Tackling the Transition: A Life Skills Intervention to Improve College Adjustment, College Self-Efficacy, and Transference of Life Skills of Freshmen Student-Athletes

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TACKLING THE TRANSITION: A LIFE SKILLS INTERVENTION TO IMPROVE
COLLEGE ADJUSTMENT, COLLEGE SELF-EFFICACY, AND THE
TRANSFERENCE OF LIFE SKILLS OF FRESHMEN STUDENT-ATHLETES

by

KENDRA GRANT

(Under the Direction of Brandonn Harris)

ABSTRACT

The present study explored the effects of a life skills intervention on college freshmen student-athletes’ college adjustment, college self-efficacy, and the transference of life skills. The purpose of this study was to determine the importance of implementing life skills programming to student-athletes in order to smooth the transition period from high school to college. Hypotheses were that participants would improve in college adjustment, college self-efficacy, and transference of life skills from participation in the life skills intervention. Participants included three freshman student-athletes, who played various sports at a Division 1 University located in the southeast. The primary researcher conducted a single-subject B-A-B design to deliver the intervention over 9 sessions for 30 minutes to an hour each session. Results revealed that the life skills intervention was effective for two out of three of the participants on most of the subscales within the three measures: college adjustment, college self-efficacy, and the ability to transfer the skills learned in session to other domains.

INDEX WORDS: Transition, Freshman student-athletes, and Life Skills
TACKLING THE TRANSITION: A LIFE SKILLS INTERVENTION TO IMPROVE COLLEGE ADJUSTMENT OF FRESHMEN STUDENT-ATHLETES

by

KENDRA GRANT

B.A., Mercer University, 2013

A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of Georgia Southern University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

MASTER OF KINESIOLOGY

STATESBORO, GEORGIA
TACKLING THE TRANSITION: A LIFE SKILLS INTERVENTION TO IMPROVE COLLEGE ADJUSTMENT, COLLEGE SELF-EFFICACY, AND TRANSFERENCE OF LIFE SKILLS OF FRESHMEN STUDENT-ATHLETES

by

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Electronic Version Approved:
July 2016
DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this document to my amazing grandmother, Martha Grant, who has been my rock throughout this process. I appreciate her constant love and support she has shown me always, but especially when I needed her the most. I would also like to dedicate this to all of my family and friends who supported me along this journey. Whether it was a listening ear, words of encouragement, or just being there, I greatly appreciate it. I hope to make all of the people that have been in my corner proud not only for the things I accomplish, but for the person I become throughout the journey.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to take the time to acknowledge another group of individuals who have been a huge supporting cast for me throughout this journey, my thesis committee members. A special thank you to Dr. Brandonn Harris, Dr. Daniel Czech, and Dr. Samuel Todd who guided me from the start to the finish. A special thanks to Dr. Brandonn Harris, my thesis chair for always being there when I needed him. I appreciate his patience and willingness to work with me in order to help me get to where I needed to be. He has been an integral part of this process, and I would not have been able to do this without his support. I also would like to thank the staff in the institution’s athletic department and the athletes for helping me with my study. Having a strong support system through this journey has been priceless. To all that have influenced me during my time at Georgia Southern University...THANK YOU!
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

The college experience includes dynamic experiences and changes that students encounter during this period of their lives. One special population of college students that is important to explore when examining individuals’ response to change includes freshmen collegiate student-athletes. This population is important to examine because they experience two major transition-related changes within their time as intercollegiate athletes. These two major transitions include: (a) entering and (b) exiting college athletics, in which individuals learn to adjust athletically, academically, and personally (Schlossberg, 1984). The college experience is likened to a mini life cycle in which students may experience several changes, challenges, and life events (Medalie, 1981). More specifically, Medalie suggested that the first year of college included the idea of divestment and investment. This denotes a period of transition from family to a member within in a college community, creating a change in the student’s peer network and structure, and populated with a new mix of people and expectations. These student-athletes take on new responsibilities for decision-making and caring for one’s own physical needs through divestment of childhood and investment in college life during the freshman transition from home to college. By examining the transition period experienced by freshmen student-athletes, one may explore changes freshmen student-athletes experience, transition-related challenges, factors associated with successful transitions to college, and interventions to assist in this process.
Changes Experienced by Freshmen Student-Athletes

The college years are a time of transition for most young adults. For example, these individuals face establishing new relationships, making important career and life decisions, balancing academic and social priorities, and adjusting to independence and freedom of campus life (Etzel, Ferrante, & Pinkney, 2002, p. 137). College students face all of these challenges with the added pressure of physical, psychological, and time demands of participation in intercollegiate athletics (Kirk & Kirk, 1993). Student-athletes enter college during a period of development considered emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2000). During emerging adulthood, achieving independence from parents, trying alternative social roles, clarifying your interests and values, and planning for their future career are what these individuals are seeking to achieve. During the first year, student-athletes learn to manage different demands and unfamiliar challenges of their new and diverse roles. The student-athlete experience changes in three domains: academics, athletics, and personally. As students, they declare majors, develop and redefine study skills, and learn to be responsible for their own learning and behavior. As athletes, they adapt to higher levels of play, greater time commitments, and increased travel. Personally, they adjust to living with a roommate(s), making new friends, making their own decisions, and possibly navigating through a new community (Ridinger & Pastore, 2000).

Transition-Related Challenges

The term “student-athlete” is the only hyphenated identity used within the academic setting (Goldberg & Chandler, 1995). As such, “student-athletes have the challenging responsibility of living the roles of both the student and athlete (Giacobbi,
Oftentimes, student-athletes are overwhelmed by the demands of each of these roles they occupy; thus, it is important for these individuals to learn to effectively balance and manage these responsibilities (Miller & Kerr, 2002; Wilson & Pritchard, 2005). In both roles, the individual faces the challenges of mastering cognitive and psychosocial developmental tasks (e.g. decision-making, autonomy and interdependence, interpersonal relationships, and self-esteem) as they enter into college (Carodine, Almond, & Grato, 2011).

According to Giacobbi and colleagues (2004), the student role for collegiate student-athletes includes responsibilities such as attending classes, meeting assignment deadlines, adjusting to increased academic loads, and developing the skills to prepare them for future careers. Furthermore, these authors also suggested that the “student” role of the student-athlete involves developing schedules around multiple practices and competitions, travel, participation in demanding training sessions, and the ability to cope with all areas. Thus, in order to be successful as a student-athlete, one must meet these demands associated with both roles. However, student-athletes typically have limited time and energy to devote to both roles.

For example, when these two roles compete for the same resources, some may experience the stresses of role conflict linked to responsibilities associated with those roles. Simons, Van Rheenen, and Covington (1997) have suggested that the role conflict of student-athletes occur when athletic responsibilities “win” over academic responsibilities. Mastering the balance between the two primary responsibilities of school and sport can help student-athletes make the most of their collegiate experience, and
continue to be a valuable skill for balancing multiple future roles (i.e. parent, employee, friend, member of community).

Factors Associated with Successful Transitions to College

With regards to coping with mistakes and adversity, even the most gifted student-athlete will probably find the first few months of college athletics a difficult period of adjustment. They must learn new, more complicated skills, encounter typically more demanding training, and adjust to new coaches and teammates (Etzel, 2009). Similar to other college students, student-athletes must learn to manage time efficiently. Many of these individuals may experience more independence for the first time, and are in a position to make decisions for themselves. Most look forward to being independent, but make mistakes because of limited life experience and self-management skills (Etzel, Ferrante, & Pinkney, 2002).

For student-athletes, there are typical time management concerns with academic and social involvements in an environment where 2-4 hours a day are devoted to athletic training, and classes missed due to travel schedules. Important concepts for effective time management for student-athletes include identifying available study times, scheduling study time more effectively, utilizing study time more efficiently, and recognizing and eliminating time wasters (Bailey, 1993).

While learning to be effective with time management is critical to successful adaptation to college, other factors play a role in successfully adjusting to the demands of transitioning into college. In addition to time management, successful adaptation may also be facilitated by social support provided by friends, family, and others (Etzel, 2009). Having a network to reach out to during difficult times is important for the psychological
well-being of the student-athlete. Due to previously experienced athletic success, there may be unrealistic collegiate athletic expectations (i.e. starting position, winning big game, all-conference honors, being the star of the team). These student-athletes are not considering the people that they have successfully beaten in high school are no longer competing at the college level (Ogilvie & Taylor, 1993). The level of competition is elevated due to contending with athletes who are just as successful, more experienced, and competing in more intense and demanding practice and game environments. Frustration may occur during this adjustment from being the star in high school to being a substitute in college, and adjusting to not being in the limelight (Danish, Petitpas, & Hale, 1993). Social support to deal with these frustrations associated with adjustment will be critical for one’s development. Many first year students are unaware of how to effectively problem solve, so they have to acquire and experiment with different coping skills, mechanisms, and choices to determine which ones are most appropriate and adaptive (Giacobbi et. al., 2004).

A final skill that contributes to successful college adjustment of freshmen student-athletes is goal setting. Goal setting is another extremely important valuable skill recommended for any potential college student-athlete to learn along with time management skills and social support (Etzel et al., 2002). Research has shown that utilizing goal setting in sport parallels goal setting procedures to be effective in other life situations (Gould, 1993; Locke & Latham, 1985). However, research shows that many student-athletes and coaches do not use goal setting effectively, and need education to do so (e.g. Burton, Weinberg, Yukelson, & Weigand, 1998; Weinberg, Butt, Knight, & Perrit, 2011). The problem appears to be not so much in setting goals, but more so by
setting goal achievement strategies through planning, execution, and evaluation (Weinberg & Gould, 1999). Sport psychology consultants suggest athletes should set goals in measurable and behavioral terms (Etzel et al., 2002). These researchers also found that writing goals down and having a target period for attaining goals is important.

The three types of goals individuals can set are outcome, performance, and process goals (Kingston & Hardy, 1997). Individuals should not just focus on outcome goals (i.e. winning), but also performance (i.e. personal improvement) and process goals (skill mastery). Time management, social support, and goal setting are key factors that play a role in successful adaptation. These factors may also serve as important areas to target for developing a life skills program. Danish (1993) noted that the goal of student-athlete interventions focusing on transitioning should not only consist of the ability to cope with these changes, but mature as a person through the experience as well.

**Transition-related interventions for student-athletes**

In describing transition-related interventions for student-athletes, Etzel and colleagues (2002) suggested that those interventions that take place before a transition are *enhancement strategies*. Enhancement strategies help to educate about future transitions, identify transferrable skills, teach how transferable skills work in new domains, and teach new life skills. Interventions that take place during a transition consist of more *supportive strategies*. Supportive strategies facilitate the development social networks, mobilize student-athlete coping resources, and buffer the impact of any stress related transition. Finally, those interventions that take place after a transition may include more *counseling*-related strategies. These strategies assist in to developing referral networks, identify or develop coping resources to manage transition aftermath. As the research
suggests, depending on the time of transition for the individual will help determine what type of intervention strategy to use. More specifically, when teaching life skills, it is ideal to use enhancement and supportive strategies in order to help students practice these skills before or during the transition.

Whether or not an institution has a well-established life skills program, an important first point to start such interventions is to “take the temperature” of the current student-athlete population by administering a needs assessment (Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1995, pg. 130). In order to better address the unique and individual needs of this group, needs assessments should be the foundation of life skills programming. A practical approach is to identify factors that are relevant to the needs of student-athletes in various areas including perspective training, independence training, time-management, goal setting, and stress management skills (Broughton & Neyer, 2001). When considering the types of skills these provide, one may identify the first three as life skills and the latter as psychological skills (Etzel, 2009). Transferability of life skills to non-sport settings depend on a few factors including perceived value of the skill, confidence in ability to transfer skills, comprehension of transferability, and support/reinforcement of transferability.

Life skills interventions provide programs that serve as an important resource for the collegiate athlete, and teach valuable life skills to all participants (Bailey, 1993). Aspects of these programs may include developing time management skills for effective studying, building specialized academic skills for college preparation, stress management, mistake and loss strategy facilitation, and developing interpersonal communication skills for addressing coaches, teammates, and the media (O’Bryant,
It is important that any life skills model for student-athletes be sensitive to and aware of the developmental tasks and needs of the individuals involved. For example, time management interventions may be more relevant when working with freshmen, while career planning and résumé writing may be more appropriate for juniors/seniors. When one teaches life skills in the same manner as sport skills, setting goals and teaching plans to achieve those goals foster feelings of self-efficacy and develop competence. Self-efficacy tends to have a radiating effect in the end on an individual’s personal and athletic life (Danish & Hale, 1981).

As previously mentioned, life skills programs typically provide student-athletes with resources to help them be successful in all areas of their lives. Within a human development model, interventions in working with student-athletes do not emphasize “short term cures,” but the importance of lifelong enhancement of personal development, and growth, and maximizing athletic performance is the focused goal (Erikson, 1950). The intervention program helps to enable student athletes to gain control over their lives by teaching them skills to determine their future, fostering life management through planning. This intervention may also help student-athletes set goals as both an athlete and a student. The emphasis of life skills interventions is to teach skills that are generalizable across various situations. With this, student-athletes may be better prepared to handle future situations by developing their coping and problem solving skills.

Knowing what life skills programs should include and the goals of these interventions leads one to question the importance of life skills training in the university setting. Many university’s mission statements to some degree mentions the development of productive citizens or whole person development of mind and body (Etzel, 2009).
Mission statements are inclusive documents and should take into account student-athletes. It is important to meet challenges faced with providing education and training of different skills (Etzel, 2009). The framework is based on the belief that many student-athletes enter college with a somewhat narrow and rigid worldview. The goal is to facilitate individuals’ personal and career development through a process of exploratory behavior and skill development that begins in the first year of college and continues through graduation (Etzel, 2009).

Life skills development occurring in the onset of the student’s college experience is becoming more relevant for researchers for determining the effects of those interventions. Rasnack (2011) examined the effects of participating in a life skills program for freshmen student-athletes on academic and social performance. Student-athletes were randomly assigned to either the control or the treatment group. The treatment group participated in a Life Skills Seminar Course designed and taught by the researcher. This study was modeled after Kingston’s (2003) performance seminar that included lectures, skill exercises, group sharing, and discussions. Topics for both seminars were also derived from the work of Petrie, Hankes, and Denson (2011). Participants completed both the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SAC-Q) and the College Self-Efficacy Inventory (CSEI) at the beginning and end of the 10-week course which met twice a week for one hour. The researcher examined these pre/posttest measures along with grade point averages of both the control and treatment groups and program evaluations to determine the program’s effectiveness. Results revealed there were no statistically significant differences in the measures (pre and post), the groups (control or treatment), or grade point average. However, it was noted that participants in
the treatment group had a grade point average of 0.35 higher than the control group, and the effectiveness of the life skills program was described as beneficial to their general knowledge in the student evaluations.

While having made an important contribution to the extant literature, one ethical implication of this study regards the withholding of a valuable intervention from a control group that might otherwise substantially benefit from this important service. This is particularly true given research has suggested that student-athletes who are not exposed to life skills programming may be more at risk for engaging in problematic behaviors such as violence and abuse due to the inability to effectively cope with adversity, and the lack of programming hinders student-athletes’ ability to be successful individuals in society (Danish et. al, 1995; Petitpas, et. al, 2004). Through participating in life skills programming, individuals are provided with the ability to cope with future life events (Danish et. al, 1995) and skills to handle these events effectively. Student-athletes who have learned to effectively deal with the demands of college through practicing life skills have a better chance at succeeding in various tasks in their life (Vernacchia, 2007). Thus, if the treatment is considered a beneficial service to student-athletes, then an argument could be made in which all student-athletes who participate should be exposed to a program that could offer this advantage.

When a behavior is known to be performed at a zero rate over an extended period, beginning in a baseline phase would serve no purpose (Kazdin, 1982, pp. 118). In B-A-B designs, the participants begin in the intervention phase (B), the primary investigator removes the intervention for a brief period and participants are in the baseline phase (A), finally the participants are reintroduced to the intervention (B). This type of methodology
ends in the intervention phase in order to provide the student-athletes with the necessary tools at the conclusion of the study to continue practicing these skills. The present study accounted for this type of design by using a single subject B-A-B methodology. The rationale behind using this methodology is due to the target behavior (i.e. life skills) never been performed and beginning in baseline in the present study. In single subject designs, participants are able to serve as their own controls. This type of design removes threats to internal validity, and is able to suggest causal relationships from having manipulated an independent variable. There are two primary reasons why researchers who are conducting single subject research will typically avoid reversal/withdrawal designs such as the design stated above. The first reason for this apprehension is potentially due to withdrawing treatment considered as unethical, especially if the intervention can benefit the individual, and/or the withdrawal could create deficits in performance. To address the concern of the undesirability of reversing behavior is to make the baseline period very brief (e.g., two days), just enough to demonstrate the intervention is responsible for the changes and still attempt to maintain behavior (Kazdin, 1982). The maintenance of behavior is what the primary researcher intends to see after the implementation of the life skills intervention. The primary investigator provides the life skills intervention to the student-athletes in order to enhance their performance in overall college adjustment, increased self-efficacy, and the development of transferable skills. Taking away this intervention briefly will demonstrate the effects of the intervention without hindering the growth of the student-athlete.

Life skills programming remains an essential component to collegiate student-athlete development. Thus, research that can demonstrate the feasibility and effectiveness
of these interventions may have the potential to substantially influence the services athlete departments are able to provide their incoming student-athletes. Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to examine the effectiveness of a life skills program on student-athletes’ adjustment to college, college self-efficacy, and their use of transferable skills. The primary investigator hypothesized that student-athletes will improve from the intervention at the conclusion of the study in all three dependent variables being assessed including college adjustment, college self-efficacy, and the use of transferable skills.
METHODS

Participants

Participants of the present study included three freshmen student-athletes who participated in different sports at a Division I university located in the southeast United States. The individuals included: a 25-year old Caucasian male golfer, a 19-year old African American female track runner, and a 19-year old Caucasian female volleyball player. The primary researcher discussed and obtained informed consent from all participants along with the expectations throughout the course of the study. Although it was not a requirement, each of the individuals were in their competitive season. The primary investigator included participants who were freshmen student-athletes and those individuals who had little to no experience in practicing life skills within the institution’s athletic department or on an individual basis. The primary investigator targeted these individuals due to them missing the life skills summer programming offered by the institution in order to have the opportunity to use life skills in multiple domains (i.e. academically, athletically, and personally). Life skills are defined as skills that enable success in multiple environments such as school, home, or neighborhoods. These skills include, but are not limited to, interpersonal skills such as assertiveness, interpersonal skills, and goal setting (Danish, Forneris, & Wallace, 2005).

Life skills experience was considered to be any individuals who have participated in the institution’s summer programming devoted to enhancing life skills for incoming freshmen student-athletes. The Director of Student-Athlete Services was informed about the eligibility criteria used to identify the individuals who attended or did not attend.
From the list of prospective participants, the Director of Student-Athlete Services put the primary investigator in contact with 15 student-athletes to determine if they were interested in participating in the present study. Upon contact with those student-athletes, three responded indicating a willingness to participate in the study.

**Measures**

**Adjustment to college.** Student-athletes were assessed on how well they have adapted to college life using the student adaptation to college questionnaire (SAC-Q). The SAC-Q is a 67-item questionnaire to measure the effectiveness of student adjustment to college (Baker & Siryk, 1989). There are four subscales identified through this measure: academic adjustment, social adjustment, personal-emotional adjustment, and attachment to the institution.

The first subscale is academic adjustment. Academically, students are assessed on their ability to cope with different educational demands. The academic subscale measures three additional components: the application, performance, and academic environment of the student-athlete. The application component examines how well motivation is being translated into actual academic effort. The performance component measures the success of academic efforts as reflected in academic performance. The academic environment is evaluated through the reported satisfaction with the learning environment, and what it has to offer. The second subscale is social adjustment. Socially, the interpersonal-societal demands are evaluated. Student-athletes are evaluated on the extent of participation in social activities and success in functioning in these social environments. Involvement and relationships with other people on campus are also examined. The final components of
this subscale seek to explore the student-athlete’s satisfaction with their college environment. These questions ask student-athletes to rate their the ability to deal with being away from loved ones and forming new social networks. The third subscale is personal-emotional adjustment. Personal-emotional adjustment is measured to explore the well-being of the student-athlete both physically and mentally. This scale helps to identify whether student-athletes are taking care of themselves throughout this adjustment process. The final subscale is goal commitment/institution attachment. This subscale examines the student-athlete’s feelings about the degree of satisfaction of being in college in general. Furthermore, this subscale seeks to explore the student-athlete’s degree of satisfaction through their level of attachment with the particular institution they are attending. The main subscales will be used for evaluation, although each main subscale has deeper components. Information from these deeper components were used to enhance the understanding of the main subscale.

The psychometric properties of the student adaptation to college questionnaire (SAC-Q) are noted in the original study conducted (Baker & Siryk, 1989). The reliability of this measure was confirmed through each of the four subscales with the following alpha coefficient values: academic adjustment (0.81-0.91), social adjustment (0.83-0.91), personal-emotional adjustment (0.77-0.86), institutional attachment (0.85-0.91), and the full scale (0.92-0.95). The validity of this measure yielded intercorrelations between each of the four subscales (academic, institutional attachment, social, and personal-emotional) and the full scale (0.7-0.8). This scale has been supported to have strong face validity and content validity. Recent studies (Crede’ & Niehorster, 2012) have highlighted the
importance of using the student adaptation to college questionnaire (SAC-Q). Crede' and Niehorster (2012) found that student adaptation to college questionnaire (SAC-Q) could be used with all college students, used to identify students who may struggle in college, and is an important tool to use for developing interventions for the adjusting student-athlete.

**College self-efficacy.** Student-athletes were also assessed on their degree of confidence to successfully perform a variety of college-related tasks using the college self-efficacy inventory (CSE-I). According to self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977), self-efficacy beliefs are the gateway to understanding why individuals initiate behavior, the effort expended in engaging in those behaviors, and the persistence in the face of obstacles (Gore, Leuwerke, Wade, & Turley, 2006). The college self-efficacy inventory (CSE-I) is 20-item self-report measure that determines the confidence of college students ranging from 1 (totally unconfident) to 10 (totally confident) in the ability to complete tasks associated with being a student at college (Solberg, O’Brien, Villareal, Kennel, & Davis, 1993). This measure includes statements (e.g. take good class notes and manage your time effectively), and student-athletes must respond to the degree of confidence they believe they have with the particular task on that scale ranging 1-10. This measurement originally consisted of three components: course efficacy, roommate efficacy, and social efficacy. Subsequent to the original study Solberg and colleagues (1998) added a fourth component which included social integration efficacy.

The psychometric properties of the college self-efficacy inventory (CSE-I) were highlighted to have strong internal consistency and good convergent and discriminant
validity (two subscales of construct validity) with Cronbach’s coefficient for the total scale being 0.91 (Solberg et. al, 1993). Other studies (Benson, 1998) also found the CSE-I to have construct validity. Further research on the CSE-I (Gore et. al., 2006) have shown to have both concurrent and predictive validity of scores, with a Cronbach coefficient of 0.92 for the total scale.

**Life skills transfer survey.** Participants were also assessed on their ability to manage a variety of situations effectively involved the use of various life skills using the life skills transfer survey (LSTS). The LSTS is a 50-item self-report measure that reflects an individual’s ability to use life skills learned in one context in another domain (Weiss, Bolter, & Kipp, 2014). This measure includes eight subscales: a) meeting and greeting, b) managing emotions, c) goal-setting, d) resolving conflicts, e) making healthy choices, f) appreciating diversity, g) getting help from others, and h) helping others. Participants responded to the stem phrase, “Because of participating in a life skills program…” Responses are on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (really not true for me) to 5 (really true for me). These subscales included meeting and greeting, managing emotions, goal-setting, resolving conflict, making healthy choices, appreciating diversity, helping others, and getting help from others.

The LSTS (Weiss, Bolter, & Kipp, 2014) was validated in studies where samples of youth ages 10-18 were used in a golf specific physical activity based program to enhance life skills. All eight subscales achieved high Cronbach alpha values (0.80-0.92). The first subscale of the CSE-I is course efficacy (α = 0.86). This component examines the student-athlete’s ability to complete activities (e.g. write papers and do well on
exams). The second subscale is roommate efficacy (α = 0.89). This component examines the student-athlete’s ability to engage in tasks (e.g. socializing with roommates and dividing space). The third subscale is social efficacy (α = 0.79). This component focuses on the student-athlete’s ability to engage in behaviors (e.g. talking with professors and making friends at the university). The final subscale is social interaction (α = 0.62). This component examines the student-athlete’s ability to have meaningful interactions within a social context and the attachment to the institution. Due to sufficient reflection of the LSTS assessing the targeted life skills, there was structural validity. Correlations among the eight subscales were found to be moderate to high (r = 0.63-0.92).

**Procedures**

Following IRB approval and meeting with the Director of Student-Athlete Services, the researcher was provided a list of participants who met the research criteria. This accessible population consisted of 15 freshmen student-athletes, in which the primary investigator followed-up with the athletes individually via email to determine interest levels in participating in the present study. A response rate of 10 out 15 (66.67%), with only three agreeing to participate. The primary investigator set up separate meeting times with the three individuals who agreed to participate, and provided each with an explanation regarding the nature of the study, expectations throughout the study, completion of consent forms, along with the administration of the three study measures: SAC-Q, CSE-I, and the LSTS. Each student-athlete set up individual times to meet with the primary researcher twice each week that fit their schedule. The sessions were set up to range from approximately 30 minutes to an hour for 9 sessions (including one week of
baseline testing) in the time span of 5 weeks. At the conclusion of the study, participants completed a follow-up assessment to determine additional information beyond the three measures about program effectiveness.

The student-athletes in the present study had not been exposed to life skills programming at their institution. When individuals are not exposed to life skills programming, the risks of engaging in more problematic behaviors such as violence to cope with adversity and limitations placed on individuals to become successful members of society are more likely to occur. The present study employed a B-A-B design (Danish et.al. 1995; Petitpas et.al. 2004). In this type of design, implementing the intervention first was the most feasible option due to the targeted behavior (i.e. life skills) never being performed. In the present study, beginning with a baseline phase would not have served a useful purpose (Kazdin, 1982, pp. 118). With it being the second semester of their first year of college, it was important to the primary researcher to implement life skills training immediately.

There are three phases in this single-subject design. These include (b) an intervention phase comprised of 4 sessions, (a) a baseline phase that consisted of three data points, (b) the remaining 4 sessions of the intervention, and a one-time follow-up to determine intervention effectiveness (Rasnack, 2011).

The primary investigator established a meeting time to explain the nature of the life skills intervention and the associated expectations of each of the participants individually. Next, the different measures were administered starting with the SAC-Q, followed by the CSEI, then the LSTS. Since the primary investigator had an apriori
presumption that performance was stable, due to participants never experiencing the complex skill (i.e. life skills programming), then there was one collection of the measurements to determine where the athletes began, because it was not likely that changes would occur without special training (Kazdin, 1992).

**Intervention protocol.**

The intervention consisted of the administration of a life skills intervention to three student-athletes over the course of nine life skills sessions per student-athlete. Student-athletes received the three assessments (LSTS, CSE-I, and SAC-Q) once before the intervention was administered which was considered stable due to the lack of exposure to previous life skills (Kazdin, 1982, pp. 148). Shortly after administering the first set of measures, the intervention was applied to the participants for four sessions.

One method to observe behavior during the intervention with the present study is on an intermittent schedule rather than continuous. Under some conditions, the investigator may opt to use this type of assessment if behaviors are believed to be relatively stable (Horner & Baer, 1978). This would consist of weekly testing as opposed to daily in order for assessment to be an estimate of what daily performance would be like (Kazdin, 1982, pp. 148). Due to the lengthy process involved with taking each assessment, it was best to use this method at the beginning or end of each week as opposed to each session. Obtaining measurements weekly allowed the researcher to have at several data points collected during the intervention phase. There are no widely agreed upon rules for altering phases. However, there is a general rule of thumb to alter conditions or phases when stability is reached (Kazdin, 1982, pp. 263). Once there is a
noticed change in the participants who are exposed to the intervention, the participants can change into the baseline phase. Due to the undesirability of withdrawal for an extended period of time, the primary researcher tested the participants in this baseline at least 3 different occasions over the span of a couple of days to ensure not to prolong this phase. After the baseline data points were collected, the participants were exposed to the remainder of the intervention. Each week, the student-athlete established at minimum of two meeting times with the primary investigator for 30 minutes to an hour each. When the participant was in the baseline phase, the primary investigator just administered the SAC-Q, CSE-I, and LSTS. The administration was to ensure that there were no observed changes occurring outside of the intervention. The basis of all sessions were derived from previous research using Life Skill Seminar courses (Kingston, 2003; Rasnack, 2011; Petrie & Denson, 2011). The sessions were outlined as follows:

Prior to the first session, participants met with the primary investigator to inform them of the topics covered, hand out and take pre-measures, and answer any questions they had or potential foreseen issues over the course of the study. The baseline measures included the SAC-Q, CSEI, and LSTS to assess the student-athlete’s current level of adjustment, self-efficacy in a college/university environment, and ability to transfer life skills to other domains. In order to ensure consistency, the primary investigator had a checklist of objectives and a plan for each session to ensure standardization in the implementation.

**Session 1.** Session 1 focused on introducing effective goal setting for the individual by discussing the goal setting principles (Weinberg & Gould, 2011) and smart
goals. The primary investigator asked the student-athletes about their experiences setting goals prior to the session, and informed them about the processes involved to effectively setting goals by introducing short and long-term goals through using a goal-setting staircase. Student-athletes identified an academic, personal, and/or athletic long-term goal he/she wished to achieve, and the short-term goals it would require to get to that identified long-term goal using the goal staircase. The student-athletes wrote these goals on the board, and the primary investigator created a printout for each of them to keep in a place where they could see it as a daily reminder. The primary investigator included a penny toss activity to actively display the importance of how short-term goals lead to long-term goals. At the beginning of each session, the primary researcher checked to see how things were going with the student-athletes.

**Session 2.** Session 2 focused on communication. This session not only highlighted effective ways to communicate, but also raised awareness of what we are constantly communicating through others through verbal, nonverbal, and social media. Students completed the Diversity and intercultural communication self-assessment, stereotypes in your sport, and discussed the journal assignment on effective communication with others with the primary researcher (Petrie & Denson, 2011; see appendix C). At the conclusion of the session, the primary investigator played a communication activity combining catchphrase, pictionary, and charades to capture the different ways of communication. During the debriefing, the primary researcher focused on the difficulties of certain communication methods, how the individual adjusts
depending on the audience and ways effectively communicating can benefit in his/her sport, in the classroom, and personal life.

**Session 3.** In session three, student-athletes learned how to be aware and identify negative self-talk. Background information was presented to the student-athlete about what self-talk is, how it affects performance, and ways to counter or reframe those thoughts. The primary investigator provided student-athletes with a sheet of paper to divide down the middle (long ways) where the left side would represent negative and right side positive statements. The primary investigator asked the student-athletes to write down negative statements they say to themselves athletically, academically, and/or personally. After identifying those statements, the primary investigator asked the student-athletes to either counter or reframe those statements in a positive manner. In the right column, the student athletes countered or reframed those negative statements with a positive statement. The student-athlete shared both columns, and tore the paper in half to throw the negative side away in the trash. After throwing the negative side away, the primary investigator asked the student-athletes to create a power box of three to five statements that he/she could say in order to remain positive. The student-athlete and the primary investigator processed the activity to determine what it felt like to throw away the negative statements. The primary researcher asked the student-athletes follow-up questions about the effects of self-talk whether positive or negative and ways to utilize their power box in order to stay on track with maintaining positive self-talk and display confidence. The final part of the session involved participants writing a letter to their future selves. The timeline used was when he/she would be closing in on achieving their
long-term goal set in session one. To end the session, a clip from the movie, *The Help* to show a humorous way to implement positive self-talk, “You is smart. You is kind. You is important”.

**Session 4.** In session four, the primary researcher gave some background information on stress and anxiety. This information focused on what stress and anxiety was, common signs the athlete experienced when feeling stressed and anxious (cognitive and somatic), positive and negative responses to stress and anxiety, and how he/she responds when stressful events occur. The researcher then worked in conjunction with the student-athlete to identify factors that create stress and anxiety for them which led into effective ways to manage stress through time management. The time management matrix was introduced to help student-athletes better alleviate and manage stress due to busy schedules. The primary researcher presented a time management grid to the student-athletes (see appendix C) to help them manage lists of activities they may feel overwhelmed to complete. After generating a list of activities that needed to be completed within the next week, the primary investigator asked the student-athletes to place the activities in each grid. The primary investigator discussed the experience of separating the different tasks based on urgency and importance and how that helped alleviate stress. In addition to the time management matrix, the primary researcher introduced deep breathing and a tailored progressive muscle relaxation (see appendix C) script depending on the sport to the student-athletes to reduce somatic stress and anxiety.

**Session 5.** In session 5, the primary researcher decided to do a recap session of the four sessions prior to ensure that the content was sticking with the participants and
he/she was applying the skills learned beyond the sessions. There were no new interventions implemented during week three of the study, so the primary researcher decided to take baseline measures as a brief reversal phase. Each testing session has lasted around 20-25 minutes in order to give the participant time to complete the measures without rushing.

**Session 6.** Session 6 focused on problem-solving techniques in order to maintain positive and healthy relationships. The primary researcher presented the student-athletes with different scenarios generated by the primary researcher. The scenarios were on a white board, and the student-athlete had time to think about what they would do in those situations and the rationale behind each decision made. The seven scenarios were on the board (See Appendix C) and the primary researcher and student-athlete discussed each in detail about the what, how, and why when generating a solution and spark discussion.

**Session 7.** Session 7, the researcher asked the student-athletes reflection questions regarding their experience handling the transition. These questions were posed to get the student-athlete to engage in some self-reflection in order to assess the journey of their first year in college (i.e. explain the biggest obstacle you had to overcome as being a student-athlete). There were also questions that focused on the freshmen student-athletes given advice to upcoming freshmen student-athletes, looking back on their experiences throughout the process so far of being a student-athlete. The session continued to build by the student-athletes establishing their social support at the university and identifying resources to help make the transition smoother. Each individual came up with a network
of support. Student-athletes identified someone in each domain (personal, academic, and athletic), and how he/she planned to establish and/or maintain the connection.

Session 8. Session 8 was about the mental toughness through the ability to focus. The primary investigator told the student-athletes what concentration was and the four components of concentration. The session would be about managing distractions rather than eliminating them. The primary researcher showed two videos that complemented the topic. The first was, Apollo Robbins “Focus” and “Test your awareness”. After debriefing the videos, we discussed the types of distractions and distractions faced by student-athletes. The primary investigator gave each participant a worksheet from Weinberg and Gould (2011), Learning to Shift Attention (see appendix C). Student-athletes completed another worksheet on memory and concentration to student-athletes (see appendix C) Petrie and Denson (2011), p. 46-53. The final task was to focus on a single thought for a minute, then focus on a picture on the wall surrounded by other pictures with distractions.

Session 9. Session 9 the student-athlete worked on motivation in order to maintain the skills learned throughout the intervention. The primary investigator checked to make sure the student-athlete had goal-achievement strategies for the long-term goals set in session 1. In the last session, the student-athletes participants provided evaluations for the primary investigator and the life skills intervention to determine how effective the programming was for the student-athlete. The assessment, adopted from (Rasnack, 2011) was used in order to determine how successful the intervention was with the student-athletes. The student-athletes also completed a post assessment of the SAC-Q, LSTS, and
CSEI. The final part of the session included motivational videos from YouTube and debriefing. The videos used were, “Discipline and Intent”, Will Smith “Dream”, and “How bad do you want it”. The primary investigator debriefed student-athletes and thanked them for their time and cooperation.
Data Analysis

The effectiveness of the life skills intervention on improving college adjustment of freshmen student-athletes was assessed using visual inspection. Visual inspection is important because it allows the researcher to “see” the changes associated with the treatment (Baer, 1977). Visual inspection depends on both the magnitude and rate of changes across different phases of data collection. Magnitude is broken down further into two characteristics: changes in mean and changes in level. Rate is also broken down into two characteristics: changes in trend and changes in latency. Changes in mean refer to the average rate of performance during the course of the intervention. Changes in level refers to the shift in performance from the end of one phase to the beginning of another. Changes in trend are seen through methodical increases or decreases in data over time, which is significant to the direction of behavior change. Changes in latency are associated with the period between the onset and termination of a condition for a given behavior (Kazdin, 1982).

The final component that will be used in order to test the intervention’s effectiveness on student-athletes’ college adjustment, college self-efficacy, and transference of life skills is the calculation of effect size. Effect size is a number that describes the extent to which an effect is present through examining the strength of the relationship between two sets of variables. The higher the effect size, the greater degree of changes observed could be attributed to the phenomenon being studied (Kromrey & Foster-Johnson, 1996). Effect sizes can be calculated when (a) trends of serial correlations are present in the data, (b) there are consistent results across data analysts,
and (c) a maintained focus on the strength of the relationship between treatment and outcome variable rather than whether or not the null hypothesis was rejected.

There are four types of effect sizes, but for the present study, only two will be highlighted: mean shift and change in variability. Mean shift describes treatment that is associated with a change in the level of behavior only (Kromrey & Foster-Johnson, 1996). Glass, McGaw, and Smith (1981) suggested that the $d$-index should be used in describing the magnitude of treatment effects in multiple-subject research. The $d$-index is obtained by subtracting the mean of the baseline condition from the mean of the treatment condition and dividing by the standard deviation. This index is also useful in single-subject data when there are no trends.

Changes in variability are examined when a behavior intervention may not change neither the level nor trend in the target behavior, but may increase or decrease the stability of behavior. Researchers wish to achieve as much stability as possibly, seeing decreases in variability from the baseline to treatment phases.
RESULTS

In single-subject studies, visual inspection and changes in variability measured by effect size indexes $d$ and $f$ were used to analyze the data of the participants in the present study. The effect-size index $d$ was used to describe changes in level in the absence of trends (Cohen, 1988). The values of small, medium, and large effects are given as 0.2, 0.5, and 0.8 (Cohen, 1992). Effect size index $f^2$ was used to describe changes in trends, level, and variability. The values of small, medium, and large effects are as follows, 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35. There were three dependent variables (college adjustment, college self-efficacy, and transference of life skills) the primary investigator used to determine the intervention effectiveness.

Meeting and Greeting

All three participants demonstrated an increasing trend on the meeting and greeting subscale throughout the study. Participant one’s mean increased from intervention to baseline and slightly increased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 3.2$, $M_{Base} = 3.65$, $M_{INT2} = 3.75$). The mean shift demonstrated a systematic increase in mean between each phase, demonstrating a negative effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -2.65$), and a medium effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 0.61$). There was a decrease in variance during the intervention to baseline phase, and a decrease in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from intervention to baseline ($f^2 = 26.07$). With regards to latency, there was a medium delay with an onset observed after two sessions (see Figure 1). Participant two’s mean increased from intervention to baseline and from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 3.05$, $M_{Base} = 3.17$, $M_{INT2} = 3.25$). The
mean shift demonstrated a systematic increase throughout each phase, demonstrating a
negative, medium effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -0.75$), and a medium effect
from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 0.5$). There was a decrease in variance
from intervention to baseline, and an increase in variance from baseline to the second
intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from baseline to the second
intervention phase ($f^2 = 1.44$). With regards to latency, there was a relatively short delay
after one session (see Figure 1). Participant three’s mean increased from intervention to
baseline and from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 3.71$, $M_{Base} = 3.83$,
$M_{INT2} = 4$). The mean shift demonstrated a systematic increase in mean from phase to
phase throughout the study, demonstrating a negative, small effect size from intervention
to baseline ($d = -0.71$), and a large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase.
There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease in
variance from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size
($f^2 = 1$). However, there were no changes in variance from baseline to the second
intervention phase. In regards to latency, there was a medium delay after two sessions
(see Figure 1).

**Managing Emotions**

For the second subscale, managing emotions, Participant one demonstrated an
increase in trend throughout the study, while Participant two and Participant three
showed an increase from intervention to baseline, but a decrease from baseline to the
second intervention phase. Participant one’s mean increased from intervention to
baseline, and maintained from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 3.39$,
$M_{Base} = 3.89$, $M_{INT2} = 4$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative and large effect size from
intervention to baseline ($d = -2.65$), and a medium effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 0.61$). There was a decrease in variance during the intervention to baseline phase, and a decrease in variance from the baseline to second intervention phase, demonstrating a medium effect size from intervention to baseline ($f^2 = 0.30$). With regards to latency, there was a short delay of approximately two sessions (see Figure 2).

Participant two demonstrated an increase in mean from intervention to baseline which was maintained from baseline to the second intervention ($M_{INT} = 3.70$, $M_{Base} = 4.11$, $M_{INT2} = 4.05$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -3.73$), and a negative, medium effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = -0.55$). There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline, and maintained during the baseline to second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size ($f^2 = 1$). With regards to latency, there was a medium delay after two sessions (see Figure 2). Participant three’s mean increased from intervention to baseline and decreased from baseline to intervention ($M_{INT} = 3.82$, $M_{Base} = 4.04$, $M_{INT2} = 3.78$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative and medium effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -3.67$), and negative, large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = -4.33$). There was no change in variance during the intervention to baseline phase, and a decrease in variance in the baseline to second intervention phase, demonstrating a medium effect from intervention to baseline ($f^2 = 0.33$). However, there was no change in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase. With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 2).
Goal Setting

For the goal setting subscale, one out three of the participants demonstrated a decrease in mean from intervention to baseline, and an increase from baseline to the second intervention phase. The other two participants evidenced a steady increase between phases throughout the study. Participant one’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and baseline to second intervention ($M_{INT} = 3.5$, $M_{Base} = 3.72$, $M_{INT2} = 4$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative and large effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -0.88$), and a large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 1.12$). There was an increase in variance from intervention to baseline and a decrease from baseline to the second intervention phase. With regards to latency, there was a small delay after the removal of the intervention after one session (see Figure 3). Participant two’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 4.12$, $M_{Base} = 4.54$, $M_{INT2} = 4.59$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative and large effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -1.11$), and a very small effect from baseline to the second intervention ($d = 0.13$). There was an increase in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease in variance from baseline to intervention, demonstrating a large effect size in both phases: intervention to baseline and baseline to the second intervention phase ($f² = 3.67$). With regards to latency, there was a medium delay after the removal of the intervention after two sessions (see Figure 3). Participant three’s mean decreased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to intervention ($M_{INT} = 4.72$, $M_{Base} = 4.33$, $M_{INT2} = 4.75$). The mean shift demonstrated a moderate effect from intervention to baseline ($d = 0.78$), and a large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 0.84$). There was an increase in variance during the
intervention to baseline phase, and a decrease in variance from the baseline to second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from intervention to baseline ($f^2 = 8.33$). With regards to latency, there was a medium delay after the removal of the intervention after two sessions (see Figure 3).

**Resolving Conflict**

For the fourth subscale, resolving conflict, each of the three participants demonstrated a fluctuating trend in the data. Participant one showed an increased in mean from intervention to baseline, and from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 3.06$, $M_{Base} = 3.70$, $M_{INT2} = 4$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -1.25$), and a large effect size from baseline to the second intervention ($d = 0.59$). There was an increase invariance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from baseline to the second intervention phase ($f^2 = 1.96$). With regards to latency, there was a short delay after the removal of the intervention after one session (see Figure 4). Participant two showed an increase in mean from intervention to baseline, and maintenance from baseline to the second intervention ($M_{INT} = 2.92$, $M_{Base} = 3.55$, $M_{INT2} = 3.1$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -4.5$), and a negative, large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = -3.2$). There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline phase, and a decrease in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from intervention to baseline ($f^2 = 1.17$). With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 4). Participant three showed an increase in mean from baseline to intervention, and maintained from intervention to baseline ($M_{INT} =$
3.54, $M_{\text{Base}}=3.79, M_{\text{INT2}}=3.75$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect from intervention to baseline ($d=-1.32$), and a negative, small effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d=-0.21$). There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline phase, and a decrease in variance from the baseline to second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from intervention to baseline ($f^2=1.33$). However, there was no change in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase. With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 4).

**Making Healthy Choices**

On the fifth subscale, making healthy choices, all three participants showed a fluctuating trend throughout the study. Participant one showed an increase in mean from intervention to baseline, and maintenance from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{\text{INT}}=3.99, M_{\text{Base}}=4.39, M_{\text{INT2}}=4.167$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect from intervention to baseline ($d=-0.98$), and a negative, small effect size from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d=-0.22$). There was an increase in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease in variance from baseline to second intervention phase, showing a medium effect size from intervention to baseline ($f^2=0.26$). With regards to latency, there was a medium delay after two sessions (see Figure 5).

Participant two showed an increase of mean from intervention to baseline, and a decrease from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{\text{INT}}=3.5, M_{\text{Base}}=3.72, M_{\text{INT2}}=3.67$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect size from intervention to baseline ($d=-2.44$), and a negative, very small effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d=-0.05$). There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase in comparison to intervention
to baseline, demonstrating a very large effect size from baseline to the second intervention phase ($f^2 = 22.22$). With regards to latency, there was a long delay after three sessions (see Figure 5). Participant three showed an increase in mean from intervention to baseline, and a decrease from baseline to intervention ($M_{\text{INT}} = 3.99$, $M_{\text{Base}} = 4.22$, $M_{\text{INT2}} = 4$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -2.56$), and a negative, large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = -2.44$). There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from intervention to baseline ($f^2 = 1$). With regards to latency, there was a small delay after one session (see Figure 5).

**Appreciating Differences**

The sixth subscale, appreciating differences did not show change in two participants, but a slight increase in trend for one participant. Participant one’s mean remained the same for the duration of the study ($M_{\text{INT}} = 4$, $M_{\text{Base}} = 4$, $M_{\text{INT2}} = 4$). There was no mean shift for this subscale. There was no change in variance from intervention to baseline and a decrease in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase. Due to the lack of changes, there was no latency period (see Figure 6). Participant two’s mean stayed the same from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to intervention ($M_{\text{INT}} = 3.93$, $M_{\text{Base}} = 3.93$, $M_{\text{INT2}} = 4$). The mean shift demonstrated no change between intervention and baseline, but there was a medium effect shown from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 0.58$). There was no change in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a medium effect from intervention to baseline ($f^2 = 0.33$). With regards to
latency, there was a large delay after 3 sessions (see Figure 6). Participant three’s mean stayed the same from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to second intervention phase ($M_{INT}= 3.87$, $M_{Base}= 3.87$, $M_{INT2}= 3.8$). The mean shift demonstrated no change from intervention to baseline, but a negative, medium effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d= -0.58$). There was no change in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a moderate effect size from baseline to the second intervention phase ($f^2= 0.33$). With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 6).

### Getting Help from Others

On the seventh subscale, getting help from others, there was an increase in trend for two out of three of the participants, and a fluctuating trend for the other participant. Participant one showed an increase from intervention to baseline, and maintenance from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT}= 4$, $M_{Base}= 4.05$, $M_{INT2}= 4$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, medium effect size from intervention to baseline ($d= -0.56$), and a negative, medium effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d= -0.56$). There was an increase in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease from baseline to the second intervention phase in comparison to intervention to baseline, demonstrating a large effect size from baseline to the second intervention phase ($f^2= 0.9$). However, there was no change in variance from intervention to baseline. With regards to latency, there was a long delay after three sessions (see Figure 7). Participant two’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and maintained from baseline to the second
intervention ($M_{INT}= 3.67, M_{Base}= 3.8, M_{INT2}= 3.8$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, moderate effect from intervention to baseline ($d=-0.65$), and no effect from baseline to the second intervention phase. There was an increase in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from intervention to baseline ($f^2= 1.33$). With regards to latency, medium delay after two sessions (see Figure 7).

Participant three’s mean stayed the same from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to second intervention ($M_{INT}= 4.87, M_{Base}= 4.87, M_{INT2}= 4.9$). The mean shift from intervention to baseline demonstrated no change, while there was a small effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d= 0.25$). There was no change in variance from intervention to baseline, and an increase from baseline to second intervention phase in comparison to intervention to baseline, demonstrating a large effect size from baseline to the second intervention phase ($f^2= 0.67$). With regards to latency, there was a medium delay after two sessions (see Figure 7).

**Helping Others**

The final subscale of the LSTS, helping others showed an increasing trend for all three of the participants. Participant one’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT}= 3.6, M_{Base}= 3.8, M_{INT2}= 3.9$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, medium effect size from intervention to baseline ($d= -0.57$), and a small effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d= 0.29$). There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline phase, and a decrease from baseline to the second intervention in comparison to intervention to baseline phase, demonstrating a large effect size from baseline to the second intervention phase ($f^2= 2.4$).
With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 8).

Participant two’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and maintained from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 3.93$, $M_{Base} = 4$, $M_{INT2} = 4$). The mean shift demonstrated no change between phases. There was a decrease variance from intervention to baseline, and no change from baseline to the second intervention phase.

With regards to latency, there was a long delay after three sessions (see Figure 8).

Participant three’s mean stayed the same from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 4.27$, $M_{Base} = 4.27$, $M_{INT2} = 4.3$). The mean shift demonstrated no change between intervention to baseline, and a small effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 0.25$). There was no change in variance from the intervention to baseline phase, and an increase from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from baseline to the second intervention phase ($f^2 = 0.67$). With regards to latency, there was a medium delay after two sessions (see Figure 8).

**SAC-Q: Academic**

Academically, two of the three participants showed a slight fluctuating trend in data points throughout the study. One of the participants showed an increasing trend in data. Participant one’s mean decreased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 52.5$, $M_{Base} = 46.67$, $M_{INT2} = 56$). The mean shift demonstrated a small effect from intervention to baseline ($d = 0.33$), and a medium effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 0.52$). There was an increase in variance from intervention to baseline phase, and decreased from to baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a very large effect size from intervention
to baseline ($\hat{p} = 28.56$). With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 9). Participant’s two’s mean decreased from intervention to baseline, and slightly increased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 47, M_{Base} = 45, M_{INT2} = 45.6$). The mean shift demonstrated a large effect from intervention to baseline ($d = 2$), and a medium effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 0.6$).

There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline, and increase the baseline to second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from baseline to the second intervention phase ($\hat{p} = 1.67$). With regards to latency, there was a long delay after three sessions (see Figure 9). Participant three’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to second intervention ($M_{INT} = 53.67, M_{Base} = 54.67, M_{INT2} = 59$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, small effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -0.25$), and a large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 1.07$). There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline, and decrease from the baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from baseline to the second intervention phase ($\hat{p} = 0.68$). With regards to latency, there was a medium delay after two sessions (see Figure 9).

**SAC-Q: Social**

On the social subscale, two of the three participants showed an increasing trend for this subscale. The other participant showed a moderately flat trend on this subscale. Participant one’s mean decreased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 46.5, M_{Base} = 44, M_{INT2} = 49.5$). The mean shift demonstrated a very small effect from intervention to baseline ($d = 0.17$), and a small effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 0.37$). The variance increased
from intervention to baseline, and decreased from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a very large effect size from both phases: intervention to baseline and baseline to the second intervention phase ($f^2 = 178.4$). With regards to latency, there was a very short delay after one session (see Figure 10). Participant two’s mean stayed the same from intervention to baseline, and slightly decreased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 38.33, M_{Base} = 38.33, M_{INT2} = 38$). The mean shift demonstrated no effect from intervention to baseline, and a negative, medium effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = -0.57$). There was no change in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease from baseline to the second intervention, demonstrating a medium effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($f^2 = 0.33$). With regards to latency, there was a long delay after three sessions (see Figure 10). Participant three’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 50.67, M_{Base} = 54, M_{INT2} = 57.5$). The mean shift demonstrated no change in mean between phases. There was a decrease in variance from the intervention to baseline phase, and an increase from baseline to second intervention phase, however, effect size could not be calculated. With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 10).

**SAC-Q: Personal-Emotional**

For the personal-emotional subscale, all three participants showed an increase in trend throughout the study. Participant one’s mean decreased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 52, M_{Base} = 45, M_{INT2} = 53.5$). The mean shift demonstrated a medium effect size from intervention to baseline ($d = 0.49$), and a medium effect from baseline to the second intervention ($d = $
The variance increased between intervention and baseline phases, and decreased between baseline and the second intervention phase demonstrating a very large effect size from baseline to the second intervention phase, ($\eta^2 = 235.2$). With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 11). Participant’s two mean stayed the same from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 46.33$, $M_{Base} = 46.33$, $M_{INT2} = 46.5$). The mean shift demonstrated no change from intervention to baseline, and a very small effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 0.15$). There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease in variance from baseline to second intervention phase, demonstrating a rather large effect size from intervention to baseline ($\eta^2 = 4.34$). With regards to latency, there was a medium delay after two sessions (see Figure 11). Participant’s three mean increased from intervention to baseline, and decreased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 53.67$, $M_{Base} = 57$, $M_{INT2} = 55$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -2.17$). There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline, and an increase in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from intervention to baseline ($\eta^2 = 0.78$). With regards to latency, there was a moderate delay after two sessions (see Figure 11).

**SAC-Q: Attachment**

The final subscale, attachment evidenced different trends for each participant. Participant one showed a fluctuating trend in data. Participant two showed a variable flat trend in data. Participant three showed an increase in trend. Participant one’s mean decreased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second
intervention phase \((M_{INT}= 50, M_{Base}= 41, M_{INT2}= 48)\). The mean shift demonstrated a large effect from intervention to baseline \((d= 0.79)\), and a moderate effect from baseline to the second intervention phase \((d= 0.62)\). There was an increase in variance for intervention to baseline, and a decrease in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a very large effect size from both phases: intervention to baseline and baseline to the second intervention phase \((f^2= 38.6)\). With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 12). Participant two’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and decreased from baseline to the second intervention phase \((M_{INT}= 37.67, M_{Base}= 38.33, M_{INT2}= 37)\). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect from intervention to baseline \((d= -1.14)\), and a negative, large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase \((d= -2.30)\). There was no change in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease invariance from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a moderate effect size from intervention to baseline \((f^2= 0.33)\). With regards to latency, there was a long delay after three sessions (see Figure 12). Participant three’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase \((M_{INT}= 52.67, M_{Base}= 57, M_{INT2}= 58)\). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect from intervention to baseline \((d= -2.30)\). There was an increase in variance from the intervention to baseline phase, and a decrease in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from intervention to baseline \((f^2= 4.04)\). With regards to latency, there was a moderate delay after two sessions (see Figure 12).
**SAC-Q: Full Scale**

The full scale was examined to determine overall adjustment of participants as well. All three participants demonstrated a different trend in the data throughout the study. Showing a decreasing trend in one participant, an increasing trend, and a fluctuating trend in the other two, respectively. Participant one’s mean decreased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 51.5, M_{Base} = 47, M_{INT2} = 53.5$). The mean shift demonstrated a very small effect from intervention to baseline ($d = 0.07$), and a small effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 0.23$). There was an increase in variance from intervention to baseline phase, and a decrease from baseline to second intervention phase, demonstrating a very large effect size from intervention to baseline ($f^2 = 290.4$). With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 13a). Participant two’s mean decreased from intervention to baseline, and remained relatively stable from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 40, M_{Base} = 39.3, M_{INT2} = 39$). The mean shift demonstrated a medium effect from intervention to baseline ($d = 0.61$), and negative, small effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = -0.26$). There was a decrease in variance from the intervention to baseline phase, and a decrease from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from intervention to baseline ($f^2 = 1.003$). With regards to latency, there was medium delay after two sessions (see Figure 13b). Participant three’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 55.33, M_{Base} = 57.33, M_{INT2} = 61$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -0.96$), and a large effect from baseline to the second intervention ($d = 1.76$).
There was an increase invariance from intervention to baseline phase, and a decrease from baseline to second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from intervention to baseline ($f^2 = 1.09$). With regards to latency, there was a medium delay after two sessions (see Figure 13c).

**Course Efficacy**

The first subscale, course efficacy data revealed all three participants evidenced an increase in trends throughout the study. Participant one’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 7.35$, $M_{Base} = 8$, $M_{INT2} = 8.22$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -4.64$), and a large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 1.57$). There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline, and an increase from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from intervention to baseline ($f^2 = 2.5$) and a large effect size was also found in the baseline to the second intervention ($f^2 = 2.5$). With regards to latency, there was a moderate delay after two sessions (see Figure 14). Participant two’s mean decreased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 7.71$, $M_{Base} = 7.52$, $M_{INT2} = 7.86$). The mean shift demonstrated a large effect from intervention to baseline ($d = 2.38$), and a large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 4.25$). There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline, and an increase in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a relatively large effect size from intervention to baseline ($f^2 = 7.17$). With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 14). Participant three’s mean decreased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the
second intervention phase ($M_{\text{INT}} = 9, M_{\text{Base}} = 8.86, M_{\text{INT2}} = 9.07$). The mean shift demonstrated a large effect size from intervention to baseline ($d = 0.93$), and a large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 1.4$). There was no change in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease from baseline to second intervention phase in comparison to the intervention to baseline phase, demonstrating a large effect size from baseline to the second intervention phase ($f^2 = 0.67$). With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 14).

**Roommate Efficacy**

The second subscale was roommate efficacy. All three participants demonstrated a different trend on this subscale throughout the study. One participant showed an increase in trend, there was an increase in trend, and a fluctuating trend in data were observed. The other participant showed a fluctuating trend throughout the study. Participant one’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{\text{INT}} = 8.38, M_{\text{Base}} = 8.83, M_{\text{INT2}} = 9$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect size from intervention to baseline ($d = -3.21$), and a large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 1.21$). There was a decrease in variance from the intervention to baseline phase, and a decrease in variance from the baseline to second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from intervention to baseline ($f^2 = 7.43$). With regards to latency, there was a short latency after one session (see Figure 15). Participant two’s mean decreased from intervention to baseline, and decreased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{\text{INT}} = 7.08, M_{\text{Base}} = 6.33, M_{\text{INT2}} = 5.88$). The mean shift demonstrated a large effect size from intervention to baseline ($d = 1.97$), and a negative, large effect from baseline to the second
intervention phase \((d= -1.18)\). There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect \(\left(f^2= 3.11\right)\). With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 15). Participant three’s mean decreased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention \(\left(M_{\text{INT}}= 10, M_{\text{Base}}= 9.67, M_{\text{INT2}}= 10\right)\).

The mean shift demonstrated a large effect from intervention to baseline \((d= 2.36)\), and a large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase \((d= 2.36)\). There was an increase in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease from baseline to the second intervention phase. With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 15).

**Social Efficacy**

The third subscale of the CSE-I is social efficacy. Two of the three participants showed an increase in trend, while the other participant showed no pattern. Participant one’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase \(\left(M_{\text{INT}}= 6.35, M_{\text{Base}}= 7.17, M_{\text{INT2}}= 7.50\right)\). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect from intervention to baseline \((d= -1.26)\), and a small effect from baseline to the second intervention phase \((d= 0.45)\). There was an increase invariance from the intervention to baseline phase, and a decrease from the baseline to second intervention phase, demonstrating a very large effect size intervention to baseline \(\left(f^2= 15.14\right)\). With regards to latency, there was a medium delay after two sessions (see Figure 16). Participant two’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase \(\left(M_{\text{INT}}= 3.83, M_{\text{Base}}= 5.33, M_{\text{INT2}}= 5.5\right)\). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect from intervention to baseline \((d= -8.82),\)
and a large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 1$). There was no change in variance from intervention to baseline, and an increase from baseline to the second intervention phase in comparison to the intervention to baseline phase, demonstrating a large effect size baseline to second intervention phase ($f^2 = 2.44$). With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 16). Participant three’s mean stayed the same from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 8.33$, $M_{Base} = 8.33$, $M_{INT2} = 8.42$). The mean shift demonstrated no change from intervention to baseline, and a medium effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 0.53$). There was an increase invariance from intervention to baseline, and an increase from baseline to second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect size from baseline to the second intervention phase ($f^2 = 1.44$). With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 16).

**Social Integration Efficacy**

The final subscale of the CSE-I is social integration. All three participants showed a slight increase in trend on the social integration subscale throughout this study. Participant one’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and increased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 5.17$, $M_{Base} = 6$, $M_{INT2} = 6.5$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative and large effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -1.43$), and a large effect from baseline to the second intervention phase ($d = 0.86$). There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline, and a decrease in variance from baseline to the second intervention phase, demonstrating a large effect from baseline to the second intervention ($f^2 = 2.2$). With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 17). Participant two’s mean increased from intervention to
baseline, and decreased from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 4.55$, $M_{Base} = 6$, $M_{INT2} = 5.83$). The mean shift demonstrated no change in between phases. There was a decrease in variance from intervention to baseline, and an increase in variance from baseline to the second intervention in variance between phases. With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see Figure 17). Participant three’s mean increased from intervention to baseline, and remained the same from baseline to the second intervention phase ($M_{INT} = 8.56$, $M_{Base} = 9$, $M_{INT2} = 9$). The mean shift demonstrated a negative, large effect from intervention to baseline ($d = -1.33$), and no change from baseline to the second intervention phase. There was an increase in variance from intervention to baseline phase, and an increase from baseline to second intervention phase in comparison to intervention to baseline phase, demonstrating a very large effect size from baseline to the second intervention phase ($f^2 = 24$). With regards to latency, there was a short delay after one session (see figure 17).
DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to examine the effectiveness of a life skills intervention on freshmen student-athletes’ college adjustment, college self-efficacy, and ability to transfer life skills. The hypotheses for the present study were: (a) college adjustment as measured by the SAC-Q would improve (b) college self-efficacy as measured by the CSE-I would improve, and (c) the ability for student-athletes to transfer life skills would increase after participating in this study. Life skills used in this study included goal setting, effective communication, meeting and greeting, managing emotions, resolving conflict, helping others, making healthy choices, seeking help from others, and appreciating differences. Mental skills used in this study included confidence, positive self-talk, relaxation, and focusing. Overall, results indicated that the life skills intervention was quite effective for participant one for college adjustment, college self-efficacy, and the transference of life skills. The other two participants showed improvement in some areas from the life skills intervention, but not in other areas.

Participants one and two supported the first hypothesis, while participant three showed a systematic increase throughout the study. This pattern of results support previous life skills interventions that showed how academic support was a bi-product of life skills programming for student-athletes (Melendez, 2006), revealing higher scores from participation in a peak performance course indicated educational support programs provide students with higher rates of adjustment. On the social subscale, Participants one and three supported hypothesis a, Participant two demonstrated a decrease on this particular scale. Coming into college, freshmen student-athletes must learn new, more
complicated skills, encounter typically more demanding training, and adjust to new coaches and teammates (Etzel, 2009). This participant expressed in session the difficulty of adjusting to new teammates on multiple occasions, which ultimately made it challenging to engage with others due to a lack of trust and frustration. On the personal-emotional subscale, Participants one and two supported hypothesis $a$, the primary researcher observed a reverse score for participant three on this subscale, which did not support hypothesis $a$. These results highlight the uniqueness of the college experience for each individual, which is why the primary researcher found it important to work with each participant individually. While some student-athletes may be able to adjust, other student-athletes can sometimes have difficulty adjusting to college (Downey, 2005). On the attachment subscale, Participant one and three supported hypothesis $a$, while Participant two showed a reverse effect on this subscale. Since the attachment scale is based on the satisfaction of the college experience in addition to satisfaction of the particular institution of affiliation, Participant’s two open expression of dissatisfaction in this particular area allowed the primary researcher to anticipate the outcomes of this scale. On the full scale, student-athletes were assessed on their effectiveness to adjust to college. Participant one and three demonstrated support for hypothesis $a$, however, participant two demonstrated a decrease from the intervention to baseline phase, the scores never increased and leveled out for the duration of the study. Contrary to the primary researcher’s hypothesis, these mixed results replicated findings in previous research (Rasnack, 2011) that did not significantly support the adjustment of the student-athlete. The primary researcher believed by conducting a single subjects design, the findings would be different from previous literature that used groups to examine the
effectiveness of life skills programming on college adjustment due to the individual nature of the sessions.

The second hypothesis of the present study was that freshmen student-athletes would improve in their college self-efficacy scores from participation in the life skills intervention. On the course efficacy subscale, all three participants increased throughout the duration of the study, supporting hypothesis b. This particular subscale measured individuals’ confidence in their ability to complete academic activities. Given the time of the semester, deliberate study habits and scheduling for academic success was intentional. Effective time management played a key role in the participants completing tasks, which is a key component of student-athlete success (Etzel et al., 2002). On the roommate efficacy subscale, two of the three participants supported hypothesis b, while Participant one partially supported hypothesis b due to the systematic increase. The score for Participant one could also be different because this participant was married and lived off-campus, unlike the typical freshman student-athlete. Usually, freshmen student-athletes deal with the personal adjustment of living with a new roommate(s), making new friends, making their own decisions, and navigating through a new community without the initial layer social support (Ridinger & Pastore, 2000). However, this was a unique circumstance where these “typical” factors are not the shared experience, which can effect the scores on this scale differently than the other two participants. The third subscale, social efficacy indicated that hypothesis b was partially supported by all three participants due to the systematic increase throughout the duration of the study. Due to the nature of this subscale, this subscale would be difficult to reverse due to the inability to “unfriend” and not be sociable once those relationships were formed. The final
subscale was the social integration subscale. Participant one and three partially supported hypothesis b through the systematic increase observed throughout the study. However, Participant two did not support hypothesis b, and showed a reverse effect on this subscale. Once again, this was perhaps attributed to lack of institution satisfaction and disconnection as time progressed.

The final hypothesis of the present study was that freshmen student-athletes would improve their ability to transfer life skills after participating in the life skills intervention. There were eight subscales on the LSTS to determine the intervention effectiveness. On the meeting and greeting subscale, all three participants had an increasing trend, indicating that the participants were continuing to improve through the duration of the study. This improvement could support the idea that some behaviors are irreversible and may not decrease after the return to baseline phase once the intervention is withdrawn (Kazdin, 1982). On the managing emotions subscale, there was a systematic increase in participant one, while participant two and three showed an increase from intervention to baseline and a decrease from baseline to the second intervention, suggesting that this subscale did not produce the anticipated results. Perhaps, the time of the semester played a negative role in the participants’ ability to manage their emotions due to anxiety about doing well on finals. On the goal setting subscale, all three participants supported hypothesis c. These results supports that utilizing goal setting in sport is parallel to other life situations, suggesting that once the process of goal setting has begun, it is difficult to stop practicing (Locke & Latham, 1985). On the resolving conflict subscale, results indicated a fluctuating trend in all three participants. Participant one showed a systematic increase over the course of the study, while both Participants
two and three increased from the intervention to the baseline phase, and leveled out from the baseline to the second intervention. This pattern suggests that this skill was not affected by the life skills intervention. On the making healthy choices subscale, there was no indication that the life skills intervention was effective to any of the three participants. One reason this skill probably did not change, was due to the primary investigator not spending much time on that topic in order for changes to occur. The appreciating differences subscale was interesting because there was no change in two of the participants throughout the study, and a slight increase for participant two from baseline to the second intervention phase, which shows support for hypothesis $c$. The results of this subscale could be due to Participant two, bringing up her internal struggles with getting along with her new teammates on multiple occasions. Through conversations, Participant two was able to do self-reflection and made an effort to become more understanding of those with different perspectives than her own. On the getting help from others subscale, Participant three is the only one that demonstrated improvement from the intervention, supporting hypothesis $c$. The results for this subscale could be due to participant one and three being relatively stable and content with the environment and resources provided for them. Although each participant came up with social support networks, participant two had to identify and use her network more immediately in order to her increase her satisfaction and make a critical decision for the upcoming season. The final scale for life skills that was observed was the helping others subscale. On this subscale there was an increasing trend throughout the duration of the study for all three participants. The primary investigator believes this is because each of
the three participants are natural leaders, who want to see those around them be better, so they were more willing to help.

The present study was modeled after life skills programs that evaluated the adjustment of freshmen student-athletes (Rasnack, 2011; Kingston, 2003). However, the difference between the present study and previous life skills interventions with freshmen student-athletes was that this study was a single subjects design. The primary researcher decided to use this methodology because each individual will adjust to college differently, and his/her needs could be tailored to throughout the intervention. In a single subject design, more specifically a B-A-B design, the intervention is immediately introduced at the beginning of the study due to the lack of the desired behavior never being practiced prior to the study. In this methodology, researchers typically expect to see a decrease from the intervention phase to the baseline phase, because the participants are no longer receiving treatment. However, as the intervention is introduced again, researchers expect to see an increase in scores from the baseline to the second intervention period. The decline from the intervention to the baseline phase, and the increase from the baseline to second intervention phase will help demonstrate the intervention effectiveness.

Although results came out relatively contrary to what was hypothesized due to the nature of the skills learned. The “life” skills learned are skills that are intended to get better with practice, and do not necessarily disappear once these skills have been trained. Thinking about the purpose behind implementing a life skills intervention and the results from the
present study, it is expected to see the skill continue to improve over time to demonstrate the effectiveness of life skills. A few things are important to note that could have potentially effected the results of the study. One of the factors could have been the timing of the intervention. Being two months away from finals and close to the end of the school year, raises the awareness of the increased study habits and tutor sessions students engage in to prepare for finals. These increased study habits possibly influenced scores on subscales (i.e. academic and course efficacy). Another factor that potentially influenced results could have been the removal of the intervention as opposed to another methodology. When teaching life skills (i.e. goal setting), it’s hard to stop practicing this skill, even if the intervention is removed. Although results do not take these considerations into account, from an effectiveness standpoint, the difficulty or inability to reverse treatment shows the effects of life skills once learned. One final factor that could have influenced results is the amount of assessments administered, which could have potentially compromised the quality of response from participants due to the time demands of the measures. It is important to note that the participants of the present study rated the intervention helpful and the application beyond intervention was high. Aspects of teaching or content that the student-athletes enjoyed included clearly defined goals and purpose of each session, discussions, and the use of multiple modes of learning, videos, and content progression to help the sessions flow smoothly.

The data from the present study produce several practical implications for future research. One important point to note is the time of school year the intervention was implemented. Starting in the fall semester would be ideal because the transition for
freshmen student-athletes would still be fresh. Implementing an intervention two months before finals of the second semester makes it difficult to truly capture the adjustment process. Another important point to note would include the sport type and the point of season these student-athletes were experiencing. It would be interested to explore whether certain sports and/or athletes benefitted from life skills programming more than others do or whether there were notable differences. The time of the athletes’ competition season could also play a role in the results. For instance, in-season athletes may be able to utilize the skills across different domains because of the additional component of competing athletically as opposed to pre/post season, not engaging in their sport. Due to the variability of the contexts to use the life skills taught, it would be interesting to explore this variable more. The present study was designed to demonstrate the importance of life skills programming to freshmen student-athletes. The idea behind this emphasis of importance is to help athletic departments set these individuals up for the necessary tools to be successful for life after their sport. It takes a lot of time and commitment to balance the demands of being a student-athlete. The ability to transfer the skills learned as a student-athlete has the capacity to be helpful to these individuals when he/she is no longer competing in intercollegiate athletics and the role(s) occupied require many of the same skills learned during their time as a student-athlete.
Limitations

The following were limitations of the present study: use of self-report measures, the sample size, time constraints, and the lack of generalizability to other populations. The primary researcher assumed that the participants filled the self-report measures to the best of his/her abilities and as honest as possible. However, it is difficult to know for sure if self-report measures accurately reflect what the participant is being assessed on. Due to the eligibility criteria, it was difficult to find participants to represent the population of interest and generalize to other populations. The final limitation was due to the nature of single subject designs. Since the primary researcher was working individually with the participants, a great deal of time was required from them in order to complete this study.

Future Directions

The present study sparked the idea to present the benefits of life skills programming to all athletic departments for freshmen student-athletes. Although all the results were mixed for all three participants, during the feedback and evaluation from each participant was positively rated and said to be helpful during the course of the study. Perhaps in future study, the amount of assessments taken can be reduced and the focus can be more on the actual programming. It was very interesting to explore the effects of a life skills intervention from an individual standpoint as opposed to the standard experimental design. However, it would be interesting to see a blend of both individual and group delivery of a life skills intervention. The reason this would be of interest is to explore the impact of tailoring certain topics depending on the individual, but also highlight the skills that can be taught more effectively in group settings. Examples of topics more effective in a group setting potentially could include: communication, building social networks,
resolving conflict, and time management. Some topics that could be more beneficial to individual student-athletes would be goal setting, concentration, self-talk, and motivation. Blending the two types of delivering the interventions would be interesting because athletic departments can began to provide the appropriate support systems for athletes depending on the need and the athlete. Another interesting addition with using a blend of group and individual interventions would be to determine whether the sport was a team sport or individual sport. Depending on which type of sport (team or individual-base) could also influence whether or not group or individual would be more appropriate.


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APPENDIX A - DEFINITIONS AND DELIMITATIONS

Definitions

- True freshman- an individual who is entering college for his or her first semester
- Life skills- are those skills that allow individuals to succeed in a variety of environments such as school, work, and neighborhoods (Danish, Forneris, & Wallace, 2005).
- Transition- “an event or non-event that leads to change in oneself and/or environment and how he/she views the world” (Schlossberg, 1981).
- Life skills experience- individuals who completed the full life skills programming offered by the institution.

Delimitations

The following were delimitations of the present study: true freshmen student-athletes, little to no life skills experience, and a single-subject methodology. True freshmen student-athletes were operationally defined as individuals entering college for his/her first year. The reason it was important to use these individuals was because there would be no previous experience coping with the stressors of being a freshmen student-athlete. Little to no life skills experience was defined as the individuals who did not participate in the institution’s summer programming prior to their freshman year. This was important not to include individuals who had previous experience, because the effects would not be clear which program influenced the student-athletes if there were effects from the study. Single subjects design was selected because in group settings, outliers can make the effects seem minimal or vast, and potentially miss the true effects of the treatment. Conducting a single subjects, allows the participant to get individualized
treatment and compare differences against their own performance throughout the course of the study as opposed to another person or group of people who are different from them.
APPENDIX B
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

“A transition can be said to occur if an event or non-event results in a change in assumptions about oneself and the world, and thus requires a corresponding change in one’s behavior and relationships” (Schlossberg, 1981, p. 5). Danish, Petitpas, and Hale (1992), described transitions as multidimensional events with many biological, social, and psychological components. These researchers also highlighted transitions or “critical life events” as not being discrete, but as processes that commence when individuals begin to anticipate them and continue through their occurrence until post transition aftermath has been determined. Schlossberg’s model describes three major sets of factors that influence adaptation to transition: (a) the characteristics of the particular transition (being anticipated v. unanticipated), (b) characteristics of the pre and post transition environments (time, stress, etc.), and (c) characteristics of the individual experiencing the transition (role change, previous experience with similar transitions). Kirk and Kirk (1993) found that the college years are a time of transition for most young adults. These individuals are faced with establishing new relationships, making important career decisions, balancing academic and social priorities, and adjusting to independence and freedom of campus life. College student-athletes are faced with all of these challenges, with the additional pressure of physical, psychological, and time demands of participation in intercollegiate athletics (Etzel, Ferrante, & Pinkney, 2002). More specifically, transitioning as a freshmen student-athlete requires one to adjust to both social and academic demands (Prancer, Hunsberger, Pratt, & Alisat, 2000). Research has found that
freshmen student-athletes face developmental challenges (e.g. establishing an identity, developing new relationships, separating from their families, and balancing academic and social priorities) in their transition from high school to college (Etzel, 2009, p. 283).

Arnett (2000) described the transition from high school to college as a time of emerging adulthood. During this time period, college students are achieving independence from their parents, trying alternative roles, and clarifying their interests and values. During the first year, student-athletes learn to manage different demands and unfamiliar challenges of their new and diverse roles. The student-athlete experience change in three domains: academics, athletics, and personally. As students, they declare majors, develop and redefine study skills, and learn to be responsible for their own learning and behavior. As athletes, they adapt to higher levels of play, greater time commitments, and increased travel. Personally, they adjust to living with a roommate(s), making new friends, making their own decisions, and possibly navigating through a new community (Ridinger & Pastore, 2000). These demands may exceed student-athletes’ pre-college expectations which can lead to a significant amount of stress and potentially poor adjustment (Prancer, Hunsberger, Platt, & Alisat, 2000).

The different roles in which student-athletes occupy and the multiple stressors that accompany each role can have a negative effect on student-athletes during this period of transition. The psychological demands of being a student-athlete include balancing the demands of athletics and academics, as well as attempting to satisfy both the coaches and professors. The professors expect student-athletes to complete assignments and perform adequately academically, while coaches expect them to be physically and mentally prepared to perform on the playing field (Hurley & Cunningham, 1984). This role
conflict can lead to psychological stress that may result in student-athletes decreasing their identity with, and commitment to one of the conflicting roles (Sack & Thiel, 1985; Eitzen & Hufnagel, 1982). There has been a growing concern to offer life skills for collegiate athletes in order to deal with the multiple stressors from being a student-athlete (Vernacchia, 2007).

Life skills are those skills that allow individuals to succeed in a variety of environments such as school, work, and neighborhoods (Danish, Forneris, & Wallace, 2005). It is supported that the same skills needed in sport and life are essentially the same (Danish et. al, 2005). The use of life skills to support student-athletes is found to be useful for improving performance in any setting is not only valuable in the university, but can be transferred and implemented in other areas of the individual’s life (Danish & Nellen, 1997; Danish et. al., 2005). Life skills augment a person’s ability to cope with future (life) events” (Danish et. al, 1995) and the skills that allow the person to handle life events effectively. Life skills comprise diverse skills including goal setting, communication, and stress management skills. The World Health Organization (1994) defines life skills as learnable skills that lead to adaptive and positive behavior that enable individuals to deal with life effectively. In today’s sports, life skills education is important in order to prevent problematic behaviors such as violence and abuse by athletes, and nurture the athletes as successful individuals of society. Furthermore, the development of life skills programs are necessary to support athletes acquiring life skills (Danish et. al., 1995; Petitpas et. al, 2004).

The development of life skills programs are designed to help improve the lives of individuals in a holistic approach (Ahlgren-Bedics & Monda, 2009; Danish & Nellen,
1997; Goudas, Dermitzaki & Leondari, 2006; Gouda & Giannoudis, 2007; National Collegiate Athletic Association; Petitpas, Van, Raalte, Cornelius & Presbrey, 2004). The aforementioned programs promote success in both sport and other domains through educating adolescents and collegiate athletes about life skills. It is important for life skills programming to address the multiple roles of the student-athlete, especially in relation to the impact of how those roles may influence academic, personal, and social life (Ahlgren-Bedics & Monda, 2009).

**Transition-Related Challenges**

Steenbarger (1990) suggests that normal development is characterized by struggles, turmoil, and stress. These struggles, turmoil, and stress are normal and necessary for individual adaptation and growth. These struggles are exemplified in college students due to this critical development stage as young adults are often leaving home for the first time, forming new identities, and leaving old and established friends and making new ones. Incoming students must grapple with establishing relationships, adapting to more rigorous academic requirements and managing their new freedom (Medalie, 1981). College student-athletes face additional struggles such as balancing athletic and academic schedules, not making the starting team, and coping with injuries (Heil, 1993; Parham, 1993; Pearson & Petitpas, 1990). Student-athletes have additional tasks of adapting to demanding sport participation at the intercollegiate level. Due to these additional struggles experienced, Lanning and Toye (1993) suggested that student athletes might be in more need of counseling services than their nonathletic counterparts. In further comparison to non-student athletes, there are higher reports of stress among student athletes in a wide variety of variables including: conflicts with significant others,
more responsibility, not enough sleep, and heavy demands from extra-curricular activities (Wilson & Pritchard, 2005).

Student-athletes also have the challenging responsibility of living both roles of the student and athlete (Giacobbi et al., 2004, p. 114). These individuals are often overwhelmed by the demands of each of these roles they occupy, so it is important for student-athletes to learn to effectively balance and manage these responsibilities (Miller & Kerr, 2002; Wilson & Pritchard, 2005). Freshmen student-athletes are required to adjust to longer training and practice sessions, full academic course loads, and new social support systems in order to cope with numerous demands in addition to transitioning into a new school environment (Potuto & O’Hanlon, 2007). However, it has been found that the inability to balance these roles lead student-athletes to over identify with their athletic role and consequently have a difficult time with personal self-development (Miller & Kerr, 2003; Lally & Kerr, 2005; Watson & Kissinger, 2007). In order for student athletes to be successful, students must learn to balance the demands of both roles and be provided with an environment where they can meet the expectations of both roles (Ahlgren-Bedics & Monda, 2009; Goldberg, 1991). Mastering the balance between the two primary responsibilities of school and sport can help student-athletes make the most of their collegiate experience and continue to be a valuable skill for balancing multiple future roles such as: parent, employee, friend, and member of the community (Etzel, 2009, p. 114).

**Measuring adjustment.** According to Taylor and Pastore (2007), adjustment to college can be measured by acquiring students’ self-reports of their attachment to a university, participation in campus activities, psychological well-being, and academic
standing. The Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SAC-Q) is a 67-item questionnaire to measure the effectiveness of student adjustment to college (Baker & Siryk, 1989). These researchers developed this scale as a reliable and valid instrument that can provide a resource to identify those students who are at-risk to not successfully adapt to the demands of college. There are four subscales identified through this measure: academic adjustment, social adjustment, personal-emotional adjustment, and attachment to the institution. The academic subscale examines how well individuals are able to adapt to the academic demands of college. The social subscale examines the ability for individuals to adapt to their new social environment and build social networks. The personal-emotional subscale, examines how the individual’s overall well-being is during this period of adjustment. The attachment to the institution subscale examines how satisfied the individual is with being in college in general, and to further explore this subscale, whether the specific institution individuals are attending is satisfactory. The psychometric properties of the student adaptation to college questionnaire (SAC-Q) are noted in the original study conducted (Baker & Siryk, 1989). The reliability of this measure was confirmed through each of the four subscales with the following alpha coefficient values: academic adjustment (0.81-0.91), social adjustment (0.83-0.91), personal-emotional adjustment (0.77-0.86), institutional attachment (0.85-0.91), and the full scale (0.92-0.95). The validity of this measure showed intercorrelations between each of the four subscales (academic, institutional attachment, social, and personal-emotional) and the full scale (0.7-0.8). This scale is supported to have strong face validity and content validity. Recent studies (Crede’ & Niehorster, 2012) have highlighted the importance of using the student adaptation to college questionnaire (SAC-Q). Crede’ and
Niehorster (2012) found that student adaptation to college questionnaire (SAC-Q) could be used with all college students, used to identify students who may struggle in college, and is an important tool to use for developing interventions for the adjusting student-athlete. Results have shown this measure to be predictive of college grades, a good predictor of college retention, and found to be multi-dimensional.

**Coping and self-efficacy.** Student-athletes who judge their ability and self-worth on winning and losing will have difficulty coping with normal developmental processes of mistakes and failure; in result, these individuals’ confidence will deteriorate and anxiety will increase. Student-athletes higher in trait anxiety are more likely to engage in maladaptive coping strategies (Finch, 1993). An excellent way to teach appropriate coping responses to prospective collegiate athletes is to discuss the meaning of success and failure with them. Success should not be seen solely as winning or losing, but as the achievement of personal performance goals (Martens, 2004; Orlick, 2008; Etzel, 2009). The athlete must develop emotional control that arise in athletics and life that may be seen as unfair (Etzel et. al., 2002). Research has shown that effective coping skills can reduce stress, improve academic performance, provide skills that will enable student-athletes to develop as individuals, and increase self-efficacy (Chemers, Hu, & Garcia, 2001; Gore, 2006; Smith, 1989; Smith, Schutz, Smoll, & Ptacek, 1995). According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is not a measure of skills one has, but a belief about what one can do under different sets of conditions with whatever skills one possess. However, in order to perform effectively an individual must have the skills and the belief to use those skills. An individual’s belief in his or her own effectiveness is likely to directly affect the persistence of coping behavior. “The strength of people’s convictions in their
own effectiveness is likely to affect whether they will even try to cope with given situations” (Bandura, 1977, p. 193). Successfully completing tasks require the continual management of subskills within ever-changing conditions (Bandura, 1997). However, once student-athletes believe in their capabilities to be successful in college, they can effectively cope with the transition, which lead to becoming successful in other domains of their lives. Individuals who learn effective ways of coping can improve their self-esteem, which in turn will increase their belief in their own abilities (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992). Self-efficacy tends to have a radiating effect in the end on an individual’s personal and athletic life (Danish & Hale, 1981).

**College self-efficacy.** College self-efficacy is measured by an individual’s confidence in their ability to do well in college-related tasks (Solberg, O’Brien, Villereal, Kennel, and Davis, 1993). The college self-efficacy inventory (CSE-I) is a measurement used to assess college students’ belief in their abilities to perform well in college. The CSE-I is a 20-item self-report measure that determines the confidence of college students ranging from 1 (totally unconfident) to 10 (totally confident) in the ability to complete tasks associated with being a student at college (Solberg et. al, 1993). The measurement was originally used on 164 Mexican American and Latino-American college students to determine their confidence in successfully completing certain college tasks. The scale was produced in order to explore more than one domain of college adjustment (i.e. academics), and to capture additional experiences of college adjustment (i.e. socially, personally and/or emotionally).
This measurement originally consisted of three components: course efficacy, roommate efficacy, and social efficacy. A few years after the original study, (Solberg et al., 1998) added a fourth component, social integration efficacy. The first subscale of the CSE-I is course efficacy ($\alpha = 0.86$). This component examines the student-athlete’s ability to complete academic activities (e.g. write papers and do well on exams). The second subscale is roommate efficacy ($\alpha = 0.89$). This component examines the student-athlete’s ability to engage in tasks with the individuals they live with (e.g. socializing with roommates and dividing space). The third subscale is social efficacy ($\alpha = 0.79$). This component focuses on the student-athlete’s ability to engage in social behaviors (e.g. talking with professors and making friends at the university). The final subscale is social integration ($\alpha = 0.62$). This component examines the student-athlete’s connection to the institution. The psychometric properties of the college self-efficacy inventory (CSE-I) were highlighted to have strong internal consistency and good convergent and discriminant validity (two subscales of construct validity) with Cronbach’s coefficient for the total scale being 0.91 (Solberg et al, 1993). Other studies (Benson, 1998) also found the CSE-I to have construct validity. Further research on the CSE-I (Gore et al., 2006) have shown to have both concurrent and predictive validity of scores, with a Cronbach coefficient of 0.92 for the total scale.

Gore (2006) examined first year college students to demonstrate that the first semester of college is critical for promoting academic self-efficacy beliefs of incoming first year students. In this study, students were asked to self-report grade point average (G.P.A) and complete the CSE-I at the beginning and end of the freshmen
orientation/transition class. There were high correlations found between CSE-I as a good prediction of college G.P.A. A significant relationship between G.P.A and the CSE-I scores was found, as well as a strong relationship between academic self-efficacy beliefs and college performance (Gore, 2006).

**Theoretical Perspectives on Transitioning Student-Athletes.** The traditional developmental view of adjustment involves the concept that individuals progress through an invariant sequence of different stages or levels of development (Lutwak, 1984). There are developmental tasks at each level and successful completion are necessary for one’s continued adjustment and psychological growth. Researchers have proposed that a developmental framework may be valuable in understanding the problems student-athletes face (Danish, 1987; Danish & Hale, 1981). Developmental models strive to examine transitions from a variety of domains taking into account the diversity of the individuals and the environmental factors present (Etzel et. al., 2002). Models that are used to understand transitioning college student-athletes include Schlossberg’s 1981 “Adaptation to Transition model” and (Danish et. al., 1993) Life Development Interventions model.

According to Schlossberg (1981), adaptation to transition is a factor of an individual’s appraisal of the transition, his or her personal characteristics, and his or her environment. Schlossberg’s model is multidimensional, but several additional factors may affect the transition process of student-athletes. These factors include status loss (Gorbett, 1984), athletic identity, confidence, locus of control, anticipatory socialization and coaches (Crook & Robertson, 1991), education, skills, interests, and unanticipated
support (Swain, 1991). The Life Development Interventions model as applied to student-athletes, recommend this model to emphasize an educational-developmental model to enhance personal and athletic functioning. This framework concentrates on the individual as an integrated person rather than just an athlete, and examines his/her changing needs and skills over different situations and times (Danish & Hale, 1981). A Life Development program consists of six areas of skills: (1) goal assessment, (2) knowledge acquisition, (3) decision making skills, (4) risk assessment, (5) creating social support, and (6) planning skill development. There are four types of barriers associated with teaching a program such as this: lack of knowledge, lack of skill, an inability to assess the risk involved, and a lack of support (Danish, 1988).

One type of Life Development Intervention is in Erikson’s (1950) theory of psychosocial development. Stage 5 of the model explores the identity vs. role identity confusion, which appears to address the conflicts most student-athletes and students experience. As individuals face this, Erikson describes this as being faced with the question of how to commit the roles and skills cultivated earlier with the occupational prototype of the day (1963). In the Life span human development model: Chickering and Erikson represent two applications of developmental theory of college student adjustment: (1) age appropriate life events and (2) related demands for the completion of appropriate developmental tasks are important precursors for healthy functioning (Danish, 1988). Life span development differs from the work of Chickering and Erikson by changing the work from focusing on stages of development to focusing on life events. Life events are seen as more unpredictable than developmental stages (Danish, 1988).
These different theoretical perspectives are important for helping to better understand the transitioning student-athlete. By understanding the developmental process associated with transitions, professionals are able to better assist in this process.

**Characteristics important for success.** Through creating learning opportunities with student-athletes, counselors and educators can help promote an expansion of interests, skills, beliefs, values, and personal qualities that will help an individual become successful (Shurts & Shoffer, 2006). These researchers also found this type of development and growth can help student-athletes deal with issues of identity and social isolation as well as problem solving and decision-making skills that will serve them well over the course of their lives (Shurts & Shoffer, 2006). When it comes to characteristics vital for individuals to possess in order to be successful, there are some overlapping characteristics mentioned in the literature. These include independence training, goal setting, time management, and positive thinking (Etzel et al, 2002).

Due to an increased pressure to win, athletes make fewer decisions and have little independence training. Coaches should give players the opportunity to make their own play calls and give feedback on appropriateness of choices made (Etzel et al, 2002). This type of training can foster independence among student-athletes and is applicable outside of sport (e.g. academic discipline).

Goal-setting skills are also identified as important skills for individuals especially college students to learn in order to be successful (Etzel et al, 2002). Research supports that utilizing goal setting in sport parallels goal setting procedures to be effective in other life situations (Locke & Latham, 1985). In order to set more effective goals, individuals
should use goal achievement strategies such as planning, executing, and evaluating (Weinberg, 2002). These goal achievement strategies will assist student-athletes in being successful achieving their goals due to a clearer focus.

Along with effective goal setting, time management is a key skill for the college student-athlete to develop (Etzel et al, 2002). In high school, coaches and parents control student-athletes’ schedule, so there are few who are trained in effective time management (Etzel et al, 2002). Important concepts for effective time management include identifying available study times, scheduling study time more effectively, utilizing study time more efficiently, and recognizing and eliminating time wasters (Bailey, 1993). One of the most difficult perspective elements is to instill positive thinking to prospective student-athletes.

It has been supported that there is a need for positive thinking (Harris & Harris, 1984; Orlick, 1990). Having a strong mindset entails more than just memorized positive statements. Orlick (1990) suggests it involves knowing oneself, being able to realistically appraise one’s strengths and limitations, and realistically believe in one’s ability. Vealey (2005) proposed the “P3 thinking” Model. This model can help athletes develop the positive mental attitude and mental toughness to be successful and develop appropriate perspective: (1) purposeful, (2) productive, and (3) possibility. When athletes are purposeful, there is an intentional and deliberate manner in which they process their thoughts about performance. Productivity involves thoughts that are proactive, rational, and facilitative. Possibility refers to thinking outside the proverbial box and being innovative. P3 thinking can assist athletes with developing more control over their thoughts and emotions, which consequently leads to better performance.
The importance of life skills. Athletes must believe that they have skills and qualities that are of value in other settings (Danish et al, 1993). Young people can develop life skills, provided they have the awareness to understand what is required of them and they are motivated to develop it themselves (Jones & Lavallee, 2009). Student-athletes must feel engaged through the entire process in order to understand the importance of how these life skills are learned and in what context they can be executed (Danish et al, 1993; Larson, 2000; Papacharisis, Goudas, Danish, & Theodorakis, 2005).

In a study conducted by Holt, Tink, Mandigo, and Fox (2008) interviewed 12 male high school athletes to determine if they believed life skills could be learned through sport. Athletes reported that by learning to set realistic goals, learning to manage time and taking responsibility for oneself were characteristics believed to be developed through sport participation and were regarded as important to their success beyond their sport (Holt et al, 2000). The desire to participate in an activity and being invested in it helps to make the experience intrinsically motivating, challenging, and important enough to warrant the expenditure of time and effort (Petitpas, Cornelius, Van Raalte, & Jones, 2009).

Recognition and transference of life skills. Most young athletes do not recognize that many of the skills that they have acquired in order to play sports or survive in their neighborhoods transfer to other life domains as well (Danish & Nellen, 1997). Transferring skills from sport to other aspects of their lives can help athletes prepare to manage transitions (Lavalle, 2005). The ability to recognize the skills learned in one domain and use them in another domain is a valuable skill to possess (Jones & Lavalle,
For the transferability of skills to take place, participants first must believe that they have skills and qualities that are of value in other settings (Danish & Nellen, 1997; Danish et al, 2005; Jones & Lavalle, 2009). In a case study, Jones and Lavalle (2009) revealed athletes are able to recognize the life skills that can be transferred from sport to everyday life.

The Life Skills Transfer Survey (LSTS) is a 50-item self-report measure that reflects an individual’s ability to use life skills learned in one context in another domain (Weiss, Bolter, & Kipp, 2014). This measure includes eight subscales: a) meeting and greeting, b) managing emotions, c) goal-setting, d) resolving conflicts, e) making healthy choices, f) appreciating diversity, g) getting help from others, and h) helping others. Participants have the stem phrase, “Because of participating in a life skills program…” and respond to items from the eight different subscales. Responses are on a 5-point Likert scale (ranging from (1) really not true for me to (5) really true for me). The LSTS (Weiss, Bolter, & Kipp, 2014) was validated in studies where samples of youth ages 10-18 were used in a golf specific physical activity based program to enhance life skills. All eight subscales achieved high Cronbach alpha values (0.80-0.92). Due to sufficient reflection of the LSTS assessing the targeted life skills, there was structural validity. Correlations among the eight subscales were found to be moderate to high (r = 0.63-0.92).

Life skills programs. Many programs have been designed to promote the use of life skills in the daily lives of student-athletes. According to The World Health Organization (1994), life skills education needs to be developed as a part of a whole
school initiative designed to support the healthy psychosocial development of children and adolescents.

Morrill, Oeting, and Hurst (1974) presented a “cube model” as a life skills model. This 3-d model addresses the roles of counseling functions. The first dimension is the “target” which needs to be addressed in the intervention. The second dimension is the purpose of the intervention which is further identified through three components: the first two are psychoeducational (prevention and development) and the last component is more individual in nature, remediation. The third dimension identifies the method of the intervention, which is comprised of three components: direct service, consultation and training, and media (Etzel, Ferrante, & Pinkney, 2002).

Etzel and colleagues (2002) discuss some programmatic interventions used to assist student-athletes in the transition process. Making the Jump uses a workshop format to provide high school students and their parents with information about the transition from high school to college and college athletics (Etzel et al, 2002). This program was developed by Mark D. Hurwitz for high school student-athletes (Pearson & Petitpas, 1990) consisting of workshops designed to enhance awareness of issues related to the transition from high school to college athletics. The program includes discussion of the recruiting process, time management, and academic support services at colleges and universities (Etzel et al, 2002). Both individual and group meetings were available. This program consisted of a panel of experts on various topics, handouts, and question and answer sessions to provide both students’ and parents’ awareness of the physical and psychological challenges associated with the transition to college.
Another program Etzel et al. (2002) mentioned was the Athletes in Transition intervention that was developed by counseling center members and consisted of a series of workshops on transitions (e.g. switching positions, retiring from athletics, starting career) based on the Life Role Development model of adult development and transition (Brown & Brooks, 1991). These workshops were designed to help athletes determine what particular transitions meant to them, to understand how values and roles play an important part in working through transitions and to help them to develop a plan of action for accepting and adapting to transitions (Etzel et al, 2002). Specific workshops are developed depending on classification in school (i.e. freshmen or graduating students) and lasted for 90 minutes in small groups led by counseling staff members. Student-athletes are encouraged to develop self-awareness, to consider their own transitions, to use problem solving to resolve transition conflicts, and enhance their decision-making capabilities (Etzel et al, 2002). Going for the Goal teaches adolescents a sense of personal control and confidence about their future in order for these individuals to make better decisions and ultimately become better citizen (Danish & Nellen, 1997). The foundational belief of the Goal program is to encourage adolescents to develop positive future orientation to decrease the risk of health-compromising behaviors (Forneris, Danish, & Scott, 2007). The Goal program assists with goal setting, equips students with the knowledge and skills necessary in order to succeed in coping with complex situations in life (Goudas & Giannoudis, 2007). The Goal program was also found to provide students with the opportunity to improve their performance by applying life skills to real world settings (Goudas & Giannoudis, 2007). Students who participated in this program
claimed they learned how to set goals, problem solve, and seek social support which supports the notion that programs that incorporate life skills training are valuable (Forneris, 2007).

NCAA CHAMPS Life Skills programming was created in 1993. This intervention focuses on five commitments seen as useful for student-athletes growth and development. These include academic excellence, athletic excellence, personal development, service, and career development. This holistic model recognizes the student-athlete as a developing young person, emphasizing the developmental needs and skills of the individual during and after their collegiate career (Etzel et al, 2002). CHAMPS life skills focus on four key areas for personal development and eight learning points (Etzel et al, 2002). The four points include developing a sense of belonging, acquisition of new knowledge and skills, choosing informed attitudes, and assuming self-responsibility. The eight learning points are fundamental values, academic enhancement, social enhancement, emotional development, physical development, spiritual development, financial instruction, and career planning.

In a study under the direction of Danish (1988), a program evaluation was conducted of the proposed Success 101 intervention. This intervention was a 10-week intervention designed to facilitate adjustment to college. Small group sessions consisted of 7-15 student-athletes. These sessions were conducted weekly for 1.5 hour. The lead investigator facilitated all group sessions that were mixed by various demographics including: sport, race, and sex. Student-athletes were taught goal setting, goal attainment, positive self-talk, relaxation, and imagery training. These areas were applied to academic,
athletic, and personal lives. The measurements administers were assessed both pre/post: Adjustment to College Life Measure (ACLM), Interpersonal Support Evaluation List (ISEL), Student Attitudes and feelings questionnaire (SAF), Personal attitudes and feelings (PAF), Athletic Attitudes and feelings questionnaire (AAF), Goal-setting knowledge test (GSKT), and Goal attainment inventory (GAI) followed by a course evaluation in the final session. The study addressed two questions: (1) do student-athletes learn the skills that will be taught and (2) how does this learning effect their athletic, academic, and social performance. The purpose of this study was to examine how learning will effect student-athletes’ feelings of self-efficacy, perceived coping ability and social support, and overall adjustment to college life. Results revealed that teaching goal setting seemed to be successful due to the increase from pre-posttest. ACLM decreased demonstrating the freshmen myth, self-efficacy scales remained relatively stable, and the ISEL demonstrated significant improvement.

Components of effective life skills programs. “Whether or not an institution has a well-established life skills program, an important first point to start such interventions is to take the temperature of the current student-athlete population by administering a needs assessment” (Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1995, pg. 130). Every student-athlete should complete this annually. Needs assessments should be the foundation on which life skills programming is based in order to better address the unique and individual needs of this group. It is important that any life skills model for student-athletes be sensitive to and aware of the developmental tasks and needs of the individuals involved. For example, time management with freshmen and career planning and resume writing for
juniors/seniors (Etzel et al, 2002). An ideal program should include academic support, career counseling and personal development for student-athletes. There is a need to have a multi-dimensional focus in order to address the student-athletes the student-athlete as a whole (Carodine et al., 2001). Life skills programs should also address social support, interpersonal feelings, as well as personal development and identity in order to enhance the overall college experience (Watson & Kissinger, 2007). Aspects of these programs included developing time management skills for effective studying, building specialized academic skills for college preparation, stress management, mistake and loss strategy facilitation, and developing interpersonal communication skills for addressing coaches, teammates, and the media (O’Bryant, 1993). Life skills programs are designed with the intent of preparing students for challenges by providing them strategies that will help them overcome those challenges and succeed (Pancer et al, 2000). The goal of any intervention program for college student-athletes in transition should be to enhance their ability to not only cope with transition, but also grow from transition (Danish et al 1993).

**Research on Life Skills Programs with Student-Athletes.** Curry and Maniar (2003) examined the combined psychological skills training with life skills education for student-athletes and non-athletes. At the conclusion of the study, student-athletes were asked to provide three content areas that were the most beneficial towards their growth and performance through this intervention. Results of this study revealed that the peak performance class and use of cognitive behavior homework was the most influential and meaningful to students (Curry & Maniar, 2003). This study also revealed that applying
these skills learned through the intervention were beneficial and contributed to the academic success of the student-athletes.

Melendez (2006) also studied the differences in student-athletes and non-athletes after the completion of one semester. Student-athletes participated in a peak performance class, while the non-student athletes participated in their normal schedule. SAC-Q scores and grade point averages were looked at in order to determine what changes occurred after the intervention. Results revealed that higher scores from the treatment group indicate that education support programs provide students with higher rates of adjustment (Melendez, 2006).

Downey (2005) explored the adjustment of student-athletes over a 15-week semester. By week 7, researchers found that there was less commitment on student-athletes’ behalf to earn their degrees. The measures used for this study included: The Student adaptation to college questionnaire (SAC-Q), Perceived Impact of Potential Adjustment Factors (PIPAF), and the Brief Locus of control scale. Results revealed that student-athletes have difficulty adjusting to college; therefore, various resources on campus can assist them during the transition period.

Kingston (2003) conducted a peak performance class for student-athletes once a week for two hours over the fall quarter (10 weeks). The intervention was modeled after student services for athletes from The University of Delaware. Students did receive course credit. Kingston (2003) evaluated adjustment scores along with grade point averages of both the control group and treatment group over the quarter. While there were increases in the adjustment scores, there was no differences in the grade point
averages. Results revealed that participation in a course or training such as this could provide students with resources capable to handle the demands of college life.

Rasnack (2011) examined the effects of participating in a life skills program for freshmen student-athletes on academic and social performance. Student-athletes were randomly assigned to either the control or the treatment group. The treatment group participated in a Life Skills Seminar Course designed and taught by the researcher. This study was modeled after Kingston’s (2003) performance seminar that included lectures, skill exercises, group sharing, and discussions. Topics for both seminars were also derived from the work of Petrie, Hankes, and Denson (2011). Participants completed both the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SAC-Q) and the College Self-Efficacy Inventory (CSEI) at the beginning and end of the 10-week course that met twice a week for one hour. Results revealed there were no statistically significant differences in the measures (pre and post), the groups (control or treatment), or grade point average. However, it was noted that participants in the treatment group had a grade point average of 0.35 higher than the control group, and the effectiveness of the life skills program was described as beneficial to their general knowledge in the student evaluations.

To conclude, the transitioning student-athlete faces many challenges due to the multiple roles they occupy (Miller & Kerr, 2002; Pancer et al, 2000; Vernacchia, 2007). These challenges faced by student-athletes are even more when examining the freshmen student-athlete. Life skills programming is important in order to help student-athletes adjust academically, socially, and personally (Papacharisis et al, 2005). The skills learned in sport can help student-athletes achieve success in other domains due to the transferability of these skills in everyday life (Goudas et al, 2006).
Because of participating in the life skills program...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Really not true for me</th>
<th>Not true for me</th>
<th>Sort of true for me</th>
<th>True for me</th>
<th>Really true for me</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I shake another person’s hand when I meet them for the first time.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. I ask a person questions about himself/herself when we are first introduced.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. I start a conversation with someone I just met.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I go up and introduce myself to a new student in my class.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I am able to carry on a conversation with adults.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I ask questions to get to know someone I just met.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I calm myself down after receiving a bad grade.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. After I receive a poor test grade, I take a deep breath to stop from getting angry.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I take a deep breath to calm myself after I receive a bad test grade</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I stay positive when I am frustrated with my homework.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I have a positive attitude when faced with a challenge at work.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. In school, I think positively even if I am having trouble learning.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I am patient and keep trying when I am learning a difficult subject in school.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
14. I keep trying when I am having difficulty with my homework. 1 2 3 4 5
15. When I get a bad grade, I try harder to improve next time. 1 2 3 4 5
16. I set goals to achieve my personal best in school subjects. 1 2 3 4 5
17. I set goals to get better grades in school. 1 2 3 4 5
18. I outline the steps toward getting a better grade in school. 1 2 3 4 5
19. I set goals based on my own ability level in school. 1 2 3 4 5
20. I create a plan for getting better grades in school. 1 2 3 4 5
21. I set specific goals to improve my grades at school. 1 2 3 4 5
22. I sit down and work out a disagreement with my friend. 1 2 3 4 5
23. I work out a conflict with my friend by talking about it. 1 2 3 4 5
24. When I have a conflict with my friend, I look for a solution that benefits both of us. 1 2 3 4 5
25. If my friend and I argue, I try to resolve our differences by talking them out. 1 2 3 4 5
26. When I have a conflict with my brother/sister, I look for a solution that benefits both of us. 1 2 3 4 5
27. If my brother/sister argue, I try to resolve our differences by talking them out. 1 2 3 4 5
28. I work out a conflict with my brother/sister by talking about it. 1 2 3 4 5
29. I sit down and work out a disagreement with my brother/sister. 1 2 3 4 5
30. I go to bed on time the evening before a big test. 1 2 3 4 5
31. I drink lots of water throughout the day. 1 2 3 4 5
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32. I avoid unhealthy behaviors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>33. I eat a balanced diet on a daily basis.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>34. I do sports or exercise every day.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. I choose healthy foods to eat.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. I learn things from people who are different from me.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>37. I feel comfortable interacting with people of different cultures.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. I get along with kids who are of different backgrounds than mine.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. I have learned many things from individuals of different cultures.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. I relate to kids with different backgrounds than mine.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. I find good role models to help me.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. I look for people who have good listening skills to help me.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. I seek help from others who provide me with encouragement.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. I go to people who will help me solve a problem.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. I go to people who I can trust when I need help.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. I give good advice to my friends.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. I can reach out to people when they have a problem</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. I comfort a friend when they are upset.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. I help others by listening to their problems.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. I am a positive role model for others to follow.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX D
COLLEGE SELF-EFFICACY INVENTORY

The following 20 items concern your confidence in various aspects of college. Using the scale below, please indicate how confident you are as a student that you could successfully complete the following tasks. If you are extremely confident, mark a 10. If you are not at all confident, mark a 1. If you are more or less confident, find the number between 10 and 1 that best describes you. Item responses are aggregated across all student respondents in order to better understand how confident the “average” student feels. Levels of confidence vary from person to person, and there are no right or wrong answers; just answer honestly.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Make new friends at college.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Divide chores with others you live with.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Talk to university staff.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Manage time effectively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ask a question in class.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Participate in class discussions.</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Get a date when you want one.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Research a term paper.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Do well on your exams.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Join a student organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Talk to your professors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Join an intramural sports team.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Ask a professor a question.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Take good class notes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Get along with others you live with.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Divide space in your residence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Understand your textbooks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Keep up to date with your schoolwork.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Write course papers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Socialize with others you live with.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX E

SESSION MATERIALS

Scenarios for Student-athletes:

(1) Handling an issue with a roommate (space, noise, cleaning, etc.)
(2) Not getting as much playing time as desired
(3) Struggling Academically
(4) Homesickness
(5) Late night party followed by early morning practice
(6) Peer/social pressures to try drugs
(7) Not getting along with teammate and/or coach
PROGRAM EVALUATION

4= EXCELLENT, 3=GOOD, 2=FAIR, 1=POOR

1. Use of session time was:

2. Clarity of participant’s responsibilities:

3. Encouragement of participant’s self-expression:

4. Challenge level of assignments:

5. Relevancy of content to student-athlete:

6. Openess to participant’s views:

7. Effectiveness of the material taught:

8. Usefulness of the overall content to freshmen student-athletes:

9. The course overall was productive:

10. How often did you practice the mental skills covered in the sessions outside in order to improve performance in your sport:

11. How often did you practice the mental skills covered in the sessions outside in order to improve academic performance:

12. What aspects of the teaching or content were especially good?

13. What changes would you make to improve future sessions?
SELF-ASSESSMENT: MEMORY AND CONCENTRATION (PETRIE & DENSON, 2011, PP. 46-50)

Read the following statements and rate yourself as you generally are (not as you would like to be) with respect to memory and concentration. For you to learn the most about yourself, it is important to be honest in your responses. Answer YES, if the statement is generally true for you, and NO, if it is not.

1. After studying, I can remember the main concepts and important details of the material I have covered.
2. I know what type of studying environment is best for me and seek it out when I study.
3. I am not easily distracted when studying my textbooks and/or my notes.
4. I am familiar with and use memory enhancement techniques to help me better remember course material.
5. I involve multiple senses, including seeing and hearing, in learning and studying.
6. I can tailor my attentional focus to the demands of a given situation or environment.
7. I can identify the primary reasons why I forget information.
8. I understand how sensory, working, and long-term memory work together.
9. I get enough sleep each night so that I am well rested and can focus on my studies.

Take a moment to review your responses. Pay attention to the items to which you responded “Yes”. These are strengths. Next, consider the items to which you responded “No”. These represent areas where focus and growth are needed. Now complete the following statements:
1. Based on the assessment, my areas of strength are:

2. Based on this assessment, the areas in which I need to improve are:

Exercise 3.1 Focus and Concentration

1. Sit quietly, close your eyes, and see how long you can focus on a single thought. When you are finished, answer the following questions:
   a. How long were you able to remain focused on this thought?
   b. If you were only able to stay focused on it for a short period of time, what distracted you?
   c. If you were distracted, were you able to go back to focusing on your thought? If not, why?

2. Look at an object or action photo from your sport. If distracting thoughts enter your mind, bring your attention back to the object or photo. Do not try to actively ignore distractions or focus on them. Instead, just gently bring your attention back to your task.
   a. What was this experience like for you? Describe your thoughts, your feelings, and any physical sensations you experienced.
   b. Were you able to stay focused
   c. If you were distracted, were you able to restore your focus easily? If not, why?

Exercise 3.2: Attentional Focus in your sport
Although one attentional focus may predominate, it is likely that you use all four foci to perform successfully. For each type of focus, identify the situations in which you most likely use it. Also, identify which focus you use most often in your sport.

a. Broad-external
b. Broad-internal
c. Narrow-external
d. Narrow-internal

Exercises 3.3: Attentional Focus in your life

1. In everyday living, you must be able to use each of the four type of attentional focus in order to achieve your goals. In the space below, identify a situation (other than athletics) where you use each type of focusing.

   a. Broad-external
   b. Broad-internal
   c. Narrow-internal
   d. Narrow-external

2. Which style is easiest for you to use?

3. Which style is most difficult for you to use?

4. Many situations require you to shift attention among types of focusing. Describe a recent situation (other than athletics) where you were able to shift successfully between two or more of the styles.
SELF-ASSESSMENT: DIVERSITY AND INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

READ THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS AND RATE YOURSELF, AS YOU GENERALLY ARE (NOT AS YOU WOULD LIKE TO BE) WITH RESPECT TO DIVERSITY AND INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS. FOR YOU TO LEARN THE MOST ABOUT YOURSELF, IT IS IMPORTANT TO BE HONEST IN YOUR RESPONSES. ANSWER YES, IF THE STATEMENT IS GENERALLY TRUE OF YOU, AND NO, IF IT IS NOT.

1. IT IS EASY FOR ME TO COMMUNICATE WITH PEOPLE WHOSE ETHNIC AND CULTURAL BACKGROUNDS OR SEXUAL ORIENTATION IS DIFFERENT FROM MINE.
2. I FEEL COMFORTABLE WITH PEOPLE WHOSE SEXUAL ORIENTATION IS DIFFERENT FROM MINE.
3. I RECOGNIZE THAT PEOPLE FROM ANY SINGLE RACIAL OR ETHNIC GROUP SHARE COMMON CHARACTERISTICS BUT ARE ALSO UNIQUE AND DIFFERENT FROM ONE ANOTHER.
4. I HAVE FRIENDSHIPS WITH PEOPLE FROM A VARIETY OF RACIAL, ETHNIC, AND CULTURAL BACKGROUNDS.
5. IT IS IMPORTANT TO LEARN ABOUT PEOPLE WHOSE RACIAL, ETHNIC, AND CULTURAL BACKGROUNDS ARE DIFFERENT FROM MINE.
6. I can recognize cultural, racial, ethnic, and gender stereotypes when I see them in the media, such as films, TV, and newspapers.

7. I try to understand things from another person’s point of view.

8. I am willing to speak out against racist, sexist, or other prejudiced or stereotypical views expressed by others.

9. I attend or participate in events or other activities that reflect a culture or lifestyle different from mine.

10. I understand that people from racial, ethnic, or cultural groups different from my own may have different values, beliefs, and ways of communicating.

11. I am aware of the values and beliefs of my racial, ethnic, or cultural group.

12. When I interact in a multicultural context, I look for similarities between myself and the other person, yet I also respect the differences that may exist.

Take a moment to review your responses. Pay attention to the items to which you responded “yes”. These are strengths. Next, consider the items to which you responded “no”. These represent areas where focus and growth are needed. Now complete the following statements:

Based on this assessment, my areas of strength are:

Based on this assessment, the areas in which I need to improve are:
EXERCISE 10.6: STEREOTYPES IN YOUR SPORT

1. THINK FOR A MOMENT ABOUT YOUR SPORT. WHAT ARE SOME OF THE STEREOTYPES THAT EXIST?

2. WHAT FACTORS CONTRIBUTE TO THESE STEREOTYPES? DO THEY VARY ALONG RACIAL/ETHNIC LINES? POSITION? SEXUAL ORIENTATION? IN SPORT VS NOT?

JOURNAL ACTIVITY:

WE ARE ALL DIFFERENT AND UNIQUE IN SOME CAPACITY. THINK OF WAYS YOU CAN APPLY DIVERSITY AND INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS TO IMPROVE ACADEMICS, ATHLETICS, AND/OR YOUR PERSONAL LIFE. WRITE THESE IDEAS OUT AND BE PREPARED FOR A BRIEF DISCUSSION THE NEXT SESSION.
**TIME MANAGEMENT MATRIX**
from Stephen Covey’s book “First Things First”

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quadrant of Necessity</th>
<th>Quadrant of Quality &amp; Personal Leadership</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I</strong> (MANAGE)</td>
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<td>Urgent</td>
<td>Not Urgent</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>I</td>
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<td>Quadrant of Quality &amp; Personal Leadership</td>
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- Quadrant of Necessity
- Quadrant of Quality & Personal Leadership
- Quadrant of Deception
- Quadrant of Waste

http://www.orgcoach.net/timematrix.html
October 5, 2006
A Time Management Matrix can help you discover how much time you might be wasting. The Matrix has four quadrants.

**Quadrant 1: Important and Urgent**
Only crisis activities should be in here. If you have included exams and papers here, you are probably not allowing yourself enough time to fully prepare. If you continue at this pace, you could burn yourself out!

**Quadrant 2: Important and Not Urgent.**
This is where you want to spend the most time! This is where you define your priorities. What’s important in your life? What will keep you balanced? This is when you allow yourself time to prepare and plan for projects. For example, you may know that good nutrition, sleep, recreation, and maintaining healthy social relationships are important but do you consciously make time for them in your daily or weekly routine? Managing your life and the lifestyle will help you manage your time.

**Quadrant 3: Not Important and Urgent**
While you may feel that activities, such as instant messaging, need your attention right away, too much time spent on Quadrant 3 activities can seriously reduce valuable study time. This may leave you feeling pulled in too many directions at once.

**Quadrant 4: Not Important and Not Urgent**
If you are spending many hours on Quadrant 4 activities, you’re either having a great deal of fun or spending a lot of time procrastinating! Remember, the objective is balance.
The Time Management Student Matrix

If you have too much to do and not enough time, the time management student matrix will give you more control of your time.

Picture the moment...it is the night before the big exam or a major deadline for an assessment. You are stressed out and cannot believe that you have left this until the last minute. If only I had started earlier! We have all experienced these moments of crises in our academic or personal lives, where there just does not seem to be enough hours in the day to do those things that are important to us.

The time management student matrix will help you to take control of time, feel more confident, become more productive and experience less stress.

By asking what is important in your life and then making time do it, you greatly increase your effectiveness and reduce your stress.

The problem is that sometimes the urgent tasks get in the way or we confuse urgent with important.

Is the task important?

Important tasks for the student are those that are essential for achieving success in your student life. For many this may be spending time studying and working towards an education, maintaining and enhancing your health or sharing time with family and friends.

Activities that are important are those which contribute to your vision and goals. These exist in quadrant one and 2 of the time management student matrix.

Unimportant tasks are things such as surfing the Internet, watching TV or taking unimportant phone calls. Focusing on these tasks can lead to feelings of lack of purpose, as you are not moving towards your goals. These tasks exist in quadrant 3 and 4.

Is the task urgent or not?

Asking this question is likely a good indicator of the amount of stress that you feel as a student. Urgent tasks are those must do tasks that require immediate attention.
They may be an assessment deadline or the study that you must do for tomorrow’s exam. These include tasks in quadrant 1 and 3 of the time management student matrix.

Less urgent tasks are those immediate and usually less stressful and may include watching TV, some phone calls and emails or setting goals and planning your time. These include tasks in quadrants 2 and 4.

**Using the time management student matrix**

An effective student uses their time on things that are most important to them. This means they reside in quadrant 2 for some of their time.

Tasks in quadrant 2 are important but not urgent. For a student they may involve time on readings before lectures, preparation of tutorials, studying this week’s course content or planning your week’s schedule.

By spending your time on quadrant 2 activities, you devote time to important activities before they become urgent.

The problem is that often, as students, we can be dominated by the tyranny of the urgent. This is where urgent things crowd out the important things. This occurs quite easily, can result in more stress, and is a less effective use of your time. For example, some students may procrastinate and put off tasks. It is often easier to watch TV (a quadrant 4 activity) than prepare early for an assignment.

What activities do you do that fall into quadrant 4? These are activities that are not important to your long-term goals and are not urgent. For this reason, they are generally things that we quite enjoy.

Sometimes students suffer from distractions, such as a phone call or a task that comes across your desk. These are urgent - it is very difficult to avoid a ringing phone, regardless of how important an activity you are doing.

Can you think of any urgent but unimportant activities that exist in your quadrant 3?

Often, it is these unimportant activities that are urgent or that we enjoy which crowd out planning, setting goals, preparing for exams and assignments. However, when quadrant 3 and 4 activities crowd out quadrant two activities this is a recipe for stress and burnout.

Why? I hear you say.

Well, those important but not urgent tasks do not go away - this is because they are important. So the longer that you leave your important tasks the more chance they will become urgent. Urgent important tasks are those that create stress.
For example, you can put off studying or preparing for an exam but eventually the stress of a nearing deadline will mean you have to cram the night before. This equals STRESS.

Another example is if you put off doing exercise and looking after your health this will lead to the doctor ordering you to exercise and eat well.

### How can you get more time in quadrant 2?

Therefore, it is obvious that that putting off important tasks leads to greater stress as a student. How can we spend more time in quadrant 2 of the time management student matrix?

Like most students, you are juggling many demands so cutting down on those urgent and things are not an option. However, you cannot continue to "spin your wheels and go nowhere".

You can spend more time in quadrant 2 by:

1. Dropping those things that are not important to you.
2. Use a goal-setting plan that builds upon a foundation of the values and beliefs that are important to you.
3. Know what your timewasters are - once you can identify them (through a time log) then you can beat procrastination, manage interruptions and schedule around them.
4. Develop a semester and weekly plan that focuses on activities that are important to you.
PROGRESSIVE MUSCLE RELAXATION SCRIPT (HTTP://WWW.THE-GUIDED-MEDITATION-SITE.COM/PROGRESSIVE-MUSCLE-RELAXATION-SCRIPT.HTML)

Find yourself a quiet place to relax. Turn off your phone and dim the lights. This is your time...a time for complete and utter relaxation.

For this relaxation, you can either sit or lie down. Just make sure that you are warm enough, and that you are comfortable. Let your hands rest loosely in your lap, or by your side. Now close your eyes.

Become aware of your breathing, and notice how your abdomen rises and falls with each breath...

Now take a long slow deep breath in through your nose, all the way down into your stomach. Hold the breath for just a moment, and then exhale through your mouth. Allow your breath to carry away all stress and tension as the air floods out of your lungs.

Take another slow breath in through your nose. Fill your lungs completely. Hold it for a moment...and release the breath through your mouth. Empty your lungs completely with your out-breath.

Take a third deep breath in. Hold it for a moment, and then let it go.

Feel that your body has already undergone a change. The tension in your body has begun to loosen and subside.

Now let your breathing rhythm return to normal...and relax....

During this relaxation I will ask you to tense various muscles throughout your body. Please do this without straining. You do not need to exert yourself, just contract each muscle firmly but gently as you breathe in. If you feel uncomfortable at any time, you can simply relax and breathe normally.

Bring your awareness to your feet and toes. Breathe in deeply through your nose, and as you do, gradually curl your toes down and tense the muscles in the soles of your feet. Hold your breath for just a few seconds and then release the muscles in your feet as you breathe out. Feel the tension in your feet wash away as you exhale. Notice how different your feet feel when tensed and when they are relaxed.

Take another deep breath in again, tense the muscles in the soles of your feet and hold this position for a few seconds.

Now release. Feel yourself relaxing more and more deeply with each breath. Your whole body is becoming heavier, softer and more relaxed as each moment passes.
Now bring your awareness to your lower legs...to your calf muscles. As you draw in a nice deep breath, point your toes up towards your knees and tighten these muscles. Hold for just a moment, and then let those muscles go limp as you exhale.

Once again, draw in a deep breath...and tighten your calf muscles. Hold for a few seconds, and then let it all go. Feel your muscles relax, and feel the tension washing away with your out-breath.

In a moment, you will tense the muscles in the front of your thighs. If you are lying down, you can do this by trying to straighten your legs. You will feel the muscles pulling your kneecap upwards. If you are seated, you can tense these muscles by pushing your heels down onto the floor.

Take a deep breath in, and tense the muscles in your thighs. Hold for just a moment, and then release everything. As you do this, the blood flow to your muscles increases and you may notice a warm tingling sensation. Enjoy this feeling of soothing relaxation in your thighs.

Again, breathe in deeply and tighten your thigh muscles. Hold for a moment. Now release. Focus on letting your muscles go limp and loose.

Draw in a nice deep breath and gradually tighten the muscles in your buttocks. Hold this contraction for a few seconds, and then release your breath. Feel the tension leaving your muscles. Feel them relaxing completely.

Once more, breathe in deeply and tighten the muscles in your buttocks. Hold for a moment. Now release them. You are becoming more and more deeply relaxed.

Take another breath, and this time, gradually tighten all the muscles in your legs, from your feet to your buttocks. Do this in whatever way feels natural and comfortable to you. Hold it...and now release all these large strong muscles. Enjoy the sensation of release as you become even more deeply relaxed.

Now bring your awareness to your stomach. Draw in a nice deep breath and then tighten these muscles. Imagine you are trying to touch your belly button to your spine. Now release your breath and let your muscles relax. Notice the sensation of relief that comes from letting go.

Once again, draw in a deep breath and then tighten your stomach muscles. Hold for a few seconds... and then let them relax as you exhale and release all tension.

Bring your awareness to the muscles in your back. As you, slowly breathe in, arch your back slightly and tighten these muscles...Now release your breath and let your muscles relax.

Again, draw in a deep breath and then tighten your back muscles. Hold for a few seconds...and then let them relax and release.
Now give your attention to your shoulder muscles and the muscles in your neck. As you slowly draw in a nice deep breath, pull your shoulders up towards your ears and squeeze these muscles firmly. Now breathe out completely, and allow your contracted muscles to go loose and limp.

Again, pull your shoulders up towards your ears and squeeze these muscles firmly.

Now feel the tension subside as you relax and breathe out.

Feel the heaviness in your body now. Enjoy the feeling. Feel yourself becoming heavier and heavier. Feel yourself becoming more and more deeply relaxed.

You are calm, secure, at peace.

Now it is time to let go of all the tension in your arms and hands. Let’s start with your upper arms.

As you breathe in, raise your wrists towards your shoulders and tighten the muscles in your upper arms. Hold that breath and that contraction for just a moment..., then gently lower your arms, and breathe all the way out. You may feel a warm, burning sensation in your muscles when you tighten them. Feel how relaxing it is to release that tightness and to breathe away all tension.

As you curl your upper arms again, tighten the muscles as you breathe in. Breathe in deeply. Now relax your arms and breathe out.

Now bring your awareness to your forearms. As you breathe in, curl your hands inwards as though you are trying to touch the inside of your elbows with your fingertips. Now feel the tension subside as you relax and breathe out.

Again, take a deep breath in, and tighten the muscles in your forearms. Hold it for a moment, and then release them. Feel the tension washing away.

Now, take another breath in and tightly clench your fists. When you have finished breathing in, hold for just a few seconds, and then release. Notice any feelings of buzzing or throbbing. Your hands are becoming very soft and relaxed.

Take another deep breath in and clench your fists again. Hold for just a few seconds, and then release. Let your fingers go limp.

Your arms and hands are feeling heavy and relaxed.

Take a couple of nice long slow breaths now, and just relax. Feel yourself slipping even deeper into a state of complete rest.

Now tighten the muscles in your face by squeezing your eyes shut and clenching your lips together. As you do, breathe in fully. Hold it...now breathe out and relax all your facial muscles. Feel your face softening.
Once more, breathe in deeply while you scrunch the muscles in your eyes and lips...and release.

Now bring your awareness to the muscles in your jaw. Take a deep breath in, and then open your mouth as wide as you can. Feel your jaw muscles stretching and tightening. Now exhale and allow your mouth to gently close.

Again, fill your lungs with air and then open your mouth wide. Now let your mouth relax and let your breath flood all the way out.

You are now completely relaxed from the tips of your toes to the top of your head.

Please take a few more minutes to rest. Relax. Listen to the sound of your breathing and enjoy the lovely, warm sensation of physical relaxation. If you have the time, feel free to fall asleep. You will wake feeling completely rejuvenated and relaxed.
Prompts for Q&A session for freshmen student-athletes

(1) What were some difficulties you faced as a freshman and how did you cope with this transition?

(2) In hindsight, what is one thing that you wish you would have known coming in as a freshmen student athlete?

(3) What have been the most important factors to help the transition period be easier?

(4) Talk about the degree of social support, effective time management, and goal setting in your personal journey.

(5) What was the biggest obstacle faced in your transition to college? How did you overcome that?
LEARNING TO SHIFT YOUR ATTENTION

ASSESSING YOURSELF

IN ADDITION TO DETERMINING THE ATTENTIONAL DEMANDS OF YOUR SPORT, IT ALSO IMPORTANT TO ASSESS YOUR OWN ATTENTIONAL STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES. ONE WAY TO DO THIS IS TO CONSIDER THE CRITICAL SITUATIONS THAT ARE MOST PROBLEMATIC FOR YOU. IT MAY BE FOR EXAMPLE WHY YOU’RE (RELATE TO SOMETHING WITHIN SPORT THAT HAPPENS DUE TO A LACK OF CONCENTRATION) BECAUSE YOUR ATTENTION IS NOT ON EXTERNAL EVENTS, BUT RATHER INTERNAL EVENTS, SUCH AS HOW BAD YOU’RE HURTING. ASSESSING YOUR CONCENTRATION STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES CAN HELP YOU DETERMINE WHAT KIND OF EXERCISES TO EMPLOY WHEN YOU NEED THE MOST. WHEN ASSESSING YOUR CONCENTRATION, CONSIDER THESE AS COMMON SOURCES OF DISTRACTIONS:

- RUMINATING OVER PAST MISTAKES INSTEAD OF FOCUSING ON THE PRESENT
- WORRYING ABOUT WHAT MAY HAPPEN IN THE FUTURE
- OVER-ANALYZING BODY MECHANICS OR TECHNIQUE DURING COMPETITION
- LETTING YOUR MIND WANDER BECAUSE YOU ARE BORED OR UNMOTIVATED
- FOCUSING ON HOW MUCH YOU HURT RATHER THAN WHAT YOU DO NEXT
• PAYING ATTENTION TO SPECTATORS
• GETTING DISTRACTED BY CHEERS, BOOS, OR OTHER NOISES
• LETTING ANOTHER COMPETITOR “GET INSIDE YOUR HEAD”

These sources can be internal or external. Rate the following questions on a scale of 0 = NEVER, 1 = SOMETIMES, 2 = ALMOST, AND 3 = ALWAYS (USOC, 2002)

I OFTEN USE CUE WORDS OR TRIGGERS TO KEEP ME FOCUSED ON MY PERFORMANCE

I KNOW WHAT I NEED TO DO TO GET IN THE RIGHT MIND TO COMPETE

I JUMP FROM ONE SPOT TO ANOTHER OR ONE TASK TO ANOTHER WITHOUT LOSING MY TRAIN OF THOUGHT

IF A COMPETITION OR PRACTICE GETS INTO OVERTIME, MY LEVEL OF INTENSITY AND CONCENTRATION REMAIN CONSTANT

I AM VERY GOOD AT ANTICIPATING AND RESPONDING TO OPPONENTS’ ACTIONS

I CAN PUT ASIDE NON-SPORT RELATED THOUGHTS WHEN TRAINING AND COMPETING

THERE ARE TIMES WHEN I GET SO ABSORBED IN WHAT I’M DOING THAT I DON’T NOTICE ANYTHING ELSE THAT’S GOING ON AROUND ME DURING BREAKS IN PLAY I CAN RELAX AND RECOVER, BUT WHEN I AM COMPETING I AM “COMPLETELY IN THE MOMENT”
I DO NOT GET CONFUSED OR FLUSTERED WHEN A LOT OF
DIFFERENT THINGS ARE GOING ON AT ONCE, LIKE PEOPLE SPEAKING AT
ONE TIME, OR WHEN I NEED TO MAKE A TURN AT A BUSY CONGESTED
INTERSECTION

SCORING: 12-18 EXCELLENT, 6-11 GOOD, 0-5 NEEDS IMPROVEMENT
Participant 1: LSTS (Meeting and Greeting)

Participant 2: LSTS (Meeting and Greeting)
Figure 1. Participants’ scores on the Life Skills Transfer Survey meeting and greeting subscale. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Figure 2. Participants’ scores on the Life Skills Transfer Survey subscale managing emotions. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Figure 3. Participants’ scores on the Life Skills Transfer Survey subscale goal setting. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Figure 4. Participants’ scores on the subscale resolving conflict. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Figure 5. Participants’ scores on the Life Skills Transfer Survey subscale making healthy choices. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Figure 6. Participants’ scores on the Life Skills Transfer Survey subscale appreciating differences. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Participant 1: LSTS (Getting Help from others)

Score

4.2
4.15
4.1
4.05
4
3.95
3.9
3.85
3.8
3.7
3.65
3.6
3.55
3.5
3.45
3.4

Days

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

Participant 2: LSTS (Getting help from others)

Score

4.15
4.1
4
3.95
3.9
3.85
3.8
3.75
3.7
3.65
3.6
3.55
3.5
3.45
3.4

Day

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
Figure 7. Participants’ scores on the Life Skills Transfer Survey subscale getting help from others. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Figure 8. Participants' scores on the Life Skills Transfer Survey subscale helping others. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Figure 9. Participants’ scores on the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire academic subscale. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Figure 10. Participants’ scores on the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire social subscale. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Figure 11. Participants’ scores on the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire personal-emotional subscale. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Figure 12. Participants' scores on the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire attachment subscale. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Figure 13. Participants’ scores on the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire full scale. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Figure 14. Participants’ scores on the College Self Efficacy Inventory course efficacy subscale. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Figure 15. Participants’ scores on The College Self-Efficacy Inventory roommate subscale. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
Figure 16. Participants’ scores on The College Self-Efficacy Inventory social subscale. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.
FIGURE 17

Participant 1: CSE-I (social integration)

Participant 2: CSE-I (social integration)
Figure 17. Participants’ scores on The College Self-Efficacy Inventory social integration subscale. Vertical red lines show the changes from the intervention to baseline phase, and the baseline phase back to the second intervention phase. The horizontal green lines depict the mean for each phase.