them from others (Engstrom & Sedlacek, 1991, 1993; Engstrom et al., 1995; Sowa & Gressard, 1983).

Engstrom and Sedlacek (1991, 1993) and Engstrom et al. (1995) found that students, as well as faculty, seem to have negative stereotypes of student-athletes. Additionally, members of this cultural group have special issues and unique developmental needs (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Jordan & Denson, 1990; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston 1991; Sowa & Gressard, 1983; Sweet, 1990; Valentine & Taub, 1999; Watson, 2003). Athletes encounter a variety of psychosocial and emotional difficulties as a function of participation in sports (Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b). Athletes and non-athletes alike face many of the same developmental tasks as they move from childhood through adolescence to adulthood (Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Heyman, 1986; Hinkle, 1994; Parham, 1993; Sowa & Gressard, 1983). However, the experiences of athletes present not only unique opportunities, but also unique challenges to their psychosocial development that cannot be overlooked (Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Heyman, 1986; Hinkle, 1994; Parham, 1993; Sweet, 1990).

It has also been noted that within the sports culture, there are sub-groups and diversity within, as well as between individuals, that participate and compete with

specific developmental needs (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Poinsett, 1996). For example, women and minorities differ in their goals and objectives for engaging in sports, which reflect individual developmental needs (Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Poinsett, 1996). Some women and minorities face racism and sexism within their sport (Poinsett, 1996). Professional, collegiate, public school, and leisure athletes differ in their developmental needs (Hinkle, 1994a). Overall, athletes may require assistance in dealing with athletic competition, career development, psychosocial development, retirement from sport, and for some, personal clinical issues (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Danish, Petitpas, & Hale, 1990, 1992, 1993; Jordan & Denson, 1990; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Petitpas, Van Raalte, Cornelius, Presbrey, 2004; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston 1991; Valentine & Taub, 1999; Watson, 2003).

Benefits of Sport Participation

Evidence has shown that the involvement of young people in sports produces multiple benefits (Danish et al., 1990; Ewing & Seefeldt, 1996; Goldberg, 1991; Miller, 1999). Athletes develop several skills such as leadership, cooperation, teamwork, self-discipline, and coping skills in success and adversity, as well as respect for authority, competitiveness, sportsmanship, and self-confidence (Stryer et al., 1998; Miller, 1999). Sports also provide the opportunity for self-evaluation, peer comparison, and healthy competition, which helps to facilitate the development of positive self-esteem and self-concept (Danish et al., 1993; Stryer et al.; Miller, 1999).

Self-concept is multifaceted and is shaped by one's internal and external

experiences throughout development (Danish et al., 1993; Stryer et al., 1998). Self-esteem is enhanced by a sense of accomplishment and belonging and a sense of being able to perform and achieve like one's peers (Danish et al., 1990; Stryer et al.). Athletic participation allows people to not only experience social interaction and group membership, but also to experience success and achievement (Danish et al., 1990; Stryer et al.). Additionally, athletic participation allows participants to use both positive and negative feedback from role models and peers to define themselves, their abilities, competencies, self-worth, and sense of their own limitations (Stryer et al.). The most powerful influences for developing self-esteem are the relationships formed during interactive experiences with one's family, school, and extracurricular activities (Stryer et al.).

Sports can also provide a healthy outlet for energy and expression that are potentially rewarding in multiple domains of development (Stryer et al., 1998). For example, sports encourages socialization, social competence, and family bonding, and facilitates the development of friendships across racial and ethnic groups, in addition to promoting individual physical and psychological growth and health and potential adult careers (Stryer et al.; Miller, 1999). Additionally, through sports, participants can develop social skills and peer relations (Danish et al., 1990; Stryer et al.; Miller, 1999). Furthermore, sport participation has led to an increase in the perceived level of accomplishments and self-efficacy (Stryer et al.).

Sports programs promote responsible social behaviors and greater academic success, confidence in one's physical abilities, and appreciation of personal health and

fitness, and strong social bonds with individuals and institutions (Ewing, Seefeldt, & Brown, 1996; Miller, 1999). Teachers attribute these results to the discipline and work ethic that sports require (Ewing et al., 1996). Sports can also provide a venue for helping young people work toward ethical understanding (Ewing et al.).

Risks of Sport Participation

Although there are many benefits from participating in sports, the sporting experience can reflect other life experiences and be stressful and devastating under some circumstances (Goldberg, 1991; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Parham, 1993; Pearson & Petitpas, 1990; Petitpas & Champagne, 1998; Petitpas & Champagne, 2000; Stryer et al., 1998; Sweet, 1990). Even though high school athletes and non-athletes alike face many of the same developmental tasks as they move from childhood through adolescence to adulthood, the experiences of athletes present unique challenges to their psychosocial development that cannot be overlooked (Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Heyman, 1986; Hinkle, 1994; Parham, 1993). Goldberg and Chandler (1995, p. 1) stated, "it is important that counselors understand the life experiences student athletes face as they attempt to satisfy the stage relevant developmental tasks."

Research has addressed a number of issues that often emerge as potential counseling issues for student-athletes (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Danish et al., 1993; Engstrom et al., 1995; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Heyman, 1986; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Parham, 1993; Pearson & Petitpas, 1990; Pinkerton et al., 1989; Stryer et al., 1998). The types of issues include but are not limited to: (a) competence, (b)

identity formation, (c) career planning, (d) athletic performance, (e) interpersonal relationships, and (f) transitions from sport.

Competence

Successful mastery of intellectual, physical, and interpersonal competence presents developmental concerns for student athletes (Danish et al., 1990; Danish et al. 1993; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Miller, 1999; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Parham, 1993; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Petitpas & Champagne, 2000; Petitpas et al., 2005; Stryer et al., 1998; Valentine & Taub, 1999). Sports can be a major component of a student athlete's sense of competence. Barriers in one or more of the areas of competence may contribute to a student athlete's lack of overall sense of competence (Danish et al., 1990, 1992, 1993; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Petitpas & Champagne, 2005; Valentine & Taub, 1999).

Based on Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy, people's beliefs about their ability to perform certain behaviors and tasks may affect their choice of activities as well as degree of effort expended and persistence when faced with obstacles. Student athletes may receive messages that their intellectual, physical, and interpersonal competencies are substandard (Danish et al., 1990, 1992, 1993). These messages may have the potential to negatively impact an athlete's feelings of efficacy (Danish et al., 1990, 1992).

Student athletes are asked to perform well in both the classroom and athletic arena that can pose challenges for the student athletes (Goldberg, 1991; Parham, 1993; Valentine & Taub, 1999). "The stress of maximizing time for academics and athletics make meeting both goals difficult" (Valentine & Taub, 1999, p. 166). Attending an early

morning workout may precede a day of classes followed by both an afternoon of athletic practice and attempts to study (Parham, 1993; Valentine & Taub, 1999). This intense daily schedule can hinder the mastery of intellectual competence (Parham, 1993; Valentine & Taub, 1999).

The opinions of others, including other students and teachers, can also impact the student athletes' mastery of intellectual competence (Engstrom et al., 1995; Valentine & Taub, 1999; Zingg, 1982). Engstrom and Sedlacek's study (1991) found that the general student population is more suspicious and less trusting of student athletes earning an A in class and less concerned when student athletes leave school early for a game or withdraw from school to participate on a professional sports team. Additionally, Engstrom et al.'s study (1995; see also Valentine & Taub, 1999) found that faculty members do in fact have negative attitudes towards male student athletes and regarded their academic abilities less positively than non student athletes. "Faculty attitudes might have an even more chilling effect on student athletes' development of intellectual competence than the attitudes of peers" (Valentine & Taub, 1999, p. 167). Student athletes may be more prone to believing that they lack the academic skills and abilities to succeed compared to non-athletes (Goldberg, 1991; Heyman, 1986; Nelson, 1983; Valentine & Taub, 1999). Moreover, student athletes may also sense a feeling of alienation and lack of belonging in the classroom (Engstrom et al., 1995; Valentine & Taub, 1999).

The mastery of physical competence may be hindered by the student athletes' belief that they are gifted in athletic ability and in their achievement in sport (Valentine & Taub, 1999). The challenge for student athletes is when they define themselves only as

athletes (Valentine & Taub, 1999). Student athletes may suffer distress when injured and unable to fulfill their assumed roles set for themselves, their coach, team, friends, and/or parents (Parham, 1993; Miller, 1999; Valentine & Taub, 1999). "This situation, coupled with a sense of failure to others whom they [student athletes] value, can lead to a decreased lack of confidence that athletes will ever return to their pre-injury form" (Valentine & Taub, 1999, p. 167).

Finally, the mastery of interpersonal competence can be hindered by the lack of social support from the athlete's peers and teachers, who have been shown to have negative attitudes towards athletes (Engstrom & Sedlacek, 1991; Engstrom et al., 1995; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995). The student athlete culture remains a mystery to the general student body and this creates a void between them and their supporters (Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Valentine & Taub, 1999). Thus, support from the general student population "is often unreliable, and athletes must turn to other student athletes for validation ... they perpetuate the gap because peers are not a reliable source of support" (Engstrom et al., p. 225; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Parham, 1993).

Identity and Self-Image Development

There are three psychosocial theories that may be useful for understanding adolescence identity development and self-image: (a) Erikson's Developmental Stages, (b) Marcia's Identity Statuses, and (c) Chickering's Model of Student Development. Psychosocial theories refer to the developmental tasks or issues and life events that occur coupled with the person's responses to the issues and adaptations to the events (Danish et al., 1990; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b). This section of the literature review examined the

psychosocial theories as they relate to student athletes.

Erikson's theory of development is the most widely recognized theoretical framework for conceptualizing adolescent identity (Allison & Schultz, 2001). As students move from middle childhood to adolescence, the focus shifts from developing industry to developing a personal identity (Erickson, 1959; Stryer et al., 1998). Adolescence is a time of transition and a time for consolidation where the processes of self-analysis and self-evaluation occur in support of establishing a cohesive sense of self or identity (Erikson, 1959, Stryer et al., 1998).

Marcia's (1966) four identity statuses are rooted in Erikson's framework of adolescence identity development and consist of a crisis and a commitment. A crisis occurs when adolescents make decisions that question or evaluate past values and choices (Marcia, 1966). A commitment is the outcome of the reevaluation of some specific role or ideology (Marcia, 1966). A crisis and a commitment together create four identity statuses: (a) identity achievement, (b) moratorium, (c) foreclosure, and (d) identity diffusion (Marcia, 1966).

Chickering's (1969) psychosocial model of student development also serves as a framework for considering the developmental needs of adolescents (Danish, Petitpas, & Hale, 1990, 1992, 1993; Valentine & Taub, 1999). Building on the work of Erikson (1959), Chickering (1969) described late adolescence and early adulthood as periods when a number of developmental tasks must be accomplished (Danish et al., 1990, 1992, 1993; Valentine & Taub, 1999). The seven tasks, or vectors, include developing competence, managing emotions, becoming autonomous, establishing mature

relationships, developing purpose, developing integrity, and establishing identity (Chickering, 1969; Danish et al., 1990, 1992, 1993; Valentine & Taub, 1999).

During adolescence, student athletes and non-athletes face a new and complex set of alternative roles and values (Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Stryer et al., 1998). However, "many of the developmental problems student athletes experience result from their attempts to balance conflicting roles, values, and expectations" (Goldberg & Chandler, 1995, p. 39). According to Erikson's (1959) psychosocial stages of development and Marcia's (1966) stages of identity development, adolescents unable to integrate new roles and values into a stable personal identity are likely to experience identity confusion or identity foreclosure. Identity foreclosure is often brought on by the demands of the environment (Marcia, 1966). Identity foreclosure "may also be the result of the individual's choosing to forgo engaging in exploratory behaviors and instead opting to commit to the activity in which he or she has previously been rewarded" (Danish et al., 1993, p.355). An example of identity foreclosure would be when an adolescent is rewarded for their athletic endeavors and chooses not to commit to seeking academic or personal success (Danish et al., 1990, 1992, 1993).

If an adolescent invests all of his or her time and focus in his or her sport, the student athlete may be impeded in seeking a personal identity beyond one based on athletic participation (Danish et al., 1993; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Miller, 1999; Valentine & Taub, 1999). Identity foreclosure may occur when a commitment to an activity is made prematurely and without sufficient exploration of one's needs or values (Marcia, 1966). The short-term consequence may be role-strain and frustration, whereas

long-term consequences would include a foreclosure on the search for an identity (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Marcia, 1966). When the demands of one role are incompatible with the requirements of another role, one will experience role conflict (Baillie & Danish, 1992; Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995). Identity formation may present special challenges for student athletes because their identities may be so "intertwined" with their sport (Baillie & Danish, 1992; Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Danish et al., 1993; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994; Pinkerton et al., 1989; Stryer et al., 1998; Valentine & Taub, 1999). The challenge arises when a single role becomes dominant. Individuals are likely to detach themselves from other roles and developmental tasks or reduce their motivation to explore alternative roles (Baillie & Danish, 1992; Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995).

Additional challenges to healthy adolescent identity development may stem from the heavy demands of the athlete role and its conflict with other important roles and activities (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Miller, 1999). Issues may include time management and study skills problems, limited peer relationships, lack of career and social development opportunities, and restricted self-concept (Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Lanning, 1982; Miller, 1999; Remer, Tongate, & Watson, 1978). More specifically, "high school athletes must cope with the tensions created when forced to choose among groups with differing sets of value expectations or between immediate popularity and activities that will lead to achieving long-term goals" (Goldberg & Chandler, 1995, p. 39; see also Goldberg, 1991,

1992; Hinkle, 1994a).

For many, the role of athlete has been reinforced from an early age (Baillie & Danish, 1992; Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Parham, 1993; Valentine & Taub, 1999). By the time the athlete reaches college, the role has become comfortable and satisfying (Baillie, 1993; Valentine & Taub, 1999). This comfort may cause a prematurely foreclosed identity that makes exploration of new roles difficult and even undesirable to some student athletes (Pearson & Petitpas, 1990). Where this is the case, the retirement from sport process will be especially traumatic (Baillie, 1993; Baillie & Danish, 1992).

A significant impact and one with far-reaching implications, is the special need athletes have in the development of a healthy self-image (Lanning, 1982; Miller, 1999). Many athletes have been rewarded all their lives for their success as athletes (Lanning, 1982). As a result, many athletes have developed a sense of worth based solely on their ability to excel in athletics (Lanning, 1982; Miller, 1999). At the collegiate level, this sense of worth creates considerable challenges for the student athletes' view of themselves (Lanning, 1982). In addition, negative stereotypes held about student athletes can also have a devastating effect on the student's development of a positive self-image (Engstrom et al., 1995; Zingg, 1982). Additionally, research conducted by Hamilton and Trolier (as cited in Engstrom et al.) on self-fulfilling prophecy highlights the potential for student athletes to internalize the expectations of poor academic performance and lowered chances for success. The end result is an incomplete or compromised self-image.

Career Planning

Sports often serve as a focus for adolescents, providing a recreational outlet and serving to shape their future goals (University of Pittsburgh, 2005). “This is particularly true for socioeconomically disadvantaged youth, who may consider a sports career as their path to professional and financial success” (University of Pittsburgh, 2005, p.4). The quest for athletic excellence often leaves little time or concern for the career development process that is necessary to ensure a person’s success as an individual and as a contributing citizen to the larger community (Miller, 1999; University of Pittsburgh, 2005). A study by Lee (1983) found that 36% of African American students who started on their sports teams expected to have a sports career, compared to 14% of the White starters. Given that less than 2% of all high school student athletes will ever achieve a professional sports career, there is a need to assist student athletes with the career development process while emphasizing the relationship between academic, athletic, and career goals (Lee, 1983). Additionally, a study by Sowa and Gressard (1983) found that student athletes reported less well-defined career plans than non-athletes on the Developing Purpose Scale of the Student Developmental Task Inventory.

Another problem for student athletes is that the opportunity to explore career options may be more limited for them compared to their non-athlete peers (Danish et al., 1991; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Lanning, 1982; Valentine & Taub, 1999). For example, while part-time jobs and internships can provide opportunities to explore career fields, student athletes may find that their training and competition schedule may make it difficult to take advantage of such opportunities

(Valentine & Taub, 1999). Furthermore, pursuing full or part-time jobs or exploring other career opportunities during the summer months poses challenges for student athletes (Valentine & Taub, 1999). However, student athletes playing such sports as baseball, football, or basketball have a major challenge as coaches strongly encourage or mandate that players participate in summer leagues or train full-time (Valentine & Taub, 1999). In addition, Valentine and Taub (1999) stated that, "If student athletes do not see a need for developing career goals outside of athletics, exploration will be inhibited" (p. 175). Thus, student athletes who are unprepared for life after athletics may face increasing disappointment when their peers have entered the workforce and they are left without athletics as a career (Valentine & Taub, 1999).

Challenges exist for high school student athletes not continuing their education following high school (Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995). "For this group, graduation may mean relative anonymity and separation from the support and camaraderie of teammates and fans" (Goldberg & Chandler, 1995, p. 41). The greater the commitment of student athletes to the athlete role, the greater the challenge it is for them to disengage from sport (Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995). Not only is it difficult and uncomfortable for student athletes to look ahead and plan for life after high school, many student athletes have not developed appropriate strategies for dealing with other transitions, for example, from high school to college, from athlete to retirement, and for entry and succeeding in the world of work (Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sports, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005).

Athletic Performance

Several researchers have stated that anxiety about sports performance, coping with success, or coping with the lack of success is a psychological symptom frequently reported by student athletes (Parham, 1993; Pinkerton et al., 1989). For talented student athletes, their pressures result from feeling that they have to maintain top performance levels and standards of excellence that they, as well as their coaches, teammates, communities, and the media have come to expect (Parham, 1993; Pinkerton et al.). "The challenge for student athletes comes in learning how to manage their feelings of frustrations and helplessness" (Parham, 1993, p. 414).

Additionally, "student athletes are challenged to find ways of not letting their success, or lack of athletic success, compromise their efforts to do well in other areas of their lives" (Parham, 1993, p. 414). In a 1985 study conducted by Duda (as cited in Poinsett, 1986, p. 1), she "reported that high school students would rather succeed at sport than academics and that failure in sport was perceived to be worse than failure in academics, especially for adolescent males." The results of Duda's study supported the research that developmental challenges arise when a single role [athlete] becomes dominant and reduces the motivation to explore alternative roles [student] (Baillie & Danish, 1992; Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Danish et al., 1993; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994; Pinkerton et al., 1989; Stryer et al., 1998; Valentine & Taub, 1999).

Interpersonal Relationships

The task of developing mature interpersonal relationships creates additional

challenges for student athletes (Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Lanning, 1982; Miller, 1999; Parham, 1993; Pinkerton et al., 1989; Stryer et al., 1998). "Because of the large time commitment required of players, student athletes are faced with special social challenges" (Valentine & Taub, 1999, p. 170). According to Heyman (1986) and others, athletes spend much of their social time with other athletes who share similar traits and interests as they do (Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; McMahon, 2002; Miller, 1999; Parham, 1993; Pinkerton et al.; Valentine & Taub, 1999). Their exposure to diverse experiences and relationships may be limited due to the time required for practice, conditioning, and travel (Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989; Valentine & Taub, 1999).

The impact of society's view of the "tough jock" image can also impact how adolescent athletes relate to others (Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Heyman, 1987). "For the adolescent, toughness possesses socially sanctioned value because it provides a sense of power from the fear in others and a sense of adulation from peers" (Heyman, 1987, p. 140; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995). This tough image serves to protect the individual from anxiety that may accompany internal confusion or from letting others see one's weakness (Goldberg & Chandler, 1995). Thus, high school student athlete's feelings of toughness coupled with adolescents normal developmental feelings of invulnerability may lead many of them to assign zero risk to dangerous situations and risky behaviors, e.g., drug, alcohol and tobacco use (Cornelius et al., 2004; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sports, 1994; Petitpas et al., 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005; University of Pittsburgh, 2005).

Transitions from Sports

Along with facing the usual transitions that accompany the life span developmental process, athletes must also cope with events and issues that hinder their accomplishment of these transitions or add new challenges to the transitions to adolescence through adulthood (Baillie & Danish, 1992; Pearson & Petitpas, 1990; Remer et al., 1978; Stryer et al., 1998). "A transition can be said to occur if an event or nonevent results in a change in assumptions about oneself and the world and thus requires a corresponding change in one's behavior and relationships" (Schlossberg, 1981, p. 5). The most salient of these unique transitions by athletes include retirement from active participation, not starting on the team or being cut, and dealing with physical injury (Pearson & Petitpas, 1990).

Retirement from active sports participation is an inevitable part of the life span of every athlete (Ballie, 1993; Baillie & Danish, 1992; Pearson & Petitpas, 1990). The transition often occurs at predictable times, such as the end of high school, college, or professional teams, or at non-predictable times, such as a sport ending injury, or by being cut from the team (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Lanning, 1982; Ogilvie & Taylor, 1993; Parham, 1993; Pearson & Petitpas, 1990; Wooten, 1994). However, the most likely time of retirement occurs between the end of high school to college, when the largest numbers of athletes are forced to retire because of failure to make the varsity team in college (Ogilvie, 1984). Not making the team is the most frequent reason for retirement from sports and the most difficult for many athletes to accept (Baillie, 1993; Pearson & Petitpas, 1990).

"Although many athletes make successful and satisfactory transitions from sports to retirement, there are, at the high school, college, elite, and professional levels, significant numbers of athletes for who the adjustment is difficult, incomplete, and traumatic" (Baillie, 1993, p. 403; Baillie & Danish, 1992). Werthner and Orlick (1982, p. 188) found, "that sports involvement is *a living, loving relationship* [italics added] for the athlete, and that the end of the affiliation marks the loss of an important relationship." Athletes who perceive the retirement process as a barrier to their goals respond with denial, anger, bargaining, or depression, similar to Kübler-Ross's dying or grieving process stages (Kübler-Ross, 1969; Baillie, 1992; Wooten, 1994). There is no set schedule for these reactions, nor is there a one-way flow through the stages (Kübler-Ross, 1969; Baillie, 1993).

The conceptualization of the sport retirement process as being similar to the dying or grieving process stages might be most appropriate for athletes who disengage from sport involuntarily (e.g., injury or being cut from the team) (Crook & Robertson, 1991). Additionally, the conceptualization may be most accurate in describing the experiences of professional and elite amateur athletes who have invested more of their lives in their respective sports than collegiate level athletes (Crook & Robertson, 1991). Although the concept of retirement from sport has been focused primarily on collegiate and professional athletes, this conceptualization could also be extended to the high school student athlete (Goldberg & Chandler, 1995).

In a study conducted by Ogilvie and Taylor (1993), they reported that severe injuries might result in substance abuse (Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b). Additionally, several

authors have described many instances where athletes who have endured sudden career ending injuries suffer acute depression, abuse alcohol, or committed suicide (Ogilvie & Howe, 1982; Pearson & Petitpas, 1990; Stryer et al., 1998). Furthermore, impairment of the self-concept, disconfirmation of deeply held values, disruption of social and occupational function, and loss of emotional equilibrium result from athletic injury (Danish, 1986). Various studies have also pointed out that athletes suffer an identity loss, separation and loneliness, fear and anxiety, or lose their confidence towards athletic performance (Baillie & Danish, 1992; Pearson & Petitpas, 1990).

Sports Counseling

Although there are many benefits of sports participation, there is a large group of high school student athletes who are "viewed as skill deficient and as lacking some of the behaviors necessary to master age-appropriate developmental tasks" (Goldberg & Chandler, 1995, p. 41). "Working with athletes presents special challenges in terms of understanding the development and meaning of athletics to an individual" (Heyman, 1986, p. 70). Based on the developmental needs and psychological issues that student athletes may face, care must be taken to find a fulfilling place in sports and physical recreation and to provide effective counseling services (Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Lanning, 1982; Valentine & Taub, 1999). Heyman (1986, p. 70) further reported that although the "athletic environment is alien to a therapist ... an open, empathetic therapist could grasp the meaning to the client."

Counseling athletes and sports counseling has been the focus of a number of authors who have outlined the developmental needs and concerns of student athletes for

professional assistance (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Farrell, 1996; Frantz, 1967; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Ruffer, 1971; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; West, 1975; Valentine & Taub, 1999). However, the practice of counseling student athletes preceded the development of preparation programs for educating counselors for this specific population (Miller & Wooten, 1995). It was not until 1985 that competencies for athletic counseling were first outlined in the Association for Counselor Educators and Supervisors' project "Counselors of Tomorrow" (Nejedlo et al., 1985).

Sports counseling is defined as "a process which attempts to assist individuals in maximizing their personal, academic, and athletic potential. This [sports counseling] is accomplished through a proactive, growth-oriented approach that incorporates the principles of counseling, career development, movement science, psychology, and human development" (Nejedlo et al., 1985, p. 9). According to Nejedlo et al., athletic counselors should have specialized knowledge and skills beyond the basic counselor preparation. Engstrom and Sedlacek (1991) stated that it is critical for members of the athletes' world to become aware of their attitudes that may directly influence the type of treatment the athletes may receive. Engstrom and Sedlacek (1991) also suggested that future studies explore the attitudes of other constituents such as counselors, advisors, and faculty toward the student-athlete population.

School Counselor Role

Given the current emphasis and debates on the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act, public schools must ensure that they are meeting the needs of each and every one of their students (United States Department of Education [USDOE], 2002). Public schools

have to make sure they are working to close the achievement gap and make sure that all students, including those who are disadvantaged, achieve academic proficiency (USDOE, 2002). Meeting the educational needs of all children provides the rationale to hold school counselors more accountable for improving the academic achievement for all students while providing proven educational methods that adhere to the NCLB Act (USDOE, 2002).

Within the school environment, educational strategies that can connect students with positive activities have an enormous potential to improve academic performance and buffer students from situations that could place them at risk (Eccles & Appleton-Gootman, 2002). The Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (1996) offers several key factors that must be met to facilitate adolescents' personal and social development: (a) forming close, durable human relationships, (b) finding a valued place in a constructive group, (c) gaining a sense of worth as a person, (d) achieving a reliable basis for making informed choices, (e) developing support, (f) helping others, (g) believing in a promising future with real opportunities, (h) cultivating the problem-solving habits of mind for lifelong learning and adaptability, and (i) learning the requirements of responsible citizenship. "Meeting these requirements has been essential for human survival into adulthood" (The Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1995, p.6).

The Carnegie Council's strategies are consistent with the research findings on programs conducted within the context of voluntary, structured activities, such as competitive sports, can positively influence the lives of high-risk youth (Larson, 2000).

Over 7 million high school students engage in school sports (Stryer et al., 1998; Koester, 2003; National Football Foundation [NFF] Center for Youth Development, 2004).

According to Czikszentmihalyi, Rathune, and Whalen's study (as cited in Petitpas et al., 2005), student-athletes who voluntarily participate in school based activities or sports are neither bored nor disinterested. Thus, it would be advantageous for school counselors to assist students in understanding the benefits from participation in high school sports (Goldberg, 1991, 1992; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a).

Nelson (1982, p. 5) stated, "that the term *sport* [italics added] ... refers to the cultural phenomenon that permeates all of society." Eitzen (as cited in Danish et al., 1993, p. 353) stated, "to ignore it [sport] is to overlook one of the most significant aspects of society." And not only is sport important to society, sport is also a major influence in the development of one's identity and feeling of competence across the life span (Baillie & Danish, 1992). Even before children understand the importance of sport to society, sport can be a significant factor in the development of their self-esteem and identity (Danish, Petitpas, & Hale, 1990, 1992, 1993). Many coaches, athletes, sports administrators, and athletic counselors believe that sport participation can have a beneficial effect on the psychosocial development (i.e. attitudes, values, skills, and behaviors) of the participant (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Farrell, 1996; Frantz, 1967; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Miller, 1999; Ruffer, 1971; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Valentine & Taub, 1999; West, 1975).

Thus, it is reasonable to conclude that to understand the impact that sports has on identity development and the development of psychosocial skills, it is necessary to look

at the topic of sport itself, look at the topic of sport across the lifespan, and look at sport within the context of the participants history and culture (Danish et al., 1993).

Additionally, in planning youth sports programs, professional school counselors should become familiar with research on various psychological processes and motivational climates conducive to fostering positive psychosocial growth (Petitpas et al., 2005).

Positive Youth Development Theory

To understand positive youth development, it is best to examine intervention and prevention as two commonly used approaches (Perkins, 1997; Catalano et al., 2002, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005). Intervention is defined as discontinuing or stopping an already exhibited problem behavior (Perkins, 1997; Catalano et al., 2002, 2004).

Prevention is taking advanced measures to keep youth from participating in problem behaviors (Perkins, 1997; Catalano et al., 2002, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005). Positive youth development is a social systems approach to prevention (Perkins, 1997; Catalano et al., 2002, 2004).

Positive youth development advocates and prevention scientists focus their attention on the importance of social and environmental factors that affect the successful completion of developmental tasks (Catalano et al., 2002, 2004). Positive youth development is a process by which youths' developmental needs are met, engagement in problem behaviors is prevented, and most importantly, youth are empowered to build the competencies and skills necessary to be healthy contributing citizens now and as adults (Perkins, 1997; Catalano et al., 2002, 2004).

Many positive youth development programs are grounded in “developmental

theories that identify important developmental tasks, challenges and milestones, and the competencies required resolving them during infancy, childhood, and adolescence” (Catalano et al., 2002, p. 15, 2004). Catalano et al. (2002, 2004) described positive youth development programs as approaches that seek to incorporate developmental tasks based on theories of attachment, psychosocial theories, and the person-in-environment perspective. “Positive youth development approaches seek to promote healthy development to foster positive youth outcomes, focus ... on the whole child, focus on the achievement of developmental tasks, and focus on interactions with family, school, neighborhood, societal, and cultural contexts” (Catalano et al., 2002, p. 12).

Catalano et al., (2002, 2004) undertook a systematic review of the literature to identify effective positive youth development programs. Catalano et al., (2004) “found a wide range of positive youth development approaches that resulted in promoting positive youth behavior outcomes and preventing youth problem behaviors” (p. 117). The themes common to success involved methods to (a) strengthen social, emotional, behavioral, cognitive, and moral competencies, (b) build self-efficacy, (c) shape messages from family and community about clear standards for youth behavior, (d) increase healthy bonding with adults, peers, and younger children, (e) expand opportunities and recognition for youth, (f) provide structure and consistency in program delivery, and (g) intervene with youth for at least nine months or longer (Catalano et al., 2002, 2004).

Although one-third of the effective programs identified in the review operated in only a single setting, it is important to note that for the other two-thirds, combining the resources of the family, the community, and the school was important to success

(Catalano et al., 2002, 2004). The Play It Smart Program is an example of a positive youth development program that combines strategies across three domains, family, school, and community (Cornelius et al., 2002; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005).

Play It Smart Program

The Play It Smart program is based on a philosophy that evolved from established principles and recommendations from the fields of positive youth development, lifespan development interventions, and resilience-based youth initiatives (Cornelius et al., 2002; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005). Play It Smart focuses on optimization and enhancement of skills, rather than on the remediation of pathological, health compromising, or criminal behaviors (Cornelius et al.; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas, Van Raalte, et al.; Petitpas, Cornelius, et al.).

The Play It Smart program is a school-based mentoring program created by the National Football Foundation (NFF) in 1998 that seeks to use the sport experience as a vehicle to enhance the academic, athletic, career, and personal development of high school student-athletes (Cornelius et al., 2002; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005). The Play It Smart program began as a pilot project that targeted student-athletes who were playing football in four inner city high schools (Cornelius et al.; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas, Van Raalte, et al.; Petitpas, Cornelius, et al.).

Play It Smart's design and practices are consistent with both the (NCLB) Act and

the Carnegie Council's goal of using educational strategies that work systematically and provides the foundation for the program's service delivery model (Cornelius et al., 2002; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005). Over the six years of Play It Smart's existence, the great majority of its participants are the kind of students that NCLB has designated most in need (Cornelius et al.; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas, Van Raalte, et al.; Petitpas, Cornelius, et al.).

Eighty-two percent of the Play It Smart participants are African American and Hispanic students, living in tough, economically disadvantaged communities (NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005). During the last academic year, 97% of participants graduated on time and 81% went on to college (NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004). Both of these numbers are significantly higher than those achieved by their school peers (NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004). Where the program has been in existence for four years or more, Play It Smart has become part of the school culture and has witnessed 100% of their participants' graduate and matriculate on to college (NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004).

Despite the amount of research that confirms the benefit of sport participation, Catalano et al. (2002, 2004) found that involvement in sport or other extracurricular activities is not enough to promote positive attitudes. Participants must also establish close relationships with caring adult mentors and have the benefit of parental involvement (Bernard, 1997; Perkins, 1997). The quality of the relationships established

with a caring adult mentor is also critical for the development of positive assets during adolescence (The Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1995; Petitpas et al., 2005). The two key components of these relationships are empathy and holding young people to high expectations (Catalano et al., 2002, 2004; Perkins, 1997).

Play It Smart academic coaches are examples of caring adults that create empathetic and constructive mentoring relationships with youth (NFF Center for Youth Development through Sports, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2004). The academic coach operates as an assistant to the head coach, just like any other specialty coach, but the academic coach focuses on the enhancement of transferable skills, such as goal setting, teamwork, and commitment, that are essential both on and off the field (NFF Center for Youth Development through Sports, 2004). Academic coaches also serve as mentors, advocates, and counselors to the student athletes, often forming rewarding, long-term, relationships. Additionally, the academic coaches implement various strategies for involving and empowering other caring adults, including parents, who are concerned with the educational efforts of their children (NFF Center for Youth Development through Sports, 2004; Petitpas, Van Raalte, et al.).

Play It Smart works by building a bridge between the athletic field and the classroom and creating relevance between a student's academic and athletic experiences (Cornelius et al., 2002; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sports, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2004). Academic coaches, who are also trained mentors, are the primary bridge builders (Cornelius et al., 2002; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sports, 2004; Petitpas, Van Raalte, et al.). Many academic coaches possess master's

degree in counseling and have had training and experiences in providing counseling and support services to student-athletes (Petitpas, Van Raalte, et al.).

School Counselors and Multicultural Competence

Defining multicultural counseling from an inclusive framework allows deeper investigation into the complexities of cultural differences and similarities between counselor and client (Gillispie, 1999; Pedersen, 1994; Pedersen & Carey, 2003; Triandis, 1972). Training school counselors who are able to address the needs of an increasingly diverse student population presents major challenges and has been the attention of many counseling professionals for more than 20 years (Carey & Reinat, 1990; Herring, 1998; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001a, 2001b; Pedersen & Carey, 2003; Ponterotto et al., 1996; Pope-Davis et al., 2003; Speight et al., 1991).

Most recently, in a response to an urgent need to address the cultural diversity of students, the American School Counselor Association (ACSA) adopted a position statement (American School Counselor Association [ASCA], 2004; Holcomb-McCoy, 2004; Pedersen & Carey, 2003). The ASCA's statement "encouraged school counselors to assure that students from culturally diverse backgrounds have access to appropriate services and opportunities that promote maximum development" (Pedersen & Carey, 2003, p. 155; see also ASCA, 2004; Herring, 1998; Holcomb-McCoy, 2004). This stance by the ASCA supports the American Counseling Association (ACA) and the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) that school counselors develop multicultural competence (American Counselor Association [ACA], 1992; Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs

[CACREP], 2001; Carey & Reinat, 1990; Constantine & Ladany, 2001; Herring, 1998; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001; Holcomb-McCoy, 2004; Lewis & Hayes, 1991).

Multicultural Counseling Competencies

The movement to train multicultural competent counselors was further justified when Sue et al. (1982) introduced a framework for describing cross-cultural counseling competencies to be incorporated into training programs. Eleven competencies for counselors were derived from a report from Division 17 of the American Psychological Association (APA) titled "Position Paper: Cross-Cultural Counseling Competencies" (Sue et al., 1982). The eleven competencies were then classified into three broad areas: beliefs/attitudes, knowledge, and skills (Sue et al., 1982; Granello & Wheaton, 1998; Ponterotto et al., 1996; Sadowsky, 1996).

The intent of the beliefs/attitudes category is to focus counselors on sensitivity to their own cultural heritage and on their own negative emotional reactions toward other racial and ethnic groups based on stereotypes (Granello & Wheaton, 1998; Ponterotto et al., 1996; Sadowsky, 1996). The knowledge component of the competencies covered the cognitive domain based on theory and research of how counseling models and techniques is culture bound (Granello & Wheaton, 1998; Ponterotto et al., 1996). The skills area covers the behavioral domain and includes proficiencies in multicultural clinical work (Ponterotto et al., 1996; Sadowsky, 1996; Granello & Wheaton, 1998).

Ten years later, Sue, Arrendondo, and McDavis (1992) proposed three specific multicultural counselor competencies and standards: (a) counselor's awareness of their own assumptions, values, and biases, (b) counselors understanding of the worldview of

the culturally different client, and (c) counselor's development of culturally appropriate intervention strategies and techniques. By cross-classifying the newly proposed counselor competencies with the previously proposed general competencies, Sue et al. (1992) presented a 3x3 (Characteristics x Domains) matrix that resulted in nine competency areas indicating 31 skills (Holcomb-McCoy, 2000; Sadowsky, 1996; Sadowsky et al., 1994). An additional multicultural counseling competency, the multicultural counseling relationship, was proposed by Sadowsky, Taffe, et al.

The fourth competency, the multicultural counseling relationship, was introduced to correct a limitation of multicultural training that emphasized the acquisition of knowledge and skills (Sadowsky et al., 1994; Sadowsky, 1996). The multicultural counseling relationship stands independent of the competencies proposed by Sue et al. (1992), that includes counselors' self awareness, knowledge of client worldviews, and counselor intervention strategies, although all are characteristics of the multicultural counseling process (Sadowsky et al., 1994). Thus, being multiculturally competent requires the ability to integrate awareness, knowledge, and skills while maintaining a positive counseling relationship with the client (Pope-Davis & Ottavi, 1994; Sadowsky et al., 1994).

Professional organizations such as the ACA and the American Psychological Association (APA) adopted the 31 multicultural counseling competencies as part of their professional ethical standards (ACA, 1992; Sadowsky, 1996). CACREP and the ASCA have also adopted the 31 multicultural counseling competencies (ASCA, 2004; CACREP, 2001; Holcomb-McCoy, 2000; Lewis & Hayes, 1991; Pope-Davis et al., 2003).

CACREP (2001) requires students enrolled in counselor education programs to experience and demonstrate knowledge in the Social and Cultural Diversity Core, including an understanding of the cultural context related to issues, trends, and relationships to factors such as culture. Moreover, school counselors recognize the need for a broad understanding of multicultural issues and counseling skills to be effective in today's educational settings (Lewis & Hayes, 1991). The ethical standards of the ASCA state that professional school counselors are responsible for providing a "comprehensive ... program that advocates for and affirms all students from diverse populations regardless of ... their special needs" (ASCA, 2004, p. 1).

Multicultural Counseling Competency Assessment

Sue et al.'s (1982) framework for describing cross-cultural counseling competencies has served as the framework for various methods for assessing multicultural competence for counselors and in training programs (Constantine & Ladany, 2001). The various methods for assessing multicultural competence include self-report measures, portfolio approaches, and observer ratings (Constantine & Ladany, 2001). This section of the literature review will describe three self-report instruments designed to measure multicultural competencies for counselors. Additionally, the limitations of the self-report approaches will be provided.

Multicultural Awareness/Knowledge/Skills Survey (MAKSS)

The Multicultural Awareness/Knowledge/Skills Survey (MAKSS) (D'Andrea, Daniels, & Heck, 1991) is a 60-item instrument that has been used to evaluate the effectiveness of multicultural counseling training. The MAKSS' subscales each consist of

20 items utilizing a 4-point rating scales with responses ranging from very limited (1) to very good (4), very limited (1) to very aware (4), or strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (4). Scores for the entire MAKSS range from 60 to 240 with each subscale ranging from 20 to 80 (Constantine & Ladany, 2001; D'Andrea et al., 1991). The coefficient alphas for the subscales ranges from .75 to .96 (Constantine & Ladany, 2001; D'Andrea et al.).

The MAKSS consists of three subscales measuring awareness, knowledge and skills (Constantine & Ladany, 2001; D'Andrea et al., 1991). The awareness subscale is comprised of items assessing awareness of personal attitudes toward people of color (Constantine & Ladany, 2001; Ponterotto & Alexander, 1996). The knowledge subscale is comprised of items designed to measure knowledge about populations of color (Constantine & Ladany, 2001; Ponterotto & Alexander, 1996). And, the skills subscale is comprised of items designed to assess cross-cultural communication skills (Constantine & Ladany, 2001; Ponterotto & Alexander, 1996).

Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS)

The Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS) (Ponterotto, Gretchen, et al., 2000) is a 32-item, 7-point Likert type measure. Responses range from not at all true (1) to totally true (7) with scores ranging from 20 to 140 and 12 to 84 for knowledge and awareness, respectively (Constantine & Ladany, 2001; D'Andrea et al., 1991). Scores for the entire scale range from 32 to 224 (Constantine & Ladany, 2001; D'Andrea et al., 1991). The MCKAS measures general knowledge related to multicultural counseling and subtle Eurocentric worldview bias (Constantine &

Ladany, 2001; D'Andrea et al., 1991). The MCKAS, a revised version of the Multicultural Counseling Awareness Scale-Form B has good content, construct, and criterion-related validity with a coefficient alpha of .85 for each of the subscales (Ponterotto et al., 1996).

Multicultural Counseling Inventory (MCI)

The Multicultural Counseling Inventory (MCI) (Sodowsky et al., 1994; Sodowsky, 1996) consists of 40 questions scored on a Likert scale of 1 (very inaccurate) to 4 (very accurate) where 4 indicates high multicultural competence and 1 indicates poor multicultural competence. Calculation of overall scores is divided into 3 competency ranges: low (40-80), moderate (81-129), and high (130-160).

The MCI is designed to assess individuals' behavior and attitudes regarding four factors: a) multicultural counseling skills (11 items, possible range of scores from 11 to 44), b) multicultural awareness (10 items, possible range of scores from 10 to 40), c) multicultural counseling knowledge (11 items, possible range of scores from 11 to 44), and d) multicultural counseling relationship (8 items, possible range of scores from 8 to 32). The mean Cronbach alpha coefficient for the entire MCI is .87, and mean coefficients of .78, .77, .80, and .68 have been reported for the awareness, knowledge, skills, and relationship subscales, respectively (Sodowsky et al., 1994; Sodowsky et al., 1998).

For this study, the MCI was renamed to the Multicultural Sport Counseling Inventory (MCSCI). Constantine and Ladany (2000, p. 162) stated, "future multicultural competence scales may need to be expanded to include items that assess such

competence in the context of larger systems (e.g., families, groups, organizations), nontraditional therapeutic interventions (e.g., outreach, consultation, advocacy), and non-counseling roles (e.g., training, supervision, research).” Thus, the MCSCI utilizes language and competency statements that have been adapted as a measure of multicultural sports counseling competence.

The questions on the MCI were modified by changing the term *minority clients* [italics added] to *student athletes* [italics added] to better fit the population. The objective of the modifications was to have the instrument be more inclusive of the student athlete population. For example, “I learn about [minority] clients’ different ways of acculturation to the dominant society to understand the clients better” was changed to “I learn about student athletes’ different ways of acculturation to the dominant society to understand the student athlete better.” Both the MCI and the MCSCI consists of 40 items that were grouped into four dimensions or subscales (Sodowsky et al., 1994).

Subscale one, Multicultural Awareness of Student Athletes, is defined as proactive multicultural sensitivity and responsiveness toward athletes, extensive interactions and life experiences with sports and athletes, broad-based cultural understanding, advocacy within institutions, enjoyment of the athlete population, and an increase in student athlete’s caseload (Sodowsky et al., 1994; Sodowsky & Taffe, 1991). Subscale one consists of ten items. Subscale two, Multicultural Counseling Knowledge of Student Athletes is defined as the ability to conduct culturally relevant case conceptualization and treatment strategies; assess cultural information; conduct

multicultural counseling research (Sodowsky et al., 1994; Sodowsky & Taffe, 1991).

Subscale two consists of eleven items.

Subscale three, Multicultural Counseling Skills is defined as the success with retention of student athlete cases, recognition of and recovery from cultural mistakes, use of nontraditional methods of assessment, counselor self-monitoring, and tailoring structured versus unstructured counseling sessions to the needs of student athletes and consists of eleven items (Sodowsky et al., 1994; Sodowsky & Taffe, 1991). Finally, subscale four, Multicultural Counseling Relationship is defined as the counselor's interaction process with student athletes, such as counselor's trustworthiness, comfort level, stereotypes of student athletes, and worldview (Sodowsky et al., 1994; Sodowsky & Taffe, 1991). Subscale four consists of eight items.

The MCI was chosen for this study over the other multicultural counseling competency self-report measures for a several reasons. One, the questions are behaviorally-based, with clarity of language not evident in the other measures (Gillispie, 1999). Additionally, the MCI attempts to recognize the relational aspects of multicultural counseling competencies (Gillispie, 1999). Research studies have also confirmed the validity of the MCI and that it is a valuable tool for measuring multicultural counseling competencies (Gillispie, 1999; Pope-Davis & Nielson, 1996; Sodowsky, 1996). Finally, the MCI is the only self-report instrument that includes a scale to measure the counseling relationship (Sodowsky et al., 1994; Sodowsky, 1996). The relationship subscale is particularly useful to validate the MCI due to the centrality of the counselor/client relationship in all counseling interactions and as a component of the Play It Smart

program (Gillispie, 1999; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sports, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2004).

Assessment Limitations

Although self-report multicultural competency measures are popular, one potential problem is that respondents may report anticipated versus actual behaviors and may answer in socially desirable ways (Constantine & Ladany, 2000; Sadowsky et al., 1998). Social desirability is commonly thought of as the tendency of individuals to project favorable images of themselves during social interaction for the purpose of looking good (Constantine et al., 2001; Johnson, Fendrich, & Hubbell, 2002; Liu et al., 2004; Meston et al., 1998; Sadowsky et al., 1996; Worthington et al., 2000). Sadowsky et al. (1996) recommended that a social desirability measure be included in research involving the use of self-report multicultural competency assessments (Liu et al.; Sadowsky et al., 1998).

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale

For this study, the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale Form C (MC-SDS Form C; Reynolds, 1982) was utilized to measure social desirability responding. The Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale was renamed the *Personal Reaction Inventory* [italics added] as recommended by the authors so as to not prejudice responses. The original MC-SDS consists of 33 true-false items and has an internal consistency of .88 and a test-retest stability coefficient of .89 (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960, 1964; Johnson et al., 2002; Mueller & Pope, 2001; Reynolds, 1982).

A shorter form of the instrument (Form C) consists of 13 of the original 33 items

and has a correlation of .93. Reynolds (1982) recommended using the short version when measuring social desirability response tendencies. Reynolds (1982, p. 124) further stated, “with slightly greater than one-third the items of the Marlowe-Crowne scale, the 13-item short form should provide researchers with a brief, easy-to-administer social desirability measure.”

The development and model of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale is based on the theory that a balanced scale is composed of half culturally acceptable but probably untrue statements and half of true but undesirable statements (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960, 1964; Granello & Wheaton, 1998; Johnson et al., 2002; Mueller & Pope, 2001; Reynolds, 1982). Sample items include: “There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone,” or “No matter who I am talking to, I’m always a good listener.”

For each answer on the MC-SDS the respondent provided that matched the correct answer (i.e., T=T or F=F) a value of one was assigned. For each discordant response (i.e., the respondent provides a T in place of an F or an F in place of a T) a value of zero was assigned. The total score on the scale ranged from thirteen (when all responses match) to zero (when no responses match). People with high scores on the MC-SDS were responding in a socially desirable manner.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to provide a foundation of research that connected multicultural competencies, school counseling, and the athlete population. Furthermore, this chapter provided an overview of the benefits and risks of sports participation on the psychological, physical, and social development of athletes.

Moreover, this chapter provided an overview of positive youth development theory and the Play It Smart program. There is very little literature linking multicultural counseling competence, counseling student athletes, and the services that school counselors provide. Thus, it was necessary to examine the concept of positive youth development through sports, sports counseling, and the athlete culture within the school counseling profession.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research methods used to conduct this study. The specific research hypotheses are stated and a description of the participants, the instruments, and the research design are presented. The procedures for collecting, processing, and analyzing the data are provided.

The purpose of this study was to assess and compare the multicultural sports counseling competencies of Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, professional school counselors, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. The academic coaches' and school counselors' competencies were assessed and compared by measuring the four multicultural counseling characteristics described by Sadowsky et al. (1994). These characteristics are: (a) multicultural awareness, (b) multicultural counseling knowledge, (c) multicultural counseling skills, and (d) the multicultural counseling relationship.

Research Hypotheses

The hypotheses examined in this study were:

H1. There is no true difference in multicultural awareness toward student athletes among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors as measured by the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI).

H2. There is no true difference in multicultural counseling knowledge of student athletes and their developmental needs among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and

professional school counselors as measured by the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI).

H3. There is no true difference in multicultural counseling skills utilized with student athletes among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors as measured by the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI).

H4. There is no true difference in the multicultural counseling relationships with student athletes among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors as measured by the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI).

H5. There is no true relationship between socially desirable responding and the Play It Smart academic coaches and professional school counselors self-report on the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI) as measured by the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Form C) (MC-SDS Form C).

Participants

Purposive sampling, also called judgment sampling or polling, represents a deliberate selection of a sample, manipulated by the researcher in such a fashion as to obtain a representative cross-section of a population (LaFountain & Bartos, 2002). The participants for this study were deliberately sampled from two groups: (a) professional school counselors and (b) Play It Smart academic coaches. The professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches were affiliated with high schools throughout the United States utilizing the National Football Foundation's Play It Smart

Program. At the time this study was conducted, the Play It Smart program was in 128 high schools in 84 cities across 35 states.

One hundred and twenty-one academic coaches were asked to participate in the study. A roster of the 128 high schools' counseling departments, with the name of the counseling department director along with the total number of school counselors employed was compiled to serve as a list of potential participants. Compilation of this list was obtained from the Play It Smart academic coaches via personal email (see Appendix A) and from the National Football Foundation Center for Youth Development through Sports. Two hundred and eighty school counselors were invited to participate in the study.

A total of 107 academic coaches and professional school counselors returned surveys. The participants included 73 Play It Smart academic coaches, 29 professional school counselors, and two participants who were classified as both a school counselor and Play It Smart academic coach. Three participants did not disclose their job title. A total of ten participants were excluded from this study due to missing data, extreme values (i.e., outliers) on their combined MCSCI, or not meeting the study's requirements for participation. Ninety-seven participants were classified into three groups: (a) Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees (n=9), (b) professional school counselors (n=26), and (c) Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees (n=62). The participants included 54 males (56.3%) and 42 (43.8%) females. One participant did not disclose gender. The predominant ethnic background of the participants was White or Caucasian (56.3%) followed by Black or African American

(35.4%), Hispanic or Latino (2.1%), American Indian/Alaskan Native (1%), Asian (1%), and other (3.1%). One participant did not disclose their race. Thirty-five (36.1%) of the participants have a counseling degree. Of the participants (n=24) who responded to the “currently in school” item (25%), 20 (83.3%) are in a master’s level or doctoral level programs in the helping profession field (e.g., counseling, counseling psychology, sport psychology, or education). Thirty-nine percent (n=37) of the participants had formal training or education on counseling athletes.

Instrumentation

Demographic Questionnaire

The Demographic Questionnaire (Appendix E) was developed specifically for this study. The researcher-developed questionnaire asked the subjects for the following demographic information: (a) gender, (b) age, (c) race, (d) whether the respondent is a former college or university athlete, (e) academic background, (f) years of experience, (g) whether or not the respondent has attended any multicultural counseling training, (h) whether or not the respondent has received any formal training on counseling athletes, and (i) percentage of time spent counseling student-athletes over the past year.

Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI)

The MCSCI is based on the original Multicultural Counseling Inventory (MCI). The MCI (Sodowsky et al., 1994) consists of 40 questions scored on a Likert scale of 1 (very inaccurate) to 4 (very accurate) where 4 indicates high multicultural competence and 1 indicates poor multicultural competence. Calculation of overall scores is divided

into 3 competency ranges: (a) low (40-80), (b) moderate (81-129), and (c) high (130-160).

The MCI is designed to assess individuals' behavior and attitudes regarding four factors: (a) multicultural counseling skills (11 items, possible range of scores from 11 to 44), (b) multicultural awareness (10 items, possible range of scores from 10 to 40), (c) multicultural counseling knowledge (11 items, possible range of scores from 11 to 44), and (d) multicultural counseling relationship (8 items, possible range of scores from 8 to 32). The mean Cronbach alpha coefficient for the entire MCI is .87, and mean coefficients of .78, .77, .80, and .68 have been reported for the awareness, knowledge, skills, and relationship subscales, respectively (Sodowsky et al., 1994; Sodowsky et al., 1998).

For this study, verbal and written permission was given by the author, Gargi Roysircar-Sodowsky, to revise and rename the MCI to the Multicultural Sport Counseling Inventory (MCSCI). The MCSCI includes terminology that specifically reflects the student athlete population. In a study conducted by Constantine and Ladany (2000, p. 162), it was stated, "future multicultural competence scales may need to be expanded to include items that assess such competence in the context of larger systems (e.g., families, groups, organizations), nontraditional therapeutic interventions (e.g., outreach, consultation, advocacy), and non-counseling roles (e.g., training, supervision, research)." Thus, the MCSCI utilizes language and competency statements that have been adapted as a measure of multicultural sports counseling competence.

The questions were modified by changing the term *minority clients* [italics added] to *student athletes* [italics added] to better fit the population of interest in this study. The objective of the modifications was to have the instrument be more inclusive of the student athlete population. For example, “I learn about [minority] clients’ different ways of acculturation to the dominant society to understand the clients better” was changed to “I learn about student athletes’ different ways of acculturation to the dominant society to understand the student athlete better.”

The MCI and the MCSCI are copyrighted and do not appear as an appendix in this dissertation.

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale Form C (MC-SDS Form C)

Although self-report multicultural competency measures are popular, one potential problem is that respondents may report anticipated versus actual behaviors and may answer in socially desirable ways (Constantine & Ladeny, 2000; Crowne & Marlowe, 1960, 1964; Reynolds, 1982; Sadowsky et al., 1996). The original Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MC-SDS), the most widely used social desirable inventory, has been designed to identify “...people who describe themselves in favorable, socially desirable terms in order to achieve the approval of others (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964, p. ix). The MC-SDS (Form C) (Appendix F) was used in this study to measure the subject’s tendency to present themselves in a favorable light or respond in a socially desirable manner (Reynolds, 1982). For this study, the MC-SDS (Form C) was renamed the Personal Reaction Inventory, consistent with prior studies using the Marlowe-Crowne

Social Desirability Scale (MC-SDS) (Granello & Wheaton, 1998; Mueller & Pope, 2001).

The original MC-SDS consists of 33 true-false items and has an internal consistency of .88 and a test-retest stability coefficient of .89 (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960, 1964; Johnson et al., 2002; Mueller & Pope, 2001; Reynolds, 1982). A shorter form of the instrument (Form C) consists of 13 of the original 33 true (T) or false (F) items and has a correlation of .93 with the standard form. Reynolds (1982) recommended using the short version when measuring social desirability response tendencies. Reynolds (1982, p. 124) further stated, “with slightly greater than one-third the items of the Marlowe-Crowne scale, the 13-item short form should provide researchers with a brief, easy-to-administer social desirability measure.”

The development and model of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale is based on the theory that a balanced scale is composed of half culturally acceptable but probably untrue statements and half true but undesirable statements (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964). For each answer on the MC-SDS the respondent provided that matched the correct answer (i.e., T=T or F=F) a value of one was assigned. For each discordant response (i.e., the respondent provides a T in place of an F or an F in place of a T) a value of zero was assigned. The total score on the scale ranged from thirteen (when all responses match) to zero (when no responses match). People with high scores on the MC-SDS were responding in a socially desirable manner.

Procedure

Research packets containing cover letters (Appendix B and C), informed consent forms (Appendix D), demographic questionnaires, copies of the MCSCI, copies of the MC-SDS (Form C), and self-addressed stamped return envelopes were mailed to the directors of school counseling at each Play It Smart high school, with enough packets for each school counselor on staff. The cover letter explained the purpose of the study, the potential benefits to the profession, and requested that each director distribute the packets to the counselors on staff. The cover letter asked the school counselors for their participation in the study, asked that the school counselors return the questionnaire and surveys within two weeks, and clearly stated that their responses would be anonymous and participation was voluntary. Furthermore, the cover letter explained to the school counselors that completing and returning the demographic questionnaire, the MCSCI, and the MC-SDS (Form C) indicated to the investigator that they have read the informed consent form and have agreed to participate in the study.

Additionally, research packets containing cover letters, informed consent forms, copies of the Personal Reaction Inventory, copies of the MCSCI, demographic questionnaires, and self-addressed stamped return envelopes were mailed to all of the Play It Smart academic coaches. The cover letter explained the purpose of the study and the potential benefits to the profession. The cover letter requested the academic coaches' participation in the study. Furthermore, the cover letter clearly stated that the academic coach's responses would be anonymous and participation was voluntary. Finally, the

cover letter explained to the academic coaches that completing and returning the instruments indicated their consent and voluntary participation in the study.

After two weeks, the investigator sent a second mailing to the directors of school counseling and the Play It Smart academic coaches. The packets contained reminder cover letters (Appendix G), informed consent forms, demographic questionnaires, copies of the MCSCI, copies of the MC-SDS (Form C), and self-addressed stamped envelopes for those school counselors and academic coaches that had not responded.

Research Design

The study used a between subjects design. The independent variable, academic coaches/professional school counselors, was classified into three levels: (a) a professional school counselor condition, (b) a Play It Smart academic coach with counseling degree condition, and (c) a Play It Smart academic coach without counseling degree condition. The four dependent variables were: (a) multicultural awareness of student athletes, (b) multicultural counseling knowledge of student athletes and their developmental needs, (c) multicultural counseling skills utilized for student athlete, and (d) multicultural counseling relationships with student athletes. Socially desirable responding served as the covariate for this study.

Data Analysis

The results of the study were analyzed using a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA). The MANCOVA, similar to multiple analyses of variance (MANOVA), was used because this study involved more than one dependent variable and is more powerful than the analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Grimm & Yarnold, 1995;

Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1999; LaFountain & Bartos, 2002; Mertler & Vannatta, 2002; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The MANOVA assessed group differences across multiple dependent variables simultaneously based on a set of categorical variables as independent variables (Heppner et al., 1999; LaFountain & Bartos, 2002; Mertler & Vannatta, 2002; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). However, instead of comparing vectors of means, the MANCOVA compared vectors of adjusted means (Grimm & Yarnold, 1995; Mertler & Vannatta, 2002; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Additionally, with MANCOVA's, independents are added as covariates. Covariates serve as control variables for the independent factors serving to reduce the error term in the study (Grimm & Yarnold, 1995; Mertler & Vannatta, 2002; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Like other control procedures, a MANCOVA can be seen as a form of "what if" analysis, asking what would happen if all cases scored equally on the covariates, so that the effect of the factors over and beyond the covariates can be isolated.

The procedure used in conducting the MANCOVA's was paralleled to the procedures used in conducting a MANOVA (Mertler & Vannatta, 2002). For this study, using the SPSS computer software, variables were first transformed to eliminate extreme values (i.e. outliers). A Play It Smart academic coach with counseling degrees case that equaled 122 on the combined MCSCI was recoded to 132. A Play It Smart academic coach without counseling degrees case that equaled 177 on the combined MCSCI was eliminated. MANCOVA produced results that were analyzed to determine if there were any significant difference between the levels of the independent variable on the dependent variables. An *F* ratio was used to determine the variation of sample means

compared to the amount of variability among the raw scores within the sample while taking covariance into account (Heppner et al., 1999; LaFountain & Bartos, 2002; Mertler & Vannatta, 2002). If the MANCOVA resulted in a statistically significant *F* value, separate analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were performed on the independent variable to isolate the source of the significance. Additionally, if an ANCOVA resulted in a statistically significant *F* value, to determine which samples were significantly different, a Bonferroni multiple comparison test was performed. The Bonferroni tested the mean difference in the dependent variables between three groups. The Bonferroni method was preferred because the number of groups was small (Stevens, 1996; Grimm & Yarnold, 1998; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Also, when performing a MANCOVA, there are many statistical tests involved that may increase the possibility of committing a Type I error (Grimm & Yarnold, 1998; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In order to control for the Type I error and enhance the statistical power, a Bonferroni type adjustment was employed. A significance level of .05 was utilized for all analysis in this study.

Limitations

“Because counseling is an applied profession designed to help a broad array of individuals in various settings across different times, external validity is very important” (Heppner et al., 1999, p. 76; see also LaFountain & Bartos, 2002; Mertler & Vannatta, 2002). External validity relates to the generalizability of findings across persons, settings, or times (Heppner et al.; LaFountain & Bartos, 2002; Mertler & Vannatta, 2002). Several limitations preclude the generalization of this study’s findings.

First, the participants represented school counseling programs in high schools that already had a formalized student athlete service program in place, Play It Smart, limiting the ability to generalize across settings. Additionally, the findings from this study are limited in generalizability by the nonrandom selection of school counselors from the high schools utilizing Play It Smart. Thus, the sample does not represent schools without a formalized student athlete service program in place. Furthermore, the diversity of school counselors and academic coaches with regard to experience levels and the amount of training may pose additional limitations.

Caution should also be used in generalizing the study's findings because of the possibility that response bias may exist. Response bias may emerge because not all participants were randomly selected (Constantine & Ladany, 2000). Additionally, respondents who completed the questionnaire packets may have had a particular interest in this study and may have differed from the individuals who may not have completed the questionnaires.

“Despite widespread use, self-report multicultural counseling competence scales have been criticized for the following reasons: (a) they tend to measure anticipated rather than actual behaviors or attitudes correlated with multicultural competence, (b) they are prone to social desirability, (c) their conceptual foundations may not match the philosophies of many academic training programs ... thereby making accurate assessment of multicultural competence difficult, and (d) they lack uniformity with regard to constructs they actually assess” (Pope-Davis & Dings, 1995, p. 287). Also, it may be possible “that because of the large number of items they are being asked to complete,

some participants may have become fatigued during the administration and responded erroneously to some questions” (Constantine & Ladany, 2000, p. 163).

Summary

Chapter 3 provided a map of exactly what the investigator did to conduct this study. Included in this chapter were specific descriptions of the hypotheses, participants, the instruments and their development, data collection procedures and the statistical analyses that were used in this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to assess and compare the multicultural sports counseling competencies of Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, professional school counselors, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. The intent of this research was to implement a quantitative study, gathering and then analyzing data to describe the multicultural sports counseling competencies of Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, professional school counselors, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. A quantitative design was chosen in order to gather and analyze data that would generate descriptive information on the four multicultural counseling characteristics described by Sodowsky et al. (1994). These characteristics are: (a) multicultural awareness, (b) multicultural counseling knowledge, (c) multicultural counseling skills, and (d) the multicultural counseling relationship.

This study analyzed data collected with a forty-item questionnaire, the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI), administered to school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches to assess behavior and attitudes regarding four multicultural factors: (a) multicultural counseling skills, (b) multicultural awareness, (c) multicultural counseling knowledge, and (d) multicultural counseling relationship, described by Sodowsky et al. (1994). Additionally, data regarding the individual responses of the participant's anticipated versus actual behaviors was collected and reviewed for socially desirable responding. The data was reported and analyzed within three groups: (a) Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, (b)

professional school counselors, and (c) Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees.

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analyses of the data. Data results for the instruments are presented. Each hypothesis is restated and the results of the analyses are presented in narrative and tabular form. Finally, a summary of each hypothesis concludes this chapter.

Instrument Data

The mean Cronbach alpha coefficients were analyzed utilizing SPSS to provide evidence for internal consistency for the entire MCSCI and the subscales. The reliability coefficient for the entire MCSCI is .87 and mean coefficients of .79, .73, .81, and .51 was calculated for the awareness, knowledge, skills, and relationship subscales, respectively. These results are consistent with the reliabilities reported by Sadowsky et al. (1994).

The MCSCI subscales were calculated and scored by standard procedures. The MCSCI was scored according to Sadowsky et al. (1994). Seven items on the instrument were reversed scored in an attempt to prevent a response set.

The Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale Form C (MC-SDS Form C) scores were calculated and scored by standard procedures. The MC-SDS was scored according to Crowne and Marlowe (1960, 1964). For each answer on the MC-SDS the respondent provided that matched the correct answer (i.e., T=T or F=F) a value of one was assigned. For each discordant response (i.e., the respondent provides a T in place of an F or an F in place of a T) a value of zero was assigned. The total score on the scale

ranged from thirteen (i.e., when all responses match) to zero (i.e., when no responses match).

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested in this study:

Hypothesis 1

There is no true difference in multicultural awareness toward student athletes among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors as measured by the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI).

Hypothesis 2

There is no true difference in multicultural counseling knowledge of student athletes and their developmental needs among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors as measured by the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI).

Hypothesis 3

There is no true difference in multicultural counseling skills utilized with student athletes among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors as measured by the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI).

Hypothesis 4

There is no true difference in the multicultural counseling relationships with student athletes among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors as measured by the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI).

Hypothesis 5

There is no true relationship between socially desirable responding and the Play It Smart academic coaches and professional school counselors self-report on the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI) as measured by the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Form C) (MC-SDS Form C).

MANCOVA and ANCOVA Results

To test the hypotheses, a between subjects MANCOVA was conducted for the independent variable and the four dependent variables: (a) multicultural awareness, (b) multicultural counseling knowledge, (c) multicultural counseling skills, and (d) multicultural counseling relationship. The independent variable, academic coaches/professional school counselors, was classified into three levels: (a) Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, (b) professional school counselors, and (c) Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. Socially desirable responding served as the covariate in this multivariate design.

Prior to the MANCOVA, variables were transformed to eliminate extreme values (i.e. outliers). A Play It Smart academic coach with counseling degrees case that equaled 122 on the combined MCSCI was recoded to 132. A Play It Smart academic coach

without counseling degrees case that equaled 177 on the combined MCSCI was eliminated. MANCOVA analysis indicated significant main effect among the independent variable on the combined dependent variables, Wilks' $\Lambda=.687$, $F(8, 180)=4.64$, $p<.001$, multivariate $\eta^2=.141$. The covariate significantly influenced the combined dependent variables, Wilks' $\Lambda=.789$, $F(4, 90)=5.65$, $p<.001$, multivariate $\eta^2=.194$.

Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted on the independent variable as a follow-up test to the MANCOVA while controlling for socially desirable responding. The independent variable was significant for multicultural awareness, $F(2, 93)=8.07$, $p=.001$, partial $\eta^2=.148$, multicultural counseling skills, $F(2, 93)=3.50$, $p=.034$, partial $\eta^2=.070$, and multicultural counseling knowledge, $F(2, 93)=4.38$, $p=.015$, partial $\eta^2=.086$. The independent variable was not significant for multicultural counseling relationship, $F(2, 93)=2.78$, $p=.068$, partial $\eta^2=.056$. The covariate of socially desirable responding significantly influenced the four dependent variables: (a) multicultural awareness, $F(1, 93)=6.06$, $p=.016$, partial $\eta^2=.061$, (b) multicultural counseling knowledge, $F(1, 93)=7.24$, $p=.008$, partial $\eta^2=.072$, (c) multicultural counseling skills, $F(1, 93)=8.20$, $p=.005$, partial $\eta^2=.081$, and (d) multicultural counseling relationship, $F(1, 93)=10.22$, $p=.002$, partial $\eta^2=.099$.

To determine which samples were significantly different, a Bonferroni multiple comparison test was performed. A comparison of adjusted means revealed that multicultural awareness of Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees differs by more than four points from professional school counselors and Play It Smart

academic coaches without counseling degrees. A comparison of adjusted means revealed that multicultural counseling knowledge of Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees differs by more than four points from professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. A comparison of adjusted means revealed that multicultural counseling skills of Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees differs by more than three points from professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees.

Table 1 presents adjusted means and unadjusted means for the multicultural counseling characteristics described by Sadowsky et al. (1994), for Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, professional school counselors, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. A significance level of .05 was utilized for all analysis in this study.

Table 1

Adjusted and Unadjusted Means for the Multicultural Counseling Characteristics for Play It Smart Academic Coaches with Counseling Degrees, Professional School Counselors, and Play It Smart Academic Coaches without Counseling Degrees.

Multicultural counseling characteristics	Play it smart academic coach with counseling degree		Professional school counselor		Play it smart academic coach without counseling degree	
	Adjusted M	Unadjusted M	Adjusted M	Unadjusted M	Adjusted M	Unadjusted M
Multicultural awareness	36.67	35.89	28.75	29.04	31.80	31.79
Multicultural counseling knowledge	38.29	37.56	33.50	33.77	33.72	33.71
Multicultural counseling skills	40.39	39.56	37.35	37.65	36.06	36.05
Multicultural counseling relationship	26.94	26.33	26.93	27.15	25.39	25.39

Findings

For hypothesis one, the analysis of the data indicated that there was a significant difference in multicultural awareness toward student athletes between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees (see Figure H1). There was also a significant difference in multicultural awareness towards student athletes between professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling

degrees. Both Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees had higher scores on the multicultural awareness subscale than the professional school counselors.

For hypothesis two, the analysis of the data indicated that there was a significant difference in multicultural counseling knowledge of student athletes and their developmental needs between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and professional school counselors (see Figure H2). There was a significant difference in multicultural counseling knowledge of student athletes and their developmental needs between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. There was not a significant difference in multicultural counseling knowledge of student athletes and their developmental needs between professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees had higher scores on the multicultural counseling knowledge subscale than both professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees.

For hypothesis three, the analysis of the data indicated that there was a significant difference in multicultural counseling skills utilized between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees (see Figure H3). There was not a significant difference in multicultural counseling skills utilized between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and professional school counselors. There was not a significant difference in multicultural counseling skills utilized between professional school counselors and Play

It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees had higher scores on the multicultural counseling skills subscale than Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees.

For hypothesis four, the analysis of the data indicated that there was not a significant difference in multicultural counseling relationships with student athletes among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors (see Figure H4).

The analysis of the data indicated that hypothesis five was rejected. There was a significant relationship between socially desirable responding and the Play It Smart academic coaches and professional school counselors self-report on the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI) as shown in Figure H5.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to assess and compare the multicultural sports counseling competencies of Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, professional school counselors, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. The intent of this research was to implement a quantitative study, gathering and then analyzing data to describe the multicultural sports counseling competencies of Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, professional school counselors, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. A quantitative design was chosen in order to gather and analyze data that would generate descriptive information on the four multicultural counseling characteristics described by Sodowsky et al. (1994). These characteristics are: (a) multicultural awareness, (b) multicultural counseling knowledge, (c) multicultural counseling skills, and (d) the multicultural counseling relationship.

This study analyzed data collected with a forty-item questionnaire, the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI), administered to school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches, to assess behavior and attitudes regarding four multicultural factors: (a) multicultural counseling skills, (b) multicultural awareness, (c) multicultural counseling knowledge, and (d) multicultural counseling relationship, described by Sodowsky et al. (1994). Additionally, data regarding the groups' anticipated versus actual behaviors was collected and reviewed to determine socially desirable responding. The data was reported and analyzed for three groups: (a) Play It Smart

academic coaches with counseling degrees, (b) professional school counselors, and (c) Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees.

This chapter discusses the implications of the results presented in chapter four. The findings of the analyses are discussed. Theoretical and research implications are discussed. Finally, the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research studies are presented.

Conclusions

Multicultural Awareness

Hypothesis 1 stated there is no true difference in multicultural awareness toward student athletes among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors as measured by the MCSCI. The analysis of the data indicated that there was a significant difference in multicultural awareness toward student athletes between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, professional school counselors, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. There was also a significant difference in multicultural awareness towards student athletes between professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. Finally, both Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees had higher mean scores on the multicultural awareness subscale than the professional school counselors.

Multicultural awareness of student athletes is defined as proactive multicultural sensitivity and responsiveness toward athletes, extensive interactions and life experiences

with sports and athletes, broad-based cultural understanding, advocacy within institutions, enjoyment of the athlete population, and an increase in student athlete's caseload (Sodowsky et al., 1994). The significant difference between Play It Smart academic coaches and professional school counselors could be due to several factors. First, Play It Smart academic coaches are aware that student athletes are indeed a unique cultural group with developmental needs. Second, Play It Smart academic coaches are also formally trained to be sensitive and responsive toward athletes. Third, Play It Smart academic coaches also engage in regular supervision sessions that focus on assisting the Play It Smart academic coaches with understanding student athletes' developmental needs.

The results of this study support previous research that state school counselors working with high school student athletes may not be aware of and sensitive to the unique factors that contribute to the difficulties some student athletes may have in meeting their developmental needs (Goldberg, 1991, 1992; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Hinkle, 1994a). This is evident in this study by such a relatively low mean score, 28.75, on the Multicultural Counseling Awareness subscale (possible range of scores from 10 to 40) for professional school counselors compared to the adjusted mean of 36.67 for academic coaches with counseling degrees. Anecdotal evidence in the form of a participant's comment on the MCSCI also provides evidence to suggest that multicultural awareness among professional school counselors is low. For example, one professional school counselor stated, "these [institutional barriers in school counseling services for student athletes] are not issues here." This lack of awareness may be a hindrance to

working effectively with cultural diverse student populations. Similarly, professional school counselors may find it challenging to fully comprehend and appreciate the unique cultural issues in the lives of student athletes. To effectively assist student athletes, school counselors must be aware of the unique characteristics, contexts and needs of this cultural subgroup. In addition, they must also come to terms with their own attitudes toward this group (Goldberg, 1991, 1992; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995). Engstrom and Sedlacek (1991) stated that it is critical for members of the athletes' world to become aware of their attitudes that may directly influence the type of treatment or service they provide to the student athlete.

There was also a significant difference in multicultural awareness toward student athletes between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. This would suggest that possessing a counseling degree and being formally trained on the student athlete population both combine to assist Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees to be more multiculturally aware of this unique cultural group. This finding supports Hinkle's (1994b) findings that, "counselors are well prepared for the provision of educational and clinical services designed for student athletes ... and [counselors] assist this population with the various aspects of personal development" (p. 1). This finding also supports the research that states, "special training among counselors about the student athlete culture ... to support the development of its membership is needed" (Engstrom & Sedlacek, 1991, p. 189).

Finally, there was a significant difference in multicultural awareness toward student athletes between professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. This may confirm that receiving formal training on the athlete population may assist this group of Play It Smart academic coaches with being sensitive and responsive to student athletes, with possessing a broad-based cultural understanding of the athlete population, and with being multicultural counseling aware of student athletes.

Multicultural Counseling Knowledge

Hypothesis 2 stated there is no statistically significant difference in multicultural counseling knowledge of student athletes and their developmental needs among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors as measured by the MCSCI. The analysis of the data indicated that there was a significant difference in multicultural counseling knowledge of student athletes and their developmental needs between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and professional school counselors. There was also a significant difference in multicultural counseling knowledge of student athletes and their developmental needs between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. There was not a significant difference in multicultural counseling knowledge of student athletes and their developmental needs between professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees had higher mean scores on the multicultural counseling

knowledge subscale than both professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees.

Multicultural counseling knowledge of student athletes is defined as the ability to conduct culturally relevant case conceptualization and treatment strategies, assess cultural information, and conduct multicultural counseling research (Sodowsky et al., 1994). The significant differences between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and both professional school counselors and academic coaches without counseling degrees supports the importance of having both a counseling degree and formal training on student athletes.

Sports counseling is defined as “a process which attempts to assist individuals in maximizing their personal, academic, and athletic potential. This [sports counseling] is accomplished through a proactive, growth oriented approach that incorporates the principles of counseling, career development, movement science, psychology, and human development” (Nejedlo et al., 1985, p. 9). According to Nejedlo et al., counselors working with athletes should have specialized knowledge and skills beyond the basic counselor preparation.

This study supports the fact that although school counselors have excellent skills in assisting students with developmental problems, self-enhancement, and program organization, many may not be prepared or qualified to meet the needs of the student athlete experiencing emotional difficulties (Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b; Pope-Davis et al., 2003). These findings support Pope-Davis et al. (2003; see also Hinkle, 1994a, 1994b) by emphasizing that unless the school counselor is aware and culturally sensitive to the

effects of these external forces, including the impact that their sport has on the student athlete's identity, the school counselor may focus only on what may be perceived as the student's internal deficits when the focus should also be on external conditions and their effect on the student.

With Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees the level of academic training is less predictable. The lack of formal training in counseling may limit Play It Smart academic coaches' ability to focus on the athlete's psychoemotional difficulties and developmental needs as an individual. On the basis of these findings it appears that as the Play It Smart program continues to grow, there may be a need to hire more effective academic coaches with a combination of both training in counseling and training in providing counseling and support services specifically to student athletes. Or, as the Play It Smart program continues to grow, there may be a need to incorporate more multicultural training into the existing Play It Smart training program.

The findings from this study also supported Holcomb-McCoy and Myers' (1999, p. 299) study where they found that professional counselors "perceive themselves to be least competent on the multicultural knowledge and ... identity dimensions of multicultural competence." Understanding identity development with specific cultural groups is an important factor in being a multicultural competent helping professional. Understanding identity development may assist in conceptualizing students' behaviors. Thus, "it is critical for school counselors to begin conceptualizing multicultural competence in dimensions rather than as one entity" (Holcomb-McCoy, 2001, p. 199).

Counselors need to understand the consequences of an athletic based ego value system on the efforts of high school student athletes to master stage relevant tasks of identity formation, developing personal competence, educational and career planning, and the preparation for the transition from high school to college (Goldberg, 1991; Stryer et al., 1998; Valentine & Taub, 1999). Counselors need to become informed about the personal and society factors that may promote or inhibit the student athletes' psychosocial development and become familiar with the post-high school environments that student athletes may encounter (Goldberg, 1991; Stryer et al.; Valentine & Taub, 1999). The results of the study support Petitpas et al.'s (2005) suggestion that professionals who provide sports counseling services should become familiar with research on various psychological processes and motivational climates conducive to fostering positive psychosocial growth. It appears that multicultural knowledge specific to student athletes is best developed through both a combination of training as a professional counselor and training as an academic coach.

Multicultural Counseling Skills

Hypothesis 3 stated there is no statistically significant difference in multicultural counseling skills utilized with student athletes among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors as measured by the MCSCI. The analysis of the data indicated that there was a significant difference in multicultural counseling skills utilized between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. There was not a significant difference in

multicultural counseling skills utilized between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and professional school counselors. There was not a significant difference in multicultural counseling skills utilized between professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees had higher mean scores on the multicultural counseling skills subscale than Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees.

Multicultural counseling skills is defined as the success with retention of student athlete cases, recognition of and recovery from cultural mistakes, use of non-traditional methods of assessment, counselor self-monitoring, and tailoring structured versus unstructured counseling sessions to the needs of student athletes (Sodowsky et al., 1994). Most multicultural competency models emphasize that multicultural counseling skills are based on multicultural knowledge and awareness (Constantine & Ladany, 2000; D'Andrea et al., 1991; Granello & Wheaton, 1998; Pope-Davis & Ottavi, 1994). Similarly, "the demonstration of a person's skills is contingent on her or his attitudes/beliefs and knowledge about how to perform the task, it stands to reason that attitudes/beliefs and knowledge are in fact precursors to skill demonstration" (Constantine & Ladany, 2000, p. 162; see also Pope-Davis & Ottavi, 1994). Multicultural counseling skills are predicated on knowledge and awareness (Granello & Wheaton, 1998).

The MCSCI subscales were calculated and scored by standard procedures (Sodowsky et al., 1994). Higher mean scores indicate greater self-reported multicultural

counseling competency. Calculation of overall scores is divided into three competency ranges: (a) 40-80 (low), (b) 81-129 (moderate), and (c) 130-160 (high). A total mean score on all four subscales above eighty indicate that participants rate themselves moderately or highly multiculturally competent as measured by the MCSCI. The mean levels for each of the MCSCI subscales reported in this study are consistent with those reported in previous studies using the Multicultural Counseling Inventory (MCI) (Constantine & Ladany, 2000; Granello & Wheaton, 1998; Pope-Davis & Ottavi, 1994; Pope-Davis et al., 1995; Sadowsky et al., 1998; Sadowsky et al., 1994). In this study, the mean scores for the Multicultural Skills subscale was the highest among the four subscales and this is also consistent with previous studies using the MCI (Constantine & Ladany, 2000; Granello & Wheaton, 1998; Pope-Davis & Ottavi, 1994; Pope-Davis et al., 1995; Sadowsky et al., 1998; Sadowsky et al., 1994). Thus, it was not surprising to find a significant difference in multicultural counseling skills between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees since there was also a significant difference in multicultural counseling knowledge between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees.

The results from this study also confirmed Pope-Davis and Ottavi's (1994) findings that counselors who reported high skills without corresponding high knowledge and awareness might have overestimated their multicultural skills. Although professional school counselors had a high mean on the Multicultural Counseling Skills subscale (37.35), their mean on the Multicultural Knowledge subscale was 33.50 and their mean

on the Multicultural Counseling Awareness subscale was 28.75, which both were significantly different from Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees. This suggests that although there was not a significant difference on the multicultural counseling skills between Play It Smart academic coaches and professional school counselors, professional school counselors may be overestimating their multicultural skills utilized for student athletes.

As stated previously for Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, the level of academic training is less predictable. The lack of formal training in counseling may limit Play It Smart academic coaches' ability to use nontraditional methods to assess the athlete's developmental issues and needs and tailor the counseling sessions to meet those needs. On the basis of these findings it appears that as the Play It Smart program continues to grow, there may be a need to hire more or train more effective academic coaches with a combination of both training in counseling and training in providing counseling and support services to student athletes.

Multicultural Counseling Relationship

Hypothesis 4 stated there is no statistically significant difference in the multicultural counseling relationships with student athletes among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors as measured by the MCSCI. The analysis of the data supported this hypothesis. There was no significant difference in multicultural counseling relationships with student athletes among Play It Smart

academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors.

The multicultural counseling relationship is defined as the counselor's interaction process with student athletes, such as counselor's trustworthiness, comfort level, stereotypes of student athletes, and worldview (Sodowsky et al., 1994). The multicultural counseling relationship stands independent of the competencies proposed by Sue et al. (1992), that includes counselors' self awareness, knowledge of client worldviews, and counselor intervention strategies, although all are characteristics of the multicultural counseling process (Sodowsky et al., 1994). Thus, being multiculturally competent requires the ability to integrate awareness, knowledge, and skills while maintaining a positive counseling relationship with the client.

Although there was no significant difference in the multicultural relationship with student athletes among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors, the findings may support the principles and recommendations from the fields of positive youth development, lifespan development interventions, and resilience-based initiatives (Cornelius et al., 2002; NFF Center for Youth Development through Sport, 2004; Petitpas et al., 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005). Athletes must establish close relationships that include the components of empathy and holding young people to high expectations with caring adult mentors. The lack of significant difference between Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees and Play It Smart academic coaches without a degree in counseling may suggest that these professionals are indeed examples of caring adults that

strive to create empathetic and constructive mentoring relationships with student athletes. Similarly, professional school counselors are trained to develop an open and warm therapeutic relationship with clients who may possess similar and different cultural values, attitudes, beliefs, and experiences as part of the counseling process (Sodowsky et al., 1994). It would appear that the multicultural counseling relationship is developed through both professional school counselors' training and Play It Smart academic coaches' training.

Socially Desirable Responding

Hypothesis 5 stated there is no statistically significant relationship between socially desirable responding and the Play It Smart academic coaches and professional school counselors self-report on the MCSCI as measured by the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Form C) (MC-SDS Form C). The analysis of the data indicated that hypothesis five was rejected. There was a significant relationship between socially desirable responding and the Play It Smart academic coaches and professional school counselors self-report on the MCSCI. The following subscales on the MCSCI were all found to be significantly related to socially desirable responding: (a) multicultural awareness of student athletes, (b) multicultural counseling knowledge of student athletes and their developmental needs, (c) multicultural counseling skills utilized for student athletes, and (d) the multicultural counseling relationship with student athletes. Specifically, higher self-report ratings on the MCSCI subscales were significantly positively related to higher Marlowe-Crowne social desirability scores. The findings from this study are consistent with other studies that measured socially desirable responding

with self-reported multicultural counseling competence measures (Constantine & Ladany, 2000; Ponterotto et al., 1996; Sadowsky, 1996; Sadowsky et al., 1998).

Because the MCSCI subscales could be susceptible to socially desirable responding, efforts were taken to control for this variable in the data analysis. The results of the study were analyzed using a MANCOVA. For this study, socially desirable responding was added as a covariate to serve as a control variable for the independent variable and to reduce the error term in the study. Similarly, controlling for socially desirable responding, there were significant differences between levels of the independent variable on three of the four dependent variables.

Analysis

The results of this study indicate that Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, professional school counselors, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees overall self-reported multicultural sports counseling competencies are moderate to high in the following multicultural counseling characteristics: (a) multicultural awareness, (b) multicultural counseling knowledge, (c) multicultural counseling skills, and (d) multicultural counseling relationships. The total adjusted means on all four subscales are 140.44 (high), 127.62 (moderate), and 126.94 (moderate) respectively. Additionally, this study found some significant differences within the multicultural counseling characteristics among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, professional school counselors, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees indicating that academic coaches with counseling degrees seem to be best prepared to work with student athletes. Play It Smart academic

coaches' scores in multicultural awareness, multicultural counseling knowledge, multicultural counseling skills appear to be the highest.

Although the results of this study are encouraging, it may be misleading to assume that the participants in this study are generally multicultural sports counseling competent. For example, a study conducted by Petitpas et al. (2004) found that many Play It Smart academic coaches possess a master's degree in counseling. For this study, there were only nine Play It Smart academic coaches who held degrees in counseling. It could be that there are more Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees however they may have chosen not to participate in this study. The resulted small *n* may have overrepresented academic coaches who are highly motivated to become multicultural competent.

Another confounding situation that may have affected the results was the finding that of the Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, 25% of the participants (*n*=15) were currently enrolled in master's level or doctoral level graduate programs in the helping profession field (e.g., counseling, counseling psychology, sport psychology, or education). It could be logically assumed that these helping profession programs are addressing the components or characteristics necessary to become a multicultural competent helping professional. Specifically, these helping professional trainees may be gaining accurate information regarding diverse cultural groups, developing affirming attitudes and behaviors toward cultural groups, and developing culturally sensitive intervention strategies designed to respond to the developmental

needs of diverse cultural groups, which may be utilized with the student athlete population.

There were twenty-six professional school counselors that participated in this study. The results of this study found that only 12% of the school counselors (n=3) had any formal training/education related to counseling athletes. This presents a major concern because there are over 7 million high school students in the United States who participate in school athletics each year (Stryer et al., 1998; Koester, 2003; NFF Center for Youth Development, 2004). It is extremely important that school counselors become aware of and sensitive to the unique cultural factors that contribute to the difficulties some student athletes may have when counseling athletes.

Training school counselors who are able to address the unique needs of the student athlete population, a group not thought of as a specific and diverse culture, presents major challenges. By extending the principles of multicultural counseling to include athletes, counselor educators and professional school counselors may be in a better position to receive formalized training, respond to the developmental needs of athletes, and enhance the quality of counseling services they provide.

Similarly, the information gained from this study may directly assist the National Football Foundation's Play It Smart program and other programs designed to enhance the development of the athlete population. The results provide documentation for hiring, training, assessing, and evaluating qualified academic coaches. Furthermore, the results of this study may help to define the professional credentials for both high school academic coaches and academic counselors for collegiate student athletes.

Limitations

The major limitations of this study relate to reliability and validity. “Reliability is concerned with how consistently you are measuring whatever you are measuring” (LaFountain & Bartos, 2002). Because there were no appropriate measures available to explore multicultural sports counseling competencies, the Multicultural Counseling Inventory (MCI) was revised specifically for this study. Both the MCI and the MCSCI had stable internal consistency on the multicultural awareness, multicultural counseling knowledge, and multicultural counseling skill subscales. However, the internal consistency on the relationship subscale for both the MCI and MCSCI was low, .68 and .51, respectively. Pope-Davis and Ottavi (1994, p. 653) reported “that the [MCI] inventory has adequate reliability subscale distinctiveness to encourage further use, but may warrant further refinement.” The results of this study should be interpreted taking into account the low internal consistency of the revised multicultural counseling relationship subscale.

“Because counseling is an applied profession designed to help a broad array of individuals in various settings across different times, internal and external validity are very important” (Heppner et al., 1999; LaFountain & Bartos, 2002; Mertler & Vannatta, 2002). Internal validity seeks to investigate if there is a relationship between independent and dependent variables (Heppner et al.; LaFountain & Bartos, 2002; Mertler & Vannatta, 2002). External validity relates to the generalizability of findings across persons, settings, or times (Heppner et al.; LaFountain & Bartos, 2002; Mertler &

Vannatta, 2002). Several limitations preclude the internal and external validity of this study.

First, although the investigator had a few experts from the field of sports counseling and sports psychology review the MCSCI for face validity, there may be a potential threat to statistical conclusion validity. “Statistical conclusion refers to the degree to which the researcher has come to the correct conclusion about this [conclusion that there is a relationship or that there is no relationship] relationship” (Heppner et al., 1999, p. 58). One type of threat to this type of validity is unreliability of measures (Heppner et al.). Unreliable measures may have the potential to introduce error variance and obscure significant findings (Heppner et al.). This potential threat to validity was predicated on G. R. Sadowsky’s (personal communication, July 1, 2005) recommendation, “I wish to bring to your notice that what you have is an adapted MCI. A revision of the MCI would require updating of items, a national sample, and a psychometric study with new norms. Your study does not represent that methodology. I would probably conduct such a study, as it were needed.”

Secondly, all of the participants in this study represented school counseling programs where the high school already had a formalized student athlete service program in place, Play It Smart, limiting the ability to generalize across settings (Heppner et al., 1999; LaFountain & Bartos, 2002; Mertler & Vannatta, 2002). Additionally, the findings from this study are limited in its generalizability by the nonrandom selection of school counselors from the high schools utilizing Play It Smart (Heppner et al.; LaFountain & Bartos, 2002; Mertler & Vannatta, 2002). This lack of a nationally representative sample

poses threats to external validity. Furthermore, the diversity of school counselors and academic coaches with regard to experience levels and the amount of informal training may pose additional limitations (Heppner et al.; LaFountain & Bartos, 2002; Mertler & Vannatta, 2002).

Caution should also be used in generalizing this study's findings because of the possibility that response bias may exist. Response bias may emerge because not all participants were randomly selected (Constantine & Ladany, 2000). Additionally, respondents who completed the questionnaire packets may have had a particular interest in this study and may have differed from the individuals who may not have completed the questionnaires (Constantine & Ladany, 2000). Finally, another potential limitation concerns sample size. For example, the relatively low number of Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees (n=9) limits the generalizability of the study's findings. Based on these sampling characteristics, generalizing conclusions to the population and across population may be difficult (Heppner et al., 1999). Although these limitations may pose threats to the generalizability of the findings, this study does provide a foundation of research that connects multicultural counseling competencies and the training of professionals in schools who provide counseling and support services to student athletes.

Implications for Professional Development

There are several implications for professional development that should be considered. First, an important implication of this study's findings is that counselor education programs may want to consider implementing strategies to address attitudes among trainees in order to increase their awareness of the unique cultural issues in

student athletes' lives and to increase the trainees' self-reported proficiency in working with the student athlete population. In a study by Constantine (2001, p. 208), she found "that the number of previous multicultural counseling courses taken was significantly predictive of self-reported multicultural counseling competence in women school counselors." Thus, it would behoove counselor education programs to incorporate the athlete population as part of the multicultural course curriculum. Trainees, as a result, could then become multiculturally aware and knowledgeable of the student athlete population as a unique cultural group with specific developmental issues.

Second, there may be potential ethical issues that stem from school counselors' lack of multicultural counseling competence that may impact school counselors' service delivery to a unique cultural group, student athletes (Constantine, 2001). The American Counseling Association's Code of Ethics and Standards for Practice (2005), the American Counseling Association's Cross-Cultural Competencies and Objectives (1992), and the American School Counselor Associations Ethical Standards for School Counselors (2004) support this claim. The lack of training regarding the multicultural counseling competencies may be a limitation in working with the student athlete population. It is possible that some school counselors may be providing services that extend beyond their current level of expertise (Hobson & Kanitz, 1996). Thus, a school counselor's potential inability to respond to culturally diverse students, including student athletes, in ways that consider their cultural experiences may result in decreased counseling effectiveness and unethical practice (Constantine, 2001). Over 7 million high school students in the United States participate in school athletics each year (Stryer et al.,

1998; Koester, 2003; NFF Center for Youth Development, 2004). It is extremely important that school counselors are aware of and sensitive to the unique cultural factors that contribute to the difficulties some student athletes may have when counseling athletes.

A third implication of this study's findings is that specialized programs designed to work with student athletes, like the National Football Foundation's Play It Smart program, may be able to provide more specific documentation of the level of multicultural competence required for counselors and academic coaches to be successful working with student athletes. Thus, the results of this study may assist the National Football Foundation's Play It Smart program by supporting the need for the specialized competencies of a sports counselor and increasing the attractiveness of the program to national and state educational policy makers, school districts, school administrators, and professional school counselors.

Recommendations for Future Studies

There are several recommendations for future research studies that are evident from this study. First, one challenge in using existing instruments to measure cultural competence is to ensure that they are relevant for the appropriate population. Many of the existing measures of multicultural counseling competence were developed within the context of psychology and may not be appropriate for counselors who provide services to the athlete population. Future researchers may wish to validate construct information on the MCSCI and determine test-retest reliability. As suggested by Sodowsky (personal

communication, July 1, 2005) this would require updating the items, administering the inventory to a national sample, and conducting a psychometric study with new norms.

Additionally, a replication of this study should be implemented with a larger sample in order to confirm this study's findings. Since this sample size in this study was small and not a random sample of the total population of both professional school counselors and specialized professionals who provide academic, career, and personal counseling services to the athlete population (e.g., scholastic, collegial, and professional organizations), a larger sample could provide more valid and reliable results. A replication of this study should also include practicing school counselors working in school settings that do not utilize the Play It Smart Program. Expanding the study to other school settings will provide more generalizable results.

Future studies should include qualitative research in the area of the culture of student athletes that would manifest rich descriptive data regarding the unique aspects of the student athlete and sports culture. Lastly, future studies may consider replicating this study with practicing school counselors, academic coaches, sports psychologist, and other professionals who provide counseling services to athletes. However, instead of using the MCSCI to measure multicultural counseling competencies specific to student athletes, future studies may consider assessing the general multicultural counseling competencies as outlined by the ACA and the American Psychological Association (APA) using self-report instruments such as the Multicultural Awareness/Knowledge/Skills Survey (MAKSS), the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS), or the MCI. There is very little literature linking the multicultural counseling competencies

with school counseling services, psychological and support services for athletes, and with the athlete population.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to assess and compare the multicultural sports counseling competencies among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, professional school counselors, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees. The results of this study found that there were significant differences in multicultural awareness, multicultural counseling knowledge, and multicultural counseling skills among the three groups. There was no significant difference in the counseling relationship between the three groups.

It is this investigator's belief that this study provided support for the concept that student athletes are a unique cultural group, who present specific developmental issues and needs for counseling professionals who work with this population. This study contributed to the foundation of research that connects multicultural counseling competencies, school counseling, support services for student athletes, and the student athlete population. Furthermore, this study confirmed the importance of professionals having both formal training in providing counseling and support services specifically to student athletes and a counseling degree. By extending the principle of multicultural counseling to include the student athlete population, it is this investigator's hope that counselor educators, professional school counselors, and other professionals working with student athletes may be better prepared to respond to the developmental needs of student athletes, and enhance the quality of counseling services they provide to this

unique cultural group. It is also this investigators hope that this study will provide some documentation of the criteria for hiring, training, assessing, and evaluating professionals who work with athletes at the high school, collegiate, and professional levels. Lastly, it is hoped that this study created excitement and desire for future research in this area.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

School Counseling Department Request

Subj: **Dissertation Assistance**
Date: 5/15/2005 3:53:27 PM Eastern Standard Time
From: PLAYITSMARTPGH
To: academiccoaches@footballfoundation.com

Hello Academic Coaches!

I know many of you are closely approaching the end of the school year and hope that this email finds you well. As some of you are aware, I am in the beginning stages of my dissertation. Thus, the purpose of this email is to request your assistance with a small task for my dissertation..

For my dissertation, I am interested in assessing and comparing self-perceived multicultural sports counseling competencies among professional school counselors and Play It Smart Academic Coaches. The multicultural sports counseling competencies have been derived from the American Counseling Association's multicultural competencies and will focus specifically on the athlete population.

Later this summer, I will be sending a survey to all the professional school counselor's at each of the Play It Smart high schools. Would it be possible for each of you to email me the name of your high school, address, the number of school counselor's on staff, and the name of the head of the guidance department? This information would be greatly appreciated.

If you have any questions, please don't hesitate to email me or call me. I appreciate and thank you for your assistance in advance.

Taunya Tinsley
Regional Coordinator
The National Football Foundation
and College Hall of Fame's
Play It Smart Program
(412) 727-2441 office
(412) 657-2063 cell

Sunday, May 22, 2005 America Online: PLAYITSMARTPGH

Appendix B

Director of School Counselor Program

Letter of Participation

DUQUESNE UNIVERSITY

600 FORBES AVENUE ♦ PITTSBURGH, PA 15282

THE SELF-REPORTED MULTICULTURAL SPORTS COUNSELING COMPETENCIES AMONG PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL COUNSELORS AND PLAY IT SMART ACADEMIC COACHES

Dear Director of the School Counseling Program:

I am currently involved in a research project that seeks to investigate and compare the self-reported multicultural sports counseling competencies among professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches. The project seeks to provide a foundation of research that connects multicultural counseling competencies, school counseling, and the athlete population. The study is performed as partial fulfillment of the requirements for my doctoral degree in Counselor Education and Supervision at Duquesne University.

Professional school counselors' participation in this project will provide useful information on this topic. Your school's counseling staff qualifies for participation if each member is currently employed as a professional school counselor in a Play It Smart designated high school. Each school counselor is being asked to complete two surveys and a demographic form that will take about 15 minutes.

Participation in this study is strictly voluntary. Any of the school counselors may withdraw from the study at any point without penalty. All data from this project are confidential and will be used for research purposes only. Data from the demographic form and surveys are anonymous. Names of participants will not be connected to information and scores. Completing and returning, the Personal Reaction Inventory, the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI), and the demographic form implies to the investigator that the school counselors have read the informed consent and agreed to participate in the current study. Additionally, your school will not be identified in any way in the data analysis or summaries.

Enclosed are enough research packets for you and your school's counseling staff. Would you please distribute the research packets to the school counselors' on staff?

Thank you for your assistance,

Taunya Tinsley, M.A., doctoral candidate
National Football Foundation's
Play It Smart Program
Regional Coordinator
412-657-2063

William J. Casile, Ph.D.
Dissertation Chair

Appendix C

School Counselor's Letter of Participation

DUQUESNE UNIVERSITY

600 FORBES AVENUE ♦ PITTSBURGH, PA 15282

THE SELF-REPORTED MULTICULTURAL SPORTS COUNSELING COMPETENCIES AMONG PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL COUNSELORS AND PLAY IT SMART ACADEMIC COACHES

Dear Colleague,

I am currently involved in a research project that seeks to investigate and compare the self-reported multicultural sports counseling competencies among professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches. The project seeks to provide a foundation of research that connects multicultural counseling competencies, school counseling, and the athlete population. The study is performed as partial fulfillment of the requirements for my doctoral degree in Counselor Education and Supervision at Duquesne University.

Your participation in this project will provide useful information on this topic. You qualify for participation if you are currently employed as a school counselor in a Play It Smart designated high school or employed by the National Football Foundation's Play It Smart Program as an academic coach. You will be asked to complete a demographic form and two surveys that will take about 15 minutes.

Participation in this study is strictly voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any point without penalty. All data from this project are confidential and will be used for research purposes only. Data from the demographic form and surveys are anonymous. Names of participants will not be connected to information and scores. Completing and returning, the Personal Reaction Inventory, the Multicultural Sports Counseling Inventory (MCSCI), and the demographic form implies to the investigator that you have read the informed consent and agreed to participate in the current study.

Thank you for your assistance,

Taunya Tinsley, M.A., doctoral candidate
National Football Foundation
Play It Smart Program
Regional Coordinator
412-657-2063

William J. Casile, Ph.D.
Dissertation Chair

Appendix D

Consent to Participate in Research Study

DUQUESNE UNIVERSITY

600 FORBES AVENUE ♦ PITTSBURGH, PA 15282

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

- TITLE:** THE SELF-REPORTED MULTICULTURAL SPORTS COUNSELING COMPETENCIES AMONG PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL COUNSELORS AND PLAY IT SMART ACADEMIC COACHES
- INVESTIGATOR:** Taunya Marie Tinsley, M.A.
1620 Penn Avenue
Pittsburgh, PA 15221
(412) 727-1624
playitsmartpgh@aol.com
- ADVISOR:** William J. Casile, Ph.D.
Duquesne University
110B Canevin Hall
Pittsburgh, PA 15282
412.396.6112
casile@duq.edu
- SOURCE OF SUPPORT:** This study is being performed as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the doctoral degree in Counselor Education and Supervision at Duquesne University.
- PURPOSE:** You are being asked to participate in a research project that seeks to investigate and compare the multicultural sports counseling competencies among professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches. These are the only requests that will be made of you.
- METHOD:** You are being asked to complete the Personal Reaction Inventory that was developed by Douglas P. Crowne and David Marlowe and revised by William M. Reynolds. Additionally, you are being asked to complete the Multicultural Sports

Counseling Inventory (MCSCI) that was developed by Gargi Roysircar Sodowsky and revised by the investigator. Finally, you are being asked to complete a demographic questionnaire that was developed by the investigator.

You are being contacted by mail (or in person) with a research packet containing a cover letter that requests your participation in the proposed study. Included in the research packet is this informed consent form, a copy of the Personal Reaction Inventory, a copy of the MCSCI, a demographic questionnaire, and a self-addressed stamped envelope for you to return the completed forms. If you choose to participate, please read this Consent to Participate form. In addition, complete the Personal Reaction Inventory, the MCSCI, and the demographic questionnaire, place in the self-addressed stamped return envelope, and mail it to the project investigator. Completing and returning the instruments indicates your consent and voluntary participation in the study. All the forms will take about 15 minutes for you to complete. Anonymity will be maintained, as you are not asked to identify yourself. For the purpose of analysis, only the aggregate data will be used, not individual data. All materials will be destroyed six years after the completion of the data collection process.

RISKS AND BENEFITS:

The risks associated with this study are no more than would be experienced in everyday life. Your data will benefit both the field of school counseling and student athletes by better understanding the perceptions and relationships between these groups.

COMPENSATION:

Participation in this project will require no monetary cost to you and you will not be compensated in any way for your participation.

CONFIDENTIALITY:

Anonymity will be maintained, as your name will never appear on any survey or research instruments. All surveys and instruments received will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in the researcher's home. Your response(s) will only appear in statistical data

summaries so your individual answers will never be known to readers of the research. All materials will be destroyed six years following data collection.

RIGHT TO WITHDRAW:

You are under no obligation to participate in this study. You are free to withdraw your consent to participate at any time. If you choose to withdraw from the study, your data will not be included in the data analysis.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS:

A summary of the results of this research will be supplied to you, at no cost, upon request.

VOLUNTARY CONSENT:

I have read the above statements and understand what is being requested of me. I also understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw my consent at any time, for any reason. On these terms, I certify that I am willing to participate in this research project and will return the completed surveys to the investigator. I understand that returning the completed surveys conveys my informed consent form and voluntary participation in the current study.

I understand that should I have any further questions about my participation in this study, I may call Taunya Tinsley, the investigator at 412-657-2063 or Dr. Paul Richer, Chair of the Duquesne University Institutional Review Board at 412-396-6326.

Appendix E
Demographic Questionnaire

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Please fill out the following information as honestly and carefully as possible. Please fill in the ovals completely.

1. Are you a: Play It Smart Academic Coach School Counselor
 Both

2. Do you hold this position: Full-time Part-time

3. Gender: Male Female

4. Age (in years): _____

5. Race/Ethnicity: American Indian/Alaskan Native
 Asian
 Black or African American
 Hispanic or Latino
 Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
 White or Caucasian
 Other (please specify) _____

6. Do you have a Counseling Degree? Yes No

7. Highest Degree Earned: Bachelor
 Masters of Arts
 Masters of Science
 Doctorate of Philosophy
 Doctorate of Psychology
 Doctorate of Education
 Other (please specify) _____

Major area of study (please list all):

8. Currently in school? Yes No

If yes, working toward what degree?

- Bachelor
- Masters of Arts
- Masters of Science
- Doctorate of Philosophy
- Doctorate of Psychology

Doctorate of Education

Other (please specify) _____

If currently in school, what is your major area of study:

9. Number of years doing clinical/counseling work: _____

10. Percent of time doing clinical /counseling work with athletes over the past year: _____

11. Have you received any formal training/education on counseling athletes?

Yes No

If yes, please describe _____

12. Have you received any multicultural counseling training/education? Yes No

If yes, please describe _____

13. How many years have you been employed in your current position: _____

14. Did you actively participate on a high school, college, or university sports or athletic team? Yes No

Appendix F

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale – Form C

Personal Reaction Inventory

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is true or false as it pertains to you personally. Indicate your response by circling T (true) or F (false).

1. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged. T F
2. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way. T F
3. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability. T F
4. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right. T F
5. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener. T F
6. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone. T F
7. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake. T F
8. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. T F
9. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable. T F
10. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own. T F
11. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others. T F
12. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me. T F
13. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings. T F

Appendix G

Reminder Cover Letter

DUQUESNE UNIVERSITY

600 FORBES AVENUE ♦ PITTSBURGH, PA 15282

THE SELF-REPORTED MULTICULTURAL SPORTS COUNSELING COMPETENCIES AMONG PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL COUNSELORS AND PLAY IT SMART ACADEMIC COACHES

Dear Colleague:

Thank you to those of you who have participated in my research project that seeks to investigate and compare the self-reported multicultural sports counseling competencies among professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches. I sincerely appreciate your time and effort. As my deadline for data collection approaches, I ask that anyone else still interested in participating, please consider completing the attached surveys at your earliest convenience. For those still interested, the following is the information on my study:

I am conducting a research project that seeks to investigate and compare the self-reported multicultural sports counseling competencies among professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches. The study is performed as partial fulfillment of the requirements for my doctoral degree in Counselor Education and Supervision at Duquesne University.

You qualify for participation if you are currently employed as a school counselor in a Play It Smart designated high school or employed by the National Football Foundation's Play It Smart Program as an academic coach. You will be asked to complete a demographic form and two surveys that will take about 15 minutes.

If you meet these criteria, I invite you to participate in this study by downloading the attached documents where you will receive more detailed information.

Thank you for your assistance,

Taunya Tinsley, M.A., doctoral candidate
National Football Foundation
Play It Smart Program
Regional Coordinator
412-657-2063

William J. Casile, Ph.D.
Dissertation Chair

Appendix H
Pictorial Representation of Findings

Figure Captions

Figure H1. Pictorial representation of hypothesis 1, multicultural awareness of professional school counselors, Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees.

Figure H2. Pictorial representation of hypothesis 2, multicultural counseling knowledge of professional school counselors, Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees.

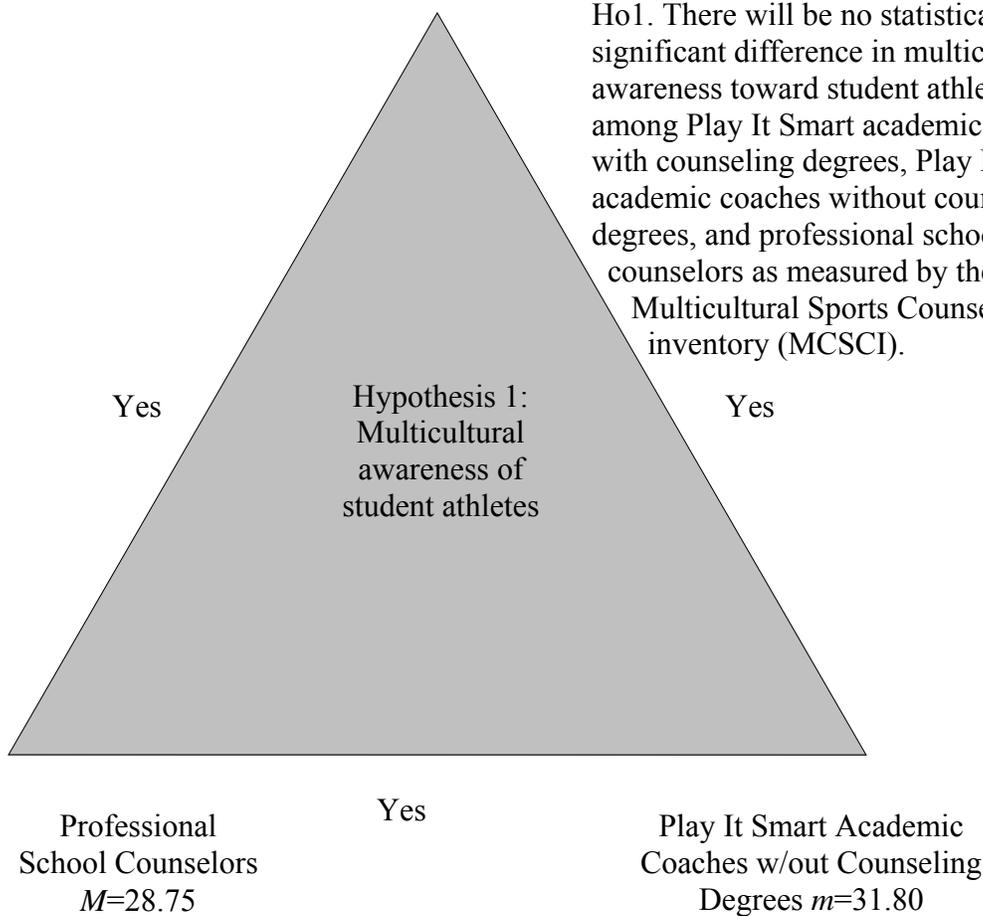
Figure H3. Pictorial representation of hypothesis 3, multicultural counseling skills of professional school counselors, Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees.

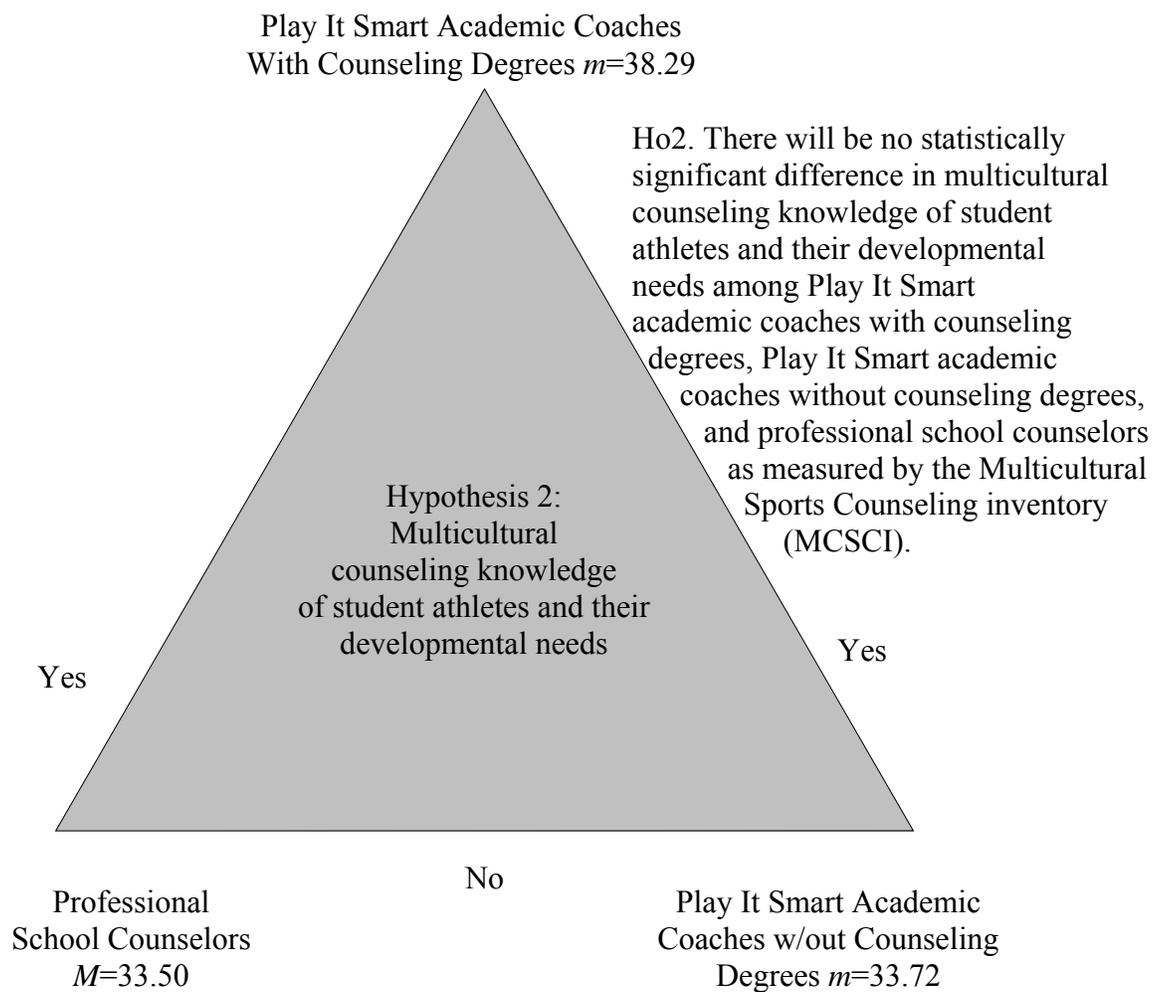
Figure H4. Pictorial representation of hypothesis 4, multicultural counseling relationship of professional school counselors, Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, and Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees.

Figure H5. Pictorial representation of hypothesis 5, relationship between socially desirable responding of the professional school counselors and Play It Smart academic coaches self-reported multicultural counseling competencies.

Play It Smart Academic Coaches
With Counseling Degrees $m=36.67$

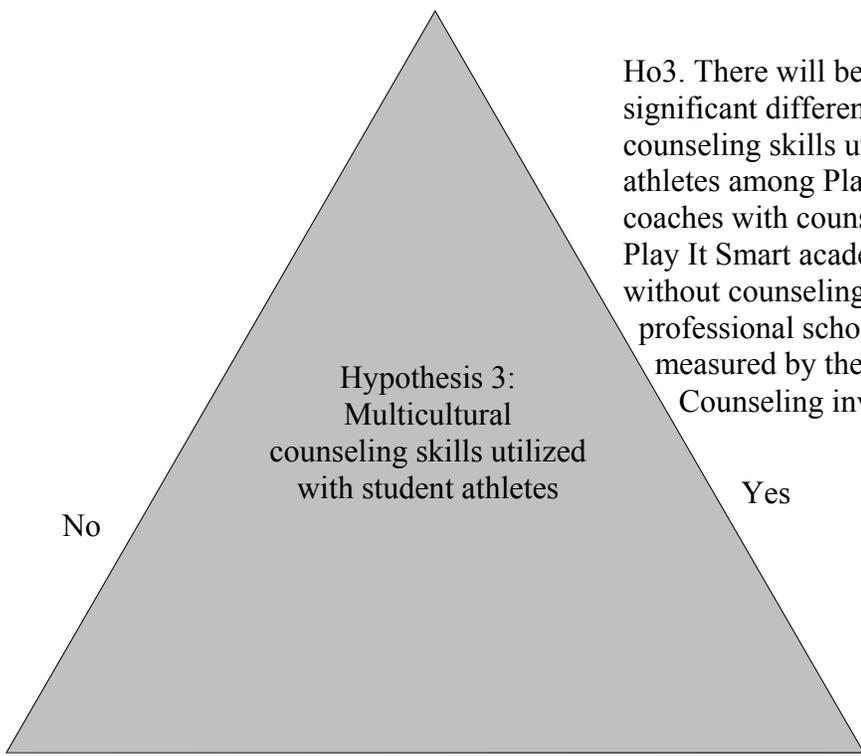
Ho1. There will be no statistically significant difference in multicultural awareness toward student athletes among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors as measured by the Multicultural Sports Counseling inventory (MCSCI).





Play It Smart Academic Coaches
With Counseling Degrees $m=40.39$

Ho3. There will be no statistically significant difference in multicultural counseling skills utilized with student athletes among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors as measured by the Multicultural Sports Counseling inventory (MCSCI).



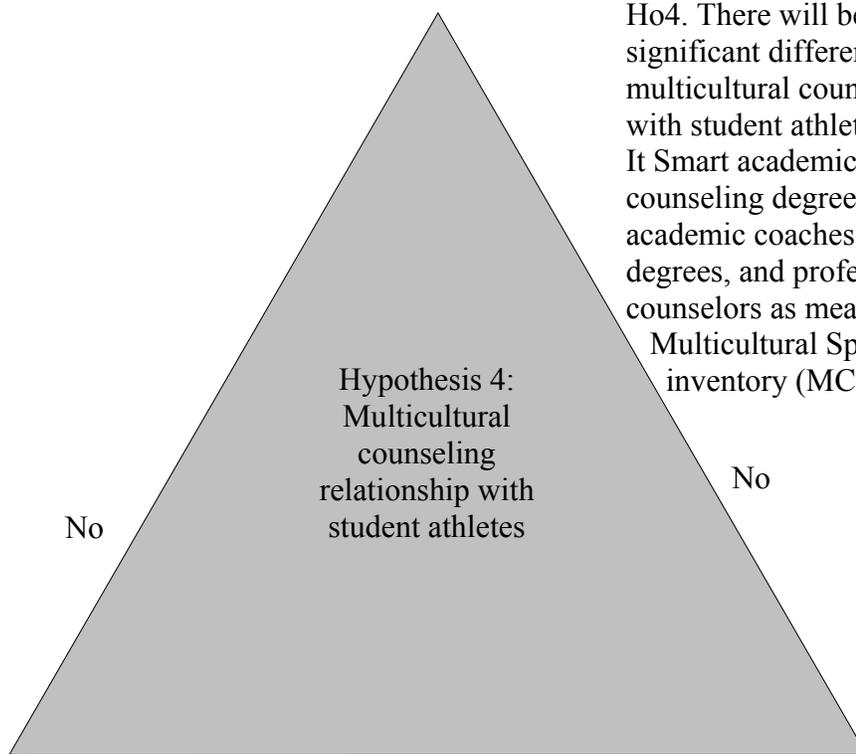
Professional
School
Counselors
 $m=37.35$

No

Play It Smart Academic
Coaches w/out Counseling
Degrees $m=36.06$

Play It Smart Academic Coaches
With Counseling Degrees $m=26.94$

Ho4. There will be no statistically significant difference in the multicultural counseling relationship with student athletes among Play It Smart academic coaches with counseling degrees, Play It Smart academic coaches without counseling degrees, and professional school counselors as measured by the Multicultural Sports Counseling inventory (MCSCI).



No

Hypothesis 4:
Multicultural
counseling
relationship with
student athletes

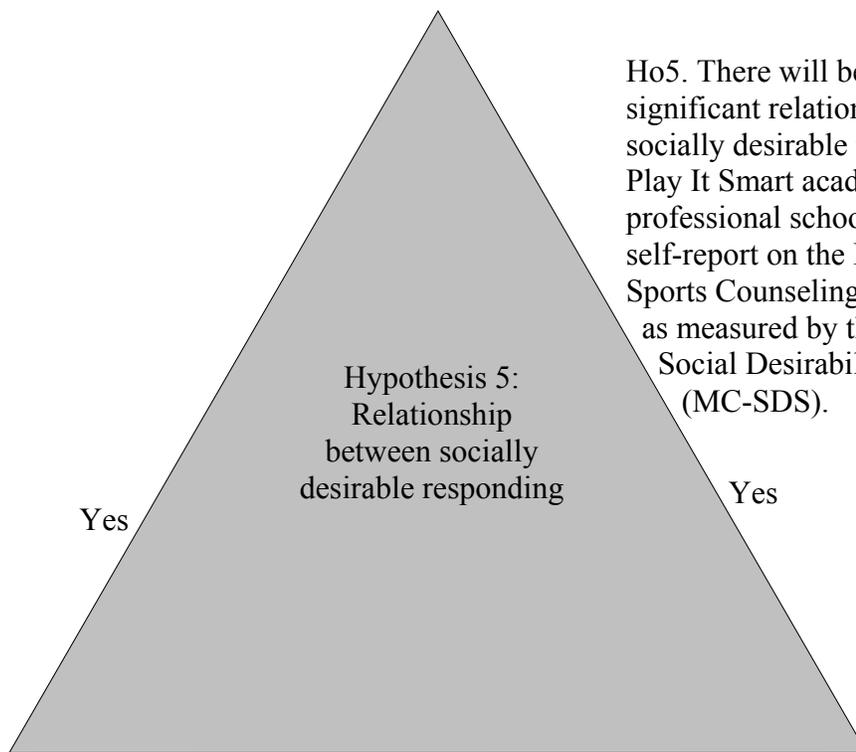
No

Professional
School Counselors
 $m=26.93$

No

Play It Smart Academic
Coaches w/out Counseling
Degrees $m=25.39$

Play It Smart Academic Coaches
With Counseling Degrees



Ho5. There will be no statistically significant relationship between socially desirable responding and the Play It Smart academic coaches and professional school counselors self-report on the Multicultural Sports Counseling inventory (MCSCI) as measured by the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Form C) (MC-SDS).

Professional
School
Counselors

Yes

Play It Smart Academic
Coaches w/out Counseling
Degrees