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The effects of learned time management skills on the academic and sport identities of NCAA Division III women student-volleyball athletes

Fischer, Kim Ellen, Ph.D.
The Ohio State University, 1994
THE EFFECTS OF LEARNED TIME MANAGEMENT SKILLS
ON THE ACADEMIC AND SPORT IDENTITIES
OF NCAA DIVISION III WOMEN STUDENT-VOLLEYBALL ATHLETES

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree, Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School of
The Ohio State University

By

Kim Ellen Fischer, B.A., M.A.

The Ohio State University

1994

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this research project to the honor of my mother and to my special friend, Cindy.

To my mother for the model she always provided and for the sacrifices she always made for her children. If only I can be half the person she was to others in her shortened lifetime, in giving wholeheartedly in loving and caring for others more than for herself, then my life will be of value.

To my friend Cindy whose life was cut so short and for whom I promised I would try to live twice as hard and twice as good to make up for the world's loss.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Certainly many people need to be given recognition for “putting up” with me over the course of the five years that I have been completing my doctoral studies. My family has definitely been interested and supportive of me in my attempts to get, yet another, degree! My Bluffton family has been equally supportive and I want to give special “thanks” to Betty McDowell especially for her work on typing and revising and duplicating the time management program materials, to Tammy Brandt who has served as my student secretary as well as my Macintosh “wizard” for all of her help and encouragement., to Mayo Abuyo whose patience with me was exemplary , and to all the BC softball and volleyball teams who have lived with my moods and my short temper for these last five years! Thanks especially to Dr. Nelson, Dr. Curry and Dr. Barrick! My OSU experience was the best because of them. Most of all, I need to show my appreciation to my roommates, Kristie Conley and Michele Durand, through this ordeal! Since my primary workspace in writing his effort has been my home, I have invaded the privacy and the quiet of this place for these two. Thanks especially for your support and interest and for giving me “space” when you knew I needed it.
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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DEDICATION</th>
<th>ii</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VITA</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF FIGURES</td>
<td>viii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER PAGE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introductory Statement</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of the Problem</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of the Study</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypotheses</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations of the Study</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Assumptions</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition of Terms</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introductory Statement</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Management Programs, Systems and</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materials</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Academic Performance of Athletes</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research on Identity Theory</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Comparison of salience rankings and ratings</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Frequencies of respondents by school and test administration</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. T-tests: academic identity variables by test administration and treatment group</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. T-tests: sport identity variables by test administration and treatment group</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Satisfaction through athletic participation: scale and item statistics</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FIGURES</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Forced choice rank of academic identity by test administration and treatment group</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Importance rating of academic identity by test administration and treatment group</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Self-involvement in academic role by test administration and treatment group</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Others' expectations of academic work by test administration treatment group</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Satisfaction through academic involvement by test administration and treatment group</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Hours spent in academic role by test administration and treatment group</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Forced choice ranking of sport identity by test administration and treatment group</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Importance rating of sport identity by test administration and treatment group</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Self-involvement in athletic role by test administration and treatment group</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Others' expectations of athletic participation by test administration treatment group</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Satisfaction through athletic participation by test administration and treatment group</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Hours spent in athletic role by test administration and treatment group</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Intercollegiate athletics, according to Mihalich (1982), is an integral and constructive dimension of educational and social development, an important part of the total college experience. "Sports and athletics provide the greatest opportunity for the greatest number of people to achieve and witness human excellence. Intercollegiate sports and athletic programs are probably the most popular and also the most controversial area in the contemporary sports scene. The true nature and purpose of intercollegiate sports programs in the context of the pursuit of higher education" is constantly being debated (p. 93). The intercollegiate student-athlete is often the central figure in this controversy.

In a review article assessing the value of intercollegiate athletics, sport philosopher and Journal of Philosophy of Sport editor Klaus Meier, extolled sport and athletics as "true educational components of the liberal arts program" citing the development of personal identity, of new perceptions and awareness of self, and growth in knowledge as outgrowths of such involvement (in Mihalich, 1982, p. 102). Joan Hult (1980), in her article "The Philosophical Conflicts in Men's and Women's Collegiate Athletics," contended that higher education accomplishes its function as an intellectual, social and moral agency through informal (sport) as well as formal education. Many others have extolled the virtues of intercollegiate sports and athletics yet critics of such have also been heard. Criticism throughout the history of intercollegiate sport has not
been unlike that of Thorsteen Veblen, one of the most perceptive critics of the American universities' use of sport at the turn of the twentieth century. He described the increase in the "accessories" of college life, the extracurricular activities such as sports, as one of the "drawbacks to the cause of learning" (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1989, p. 147). Veblen saw the increase in these "accessories" as a result of the "business regime" that governed colleges and described them as "indispensable, or unavoidable; not for scholarly work, of course" and noted that such "...adds appreciably, and adds a highly valued contribution, to the number enrolled; and it gives also a certain, highly appreciated, loud tone ("college spirit") to the student body; and so it is felt to benefit the corporation of learning by drawing public attention" (1989, p. 147).

The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) was formed in 1905 as a result of the concerns of those in higher education for the violence and injuries occurring in organized collegiate football. Since the inception of this governing body for intercollegiate sport, there have been criticisms of its goals and philosophy. Harold Savage criticized the NCAA in the 1929 Carnegie Foundation Report as having greater financial and commercial concerns than educational ones. The "Conference on Conferences," convened in 1946, passed policies regarding amateurism, institutional control, academic standards, financial aid and recruiting. In 1974, the American Council on Education reported on the role of athletics in higher education and listed commercialism, recruiting excesses, exploitation of athletes, and the questionable relationship between athletic programs and academic programs as criticisms. Twenty years later, criticisms of intercollegiate athletics have not changed. In spite of the critics, intercollegiate athletics has been an integral part of higher education, a situation which is likely to continue.
Women’s athletics at institutions of higher education has had a different history and philosophy of participation than intercollegiate athletics for men. Although organized intercollegiate competition for women occurred sporadically throughout the late nineteenth century and into the twentieth century, it was not until 1972 as the result of the passage of Title IX of the Educational Amendment Act, that a substantial increase in athletic participation opportunities for women was evidenced at colleges and universities.

An outgrowth of the Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (CIAW), the Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) was founded in 1971 for the purpose of developing and providing a new form of athletics for women. “It has a vision of freedom from the ‘athletic jungle’ and an opportunity to lead the world of athletics into a better way of operation which is free from the business approach and the winning syndrome” (in Hult, 1980, p.88). This organization served as the governing body of women’s intercollegiate sport until 1981 when the larger and more powerful NCAA took over control of such after its attempts to gain exemption of intercollegiate athletics from Title IX failed.

Under the guidance of AIAW, women’s participation in college sport increased over 150% from 1971 to 1981. In 1973-74, 79% of the women intercollegiate athletic programs had women in charge of them while 81% of the coaches of women’s intercollegiate teams were women (Birrell, 1987). In the current combined men’s and women’s governance structure, coaching and administrative positions are largely filled by men and there has been a change in the philosophy of sport for women such that it has become more closely aligned with the economic model of the men (Birrell, 1987). Knoppers (1989) poses three structural factors for this change in representation of women in
coaching and administrative positions and philosophy of sport for women. These factors include (1) lack of opportunity for women to advance into administration which makes coaching, the usual avenue to administration, less attractive to women than men, (2) the presence of an "old boys' network" which places most of the power and therefore, access to resources and information, in the hands of men not women, and, (3) the fact that few women are involved in coaching and administration which prevents action when unfair practices occur. Hasbrook (1988) offers several social psychological factors that might affect the likelihood that a female coach will be hired. Male administrators often believe women are underqualified regardless their credentials and also seem to be more likely than female administrators to believe that women are unable or unwilling to accept the burden of travel and long hours associated with coaching.

The existing sport structure is male-dominated and perpetuates patriarchal power and privilege, the uncritical acceptance of which contributes to the oppression of women participants (Beck, 1980; Messner and Sabo, 1990). An overemphasis on winning and competition in male-controlled sport settings runs against the values and ideals that many believe should be instilled in women (Hall, 1978; Birrell, 1984). Concerns about women's participation in this male-dominated sport context have received some empirical support. According to Blinde and Greendorfer (1992), women's intercollegiate sport in the United States has experienced an unprecedented change since the early 1970's including tremendous growth in the areas of budget allocation, availability of scholarships, recruitment of student-athletes, travel, program offerings, scheduling, post-season championships, spectatorship, participation rates and media coverage. These changes have altered "the structural and
philosophical context of women’s intercollegiate athletic programs, a situation which has resulted in the creation of more product-oriented, commercialized, professionalized, and bureaucratized programs, a change that represents a move toward the existent ‘male model’ of intercollegiate sport” (p. 98). To assess the possible impact of these structural and philosophical changes on the experiences of women athletes, these researchers synthesized the results from five separate research studies undertaken in the 1980’s. They found that pre-Title IX athletes, athletes of the 1970’s, athletes in more process-oriented athletic programs and current NCAA Division III athletes shared common sport experiences different than post-Title IX athletes, athletes of the 1980’s, athletes in more product-oriented programs and current NCAA Division I athletes. The latter group, who were women athletes participating in athletic programs resembling those of the men, had common experiences. The presence of four different types of conflict, those of value alienation, role strain, role conflict, and exploitation, were pervasive in their experiences. “The changing context and emphases of college sport may have exposed female athletes to different sets of circumstances, expectations, and experiences, thus altering the nature of the sport experience and bringing into question the educational legitimacy of college sport” (p. 97). Blinde and Greendorfer contend that the “application of the male model of sport and the male value system as the standard for women’s programs has created an environment that has increased the potential for conflict as well as sporting experiences which are at variance with women’s lived experiences” (p. 111). These investigators challenge future researchers to explore other outcomes of women’s sport participation such as self-actualization, development of competence, and empowerment of women through sport participation similar to the work of Theberge (1987) who
discovered that women developed a positive sense of self, enhanced attitudes about their bodies, a spirit of cooperation and increased self-actualization in her study of woman-controlled sport organizations, feminist sport leagues, and lesbian teams.

Blinde, Taub and Han (1993), despite previously cited negative outcomes for women athletes in sport settings primarily controlled and dominated by men, examined the experiences of women athletes in NCAA Division I intercollegiate sport programs to determine whether, in this context, sport was capable of “providing women with qualities and experiences that can assist in challenging their disadvantaged position in society” (p. 49). These investigators telephone interviewed 24 women intercollegiate athletes to explore ways in which sport facilitated the personal empowerment of women athletes. Defining empowerment as the “process by which individuals in a disadvantaged social group develop skills and abilities to gain control over their lives and to take action to improve their life situation” (p. 47), these investigators concluded that “although intercollegiate athletics is not an empowered institution in terms of women’s position in this structure, it may nevertheless represent an empowering institution at the personal level” (p. 59). They found that the female “sport experience is related to the development of three empowering qualities women traditionally lack: (a) bodily competence, (b) perceptions of a competent self, and (c) a proactive approach to life” (p. 47). From such a perspective, women can be personally empowered to take control of their lives in and out of the sport experience.

All intercollegiate athletes, men or women, need to find personal satisfaction through their participation. It is necessary that athletes be motivated to participate in sport for other reasons than to be victorious against an
opponent. If proponents of intercollegiate athletics continue to extol the virtues of sport as part of the educational institution, then these "virtues" must be enumerated and visible. Unfortunately for the student-athlete, these "virtues" can be rather difficult to illuminate because he/she has two sets of responsibilities and obligations to assume and two sets of goals and objectives to meet. This situation might be likened to the theater or music performance student who has the desire to be a student, but at the same time is confronted by the demands of performing as an athlete, an actress/actor, or musician. These "players", as this researcher will refer to them, are required and expected to succeed in both areas, the dual demand on their time and energy serves to intensify and complicate the normal routine of the college experience. Not only is there one area of their life vying for their finite time and energy, that of being a student, but there is also another area demanding similar possession of time and energy resources. With these dual role demands come additional possibilities for success and failure with all the "attendant anxieties, persistent hopes, natural fears" (Mihalich, 1982, p. 98). For the athlete in particular, physical and psychological pressures result because of the inflexibility of athletic participation and because of continual demands for physical and mental readiness on a relentless daily schedule that exists either consciously or subconsciously in the student-athlete's mind, pressures much more demanding than for the student not engaged in some performance-based activity.

Adler and Adler (1991) traced the development of athletes' experiences as members of an NCAA Division I basketball program where they found players were confronted with conflicting and competing social, academic, and athletic roles. They found that most of the athletes had started their college careers caring about the academic role and intending to graduate, only to
become increasingly influenced by their athletic involvement which, by the time their athletic eligibility was complete, showed a structure of deindividuation. The authors describe this "role-engulfment" as costly to the individual player since he immersed himself in the athletic role to the abandonment of alternative goals and priorities (p. 27-28).

Meyer (1990) interviewed female team sport athletes at a NCAA Division I institution in an effort to replicate the idea of the Adler study. She found that the women entered college with similar expectations and attitudes as the male athletes but that differences emerged with time concerning the importance of academics. Both groups entered college with idealistic views of education but unlike the women, this optimism weakened after one year for the men. The women took an active role in course selection and program development, encouraged each other academically and discouraged any form of special consideration from professors and administrators because of their athletic abilities. The men in the Adler study discouraged each other academically, relied on coaches to select courses and degree programs, and expected special consideration as a result of their athletic abilities. This change in the men was attributed to the athletic subculture in which they lived, an anti-intellectual one compared to the prointellectual one of the women.

Meyer suggested several reasons for these subcultural differences. Because of the recognition that male athletes receive for their athletic prowess, academics is often viewed as a peripheral activity. Women athletes, because of less recognition received for their athletic abilities as well as the androcentric nature of sport, might concentrate more on both athletics and academics. "Similarly, the absence of pressure and of overemphasis on sport from significant others may have led the women to realistically evaluate the monetary importance of
sport to their future" (p. 56). Lastly, because of differing socioeconomic backgrounds of the men versus the women, the latter might have focused their efforts on academic rather than athletic pursuits.

Not only are student-athletes pressured by daily demands of dual roles but even today's average college student is pressed by many daily demands that might not have been typically experienced by his or her parents. Roles have changed creating new family patterns and new roles for men and for women. These changing roles and family patterns have affected students who are in tune to the growing demands for consumer products and the longer working hours required to afford them. Students, to afford a college education and in an attempt to keep college loans to a manageable amount, are often forced to work full-time during the summer and often times during the school year. Unlike the Division I student-athlete, the NCAA permits the Division III student-athlete to work during the academic year, a situation in which many athletes find they almost have to put themselves in order to afford their college education. Another role, that of work or employment, is added to the dual role demands that the student-athlete is already attempting to manage. At the same time, the student-athlete feels the time and commitment pressure from coaches, peers, and family members required to be "good" in the student and the athlete role as well as the other roles she/he assumes.

Are the pressures of being a collegiate student-athlete different, however, than what one will eventually be confronted with as part of "corporate America"? How are multiple role demands and physical and psychological pressures experienced by the student-athlete different from what one will face in life after college? Gai Berlage (1982), in her study of 11- and 12-year-old boys' competitive soccer and ice hockey teams in Connecticut and New York State,
found evidence in support of the research question she was exploring: Are children's competitive team sports socializing agents for corporate America? Berlage found that the adult organizational structure for the soccer and hockey programs resembled the structural organization of American corporations with its board of directors, executive officers, management heads for publicity, procurement, community relations, travel teams, and intramural teams. In addition, the values stressed in children's competitive sport were found to be similar to corporate values. Values of teamwork such as learning to be a part of a team and stressing the effort of the group over the individual, as well as self-discipline, leadership and competitiveness were mentioned by fathers of players as important values learned through competitive team sport. This belief is in line with the corporate values needed to be successful professionally according to Berlage's review of the "new" corporate ethic of Whyte and the new "organizational imperative" of Scott and Hart (p. 310-311). Whether people's perceptions are true or not, many people believe that sport is capable of building qualities and developing skills in the participant that will help in future occupational success.

Today, it would be rare to find an NCAA Division I athletic department that does not require involvement of its athletes in a program specially designed to help them manage the student and athlete roles. Such programs feature drug and alcohol seminars, classes in time management and study skills, academic advising and individual and group tutoring opportunities as well as others in an effort to help the student-athlete with the demands of his/her roles. In contrast, the typical NCAA Division III athletic program might provide special services such as these but most frequently such opportunities are not unlike those provided for the general student body.
At the same time, coaches are constantly searching for ways to improve athletic performance. Player improvement in the physical realm is where most coaches spend the majority of their practice and planning time. Potentially, player improvement in other areas could translate into improved physical performance. After 15 years of collegiate coaching experience at an institution which stresses service as its mission and believing that all coaches have a personal responsibility to attempt to make better people of those we coach, it seems that the athletic realm in which coaches and players spend so much of their personal resources would be the appropriate place to teach the concepts of time. It could be hypothesized that skill in managing one's time would empower women sport participants, for instance, in that it would enable them to gain control over their lives and to take action to improve their life situations such that they could better challenge their disadvantaged position in sport and in society.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The determination of priorities and the clarification of roles and long-range goals and short-range objectives within such roles are necessary in using one's time and energy resources efficiently and effectively. Although proficiency in such could empower one in dealing with life's events, concepts of time management are not always taught to collegiate student-athletes let alone used consistently even though such could be beneficial in future professional and personal life as well as useful in handling the demands of the numerous roles one assumes as a collegiate student-athlete. Will there be any difference in the satisfaction derived from participating on the volleyball team or in academic life for the student-athlete receiving instruction in time management
principles and strategies versus that student-athlete not receiving such instruction? Will a player exposed to time management instruction be more involved in her role as student or as volleyball player than one not instructed in time principles? Will an athlete trained in time management perceive of herself as more in control of her life as opposed to a person not receiving such training?

PURPOSE OF STUDY

The purpose of this study is to gain a greater understanding of the experience of the non-scholarship collegiate woman athlete through exploring and describing the effects of learned time management skills on the sport and academic identities and on the satisfaction derived from the student and athlete roles. This research will also focus on the creation of a time management program specific to the needs of the student-athlete which might be used as a model for similar programs for athletes and for the general student population on other NCAA Division III campuses.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses to be tested are:

1a. The athletes who receive time management training will develop greater involvement in their academic roles as shown by ranking and rating the importance of this identity higher than those in the control group.

1b. The athletes who receive time management training will develop greater self-involvement in the academic role than those in the control group.

1c. The athletes who receive time management training will have greater expectations from others for the academic role than those in the control group.
1d. The athletes who receive time management training will derive greater satisfaction from their academic participation than those in the control group.

2a. The athletes who receive time management training will develop greater involvement in their sport roles as shown by ranking and rating the importance of this identity higher than those in the control group.

2b. The athletes who receive time management training will develop greater self-involvement in the sport role than those in the control group.

2c. The athletes who receive time management training will have greater expectations from others for the sport role than those in the control group.

2d. The athletes who receive time management training will derive greater satisfaction from their sport participation than those in the control group.

3. The athletes who receive time management training will perceive themselves as becoming more in control of their lives. (Changes will be assessed through qualitative observations.)

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. This study is limited to the women respondents of NCAA Division III athletic programs in western Ohio and Kentucky.

2. This study is limited to women's intercollegiate team sports.

3. Since subjects were not randomly assigned to treatment nor treatment to groups, there will be no definite proof of a causal sequence. Under the circumstances, since an experimental design was not feasible, this design provides a reasonable basis for inferring causality (Aronson and Carlsmith, 1969, p. 8).

4. Since this investigator is developing and implementing the time management program with athletes she coaches, there is the possibility of a halo effect where
there could be uncertainty in regard to whether the effect evidenced is as a result of the presence of the coach/investigator or that of the treatment. Since sufficient funds are not available to hire an outside person to construct and implement a time management program, this situation would result in the need for further studies with coaches of other teams providing the same learning opportunities.

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

The following assumptions will be made in conducting this study:
1. Differences in the testing environment will make no difference in the responses of the subjects.
2. The samples (teams) will be similar in characteristics so that the treatment, the effects of the time management program, will be evidenced.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Identity - A positional designation that is internalized as part of the self. A person can have a variety of labels or classifications to which he/she responds, one of which might be the sport identity, the other, the academic identity.

Identity salience - A reference intended to refer to one possible, theoretically important way in which the self can be organized.

Intercollegiate volleyball participant - Individual involved in the volleyball program at a collegiate institution. This involvement might be as a player, a coach, a manager or a trainer.

NCAA Division III - A division of intercollegiate athletics to which institutions align who choose not to award scholarships based on athletic ability.
Satisfaction through participation/involvement - The intrinsic value placed by a person on a particular role.

Self-involvement or self-in-role or self-role merger - The extent to which a social role (in this case the role of athlete and student) is incorporated into one's self-concept.

Sport Identity Index - Questionnaire designed and used by several investigators (Curry and Weaner, 1987; Curry and Parr, 1988; Curry and Weiss, 1989; Curry, 1993) to measure the sport identity and other variables related to it.

Time management program - Program constructed and presented to the athletes by this investigator during the traditional volleyball season with the purpose of helping each individual become more efficient and effective in managing her time.

Traditional versus nontraditional competitive season - A 21 week season of competition is permitted according to NCAA rules. The traditional season begins at the start of the school year and ends with the NCAA Division III volleyball championships in the fall while the nontraditional season begins January 1 and ends with the academic year at the institution. Only five dates versus organized competition are permitted during the nontraditional season while 22 dates of competition are permitted during the traditional one.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This study considers the effects of learned time management skills on the sport and academic identities and the satisfaction derived through athletic and academic participation on NCAA Division III volleyball student-athletes. This chapter will summarize the following subjects: time management programs, systems and materials, the academic performance of athletes, and identity theory and related research.

TIME MANAGEMENT PROGRAMS, SYSTEMS AND MATERIALS

There is an abundance of resources on the market for those desiring information about personal, family, and/or organizational help in managing their time. This interest in time management seems to be a trend of the 90's and books such as Covey's *The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People*, Lakein's *How to Get Control of Your Time and Your Life*, and MacKenzie's *The Time Trap* have been recommended by and for many who are faced with "time crunch" problems. Companies such as CareerTrack and Franklin Quest Company advertise of seminars and audio and videotapes for those who desire to learn to handle time more efficiently and effectively. Franklin Quest also has a Franklin Learning Division which sponsors seminars for coaches and players at institutions of higher learning and advertises the Franklin Student Success
Module as important for students to have in forming habits and establishing skills for a life of productivity and excellence. Day-Timers, Inc. advertises the use of pocket planners on a 90 day free trial period and lists companies in Canada, United Kingdom and Australia-New Zealand as well as the United States. Wal-Mart stores sell the DayRunner personal paper planners as well as the TimeRunner, its electronic counterpart made by Texas Instruments.

MacWAREHOUSE, a product catalog for Macintosh computer users, lists pages of software programs for time, project, and contact management. Office supply warehouses, computer stores, and book stores have a host of software programs, datebooks, organizers and the like to track one's time.

Using time effectively and efficiently has become even more important to persons outside the business sector and/or outside the work day world. According to Juliet B. Schor, author of The Overworked American: The Unexpected Decline of Leisure, during the last two decades, Americans' leisure time has dropped nearly 40 percent - from an average of 26 hours a week to slightly under 17 hours a week. She suggests that people often watch TV or go shopping which she considers as "sinkholes for time" and which may require a person to work more to pay for what he/she purchases. Schor stresses the importance of finding rewarding activities, those things that really matter to a person and considers managing ourselves as the secret to having time to do things we value (in Peel, Family Circle 1994: Your Personal Planner, p. 13).

Stephen Covey, chairman of the Covey Leadership Center and the nonprofit Institute for Principle-Centered Leadership, and author of The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People (1989), a book that has been on the best seller list for nearly three years, defines a habit as "the intersection of knowledge, skill, and desire" (p. 47) and describes his Seven Habits as providing "an
incremental, sequential, highly integrated approach to the development of personal and interpersonal effectiveness" (p. 48-49). Covey describes the living of his Third Habit as a principle of personal management. The challenge, according to Covey, is not to manage time, but to manage ourselves. “Satisfaction is a function of expectation as well as realization. And expectation (and satisfaction) lie in our Circle of Influence” (p. 150). He describes the best advice in personal management as captured in one phrase: organize and execute around priorities.

According to Covey (1989), there are four generations of time management each of which has moved progressively toward greater control of a person’s life. The first generation was characterized by notes and checklists in an effort to show recognition for the many demands placed on a person’s time and energy. The second generation was noted for its use of calendars and appointment books in an attempt to look ahead, to schedule events and activities in the future. The third generation reflects the current time management field in that it adds to the preceding generations the importance of prioritizing, of clarifying values and of comparing the worth of activities based on their relationship to those values. This current field of time management also concentrates on setting goals and then planning daily to accomplish said goals and activities according to their worth. Covey contends that this efficient scheduling and control of time has turned people off because it makes them feel restricted, inflexible, too scheduled and unable “to develop rich relationships, to meet human needs, and to enjoy spontaneous moments on a daily basis” (p. 150).

Covey has developed a time management matrix to reflect the fourth generation approach that seeks to preserve and enhance relationships and
accomplish results in an effort to manage ourselves, not our time. The objective of this approach is to manage one's life from a center of sound principles or “natural laws in the human dimension that are just as real, just as unchanging and unarguable ‘there’ as laws such as gravity are in the physical dimension” (1989, p. 32). This approach stems from a knowledge of what he refers to as our “personal mission” with a sense of what is important versus what is urgent in our daily lives and within a framework of maintaining a balance between increasing our production and increasing our production capability.

Covey describes the use of an organizer as a tool used to meet this objective of preserving and enhancing relationships while accomplishing results and suggests that whatever organizer one uses it should meet the following six criteria. The planner must have a place for one's personal mission statement as well as for roles and short- and long-term goals in order to meet the first criteria of coherence which suggests harmony and unity between one's mission, roles, and goals. Secondly, the organizer used should help one maintain balance in life by keeping those roles that are to be assumed, visible so those that are important won't be neglected. Thirdly, this tool should allow one to organize on a weekly basis with the idea of scheduling priorities. Fourth, there should be a "people" dimension to this tool so that one thinks in terms of subordination of schedules to people without the guilt created when a schedule is not followed. A planning tool should be fit to each individual's needs, style, and ways, the fifth criteria of flexibility. Finally, the tool used should be portable so that important information is always within reach.

Organizing a week from a principle-centered base would involve four key activities, according to Covey. First, a person would identify key roles that would be filled in the week ahead and select two to three goals or results that
might be accomplished in each of these roles. Goals would then be scheduled into the week ahead as priority items or specific appointments and, finally, daily adapting or prioritizing activities and responding to unanticipated events, relationships and experiences in a purposeful way would occur. The primary focus of this approach is on relationships and results rather than on time. "Things which matter most must never be at the mercy of things which matter least" (Goethe in Covey, 1989, p. 146).

In a recent USA Weekend (December 31, 1993-January 2, 1994) entitled "Real Stress, Real People, Real Advice," Covey, described as an expert on managing stress through organization, stated that "stress isn’t the problem, just the symptom. What matters is how you deal with it " (p. 8). The best way to deal with stress is to have a "purpose larger than one’s own situation, a contribution to be made, some value to be added" (p. 8). He suggested not only that a person decide what she/he wants to accomplish but also what type of person he/she wants to be. A personal mission statement about what life is about should be written. Important roles and goals related to the roles should be delineated and plans for reaching each goal should be made.

The Franklin system, named for Benjamin Franklin, is another popular and innovative system designed to help one gain control of time and the events in life. This system is based on a series of natural laws that govern personal productivity, human relationships, and individual achievement. With these laws, defined as inherent principles that govern human behavior, and with particular tools and techniques that have been developed to implement these laws, one should be able to increase personal productivity and self-esteem. The most important natural law that the Franklin Day Planner System espouses is that personal inner peace, the by-product of using this system, is having serenity,

This system uses the ideas of Peter F. Drucker presented in The Effective Executive, who suggested that the task of the time manager is to control time where he/she can and that of Alan Lakein, in his book How to Get Control of Your Time and Your Life, who stated that control is the key concept in time management. The Franklin system considers that the basic element of time is an event and that control is the key to personal productivity or time management. From this a new definition for managing time is created and which is equal to event control.

The basic concept here is that all of us must realize the need to be proactive in achieving control in our lives as it relates to the events that make up our lives. The alternative is to simply react - to be acted upon, to let other influences decide for us what we will accomplish, to be controlled instead of in control. Personal event control suggests that we can decide for ourselves to what degree we can achieve success and in what areas of interest. (Winwood, 1990, p. 5)

The benefits of event control are personally felt. Psychological theorist Nathaniel Branden, author of the book The Psychology of Self-Esteem, has said, "Productive work is the process through which man achieves that sense of control over his life which is the precondition of his being able to fully enjoy the other values possible to him" (in Winwood, 1990, p. 10). Spencer Johnson and Kenneth Blanchard, the authors of The One Minute Manager, have stated this principle in another way, "People who feel good about themselves produce good results" (in Winwood, 1990, p. 10). This direct relationship between a person's sense of self-worth and personal productivity is a relatively new idea in management and one on which the Franklin Time Management System is built.
The Franklin Productivity Tri-quation forms the framework for this time management system and is built on the notion that a person's self-esteem is enhanced when he/she is in control of events and it suffers when he/she is not in control. When a person controls life, he/she is healthier, happier, more effective, and more productive. When one feels good about one's self, he/she does good work, and with good work comes feeling good about one's self. Conversely, when a person feels out of control with the events in life, both productivity and self-esteem suffer. "Your personal self-esteem has a direct bearing on your ability to accomplish your wishes in life" (Winwood, 1990, p. 10).

According to Dennis R. Webb, "Every great personal victory was preceded by a personal goal or dream - a dream that sprang from the value core of some individual. All good behavior springs from good principles" (in Winwood, 1990, p. 35). Principles or values or what's important to an individual drives personal conduct. Using Abraham Maslow's "Hierarchy of Needs" as a model, the Franklin Productivity Pyramid was formed as a model of value-based achievement. This model has as its base the highest priorities of one's personal life which are referred to as governing values and are presented in a set of value statements. These statements provide the rules or principles guiding the setting of long-range and intermediate goals representing the second and third levels of the Productivity Pyramid respectively. The process of goal setting is a planning process of controlling events in the future. "Goal setting is getting specific with dreams - bringing them into a format where we begin to work toward them and ultimately realize them" (p. 56).

The final level of the Pyramid represents the key to maintaining control on a daily basis. One's daily strategy, referred to as a daily task list in the
Franklin System, moves one toward the accomplishment of long-range and intermediate goals. According to Hyrum Smith, co-founder of the Franklin International Institute, Inc., "When daily actions are in concert with your highest priorities, you have a credible claim to inner peace" (The Franklin Day Planner Owner's Manual, 1991, p. 11).

THE ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE OF ATHLETES

Throughout the history of intercollegiate sport, a belief has persisted that college athletes perform poorly in the classroom compared to other students. In 1934, just five years after the release of the controversial report, American College Athletics by Howard J. Savage, Davis and Cooper reported the results from 31 studies comparing different measures of educational attainment for college athletes versus nonathletes only to find conflicting results from study to study and precluded drawing final conclusions, a difficulty found in similar studies since that time. Even then researchers have continued to study the relationship between sport participation and academic achievement showing in the majority of research studies of high school students that the academic performance of athletes is equal to or better than nonathletes (Hanks, 1979; Hanks and Eckland, 1976; Otto and Alwin, 1977; Picou, 1978; Picou and Curry, 1974; Picou and Hwang, 1982; Rehberg and Schafer, 1968; Schafer and Armer, 1968; Snyder and Spreitzer, 1977) while several efforts have cited insignificant or weak relationships (Houser and Lueptow, 1978; McElroy, 1980; Spady, 1970).

Although many collegiate athletes have poor academic records in high school, they have higher GPA's, lower attrition rates, and a greater likelihood of graduating from college than nonathletes according to Hanks and Eckland.
(1976) and Shapiro (1984). They claim that collegiate athletes receive extra tutoring, more attention and special "breaks" which may result in this weak positive relationship between academic and athletic performance. Other studies have found a negative relationship between collegiate athletic and academic performance (Adler and Adler, 1990; Purdy, Eitzen and Hufnagel, 1982; Sack and Thiel, 1979). These studies concluded that athletes were unprepared for and uninterested in academics because they entered college to advance their athletic careers rather than their academic careers. As a result, these athletes had lower GPA's, higher attrition rates and less chance of graduating than other students. Inconsistent findings for the relationship between academic and athletic performance have been attributed to variations in the indicator used for academic performance as well as other variables such as gender, race, social class, and geographic setting. The strong screening of collegiate athletes and variations in institutional quality, degree programs, type of sport and other contaminating factors have made research on the educational attainment of athletes/nonathletes difficult to interpret according to Snyder and Spreitzer (1989, p. 133). Snyder (1985, p. 210-211) offers several additional explanations for the varying results obtained in these studies. Purdy, Eitzen, and Hufnagel (1982, p. 440) conclude that research has failed to determine "the degree to which college athletes are disadvantaged educationally by their sport participation".

Unsatisfied with the research regarding the question of how athletic participation relates to academic performance, Brede and Camp (1987) compared the educational performances of male student-athletes participating in football and basketball at an NCAA Division I school for each enrollment period during one academic year. They reported the use of three basic patterns
of educational performance, patterns involving the differential use among these
student-athletes of extra semesters as well as letter grade and credit hour
changes in order to meet eligibility requirements. One-fourth of the student-
athletes studied were considered to have a year-round struggle meeting
eligibility requirements. They concluded that “until research on student-athlete
educational processes is accomplished at several other universities at various
levels of athletic competition, we are not likely to know the full extent of the
problem of student-athlete education” (p. 255).

In spite of substantiation, numerous persons over the years have
provided a range of facts and perceptions that have seemed to indicate that
some college athletes do, in fact, receive inferior educations. Sailes (1993),
who investigated the beliefs of college students regarding specific stereotypes
about college student-athletes, notes that recent media attention challenging
the scholarship of college athletes has tainted the academic credibility of
college student-athletes and has fostered the belief that anti-intellectualism
exists among them (p. 89). His investigation, although limited in its scope, has
value in that it generated substantial evidence of the presence of the dumb jock
stereotype especially with white males although other studies (Nixon, 1982;
McMartin and Klay, 1983; Lederman, 1990) have not found scientific basis for
such.

RESEARCH ON IDENTITY THEORY

Identity theory builds on the assumptions, definitions and propositions of
symbolic interactionism. It emphasizes the relationships between self, society
(social structure) and role performance. This theory seeks to understand the
reasons people select among role performances given the variety of available
and reasonable possible alternative choices. It is from this perspective that the roles and the performance of them can be considered in studying the experiences of the collegiate woman student-athlete. To illustrate, the woman athlete has, as a result of her high school athletic participation, developed a sense of her "ideal self" that might be similar to or quite different from her "situational self". The role-identities that compose the "ideal self", however, will be many and varied and might result in the athlete leaving some roles unfulfilled or neglected or faced with a conflict between roles. The importance or commitment to any one role-identity will be affected by the social support for the role as well as the intrinsic and extrinsic satisfactions gained from it. The collegiate sport experience could be used as a site for solidifying the "ideal self" because sport has characteristics that suggest its empowering capability at the personal level (Cantor and Bernay, 1992).

Ideal Self

McCall and Simmons, in their book Identities and Interactions, refer to the "role-identity" as the "character and the role that an individual devises for himself as an occupant of a particular social position" (1978, p. 65). The collegiate woman athlete may have any number of role-identities that she assumes. Student, athlete, friend, family member, and/or employee might be several role-identities that the woman athlete thinks of herself as having. According to McCall and Simmons, one's self-concept is constructed of a complex organization of these role-identities which "provide plans of action for the self as performer, evaluative standards for the self as audience, and phenomenal qualities for the self as character. ...The most distinctive aspect of this organization is the hierarchical arrangement of the role-identities in terms of their individual prominence in the person's thinking about himself" (p. 84). This
hierarchy of prominence is sometimes referred to as "the ideal self". The woman athlete begins her collegiate athletic career after having competed as an athlete in high school, most often for Division III athletes, in more than one sport. This role-identity as athlete has given her rewards and prestige and the view of herself as well as the definition by others of her as an athlete. As a result, the athletic identity is part of the "ideal self" as she becomes a member of her first intercollegiate athletic team.

This "ideal self" is composed of other identities of course than just the athletic one, some of which are more important to the self concept than others and "...the contents of these identities afford persisting priorities and dispositions that lend continuity of direction to the person's life" (McCall and Simmons, 1978, p. 84). Manford Kuhn referred to the consideration of identities as "anchoring points" when he stated that one's attitudes toward him or herself "...as an object are the best indexes to these plans of action, and hence to action itself, in that they are the anchoring points from which self evaluations are made" (Kuhn and McParland, 1954, p. 68). "Other things being equal, performances strongly suggested by more prominent identities are more likely to be carried out than are those less clearly suggested by them or than are central suggestions of less prominent identities" (McCall and Simmons, 1978, p. 80).

Situational Self

The athlete's "ideal self" might be quite different from what McCall and Simmons (1978) refer to as the "situational self". "The hierarchy of prominence...is not the sole personal determinant of conduct, however, for, if it were, only the most prominent role-identities would ever be performed" (p. 84). Role-identities might also be ordered in terms of less stable determinants,
resulting in a hierarchy of salience that represents the relative order of priority of these role-identities as possible sources of performance in a situation. This more transitory hierarchy constitutes the personal preferences as to the subset of role-identities that will be enacted in a given situation.

Adler and Adler (1991) found that "role identification", as they named it, was associated with role commitment, identity salience, and engulfment ("selves guided by a single, rather than multiple set of interests and foci") (p. 227). The NCAA Division I basketball players in their study became identified as such by everyone they encountered so that they became increasingly committed to the basketball player role resulting in the likelihood that commitment to the role took "...precedence in influencing their self-conceptions" (p. 224). This "engulfed self" was "...typified by a large degree of self-involvement, centrality of identity, focused concentration, and a blinded narrowness to one set of expectations above all others" (p. 227-8). That the athletic role was high in the prominence hierarchy for these collegiate basketball players is not in question. Rather, the salience of this identity in regard to the other role-identities that these players entered college with, would illustrate the transitory "situational self" as affected by the collegiate athletic world of which they became an increasingly greater part.

Certainly the Division III female student-athlete would not have the same athletic demands as would the Division I athlete depicted in the Adler and Adler study. She would, however, have entered the collegiate athletic world with the view of her self as athlete. Others in her high school world would view her as such. As with most Division III athletes, she would probably have participated in more than one sport, further implicating the "self" in the role-identity of athlete. With this self-concept then, the high school athlete would become involved in
collegiate sport and, dependent upon the benefits derived from the first "go" at
such, she would continue or discontinue her sport participation.

Commitment

"The depth, intensity and continuity of one's identity invested in a role
reflect the level of commitment that, in turn, serves to maintain adherence to the
role—including the expenditure of time, energy, or other valuables to the role
(Snyder, 1985, p. 212). Snyder (1985) contends that factors such as social
support and intrinsic and extrinsic gratifications provide commitment to a role, in
this case, to the athletic and academic roles. Each of these factors varies from
individual to individual and within the same person at different stages in life just
as the hierarchy of role-identities and the respective commitment to each
identity varies.

Interpersonal relationships or social support networks are important to
the commitment and thus, the salience, of an identity. Stryker states that "the
expectations of others serve to define roles and are important to the structure of
the self" (1980, p. 62). A person adopts societal definitions as part of the self
and internalizes as salient identities given social positions. This process of self-
role merger or involvement of self in role serves to identify one's self as well as
serving to be identified by others in terms of a role. Not only is the number of
others to whom one relates as a result of occupying a particular position an
important dimension of commitment to an identity but also the importance of
others to whom one relates as a result of occupying a position is a dimension of
commitment to consider.

Intrinsic satisfaction also promotes commitment to an identity. A player
might be more committed to the role of athlete if she experiences pleasure, a
sense of accomplishment, a thrill from being challenged by the experience, a
feeling of self-efficacy, or a feeling of excitement through competition. In addition, extrinsic rewards in the form of trophies, letters, recognition, or prestige also support the athletic role-identity and would result in continued involvement in such. These validating experiences are regarded as desirable and appropriate by one's others while, at the same time, personally rewarding to the self-concept. On the other hand, unsuccessful role performances bring with them a personal lack of satisfaction and a subsequent decrease in commitment and involvement to an identity.

Role Conflict

Regardless the number of roles or the level of commitment to each, potential conflicts between role-identities, or "role conflict", would potentially be experienced by all collegiate athletes regardless of divisional level, sport, year in school or sex. Such conflict is a normal product of a complex social structure similar to that which the collegiate athlete experiences. Often one role "demands the expenditure of time and energy such that it is difficult or even impossible to carry out the obligations of another role" (Stryker, 1980, p. 73). Frequently considered to be "role strain," this "felt difficulty in fulfilling role obligations" (p. 76) is always present and is normal and the individual seeks to reduce it to manageable levels by governing an entire system of roles. There can be a creative potential to role conflict as well in that it can encourage one to free him or herself from the "demands of particular others and/or to arrive at novel solutions to problems" (p. 75).

Snyder (1985), in a theoretical analysis of academic and athletic roles, attempted to illuminate the relationship between athletic participation and academic performance, by focusing on two perspectives, a scarcity model and an expansion model, in examining these roles. The energy expansion
perspective was taken from the work of Marks (1977) who argued "that human physical and social activities to which we are seriously committed often produce more energy (an energy expansion theory) rather than reduce it" (p. 211). This perspective considers energy as abundant, expandable and available for several roles to which one is committed because "abundant energy is 'found' for anything to which we are highly committed, and we often feel more energetic after having done it..." (p. 927). If one is committed to both the academic and athletic roles then there is no need for a conflict of one role with the other, conceivably one role will benefit the other by an additive effect, resulting in a greater feeling of ego gratification and satisfaction than in either role alone. Rather than assuming that the respective role spheres automatically lead to strain and conflict because of scarcities of time and energy, they should be considered products of role bargains, negotiations, and accommodations based on the level of commitment to the respective role spheres.

This perspective is in contrast to what Snyder and Spreitzer (1989) describe as the "spend and drain" theory or scarcity model in which an individual has multiple roles to fill with a finite amount of time and energy resources available. Once resources are spent on a role there are no resources left for any other roles. Energy, time and effort spent on the sport role would not be available for the academic role therefore the two roles would be in conflict with each other. Goode (1960) considers this situation as a source of psychological stress and strain:

The individual is likely to face a wide distracting, and sometimes conflicting array of role obligations. If he conforms fully or adequately in one direction, fulfillment will be difficult in another...Role strain--difficulty in meeting given role demands--is therefore normal. (p. 485)
Most studies of college athletics have suggested a scarcity model approach as the most appropriate in the athletic realm and that multiple role demands are excessive in both their energy and time requisitions (Purdy, Eitzen, and Hufnagel, 1982; Sack and Thiel, 1985). Adler and Adler’s research on NCAA Division I basketball players supported this model finding that “athletes found that the role demands placed on them pushed them to the limits of their time and energy” (1991, p. 175). These athletes reduced this conflict to a manageable level by eliminating some of their role relationships when they realized that they could not maintain the goals and priorities (to get a college degree and to play collegiate basketball) they had brought with them to college. Some of the athletes came to this realization as early as the beginning of the sophomore year while others did not recognize this until the middle of their junior year. This realization was dependent on the player’s perceptiveness and on the degree to which he had become overwhelmingly focused on the athletic role.

**Empowerment and The Collegiate Sport Experience**

Sport as a site of empowerment at the personal, group, and societal levels for the collegiate woman athlete had seldom been studied until the work of Blinde, Taub, and Han (1993; 1994). “Institutionalized sport forms have often been dismissed as empowering contexts because they are viewed as reproducing male domination, as well as patriarchal gender relations and social structures” (1994, p. 52). In their telephone interviews of 24 women athletes from various sport teams at three NCAA Division I universities, they found that though the sport experience the athletes built a “competent self,” and a positive personal definition as well as an internal locus of control. Rather than seeing challenges as obstacles, these athletes saw them as possibilities and saw
failure or losing as not powerful enough to destroy a secure self-identity. According to these investigators, personal empowerment is the building block for group and societal empowerment. In their 1994 study exploring possible ways in which intercollegiate sport participation may be empowering for women at both the group and societal levels, Blinde, Taub, and Han found that the sport experience facilitates female bonding, the development of a group identity and the formation of common group goals. It also served as a site for societal empowerment by challenging societal perceptions of the female and increasing her awareness of gender inequalities.

Perhaps this empowering capability of sport facilitates the perspective of Snyder (1985) who proposed that involvement in both academic and athletic roles might provide benefits in terms of increased feelings of personal well-being. For example, the sport experience can be used as an avenue for solidifying the "ideal self" of the collegiate student-athlete so that she develops a sense of self that is not predicated on traditional societal expectations. Sport allows the athlete the opportunity to "get in touch" with her body and to develop a sense of bodily competence. In addition, the athlete, through her sport participation, can begin to view herself as a competent and determining person capable of adopting a proactive approach to life in and out of the sport setting. Through this process of personal empowerment, the woman athlete can learn how to take control of her life resulting in increased energy for the roles to which she is highly committed. The sport setting can be structured to teach the student-athlete skills and abilities such as those involved in time management thereby giving value to the sport experience in creating and acknowledging a more powerful self.
The sport experience then, by its very nature, can provide a foundation for personal, group and societal empowerment. Certainly the athlete at a Division III institution, unlike the sport participant at a NCAA Division I university, would be concerned with the broader benefits of sport participation especially since he/she would not receive financial reimbursement for athletic services to the institution. Learning to manage one’s time connected with volleyball participation would increase the likelihood that the athlete would consider herself more in charge of her life in and out of the sport setting and would consider the sport experience of value. Since most studies have considered the athletic experience of male athletes at Division I institutions and the work of Blinde et al. (1993; 1994) included women at the NCAA Division I level, this particular effort is important in that it extends beyond the latter to study the sport experience of the Division III female student-athlete in a sport that has had more women participants at this particular collegiate level than men.

What might be expected of these NCAA Division III women volleyball players involved in a time management program? The importance of sport and the academic roles to the individual would likely be greater with training in time management principles. Since the self concept is conceived as a hierarchy of role-identities and since those most likely to be rewarded intrinsically and extrinsically and supported by others, are more prominent in the hierarchy, it is likely that the participation of all athletes in a program designed and utilized only with their team would serve to increase the benefits derived from sport participation especially those related to managing a variety of roles during the sport season. In addition, the fact that teammates and coaches are participants in learning to take control of their lives would create greater expectations for similar and continued behavior. Certainly, the continual reminders of the
importance of the sport and academic roles and the recognition from accomplishments in both would serve to increase the salience of these identities for each team member.

The athlete involved in the time management program is likely to derive greater satisfaction in both the academic and sport roles as a result. Even without such training women athletes have indicated that sport has the capability of teaching the participant the way to face life in a more proactive manner. By structuring the sport setting so that additional help in taking control of life’s events can be obtained, the sport participant only increases the likelihood that those roles to which she is highly committed will serve to energize rather than exhaust her. She will realize greater feelings of ego gratification and satisfaction from successfully accomplishing both roles than she would from either role alone and won’t have to choose between role performances as a result.
CHAPTER III
METHODS

This study examines the experiences of the NCAA Division III woman student-volleyball athlete by exploring and describing the effects learned time management skills on the sport and academic identities as well as on the satisfaction derived from the student and athlete roles. This chapter discusses the selection of the subjects, the design of the study, the control procedures considered, the treatment, the collection of data and the data analysis.

SELECTION OF SUBJECTS

A purposive, non random sampling procedure was used to select subjects. Varsity and junior varsity women athletes, members of the volleyball programs at six NCAA Division III institutions in the Midwest Region and representing two athletic conferences (Ohio Athletic Conference and Association of Mideast Colleges), were selected as subjects. These volleyball programs were considered to be representative of volleyball programs at NCAA Division III institutions. Different institutions were chosen to reduce the possibility of findings that might reflect the uniqueness of a particular institution.
DESIGN

The nonequivalent control group design, a quasi-experimental design, was used to test the hypotheses. Volleyball teams from six institutions were used in this study. One institution’s team served as the treatment group and received a program of instruction in time management principles and strategies incorporating materials devised by this researcher. Together individuals from the other five teams served as the control group receiving no planned time management instruction and engaging in the usual practices and contests of the season. Individuals on each team completed the Sports Identity Index (SII), a survey which has been used in numerous other research efforts to tap the academic and athletic role-identities and related variables, as a pretest during their preseason practice, once again during the middle of the competitive season, and as a post test following their respective awards banquet. In addition, ten individuals from the treatment group were interviewed following the awards banquet.

CONTROL PROCEDURES

With this design, several internal validity threats needed to be controlled. Intrasession history might have been a problem since the volleyball teams experienced different unique histories as a result of different coaches, environments, playing schedules, etc.. This investigator discussed with each coach any events that had occurred during the season that might have been out of the ordinary or in some way different from the usual practice and match sequence to determine if such might have been a threat. Pretesting was crucial since no random assignment of subjects to groups or groups to treatment was possible. As a threat, pretesting can affect the subject’s performance on a
second test because of knowledge gained from the previous test-taking. In this case, there was a month or more apart from the previous survey administration. Players were asked to treat each survey completion as if one were taking one’s temperature on several occasions with the reminder that at different times different temperatures (results) could occur.

Since the time between testings was minimal (six weeks between the first and second questionnaire administration and 7 weeks between the second and the third), maturation or processes that operate within the subjects simply as a result of the passage of time, the effects of which might appear as the treatment, were not a threat. All groups completed the same survey with the same verbal or written instructions so instrumentation was not a problem. Testing should not have been a threat since in this setting all subjects were used to being tested. The interaction of selection and maturation should have been controlled since subjects were similar in age and skill level and since only females were considered.

Possible external validity threats could have been the Hawthorne effect and an experimenter effect. The Hawthorne effect, or the awareness on the subject’s part of participating in an experiment resulting in behavior which would not occur in a setting that is not perceived as experimental, was not a threat because the volleyball players, in all likelihood, did not connect the completion of the SII with the time management program. Previously in the volleyball program at Bluffton, players had been exposed to the SII (postseason administration in 1992) and to a preseason program of speakers on a variety of topics including sexuality, academic excellence, date rape, etc. A time management program for the team had been discussed as of possible benefit to the 1992 team but was never carried through. Players asking about this
investigator's dissertation topic were not told of the development of a time management program for them. When completing the survey, players were informed of the need for such information from Division III women athletes as opposed to Division I and that a professor at Ohio State University had used a similar survey numerous times with a variety of different sport athletes. Therefore, taking the survey and being involved in the time management program were not necessarily connected in the minds of those persons involved in the treatment group.

An experimenter effect in which the behavior of the subjects may be unintentionally influenced by certain characteristics or behaviors of the experimenter and/or in which the expectations of the experimenter may bias the administration of the treatment and the observation of the subjects' behavior, was a potential external validity threat due to the investigator also assuming the head coaching role of the team receiving the treatment. There could be some uncertainty as to whether the time management program was effective in producing any changes in pretest versus posttest scores or whether the difference was due, in some way, to the involvement of the coach/investigator. There were insufficient funds for hiring an outside person to provide this programming. The fact that the coach/investigator was using time management strategies in her personal and professional life and that her athletes were aware of such usage should lend credibility to the program.

TREATMENT

Using the ideas and practices of a number of different sources (Bliss, 1976, 1984; LeBoeuf, 1979; MacKenzie, 1989, 1990; Smith, 1987; Covey, 1989; Winwood, 1990), this investigator developed a time management
program specifically for the Division III volleyball player and used it with the Bluffton College volleyball team during its traditional competitive season. The original idea for this time management program came from the Franklin Quest Company and their use of the Franklin Productivity System not only in the corporate sector but also in the educational world.

Each volleyball player was provided during the second week of preseason practice with a binder of information on time management principles and strategies that had been adapted by this investigator from the previously mentioned sources (Appendix A). This three ring binder included daily and monthly calendars, volleyball practice and match schedules, directions to away contests, a travel checklist, instructor, class and course of study information, assignment and major project planning sheets, daily task and appointment lists with corresponding journal pages, a time log, information on time wasters/robbers, information on daily planning ideas, as well as goal setting and role identities, a special days log, space for class notes and materials with section dividers, a zipper pouch with paper clips, section tabs, etc., and a full page length marker with ideas about daily planning procedures.

The first two sessions on time management principles were held during the second week of preseason practice. At these sessions, players were taught principles of time management by working through the information provided in their binders on determining roles, establishing goals, considering daily planning and procedures, and determining time wasters, as guided by this investigator. The importance of prioritizing roles, goals and daily tasks was discussed as well as the use of the journal part of the daily task/appointment list for reflecting feelings and thoughts especially those occurring prior to daily practice. When the season began, the initial moments of daily practice time
were used by each player as an opportunity to make entries about feelings and thoughts similar to a diary entry. Players were encouraged to use this time of reflection to prepare themselves for volleyball practice by ridding themselves of the day’s frustrations and setting goals for the practice time ahead. Players were encouraged throughout the competitive season to use their planners. Several times during the season, players and coach shared with each other what they found most useful in their efforts to use a daily planning system.

COLLECTION OF DATA

Data were collected during the fall of 1993. The head volleyball coach at each institution was contacted by phone to ask if he/she would be willing to allow his/her athletes to complete the Sport Identity Index. This verbal request was followed by a written reminder that practice time would need to be allotted on at least two occasions for such. Individual copies of the SII were placed in separate envelopes and mailed to the coach. The SII was administered by the coach of the respective teams once during the preseason, at a point about midway into the competitive season and again following the awards banquet after the season. The coach read instructions aloud to the athletes informing them that completion of the survey was voluntary and would not jeopardize their collegiate volleyball participation in any way and that completion of the survey indicated their consent to be a participant in the study. Confidentiality was ensured by instructing each player to place her completed survey in the envelope provided and to seal the envelope. The completed questionnaires were mailed to this researcher.

Following the traditional season, ten players in the treatment group were individually interviewed in an attempt to gain additional qualitative information
about the nature of the volleyball experience. In addition to allowing each player to elaborate on the competitive season in general, each was asked questions similar to those used by Blinde et al. (1993) about such issues as what they personally gain or lose from volleyball participation, how volleyball makes them feel and what it means to them, what they learn about themselves from volleyball participation, what ways volleyball might assist or hinder their interactions outside of sport, and the extent to which volleyball participation affects them differently than other activities. Each player was also asked to elaborate on their likes and dislikes of the time management sessions offered during the preseason and their use of the planners during the competitive season. A discussion of empowerment was also encouraged especially in regard to how they felt empowered through sport participation and through use of their planners. The questions asked were open-ended and athletes were encouraged to elaborate on their responses. The interviews lasted between 45 to 75 minutes each. Notes were taken of these conversations and then transcribed following each.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data were analyzed using several techniques. Means and standard deviations for treatment group versus control group by test administration were also calculated for each variable. At each test administration, a t test of significance was used to determine any statistical difference between the means of the treatment and the control group for each of these variables. In addition, demographic variables were analyzed using descriptive statistics.

Means for each item from the satisfaction through athletic participation scale of the SII were calculated at the preseason and the postseason test
administrations for the treatment and the total control group. T tests of significance were run on each item.

All tests of significance were run using the .05 level and using one-tailed probability tests.
CHAPTER IV
MEASURES

A modification of the Sports Identity Index (Appendix B) was used to examine the academic and athletic identities of NCAA Division III collegiate women student-volleyball players. This chapter presents this instrument in detail including previous role-identity studies that have used similar measures.

THE SPORT IDENTITY INDEX

The Sport Identity Index focuses mainly on the athletic identity for which it has been standardized although it has been used for research of generic identities. Various subscales of the SII have been drawn from studies of other types of identities, benefiting from prior pretesting and validity checks as a result (Callero, 1985; Jackson, 1981; Santee and Jackson, 1979; Stryker and Serpe, 1982).

Curry (1986) established the validity of the SII as a means of tapping sport behavior through its use in a sociology of sport class and through interviews and observations with athletes and coaches. Hall (1986), in a longitudinal study of fourteen swimmers assessed the reliability of the sport salience scales of this instrument. In a study of male college students at a large university, Curry and Weaner (1987) used this instrument to study commitment to a role and to study sport salience by utilizing ratings and rankings as well as
the self-in-role scale. In addition, time spent in the sport role and enjoyment of the sport role were measured as dependent variables in this study. Curry and Parr (1988) replicated the essential features of the Curry and Weaner study using the SII to compare the sport to the religious identity of male and female college students at a small Christian college as well as refining further the techniques of measuring salience by incorporating items from Callero's (1985) study of blood donors to Curry and Weaner's self-in-role measure. Curry and Weiss (1989) used two parts of the SII, the self-role scale and the reasons for participation scale, to compare competitive, fitness and social motivations for sport participation between American collegiate athletes and Austrian student sport club members. Park-Curry (1988) utilized the format of Jackson's (1981) Social Identities Index and the role-identity studies of Parr (1987) and Curry and Weaner (1987) to develop her questionnaire used in examining the honors student role-identity. She utilized the ranking and rating subscales as well as the self-in-role subscale to measure identity salience. In addition, Park-Curry tapped satisfaction, commitment, others' expectations and several role performance measures (time spent in role, grade point average, future plans and choosing to participate in honors related activities). Most recently, Curry (1993) used the SII including sport importance ratings, the self-in-role scale, as well as the role performance measure of time in role, to examine the effect of winning a college letter on the sport identity of athletes participating at different levels of competition.

In this research effort, one subscale of the SII was omitted (reasons for participation) and others modified (satisfaction in the athletic and academic roles, others' expectations for those roles, and self-in-role as related to the student and athletic roles) to tap the information desired. A pilot test of the
modified SII was conducted in May 1993 to examine its internal reliability and validity. Male and female student-athletes from softball, baseball, women’s track and basketball and men’s and women’s tennis teams at Bluffton College were used as subjects in this initial pilot test. Another pilot test occurred in the summer of 1993 with female high school volleyball players at two team volleyball camps. The results of these pilot tests were used by Curry to further modify the SII which was used in this study.

QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS AND SCALES

Identity Salience

Identity salience was measured by both a ranking and rating procedure in addition to an involvement of self-in-role scale. Curry and Parr (1988) concluded that there was an advantage in using three different measures of salience. They indicated that each measure provides useful information about role identities and that one could be confident in one’s interpretation when all three measures agree. Previous use of both rankings and ratings by Curry and Weaner (1987) and Parr (1987) has indicated that these two measures are correlated. A “forced ranking requires choosing between identities, and can reveal different institutional emphases on collective identities. The rating measure gives a simple numeric score for the importance of the identity that is intuitively understandable. The self-in-role measure is perhaps not as intuitively understandable, but it does yield the most consistent results with the model” (p. 376).

Stryker and Serpe (1982) created a two-item salience scale in which the respondent was to rank religion in relation to other roles in their study (parent, spouse, worker) for each item. Callero (1985) used seven categories of
identities in his blood donor study (organization/group, work, religion, family, blood donor, politics, ethnic group/nationality) while Curry and Weaner (1987) and Parr (1987) used six (peer, kinship, sport, religious, academic, romantic). Jackson (1981) and Park-Curry (1988) asked respondents to rank their identities and then to rate them on a scale from “of no importance” (rated as 0) through “moderately important” (rated as 50) to “as important to me as I can imagine” (rated as 100). Curry (1993), in his effort to explore the effects of receiving a college letter on competitive motivation and the sport identity, used only the rating procedure.

**Identity rankings.** The questionnaire used in this study began with an introductory definition of the concept of the role-identity. The student-athletes were then asked to rank seven typical roles or identities, including the sport or volleyball identity, the student or academic identity, the kinship or family identity, the work or employment role, the religious identity, the political identity, and the ethnic group or national identity, in the order of their importance on a daily basis by writing the most important identity in the first blank (#1) and putting the least important identity in the last blank (#7). The least important identity was understood to be the one the respondent would give up first if one identity had to be relinquished. These rankings were reversed in the data analysis so that the most important identity was noted as a “7” and the least important one as a “1”.

**Identity ratings.** After ranking the identities, the student-athletes were asked to rate the importance of each identity. This procedure asked the respondent to think a minute or so about how important the previously ranked identities, sport (volleyball), family, political, work or employment, religious, ethnic or national and academic, were to her on a daily basis. A scale, with
numbers as on a ruler, in equal distances separating them, was used to evaluate the importance of each of the seven previously ranked identities. The subject was encouraged to provide a single number rather than a range of numbers in rating each identity on a scale from "of no importance," (rated as 0) through "moderately important" (rated as 50) to "as important to me as I can imagine" (rated as 100). Table 1 gives the mean ranking and rating for all the identities as well as the respective standard deviations. Rankings and ratings

Table 1. Comparison of Salience Rankings and Ratings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role-Identity</th>
<th>Mean Ranking</th>
<th>SD Ranking</th>
<th>Mean Rating</th>
<th>SD Rating</th>
<th>Corr. Rate/Rank</th>
<th>Sign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kinship</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>92.02</td>
<td>14.17</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>85.99</td>
<td>11.34</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>72.95</td>
<td>17.05</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>59.90</td>
<td>26.48</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>62.32</td>
<td>21.30</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>35.79</td>
<td>22.57</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>26.42</td>
<td>19.70</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the questionnaire, the most important identity was listed as number "1" and the least important identity was listed as number "7". The means in Table 1 reflect this ranking. However, for the analysis the most important identity was recoded to give it the "highest" value of "7" and all others were recoded accordingly until the least important identity had the "lowest" value of "1".
were correlated for all identities and the relative positions of the identities remained basically the same when ranked and rated with the exception of the religious and work identities. The religious identity had a higher mean ranking than the work identity but a lower mean rating.

**Self-involvement in role.** This scale was used to determine "the extent to which a social role (in this case the role of athlete) is incorporated into one's self conception" (Curry, 1993, p. 78). "The involvement of self-in-role scale addresses a person's merging of self with the sport role, particularly regarding agenda-setting, decision-making, emotional involvement, and effort" (Curry and Parr, 1987, p. 372).

Curry and Weaner (1987) created the original self-in-role scale in their research on sport identity salience, initially selecting items from Jackson's (1984) questionnaire and refining the set of fourteen to nine items as well as changing the items from true-false items to Likert ones. Curry and Parr (1988) and Parr (1987) used the recommendations of Curry and Weaner (1987) in creating a slightly modified version of the self-role scale to compare sport and religious identities of different groups of students at a Christian college. The sport self-in-role scales produced a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of .92 in the Curry and Parr study (1988, p. 373) compared to .85 in the Curry and Weaner study (1987, p. 12). Curry and Weiss (1989), in comparing motivation for sport participation between American college and Austrian student sport club members, used a self-in-role scale consisting of ten, five-point Likert items and reported a standardized alpha reliability of .82. Face validity of this scale was established in the Curry and Parr (1988) study. Curry and Weaner (1987) reported that this scale was associated consistently with the sport identity rating and ranking scales.
Two, twelve-item, Likert scales were used in this effort for tapping self-involvement in the volleyball and academic roles. Each item was scored from 8 to 0 corresponding to “very strongly agree” to “very strongly disagree” with the “undecided” response scored as a 4. Item numbers 2, 5, and 6 were reverse scored. The twelve items in each scale were summed to get an indication of one’s self-involvement in each role. The range for each scale was from 96 to 0. The twelve items found in the volleyball and academic scales were:

1. During the past week, I have made several decisions in which my involvement in volleyball has influenced my decision (with schoolwork).
2. I would feel a loss if suddenly I was forced to give up volleyball (quit school).
3. I am strongly committed to being as good in volleyball as I can be (a student).
4. I typically organize my day so that I can compete in volleyball (do my schoolwork).
5. When I participate in volleyball, I do not care if I make mistakes (take tests and complete assignments).
6. Being a volleyball player is something I rarely or never think about (student).
7. I often plan ahead to make time for volleyball (my schoolwork).
8. Improving my athletic skills is important to me (study skills).
9. As far as my own life is concerned, I am more of a spectator than a participant in sports (my studies).
10. I really do not have any clear feelings about being a volleyball player at (name of institution) (student).
11. Being a volleyball player is an important part of who I am (student).
12. For me, being on the volleyball team at (name of institution) means more than just playing volleyball (taking classes toward a major).

One additional item was included with both self-in-role scales. This item was: “When you were a senior in high school, how much did you participate in the following types of activities?” Athletic membership or academic clubs/activities involvement was tapped by the respective self-in-role scales. These items were coded with a 1 for “did not participate”, a 3 for “participated actively” and a 5 for “participated as a leader or officer”.

Others’ expectations. Curry and Weaner (1987), in their original self-in-role scale, had included three items concerning the expectations of others’ as per Callero (1985). Park-Curry (1988) used an eight-item Likert scale to tap others’ expectations and additional items to determine “honors identification” in her research with honors students at a large Midwest university. Curry (1993, p. 79) reported that although Callero, Howard, and Piliavin (1987, p. 251) felt that self-role merger was distinct from the subjective perception of others’ expectations for role performance, the inclusion of items that referred to the perceptions of others’ expectations for continued performance actually enhanced the content validity of the self-role merger scale. He improved this scale from previous efforts by combining items previously used to measure one’s perception of others’ expectations for role performance with items used to measure one’s self-involvement in the role of athlete. In his eight-item Likert scale, he reported a Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient of .79.

Additional scales were used in this effort to determine each player’s personal evaluation about what she felt others thought about her volleyball
participation and her academic involvement. These "others’ expectations" scales consisted of eight, eight-point Likert statements. Each item was scored from 8 to 0 corresponding to "very strongly agree" to "very strongly disagree" with the "undecided" response scored as a 4. Item numbers 4 and 7 were reverse scored. The range for each scale was from 64 to 0. Responses to the eight items in each scale were summed to get an indication of one’s perceptions of the expectations of others’ for their academic involvement and athletic participation. The eight items found in both scales were:

1. Many people think of me in terms of being a volleyball player (student).
2. Other people think that volleyball is important to me (school).
3. It is important to my friends and family that I continue to participate in volleyball (my schooling).
4. No one would really be surprised if I just stopped participating in volleyball (dropped out of school).
5. Many of the people that I know are not aware that I am a volleyball player (college student).
6. Many of the people that I know expect me to continue participating in volleyball (graduate from college).
7. No one would really be surprised if I just stopped participating in volleyball (dropped out of school).
8. Many people would probably be disappointed in me if I just decided to stop participating in volleyball (going to school).

Satisfaction through Participation

Curry and Weaner (1987) used enjoyment of the sport role as a dependent variable and tapped this by simply asking respondents how much
they enjoyed their sport participation. Stryker and Serpe (1982) included as an independent variable a measure of the satisfaction of participation in the religious role and measured such by a three-item index. These researchers argued that role performance should be "affected by the intrinsic value received from or placed on the performance of specific role activities" (p. 212). Park-Curry (1988) used a similar three-item index in addition to including the question, "In general, how personally satisfying do you find your academic achievements?", to measure the satisfaction of students at a large university in their role as academic honors students.

Eighteen, eight-point Likert scale items were used in this study to tap satisfaction through volleyball participation. Each item was scored from 8 to 0 corresponding to "very strongly agree" to "very strongly disagree" with the "undecided" response scored as 4. Item numbers 2, 3, 4, and 11 were reverse coded. The range for this scale was 144 to 0. Responses to the eighteen items were summed to get an indication of one's satisfaction through volleyball participation. In addition, the means for each item were calculated by test administration and treatment group.

Five test items were used in this study to tap satisfaction through academic involvement. Each item was scored from 8 to 0 corresponding to "very strongly agree" to "very strongly disagree" with the "undecided" response scored as 4. The range was 40 to 0 for this scale. The five items were summed to get an indication of one's satisfaction through academic involvement.

The items common to both scales were:

1. I have met or am meeting my personal volleyball goals (in my academic life) at (name of institution).
2. I have felt personally rewarded by what I have accomplished through my volleyball participation (academic course work) at (name of institution).

3. I am satisfied with the amount of effort that I put into volleyball (my studies) at (name of institution).

4. I am generally satisfied with my volleyball performance (academic) at (name of institution).

One additional item found only in the academic satisfaction scale was: I am satisfied with the amount of time I devote to my studies at (name of institution).

There were fourteen additional items in the volleyball satisfaction scale. They included the following.

1. I feel that participation in volleyball has taught me how to set and achieve goals in my personal life.

2. Volleyball isn’t as much fun as it used to be.

3. I feel that volleyball takes up too much of my time.

4. I feel that participating in volleyball has decreased my feelings of self-worth.

5. I feel that if I wasn’t involved in volleyball, I wouldn’t care as much about my health.

6. Through participation in volleyball, I have learned how to keep my body in good physical condition.

7. I feel I have gained control over my body through participation in volleyball.

8. Participating in volleyball has given me confidence in myself.
9. I feel that participating in volleyball has encouraged me to make better use of my free time.

10. Through volleyball, I have developed a sense of my inner strength.

11. Overall, I feel that I do not get enough out of volleyball to justify the time and effort it takes.

12. My participation in volleyball has provided me with valuable training in competition.

13. Through participation in volleyball, I have learned to be more assertive.

14. I feel that my participation in sports has distracted me from more important activities.

**Time Spent in Role**

Two scales were used in this research effort to determine the time the student-athlete intended to spend daily and weekly in the academic and sport roles. Stryker and Serpe (1982), in their study of the religious identity, used time in role as the main role behavior dependent variable indicating that, "one would expect that the higher the commitment to a specific role, the larger the number of hours the person will spend in that role" (p. 211). Park-Curry (1988) used a similar scale to tap hours spent during the week devoted to studying while Parr (1987) measured time spent in sport and religious activities.

In this effort, respondents were asked to estimate the hours they intended to spend participating in volleyball and the hours they intended to devote to studying both on a daily and a weekly basis. In addition, each respondent was given the opportunity to indicate if these estimates were indicative of a typical
week. For each activity, the response was coded into one of eight categories of total hours per week (0=0 hours, 1=1-2 hours, 2=3-5 hours, 3=6-10 hours, 4=11-15 hours, 5=16-20 hours, 6=21-30 hours, 7=over 30 hours).

Background Information

This questionnaire was also designed to measure demographic information such as age, college class, cumulative GPA, race or ethnic identity, parents' educational level and high school and college letter earned. There were categorical responses to choose from for each variable. Each categorical response was assigned a numerical code. For age, categories were under 18, 18-19, 20-21, 22-23, and over 24 and coded beginning with 1 for under 18 and ending with 5 for over 24. For college class, categories were freshman, coded as 1, sophomore as 2, junior as 3, senior as 4 and graduate as 5. Categories for cumulative grade point average were below 2.0 coded as 1, 2.0-2.5 coded as 2, 2.51-3.0 as 3, 3.01-3.5 as 4 and over 3.5 as 5. Race or ethnic identification had eight categorical choices including an "other" category. Respondents were asked to indicate the highest educational level of each parent or guardian. This information was recorded for each parent/guardian by numerically coding the following categories: 1 for did not complete high school, 2 for finished high school or equivalent, 3 for adult education program, 4 for business or trade school, 5 for some college, 6 for finished college, 7 for attended graduate or professional school, and 8 for obtained graduate or professional degree. Lastly, each player was asked to indicate the number of high school and collegiate athletic letters earned. Responses were separated by educational level and coded by multiplying each sport by the number of letters earned. Eight was the maximum possible per educational level.
CHAPTER V
RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to gain a greater understanding of the experience of the non-scholarship collegiate woman athlete through exploring and describing the effects of learned time management skills on the academic and sport identities and on the satisfaction derived from the student and athlete roles. This chapter presents the results of the data analysis.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SUBJECTS

Sixty-four surveys were collected over three test administrations (preseason, midseason and postseason) from athletes participating in the treatment group (time management program) with 25 people completing the initial survey while 21 and 18 completed the second and third surveys respectively. From the five teams composing the control group, 130 surveys were completed with 60 collected for the first administration. There were 34 and 36 surveys completed at the second and third administrations respectively. One team completed only the first and third surveys and another team completed only the first and second surveys. Coaches and players were asked to voluntarily complete this survey on three different occasions and for any number of reasons not all of the persons completing the first survey were able to
compete the second and third surveys. This accounted for the differing numbers of respondents at each test administration. Table 2 shows the number of respondents by experimental group and test administration for the six groups surveyed.

Table 2. Frequency of Respondents by Group and Test Administration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>First Testing</th>
<th>Second Testing</th>
<th>Third Testing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control 1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control 2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control 3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control 4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control 5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The modal age category for the entire sample was 18-19 years of age. Thirty-eight percent of the surveys were completed by freshmen (19% in the control group), 34% were completed by sophomores (28% in the control group), 18% were completed by juniors (11% in the control group) and 10% were completed by seniors (8% in the control group). The modal cumulative GPA category for the entire sample was 2.0-2.5 (35%) followed by 32% in the 2.51-3.0 range. Ninety-eight percent of the athletes in the sample were white or Caucasian. The modal educational category for fathers and mothers was a high school degree or its equivalent (43 and 44 percent of the respondents respectively). Forty percent of the athletes had earned eight high school letters, 14% had earned seven and 20% had earned six letters. Thirty-six percent of the respondents had not earned a collegiate letter, 26% had earned one letter,
18% had earned two letters, 10% had earned three letters and 10% had earned four or more collegiate letters.

THE ACADEMIC IDENTITY

Table 3 provides the tests of significance for the academic identity variables in this study. They indicate that the treatment group was statistically significantly different than the control group on the forced choice ranking.

Table 3. T-tests: Academic Identity Variables by Test
Administration and Treatment Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>X_Treat.</th>
<th>X_Control</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Forced Choice Ranking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test 1</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>-1.12</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test 2</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test 3</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>-2.31</td>
<td>.01</td>
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<tr>
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and importance rating of the academic identity at the final test administration as well as on the time spent in the academic role (preseason and midseason test).

Identity Rankings and Ratings

Figure 1 provides the means and standard deviations by test administration and treatment group for the forced choice ranking of the academic identity. The mean forced choice academic ranking over the three
survey administrations for the time management group was slightly higher than for the control group (4.97 to 4.65). This academic ranking increased from the preseason to the postseason (4.92 to 5.11) for the treatment group while the academic identity ranking decreased over this same period (4.70 to 4.58) for the control group.

The importance ratings of the academic identity were comparable to the rankings. Figure 2 provides the means and standard deviations by test administration and treatment group for the importance ratings of the academic identity. The mean academic importance rating over the three test administrations for the time management group increased over this period (87.16 to 90.50) while the control group experienced a decrease during this same period (85.77 to 84.75). The mean academic importance rating over the three test administrations for the time management group was higher than that of the control group (87.72 to 85.17).

Figure 2 - Importance rating of academic identity by test administration and treatment group
The ranking and rating of an identity are indications of the salience of an identity and in other research efforts has supplemented information from a self-involvement in a role measure. While they are correlated measures they measure slightly different aspects of identity salience. The forced choice rankings technique requires the respondents to indicate the relative importance of an identity while the 0 to 100 importance scale allows ties. Both measures of the salience of the identity for the time management versus the control group did indicate a statistically significant difference between these two groups at the end of the season. Athletes receiving training in time management principles did show a significantly higher identification with the student role at the end of the competitive season than did those athletes not receiving such training. This supports hypothesis 1a that states that athletes receiving time management training will develop greater involvement in their academic role as shown by higher rankings and ratings of this identity than those in the control group.

Respondents in the treatment and control groups frequently mentioned that participation in sport made them manage their time more effectively. It appeared, however, that although the athletes in the control group believed they managed their time wisely during their season of athletic participation, their sense of the importance of the academic identity decreased during this period. It was hypothesized that those persons learning to manage their roles, especially the academic and sport roles, would be more apt to show a balance between these two roles. It appeared that this was the case for those receiving time management training. Individuals who had learned to manage their time were able to successfully play two important roles. On the other hand, it appeared that those not taught time management skills were unable to find the time and energy necessary to fulfill the demands of both roles. Perhaps these
participants felt less intrinsic or extrinsic satisfaction or social support for continued time and energy spent in the academic role and made conscious decisions to commit their personal resources to a more rewarding role, the sport one, as the season progressed.

Self-Involvement in the Academic Role

Figure 3 provides the means and standard deviations by test administration and treatment group for the self-involvement in the academic role. The mean score for the self-involvement in the academic role over the three test administrations was slightly higher for the time management group than for the control group (72.98 to 71.56 out of a total of 96). The mean scores for self-involvement in the academic role over the three test administrations ranged from 70.2 to 76.17 for the treatment group from the preseason to the postseason test administrations with a range of 70.22 to 73.67 for the control group. Overall, athletes in the time management training did develop a greater self-involvement in the academic role than did those not receiving such training. This difference, however, was not significantly different, therefore, hypothesis 1b
Self-involvement in the academic role is a measure of one's merging of the self with the academic role. It too is correlated with identity salience measures (forced choice rankings and importance ratings) however it is a slightly different measure because it attempts to gauge the psychological centrality of a role to one's personal identity. The results showed a higher self-involvement in this role for the time management group indicating that planning, making decisions, emotional involvement and effort given to events in their lives were affected by the view of the self as student unlike for those individuals in the control group.

Others' Expectations of Academic Work

Figure 4 provides the means and standard deviations by test administration and treatment group for others' expectations of academic work. The mean score over the three test administrations for the treatment group was slightly higher than for the control group (57.41 to 56.70 out of a total of 64).
Both groups evidenced an increase in others’ expectations of their academic work over time (56.64 to 57.89 for the time management group and 56.27 to 58.06 for the control group).

The expectations of others often supports the view of one’s self in a particular role and has been included by some investigators as a measure of self-in-role. Snyder (1985) contends that social support for a role provides commitment to it. Stryker (1980, p. 62) states that “the expectations of others serve to define roles that are important to the structure of the self.” This is a part of the process of involvement of self-in-role which identifies one’s self as well as being identified by others in terms of a role.

In this study, there were no significant differences evidenced between the treatment and the control groups at any point in time in regard to the expectations of others for the academic role. Therefore, there was no support for hypothesis 1c stating that athletes in time management training would have greater expectations from others for the academic role than those in the control group. Interpersonal relationships have been found to be important in supporting the salience of an identity. In this instance, it appeared that both treatment and control group individuals identified with the academic role to begin with and that the expectations of others did not increase the identification with this role. These players already had a strong sense of self as a student even during the competitive season.

Satisfaction Through Academic Involvement

Figure 5 provides the means and standard deviations by test administration and treatment group for satisfaction in academic involvement. The mean score over the three test administrations for the treatment group was slightly higher than for the control group (25.39 to 25.20 out of a total of 40).
The range for the time management group was from 22.72 to 29.28 from the preseason to the postseason while the control group means ranged from 24.38 to 26.86.

Hypothesis 1d stated that athletes receiving time management training would derive greater satisfaction from their academic participation than those not receiving such training. These results do not lend support for this hypothesis. Student-athletes receiving time management training did experience a greater increase in academic satisfaction from preseason to postseason than did those not receiving such training but this difference was not statistically significant.

Time management training evidently built a sense of self as student as shown by a significant difference between treatment and control groups at the postseason test administration for the academic ranking and rating identity variables. Role-identities prominent in the hierarchy of the self are more likely
to provide personal satisfaction. The treatment was constructed so that participants experienced positive encouragement from fellow teammates and coaches regarding this role. In many programs student-athletes are told and expected to do well academically but then are not supported in such efforts as found in this situation. The creation and reinforcement of this academic "subculture" served to increase the satisfaction derived from this role.

Hours Spent in the Academic Role

Figure 6 provides the means and standard deviations by test administration and treatment group for total hours per week the student-athlete intended to spend in the academic role. Hours listed on each survey were categorized such that over 30 hours per week was a 7, 21-30 hours per week a 6, 16-20 hours a 5, 11-15 hours a 4, 6-10 hours per week a 3. The mean for the treatment group was higher than for the control group such that the former intended to spend 11-15 hours per week in this role while the latter, 6-10 hours. The means for the treatment group decreased slightly over test administrations while the control group increased substantially. Individuals in the control group

![Figure 6 - Hours (by categories) spent in academic role by test administration and treatment group (5=15-20 hrs., 4=11-15, 3=6-10)](image-url)
initially intended to spend slightly less than 6-10 hours per week in the academic role. This finding should be considered in light of the fact that not all institutions were in session at the time of the initial survey administration. The results of the first administration may have to be interpreted differently as a result. After the volleyball season was over, these same individuals intended on spending 11-15 hours per week in this same role.

The intended time spent in the academic role was significantly different between the time management and control groups during the preseason and midseason but not after the completion of the season. Time spent in a role has been used as an indication of commitment to that role (Stryker and Serpe, 1982, p. 211). Snyder contends that "the depth, intensity and continuity of one's identity invested in a role reflect the level of commitment...including the expenditure of time, energy, or other valuables to the role" (1985, p. 212). The fact that those persons in the time management group had a significantly greater number of hours invested in the academic role throughout the course of the competitive season than the control group illustrates commitment to this role. At the same time, athletes in the control group might have experienced a strain between the role obligations of being an athlete and being a student. This is especially noteworthy with the midseason results.

Summary of Findings for Academic Identity

There were significant differences between the time management and control groups in hours spent in the academic role and the forced choice rankings and importance ratings of this role. Satisfaction with academic work, although not significantly different between time management and control groups, did increase for both groups, substantially over the course of the competitive season for the former. Self-involvement in the academic role,
although not significantly different between time management and control groups, did increase for both, substantially over the course of the competitive season for the former. Others' expectations of academic involvement did increase over the course of the season for both groups although there were no significant differences between the time management and control groups evidenced at any of the test administrations.

Ranking of an identity forces the individual to choose between other identities that might be important. Since there is only a finite amount of time and energy there will be difficulties in fulfilling the obligations of all roles as well as choosing which one to place ahead of another. Rating the importance of each identity is a different type of salience measure. Since one is not forced to choose between identities, a person could assign the same numerical importance to two identities. The self-in-role measure is a related measure previously used by other investigators, one which indicates the psychological centrality of a personal identity.

In this study, the time management individuals were more likely to invoke the academic identity in a given situation than persons in the control group because of the salience of this identity. At the same time, their psychological involvement, the importance of academics to them personally, increased yet was not significantly different from those individuals not receiving time management training. Social support for a role as well as satisfaction experienced in a role, are also keys to one's commitment to a role. Statistically the student-athletes' perceptions of the expectations of others for their academic involvement was not different between the treatment and the control groups. There was evidence that people were supporting the student-athlete in the role of student. Interestingly enough, players learning to manage their time realized
a greater change in academic satisfaction during a busy quarter than what those in the control group experienced (range of 6.56 for the former and 2.48 for the latter). Certainly self involvement in a role and satisfaction gained from this same role would illustrate commitment to it and thus the likelihood of invoking that role in a given situation.

Perhaps the "ideal self" as student was important to those in the control group but, unlike the players in the time management group, these individuals were unable to make this "ideal" a reality. Those in the time management group experienced constant reminders of the importance of being a good student and a good athlete and the importance of accepting the responsibilities for both roles. Study tables were mandatory for all volleyball participants, regardless the GPA, twice per week. Academic progress reports for all team members were requested from faculty members prior to midterm exams. Players were reminded frequently of the importance of class attendance especially since volleyball contests required several missed class sessions. Players were reminded also of the importance of notifying professors of missed classes and securing information about missed assignments and exams.

The environment created in the treatment group was one that supported the academic role for the student-athlete. The more transitory "situational self", in the case of one of these players, would more than likely invoke the role-identity of student in situations she might find herself, perhaps more so than those not receiving such training in time principles.

THE SPORT IDENTITY

Table 4 provides the tests of significance for the sport identity variables in this study. They indicate that the treatment group was statistically significantly
different than the control group on the forced choice ranking and importance rating of the sport identity as well as on the expectations of others for this role. None of the other variables showed a significant difference between the treatment and control groups at any of the test administrations.

Table 4. T-tests: Sport Identity Variables by Test Administration and Treatment Group

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<th>$\bar{X}_{Control}$</th>
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Identity Rankings and Ratings

Figure 7 provides the means and standard deviations by test administration and treatment group for the forced choice ranking of the sport identity. The mean score over the three-test administrations showed that the forced choice ranking of the sport identity for the time management group was slightly lower than for the control group (3.33 to 3.48). While the sport ranking decreased in importance for the time management group (3.48 to 2.83) from the preseason to the postseason, it increased for the control group over this same period (3.33 to 3.45).
The sport importance ratings were comparable to the rankings. Figure 8 shows the means and standard deviations for the treatment and control groups by test administration. The mean sport importance rating over the three test administrations for the time management group was lower than that of the control group (69.45 to 74.65). The mean sport importance rating for the control group from the preseason to the postseason increased (74.32 to 75.44) while that of the time management group decreased during this same period (74.76 to 60.56).

The forced choice rankings for the sport identity for the time management and the control groups did indicate a significant difference between groups at the end of the season such that those in the time management group had a significantly lower sport identity ranking. The sport importance ratings were also significantly lower for the time management than for the control group at the end of the season. This suggests that athletes in the control group were
more strongly identified with the role of athlete at the end of the season than those in the time management group. Thus there was no support for hypothesis 2a. The athletes who received time management training did not develop greater involvement in the sport role than those in the control group as shown by higher ranking and rating of the sport identity, rather, as the volleyball season progressed, these student-athletes showed just the opposite. Their rankings and ratings for this identity decreased rather than increased as was hypothesized.

The individuals in the treatment group evidenced a dramatic decrease in the ranking and rating of the sport identity from midseason to postseason perhaps because of the constant reminders to take their academic role seriously. The fact that the competitive season had ended evidently resulted in a sharp decrease in the salience of this identity in the hierarchy of role-identities. At that point, it would appear that those players had a change in the salience hierarchy of role-identities such that the sport identity, in all likelihood, would not have been invoked in situations as previously it might have been. For those players in the control group, it appeared that they were, to some extent, still “riding the effects of the volleyball season”. The rankings and ratings of this identity were higher in the postseason than at any other point in the season for the control group. Perhaps this could be partially attributed to the awards received at the postseason volleyball banquet or the recognition received from others as a result of such awards.

Women are becoming increasingly like men in regard to the importance of sport participation. Blinde and Greendorfer (1992) contend that the structural and philosophical context of women’s intercollegiate sport has changed to one more closely resembling the male model of sport with its emphasis on
professionalization, commercialism, and product as opposed to process. This is increasingly evident as one witnesses the changes at the high school level regarding play outside of the traditional competitive season. As the opportunities for organized play in volleyball outside of the competitive high school season increases and as high school girl athletes become increasingly specialized in a sport such as volleyball, more women athletes will enter the college ranks with a view of self as a volleyball athlete. Ultimately more female athletes coming from the interscholastic ranks will be focused first on finding a school to meet their volleyball needs and secondly, their academic needs. This view of self as athlete then student is obvious at the Division I level now especially in men's sports as evident by increasingly greater legislation of "academic rules" for athletic participant eligibility. There is a sense that this "mentality" is already present in women's sport in the collegiate ranks, increasingly so at all levels of competition. With increasing pressure to commit time and energies to the pursuit of excellence in a sport, there will be increasingly greater involvement of the self in the role of woman athlete. By learning the importance of other roles and how they may be played out along with the athlete role, the student-athlete can be better able to meet the demands of all roles he or she desires to play.

Self-Involvement in the Volleyball Role

Figure 9 provides the means and standard deviations by test administration and treatment group for self-involvement in the volleyball role. The mean score over the three test administrations was slightly lower for the time management group than for the control group (70.52 to 70.92 out of a total of 96). The mean scores for self-involvement in the volleyball role over the three test administrations ranged from 73.76 to 63.33 for the treatment group
and 73.45 to 66.61 for the control group. There were no significant differences between group means for self-involvement in the volleyball role at any of these test administrations, therefore, hypothesis 2b stating that athletes who receive time management training will develop greater self-involvement in the sport role than those athletes in the control group was not supported. These results, however, do follow in line with the identity rankings and ratings as measures of self-in-role for the time management group although not for the control group. Individuals in the treatment group versus those in the control group had less of a view of self as volleyball athletes with time.

**Others' Expectations of Athletic Participation**

Figure 10 provides means and standard deviations by test administration and treatment group for others' expectations of athletic participation. The mean score over the three test administrations for others' expectations of athletic participation was higher for the control group than for
the time management group (47.62 to 46.36 out of a total of 64). From the preseason to the postseason, the means of the time management group decreased starting at 48.08, 47.33 at midseason, and ending at 42.83. The means for the control group were relatively consistent (from 48.08 to 46.21 to 48.19, first test administration to last). Both treatment and control groups had lower mean scores for others' expectations of athletic participation at every test administration than for others' expectations of academic involvement.

Others' expectations of a role has often been included in other research efforts as a measure of self-involvement in a role. The control group had a significantly higher mean at the postseason test administration for others' expectations of athletic participation than did the treatment group. Hypothesis 2c stating that athletes in the time management training will have greater expectations from others for the sport role than those athletes in the control group was not supported. Rather, the reverse was true, athletes in the control group felt greater expectations from others for their sport participation.

![Figure 10 - Others' expectations of athletic participation by test administration and treatment group](image-url)
An individual's hierarchy of role-identities and the commitment to each identity varies with time. The expectations of others for athletic participation decreased substantially during the postseason for those in the time management group paralleling a similar decrease in the forced choice ranking, the self involvement in the volleyball role and the importance rating of the sport identity, each considered to be measures of the salience of the sport role. Evidently these participants, and those close to them, did not "bask in the glory of a season past" and engaged themselves in other pursuits and therefore, other identities, unlike those individuals in the control group.

**Satisfaction Through Athletic Participation**

Figure 11 provides the means and standard deviations by test administration and treatment group for satisfaction with volleyball participation. The mean score for the time management group was slightly lower than for the control group over the three test administrations (104.36 to 105.41 out of 144). The time management group evidenced a decrease followed by an increase in satisfaction (107.72 to 97.76 to 107.39) over the course of the season while the

![Figure 11 - Satisfaction through athletic participation (by 100) by test administration and treatment group](image)
control group evidenced a similar pattern (109.02 to 100.68 to 103.89).

Hypothesis 2d stated that the athletes who received time management training would derive greater satisfaction from their sport participation than those in the control group. There was no support for this hypothesis. There was not a significant difference in the satisfaction in sport participation between the treatment and the control group at any point in time although those persons in the time management group did indicate a greater satisfaction through sport participation at the end of the season. This finding is interesting in light of the fact that the sport identity variables considered, i.e., forced choice ranking, importance rating, self-involvement in role, and others' expectations, were all higher for the control group than for the time management group. Perhaps, this reflects the skill of the time management group participants in handling two important roles at once whereas those in the control group, although considering themselves athletes, were not altogether satisfied with the rewards from this role.

Individual items composing the satisfaction scale for athletic participation tapped the benefits of volleyball involvement as well as time commitment to the volleyball role. Table 5 gives the scale and item statistics by treatment group and test administration. It would appear that time management principles were beneficial in teaching one to set and achieve goals in personal life as illustrated by the greater increase in the mean scores for this item between the treatment and control groups from the preseason to the postseason test administrations. Greater increases for the time management group as opposed to the control group were also evidenced in developing a sense of inner strength, of volleyball as a site for gaining personal rewards as well as a place for increasing feelings of self-worth, as a place for evidencing satisfaction in effort
Table 5. Satisfaction Through Athletic Participation: Scale and Item Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I feel that participation in volleyball has taught me how to set and achieve goals in my personal life.</td>
<td>+0.59</td>
<td>+0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Volleyball isn't as much fun as it used to be.</td>
<td>-0.86</td>
<td>-1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I feel that volleyball takes up too much of my time.</td>
<td>+1.07</td>
<td>+0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I feel that participating in volleyball has decreased my feelings of self-worth.</td>
<td>+1.00</td>
<td>+0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I feel that if I wasn't involved in volleyball, I wouldn't care as much about my health.</td>
<td>-0.58</td>
<td>+0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Through participation in volleyball, I have learned how to keep my body in good physical condition.</td>
<td>+0.12</td>
<td>+0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I feel I have gained control over my body through participation in volleyball.</td>
<td>+0.67</td>
<td>+0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Participating in volleyball has given me confidence in myself.</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I feel that participating in volleyball has encouraged me to make better use of my free time.</td>
<td>+0.66*</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Through volleyball, I have developed a sense of my inner strength.</td>
<td>+0.59</td>
<td>-0.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 (continued)

11. Overall, I feel that I do not get enough out of volleyball to justify the time and effort it takes.  -1.19**  -0.02

12. My participation in volleyball has provided me with valuable training in competition.  +0.06  -0.79

13. Through participation in volleyball, I have learned to be more assertive.  -0.18  -0.21

14. I feel that my participation in sports has distracted me from more important activities.  +0.18  +0.26

15. I have met or am meeting my personal volleyball goals through participation at (name of institution).  -0.17  -0.61

16. I have felt personally rewarded by what I have accomplished through my volleyball participation at (name of institution).  +0.74  -0.19

17. I am satisfied with the amount of effort I have put into volleyball at (name of institution).  +0.80  -0.63

18. I am generally satisfied with my volleyball performance at (name of institution).  +0.67  +0.01

* p>.05, two-tailed test of significance between means of treatment and control, test 3
** p>.05, two-tailed test of significance between means of treatment group, test 1 to 3
given to volleyball, and as a way of gaining control over one's body through volleyball participation. Persons in the time management training group were generally more satisfied with their volleyball performance than those in the control group.

The time management group experienced several differences in their use of time versus the control group from the preseason to the postseason test administration. Item 3 regarding "I feel that volleyball takes up too much of my time" showed a greater increase, although not significant, between the preseason and postseason means for the treatment group than for the control group. Item 9 (I feel that participating in volleyball has encouraged me to make better use of my free time, \( t=-2.42, p =.02 \)) differed significantly between treatment and control groups at the third test administration. "Overall, I feel that I do not get enough out of volleyball to justify the time and effort it takes," showed a significant difference between the preseason and postseason means for the time management group (\( t=2.05, p =.05 \)) such that persons in this group found even greater justification for time spent in volleyball over the course of the season. Future studies could explore further the student-athlete's satisfaction gained through athletic participation using this scale.

**Hours Spent in the Volleyball Role**

Figure 12 provides the means and standard deviations by test administration and treatment group for total hours in a week spent in the volleyball role. Hours listed on each survey were categorized such that over 30 hours per week was a 7, 21-30 hours per week a 6, 16-20 hours a 5, 11-15 hours a 4, 6-10 hours per week a 3. For both treatment and control groups, the mean scores decreased over the course of the season from a high of 21-30 hours per week to 1-2 hours per week at the conclusion of the competitive
season. The treatment group had a slightly greater range for hours spent in the volleyball role from the preseason to the postseason.

Time spent in a role is an indication of one's commitment to that role. As such, there was little difference between the treatment and control groups regarding the intentions they had in spending time in this role. Both groups experienced a significant amount of time committed to the volleyball role during the preseason with a substantial decrease in the postseason. Since season practice and playing schedules are NCAA rule-governed, and most teams have similar schedules in this regard as a result, it is not surprising that the time spent in this role at any point in the season was not different for the treatment as opposed to the control group. Time commitment to the volleyball role is essentially out of the control of the participant and in the control of the team's coach. Time the athletes intended to commit to the academic role was significantly different between treatment and control groups at preseason and at
midseason. This is noteworthy in that time spent in the sport role is relatively uncontrollable by the participant while time spent in the academic role is not scheduled “practice time” or “contest time” by any coach but is at the discretion of the individual student-athlete.

**Summary of Findings of the Sport Identity**

Significant differences between the treatment and control groups were evidenced in the forced choice rankings and the importance ratings of the sport identity as well as others' expectations for sport participation. Although not significantly different, similar findings for the self-involvement in the sport role was evidenced for the time management group and, surprisingly, for the control group. Such findings did not support the hypothesis that athletes receiving time management training would have a higher self-involvement in their sport role as a result of such training. In fact, one trying to "sell" the Division III athletic experience to those persons believing in the ideal of the "scholar-athlete" would be pleased with these results in that the athletes in the time management group were able to be successful in both roles. The athlete, according to the results of this study, can be taught the skill of managing her time to enable her to fulfill the obligations of both the academic and the athlete roles. Neither role need be sacrificed at the expense of the other.

Although significant differences between the treatment and the control groups were not evidenced for the satisfaction gained through the athletic experience, it was evident that the sport experience was of value to the participants in developing a competent self and a proactive approach to life. In most every instance, the persons involved in the time management training were more satisfied with their athletic experience than those not, as indicated by their responses to items from the SII, even though they identified less with this
role than those in the control group. It would appear that one can be successful and gain a sense of personal satisfaction from two role-identities simultaneously if one is taught to manage these roles. As Snyder (1985) contends, engagement in both roles at the same time doesn't require that strain or conflict between the two result, as historically has been the perception by those in and outside of sport. If approached from the proper perspective, one role could conceivably benefit the other by an additive effect. Such might be said to have happened in this study. Those persons involved in the time management program were taught to prioritize and manage their roles and role obligations. As a result, they experienced increased satisfaction in both the academic and athletic roles through the course of the volleyball season unlike persons in the control group. In addition, the individuals in this group viewed themselves as athletes and as students and were successful in both areas.

**Empowerment Issues and The Collegiate Sport Experience**

The Sports Identity Index provided several opportunities for student-athletes to express their personal feelings about their sport participation and academic involvement for the time management and control groups. In one instance, the respondent was asked to comment on how athletic participation affected her social and academic lives.

Many respondents mentioned that participation in volleyball had helped them meet new friends. One person described the fact that volleyball “gave me 20 new friends” while another person mentioned that “I know that if I did not play, I would not have the strong friends that I have.” Still another described her volleyball friendships as “I have met many wonderful friends that have stuck by me in many problems and trials.” Numerous athletes mentioned that “most of my friends are in athletics,” “all my friends are made through volleyball,” and
“most of my friends are volleyball players so it really doesn’t hurt as much because we are in the same boat.” These responses reflect the group empowering capability of sport especially the opportunity for female bonding. Blinde et al. (1994) reported similar findings with the NCAA Division I athletes they interviewed. Here also, bonding of athletes appeared to be a result of common sport experiences. For many respondents, athletes composed the major network of friends.

Not only did volleyball participation provide immediate friendship opportunities on the same team but many respondents mentioned its value in helping to meet people from other schools. One person responded, “Socially, I have met many people from various schools.” In addition, numerous respondents mentioned that volleyball participation gained them personal recognition from those persons outside of the volleyball setting. “People on campus see me as a volleyball player, so I am better known by everyone,” “people know me from volleyball,” “everyone knows athletes and have seen your face around,” and “people know who you are because you are on a team” were several indications of the social benefits the participant recognized through her sport involvement.

There were players, however, who felt that their volleyball participation had actually hurt their social life. One such individual replied, “I don’t have time for a social life,” while another stated “I have very little time to socialize since I either study or play volleyball.” One player mentioned, “We are never here on Friday or Saturday nights. That kind of hampers my social life, but it does not really bother me.” It appeared that many respondents had prioritized the activities in their lives such that losing out on a social life during the volleyball season was not all important. This attitude was reflected in the comment by one
athlete, "By participating in volleyball I have gained new friends which I hang around most often. In a way, volleyball takes up a lot of time on Fridays and Saturdays which cuts down on time to socialize, but I obviously think it is worth it."

Many respondents indicated that participating in volleyball helped academically because "I spend my time more wisely," "it makes me manage my time more," "I do more things each day, get things accomplished rather than put them off even though I must have less time," and "I learn to manage my time for both my schoolwork and my friends." This effective and efficient use of time was reflected in responses to several survey items including the feeling that volleyball participation encouraged better use of free time, the feeling that volleyball participation was worth the time and effort. One player indicated that volleyball participation "helps academically because I must remain eligible," while another said that "volleyball pushes me to do well so I am eligible."

There were also those persons that felt that their volleyball participation hurt their academic life. "I could have done better with academics, if I didn't spend so much time with volleyball. Sports definitely interfere with academics." Still others contended that volleyball participation does not help or hurt their academic life. According to one player "academically, it hasn't really done either..." while another mentioned that volleyball "does not affect academic life because I have played volleyball, basketball, and softball during high school." The sentiment that volleyball participation did not help or hurt players' social and academic lives was reflected in the item asked each player regarding whether sport had distracted her from more important activities. Both treatment and control group individuals indicated strong disagreement with this statement. Thus it appears that players find some value in the time and effort spent in the
volleyball experience even at the expense of participation in other activities.

Ten individuals in the time management group were interviewed after the volleyball season and were asked to describe the outcomes of their volleyball participation at an individual level as per Blinde et al. (1993). As with their results, the responses of athletes in this study indicated several ways that sport had helped to develop the notion of a competent self. The notion of "being in control" was frequently mentioned in the athletes' responses. As a result of her volleyball participation, one athlete learned "who I am and what I'm made of, how really strong I am." This notion of self was also reflected in the statement from the satisfaction through athletic participation item from the Sports Identity Index, "Through volleyball, I have developed a sense of my inner strength." The time management group evidenced an increase in the strength of this response over the course of the competitive season unlike the control group.

Another respondent described this control over self as "knowing what to expect of myself." This sense of control was also reflected in reference to body control gained through the sport experience. The mean response to the statement "I feel I have gained control over my body through participation in volleyball," was 6.67 out of 8 (very strongly agree) for the treatment group and 5.97 for the control group. Both groups showed even stronger agreement with this item over the course of the competitive season.

One person enjoyed the challenge of sport and compared volleyball participation with music involvement saying that one could get "nothing beyond the highest rating in band, there is no higher you can go in music, unlike sport." In addition, several athletes credited sport with providing them with a sense of self-actualization, "finding out maybe that I really am good." Many described their sport involvement as helping in the development of self-esteem by making
them "feel better about myself," "I feel good about myself especially when I hear people cheering for me," and "I feel good about my body when I'm playing volleyball." These same feelings of self-worth were evident in the responses to the SII statement "I feel that participation in volleyball has decreased my feelings of self-worth." The mean response to this item was in the strongly to very strongly disagree range. Sport participation was mentioned as a confidence builder by several as well. Players, in response to the SII statement, "Participating in volleyball has given me confidence in myself," strongly agreed to this outcome of sport participation. Several persons that were interviewed mentioned that the sport experience helped in learning to live and work with different kinds of people. This was evidenced by several athletes who commented that "you have to learn to adjust to people," "you must learn to work with a group of people and accept their differences," and "you have to play and work with all kinds of people similar to situations outside of sport."

Another theme that Blinde et al. (1993) discovered underlying the comments of the women athletes they interviewed concerned the adoption of a proactive approach to life including the ability to set goals and establish strategies for achieving them and feeling comfortable about being assertive and competitive. In this study, one individual who described volleyball participation as helping her to set and accomplish goals commented that when she was organized she could "concentrate and be more focused." The use of sport participation in teaching one to set and achieve goals in one's personal life was an important outcome to survey respondents. Another proactive dimension related to sport participation and seen as an outcome of such by several athletes was determination and dedication. In addition, several individuals interviewed said that sport provided them with the opportunity to adopt a more
competitive orientation. Training in competition was an outcome of volleyball participation mentioned as valuable by survey respondents.

When asked about the issue of how sport makes them feel, several respondents that sport participation allowed them the opportunity to "lose myself," as a time when "I don't have to think," and as a "way to release energy."
CHAPTER VI
COMPARING THE SPORT AND ACADEMIC IDENTITIES OF WINNING VERSUS LOSING TEAMS

The purpose of this study was to gain a greater understanding of the experience of the non-scholarship collegiate woman athlete. Thus far this effort has explored and described this experience by considering several academic and sport identity variables and by considering the sport experience as described by individual athletes. In considering these variables and their outcomes at several points in the competitive volleyball season, it appears that another factor might be considered as important in the development of the self as student and/or as athlete. One cannot dispute that an individual on a winning team will have a different sport experience than an individual that is part of a losing team. In this study, three teams (control groups 1 and 3, hereafter referred to as S1 and S2, and the treatment group, as TM) had very successful volleyball seasons (as defined according to wins and losses and potential for postseason NCAA Division III national playoffs) while one team (control group 5, hereafter referred to as US) had a very unsuccessful season. Control groups 1 and 3 participated in the 1993 NCAA Division III national volleyball playoffs while the treatment group just missed qualifying for these same playoffs. It is from this perspective that this researcher will look again at the sport and academic identity variables.
ACADEMIC IDENTITY VARIABLES

S1 had the lowest preseason forced choice ranking of the academic identity of all of the experimental groups followed by S2 (4.35 and 4.56 respectively). US had a preseason forced choice ranking of 4.62, the third lowest while the treatment group had the second highest ranking of the academic identity with a 4.92. Both S1 and S2 experienced a decrease in this salience measure of the academic identity with time in the season while US and TM evidenced increases in these forced choice rankings.

Similar findings were noted in the importance ratings of the academic identity. Again, S1 had the lowest importance rating of this identity at the preseason test administration followed by S2 (78.45 and 81.56 respectively). Both teams experienced decreases in the importance ratings for the academic identity over the course of the season. US had a slightly higher importance rating of the academic identity initially than did TM (87.50 to 87.16). Both of these groups experienced an increase in the academic importance ratings over the course of the season.

Similar results occurred for self-involvement in the academic role at both preseason and postseason test administrations. S1 and S2 had the lowest mean scores of the six groups while TM and US had the fourth highest and the second highest respectively. S1 and S2 experienced the lowest overall mean scores for academic satisfaction while US and TM experienced the greatest increases in satisfaction of any of the experimental groups from the preseason to the postseason test administrations. S2 had the lowest overall mean score for others' expectations of academic work. All of the experimental groups evidenced an increase in these expectations throughout the course of the volleyball season except two, one of which was S2.
SPORT IDENTITY VARIABLES

S1 and S2 had the third highest and highest overall mean scores respectively for the forced choice rankings of the sport identity. These two teams evidenced the greatest increases in the sport importance ratings of any of the experimental groups over the course of the season. US and TM evidenced dramatic decreases in sport identity rankings similar to those shown in the sport importance ratings. TM and US experienced decreases in the self-involvement in the sport role measure over the course of the season while S1 and S2 both showed increases. As a team, US had the lowest satisfaction in sport score at the preseason test administration while S1 had the highest followed by S2 and the treatment group. S1 and S2 and TM experienced modest gains in satisfaction from the preseason to the postseason while US showed a dramatic decrease in satisfaction during this time. Initially S2 had the highest mean score for others’ expectations for sport participation with S1 a close second, TM was third lowest and US was the second lowest. Both TM and US showed decreases in the mean scores for others’ expectations of athletic participation from preseason to postseason while S1 and S2 remained the same in this regard.

In summary, the two most successful teams had the highest mean scores for the sport identity variables while, at the same time, the lowest scores for the academic identity variables. TM, also a successful team, had increases in many of the academic identity variables with a decrease in many of the sport identity variables over the competitive season. S1, S2, and TM experienced some satisfaction through athletic participation while TM experienced a dramatic increase in satisfaction through academic involvement compared to the slight increase for the S1 and S2. Others’ expectations of athletic participation were
lower for TM than for the S1 and S2 while all three showed similar expectations from others regarding their academic work. Interestingly, the academic importance ratings for two of the successful teams (S1 and S2) were higher at the preseason test administration than the sport importance ratings. This finding did not hold true at later times in the season.

US evidenced an increase in the forced choice ranking of the academic identity and the importance rating of the academic identity from preseason to postseason with a decrease in the sport identity ranking and rating over the same time. Self-involvement in academics as well as others' expectations for and satisfaction with this role increased with time in season while these same sport-related role variables decreased during this period.

WINNING PROGRAMS AND THE EFFECT ON THE ACADEMIC AND SPORT ROLES

A successful as opposed to an unsuccessful volleyball program is more likely to have players that identify with the sport role. The more successful the program, the more likely one will derive satisfaction from sport participation. People will identify with roles in which they can experience some satisfaction. Evidently individuals on the losing team were not experiencing what they desired from their role as athlete such that they increasingly removed themselves from this role-identity to one where they were able to experience more satisfaction, the role-identity of student. Individuals on teams S1 and S2 achieved some satisfaction from the athletic role thereby increasing their investment in that role as evidenced by an increase in the forced choice ranking and importance rating of the sport identity. At the same time that US put less of the self into the sport role and more of the self into the academic one, the
winning teams with the exception of the treatment group, put their sense of self into the sport identity rather than increasingly into the academic identity. By the end of the competitive season, S1 and S2 had elevated the importance of the sport identity and decreased the academic role-identity as a part of the self while the reverse was evidenced by TM as a successful team and US as a losing team.

Why was the treatment group different in regard to the sport and academic identity variables than the other two successful teams? The time spent in the sport role was not different between these three teams. All three of these teams devoted similar amounts of time to the sport role, were similar in the successes experienced (according to wins-losses, national playoff contention), and were satisfied with their sport performances. The time spent in the academic role was significantly higher at the midseason test administration for the treatment group than for the other two groups, the treatment group experienced an increasingly greater identification with the academic role as well as greater satisfaction with this role. If all three teams experienced similar athletic success, then why didn't all teams experience similar academic success too?

Perhaps part of the answer lies with the coach of the team. The coach of S1 was entering her second year as head coach in a traditionally successful program. She had experienced, in her short coaching career, some success as a men’s volleyball coach in a large Midwestern institution before arriving at this school. Her first year as women’s coach at her current institution, however, was less successful than many persons had expected as well as what the institution was accustomed to under the previous head coach of twenty plus years. The head coach of S2 had built that program into a nationalcontending team in less
than four years. Located in a large metropolitan area, this Division III school was known to attract volleyball players from the area that didn't want to leave home and that weren't good enough to play for the Division I schools in the area but wanted to play for a reputable volleyball program. He had had a multitude of previous coaching experiences in his twenty plus years.

Blinde and Greendorfer (1992) contend that women's collegiate sport has undergone some structural and philosophical changes such that it now more closely resembles the male sport model. The coach of any team will affect the values and attitudes as well as behaviors of the athletes on that team. The female coach had grown up in a rapidly changing women's sport era where there were more male coaches of women's teams. Having coached men at a Division I institution might also have reflected a particular philosophical emphasis in the program at her current institution. The coach of S2 would have grown up in a male sport world and potentially would reflect the values and attitudes appropriate to that world in coaching his current women's volleyball team. According to Blinde (1989b), "...interactions between male coaches and female athletes may parallel the dominant-subordinate positions that male and female respectively hold in the larger society" (p. 120). As a result of the fact that men and women don't experience sport in a similar fashion, women on this team may have been denied certain positive experiences of sport because of the sport structure they encountered.

Blinde (1989b) found in interviews with and surveys from NCAA Division I women athletes that these individuals often felt that their coaches were not sympathetic to their conflicts as student-athletes and they often perceived inconsistencies in the coaches' messages. One athlete stated:
He put such a great emphasis on swimming. He didn't really care much about anything else. He'd say school was important. He'd say we don't want to interfere with your school work, but you better just be here on time and that was it. He didn't give much. (Blinde, 1989b, p. 113)

With the increasing pressure, even at the Division III level, to produce a "winner", with the models of Division I programs to emulate, and with the short playing season with many playing dates, a competitive coach would think there was little time to spend in preparing his/her athletes academically as well as athletically and, in addition, might not think it his/her responsibility to do so.

Another possible explanation for these differences in the sport and academic variables of the successful teams might result from the perception that athletes are not or cannot be good students. Certainly Sailes study (1993) of the perceptions of college students about their student-athlete peers, whom they regarded as "dumb jocks", holds true for many persons. Although typically reserved for Division I athletes, especially male athletes, this same stereotype of the unintellectual athlete prevails even at the Division III level and even with women athletes especially as professionalization, commercialization, and bureaucratization become increasingly associated with girls' and women's interscholastic and intercollegiate athletics.

A final reason might be that often college coaches give "lip service" to the role of academics in the lives of their athletes without providing them with the tools to fulfill this role. With such tools and with the complete support of their coach, however, these athletes could be legitimate student-athletes. This is evident in this study. In the case of the treatment group there was an obvious academic "atmosphere" created in the volleyball program which was translated into an increasingly greater commitment to the academic role as the season progressed. The student-athletes knew that they were being supported in this
role by others and were provided with the tools and the knowledge to be successful in both the student and athlete roles. Rather than give "lip service" to the student role, the coach of this team, this researcher, supported this role by teaching players to manage their time in a way that they could be successful as athletes and as students. Perhaps this was the difference between TM and S1 and S2. Not only did the former achieve athletic success but team members also experienced academic success in regard to satisfaction in this role and the view of themselves as students. One role was not at the expense of the other role as per S1 and S2. Such role management is not unlike that which these individuals will experience in life after college.

Not only are tools and knowledge necessary for student-athletes to be successful in the student and the athlete realm, but the belief that success is possible in both roles is important knowledge to actually gaining satisfaction. One often thinks that one can only be "good" at one thing at any one time. Snyder and Spreitzer (1989) alluded to this in describing the "spend and drain" theory or scarcity model that so many of us unknowingly adopt as our personal philosophy of student-athletes. This model predicts that an individual only has a finite amount of time and energy resources available and once these are spent on fulfilling the obligations of one role, there are no resources left for any other roles. It appears that we often engage in that self-fulfilling prophecy which says that we can't or others can't be good at more than one thing. Therefore, if one is a good athlete, there should be no expectations on the athlete's part or on the part of others' of that athlete, that he/she also be a good student. Without such expectations, he/she probably won't be both a good athlete and a good student.
CHAPTER VII
DISCUSSION

From the results of this study, it appears that sport can empower the NCAA Division III (DIII) woman student-volleyball athlete at the personal as well as group levels. The participant found the sport experience as an avenue for increasing the control she had over her life. In general, positive outcomes of sport participation were experienced at the personal level including increases in self-esteem, inner strength, confidence, and expectations of self. Many valued sport because of the opportunity it provided to meet new people and make new friends especially for those who described their teammates as having "stuck by me in many problems and trials." These group empowering opportunities reflected the female bonding theme that emerged from the work of Blinde, Taub and Han (1994).

Just as the sport situation is structured and supported by a network of coaches, administrators, parents, and friends, it would seem that the academic life of a college athlete could also be structured and supported in much the same way in order to ensure positive outcomes. Unfortunately enough, this structure and support is not often provided for the DIII athlete. It is often assumed that she can "manage" the variety of roles that she plays. However, when a student-athlete has many roles to fill and obligations within these roles to meet and especially if she is experiencing the collegiate student as well as
the collegiate athlete roles for the first time, she will have difficulty in accomplishing such without assistance. Student-athletes in the time management program did show a different orientation toward the academic and athletic roles than did those not receiving such training. These individuals were not spent or drained by the fulfillment of the academic or athletic roles. Rather, an expansion of energy appeared to occur such that one role positively affected another role as per Marks (1977) theory. Such positive outcomes as commitment of time to the academic role, satisfaction in this role, and an increased view of self as student were not at the expense of the sport role. It might be said that these athletes "had the best of both worlds" - they were both students and athletes, successful at both roles.

Historically, research has been conducted on male athletes at Division I institutions. Women athletes and Division III institutions have not been subjects of study, nor, at the same time, the beneficiaries of time and resources spent in special programming for the athlete. In the NCAA's most recent effort in this area, a Life Skills pilot study to begin in the fall of 1994, all participant institutions are Division I or II members. This program, which has a variety of components to assist the athlete in transitioning into life after college as well as to help him/her meet the current demands of the collegiate student-athlete roles, will meet the special needs of only the scholarship athlete or potentially, athletes at 546 NCAA DI and DII member institutions.

At the same time, 345 Division III member institutions and athletes at these institutions will not be a part of this pilot study, perhaps because the common perception is that these individuals are not "serious" athletes or that these athletes are going to school to "get an education", unlike their DI and DII counterparts. Are these three levels of competition that different, other than from
an economic standpoint, such that special academic programming should not be required for DIII student-athletes as well? NCAA rules regarding length of playing seasons, number of competitive contests, and practice time permitted per week are virtually identical. Therefore the time commitment that such athletes make to their sport would be similar from one divisional level to the next. In addition, student-athletes at the DIII level have the possibility of employment throughout the academic year unlike student-athletes at DI institutions and must deal with the need for greater financial resources as a result of their nonscholarship athletic status and the fact that they must "foot the bill" for their college education. This added role, the work one, brings with it additional obligations and time and energy commitment.

Perhaps too, the general public's view is of DIII athletes as student-athletes more so than the DI athlete. The DI athlete is expected to be, above all else, a good athlete at the possible expense of being a good student, perhaps more often considered an "athlete"-student (Hence, the DI/DII rules known as Proposition 48 and 42 that are not applicable to DIII student-athletes). As a result of his/her nonscholarship status, DIII athletes might be perceived as better students than DI participants and also assumed to have their academic lives ordered to allow for participation in sport without detrimental consequences.

Not only has there been a divisional focus on the needs of collegiate student-athletes, but there has also been a gender focus as well. Historically, women have been perceived as being less interested in sport participation than their male counterparts and more inclined academically than them as pertains to preparation for college (Purdy, Eitzen, and Hufnagel, 1985), graduation rates (Sack, 1987-1988), and academic marks (Eitzen, 1987-1988). This again gives the outside observer the notion that the woman student-athlete is quite capable
of “handling” this dual role of student and athlete by herself. However, as Blinde and Greendorfer (1992) suggest, the philosophical and structural context of sport for women has and will continue to change in the direction of the male sport model and “that many of the types of conflict experienced by women athletes are quite similar to forms of conflict identified in the research for male athletes” (p. 110). Increasingly, as women’s programs emulate men’s, female athletes will be more likely to indicate that they have to sacrifice schoolwork and classes and that college sport places major demands on their time and energy (Blinde, 1989b). Sport will no longer be a peripheral activity to the female participant as it traditionally has been. Women will receive more recognition for their athlete accomplishments and sport will become increasingly important to significant others. Sport then could be viewed as an empowering experience for females that would allow them to better face the androcentric nature of sport and give them more personal reasons to engage in sport, unlike ever before. All of these factors could contribute to an increase in emphasis on athletics for the female.

According to Blinde (1989b), instances of “academic exploitation” for the collegiate athlete have even more serious consequences for the female than for her male counterpart. As of yet, there are few professional or post-college sport opportunities in which to utilize the sport skills developed through many hours of athletic practice. Therefore, it would seem appropriate to focus energy and attention on the woman athlete and how she can best be served through her sport and academic experiences. It cannot be assumed that she can meet the challenges presented by these dual roles without the appropriate tools and knowledges necessary to be successful. No longer can persons assume that one can be “good” at both roles without assistance in being so.
This research effort illustrates the potential benefit of a time management program of instruction for women athletes. Not only were these individuals successful athletically but they were also successful students as well. Certainly replication of this study with additional DIII women in other sports and in other parts of the United States would be warranted. It cannot be assumed that the DIII athlete will be more academically focused and prepared than the DI individual. At the same time, it cannot be assumed that the future female athlete will be more academically inclined than her male counterpart. All student-athletes, regardless of divisional level or gender, must be taught skills essential to successfully managing several roles simultaneously. Using the collegiate sport experience as an environment for learning such skills will only enhance the rationalization and justification for this sport experience.
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APPENDIX A

TIME MANAGEMENT PROGRAM

FOR

BLUFFTON COLLEGE VOLLEYBALL TEAM

111
“I just didn’t have enough time.” “Where did the day go? I didn’t get anything done.”

Sure you had enough time. You had all the time there is, the same amount of time that everyone else did. What you didn’t have are the skills necessary to manage the time you had.

Many prospective student-athletes are fearful of overcommitting themselves by playing a sport in college. Some athletes discontinue their sport participation because they don’t have enough time to do everything they want to do. Other athletes, and even coaches, have become accustomed to the hectic life of being “in season” although not without some sacrifice in sanity at times. As many of you are already aware and as the rest of you will soon find out, the demands of being a collegiate student-athlete are even greater than that of being a high school student-athlete. Your time considerations may be even more important now since you are not in a rigid, school day system and since the academic work you are now doing will, in some way, determine the professional opportunities available to you after college.

How many of you can remember times during last season when you thought you were “going to go crazy”? How many of you can remember staying up past midnight for nights on end doing homework? How many of you felt that when Sunday came ou just couldn’t “stomach” the thought of having to do anything! Can anyone relate to the feeling of never having a moment to yourself? How about the feeling of wishing everyone would go away and leave you alone?! Wouldn’t you “love” some relief from these kinds of thoughts and feelings this season?

Whether student-athlete or student-musician, homemaker-business person or homemaker-volunteer, we are and will be forever confronted with multiple demands and expectations on our time that can and often will drive us crazy! Consider the questions on the next page as a way of focusing on your management of time. If you identify with any of these statements then you probably have a problem with time.
WE ALL GET 24 HOURS PER DAY, 168 HOURS PER WEEK. HOW DO YOU USE YOURS?

Consider each question as an opportunity to focus on your time problems. Beside each question write how you feel or act in the situation described. Answer with I usually, sometimes or rarely feel and/or act this way.

1. Do you worry that you will forget to do something?
2. Do you feel guilty when you occasionally goof around?
3. Do you normally spend time the way you want to?
4. Do you often feel exhausted and obligated to do things you really don't want to do?
5. Do you feel a sense of accomplishment from your studies? ...from your volleyball participation?
6. Do you feel stress because of too much to do?
7. Do you work or study longer than your friends?
8. Do you feel guilty about not doing a better job at everything you do?
9. Do you feel in control of the way you use your time?
10. Do you put off doing the difficult, boring, or unpleasant things in your life?
11. Do you feel you must always be busy doing something productive?

The idea of “time management” is not a new one. Dozens of books and articles, expensive seminars and workshops, computer software programs and planners have been written or designed to help people like us deal with this “crunch” for time. Most of these “fix-it” materials have focused on the symptoms rather than the causes of our time problems and have been less than successful as a result.
The idea of "time management" is a misconception because we cannot manage time. It is unique because time is one resource that we have that is finite or limited in its quantity. There is only so much of it, and no matter what we do, we can't get more. It can't be speeded up or slowed down (although we sometimes feel this way during the quarter!), it must be spent at a fixed rate: 60 seconds/minute, 60 minutes/hour. So, we can't manage time but we can manage ourselves in relation to time. We can control how we use it. We can't choose whether to spend it but we can choose how to spend it. Consider for a minute your own private use of time as it relates to your daily life.

WHEN IS YOUR PRIME TIME? WHEN DO YOU HAVE THE MOST ENERGY IN A DAY?

100%  
/  
/  
/  
/  
/  
/  
/  
/  
/  
/  
0%  
8:00 A.M. Noon 4:00 P.M. 8:00 P.M. 12 A.M.

When considering your daily schedule, it's wise to keep your energy cycle in mind so that you can spend your "best" time each day wisely. Many people are most productive in the morning while others peak in the afternoon. Although you will not always have control of class times and practice time (things you have to do!), you can attempt to plan your daily schedule to match your "prime time". Look at the plot of what I regard as my time/energy cycle drawn in the figure above. Now plot your cycle on this same figure. Do you arrange your day to take advantage of your "prime time"? What could you do differently to better utilize your period of peak energy?
Why should I want to manage my time better? How can it help?

One skill that you can work toward mastering, one that will be of benefit to you in and after college and one that you won't be exposed to in other than several short class sessions or a one-shot seminar, is the skill of managing your time effectively and efficiently so that it doesn't control you but so you master it. There are several benefits to doing so. Finding a balance is one benefit of good time habits. Having adequate time and energy for school, family, friends, a sport, work and yourself is achievable. Much of the stress we encounter can be reduced by practicing sound time habits. Your productivity can improve as you become more effective with your time. In fact, most time management “gurus” promise two additional hours per day saved as a result of incorporating effective time management strategies. This translates to a total time savings of 35 days per year. We could all use a month of “me” time! Finally, time is necessary for achieving personal and professional goals. Nothing can be done when you are out of time!

How can you apply each of these benefits to your life as a student-athlete? How can you make this volleyball season, this quarter, one in which your life has a balance with adequate time and energy for those things in your life other than volleyball and schoolwork (of course!) that you consider important? Is there a possibility that this quarter you can apply several time management principles to your life that will result in a less “stressed out” you, a happier you (and me and us!) in the end? Related to balance and stress is the productivity benefit of dealing with time and energy wasters. How can you reduce the expenditure of energy and time (cost) in you daily activities and increase the benefits (more sleep, more time for yourself, better grades, better on the volleyball court, etc.)? Have you ever committed yourself to personal goals? How can governing your time and energy help you to accomplish that GPA you desire, the kind of volleyball season you can envision (beating Thomas More, ONU, Mt. St. Joe, winning AMC, going to nationals, etc.) or the spiritual growth or social life that you might consider important?

Time management is about what you can accomplish with the time that you have. It is a way of enhancing your life so that you have more time to do those things that are important to you, so that you have less stress in your life, so that you experience an improvement in your personal productivity, and so that you are more successful in achieving your goals. Each of these accomplishments translates into greater personal satisfaction and self-esteem.

How do you get started? Turn the page to learn more about yourself and how you can learn how to gain control over your life.
MAKING CHANGES = STARTING FROM WHERE YOU ARE!

Getting control of your time means facing the reality that you are usually the problem, not someone else. **You allow** your time to be wasted. (I know it’s hard to believe that it’s me that is at fault, isn’t it always someone else’s fault?!) For example, now that you have a personal (or almost personal!) phone and your very own message machine, consider how such a convenience can result in the biggest single time waster in the world -- the **telephone interruption**! When the phone rings, invariably, without hesitation, you answer it. You take the call, you permit the interruption. Why? Perhaps you don’t want to be discourteous. Maybe you don’t like doing what you are doing before the phone rings so answering it is a good excuse to quit. Maybe you are curious (curiosity did kill the cat!). Are you ever afraid that you might miss something if you don’t answer the phone?! There are many other time wasters besides the telephone interruption. Consider this list of common time wasters, better known as "**time robbers**"! Rank your top ten "**wasters**"!

**MY TIME WASTERS**

1. Telephone interruptions
2. Drop-in visitors
3. Attempting too much
4. Inability to say "no"
5. Procrastination; indecision
6. Meetings
7. Crisis management; shifting priorities
8. Doing routine things of minor importance
9. Lack of objectives, priorities, deadlines, poor planning
10. Socializing
11. Peer demands
12. Personal disorganization
13. Unrealistic time estimates
14. Leaving tasks unfinished, jumping from 1 task to another
15. Getting involved unnecessarily
16. Lacking self-discipline
17. Failure to do things first
18. Poor communication
19. Travel
Some of these time wasters are probably more of a problem for you than others. To become more effective with your time you must determine which of them are a serious concern and begin to work on them. Also, consider which ones you are personally responsible for, which ones you can control. Place the word "me" to the right of each such descriptor. Try to think back to last school year to determine your "wasters". From your list, select the three most serious and then consider how you might reduce the impact of each. Use the Appendix A of this booklet for ideas in solving the problem of time robbers.

Three most serious time robbers  Ways to reduce their impact

1.

2.

3.

PLANNING PUTS YOU INTO CONTROL

Each of us plays a variety of roles in our daily lives. These are "parts" that we have chosen to play. You may have chosen roles in school, in the family, in work, in athletics and in other areas of your life. These roles become a natural framework to give order to what you want to do and be. With each role comes certain expectations, those that we have of ourselves and those that are expectations from others. Some roles we play might be more important to us in some settings than in others and in different times in our lives than others. For instance, think in terms of the roles you are currently playing. Hopefully you and others think of you in the role of student. Many people, perhaps including yourself, think of you as an athlete or volleyball player. You have other roles that you identify with or that you think of yourself in at different times. Maybe you, your friends and acquaintances, family, and/or your teachers think of you as a brother or a sister, as a boyfriend or a girlfriend, as a Catholic or a Methodist, as a musician or an artist. In the future, you might think of yourself, as perhaps others will, as a nurse, a lawyer, a mother, a teacher, a garbage collector (we hope not!), etc..

Each role that you have will change in its importance and how it measures up to other roles with different times in the school year, your college career and in life after college. The role of cheerleader or student or athlete might be very important to you in college but not so later in your life. By identifying our roles and the importance of them to us, we can gain perspective and balance in managing our daily lives.
First of all, take a minute to brainstorm about the roles that you play. In other words, who or what do you think of yourself as? **Who are you?** For example, I think of myself as coach, teacher, friend, student, Christian, competitor, sister, daughter, etc.

**WHO AM I?**

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<td>20</td>
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Now look over the list of roles that you have created and prioritize them according to their importance to you at the present time. **List a top six ONLY in the spaces provided below.** Ask yourself the question, "If for some reason, I had to give up one of these identities, which one(s) would I give up and in which order would I do so?" You might also think in terms of "How important is this identity to me on a day-to-day basis?"

Beside each of the six role identities that you have listed, note the percentage of time you currently **devote** to each and the percentage of your time you would **like to devote** to each role.

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<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>% of time currently devote</th>
<th>% of time like to devote</th>
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<td>Most important</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Unwilling to give up</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.</td>
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<td>3.</td>
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<td>4.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Least important</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most willing to give up</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Now, take a few moments to jot down a descriptive statement for each role that you play. Project yourself forward in this term, and write a brief statement of **how you would most like to be described in each role.** Define what you want to do, as in what you want to accomplish, what contribution you want to make. Also define what you want to **be**, what character strengths you want to have, what qualities you want to develop.

Role #1

Role #2

Role #3

Role #4

Role #5

Role #6

What roles you and others see you as playing, are important in determining how you actually spend your time, energy and other resources on a daily basis. Sometimes, however, in the course of our busy lives we forget what is really important to us. We allow the demands from one of our lower priority roles to take over the time in our lives at the expense of more important roles. Unhappiness results because of these conflicting and/or unfulfilled role demands.

The next section will help to clarify these identities in our lives by setting goals and objectives in each role and by determining how we can manage our time to achieve them.
GOAL-SETTING: A KEY TO PLANNING

"A goal is a dream with a deadline."
Steve Smith

Without goals, one’s journey through life will be haphazard, careless, and ineffective. Without daily goals, human nature being what it is, we will wander around aimlessly, accomplishing little of what is actually important to us. A goal is one very powerful way to motivate a person to greater accomplishments because an effective goal focuses on results rather than activity. A goal identifies where you want to be while at the same time helping you to determine where you are. It gives meaning and purpose to all you do and translates itself into daily activities so that you are proactive, so that you are in charge of your daily life, you are making happen each day the things that are important in your life. Having goals around which to focus each day’s activities provides the structure for successfully accomplishing them.

Look back to the role identities that you listed previously and the importance of each to you. Considering long-term goals that you want to accomplish in each of them, can give you a greater perspective on your life as well as a greater sense of direction. Consider, for example, how every role you listed falls in line with things that you do each day. Are the lower priority roles demanding all of your time and energy? Is the most important role one that you actually spend time in, especially your most productive time? Setting and ultimately achieving long-term goals and shorter-range objectives in each role that is important to you will help to increase your personal productivity and result in greater personal satisfaction.

Setting goals, however, is not always an easy or a pleasant task. Like New Year’s resolutions, we often set goals because we think we should and so we often set them expecting to break them sooner or later (usually sooner!). As a result we only make them halfheartedly at best, without the commitment needed to see them reach fruition. Perhaps we fear we’ll fail, or, better yet, succeed in our efforts. Sometimes we fear the unknown or perhaps we’re not quite sure how to go about setting goals. Sometimes setting goals is uncomfortable, because, by nature, we like to move within our “comfort zones” and often times in reaching a goal we must move outside of those zones. However, setting goals for accomplishments that are valued in each of the roles that one identifies with, costs nothing. Failure to set goals costs one plenty.
THE HOW-TO'S OF GOAL-SETTING

The goal-setting sequence starts by looking long-range to a specific target and then working backward. Determining a long-range goal is the initial step then working carefully from it all the way to the present day, setting progressively shorter-range targets or objectives should occur next. For example, if one of the roles that you identified as important was the student role, a long-range goal might be to earn a 3.5 GPA for this quarter. Shorter-range objectives might be: studying two hours daily and studying for exams on each of three days prior to the exam, finishing a research paper for one of your classes a week early by completing parts of it on a weekly basis, completing all assignments a day in advance of the due date, reviewing class notes the day that they are taken, and working with a study partner to review and discuss class concepts. One is more likely to be successful with the larger goal when it is reduced to short-range objectives which appear to be easier to accomplish.

In establishing effective goals and objectives, these attributes should be considered.

1. A goal must be supported by what a person believes to be of importance or value to him or her.
2. A goal must be demanding yet achievable.
3. A goal should be specific and measurable.
4. A goal must have a deadline yet be flexible.
5. A goal should be written down and visible.

"The goal statement helps bring your future into the present by giving you a clearer view of what your ideal future looks like."
From Alan Lakein, How to Get Control of Your Time and Your Life

Establishing specific goals is the initial step in effectively and efficiently managing your time. This is done with the idea of the importance, the value, the priority that you place on each of your role identities. Let's look at one more example of this before writing our own goals and objectives.
THE ROLE=
I value my personal relationship with God. One role that I identify with is that of being a Christian.

THE LONG-RANGE GOAL=
A long-range goal that I have as a result of the importance of this role is the following: "One year from today (April 10, 1993 was the date on which I made this goal), I will have a stronger relationship with God because of my consistent prayers, reading of the Bible, church/chapel attendance, personal solitude time and tithing to the Church.

THE SHORT-RANGE OBJECTIVES=

A. WEEKLY OBJECTIVES
1. Attend chapel eight out of the ten times each quarter.
2. Attend church weekly (90% of the time) but especially during the Christmas and Easter seasons, summer and volleyball season.
3. Tithe 10% of my earning

B. DAILY OBJECTIVES
1. Read two chapters from the Bible.
2. Pray.
3. Have a morning planning and solitude time.

Perhaps this example helps. With the space provided begin to formulate your long-range goals and short-range objectives for each of the six roles you listed previously. Use the attributes of goals to help guide you.

MY #1 ROLE IS ____________________________________________.

Long-range Goal=_________________________________________________________________
Shorter-Range Objectives (weekly and daily)=

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

MY #2 ROLE IS

Long-range Goal=

Shorter-Range Objectives (weekly and daily)=

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

MY #3 ROLE IS

Long-range Goal=
Shorter-Range Objectives (weekly and daily)=

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

MY #4 ROLE IS ____________________________________________

Long-range Goal=________________________________________


Shorter-Range Objectives (weekly and daily)=

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

MY #5 ROLE IS ____________________________________________

Long-range Goal=________________________________________


Shorter-Range Objectives (weekly and daily)=

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

MY #6 ROLE IS .................................................................

Long-range Goal=.............................................................

..............................................................................

..............................................................................

..............................................................................

Shorter-Range Objectives (weekly and daily)=

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

#############################################################

As you will recall, previously it was mentioned that the term “time management” is a misnomer, a misconception because we cannot actually manage our time but we can manage ourselves in relation to time. For the time we spend, how can we be most productive? How can we be the most cost effective? Time management doesn’t imply that we never allow time for a drop-in visitor or time for an unplanned conversation with a close friend. These types of things will happen and contingency plans can be utilized.
The matrix below diagrams the four ways in which we spend our time. Can you relate to any of the activities in these quadrants?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Urgent</th>
<th>Not Urgent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I Activities</strong></td>
<td><strong>II Activities</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Crisis</td>
<td>-Preparation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Pressing problems</td>
<td>-Crisis prevention</td>
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<tr>
<td>-Deadline driven projects</td>
<td>-Values clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Planning</td>
<td>-Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Relationship building</td>
<td>-Relationship building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-True re-creation</td>
<td>-True re-creation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Not important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>III Activities</strong></td>
<td><strong>IV Activities</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Interruptions</td>
<td>-Trivia, busy work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Mail, some reports</td>
<td>-Some mail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Some meetings</td>
<td>-Some phone calls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Many immediate pressing matters</td>
<td>-Many pleasant activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Many popular activities</td>
<td>-Time wasters</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Covey's *The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People*

Two factors, urgent and important, define and regulate most of our activity. An urgent task means it requires our immediate attention, urgent matters act on us and we usually react to them. Important events have to do with results, these events contribute to who we are, what we do and what we want to be. Studies indicate that about 80% of the results we desire flow from only 20% of our activities. This Pareto Principle, is sometimes referred to as the concept of the "vital few" and the "trivial many" or the 80/20 rule. When faced with a long list of tasks to be accomplished, most of us become discouraged, overwhelmed by the enormity of the task at hand or we begin with the easiest thing, leaving the most difficult till last. Then we often don't complete the most difficult task although it usually is the most important one because we have depleted our energy and time. Most of the benefit to be derived from doing what is on the list probably is related to just two or three items. We should devote less attention to activities that are urgent but unimportant, more time to those that are important but not necessarily urgent. In order to do so we must think proactively, to be proactive in planning and executing our priorities. Being proactive means taking into consideration two of Murphy's Laws.

**If anything can go wrong it will.**
**Everything takes longer than you think it will.**
By planning ahead and allowing for time for something to go wrong or take longer than you think, the important and nonurgent matters will be more frequent than the unimportant, urgent ones. When you are faced with a number of problems to solve, ask yourself which are the important ones and make them your first priority. If you allow yourself to be governed by the tyranny of the urgent, your life will be one crisis after another. You'll be very active and may even be the busiest beaver around but you will eventually find you have been busy building your dam on an empty lake.

Each week and then each day, you need to formulate a weekly and daily task list. List the things you want to accomplish that week or day. Then order these tasks, in their priority to you or in terms of their importance to you in relation to what you consider valuable. Use this procedure in all of your planning. Those tasks that have high value or that are vital and must be done today or this week are given "A's". Those that are of medium value, important and should be done are marked as "B's". Those that are low in value, optional and could be done are prioritized as "C's". Within each A, B, C, grouping a numerical value for the order you want to accomplish each event should be given. The most important or first to be done in each will be number one. All objectives will be given a letter and a number.

Worrying about too many tasks in one day will overwhelm and hinder your productivity. High productivity has little to do with the sheer volume of tasks completed each day. Remember that when you complete the top 2-3 "A" tasks, you have been successful in that day. It's what you have accomplished that is important. If you seem to repeatedly plan too much in a day, ask some of the following questions about each task or event to determine its importance and subsequently whether you should handle it now or later.

-Is this urgent task more important than another priority?
-Are any of the A's or B's really C's?
-What will happen if I wait on this task?
-Can I delete any tasks?
-What can I delegate?

Since you have identified roles and you have set goals and objectives for each of them, you can translate each of them to a specific day of the week as priority items or as specific appointments. You can also check your monthly calendar for any previous appointments you may have made and evaluate their importance in the context of your goals. Each week and then each day you should follow this planning procedure.
Daily Planning Procedure

1. Find a quiet place where you can spend 15-20 minutes each day in uninterrupted time with yourself.
2. Review your roles and goals.
3. Review today's prescheduled events or appointments.
4. Review the previous day's daily task list for uncompleted tasks.
5. Review the next few day's schedules including each class' assignment and major project sheets to see what needs to be prepared.
6. Update your daily schedule from your monthly calendar.
7. Write appropriate activities in your daily task list.
8. Prioritize each activity with the A, B, C designation, labeling the vital tasks as A1, A2, A3, etc. and assigning letters, B and C, with numbers, to less important tasks.

Now, to review. Because you want to make your life easier and more enjoyable by remembering appointments and assignments, by having time to spend with your friends as well as your studies, by accomplishing the most important things in your life first each day, and by having time for yourself, you will set long-range goals for every role identity that is important to you. Then, beginning with the end in mind, a clear understanding of your direction and destination and/or what it is you are attempting to accomplish, you will plan successively shorter-range objectives that are linked to those goals and roles. Finally, you will plan and execute weekly and daily activities that reflect the importance of your roles and goals. You are encouraged to spend time in the second quadrant, and when a conflict occurs with what you have planned, you are empowered to use your self-awareness and conscience to maintain integrity to the goals and objectives you have determined to be important.

Perhaps you are overwhelmed by the enormity of the task by this time. "Where do I even begin?" you might be thinking. Perhaps this all sounds too regimented, too much writing is involved, too little flexibility for me, too much time!! you might be saying. The "picture" will become clearer and the rationale more understandable as we continue into time and your personal use of it.

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ORGANIZE AND EXECUTE AROUND YOUR PRIORITIES

$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$

failing to plan is planning to fail.

$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
WEEKLY PLANNING SHEET
For the week of November 22

Objectives:

1. 
2. 
3. 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>A/B/C/ Priority</th>
<th>Estimated Time</th>
<th>Assigned Day</th>
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</table>
Today's Day

Today's Date 1993

= Task Completed; = Planned Forward
x = Task Deleted; o = In Process
G O = Task Delegated

/ A/B/C / Prioritized Daily Task List

Appointments to keep

Early Morning

7 a.m.__________________________
8______________________________
9______________________________
10____________________________
11____________________________
Noon__________________________
1_______________________________
2_______________________________
3_______________________________
4_______________________________
5_______________________________
6_______________________________
7_______________________________
8_______________________________

Late evening____________________

Phone calls to make

People to see

_______________________________
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8_______________________________
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date given</th>
<th>Assignment, Test or Quiz</th>
<th>Date due</th>
<th>Date Submitted</th>
<th>Grade</th>
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Recommended Classes/Instructors

Class/instructor

Comments

GRADUATION REQUIREMENTS

MAJOR

MAJOR ADVISOR

EXTENSION

COURSES REQUIRED FOR MAJOR

Course #  Course  Term/Year Offered
# INSTRUCTOR INFORMATION

**FALL TERM 1993**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructor</th>
<th>Office Hours</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class</td>
<td>Office Location</td>
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<tr>
<td>Home Phone</td>
<td>Campus Phone</td>
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<td>Office Location</td>
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<td>Campus Phone</td>
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# MAJOR PROJECT PLANNER

Project ____________________________

## Master Task List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Priority</th>
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Term Schedule

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<td>11</td>
<td>(7:40-9:40)</td>
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</table>
SPECIAL DAYS

Use this to keep track of birthdays, anniversaries, special events
You may want to move this page along with monthly in your planner
to serve as a reminder.

January
February

March
April

May
June

July
August

September
October

November
December
Appendix A

The Dreaded Time Robbers!!

Procrastination

We tend to avoid events which are unpleasant, complex, lengthy, or uninteresting, regardless the priority.

The most personal time robber or waster in the world is one that you have the most control over! It is putting off or delaying without justification things you know you have to do. Procrastination is seldom related to a single item, in other words, if you put off doing one thing, you probably put off doing lots of other things. It is usually an ingrained behavior pattern.

The most significant difference between a person who doesn't procrastinate, an effective person, and one who does, an ineffective person is what he/she habitually thinks when approached with an unpleasant, complex, lengthy, or uninteresting task. The latter thinks, "This task must be done, but it is unpleasant; therefore, I will put it off as long as I can," while the former says to him or herself, "This task is unpleasant, but I know it must be done, therefore, I will do it now so I can forget about it."

Why do we respond this way? **Why do we procrastinate?** There are several emotional cop-outs for our inaction. Do you recognize any of the following? Circle the ones that are "you"!

1. to escape an overwhelming task
2. to escape an unpleasant task
3. to excuse a poor effort or poor work
4. to gain sympathy
5. to get someone else to do the work/job
6. to protect a weak self-image
7. to avoid change

Then again, there are those nonemotional cop-outs too that we might blame our tendency to procrastinate on. Can you relate to any of these?

a. improper goals have been set
b. sufficient information is lacking
c. goals have been set without deadlines
d. you have allowed yourself to be overcommitted
e. unrealistic time estimates have been made
As a result of our tendencies to procrastinate on things, we pay a huge price. Several ways procrastination takes its toll are the following:

1. an unfulfilled life - the "I was going to, but..." person
2. boredom
3. waste of the present - why not, there's always tomorrow!? 
4. anxiety caused by working under pressure - "I always work better doing things at the last minute" - NOT!
5. weak or ineffective goals so you never get anywhere
6. constant plague of unresolved/unsolved problems
7. continuous frustration 
8. poor health
9. mediocre career
10. life of indecision
11. fatigue
12. poor interpersonal relationships

So how can I stop being a procrastinator? How can I break this old, well-established habit that drains me emotionally of time, energy, and personal resources? How can I become more competent, more capable of managing my life?

Well, do you know what a person is that has been described as a "bump on a log"?! Sometimes maybe we are just like that "bump", we have difficulty getting ourselves going on anything. It's just like procrastinating, when you are at rest, the hardest part is getting started. Once we get in motion, we tend to remain in motion. So what can you do to get started when you know you are procrastinating on some task? Try one or more of the following suggestions.

**CREATING "MO"!**

1. Recognize and acknowledge the futility of procrastinating as a way of life. Why put yourself under such a useless emotional strain!? So, admit you have a problem and face it head-on!

2. Break down large and/or overwhelming tasks into smaller, more manageable tasks. Whenever you have a seemingly overpowering assignment, divide it up into smaller five- or ten-minute subtasks. Write them down, prioritize them and tackle them one at a time. Once you get started, old momentum will kick in! Remember, "A journey of a thousand miles begins with a single step."

3. Face unpleasant tasks head-on! Face that unpleasant task by putting it on your daily task list as the first thing you do that day. Just think, within 15-20 minutes of starting your day, you will know that the worst thing that you had to do that day is over! What a great feeling!

4. Do a start-up task! Often all you need is a little spontaneous physical action to get you in the mood to start a major task. Do you have a paper to write? Grab a piece of paper and brainstorm ten ideas for it. Have a letter to write? Get an envelope and address it.

5. Take advantage of your moods. How many times have you said to yourself when faced with an unpleasant task to do, "I'm just not in the mood"? How many times have you never gotten "into
the mood" even though you kept waiting to do so?! Remember those things you have been delaying and put your moods to work for you rather than against you.

6. List the advantages that could come about as a result of doing an important task you have been putting off. Then list the disadvantages that could come about as a result of your inaction. You'll probably find that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages.

7. Make a commitment to someone by doing a task with someone else. This makes some jobs easier and more enjoyable. Betting someone that you will complete a task or going public helps because other's will encourage you and the social pressure helps to motivate. Be certain to have an incentive for reaching your goal as well as a penalty for falling short.

8. Give yourself a reward that fits the goal that you have been dodging. Make the reward proportional to the task size. Be honest, now, no rewards if you don't complete the task!

9. Be decisive and have the courage to act. By failing to act, you waste valuable time, and all the money in the world cannot buy back one moment of lost time. It's history!! What's your time worth? Think about what you might earn when you get that first big job after graduation. If you were to start at $20,000 a year, every minute would be worth $.17, every hour worth $10.25 and over a year, one hour a day lost/wasted would be worth $2,500!! Cure yourself of self-defeating statements that prevent you from starting, let alone finishing an assignment. Make something happen! You're losing time and money!

10. Regularly ask yourself, "What's the best use of my time and energy right now?" If the answer is not what you are doing, stop and do something else.

11. Set time-limited goals. Parkinson's Law states that work expands to fill the time available for its completion. If you have six hours to complete a task, you will stretch out the work to take all those hours, even though it might only take three to complete the work. Set a specific starting and ending time. This will limit the amount of time you can procrastinate and the limited period will force you to work more efficiently during that time.

12. Make a written contract. You might want to have a written agreement with someone else but you can also have one with yourself. This serves as a reminder, especially when you keep it in a strategic place!

Sample Personal Contract

I, Sally Sickening, do solemnly swear on this 10th day of June, 1993, to spend one hour (s)/day (s), working on my psychology project, from 7 p.m. to 8 p.m., four out of seven day (s)/week (s) per week/month for the next three weeks/months. (Simply fill in the blanks with your commitment.)

13. Finally, each morning ask yourself the question, "What is the greatest problem facing me today and what am I going to do about it TODAY?"

If you want to make an easy job seem mighty hard, just keep putting off doing it!

-Olin Miller
INTERRUPTIONS!

Consider the following:

- Recovering from an interruption takes more time than the interruption itself!
- The national average for interruptions is 9-10 per hour or one every six minutes.
- One hour of concentrated effort is worth more than two hours of 10-15 minutes segments.

Do you ever feel like you can’t get anything done because someone is always interrupting you? There are four types of interruptions: those that are the result of another person and are unnecessary, necessary, or necessary but not right at the moment (urgent but not important!) and those caused by you. There are four solutions to these types of interruptions too! They are, in order: acknowledge but get rid of the person that interrupted you, deal with the interruption now, schedule another time for those that are not necessary now, and finally, KNOW THYSELF! Know that you like to interrupt yourself and that you enjoy allowing others to do the same.

Perhaps you need other hints for handling two of the most common interruptions, the drop-in visitor and the telephone. Consider these causes and possible solutions.

The Drop-in Visitor

<table>
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<tr>
<th>CAUSE</th>
<th>SOLUTION</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. No plan for handling drop-in visitors.</td>
<td>Develop a plan with your roommate/friend for screening. Arrange meeting times with people.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. No plans for unavailability.</td>
<td>Hide somewhere besides your room or the place where you are likely to get interrupted by visitors. Post a sign with your QUIET HOUR noted and the wish that you not be disturbed until a certain time.</td>
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<td>3. Ego, feeling of importance</td>
<td>Recognize such and don’t overestimate the importance to others of your availability. Plan socializing for meal times.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Inability to terminate visits</td>
<td>Acknowledge someone as they come into your room and ask what it is that you can do for them?</td>
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</table>
Stand up upon entry and remain standing. Preset a time limit for the visit. Foreshadow an ending ("Is there anything else before you leave?") Be candid ("I'm sorry, I have some things I need to get done."). Stand up and walk to the door.

The Telephone

1. No plan for handling
   Learn to use the answering/message machine to screen your calls. Use a call back system to return calls. If it isn't necessary to talk with the person, plan to leave a message on the message machine. Bunch all the calls you have to make into one time period.

   No plan for unavailability

2. Inability to terminate a conversation.
   Learn, practice techniques. Preset a time limit conversation. ("Yes, I can talk for a few minutes"). Foreshadow an ending ("Joe, before we hang up..."). Be candid ("Sorry, Fred, but I have to go now").

3. Socializing to avoid dull tasks
   Set daily goals for motivation. Be creative in finding a challenge.

If you can't avoid an interruption, at least shorten it!

CRISIS MANAGEMENT

Many of the crises that arise in school and/or our personal lives result from failure to act until a matter becomes urgent, with a result that more time is required to do the job. For example, think of the last time you wrote a paper. Was it the best paper that you could have written or was it only as good as the time you had to spend on it? Did you wait until the night before to start on it so you had no choice but to turn down an invitation from your friends to go to a movie? Or maybe you knew a bill had to be paid, but you kept waiting and waiting on it till the day before it was due and then found you had no money in your account to cover the check. So when you called home there was no answer all day long and you don't have an answering machine. The bill has to be paid tomorrow in person or your car will be repossessed!

These scenarios never happen, right?! Look at the causes and several possible solutions of management by crisis.
CAUSES
1. Failure to anticipate problems and to develop contingency plans
2. Overreaction (treating problems as crises—sound familiar?)
3. Fire fighting
4. Failure to establish controls
5. Unrealistic time estimates

SOLUTIONS
1. Expect the unexpected. Ask yourself what could go wrong (Murphy’s Third Law: ‘It will!’) List potential problems and consider steps to prevent them if possible, in other words, always have a contingency plan.
2. Relax! Limit your response to such by (a) ignoring problems which can be ignored (b) by delegating all those which others can handle, (c) handling only those which you alone can take care of.
3. Recognize that it is more important to prevent new fires from developing than to spend all of your time putting out old ones. Preventative action is the key!
4. Timeline all major projects. Establish checkpoints at intervals to determine whether subtasks/goals are being met.
5. Remember, everything takes longer than you think it will (Murphy’s Second Law). Analyze your underestimates in time, then add “cushion” time to all critical estimates, at least 20%.

ATTEMPTING TOO MUCH

When school begins and volleyball, hall meetings, and other things start, it will be about the time you find yourself in this predicament. You will have said “yes” to too many things and too many people and will be confronted with a situation where you really need to give a good look at the roles and goals you have written and committed to to get you back on the right path! You can’t do everything! Well, I suppose you could do everything, but not very well and not if you desire to maintain your sanity! Check out the reasons and consider the remedies for “biting off more than you can chew”!

REASONS
1. Unaware of importance

REMEDIES
Take a three day time log (there’s one in the appendix!). Analyze your tendency to take on
2. Lack of priorities and planning (probably the BIG culprit!)

Set objectives, priorities, deadlines in four time frames (daily, weekly, monthly, yearly). Focus on your top priorities and ignore things that don't contribute to these objectives.

3. Responding to the urgent

Distinguish between the urgent and the important (see the discussion about this on page 16). Balance short-range objectives. Ask yourself "What's the worst that can happen if I don't do this?" before responding to the urgent task.

4. Overresponse

Limit your response to the real demands of the situation. Stay uninvolved if others can handle a situation without your help. Delegate if others should be handling a job.

5. Overambition, overestimating what you are capable of handling.

Control your ambition, your desire to help to fit your abilities and your goals. Be realistic, keep perspective. Realize you can't do everything and do it well.

6. Overdesiré to be cooperative

Recognize the difference between being cooperative and doing someone else's work for them. Learn to say no. Use your own priorities as reasons and offer alternatives where appropriate.

7. Perfectionism

Lower your standards. Get real!

**INABILITY TO SAY "NO"!

Such a simple, little word to say, so why is it so hard to use? Of all the time-saving techniques ever used, perhaps the most effective is the frequent use of the word no. You cannot protect your priorities unless you learn to decline, tactfully but firmly, every request that does not contribute to the
achievement of your goals.

Just last night I received two phone calls from different people asking me if I would babysit. Not that I don’t like their kids or anything, but I declined because I had a higher priority, I had planned on working on this “stuff”, and I didn’t let guilt or the fact that I might have felt sorry for them sway my decision.

The tendency of many time-pressed people is to accept reluctantly new assignments, new social obligations, new chores, new offices, etc. without realistically weighing the cost in time. Many times we worry about offending others so that we end up living our lives according to others people’s priorities.

Consider the following causes and solutions to this age-old problem!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CAUSES</th>
<th>SOLUTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Desire to win approval, acceptance</td>
<td>Recognize this for what it is worth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Fear of offending</td>
<td>True friends are not offended by honest explanations. Try “Thanks for the compliment but I’ll have to decline” or “Sorry I can’t, but let me offer a suggestion...”</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. False sense of obligation</td>
<td>Recognize that you do this and examine the reason why.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Not knowing how to refuse</td>
<td>Listen to the request. Say no at once if appropriate to do so. Give reasons and suggest alternatives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Lack excuses</td>
<td>Don’t be too sensitive. Why do you need an excuse? The best excuse is that you have your own priorities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Lack objectives and priorities</td>
<td>If you don’t have priorities/objectives, get them before someone makes theirs, yours!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Thoughtless assumption by others that you will say yes</td>
<td>Realize that you have probably encouraged this assumption by never saying no. Learn to say no, especially to inappropriate or thoughtless requests or those that make you feel bad if you consent.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
INADEQUATE PLANNING

No coach would take her team into a contest without a game plan! Certainly such a plan is not sacred but it does give focus to weaknesses to attack and strengths to work around. Your day, week, month is no different than a game. You need a daily, weekly and maybe even a monthly plan of attack! If you don’t, you will use your time according to whatever happens to attract your attention. Other people’s actions will determine your priorities. The result will be that you will be dealing primarily with problems rather than opportunities.

But you say, “I don’t have time to plan”. NOT! Studies have proven that the more time we spend in advance planning on a project, the less total time is required for it. Don’t let today’s busy work crowd out the time you need to take in planning. Schedule your planning time into your daily task list or put it on your appointment calendar each day as time to meet with yourself.

Presented below are additional ideas about poor planning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CAUSES</th>
<th>SOLUTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Unaware of importance</td>
<td>For every hour of planning you can save three to four in execution and get better results besides.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Lack time to plan</td>
<td>Take it. Realize that planning deserves priority and although it takes time initially, it pays off in the long run.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Lack of self-discipline</td>
<td>Create deadlines for yourself. Try using a daily plan with priorities and objectives for one month. Get others to do the same. Monitor your progress and evaluate the results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Assumption that since few days are alike, it is silly to plan, besides emergencies will spoil plans anyway</td>
<td>Most people tend to waste time in the same way or in similar ways every day. Damage from emergencies can be minimized by planning with the most important tasks completed before or after an emergency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Have a plan in mind but feel it is unimportant to write it down</td>
<td>The great thing about writing things down is that you don’t have to worry about forgetting. You also don’t have to worry about what to do first in your plan because you have steps down in priority order with deadlines set. The Daily planning frees you from forgetfulness!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Crisis-oriented (crises as unavoidable?!)</td>
<td>Most crises are usually predictable. Allow more time and plan ahead for contingencies.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B

A TIME LOG

The time log is the most valuable single tool for getting control of time. It can be used occasionally to evaluate your time effectiveness.

There are five steps to using a time log. They are:

#1 Commit yourself to using the time log for the next three days.

#2 Select five time inventory categories which are most appropriate for you. The sixth category will be labeled "other" to catch any loose ends. Try using any of the following categories or others that might be appropriate.

- studying
- telephone
- class
- practice
- planning
- travel
- projects
- socializing

Write the categories in the columns at the top of your time log.

#3 Begin logging your time.

a. Keep your daily log in 15-30 minute intervals. Do not wait several hours or until the end of the day to fill in your entries.

b. Record the following information for each entry.

1. The time of the entry
2. A short description of the activity (ies)
3. The number of minutes spent on each activity
4. The priority of each activity

A=Vital, B=Important, C=Some Value, D=worthless

#4 After three days, compile the results.

A. Add the number of minutes spent in each category for each day. Now add the sixth category totals to find the number of total minutes logged each day.

B. Divide the total minutes for each day into the total minutes for each category to find the percentage of time spent in each category each day.

C. Add the total number of minutes spent in each A, B, C, or D category and write the respective numbers in the space provided at the bottom of the log sheet.

D. Combine and average the percentages from your three daily log sheets to get a complete picture.

#5 Analyze your results.

A. Look at the amount of time in each category which was spent doing vital, important, some value, and worthless activities.

Answer the following questions about the time you spent in the last three days. Be honest with yourself and be sure to take the time to consider each question and answer.
Was my time spent productively? Which part of each day was most productive? Which was least productive? Why?

What are the recurring patterns of inefficiency? (i.e., waiting for someone or something, searching for something, interruptions, etc.) In other words, how did I waste my time? How did I waste other people’s time?

What activities am I now performing that can be reduced, eliminated or given to someone else to do? What do I do that is unnecessary or inappropriate?

What did I do that was urgent but unimportant?

What did I do that was important in light of my roles and goals?

Am I spending my time pursuing those things that are important to me? If not, why not? If so, how?

B. Using the information revealed by your analysis, formulate goals and strategies and use the time robber advice in appendix A to help optimize your time usage.

C. Set a date for logging your time in four to six months.
A Time Log

Date started __________ Date ended __________

Categories
Appendix C

Self Assessment Questionnaire

The following statements summarize the principles we have discussed throughout this booklet. Check those that apply to you. Review items you do not check to see if an opportunity may exist for future efficiency.

I know when my peak energy period occurs.

I have adjusted my daily routine to make maximum use of my peak energy.

I have enumerated those roles that are important to me and I have set goals accordingly.

I have prioritized my use of time so that it is spent doing those things that are most important, not urgent, to me.

I have eliminated all unnecessary and inappropriate tasks.

I am knowledgable about time robbers in my own life and how to deal with them.

I delegate whenever logical and possible.

I plan what I want to accomplish each week.

I prepare a daily task list.

I leave time for the unexpected each day.

I realize that I can't do everything and that I must choose the best alternatives.

I have found ways of eliminating and reducing the distractions in my life.
Appendix D

How to Control My Use of Time

1. Establish goals/objectives and priorities.

2. Eliminate unnecessary and inappropriate activities.

BY

a. Delegating as much as possible

b. Planning and scheduling the use of my time weekly and daily so that...

(1) I include room for unexpected events.

(2) I strive to eliminate or reduce as many distractions as possible.

(3) I make optimum use of my peak energy time.
Appendix E
Your Profile

Read each statement and, using your best judgement, circle the number which indicates how well you perform in the following areas:

Outstanding (6), Very Good (5), Good (4), Fair (3), Poor (2), Very Poor (1)

1 2 3 4 5 6 I am in control of my life.

1 2 3 4 5 6 I focus my efforts on things I can do something about rather than on things beyond my control.

1 2 3 4 5 6 I take responsibility for my moods and actions rather than blaming others or circumstances.

1 2 3 4 5 6 I know what I want to accomplish in life.

1 2 3 4 5 6 I organize and prepare in a way which reduces having to work in a crisis mode.

1 2 3 4 5 6 I begin each week with a clear plan of what I desire to accomplish.

1 2 3 4 5 6 I am disciplined in carrying out plans (avoid procrastination, time wasters/robbers, etc.)

1 2 3 4 5 6 I do not allow all the truly important activities of my life get lost in the busy activity of my days.

1 2 3 4 5 6 The things I do every day are meaningful and contribute to the overall goals in life.

1 2 3 4 5 6 I care about the success of others as well as my own success.

1 2 3 4 5 6 I cooperate with others.

1 2 3 4 5 6 When solving conflicts, I strive to find solutions which benefit all.
I care for my physical health and well-being.

I strive to build and improve relationships with others.

I take time to find meaning and enjoyment in life.

I am able to maintain an appropriate balance between the various aspects of my life - school, family, volleyball, friends, etc.

When working on a task, I also keep in mind the concerns and needs of those I am working with.

I work hard at the things I do, but not in a manner that causes burnout.

Ideas taken from Covey's *The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People*
Appendix F

References


Appendix G

QUOTABLES

"Urgency engulfs the (time) manager; yet the most urgent task is not always the most important. The tyranny of the urgent lies in its distortion of priorities. One of the measures of a manager is the ability to distinguish the important from the urgent, to refuse to be tyrannized by the urgent, to refuse to manage by crisis."
-R. Alec Mackenzie

"The way of success is not run with seven league boots, but step by step, little by little, bit by bit—with no exceptions allowed."
-Sterling Sill

"That which we persist in doing becomes easier for us to do; not that the nature of the thing itself is changed, but that our power to do it is increased."
-Ralph Waldo Emerson

"If you treat an individual as he is, he will remain as he is. But if you treat him as if he were what he ought to be, he will become what he ought to be and could be."
-Goethe

Things which matter most must never be at the mercy of things which matter least.
-Goethe

HABIT
I am your constant companion. I am your greatest helper or heaviest burden. I will push you onward or drag you down to failure. I am completely at your command. Half the things you do you might just as well turn over to me and I will be able to do them quickly and correctly.

I am easily managed—you must merely be firm with me. Show me exactly how you want something done and after a few lessons I will do it automatically. I am the servant of all great men; and alas, of all failures, as well Those who are great, I have made great. Those who are failures I have made failures.

I am not machine, though I work with all the precision of a machine plus the intelligence of a man. You may run me for profit or run me for ruin—it makes no difference to me.

Take me, train me, be firm with me, and I will place the world at your feet. Be easy with me and I will destroy you. WHO AM I? I AM HABIT!
-Anonymous
APPENDIX B

THE SPORT IDENTITY INDEX

AND

COVER LETTER
In this survey, you are being asked your feelings and thoughts about being a participant on the volleyball team. You will be asked about things related to the sport role, such as the importance of volleyball to you on a daily basis, the number of friends you have through volleyball, your background in volleyball, and so on. Of course, people vary quite a bit in how involved they are in playing volleyball. Your answers are important whether you are actively involved in playing or watching the sport. The results of this survey are important for researchers who are studying the social psychology of sports involvement. Your answers to the questions below will remain confidential.

The sport (volleyball) identity is only one of several roles or identities that you, as a college student, might have. Other typical roles or identities that might be relevant to you would be the student or academic identity, the kinship or family identity, the work or employment role, a religious identity, a political identity, or an ethnic group or national identity. For each of these possible identities, ask yourself the question, “How important is this identity to me on a day-to-day basis?” Or, you might think of these identities in another way. “If for some reason, I had to give up one of these identities, which one (s) would I give up and in what order would I give them up?”

After you have thought about the importance of each of these identities to you on a day-to-day basis or in terms of the order you would be willing to give them up, please rank the identities in their order of importance to you. For your convenience the seven identities have been listed below. Write the identity that is most important to you in the first blank (#1), then write the second most important identity in the next blank (#2), and so on, putting the least important one in the last blank (#7). Be sure to use all seven of the identities.

| Most important 1. | __________________________ |
| 2. | __________________________ |
| Political | 3. | __________________________ |
| Kinship/Family | 4. | __________________________ |
| Sport (Volleyball) | 5. | __________________________ |
| Religious | 6. | __________________________ |
| Academic/Student | Work/Employment |
| Ethnic group/National identity | 7. | __________________________ |
| Least important 7. | __________________________ |
Now go back and look at the way you rank ordered the identities above and ask yourself the question, "If I had to give up one of these identities, would I do so in this order? That is, would I give up the one given at the bottom first, then the next one, and so on up the line, giving up last the one at the top of the list?" If not, then change the order of the identities listed so that the order is correct.

Now that you have ranked each of the identities, think a minute or so about how important each of them is to you. Use the scale below to rate the importance of each of them to you. The numbers on the scale should be treated like the numbers on a ruler, with equal distances separating them. You may use any number from 0-100 and you may assign the same number to two or more identities. Please answer with a number not a range.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Of no importance</th>
<th>Slightly important</th>
<th>Moderately important</th>
<th>Quite important</th>
<th>As important to me as I can imagine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>__ __ __ __ __ __</td>
<td>__ __ __ __ __ __</td>
<td>__ __ __ __ __ __</td>
<td>__ __ __ __ __</td>
<td>0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The importance of my volleyball identity to me (0 to 100) is: __________

2. The importance of my political identity to me is: __________

3. The importance of my family role to me is: __________

4. The importance of my work/employment role to me is: __________

5. The importance of my student or academic identity to me is: __________

6. The importance of my ethnic group or national identity to me is: __________

7. The importance of my religious identity to me is: __________
Please CIRCLE the appropriate response:

In general, my attitude toward participating in volleyball is:

Very Favorable  Favorable  Undecided  Unfavorable  Very Unfavorable

In general, my attitude toward participating in volleyball is:

Very Negative  Negative  Undecided  Positive  Very Positive

About how many hours do you intend to spend participating in volleyball next week? Please include in your estimate time spent traveling to and from the sport, as well as time spent participating. Estimate the total time for all seven days of the week, including the weekend. Do not include any time being spent as a sports fan in this estimate. Write your estimate of the numbers of hours for each day in the space provided.

Write your estimate in the space provided. If you do not intend to spend any time participating in volleyball next week, put a zero in the total hours box.

Monday: ______ hours; Tuesday: ______ hours; Wednesday: ______ hours

Thursday: ______ hours; Friday: ______ hours; Saturday: ______ hours;

Sunday: ______ hours; TOTAL FOR WEEK = ______ hours.

Is next week a typical week for you? If not, explain why your estimate for your volleyball participation is higher or lower than average:

_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________

Please CIRCLE the appropriate response:

In general, my attitude toward my studies is:

Very Favorable  Favorable  Undecided  Unfavorable  Very Unfavorable

In general, my attitude toward my studies is:

Very Negative  Negative  Undecided  Positive  Very Positive
About how many hours do you intend to spend studying next week? Please include in your estimate time spent traveling to and from the place you will be studying (the library, for example), as well as time spent studying. Estimate the total time for all seven days of the week, including the weekend. Do not include any time spent attending class in this estimate. Write your estimate of the numbers of hours for each day in the space provided.

Write your estimate in the space provided. If you do not intend to spend any time studying next week, put a zero in the total hours box.

Monday: _____ hours; Tuesday: _____ hours; Wednesday: _____ hours

Thursday: _____ hours; Friday: _____ hours; Saturday: _____ hours;

Sunday: _____ hours; TOTAL FOR WEEK = _____ hours.

Is next week a typical week for you? If not, explain why your estimate for studying is higher or lower than average:

OTHERS' EXPECTATIONS OF MY ATHLETIC PARTICIPATION

Instructions: The following statements concern your personal evaluation about what others think about your volleyball involvement. Your answers to the questions will remain confidential, so please answer the way you really feel. For each of the items, read the statement through carefully, since no two are exactly alike. Then circle the appropriate number from 8 (very strongly agree) to 0 (very strongly disagree).

VSA=Very Strongly Agree
U=Undecided
VSD=Very Strongly Disagree

1. Many people think of me in terms of being a volleyball player.

VSA  U  VSD
8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0

2. Other people think that volleyball is important to me.

VSA  U  VSD
8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0

3. It is important to my friends and relatives that I continue to participate in volleyball.

VSA  U  VSD
8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0

SELF-INVOLVEMENT IN VOLLEYBALL

Instructions: The following statements concern your personal evaluation about your volleyball involvement. Your answers will remain confidential, so please answer how you really feel. For each of the items, read the statement through carefully, since no two are exactly alike. Then circle the appropriate number from 8 (very strongly agree) to 0 (very strongly disagree).

VSA = Very Strongly Agree  
U = Undecided  
VSD = Very Strongly Disagree

1. During the past week, I have made several decisions in which my involvement in volleyball has influenced my decision.

2. I would feel a loss if I were forced to give up volleyball.

3. I am strongly committed to being as good in volleyball as I can be.

4. I typically organize my day so that I can compete in volleyball.

5. When I participate in volleyball, I do not care if I make mistakes.
6. Being a volleyball player is something I rarely or never think about.
7. I often plan ahead to make time for volleyball.
8. Improving my athletic skills is important to me.
9. As far as my own life is concerned, I am more of a spectator than a participant in sports.
10. I really do not have any clear feelings about being a volleyball player at ________________.
11. Being a volleyball player is an important part of who I am.
12. For me, being on the volleyball team at ________________ means more than just playing volleyball.

13. When you were a senior in high school, how much did you participate in the following types of activities? Athletic Teams, Intramurals, Lettermen's Club, Sports Club (Circle one to indicate the appropriate degree of involvement below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did NOT Participate</th>
<th>Participated Actively</th>
<th>Participated as a Leader or Officer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

SATISFACTION THROUGH ATHLETIC PARTICIPATION

Instructions: The following statements concern your personal evaluation about your sports involvement. Your answer to the questions will remain confidential, so please answer the way you really feel. For each of the items, read the statement through carefully, since no two are exactly alike. Then circle the appropriate number from 8 (very strongly agree) to 0 (very strongly disagree).

VSA=Very Strongly Agree VSD=Very Strongly Disagree U=Undecided

1. I feel that participation in volleyball has taught me how to set and achieve goals in my personal life.
2. Volleyball isn't as much fun as it used to be.

3. I feel that volleyball takes up too much of my time.

4. I feel that participating in volleyball has decreased my feelings of self-worth.

5. I feel that if I wasn't involved in volleyball, I wouldn't care as much about my health.

6. Through participation in volleyball, I have learned how to keep my body in good physical condition.

7. I feel I have gained control over my body through participation in volleyball.

8. Participating in volleyball has given me confidence in myself.

9. I feel that participating in volleyball has encouraged me to make better use of my free time.

10. Through volleyball, I have developed a sense of my inner strength.

11. Overall, I feel that I do not get enough out of volleyball to justify the time and effort it takes.

12. My participation in volleyball has provided me with valuable training in competition.

13. Through participation in volleyball, I have learned to be more assertive.

14. I feel that my participation in sports has distracted me from more important activities.

15. I have met or am meeting my personal volleyball goals through my participation at ___________.

16. I have felt personally rewarded by what I have accomplished through my volleyball participation at ________________.
17. I am satisfied with the amount of effort I have put into volleyball at ________________.

18. I am generally satisfied with my volleyball at ________________.

### OTHERS' EXPECTATIONS OF YOUR ACADEMIC WORK

Circle the appropriate number.

**VSA** = Very Strongly Agree  **VSD** = Very Strongly Disagree  **U** = Undecided

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VSA</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>VSD</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Many people think of me in terms of being a student.

2. Other people think that school is important to me.

3. It is important to my friends and family that I continue my schooling.

4. It would not really matter to most people I know if I dropped out of school.

5. Many of the people that I know are not aware that I am a college student.

6. Many of the people that I know expect me to graduate from college.

7. No one would really be surprised if I just dropped out of school.

8. Many people would probably be disappointed in me if I just decided to stop going to school.
SELF-INVOLVEMENT IN ACADEMICS

Circle the appropriate number.

VSA= Very Strongly Agree  VSD= Very Strongly Disagree
U= Undecided

VSA U VSD 1. During the past week, I have made several
decisions in which involvement with schoolwork
has influenced my decision.

VSA U VSD 2. I would feel a loss if I were forced to quit school.

VSA U VSD 3. I am strongly committed to being as good a
student as I can be.

VSA U VSD 4. I typically organize my day so that I can do my
schoolwork.

VSA U VSD 5. When I take tests and complete assignments, I am
not worried that I will make mistakes.

VSA U VSD 6. Being a student is something I rarely or never think
about.

VSA U VSD 7. I often plan ahead to make time for my school
work.

VSA U VSD 8. Improving my study skills is important to me.

VSA U VSD 9. As far as my own life is concerned, I am more of a
"spectator" than a "participant" in my studies.

VSA U VSD 10. I really do not have any clear feelings about
being a student at ____________.

VSA U VSD 11. Being a student is an important part of who I am.

VSA U VSD 12. For me, being in school at ____________ means
more than just taking classes toward a major.
13. When you were a senior in high school, how much did you participate in the following types of activities? Academic clubs/activities like Debate Club, Foreign Language Club, National Honor Society, Yearbook, Newspaper (Circle one to indicate the appropriate degree of involvement.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did NOT Participate</th>
<th>Participated</th>
<th>Participated as a Leader or Officer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**SATISFACTION THROUGH ACADEMIC INVOLVEMENT**

Circle the appropriate number.

VSA=Very Strongly Agree  VSD=Very Strongly Disagree  U=Undecided

1. I have met or am meeting my personal goals in my academic life at ____________________.

2. I have felt personally rewarded by what I have accomplished through my academic coursework at ____________________.

3. I am satisfied with the amount of time I devote to my studies at ____________________.

4. I am satisfied with the amount of effort that I put into my studies at ____________________.

5. I am generally satisfied with my academic performance at ____________________.

Circle the best answer to the questions below.

1. Has your volleyball participation mostly helped or hurt your academic life?
   - Helped Very Much  - Helped  - Neither  - Hurt  - Hurt Very Much

2. Has your volleyball participation mostly helped or hurt your social life?
   - Helped Very Much  - Helped  - Neither  - Hurt  - Hurt Very Much
PLEASE COMMENT ON HOW YOUR ATHLETIC PARTICIPATION HAS HELPED OR HURT YOUR SOCIAL OR ACADEMIC LIFE.

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Your age at your last birthday:
   _____under 18 _____18-19 _____20-21 _____22-23 _____over 24

2. College class:
   _____freshman _____sophomore _____junior _____senior _____graduate

3. Cumulative grade point average (at end of the last quarter or semester):
   _____below 2.0 _____2.0-2.5 _____2.51-3.0 _____3.01-3.5 _____over 3.5

4. Race or ethnic identification:
   _____American Indian _____Black or African-American
   _____Puerto Rican _____Mexican-American or Chicano
   _____White or Caucasian _____Asian-American
   _____Other Latin American _____Other: __________________________
5. Please check below the highest educational level of your parents or guardians. Check only ONE for each parent.

**FATHER OR MALE GUARDIAN**

____ Did not complete high school  
____ Finished high school or equivalent  
____ Adult education program  
____ Business or trade school  
____ Some college  
____ Finished college  
____ Attended graduate or professional school  
____ Obtained graduate or professional degree (for example, M.A., Ph.D., M.D.)

**MOTHER OR FEMALE GUARDIAN**

____ Did not complete high school  
____ Finished high school or equivalent  
____ Adult education program  
____ Business or trade school  
____ Some college  
____ Finished college  
____ Attended graduate or professional school  
____ Obtained graduate or professional degree (for example, M.A., Ph.D., M.D.)

6. Please list any sports you have lettered in at high school or college and the number of times you lettered in each sport. List them separately under the correct level of play. If none, write “0” or “none”.

**HIGH SCHOOL**

________________________________________

________________________________________

________________________________________

**COLLEGE**

________________________________________

________________________________________

________________________________________

7. Please fill in the blank provided with the school you are currently attending.

________________________________________
Dear Coach,

Thanks so much for your willingness to present this questionnaire to your volleyball team! It will help me a great deal in my efforts to finish my dissertation this coming spring!

Please give the questionnaire to your players sometime during the first week of preseason. I would suggest that you allow 30 minutes to complete this with all persons doing so at one sitting. Please don't allow the athletes to take it back to their rooms to complete. You will have great difficulty in getting a quick return.

Please read the following directions to them as they prepare to complete the questionnaire.

"You are being asked to complete this questionnaire about your volleyball participation. It is important that you take the time to think about every question as it relates to you. There are no right or wrong answers and your answers will remain confidential. Your participation in the completion of this survey is voluntary. Completing this in no way jeopardizes your volleyball participation. Completing this questionnaire does mean you are consenting to be a participant in this research.

Many NCAA Division III volleyball players are completing this survey because there has been very little research performed with women, let alone volleyball players at the Division III level. Your answers are important to researchers who are studying the social psychology of sports involvement, particularly volleyball involvement.

No answer is right or wrong. Take your time in thinking about every question as it relates to you. Please answer every question. After you have completed the questionnaire, place it in the envelope provided and seal it. All your answers will be kept confidential."

Coach, upon completion, please return all the sealed envelopes in the envelope provided.

Thanks again for your help!

Sincerely,

Kim Fischer
Sport and Leisure Studies
The Ohio State University

Dr. Timothy Curry
Department of Sociology
The Ohio State University