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EXAMINING THE MOTIVATIONS AND BENEFITS OF STUDENT-ATHLETES
PERFORMING COMMUNITY SERVICE

By

Matthew Ryan Huml
B. S., Grand Valley State University, 2009
M. Ed., Grand Valley State University, 2011

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Faculty of the
College of Education and Human Development of the University of Louisville
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
in Educational Leadership and Organizational Development

College of Education and Human Development
University of Louisville
Louisville, Kentucky

May 2016

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A Dissertation Approved on

April 15, 2016

by the following Dissertation Committee:

Dissertation Co-Chair, Mary A. Hums

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Committee Member, Namok Choi

Committee Member, Mathew J. Bergman

Committee Member, Brad Shuck

DEDICATION

For my parents, Dan and Kathy

I've come a long way from wanting my career pursuit to be the Easter Bunny

For my wife, Erin

We did this together

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As a special thank you to Dr. John Kilbourne, the most talented teacher I have ever witnessed as a student, this dissertation will forever function as my Mandala of Glory. I want to thank my mentor at Grand Valley State, Dr. Dana Munk, who supported my initial interest in pursuing a PhD and becoming a future faculty member. At the time I was still very much an “athlete first, student second”, but her vision allowed her to see my potential. Betty Schaner and Destiny Wallace, who supervised me as a graduate assistant in academic advising and provided the exact amount of latitude and direction I needed to allow me to grow, helping mold a former athlete who only focused on practice schedules to a well prepared academic counselor. Jamia Stokes, Jana Spitzer, Dr. Demetrius Richmond, and Laura Stetler were also instrumental to welcoming me to the University of Tennessee and introducing me to some great people in the Knoxville area. I also want to thank my current boss, Dr. Margaret Pentecost, for believing in me by allowing me to pursue this degree, promoting me to Assistant Director of Undergraduate Advising, and trusting my judgment with any project or decision I made with good intentions; your words of support always seem to come at the exact right time.

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ABSTRACT

EXAMINING THE MOTIVATIONS AND BENEFITS OF STUDENT-ATHLETES PERFORMING COMMUNITY SERVICE

Matthew Ryan Huml

April 15th, 2016

With over 460,000 active student-athletes (NCAA, n.d.), the student sub-population is large enough to investigate potential options for institutions to increase their academic achievement. Additionally, participating in academic-related activities is especially important because of concerns about student-athletes spending more than the 20 hours per week the NCAA allows for working on their sport (Wolverton, 2008). Studies frequently highlight a lack of effort by student-athletes to adjust to academic opportunities and expectations within higher education (Adler & Adler, 1991; Lally & Kerr, 2005; Levine, Etchison, & Oppenheimer, 2014; Miller & Kerr, 2003). To combat this adjustment to higher education, community service has shown the ability for students to develop academically after their service experience (Astin & Sax, 1998).

The primary purposes of this study were threefold: to examine (a) the motivation of student-athletes to perform community service, (b) the benefits they receive from community service, and (c) the association of their level of athletic identity with the student-athletes' motivation and benefits received.

Five hundred and forty-six participants from 17 different NCAA Division I/II/III institutions completed the survey. After making theoretically acceptable adjustments to the measurement model, an acceptable model fit was achieved (CMIN/df = 4.114, CFI = .954, GFI = .951, AGFI = .916, RMSEA = .076). Also, all factor loadings were above the .50 threshold recommended by Kline (2011) for large factor loadings for CFA. Participant results confirmed the first hypothesis (Standardized Direct Effect = .840, $p < .001$) from the structural model results. As stated previously, this means for every 1 standard deviation increase in CSM, there was a corresponding increase in CSB by .840 standard deviations. Contrary, the participant results did not confirm the second (Standardized Direct Effect = .064, $p = .226$) and third hypothesis (Standardized Direct Effect = -.043, $p = .207$) from the structural model.

This study's findings provide further insight into the relationship between Astin's (1984) Student Involvement Theory and the athletic academic experience, in addition to valuable insight for athletic administrators and coaches for supporting student-athletes to perform community service.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Student-Athlete Experience

Universities are invested in assisting their students as they pursue their degrees. Additionally, universities are also devoted to helping their students develop while they are in college. This development varies from improved written and oral communication skills, broadened understanding of diversity, improved problem-solving skills, connecting with the local community, confidence in performing a successful job interview, and countless other skills. Universities attempt to create an environment where these improvements can occur organically, facilitated by a combination of well-trained staff, renowned faculty, and supportive policies crafted by administration. The challenge becomes whether this support structure can provide the necessary help for every student at the university, regardless of his or her undergraduate experience. Unfortunately, research into the academic experience of one particular group of students - student-athletes - suggests they often face a more difficult time acclimating to higher education, raising questions about their ability to develop academically while simultaneously pursuing their athletic goals.

Academic Challenges

Universities set guidelines for admission with hopes that students are prepared for the increased academic rigor of higher education (The Coalition on Intercollegiate Athletics, 2005). Universities create programming and/or support systems assuming their students had the necessary academic skills to meet the school's admission standards. While university administrators set guidelines for students to be admitted into the institution, they have been known to make exceptions based on out-of-classroom abilities possessed by an individual student (Gurney & Stuart, 1987). One of the skills shown to improve a student's admission chance is his/her athletic ability (Benford, 2007; Gurney & Stuart, 1987). The frequency of student-athletes falling short of university admission policies is potentially connected to their previous education support system pushing them to develop their athletic abilities at the expense of their academic development (Comeaux, Speer, Taustin, & Harrison, 2011).

Once student-athletes receive an admission exemption, they are forced to accelerate their academic development in order to meet National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) eligibility requirements and maintain the expected academic pace to graduate within four years. This forced acceleration requires student-athletes to accept a heavier load of academic responsibilities than they may be able to manage (Eitzen & Sage, 1997). Additionally, this forced acceleration comes during one of the most difficult academic times for student-athletes, their first year in college.

Student-athletes facing the challenges of acclimating to heightened expectations athletically and academically have reported feeling overwhelmed in balancing their obligations (Clift & Mower, 2013). Many first-year student-athletes prioritize athletics over academics (Lally & Kerr, 2005), leading to them ignore a multitude of opportunities to develop academically. As student-athletes become upper-level students, they often regret their lack of commitment toward their academics in their first year (Hardin & Pate, 2013). Universities frequently offer programming to first-year students in an effort to help their transition from high school to college but student-athletes frequently do not take advantage of those programs (Evans, Forney, Guido-DiBrito, Patton, & Renn, 2009). This choice requires junior and senior student-athletes to commit even more time to the various academic opportunities they ignored when they were younger. While this change in academic perspective is refreshing, the premise of trying to make up for lost time may not result in the academic development they need to be successful in completing their degree programs or in their careers following their graduation.

The internal debate student-athletes experience when weighing the importance of athletics and academics can be moderated by the strength of a student-athlete's athletic identity. Many student-athletes view themselves as athletes-first, students-second (Woodruff & Schallert, 2008). This strong athletic identity often intensifies when student-athletes enter college, as researchers have shown athletic identity peaks during the first year of college (Lally & Kerr, 2005; Potuto & O'Hanlon, 2007).

A student-athlete with a strong athletic identity is likely to choose participating in an athletic activity at the expense of an academic activity. Recent research has shown student-athletes with a strong athletic identity are at-risk of under-developing their academic skills (Bimper, 2014; Lally & Kerr, 2005; Watson, 2007; Woodruff & Schallert, 2008), leaving college without a degree (Lally & Kerr, 2005), having stunted career optimism (Linnemeyer & Brown, 2010), and experiencing increased risks of being ineligible by NCAA regulations (Yopyk & Prentice, 2005). Designing programming to combat an elevated athletic identity is problematic, as career intervention programming has not been shown to make statistically significant differences for student-athletes with elevated athletic identities (Murdock, Strear, Jenkins-Guarnieri, & Henderson, 2014).

Athletic departments are aware of the gaps between a student-athlete's academic responsibilities and his/her willingness to fulfill them (Orleans, 2013). The NCAA provides yearly funding to Division I athletic departments to assist the academic advisers and supplement the academic programming available for student-athletes (NCAA, 2013). This funding has led to an explosion of specialized athletic academic support services, raising questions about their relevancy (Wolverton, 2008). The greatest concern is student-athletes becoming overly reliant on their athletic academic advisers to make decisions for them related to their course or major selection (Clift & Mower, 2013). An athletic department would benefit from controlling the course selection of its student-athletes to avoid NCAA eligibility issues. On the other hand, this lack of decision-making by student-athletes

can negatively impact their academic development (Burns, Jasinski, Dunn, & Fletcher, 2013; Hardin & Pate, 2013; McPherson, 2013).

Alternative motives may arise for the courses athletic department personnel choose for student-athletes. One possibility is a student-athlete changing his/her major to one popular with other student-athletes to conform to the time commitments required by intercollegiate athletics (Capriccioso, 2006; Fountain & Finley, 2009; 2011). Research has shown this clustering within specific majors likely occurs because the student-athletes are conforming to advice from their coaches or other athletic department personnel (Capriccioso, 2006). Student-athletes transitioning to a major for these reasons exhibit decreased academic development and lower levels of earning power following graduation (Sanders & Hildenbrand, 2010).

With each of the above-mentioned actions negatively affecting student-athlete academic development, stereotypes related to their inability to be academically successful have developed. A majority of non-athlete students perceive student-athletes as being lazy, dumb, frequently partying, or avoiding studying (Lawrence, Harrison, & Stone, 2009). Student-athletes have also self-reported believing some faculty members dislike athletes. Student-athletes believe their final grades have been negatively impacted by these stereotypes (Lawrence et al., 2009). One study found even if a student-athlete is an academic high-performer, s/he could be negatively impacted by general academic stereotypes of student-athletes (Yopyk & Prentice, 2005). Student-athletes could hear faculty members publicly express

this stereotype, further eroding their emphasis on academics (Yopyk & Prentice, 2005).

Student-athletes face a litany of challenges potentially undermining their academic development in college. Some challenges are inherently part of being a student-athlete, while others spring from a negative environment created by the athletic department, fellow students, or university personnel. These experiences highlight the importance of student-athletes needing to be exposed to opportunities to foster their academic development. Luckily for student-athletes, universities have designed programming to nurture their academic development. Unfortunately, this programming has proven to be inadequate to meet the concerns and challenges of student-athletes (Clift & Mower, 2013; Huml, 2011; Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2013). There is a need to help student-athletes connect with activities known to improve their academic development. One such activity known to improve academic development is community service (Astin & Sax, 1998). While there is literature supporting this notion for the general student body, scant research has been done to illustrate its connection with student-athletes or intercollegiate athletics.

Community Service

People working in higher education have always encouraged students to develop citizenship (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996; Lawry, Laurison, and VanAntwerpen, 2006). For many universities, the goal of developing citizenship within their students has become a fixture in the universities' mission statements (Johnson, Levy, Cichetti, & Zinkiewicz, 2013) and publically mentioned goals (Einfield &

Collins, 2008). While universities are motivated to highlight community service opportunities to their students in an effort to develop their academic skills, the institutions can also reap their own rewards. Regional accreditation organizations have recently begun examining community engagement as part of their renewal examination (Jacoby, 2009). Community service also increases the universities' footprints within their own local community, showing they are willing partners to improve their surrounding environment (Bingle & Hatcher, 1996). With universities earning benefits from their students performing community service, they have additional motivation to push their students to perform community service.

Community Service and College Students

A large majority of college students perform community service, with one study finding 71 percent of college students volunteered by their senior year (Franke, Ruiz, Sharkness, DeAngelo, & Pryor, 2010). Their participation has also been shown to be more than fleeting, with one study finding students spent an average of 2.5 hours performing community service every week (Sullivan, Ludden, & Singleton Jr., 2013), while another found freshmen and juniors were equally willing to perform community service (Griffith, 2010). College students have also shown a willingness to volunteer in almost any community service organization setting (Astin & Sax, 1998), including education, public safety, religious-based, civic awareness, economic development, health issues, and many others (Astin & Sax; Berger & Miler, 2002; Johnson et al., 2013).

Community service organizations (CSO) are also eager to recruit college students as volunteers. CSOs view college students as the “life blood” of their organizations, vital support personnel who can connect to their organizations’ missions and recruit the younger generation toward their cause (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003; Svensson, Huml, & Hancock, 2014). College students are also very willing to perform more menial jobs, freeing up full-time employees to pursue other tasks (Blouin & Perry, 2009).

With so many college students performing community service yearly, it is surprising researchers have questioned whether higher education institutions have a positive association with increasing community service participation (Avalos, Sax, & Astin, 1999; Johnson et al., 2013). Part of it may be timing, as performing community service in high school is the strongest predictor of future volunteering (Sax, 2004). One study found 97 percent of students enrolled in a first-year college course had already performed community service before starting their college degree work (Gage III & Thapa, 2012). Another issue is long-term impact. Students who perform community service in college often cease their service involvement once they complete their degree (Johnson et al., 2013).

CSOs also yearn for a better relationship with higher education institutions. Complaints have been made about the lack of communication between universities and CSOs, especially regarding stipulations such as course requirements to acquire student volunteers (Blouin & Perry, 2009). Additionally, CSOs seem to have bypassed the universities’ preferred lines of communication and created their own

contacts with university personnel (Svensson et al., 2014). Other CSOs have questioned universities' willingness to prepare their students for working with underprivileged populations, managing time, and missing classes (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003). The most concerning perspective from CSOs is their belief that institutions do not sufficiently inform their students of the benefits of performing community service (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003). With universities possessing ample resources to highlight the benefits and potentially advocating for their students to perform community service, concern exists on whether the student population is being under-utilized (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003).

Motivations for Community Service

Understanding the motives of college students to perform community service will allow university personnel to more accurately promote volunteering with their student population (Batson, Ahman, & Tsang, 2002) and achieve the institution's mission (Andrassy & Bruening, 2012). While college students report many different motivations, the opportunity to help others has often been reported as the most frequently mentioned motivation (Astin & Sax, 1998; Einfield & Collins, 2008; Serow, 1991). Serow (1991) also reported motivations of involvement through clubs, activities, or classes, and a calling to repair societal problems. Another study reported college students perform community service for career interests, seizing a social niche, and the desire to maintain an active schedule (MacNeela & Gannon, 2014). Gage III and Thapa (2012) found students were motivated by wanting to help the less fortunate, dedication towards a specific cause, and the desire for a new perspective as motivations to perform community service.

Clary, Snyder, and other corresponding authors completed multiple studies investigating the motivations for college students to participate in community service (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1992; Clary et al., 1998). Their reported motivations include values (i.e. importance of helping others), understanding (i.e. understanding the people they are helping), career (i.e. exploring job opportunities), social (i.e. influence of friends, family, or social group), esteem (i.e. to improve their confidence), and protective (i.e. to relieve unpleasant issues in their life) (Clary et al., 1992). These studies have been cited in subsequent research investigating community service motivations (Boettger, 2007; Finkelstein, 2008).

Student-athletes have reported similar motivations to perform community service as their student peers. For example, student-athletes also reported their most important motivational factor was helping others (Chalk, 2008). Chalk also reported motivations of being asked to volunteer, social responsibility, intrinsic reward, career experience, and participation in a group. One study found student-athletes were more motivated by religious reasons than general college students (Boettger, 2007). Boettger (2007) found athletes were less motivated to perform community service by feelings of guilt, creating new friendships, and gaining career experience than non-athlete college students. Another unique motivation for student-athletes was their reported feelings of obligation to perform community service because of their athlete status (Chalk, 2008).

College students, and student-athletes, possess an assortment of motivations to perform community service. Capturing these motivations would allow

universities to more effectively market their community engagement opportunities to their student population. That said, motivation is only one portion of the potential marketing strategies universities can utilize to help their students decide to perform community service. Even though a volunteer's intention may be directed toward helping someone in need, community service also provides benefits to the participants.

Benefits of Community Service

Even though many college students pursue community service to help others, they also receive countless benefits from their community service participation. Most students feel instant satisfaction from performing community service (Gallini & Moely, 2003), with one study finding almost 90 percent of community service participants feeling at least "somewhat satisfied" (Primavera, 1999). Out-of-class experiences such as service learning and community service have been found to be the activities most positively associated with a student's academic development (Greene, Marti, & McClenney, 2008; Kuh, 1995). Expanding beyond academic development, Astin and Sax (1998) found community service improved a student's civic responsibility and life skills development, in addition to academic development. Astin and Sax found academic development benefits, including increased college grade point average (GPA), higher aspirations for educational degrees, increased general knowledge, increased field or discipline knowledge, preparation for graduate school, increased academic self-concept, extra work done for courses, and higher amount of contact with faculty. Researchers have found students providing further details on the benefits they experienced from their

community service experience. These benefits include deeper understanding of cultural diversity (Einfield & Collins, 2008), involvement in politics (Youniss & Yates, 1997), creating business connections (Eyler & Giles, 1999), additional clarity in choosing their intended career (Taylor & Pancer, 2007), improved time management skills (MacNeela & Gannon, 2014), and enhanced interpersonal skills (Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000).

College students who perform community service were also more likely to perform community service again in the future (Griffith, 2010). This association between past and future intentions of community service is not impacted by the quality of the experience (Knapp, Fisher, & Levesque-Bristol, 2010). These findings are important for university personnel, showing they must be more willing to connect their students with community service opportunities and less concerned about them experiencing a bad community service situation.

Student-athletes are also able to benefit from participating in community service (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013). Jarvie and Paule-Koba (2013) found student-athletes received many of the same benefits as general students, but also developed their leadership skills, improved their relationships with coaches and teammates, became aware of the importance of supporting their local community, and appreciated the opportunities available to them as athletes. Many of these benefits are unique to the student-athlete experience, therefore highlighting opportunities for athletic departments to prioritize involvement in community service with their student-athletes. Another study found student-athletes participating in social-cause

community service reported stronger feelings of social responsibility and civic duty than athletes participating in nonsocial-cause community service (Boettger, 2007). Boettger (2007) reported how this new social awareness allowed student-athletes to connect their athletic accomplishments with their local area and the needs of their local community. The benefits reaped by performing community service are especially important for student-athletes because of research raising concerns of student-athletes not becoming acclimated to academic-related activities (Bell, 2009; Gaston-Gayles & Hu, 2009; Miller & Kerr, 2003). Understanding these benefits would allow university personnel to more accurately market the academic benefits and development student-athletes may reap from participating in community service.

Universities can also increase the benefits for college students by allowing time for them to reflect on their experience (Primavera, 1999). A time of reflection allows students to decide how their experience will influence their personal goals, values, and attitudes (Bryant, Gaston Gayles, & Davis, 2012). When former volunteers reflected back on previous community service they performed, they believed it was still positively impacting their life (Jones & Abes, 2004). Jones and Abes found former participants believed their past community service experience led them to be more open to ideas and unfamiliar cultures than previously.

Summary

As discussed, college students obtain many benefits from performing community service (Astin & Sax, 1998; Primavera, 1999). On the other hand,

universities often inadequately communicate these benefits to their students (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003), or fail to build connections with CSOs (Svensson et al., 2014). Additionally, as mentioned previously, student-athletes experience challenges participating in opportunities that could foster their academic development (Lally & Kerr, 2005; Miller & Kerr, 2003). Research has also shown athletic departments have recently expanded academic support services offered exclusively for student-athletes (Wolverton, 2008). This recent expanded support could potentially help student-athletes connect with opportunities such as community service to aid with their academic development. With potentially more resources to help student-athletes connect to academic opportunities, what approach will athletic department and university personnel employ to create this connection?

Student Involvement Theory

Scholars with an expertise in the field of sociology have examined potential theories explaining the experience of college student development for over a century (Evans et al., 2009). These theories have advanced from connecting student characteristics to career outlets (Parsons, 1909), the balance of challenge and support faced by college students (Sanford, 1967), the transformation of a student's identity throughout college (Chickering, 1969), and examining student learning style (Kolb, 1984). This theoretical advancement highlights the progression into more complex and comprehensive student development theories over time.

At the time Astin introduced the Student Involvement Theory (1984), he believed the field had become congested and conflicting, needing a fresh perspective on the best way to help students develop academically while in college. Astin believed universities were casting so many educational opportunities toward their students that it was very difficult for students to sift through them to choose the best available activity (Astin, 1984). He also was concerned about previous theories that viewed students as passive learners, with the university playing the active participant role (Astin, 1985). Astin viewed previous theories as disregarding college students' varying time availability, believing that providing their students with more opportunities than they could achieve would be the best solution to ensure they stay academically active (Astin, 1984). He believed administrators needed to be cognizant of the most effective activities to foster student academic development. Additionally, they need to play a supplementary role in their students' involvement in activities, not the primary role (Astin, 1984). Lastly, Astin believed administrators needed to be vigilant with student academic policy and its interaction with student involvement, specifically crafting policy to potentially help students connect with activities assisting in their academic development.

To combat these shortcomings, Astin introduced Student Involvement Theory (1984). The premise of Student Involvement Theory is that student involvement is paramount to student development. Student Involvement Theory has five basic postulates:

1. Involvement refers to the investment of physical and psychological energy in various objects.
2. Regardless of its object, involvement occurs along a continuum
3. Involvement has both quantitative and qualitative features
4. The amount of student learning and personal development associated with any education program is directly proportional to the quality and quantity of student involvement in that program
5. The effectiveness of any educational policy or practice is directly related to the capacity of that policy or practice to increase student involvement (Astin, 1984, p. 298)

Astin's focus viewed the student's available time as a limited resource. This limited time availability not only constrains the activities students are able to participate in, but also limits the time they can expend gathering information describing their university's available activities. Concerns about time availability connects with research on the academic experience of student-athletes (Hardin & Pate, 2013). Student-athletes are flooded with countless athletic obligations, leaving them with an extremely limited window to pursue academic opportunities (Lally & Kerr, 2005). Additionally, recently researchers within the sport management field have applied Student Involvement Theory (Andrassy, Bruening, Svensson, Huml, & Chung, 2014; Huml, Hancock, & Bergman, 2014; Weight, Navarro, Huffman, & Smith-Ryan 2014) as their theoretical framework.

Student Involvement Theory (Astin, 1984) allows students to take an active role in their academic development. Student Involvement Theory deems the institution needs to provide support in a supplementary role to the student's development. Universities can accomplish Astin's goal by highlighting potential developmental opportunities available to students (e.g. community service) and helping them connect with outside constituents.

Purpose of the Study

The researcher initiated this study to seek answers for the following fundamental questions: (a) How often do student-athletes perform community service? (b) What motivates them to perform community service?, and (c) What benefits do they extract from their community service experience? Researchers have examined the association between college students and performing community service. There are limited studies examining the interaction between student-athletes and their involvement in community service.

The primary purposes of this study were threefold: to examine (a) the motivation of student-athletes to perform community service, (b) the benefits they receive from community service, and (c) the association of their level of athletic identity with the student-athletes' motivation and benefits received.

Significance of the Study

With over 460,000 active student-athletes (NCAA, n.d.), the student sub-population is large enough to investigate potential options for institutions to increase their academic achievement. Additionally, participating in academic-

related activities is especially important because of concerns about student-athletes spending more than the 20 hours per week the NCAA allows for working on their sport (Wolverton, 2008). One recent article indicated some student-athletes spend over 40 hours a week in sport-related activities (Wolverton, 2014). Studies frequently highlight a lack of effort by student-athletes to adjust to academic opportunities and expectations within higher education (Adler & Adler, 1991; Lally & Kerr, 2005; Levine, Etchison, & Oppenheimer, 2014; Miller & Kerr, 2003). With researchers showing performing community service is an opportunity for students to develop academically (Astin & Sax, 1998), it is important to examine (a) the relationship between student-athletes and community service and (b) the frequency with which student-athletes take part in community service.

This study was significant for many reasons. Since Astin's Student Involvement Theory (1984) focused on two issues related to student-athlete academic issues (time availability and university support toward academic-related activities), applying the theory to student-athletes has strong merits. First, there is limited research applying Student Involvement Theory in studies involving student-athletes (Huml et al., 2014; Weight et al., 2014). There is a need to further apply Student Involvement Theory in studies examining student-athletes in their academic experience. Because Student Involvement Theory can improve the academic development of student-athletes (Astin, 1984), athletic departments would benefit from a better understanding of the theory's relevance with student-athletes.

Second, there is a robust amount of research examining the demographics and background information associated with college students performing community service (Astin, 1984; Berger & Milem, 2002; Johnson et al., 2013; Sax, 2004). Unfortunately, this line of research includes only a limited number of peer-reviewed studies examining student-athletes' association with community service (Huml, Svensson, & Hancock, 2014; Svensson et al., 2014). While some studies have included student-athletes within a larger pool of study participants (Astin, 1984; Primavera, 1999), no studies have directly examined the interaction between student-athlete demographics and background information and their volunteerism.

Third, researchers have already examined the motivations and benefits of college students performing community service (Astin & Sax, 1998; Brisbin & Hunter, 2003; MacNeela & Gannon, 2014; Taylor & Pancer, 2007; Wilson & Musick, 1999). Even with a strong base of literature examining the vast differences between student-athletes and the general college student population regarding their undergraduate academic experience, there is limited research on the motivations and benefits experienced by student-athletes performing community service (Chalk, 2008). There is a need to further explore what motivates student-athletes to perform community service activities and the benefits they receive from doing so. Understanding these motivations is important because it would allow university personnel to tailor their community service programming to fit the interests of their students. Additionally, with research indicating a relationship between motivations to perform community service and the benefits received from performing

community service, university personnel could target specific motivations to increase the likelihood of students receiving the most satisfying benefits.

The findings from the current study provided insight into the differences and similarities between student-athletes and other college students regarding their behaviors related to community service. This information would help university and athletic department personnel more accurately disseminate information to their student-athletes on community service opportunities. It also would allow them to identify those student-athletes less likely to perform community service, with the possibility of offering programming to increase their interest in activities that will aid in their academic development. Additionally, it will allow the opportunity to examine any differences perceived by student-athletes compared to non-athlete students in regard to their service experience. In turn, university employees could reinforce the importance of performing community service with their student-athletes or recommend a different activity with more appropriate benefits geared toward their academic development.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses present the proposed relationships between community service motivations for student-athletes, community service benefits for student-athletes, and student-athlete athletic identity. Additionally, these hypotheses assess the instrument's structural component of the proposed model.

The first hypothesis examined the relationship between community service motivations and community service benefits.

Hypothesis 1: Community service motivations will have a direct and positive effect on community service benefits.

The second hypothesis examined the relationship between the level of athletic identity and community service motivations.

Hypothesis 2: The level of student-athlete athletic identity will have a direct and negative effect on community service motivations.

The third hypothesis examined the relationship between the level of athletic identity and community service benefits.

Hypothesis 3: the level of student-athlete athletic identity will have a direct and negative effect on community service benefits.

Delimitations

The study has the following delimitations:

1. Only student-athletes enrolled at NCAA institutions (NCAA Division I, II, and III) were included in this study
2. Only student-athletes eligible for NCAA competition during the 2015-16 academic year were included in this study

Limitations

1. The study was limited to the responses of participants willing to complete the survey at the chosen institutions
2. With universities concerned about releasing the contact information of their student-athlete, the researcher was limited to

having one of the participating institutions' athletic administrators distribute the survey to their student-athletes

3. The study assumed self-reporting by the participants will be accurate and participants will not just respond in a socially desirable manner.

Definition of Terms

Community Service: Any form of service (curricular and co-curricular) performed in an off-campus community context and for which payment was not received (Jones & Hill, 2003, p. 520).

Community Service Organization (CSO): A non-profit organization with a mission statement aimed at supporting an under-represented population or people in-need.

National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA): The National Collegiate Athletic Association is a membership-driven organization dedicated to safeguarding the well-being of student-athletes and equipping them with the skills to succeed on the playing field, in the classroom and throughout life (NCAA, 2014, p. iii).

Student-Athlete: A college student participating in varsity sports.

Academic Development: College student's college grade point average (GPA), general knowledge, knowledge of a field or discipline, and aspirations for advanced degrees and is also associated with increased time devoted to homework and studying and increased contact with faculty (Astin & Sax, 1998, p. 257).

Student Involvement: The amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience (Astin, 1984, p. 518).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the motivations and benefits for student-athletes to perform community service during their higher education experience. Further, this study sought to investigate the athletic identity of student-athletes and its association with their prevalence and experience of performing community service. Additionally, this study investigated the impact of the student-athletes' NCAA Division (e.g. NCAA Division I, II, or III) on their frequency and their experience of performing community service. There is limited research on the motivations or benefits of student-athletes performing community service has been examined previously, and no one study has examined motivations and benefits together. Additionally, there is sparse research investigating either (a) the impact of athletic identity onto the prevalence of performing community service, or (b) how athletic identity impacts student-athletes' community service experience. Lastly, there is no previous literature on how the NCAA designation of the student-athlete's institution may impact his/her frequency and experience of performing community service.

First, the author will provide a review of literature on the uniqueness of the student-athlete experience, student-athlete identity, challenges they face to

participate in community engagement, and the impact of NCAA division on student-athlete involvement in community service. Following the student-athlete experience, the author will define community service, its importance in higher education, and its prevalence for both the general college student population and the sub-population of student-athletes. Lastly, in order to illustrate the purpose of this study, and extract greater meaning from the results, there is a need to apply a theoretical framework. Because this study examined the interaction of community service and a sub-population of college students (student-athletes), the author utilized Astin's Student Involvement Theory (Astin, 1984; 1999).

Academic Challenges for Student-Athletes

As mentioned in Student Involvement Theory, the higher education institution's priority is to provide the best environment for the student to develop academically. Depending on sub-population to which the individual student belongs, hi/her academic experience can be vastly different. Concern has been raised that the academic experience of student-athletes leaves them at a disadvantage upon leaving higher education compared to other college students (Adler & Adler, 1991; Carodine et al., 2001; Levine et al., 2014). This situation becomes exacerbated because of the belief athletic departments are more concerned about their on the field success than their student-athletes' academic development (Eitzen, 1987). The following various issues have been investigated regarding the academic experience of student-athletes: admissions, first year experience, student-athlete relationship with the athletic department, culture of intercollegiate athletics, academic clustering and

time constraints, student-athlete identity, stereotypes of student-athletes, and student-athlete burnout.

Admissions

Higher education administrators set academic standards for prospective students to secure admission. These academic standards are in place to ensure that students are prepared for the increased academic rigor expected in higher education generally and their institution of choice specifically. While all institutions have admission standards, many universities have a special admissions committee. These committees assess the admissibility of prospective students who do not meet the initial admission standards, and often have the power to grant admission based on unique circumstances or talents (Benford, 2007; Gurney & Stuart, 1987). Many prospective student-athletes have been admitted through special admission committees solely due to their athletic merits (Eitzen & Sage, 1997; Espenshade, Chung, & Walling, 2004; The Coalition on Intercollegiate Athletics, 2005). One study quoted an admission counselor saying that athletic ability is, “the single dimension of a person’s extracurricular background that will lead you to deviate the most from their academic credentials” (Kilgore, 2009, p. 479).

Another study found student-athletes, especially in revenue-generating sports, are more likely to not meet admission standards than the general student population (Comeaux et al, 2011). Comeaux et al. believed this academic “shortfall” was due to either (a) a lack of academic resources available to student-athletes in high school, or (b) the student-athletes’ high school encouraging them to focus

additional time on their sport instead of school. Admitting students who fall below the university's admission requirements, regardless of their unique talents, compromises the academic integrity of the institution (Lumpkin, 2008). Admission requirements set the standard expectation of academic readiness for college students to be successful at a particular university.

Research on student-athletes admitted provisionally by a special admissions committee has shown these students face increased academic risks and challenges to maintain their athletic eligibility (Eitzen & Sage, 1997). Universities attempt to offer additional support to student-athletes provisionally admitted with additional academic support services such as athletic academic counselors (Bell, 2009). On the other hand, provisionally admitted student-athletes are at a greater disadvantage for facing the academic rigor of higher education, with increased chances of leaving during their first year of college (Ting, 2011). To be eligible for participation in the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) a student-athlete has to maintain a minimum of 12 credit hours of college courses per semester (NCAA, 2014). This eligibility requirement eliminates the possibility of the student-athlete "easing" into the increased expectations of higher education. Unfortunately for student-athletes who faced challenges being admitted into their institution, their first year does not provide them time to acclimate to the rigors of higher education and is frequently the most difficult academic year for student-athletes.

First Year Experience

After completing the admission process, student-athletes face the challenge of acclimating to the increased academic rigor in the classroom and heightened expectations on the playing field. Student-athletes felt “swamped” while trying to acclimate to college expectations (Clift & Mower, 2013). One student-athlete was quoted during his first week of classes and practices saying, “Sometimes it felt like things were never ending because you always had something to do after you finished what you were doing” (Clift & Mower, 2013, p. 357). Living in a new and unfamiliar environment can create an atmosphere that requires significant adaptations in a short timeframe. One such change is rigid scheduling, with student-athletes believing their sport structured their entire day (Clift & Mower, 2013). The unique experience of intensified academic and athletic expectations makes athletes feel forced to reduce their time spent on academics to maintain their expectations for athletics (Lally & Kerr, 2005). Lally and Kerr’s (2005) findings show first-year student-athletes seem comfortable with focusing on athletic opportunities over academic opportunities.

First year student-athletes also have unrealistic athletic goals (Lally & Kerr, 2005). They quoted one student-athlete discussing his first-year career goals as, “A dream of mine is to play professionally, not in the NBA, but Europe is an opportunity for me to play” (p. 279). The aspiration of achieving athletic career goals is not isolated to low academic achieving students, but also applies to students with strong academic goals, with one student-athlete saying, “In terms of career, I always

thought I would end up as a teacher, but I thought I might go the National Team first” (Lally & Kerr, 2005, p. 279).

The student-athletes’ college experience becomes even more unbalanced during the athletic season, which calls for a greater time commitment in their sport (Miller & Kerr, 2003). Miller and Kerr (2003) found that senior student-athletes regretted their first year effort in the classroom, believing they became entranced by the excitement of their sport compared to their schoolwork. Lally and Kerr (2005) also investigated senior student-athletes, who reported the necessity to spend more time on schoolwork as upper- class students in an effort to remedy their poor academic performance early in their academic career. First-year student-athletes, especially males, also have a tendency to be indifferent towards an intended major (Lally & Kerr, 2005).

Student-athletes tend to gravitate toward other student-athletes upon entering college (Gaston-Gayles & Hu, 2009). Part of this isolation with other athletes is because of their lack of time available to connect with other students (Clift & Mower, 2013; Paule & Gilson, 2010). This social homogeneity further isolates student-athletes from other college students (Adler & Adler, 1991). This isolation only deepens student-athletes’ connection to athletics, even if they did not have “serious athletics goals” (Miller & Kerr, p. 208). As student-athletes become further isolated by spending time primarily with other student-athletes, they start to ignore any potential benefit of connecting with non-athlete students (Paule & Gilson, 2010). Paule and Gilson quoted one college golfer saying, “Our team is like

our own little fraternity. I get all the interaction and friendships that I think I would in another organization” (p. 344). Another study found first-year student-athletes were curious to explore what else was offered in their university experience, if given an opportunity (Clift & Mower, 2013). Clift and Mower reported one student-athlete saying, “I feel comfortable here but there’s a lot of stuff out there from the University, like what it offers, that I still don’t know about” (p. 362).

Lally and Kerr (2005) found student-athletes are often hesitant to reach out to non-athlete students until they are juniors or seniors. One such student-athlete is quoted saying, “A major thing I learned this summer through working with non-athletes was I could relate to people who were non-athletes” (p. 282). Maintaining relationships within the team environment also has drawbacks for first-year student-athletes. Freshman student-athletes expressed that the “veterans” on the team treated them poorly during their first year (Galipeau & Trudel, 2004). One student-athlete was quoted, “I made those rookies feel welcome. There was no way I was going to treat them like the veterans treated me last year, no way” (p. 179).

Solutions to first-year challenges include the desire for student-athletes to have improved athletic academic support to connect with student populations outside of athletics (Bell, 2009; Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2011; Huml, et al., 2014). Universities frequently possess robust programming aimed at assisting first-year college students persist (Huml, 2011), but this programming may not fit the needs of student-athletes or conflict with their time availability. One study found freshman and sophomore student-athletes were motivated to continue their sport and their

education, but were less satisfied with continuing at the same institution (Kamusoko & Pemberton). This may emphasize disenchantment student-athletes possess regarding how institutions provide support to student-athletes in the early stages of their undergraduate experience. Another study found student-athletes wished they had exerted more effort in “working ahead” on assignments of studying for exams during their sport season of their first year (Hardin & Pate, 2013). Finally, student-athletes who connect with athletes more academically focused and understanding of their learning style were more likely to purposefully engage on their college campus (Comeaux et al., 2011).

Providing relevant programming for first-year student-athletes could be a potential outlet for improving their academic success. One author recommended first-year student-athletes become involved in developing long-term career goals, learn how to apply their major to a career, perform community service and become involved in social development opportunities (Ting, 2011). Ting found each of these activities as statistically significant predictors of academic success for first year student-athletes. With student-athletes facing significant challenges in their first year of college, they often depend on the athletic department and their various personnel to support them academically and athletically. While most athletic departments provide resources to help their student-athletes, those resources are limited and their primary focus is on athletic success.

Student-Athlete Relationship with the Athletic Department

Student-athletes spend a large portion of their time on athletic activities, including a significant amount of time with their coaches and other athletic department personnel (Benford, 2007). Members of athletic administration and coaching staff may be the first university personnel they contacted when deciding on a college. This relationship provides a level of support and comfort to student-athletes not available elsewhere on a college campus (Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2013).

Relationships between student-athletes and coaches have been shown to impact student retention and satisfaction (Barnhill, Czekanski, & Turner, 2013; Pate, Stokowski, & Hardin, 2011). Research indicates having an unhealthy relationship between student-athletes and their coaching staff can have negative consequences for student-athletes both academically and athletically. Barnhill et al. found that student-athletes believe the relationship with their coaching staff forms to the level of a psychological contract. A psychological contract is the “Individual beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding the terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organization” (Rousseau, 1995, p. 9). When this contract was broken, student-athletes were more likely to lose trust in their coaching staff, decrease their commitment to the team, and increase their intentions to leave the university (Barnhill et al.; Barnhill & Turner, 2013). Barnhill and Turner found when student-athletes perceived their coaches failed to deliver on their promises, they become more skeptical of the coaching staff and diminished the feeling that trusting their coaching staff will benefit them.

The success of the student-athlete's season also impacted the relationship with the coaching staff (Colvin, Blom, & Bastin, 2012). Colvin et al. found that while a winning season did not perpetuate a positive relationship between athlete and coach, a losing season harmed their relationship. A losing season created a public belief that one of the team's entities needed to change to find success: the coaching staff or players (i.e. student-athletes). If the athletic department deemed that the coaching staff was the origin of the team's poor performance, student-athletes were still impacted (Johnson, Blom, Judge, Lee, & Pierce, 2013; Pate et al., 2011). When an existing coaching staff is replaced with a new coaching staff, student-athletes are at risk of not fitting into new team plans, which may result in decreased playing time (Pate et al., 2011). One participant in the Pate et al. study decided transfer at the end of the academic year after the coaching change led to a reduction in playing time. When a new coaching staff is brought in, one frequent priority is to focus on academics (Gilson, Paule-Koba, & Heller, 2013). With focus on academics being such an important stated priority for new coaching staffs, there is concern that this priority wanes over time. Student-athletes have also expressed a cognizance that coaches often express the importance of academics to their superiors or media personnel, but may not be as forthcoming directly with student-athletes (Gilson et al., 2013). At times student-athletes find their coaching staff and athletic department personnel are not going to provide the level of academic support they initially believed. Part of this lack of support is intertwined within the culture of intercollegiate athletics and the intention to make athletic success a greater priority than student-athlete academic development.

Culture of Intercollegiate Athletics

NCAA Division I recently transitioned its governance structure to provide autonomy to the BCS-level universities (Bennett, 2014). This autonomy allows those universities to enact legislation only effecting their portion of Division I. The early phase of the new legislation has focused on increasing athletic-related benefits, such as increased scholarships (NCAA, 2014). Unfortunately this approved legislation has not included improving the connection between student-athletes and academics. Previous research has raised concerns of Division I continuously pushing student-athletes towards an athletics-first mentality (Hesel & Perko, 2010; Huml et al., 2014; Lewinter, Weight, Osborne, & Brunner, 2013; Orleans, 2013). An example of this increased focus on athletics is reflected in a recent study which found Division I athletic department mission statements did not mention community engagement. In addition, their student-athlete handbooks rarely mentioned community service opportunities besides in the form of punishment (Huml et al., 2014). The concern is with universities, especially Division I, spending ever-increasing funds to provide the “best product” on their athletic playing fields as possible, while decreasing their attention on helping student-athletes develop academically (Descrochers, 2013; Nite, 2012; Sparvero & Warner, 2013).

Part of this additional focus on intercollegiate athletics has been the introduction of stand-alone athletic academic centers. These centers provide student-athletes with an additional layer of academic support that is not available to other college students. While institutions of higher education have offered this athletic academic support for many years (Gordon, 1986), its availability increased

significantly with the introduction of the NCAA Academic Enhancement Fund in 1991 (NCAA, 2013). This funding currently provides over \$70,000 in annual aid to each institution, and over \$24 million across all NCAA athletic departments (NCAA, 2013). The NCAA Academic Enhancement Fund provides athletic departments with the opportunity to use their NCAA funding, plus additional institutional financial support, to construct lavish academic support facilities for their student-athletes (Bachman, 2010; Wolverson, 2008). Student-athletes have expressed satisfaction with the academic support they receive in stand-alone athletic academic centers (Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2013). Student-athletes have also reported they contact their athletic advisor about academic issues before any other university personnel (Bell, 2009). Other student-athletes feel they need their athletic academic counselor to maintain eligibility and complete their degree (Ridpath, 2010).

On the other hand, college students perceived student-athletes attending their university as becoming dependent on their athletic academic advisors to construct their class schedules (Clift & Mower, 2013; Lawrence et al., 2009). They also believed tutors completed the bulk of the work required for their class assignments (Lawrence et al., 2009) or academic counselors enrolled the students in less rigorous courses (Clift & Mower, 2013). Student-athletes have self-reported their dependence on athletic academic counselors to preserve their eligibility (Ridpath, 2010). Hardin and Pate (2013) reported student-athletes stating they believe they would not have to make decisions when it came to scheduling classes because the athletic academic center staff completed their schedules for them. This lack of course awareness and academic expectations was apparent in a student-

athlete quoted as saying, “[My advisor] made my whole schedule...I just don’t feel like I was prepared with anything to make my schedule and I just kinda went in and didn’t really know what was going on...” (Hardin & Pate, 2013, p. 358).

This control exhibited by intercollegiate athletics has been shown to hinder the academic development of student-athletes (Burns et al., 2013; Hardin & Pate, 2013; McPherson, 2013). McPherson discussed the possibility of student-athletes’ dependency on their coaches, tutors, and athletic advisors stunting their ability to identify their career intentions and ensuring their athletic identity remained high. McPherson recommended, echoing the important principles of Astin’s Student Involvement Theory, for athletic academic support services to focus on providing opportunities for student-athletes, but ultimately allowing them to be the decision-makers of their educational experience.

Student-athletes have reported their awareness, and subsequent trepidation, that the athletic department’s academic support was primarily focused toward maintaining their athletes’ eligibility, not cultivating their academic growth (Benson, 2000; Huml et al., 2014; Simons, Van Rheenen, & Covington, 1999). Huml et al. found student-athletes were more confident their academic or faculty advisor would keep their academics a priority compared to their athletic advisor. They also found student-athletes from public institutions believed their athletic academic center’s (A building solely housing academic support services for student-athletes) location was hurting their ability to connect with non-athlete students on campus. Student-

athletes also believed the center's location would hinder their connections with faculty, ability to study, and participate in community service (Huml et al., 2014).

There are concerns over whether athletic academic support services have the best intentions for student-athletes regarding their academic development. Having athletic academic support services act as the primary provider of academic programming for student-athletes (Huml, 2011) does raise concerns about whether the programming offered through these offices are going to provide the necessary opportunities, such as community service, to increase student-athlete academic development. Concern over the intentions of athletic academic support has also been relayed to the NCAA from *The Coalition on Intercollegiate Athletics* (2005) and the *Knight Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics* (2001). Both organizations have criticized athletic academic support as depriving student-athletes of academic developing, with the Knight Commission stating that athletic academic support services are "too often designed solely to keep them [student-athletes] eligible, rather than guide them toward a degree" (p. 16). When athletic academic centers become the decision-makers for student-athlete schedules, it potentially leads to their class structure being built around their athletic schedule. Some athletes will go so far as to change their major to comply with their athletic obligations.

Academic Clustering and Time Constraints

Most student-athletes plan on finishing their degree, with one study finding that 95 percent of freshman student-athletes plan on graduating, even if it meant they remained in school beyond their athletic eligibility (Kamusoko & Pemberton,

2011). While freshman student-athletes have high academic hopes, the NCAA has shown student-athlete graduation rates do not meet these lofty expectations (NCAA, 2011). The NCAA attempts to govern the time student-athletes spend on their athletic activity by allowing a maximum of 20 hours every week (NCAA, 2014), but studies have shown that student-athletes often participate beyond the maximum (Benford, 2007; The Coalition on Intercollegiate Athletics, 2005). When comparing the time commitment required for college students participating in extracurricular activities, varsity athletics expended more time than any other activity (Cantor & Prentice, 1996).

The time commitment of varsity athletics has been shown to negatively affect student-athlete's academic achievement (The Coalition on Intercollegiate Athletics, 2005), ability to attend programming (e.g. workshops) (Huml, 2011), autonomy (Kimball, 2007), register for courses (Potuto & O'Hanlon, 2007), time available for studying (Rothschild-Checroune, Gravelle, Dawson, & Karis, 2012), and time management (Adler & Adler, 1991). These time constraints deepen once the student-athlete's sport is in-season (Miller & Kerr, 2002). Student-athletes seemed aware of their time availability decreasing when they entered college, but were still surprised at how little autonomy they actually had over their free time (Hardin & Pate, 2013). Hardin and Pate (2013) discovered student-athletes found difficulty managing their time in-season, with one participant stating, "I've never been as busy as I am right now. I thought recruiting was busy, but now I never have the time to just sit down..." (p. 7). While student-athletes report these time constraints, their peers are also aware of the time commitment required by varsity athletics. Ninety-

five percent of college students in a recent study acknowledged the early-morning workouts required for student-athletes and their lack of free time to focus on non-athletic expectations (Lawrence et al., 2009).

As student-athletes find their schedules increasingly constrained, they may be influenced to change their major to another with decreased rigor. Student-athletes are likely to choose a major not conflicting with their athletic obligations or is a major their teammates are pursuing (Capriccioso, 2006). Student-athletes decrease their future earning power and likelihood of graduation if they choose their major under these circumstances (Sanders & Hildenbrand, 2010). If a team has more than 25 percent of its players enrolled in the same major, it is considered academic clustering (Fountain & Finley, 2009; Schneider, Ross, & Fisher, 2010). Studies have shown that African American student-athletes (Sanders & Hildenbrand, 2010) and student-athletes in revenue-generating sports (Otto, 2012) are at a greater chance of academic clustering than other student-athletes. Two studies specifically investigated major choices for football student-athletes participating in major NCAA Division I athletic conferences (Fountain & Finley, 2009; Otto, 2012). Researchers discovered that academic clustering was prevalent across the conferences, with both studies finding over 70 percent of student-athletes on one team being clustered into one major. Unfortunately student-athletes seem content with their major choice being impacted by their athletic schedule. This feeling of comfort of being within a clustered major may be associated with the prevalence of student-athletes possessing a strong athletic identity.

Student-Athlete Identity

Brewer, Van Raalte, and Linder (1993) defined athletic identity as “the degree to which an individual identifies with the athletic role” (p. 237). Research has shown student-athletes with a strong athletic identity are at risk of stunting their academic, personal, and social development (Bimper, 2014; Brewer et al. 1993; Murphy, Petitpas, & Brewer, 1996; Watson, 2007; Woodruff & Schallert, 2008). This strong athletic identity is also difficult to change, as student-athletes often take years to transition to a stronger academic identity (Lally & Kerr, 2005; Miller & Kerr, 2002).

A majority of prospective student-athletes define themselves as athletes in high school and aspire to be defined as athletes in college (Heyman, 1986; Marx, Huffmon, & Doyle, 2008). Even student-athletes with high academic expectations are prone to identifying themselves with an athletes-first/students-second mentality (Woodruff & Schallert, 2008). With athletes developing at a younger age, they receive both negative and positive reinforcement for their work in the classroom and the playing field. These experiences during their formative years can have significant impact on whether they identify themselves as a student or an athlete (Watt & Moore, 2001). These findings were reinforced by additional studies concluding student-athletes peaked in their belief of competing in professional sports when they entered college athletics (Lally & Kerr, 2005; Miller & Kerr, 2002), with one study finding 60 percent of student-athletes identified themselves first as an athlete instead of a student (Potuto & O’Hanlon, 2007). When student-athletes were given a choice to leave college before graduation to become a professional

athlete or stay and finish their degree, almost 90 percent said they would leave early (Kissinger, Newman, Miller, & Nadler, 2011). Another study believed this identity peak is supported by the student-athlete's own belief in a strong athletic identity is required to be successful in intercollegiate athletics (Murphy et al., 1996). Paule and Gilson (2010) reported student-athletes believed they had to make "significant sacrifices" in order for their team to be successful (p. 344). Murphy et al. (1996) also believed college coaches were reinforcing this belief, purposely avoiding any communication or activities (e.g. academic engaging opportunities) potentially leading to an "erosion" of this strong athletic identity. McPherson (2013) also expressed concerns athletic academic support services also fueled this strong athletic identity by being the primary decision-maker for student-athletes, such as choosing classes or majors for them.

Student-athletes with higher expectations to become professional athletes were more likely to have higher athletic identities (Tyranice, Harris, & Post, 2013). Tyranice, Harris, and Post (2013) found student-athletes with elevated athletic identities, or who competed in revenue-generating sports, presented decreased career optimism. One study found this decreased career optimism could not be revitalized from the student-athlete receiving career intervention programming (Murdock et al., 2014). They found the student-athlete's confidence in becoming a professional athlete was frequently too ingrained to be reduced by a career intervention specialist. These findings were compounded by additional findings that as athlete identity increased, the ability to govern change in career plans waned (Tyranice et al., 2013).

Other ramifications of a strong athletic identity are increased likeliness of poor academic performance and increased risk of ineligibility (Lally & Kerr, 2005; Yopyk & Prentice, 2005). Yopyk and Prentice (2005) found student-athletes performed better on a math test when primed for their academic identity (i.e. writing a story on their career goals) than student-athletes primed for their athletic identity (i.e. writing a story about their previous game) before taking the exam.

Even after graduation, a strong athletic identity can have negative implications for a college student's career development (Linnemeyer & Brown, 2010; Murphy et al., 1996). Murphy et al. (1996) also suggested a student-athlete with a strong athletic identity would be less likely to examine his/her career opportunities until all athletic opportunities were exhausted. Albion and Fogarty (2005) found similar results, as student-athletes with elevated levels of athletic identity were less likely to be aware of career options and more likely to be hesitant about their career. When student-athletes with a strong athletic identity were forced to make a career choice, they discussed the intention of pursuing a career related to their sport (e.g. athlete, coaching, athletic administrator, etc.) (Cabrita, Rosado, Leite, Serpa, & Sousa, 2014). If a student-athlete's athletic identity becomes overbearing it can lead to role engulfment (Adler & Adler, 1991; Tyrance et al., 2013). Adler and Adler (1991) concluded role engulfment induces the student-athlete to abandon any identity that does not align with their athletic identity.

Injuries can also impact the athletic identity of student-athletes. Research has shown that student-athletes experience a transition from a primarily athletic

identity to a primary academic identity in the two years following an athletic injury (Brewer, Cornelius, Stephan, & Van Raalte, 2010). Social support changes occur for student-athletes following an injury as well, which can result in changes of student-athlete identity (Clement & Shannon, 2011). This social support change may mean the student-athlete starts to interact with other students besides their teammates (e.g. injury requires support from a neighbor non-athlete student in their dorm). On the other hand, career-ending injuries occurring before completion of athletic eligibility negatively impact student-athlete life satisfaction (Kleiber, Greendorfer, Blinde, & Samdahl, 1987).

Research has shown athletic identity declines the longer the student-athlete attends college (Lally & Kerr, 2005; Martin, Fogarty, & Albion, 2014; Miller & Kerr, 2002). Miller and Kerr (2002) found student-athletes shifted their focus towards academics as upper-class students after feeling pressure from their sport (e.g. coaches, schedule challenges, teammates, athletic academic counselors, etc.) to change their major and class selections when they were underclass-students. The authors contributed this change to increasing interest in the course content (e.g. no longer taking general education courses) and growing curiosity of pursuing a graduate program (i.e. which would require an improved grade point average). Martin et al. (2014) mention the important role of academic counselors and coaches to connect student-athletes with interests within higher education outside of athletics, and how to utilize their skills to effectively assimilate outside of sport. Many student-athletes possess a strong student-athlete identity because of their

personal goals within their sport, but student-athletes are also pressed to embrace this identity because of how they are perceived by their peers.

Stereotypes of Student-Athletes

Coinciding with their success on the playing field, student-athletes are sometimes viewed negatively for perceived concerns in the classroom (Watt & Moore, 2001). These negative perceptions can be attributed to other college students, faculty, the general public, and even other student-athletes. Non-athlete students have been shown to be envious of student-athletes having an opportunity to compete in intercollegiate athletics (Chen, Snyder, & Wagner, 2010). Regardless of this resentment, college students have low expectations of student-athletes' academic performance. In a study asking college students about how they perceived a day in the life of a male student-athlete, 41 percent labeled their activities as lazy, dumb, frequent partying, or an absence of studying (Lawrence et al., 2009). This same study also found other college students viewed receiving advantages not available to other college students, including assistance with academics in the form of free tutors and "faculty friendly" courses (Lawrence et al., 2009). Student-athletes seem cognizant of being poorly perceived by their peers, as almost 60 percent believed other college students viewed them negatively (Chen et al., 2010).

Student peers are not the only members in higher education who negatively stereotype student-athletes. College faculty members have also conveyed criticism for the academic performance and effort of athletes. Student-athletes perceived professors believed they only cared about their sport and disregarded their

academic obligations (Parsons, 2013). Athletes also reported conversations with faculty members about apprehension or unwillingness to register for their course because of their frequency of missing class to travel for games. One student-athlete was quoted their professor “told us if we are a student athlete then we will not be able to take his class. He didn’t have time for people missing class” (Parsons, 2013, p. 410). Additionally, other professors expressed discontent with the level of academic work performed by student-athletes. A student-athlete stated, “One professor plainly stated that she despised players because we missed class for games and weren’t committed to class and therefore we were of lower quality than normal students” (Parsons, 2013, p. 410).

These stigmas can negatively impact student-athletes. Steele’s (1997) *Stereotype Threat Theory* posits that as participants’ self-identify within a stereotyped group they “fear being reduced to that stereotype” (p. 614). Even worse, if a participant self-identifies with a specific stereotype for the group, it becomes self-threatening (Steele, 1997). This theoretical framework is fitting for student-athletes because the study used another population negatively stereotyped to be ill equipped academically: African Americans. When participants are threatened it can trigger dis-identification, which motivates participants to either (a) remove themselves from the activity or (b) cease caring about the activity. Either action will have negative consequences to their academic development (Steele, 1997).

Yopyk and Prentice (2005) investigated stereotype threat as it related to student-athletes, and found that they “reflect the valence of the stereotypes associated with the distinctive identity” (p. 335). The authors found the identity for student-athletes was very fluid: it can range from student-dominant identity on one questionnaire to athlete-dominant identity on another questionnaire. Initially this ability to transition from one identity to the next is promising for the student-athlete to excel in both fields. Their challenge is that even “subtle reminders” of athlete identity, which is negatively stereotyped toward academics, can weaken academic performance (Yopyk & Prentice, 2005). With many student-athletes significantly invested in their athletic identity, they choose to dedicate a large portion of their time toward athletic activities. This dedication of time can lead to the student-athlete reaching a point of athletic exhaustion.

Student-Athlete Burnout

Student-athlete burnout has been defined as the psychological syndrome expressed through both emotional and physical exhaustion, lack of accomplishment, and depreciation of the student-athlete’s sport involvement (Raedeke, 1997). Antecedents to athlete burnout include: excessive training, conflicting demands from school, negative performance demands, early success, and lack of recovery (Gustafsson, Kentta, & Hassmen, 2011). Gustafsson et al. (2011) also believed early signs of athlete burnout included frustration over a lack of results, perceived lack of control, diminishing motivation, and mood disturbance. With student-athletes juggling a combination of academic and athletic requirements, their focus on athletic requirements can become so robust it becomes unhealthy (Adler & Adler, 1991).

Student-athletes who experience burnout see the likelihood of graduation diminish (Fearon, Barnard-Brak, Robinson, & Harris, 2011).

While it's been found that slightly less than 10 percent of student-athletes self-reported athlete burnout (Raedeke & Smith, 2009), others have reported the percentage realistically is much higher (Taris, Le Blanc, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2005). Research has shown that lack of support from teammates (DeFreese & Smith, 2013), lack of a sense of belonging on campus (Fearon et al., 2011), impact on scholarship (Judge, Bell, Theodore, Simon, & Bellar, 2012), and injuries (Cresswell & Eklund, 2005) lead to increased levels of burnout for student-athletes. Student-athletes also continued with their sport, regardless to feelings of burnout (Gustafsson et al., 2011). Gustafsson et al. (2011) alleged student-athletes continued in their sport because of feelings of "entrapment", they believed they had committed such a significant amount of their time towards their sport that they didn't know what they would do without sport.

Summary

Many student-athletes encounter significant academic challenges during their college experience. Facing the prospect of increased expectations in the classroom and on the playing field, student-athletes often initially choose to focus on their athletic responsibilities. This "athletic focus" overflows into other facets of higher education. Student-athletes voice their intentions to be a professional athlete, selectively connecting and communicating with teammates or other student-athletes, and showing indifference towards academic success in their

classes. These actions lead to student-athletes further neglecting their academic involvement and isolating themselves from available academic engagement activities. As student-athletes realize the substantial challenges of academics, many decide to pursue a less rigorous major, indifferent to whether it aligns with their career aspirations. Even with higher education institutions charged with academically developing their students, the university athletic department seems more than willing to allow their student-athletes to focus on athletic success over academic engagement.

This general apathy towards academic engagement does not go unnoticed, as other college students and college faculty have conveyed opinions about athletes enrolling in school simply to play sports, being ill-equipped for academic expectations, and frequently missing classes. Athletic department personnel have also observed the lack of academic involvement. They have created specialized athletic academic support programs to counteract challenges faced by incoming student-athletes. While these support systems were started with good intentions, too frequently they are utilized as academic support centers to ensure student-athletes maintain their eligibility, and not for acclimating student-athletes to educational engagement opportunities or developing them academically.

As student-athletes become juniors and seniors, they begin to realize that their identity is consumed within athletics, and attempt to achieve balance between academics and athletics. Many student-athletes recognize that their initial years in college were academically squandered, and their younger self was willing to

sacrifice academic activities for athletic performance. Even though they redefine their focus towards academics, they still face challenges of time constraints and coaches/administrators pushing excellence on the playing field.

Examining the literature on the student-athlete academic experience illustrates the challenges they face while developing academically in college. Knowing these challenges, there is a need to investigate the association between student-athletes and various opportunities shown to nurture the development of college students. There is also a need to examine how student-athletes can connect to these activities. A host of academic opportunities are available to students in college. One these is community service. Examining the association between student-athletes and community service would help address a gap within the literature.

Community Service

With student-athletes facing unique challenges in college, providing them with opportunities to foster their personal development becomes a greater emphasis. One such academic activity is community engagement. While some athletic departments employ a full-time staff member helping student-athletes become connected with community service opportunities, almost all college students have administrators, faculty, and staff members who have formal and informal community connections.

Defining Community Service

There has been “scholarly conflation” regarding the definition of community service, civic engagement, and service learning (Brabant & Braid, 2009). This conflation may be due to heavy research within the field of service learning and the various models implemented by higher education to entice students to perform community service (i.e. required community service, groups with service within their mission statement). Because of these differing scholarly interpretations, the author wanted to define community service for this study. Community service is defined as “any form of service (curricular and co-curricular) performed in an off-campus community context and for which payment was not received” (Jones & Hill, 2003, p. 520).

Community Service and Higher Education

Almost all higher education institutions encourage their students to develop citizenship (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996), with Lawry et al. (2006) stating, “As long as there have been colleges and universities in this country, there has been a commitment at the heart of the curriculum to preparation for what we might call civic engagement” (p. 7). This strong connection between higher education and civic engagement began with the introduction of the Land-Grant Act of 1862. The Land-Grant Act created a link between the public’s commitment to higher education and the expectation of ensuring graduates become civically engaged (Jacoby, 2009). In the early 20th century, educational reformist John Dewey believed that engaging students in their surrounding community had become one of the pillars of a successful liberal arts education (Lawry et al., 2006). Higher education has

experienced ebb and flow regarding the priority placed on community engagement since its inception, with heights achieved in the 1960s and 1970s with the introduction of Peace Corps and Volunteers in Service, while the 1980s and 1990s were personified by calls for increased importance of community engagement (Jacoby, 2009).

Shaping students to become effective and responsible citizens is one of the primary goals of higher education (Einfeld & Collins, 2008). Citizenship development helps address issues within the institution's, and student's, local community (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996). Checkoway (2001) mentions the principal opportunity available for institutions to improve its students' community service is "by involving them in a co-curricular activities with a strong civic purpose" (p. 132). Engaging in co-curricular activities has shown to be one of the best learning experiences for many students (Checkoway, 2001). Performing service in the local area also provides an opportunity for students, faculty, and administrators to work together in helping the community (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996). Both faculty and students improve their personal effectiveness and sense of civic responsibility when participating in community service that corresponds with a service-learning course (Astin et al., 2000). Performing community service with other university personnel has also been shown to make students feel more connected to their institution (Schatteman, 2014). At times the desired community service is within another department of the university, providing a valuable opportunity for one department to build a connection to another (Andrassy et al., 2014). This study found building

partnerships across the campus was advantageous for identifying future service opportunities for student-athletes.

While students may be concerned about community service interfering with their schoolwork, research has shown even when students increase their community engagement it does not interfere with their academic studies (Huang & Chang, 2004). This exposure to community service in higher education can make a positive impact on college students becoming dedicated volunteers (Seider, 2007). Seider (2007) investigated college students who had performed over 10 hours of community service each week, finding that 75 percent were positively impacted by a singular academic experience. Lastly, a study examining state financial appropriations based on the university's engagement model found differences based on the institution's engagement agenda. Universities with an engagement agenda focused on encouraging a "two-way, mutually beneficial" relationship with local businesses were more likely to receive higher-than-expected appropriations than universities depending on instilling citizenship through course material (Weerts, 2014, p. 160).

National organizations for higher education institutions have also voiced their preference for prioritizing community engagement. The Association of American Colleges & Universities (2007) has focused on pushing universities to provide the necessary knowledge and resources for their students to be engaged citizens. The Carnegie Foundation (2013) has also encouraged universities to increase their community service resources by offering a "community engagement"

classification. While the classification is not a reward, it is recognition of a positive relationship between an institution and its local, national, and international community. A regional accreditation organization, North Central Association's Higher Learning Commission, recently included engagement and service as part of its university assessment, with other regional accreditation organizations expected to follow suit (Jacoby, 2009). These motivations seem warranted, as improving the conditions of the institution's surrounding community have been found to be developmentally beneficial for the university and their students (Weerts & Sandmann, 2008).

Traditionally, mission statements for institutions of higher education mention providing service to their local community (Johnson et al., 2013). A prominent example is Berea College, which mentions service within three of its Great Eight Commitments on which the college was founded (Johnson et al., 2013). Having a mission statement containing ethical content, such as community service, has been connected with students exhibiting increased ethical orientation (Davis, Ruhe, Lee, & Rajadhyaksha, 2007). Additionally, students attending an institution mentioning community engagement in its mission were found to be statistically more likely to perform any type of community service if they were aware of the institution's mission (Sullivan et al., 2013). While the connection between community service and the university's mission statement has a historical foundation, recent research has also found mission statements failing to mention community engagement (Weerts & Sandmann, 2008). Land-grant institutions more frequently omit language about community engagement than urban universities

(Weerts & Sandmann, 2008). Even universities with a mission statement highlighting citizenship have not always achieved their mission (Checkoway, 2001). Omitting community engagement from the institution's mission statement can depress the frequency of student engagement (Sullivan et al., 2013).

Universities have many benefits for providing community service resources for their students, but there are also many challenges. The civic engagement model between higher education and their students' struggles to create a self-sustaining model that inspires community service from students after they leave the university (Butin, 2012). With universities primarily focused on research expectations, supporting the community can become a secondary concern (Checkoway, 2001; Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, & Stephens, 2003; Weerts, 2014). Even faculty specializing on community engagement research face challenges, as department heads indicated they were unlikely to award promotion and tenure from publications in community engagement journals (Sobrero & Jayaratne, 2014). The importance of support is also needed within specific departments of the university (Andrassy et al., 2014). Andrassy et al. examined athletic departments successful in convincing their student-athletes to participate in programming centered on life skills development, including community service participation. Their interviews revealed the importance of having the support of athletic and university administrators and buy-in from the coaches as paramount to making the programming a success.

Regardless of the lack of support, 80 percent of faculty indicated they were involved in performing community service during the previous academic year (Antonio, Astin, & Cress, 2000). This involvement was frequently superficial, however, with less than 12 percent of faculty members performing five or more hours a week of community service and less than four percent offering community service as a element in their courses (Antonio et al., 2000). One study found university staff would also support students' community service experiences to offset any feelings of "lack of support" from the students (Weerts & Sandmann, 2008).

CSOs have criticized the tenuous relationship among the institution, the volunteering college student, and the CSO (Blouin & Perry, 2009). Blouin and Perry (2009) found college students had stipulations for them to perform community service, but universities rarely communicated these stipulations to the CSO in a timely manner, often withholding this information until the student made his/her first community service appearance. Over 50 percent of CSOs reported no communication with their local college or university (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003). CSOs who claimed a rapport with the university were more likely to communicate with faculty, staff, or students than with a university administrator (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003). Organizations also expressed frustration when their contact person changed, requiring them to rebuild their relationship with the university (Svensson et al., 2014).

Community service organizations can also be suspicious about the level of dedication by the university due to their previous experiences of disengagement (Chupp & Joseph, 2010). A study examining the relationship between intercollegiate athletics and CSOs found some organizations completely bypassed the athletic department contact and worked directly with a specific team's coaching staff (Svensson et al., 2014). Another study found CSOs connected with a university viewed their college student volunteers as merely a fraction of their total volunteers. Service organizations also believed that universities did not provide proper incentives to their students to entice them to perform community service locally (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003). One service organization leader believed students preferred social life and earning money compared to perform community service, while another leader believed the university did not educate students on the potential benefits they would receive by performing community service (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003).

An improved relationship among the CSO, institution, and students would help increase the student development accomplished through service projects (Blouin & Perry, 2009; Andrassy et al., 2014). Organizations also recommended the university become receptive to programming "outside of fixed institutional settings or time periods" (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003, p. 476). CSOs also wanted to create a connection with both high-achieving and troubled students, as they believe they can provide development regardless of the student's current ability (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003). A study examining the use of student-athletes as volunteers found CSOs were aware the possibility of student-athletes performing community service improving

their organization's image (Svensson et al., 2014). One director was quoted saying, "It's almost a credibility thing...like a seal of approval. If you see [university] football players working with an [organization], it is probably a [legitimate] group" (Svensson et al., 2014, p. 110). CSOs also saw the potential of universities helping them collect data, create programming to strengthen ties between college students and the community (i.e. such as a sport league open to students and local residents), record keeping, and management development (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003).

Performing community service has been reported as incrementally increasing as recently since the early 2000s (Sax, 2004). Increase notwithstanding, questions have arisen to how much universities directly impact this increase. Some researchers believe these increases are attributed to surges in community service performed in high school (Berger & Milem, 2002). Questions have also been raised on whether universities provide an environment that instills lasting development for the student (Astin, Astin, & Lindholm, 2011; Sax, 2004). Sax performed a longitudinal study examining college student's civic values and behaviors, which showed limited long-term impact. College students were almost 11 percent more likely to show greater commitment to helping others during their 4th year in college compared to entering college, but this increase declined to a 3.5 percent difference five years after college (Sax, 2004). Participating in a community action program (e.g. helping others in difficulty), over the same time period as mentioned above, increased over nine percent while in college, but lowered to less than a one percent difference five years after college. One area where universities have made a long-term impact on student's commitment is social activism, with a total increase of

over 16 percent (Sax). While these findings show students increase their community engagement while in college, do universities provide an experience that creates permanent change within the student? Astin et al. (2011) investigated changes in civic values and behaviors of college students and found significant increases while in college. College students expressed a 13 percent increase in ethic in caring (Defined as feelings on making the world a better place, helping others in need, etc.) from freshman to junior years. On the other hand, this value was not reciprocated through behavior, as students reported their community service participation decreased while in college (Astin et al., 2011). While this section highlights the potential advantages for institutions to connect with their local community, there are also ample advantages for college students to connect as well.

Community Service Organizations & College Students

College students are able to provide community service organizations (CSO) with a form of free labor and expanded resources (Blouin & Perry, 2009). CSOs often use college students to continue their organizational programming and allow their full-time staff to pursue projects requiring additional experience (Blouin & Perry, 2009). College students provide the unique advantage of discussing the CSO experience with other college students (Blouin & Perry, 2009). This provides the organization with additional volunteers and also connects them within a network of people they would not necessarily have had access to.

Effective and people-friendly volunteers can provide a lasting impact on the community service organization's customers (Haski-Leventhal, Hustinx, & Handy,

2011). Customers at one Ronald McDonald House experienced excellent interactions with 87 percent of the residence's community service providers (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2011). CSOs have expressed their positive experiences with students completing university internships, volunteer programs, and students completing a service-learning course (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003). Eighty-five percent of CSOs reported their college student volunteers as helpful or providing a minimum of modest contribution (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003). Brisbin and Hunter (2003) discussed how one CSO leader spoke about the students' positive attitude and eagerness to help during their community service.

Certain service organizations perceive the recruitment of college student volunteers as vital for the survival of the organization and/or cause (Brisbin & Hunter). Recruiting college student volunteers was deemed necessary by CSOs because of their belief that younger volunteers were more impressionable and more likely to feel ownership with the organization and its cause (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003). A study examining CSO's perceptions of student-athlete volunteers found organizations valued the long-term impact of student volunteers (Svensson, et al., 2014). They believed recruiting college student volunteers allowed the organization to instill their mission into the younger generation. One CSO director was quoted as saying, "When they leave [the university] they're going to just take their thought about [our organization] out into the community wherever they end up." (Svensson et al., 2014, p. 109). Beyond instilling their mission into students, organizations also relish the opportunity to educate volunteers about the people they serve (Svensson et al.). One director for programming for people with disabilities was quoted saying,

“We look for people that might not have that background or that experience that haven’t worked a lot of people with disabilities” (Svensson et al., 2014, pp. 109-110).

Overall, people working for CSOs view their relationship with college student volunteers as a net positive, but this was not without adverse experiences (Blouin & Perry, 2009; Brisbin & Hunter, 2003). These challenges include college students showing a lack of professionalism, poor work ethic, failing to report during scheduled work, lack of previous exposure to diversity, and need to accommodate on short notice (Blouin & Perry, 2009). Community leaders believed the most persistent problem with college student volunteers was a lack of dependability or personal responsibility (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003). Brisbin and Hunter also found some students had to be instructed on the importance of showing up during their assigned time as people depended on their help. While there were examples of poor experiences with college students, Blouin and Perry (2009) found these complaints were infrequent.

With many CSOs making a significant commitment to college student volunteers, universities need to make a stronger connection with CSOs (Blouin & Perry, 2009). This commitment can result from the various types of expertise provided through available faculty, financial support from administration, or indirect connections with the university’s corporate partners. CSOs believed that university personnel can provide training to their students before they perform community service to decrease the likeliness they will struggle to fulfill their duties as a community service participant (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003). With the above-

mentioned benefits of students volunteering with CSOs, should universities explore the possibility of requiring their students to perform community service?

Compulsory Community Service in Education

There is no single widely accepted definition for compulsory community service. For the purpose of this study, compulsory community service is performing community service that is required by primary, secondary, or higher education personnel to achieve completion of a course, graduation, or other educational requirement. Research on the frequency of compulsory community service has provided inconsistent results. For example, researchers who surveyed college students in an introductory psychology course found that almost 90 percent had completed forced community service hours (Gage III & Thapa, 2012). A study investigating college students at a university in Ontario, Canada found that over 40 percent reported being involved with mandatory community service when they were in high school (Henderson, Pancer, & Brown, 2014). Another study surveying almost 10,000 students during their freshman and junior years found 8 percent self-reported performing required community service (Griffith, 2010). Yet another study involving over 50,000 participants reported an increase from eight percent of college students being required to perform community service in 1996 to 19 percent reporting forced community service (Griffith, 2012).

Scholars have investigated the impact of completely compulsory community service on volunteers (Gage III & Thapa, 2012; Henderson et al., 2014; Milem & Berger, 1997; Munter, 2002; Stukas, Snyder, & Clary, 1999; Warburton & Smith,

2003). Gage and Thapa (2012) found almost 20 percent of students who participated in a compulsory community service program did not participate in community service once they completed the program. Students perceiving little external control of their volunteering experience indicated lower intentions of performing community service in the future (Stukas et al., 1999). This contrasts with the positive correlation between volunteers who perceive low levels of external control and their willingness to volunteer in the future. These findings show forcing college students to perform community service decreases their likeliness to perform community service in the future (Stukas et al., 1999). Those that participated in “forced” community service believed it possessed no characteristics that were similar to performing community service other than their lack of payment (Warburton & Smith, 2003). The adjectives used to describe their participation were “getting it shoved down our throats”; “it’s a chore”; “blackmail”; “forced labor” (Warburton & Smith, 2003, p. 779). Participation in these programs led to participants resenting the activity and the organization. Faced with an opportunity to change one characteristic of their community service experience, the almost unanimous choice was to have free choice in their community service activity (Warburton & Smith, 2003). Munter (2002) also found social development was stunted when students were not given the choice of which organization to perform community service with.

Positive benefits have also been reported, however, from compulsory volunteers. One study found positive benefits for performing community service who felt obligated to help, in the form of improved academic ability and

achievement orientation, factors not statistically significant for volunteers who performed willingly (Berger & Milem, 2002). A pre-test/post-test study found forced volunteers were as likely to perform community service two years after being required as those that were given a choice to volunteer (Griffith, 2010). Required community service also exposes students to opportunities they would not have tried unless it was required (Henderson et al., 2014).

There is still a discrepancy on whether compulsory community service is a positive or negative experience for volunteers. While certain experiences can be positive for forced volunteers, forcing community service may result in a lower level of development. Forced community service participants still exhibited many of the benefits reaped by non-forced volunteers, but their stated benefits were fewer compared to those that freely chose to perform community service (Henderson et al., 2014). These benefits included making new friends while volunteering, their friends viewing the activity as worthwhile, believing their activity made a difference, and having fun while volunteering. A qualitative follow-up with these participants found they expressed “volunteering would not have as great an impact were it to be forced upon people” (Henderson et al., 2014, p. 135). Given the mixed results on the impact of compulsory community service on students, it is important to examine the reasons, and frequency, which motivates college students to perform community service.

How Often/Why College Students Perform Community Service

Scholars have investigated the frequency of college students performing community service, with varying results (Franke et al., 2010; Gage III & Thapa, 2012; Griffith, 2010; Ruiz, Sharkness, Kelly, DeAngelo, & Pryor, 2010; Sullivan et al., 2013). A 2009 national aggregate study discovered almost 58 percent of college students performed community service in their first year in college (Ruiz et al., 2013), while 71 percent of senior college students performed community service by their senior year (Franke et al., 2010). A qualitative study found 68 percent of college students performed community service during the 2007 spring semester, spending an average of 2.5 hours per week performing community service (Sullivan et al., 2013). When the same students were asked if they had participated in community service at any point during their undergraduate experience, 84 percent indicated they had volunteered, and peaked with 96 percent of seniors indicating they had performed community service during their undergraduate experience. Another study found 41 percent of college students in an introductory undergraduate course performed community service between one to five hours each month (Gage III & Thapa, 2012). A study surveying almost 10,000 college students found roughly 50 percent of participants were performing community service as both freshmen and juniors (Griffith, 2010). While these findings are inconsistent, each study indicates millions of college students are performing community service every semester.

College students perform community service in a variety of venues: education, human needs, environment, and public safety (Astin & Sax, 1998). When

investigating service within a campus community, students who performed community service on their college campus predominantly worked in their university's admission office (almost 90 percent), with significantly fewer engaging in activities such as multicultural, nutrition, and sex health awareness programming (Sullivan et al., 2013). Service learning, while not a specific venue, was one of the most frequent forms of community service for college students (Berger & Milem, 2002). Students also performed community service for a multitude of causes. The most frequently chosen cause was working with youth (25 percent), followed by health issues (24 percent), pro-environment (20 percent), fighting hunger (18 percent), civic awareness (15 percent), homelessness (14 percent), religion (7 percent), elder care (7 percent), and economic opportunity (4 percent) (Johnson et al., 2013). For college students attending non-religious affiliated institutions, religious involvement was one of the least chosen causes for community service (Berger & Milem, 2002).

When deliberating whether to perform community service, college students considered the service organization's mission, followed by the travel time to the site, reference groups, flexibility for work hours, and the type of work required (Lee & Won, 2011). The mission of the service organization seems to be especially important, as participants reported mission to be 1.5 times more important than travel time and reference groups, and three times more important than flexibility for work hours and task types (Lee & Won, 2011). These differences were also impacted by gender, with females more persuaded by mission and males more influenced by task type. Additionally, students reported they would be willing to

drive up to 30 minutes to perform community service, but would be dissuaded to participate if travel time was beyond that time limit (Lee & Won, 2011).

One of the strongest predictors for performing community service in college and beyond is performing community service in high school (Avalos, Sax, & Astin, 1999; Berger & Milem, 2002; Johnson et al., 2013; Sax, 2004). Avalos et al. (1999) found those who participated in community service in high school were twice as likely to perform community service nine years after high school graduation (64 percent) than those who did not (30 percent). There is also a correlation between high school and college for those that volunteer frequently. Students that frequently performed community service (more than three hours every week) in high school were more than twice as likely to be a frequent volunteer in college (Sax, 2004). Additionally, performing community service while in high school has a strong statistical relationship participating in community service four years after starting college (Berger & Milem, 2002).

With performing community service in high school a positive indicator for performing community service in college, those who perform community service in high school are more likely to be admitted into higher education than those who do not volunteer (Johnson et al., 2003; Marks & Jones, 2004; Sax, 2004). A study by Sax noted almost 83 percent of college freshmen performed community service during their last year in high school. A different study found 97 percent of students within an introductory undergraduate course reported that they completed community service in high school (Gage III & Thapa, 2012). A study focusing on when students

were first exposed to community service reported lower results, with only 47 percent of students stating they were exposed to performing community service in high school (Marks & Jones, 2004).

While universities recruit college students active in their community, there is concern as to whether higher education provides the best environment to maintain student volunteerism. The National Assessment of Service and Community Engagement, which surveys over 18,000 students from 36 different institutions, found 85 percent of college students performed community service in high school, but that number fell to only 46 percent continuing their community service participation in college (Johnson et al., 2003). An opposing article found college students who perform community service are more likely to perform community service during the five years following their graduation (Avalos, Sax, & Astin, 1999).

As this section highlights, students who perform community service report a myriad of positive indicators from their community service experience. With so few drawbacks to community service, it becomes obvious why universities are interested in encouraging their students to perform community service in their local community. That said, students still do encounter challenges restricting them from performing community service.

Constraints for College Students to Perform Community Service

Universities face the challenge of exposing students to community service during their first year of college or helping them maintain their volunteering spirit they developed in high school. On the other hand, students face challenges including

becoming familiar with a new environment, increased focus on coursework commitments, or interest in clubs and/or intramural opportunities (Jones & Hill, 2003). Interviews with students who either sustained or discontinued their community service found they mentioned increased challenges of time availability and other activities becoming a greater priority (Jones & Hill, 2003). Another case study echoed these findings, as the top two reasons given by students for volunteering constraints were “no time to volunteer” and “too many other commitments” (Schatteman, 2014).

One frequently mentioned challenge was becoming familiar with their new local community. Those who discontinued their community service did not believe it was possible for them to participate in community service and maintain their other university requirements (Jones & Hill, 2003). College students also reported challenges of other commitments, no time to volunteer, and being unaware of service opportunities (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003; Gage III & Thapa, 2012). Community service organizations believed the greatest constraints for college students to perform community service were competing interests, ignorance to organizational needs, and difficulty scheduling service (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003). While a study has not explicitly asked student-athletes about their constraints to perform community service, each of the above constraints would potentially apply to student-athletes because of research stating they are overburdened with commitments (Watt & Moore, 2001), lack of free time (Lally & Kerr, 2005), and lack of awareness to service opportunities (Huml, 2011).

Regardless of the challenges faced by college students wanting to perform community service, a study completed in 2004 found volunteerism had been increasing over the previous decade (Sax, 2004). A more recent study found students were almost three times more likely to perform community service once a year in 2008 compared to statistics from 2000 (Griffith, 2012). While research has shown students are more likely to perform community service in high school than college, this increase in community service is evidence higher education provides a better environment for students to develop academically through community engagement.

Constraints for Student-Athletes to Perform Community Service

Student-athletes self-report more challenges to participate with on- and off-campus extracurricular groups and events than the general student population (Richard & Aries, 1999). This self-reported difficulty was connected to the time commitment that is already required for their participation in varsity athletics (Richard & Aries, 1999). Part of the increased challenge faced by student-athletes coincides with their dependency on athletic department personnel to aid in connecting them with academic opportunities (Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2011). This is problematic because athletic departments, especially non-BCS (Bowl Championship Series) institutions, have significant financial constraints that limit their impact on student-athlete's academic development (Nite, 2012). While a NCAA Division I (BCS) institution has the financial means to employ a full-time staff member for student-athlete development, non-BCS institutions cannot afford to hire a full-time staff member (Nite, 2012). The limited resources that non-BCS athletic

departments do have are used to improve the athletic success of the university's team (Nite, 2012). This lack of athletic personnel to focus on improving the academic development of their student-athletes is also the same personnel who would be responsible for improving the connections between the athletic department and community service opportunities (Andrassy & Bruening, 2011; Huml et al., 2014).

How Often/Why Student-Athletes Perform Community Service

Research on student-athletes' participation in community service is scant. Student-athletes perform community service at similar levels as their peers, with 87 percent of NCAA Division I student-athletes performing community service before they started their freshman year in college, while 94 percent reported they completed community service while they were in college (Chalk, 2008). A study involving a mix of student-athletes at a private, religious university and professional hockey players found they spent on average of 1-3 hours each week performing community service (Boettger, 2007). The athletes also did not express restraint regarding performing community service in their seasonal sport schedule, with only one athlete mentioning s/he would only perform community service in the off-season. Student-athletes performed community service activities such as helping children and attended events connected with holidays (e.g. Easter Egg hunt), as well nationally recognized events or organizations (e.g. Relay for Life and National Girls and Women in Sports Day) (Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2013).

College student-athletes have similar self-reported commitment levels toward social activism as other college students (Gaston-Gayles, Rockenbach, & Davis, 2012). High-profile athletes demonstrated greater interest than non-athlete students and low-profile athletes in social activism, but the lowest level of putting those interests into action. Their commitment to social activism was somewhat superficial, as the general college student population performed more community service than student-athletes (Gaston-Gayles et al., 2012). Student-athletes are also satisfied with the amount of community service they perform and the academic development they experience by participating, but also feel service is paramount to their undergraduate experience (Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2013). Athletes also mentioned that community service provides them with structure similar to intercollegiate athletics (Kamusoko & Pemberton). Certain student-athletes perceived community service being so ingrained within their obligations of being an athlete they felt guilty if they turned down an opportunity to perform community service (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013).

With student-athletes strongly connected to their athletic department, departmental support for community service can help student-athletes become involved with their community (Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2013). Forty-two of the seventy athletic department mission statements investigated mentioned community engagement (Andrassy & Bruening, 2011). On the other hand, athletic department websites did not report student-athletes performing community service at the same level portrayed in their mission statements (Andrassy & Bruening, 2011). A recent study found a smaller percentage of athletic departments mentioned community

engagement, but there was still a lack of “evidence” on the department’s website showing student-athletes performing community service (Huml et al., 2014). Huml et al. (2014) also examined student-athlete handbooks, finding athletic departments rarely mentioned community service organizations seeking community service participants or local opportunities. They also found when the handbooks did mention community service, it was as a form of punishment available to coaches (Huml et al., 2014). These findings show that while student-athletes have a potentially easier path towards performing community service because the athletic department provides them with opportunities (Chalk, 2008), they are not achieving the mission of the athletic department. While students and student-athletes have personal reasons for participating in community service, there is also substantial research on how students’ demographic and educational background will impact their willingness to perform community service.

Factors that Impact Students Performing Community Service

A college student’s background or demographics influences his/her frequency of performing community service (Berger & Milem, 2002; Chesbrough, 2011; Cruce & Moore, 2007; Serow, 1991; Sullivan et al., 2013; Symonds, 2009). Both race and gender have been examined extensively. The findings regarding race and frequency to perform community service have been inconsistent. Cruce and Moore (2007) found Latinos, Asian Americans, and African Americans were more likely to perform community service during their first-year in college compared to white, first year college students. Another study found ethnic minority college students were almost three times as likely to perform community service than

ethnic majority college students (Sullivan et al., 2013). On the other hand, a separate study found Caucasian students were more likely to extract positive benefits from their community service experience (Berger & Milem, 2002).

Female college students were more likely to perform community service than male college students (Chesbrough, 2011; Metz, McLellan, & Youniss, 2003), with one study finding females three times as likely to perform community service (Sullivan et al., 2013). Another article found female high school students were more likely to perform engagement activities than males (Eccles & Barber, 1999). Women were also more likely to commit to long-term community service (Chesbrough, 2011; Metz et al., 2003). Gender also impacted a student's process of considering community service. Males were more likely to consider outcomes of service, extrinsic motivation, and their available time when deciding on whether to participate and in which specific project (Chesbrough, 2011). This same study found women were more intrinsically motivated and more compulsive when choosing to participate in community service. Women were also more likely to describe their activity using emotionally charged adjectives and as a personal commitment, while men considered the activity as individualistic and impersonal (Chesbrough, 2011). Similar findings found women more involved with social-issues community service (Metz et al., 2003).

Women were also more satisfied with the appreciation received from families they served and the staff they worked with than men, felt increased satisfaction from participating, and created relationships with other community

service participants (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2011). Additionally, adolescent females saw increased gains in social and personal responsibility when performing community service compared to males (Hamilton & Fenzel, 1988). Women ranked community service a higher priority than male students both as freshman and juniors (Astin et al., 2011). Even with investigating community engagement of student-athletes, females (55 percent) were more likely to be engaged in community service than male student-athletes (35 percent) (Crawford, 2007). This gender divide is also apparent for faculty who advocate community service: female faculty are five times more likely to offer courses with a community engagement component and 60 percent more likely to recommend community service as a graduation requirement (Antonio et al., 2000).

A student's background also impacted his/her dedication to community service (Cruce & Moore, 2007; Serow, 1991; Sullivan et al., 2013). Those who participated in community service were less likely to attach importance to family and more likely to attach importance to serving others than those that did not participate (Serow, 1991). On the other hand, their family's connection to higher education did matter, as students who have at least one parent who earned a bachelor's degree were more likely to perform community service than those who did not (Cruce & Moore, 2007). Extrinsic motivations were more likely to convince a participant to commit to community service in their initial college years, but these reasons did not sustain community service participation at the same frequency as intrinsic motivations (Chesbrough, 2011). Lastly, hours spent performing community service was strongly related to a litany of benefits received by

participants, including cognitive, social, and identity development (Chesbrough, 2011). Another study found the number of hours and total weeks spent performing community service were positively correlated with high levels of commitment and future community involvement (Astin, 1993).

Different higher education factors also influenced students' willingness to perform community service. Students who recorded higher ACT scores entering college were more likely to perform community service during their first year of college than those with lower ACT scores (Cruce & Moore, 2007). If the students were non-traditional, they were more likely to perform community service during their first year in college than their peers, but part-time students were less likely to perform community service during their freshman year (Cruce & Moore, 2007). Living on campus also plays an important role of increasing students' charitable involvement (Astin et al., 2011; Cruce & Moore, 2007). Students who choose a major in either the social or biological sciences showed greater increases in charitable activities from freshman to junior year than other college majors (Astin et al., 2011). Community-focused faculty also benefited students, influencing them to be involved in charitable activities (Astin et al., 2011). Another study found a student's familiarity with the university's mission as the only statistically significant factor increasing his/her willingness to perform any type of community service (Sullivan et al., 2013). Characteristics negatively impacting the frequency of community service were student loans, paid employment, time spent watching television, and weak religiosity (Marks & Jones, 2004). Students with goals of being financially "well-off" and beliefs that they cannot change society were less likely to

perform community service (Astin, 1993). Lastly, students utilizing social media, such as Twitter, were more engaged in academic activities such as service learning (Junco, Heibergert, & Loken, 2011).

Frequency to perform community service varies depending on the host institution (Burns et al., 2005). While measuring the six motivations (career, social, values, understanding, enhancement, and protective) from the Volunteer Functions Inventory VFI, Burns et al. (2005) found statistically significant differences in all but career. Their findings indicated students attending public, commuter universities self-reported less motivation to perform community service than students attending other institutions. Students from an African American, liberal arts institution had stronger motivations to perform community service than the other institutions. This highlights the importance of both non-profit organizations and higher education institutions to dovetail their community service opportunities to match their student populations' motivations to participate.

Student-athletes, and their background characteristics, have also been measured (Cruce & Moore, 2007; Gaston-Gayles & Hu, 2009; Sullivan et al., 2013; Symonds, 2009), although researchers report inconsistent findings on the frequency of student-athletes performing community service. Two studies found students who participated in varsity athletics had similar frequencies performing community service as non-athlete students (Cruce & Moore, 2007; Symonds, 2009). On the contrary, Sullivan et al. (2013) found student-athletes were performing community service more frequently than the general student population. Student-athletes were

more likely to plan on performing community service in college than non-athlete students (Cruce & Moore, 2007). On the other hand, revenue sport student-athletes were not performing community service as frequently as non-revenue sport student-athletes (Symonds, 2009).

Sullivan et al. found student-athletes performed community service more frequently than the general student population. Student-athletes were more likely to plan on performing community service in college than non-athlete students (Cruce & Moore, 2007). On the other hand, revenue sport student-athletes did not perform community service as frequently as non-revenue sport student-athletes (Symonds, 2009). Unlike other college students, background characteristics were not statistically significant in explaining the frequency of student-athletes performing educationally purposeful activities, which included participation in service activities (Gaston-Gayles & Hu, 2009). The authors believed this underlined the importance of student-athletes having access to activities that will “have a greater impact on personal self-concept and learning and communication skills regardless of background characteristics” (p. 328).

With so many different college student sub-populations indicating varying levels of community service, universities need to provide multifaceted community service policies to help match individual students with the challenges they face (Cruce & Moore, 2007). Smaller universities are more likely to inform their students of available community service opportunities compared to larger institutions (Jones & Hill, 2003). This illustrates how larger institutions need to implement a process

that captures the attention of their students. Increased visibility can be one solution, as visible community service programs increase student participation (Jones & Hill, 2003). College students' expectations in higher education, regardless of their background and characteristics, have also changed. Their perspective has transformed from becoming a member of a "community of learners" to achieving their degree with minimal effort and engagement (Colby et al., 2003).

A student's history and demographics can be used to predict his/her community service participation frequency. While this is vital information, it does not provide insight into what motivates students to perform community service. The student's motivation to perform community service can help the institution provide the correct support to increase its community service.

Motivations for Community Service

With higher education administrators perceiving benefits for their students to perform community service, it is crucial to understand student motives to assist their local community (Batson et al., 2002). Extensive research has investigated specific motives of volunteers for performing community service (Astin & Sax, 1998; Batson et al., 2002; Bryant et al., 2012; Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1992; Clary et al., 1998; Einfield & Collins, 2008; Gage III & Thapa, 2012; MacNeela & Gannon, 2014; Serow, 1991). College students have self-reported a multitude of reasons for engaging in community service. A study investigating adolescent volunteers found their motivations were more likely to be intrinsic and extrinsic (Wilson & Musick, 1999). "Helping other people" resonates strongly with

volunteers, as over 90 percent of participants mentioned it as a reason for performing community service (Astin & Sax, 1998). Astin and Sax reported three other motivations: To feel personal satisfaction (67 percent), to improve my community (63 percent), and to improve society as a whole (61 percent).

A qualitative study found satisfaction from helping others, involvement through club, activity, or class, and a calling to repair societal problems as the most frequent responses for motivations to perform community service (Serow, 1991). Ten college students asked about their decision to perform community service expressed motivations such as career interests, making a difference, finding a social niche, the need to be active, and finding/taking opportunities (MacNeela & Gannon, 2014). Another study examining students in an introductory college course found that importance to help others, concern with those who are less fortunate, helping an important cause, concern for a group of people, and attaining a new perspective were the most frequently mentioned motivations (Gage III & Thapa, 2012). The least frequently mentioned motivations were religious duty, combating loneliness, opportunity to escape, relief from societal guilt, and helping with the community service participant's personal problems (Gage III & Thapa, 2012). Students volunteering outside of the traditional community service environment also expressed similar motivations. College-aged community service participants at a refugee camp in Beirut reported motivations of new opportunities and helping children (Makhoul, Alameddine, & Afifi, 2012). A study investigating the experiences of college students participating in AmeriCorps found that they were motivated by the opportunity to "give back" (Einfield & Collins, 2008). Beyond the volunteers,

community service organization members believe an “innate sense of caring” for others, civic duty, and wanting to connect with other community service participants as the main motivations for performing community service (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003).

Clary, Snyder, and other corresponding authors completed multiple studies investigating the motivations to participate in community service (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1992; Clary et al., 1998). They interviewed 1,000 community service participants and 500 college students. Their factor analysis discovered motivations to perform community service including values (i.e. importance of helping others), understanding (i.e. understanding the people they are helping), career (i.e. exploring job opportunities), social (i.e. influence of friends, family, or social group), esteem (i.e. to improve their confidence), and protective (i.e. to relieve unpleasant issues in their life) (Clary et al., 1992). Another article included six separate studies that tested a conceptual instrument, provided temporal stability by providing the instrument to participants at two different times, and matched motivations with persuasive communication from advertisements, connecting motivations with the quality of the community service experience, benefits from participating, and intention/frequency to perform community service in the future (Clary et al., 1998). The only factor difference from the original study was the inclusion of enhancement (i.e. psychological growth and development from volunteering) instead of esteem (Clary & Snyder, 1999). The instrument was confirmed as reliable through Cronbach’s Alpha and factor analysis (Clary et al.,

1998), and has since been used in multiple studies that investigating motivations of college volunteers (Boettger, 2007; Burns et al., 2005; Finkelstein, 2008).

Past and current experiences also influenced a student's motivations to perform community service (MacNeela & Gannon, 2014; Jones & Hill, 2003). A qualitative study interviewing 10 college students found their life history impacted their motivation to perform community service (MacNeela & Gannon, 2014). One interviewee spoke about a family member having a disability, which spurred volunteer involvement with a community service organization. Students who were influenced by family and friends to volunteer in high school were less likely to maintain their community service while in college (Jones & Hill, 2003). Many of these students professed desire to have college friends reinvigorate their interest in performing community service. Student-athletes have slightly different motivations than the general student population. Unsurprisingly, these differences have been shown to connect to their team environment.

Motivations for College Student-Athletes to Perform Community Service

Co-curricular engagement (i.e. varsity athletics) has been shown to have a positive correlation with social activism and charitable involvement (Bryant et al., 2012). Student-athletes reported similar motivations to perform community service as other college students. One study found helping others was the primary motivational factor to perform community service, followed by being asked to perform community service, social responsibility, intrinsic reward, career experience, and through participation in a group (Chalk, 2008). A study involving

both professional athletes and student-athletes at a private, religious-based university found that the professional athletes were more motivated by humanitarianism, while the student-athletes were more motivated by religious reasons (Boettger, 2007). Boettger found athletes were less motivated to perform community service by feelings of guilt, creating new friendships, and gaining career experience than non-athlete college students. Student-athletes also mentioned motivations not seen in studies involving non-athlete students, including motivations of being required and because the activity was connected to intercollegiate athletics (Chalk, 2008).

Athletes mentioned they felt community service was one of the requirements of being a student-athlete (Chalk, 2008). Interviews with both professional and college athletes found they frequently mentioned they owed it to their community (Boettger, 2007). This may be because student-athletes self-report that athletic department personnel, including their coaches, frequently ask or require their student-athletes to perform community service (Chalk, 2008). That being said, the above-mentioned motivational factors to perform community service lends support that intrinsic motivations exceed the nature of community service being required for many student-athletes (Chalk, 2008).

As mentioned above, student-athletes possess many of the same motivations to perform community service as the general student population. The variability between the two groups appears when student-athletes mention motivations aligned with their sport commitment, such as feeling obligated or performing

community service as a team activity. These motivational differences between student-athletes and non-athlete students could impact the benefits they extract from performing community service.

Benefits for College Students Performing Community Service

Largely, students felt positive about their community service experience (Gallini & Moely, 2003; Hunter & Brisbin, 2000; Schatteman, 2014). Seventy-two percent of student volunteers felt “very satisfied” with their volunteering experience, with 88 percent feeling at least “somewhat satisfied” by their community service experience (Primavera, 1999). Schatteman (2014) found the three most frequently mentioned benefits of performing community service centered on satisfaction: overall enjoyment of the experience, the experience was worthwhile, and making an important contribution. Another study found 90 percent of college students reported the community service performed for classes was the most important part of their undergraduate experience (Hunter & Brisbin, 2000). A study performed by Kuh (1995) found college students believed that out-of-class experiences were influential in their personal development. One student described a previous year’s learning experience, “Last year I was involved mostly in putting together the Community Service Network... through all the things I’ve learned that...you have to find a way to communicate with all kinds of people because that’s what it takes to get things done, to make things happen” (Kuh, 1995, p. 133). Additionally, ten students at a private institution interviewed in a qualitative study expressed personal satisfaction from their service experience and regarded their time commitment as productive (MacNeela & Gannon, 2014).

Research has found a bevy of benefits associated with performing community engagement (Astin & Sax, 1998; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Metz et al., 2003; Plein, 2011; Youniss & Yates, 1997). Astin and Sax (1998) provided the most comprehensive study, indicating that participating in community service assisted volunteers with academic development, life skills' development, and growth of civic responsibility. The authors defined academic development as activity that "Enhances the student's college grade point average (GPA), general knowledge, knowledge of a field or discipline, and aspirations for advanced degrees and is also associated with increased time devoted to homework and studying and increased contact with faculty" (Astin & Sax, 1998, p. 257). Life skills development was defined as activity that "improved the participant's leadership skills, critical thinking, communication, diversity understanding, and understanding of both micro- and macro-issues revolving around their local community" (Astin & Sax, 1998, p. 259). Lastly, civic development meant someone "showed a stronger passion for helping others, performing future community service work, encouraging racial understanding, and helping in their local community" (Astin & Sax, 1998, p. 256).

Other studies have investigated college students' performing community service found positive developments, including understanding racial and cultural diversity (Astin, 1993; Astin et al., 2000; Avalos et al., 1999; Einfield & Collins, 2008; Hunter & Brisbin, 2000; Primavera, 1999), socializing with diverse populations (Avalos et al., 1999; Makhoul et al., 2012), understanding/involvement in political issues (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Hunter & Brisbin, 2000; Youniss & Yates, 1997), and commitment to activism and social justice (Astin, 1993; Astin et al., 2000; Einfield &

Collins, 2008). Students were especially impacted by their exposure to a community that was distinct from their upbringing. Fifty-seven percent indicated their comprehension of poverty, illiteracy, community violence, and lack of educational opportunity was increased, with almost half of the volunteers stating their negative stereotypes surrounding those issues had been reduced or abolished (Primavera, 1999). A group of college-aged students who performed community service at a refugee camp in Beirut embraced the friendships they forged, the improvements they perceived from the children they helped, and increased self-confidence and courage (Makhoul et al., 2012).

Community service participants also experienced positive benefits related to the community they supported, including creating connections with their local community (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Hunter & Brisbin; Youniss & Yates, 1997), choosing a career in service (Astin et al., 2000), creating their own pro-environment and community action programs (Astin et al., 2000; Avalos et al., 1999), and heightened awareness of community issues (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Gallini & Moely, 2003; Youniss & Yates, 1997). Benefits for college students included future tutoring of other college students (Astin, 1993), improved interpersonal skills (Astin et al., 1999), and involvement in activities requiring leadership (Astin et al., 1999).

College students reaped personal improvements for performing community service as well. These improvements included feelings of achievement (Taylor & Pancer, 2007), improved clarity of their future career path (Taylor & Pancer, 2007), valuing opportunities to help others (Avalos et al., 1999), constructing a life

philosophy (Astin, 1993; Avalos et al., 1999), feelings of empowerment (Knapp et al., 2010; Sax, 2004), feelings of contentment from helping their community (Hunter & Brisbin, 2000), personal growth (Primavera, 1999), leadership development (Astin; MacNeela & Gannon, 2014), increased awareness of their strengths (Primavera, 1999), improved time management skills (MacNeela & Gannon, 2014), and development of their academic skills (Hunter & Brisbin, 2000). Astin et al. (2000) revealed positive outcome measures of improved GPA, writing skills, critical thinking skills, and self-efficacy. Universities also received benefits for students becoming involved in community service, as students who volunteered were more likely to attend graduate school, complete a degree beyond their bachelor's degree, and donate to their alma mater (Avalos et al., 1999). Students performing religious-based community service reported positive developments of well-being, which included life satisfaction, happiness, self-esteem, mastery, physical health, and depression (Thoits & Hewitt, 2001). This same study also found that if the student's well-being increased s/he was more likely to perform community service in the future.

Another benefit of performing community service is repeating the act in the future (Astin et al., 2000; Griffith, 2010; Metz et al., 2003). Of freshman students performing community service, 66 percent reported performing community service again as juniors. This compares to only 33 percent of juniors who performed community service who indicated they did not perform community service as freshmen (Griffith, 2010). Sixty percent of service-learning students expressed a willingness to perform future community service (Knapp et al., 2010). Their

frequency of performing community service also has been shown to augment the volunteer's extracted benefits (Doerksen, Evavsky, Rebar, & Conroy, 2014). Any students who performed community service more than the group's mean exhibited greater levels of personal satisfaction (Doerksen et al., 2014). The students' satisfaction level with their community service experience did not seem to impact their future intentions to perform community service, as all participants in Primavera's (1999) study expressed their desire to continue performing community service in the future.

While many of these benefits may occur at the volunteering site, the act of performing community service can be impactful after the experience has commenced (Primavera, 1999). One study found college students who participated in a family literacy community service project spent 1.7 hours reflecting on their experience for every one hour they spent participating (Primavera, 1999). Students echoed the importance of securing a community service experience that will provide time for "reflection" (Astin et al., 2000). This reflection time allows the students to assess their service experience and decide how their experience will influence their personal values, attitudes, and goals (Bryant et al., 2012).

Those who performed community service more than two years ago still believed they were impacted by their service. Participants have self-reported greater acceptance of ideas, activities, and people they previously would not have embraced (Jones & Abes, 2004). Even those supervising college students at their community service site perceived benefits from their participation. Community

service organizations believed college students who performed community service exhibited benefits including improved career-related skills, increased willingness to help others and become involved in civic issues, and enhanced sensitivity to diversity (Brisbin & Hunter, 2003).

Alumni who had completed a community service project within the past three years also discussed their community service experience (Plein, 2011). One student defined her experience as “comforting”, as she performed community service in a small town reminding her of her hometown. Another graduate found the experience as “eye-opening”, as it was the first time residing in a town with an inadequate number of healthcare and legal providers (Plein, 2011). This same student believed parents were fearful of letting their children leave the town, as they believed they would never return. General themes were that the experience helped them improve their listening skills and spatial awareness (Plein, 2011). Another general theme was cognizance of how social issues create multiple opinions within one society. Students indicated the longer they became involved in the community, the more they became aware of “deep-seeded” issues between citizens on certain topics (Plein, 2011).

While performing community service can provide positive benefits, the experience needs to be impactful to the participant in order to cultivate a long-term behavior (Astin et al., 2000; Bryant et al., 2012; Clary et al., 1998; Taylor & Pancer, 2007). A study by Taylor and Pancer (2007) suggested the type of service being performed, as well as how much support, respect, and appreciation they received

from friends, family, and the service organization “may be critical factors in determining the kind of impact these experiences will have on individual’s development and the likelihood with which they will become committed, lifelong volunteers” (p. 341). One study showed performing community service can become more impactful if there is a connection between performing community service and the student’s mentors, including other students and university faculty (Astin et al., 2000). The type of community service also impacts the benefits for the participant (Metz et al., 2003). Students participating in social cause community service, specifically with organizations “that themselves symbolically represented explicit stances toward improving society” (Metz et al. 2003, pp. 199-200), were positively impacted to understand greater concern for social issues, future unconventional service, and future intended service compared to standard community service participants.

Participants are more likely to perform community service in the future if their benefits are relevant to their motivations to participate (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, 2008; Houle et al., 2005). Satisfaction with participating in community service was positively correlated with experiences matching motivations for helping (Finkelstein, 2008). Finkelstein found this positive correlation within each motive under the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) except career. This lack of positive correlation for career may have been because the sample population’s average age was 65 years old, raising concerns about these findings being applicable to the college student population. Participants also chose community service activities that potentially aligned with their motivations (Houle et al., 2005). If students received a

brochure about the community service opportunity highlighting the students' motivations to perform community service, they were more likely to commit to the community service (Clary et al. 1998, p. 1524). Nonetheless, volunteers may participate to fulfill certain motivations. Performing community service provides a litany of positive "unintended consequences" (Primavera, 1999; Wilson & Musick, 1999). These "collateral" benefits have also been shown to create additional motivation for the participant to perform community service in the future (Wilson & Musick, 1999).

There are negative benefits to performing community service as well (MacNeela & Gannon, 2014). One student performing community service in a school district had students questioning their authority, refusing their help, and being irresponsible. This experience ultimately led to the volunteer abandoning plans to become a teacher after receiving an undergraduate degree (MacNeela & Gannon, 2014). Other students managing a social event felt "extreme pressure" that the event would take place without setbacks and be accepted by their peers. Another group of student volunteers expressed the demands of their position nearly overextended them beyond their available free time, and bordered on consuming time they needed for academic obligations (MacNeela & Gannon, 2014).

Even though their intentions are frequently to help others, college students also receive ample benefits from their community service experience. These include short-term benefits such as improved GPA and making new friends, and long-term benefits such as building a long-term relationship with a community service

organization. College students also found their benefits aligned with their original motivation to perform community service. With student-athletes possessing slightly different motivations to perform community service, did this mean they would extract different benefits from performing community service?

Benefits for College Student-Athletes Performing Community Service

There is a scarcity of research investigating the benefits student-athletes receive from participating in community service. Similar levels of development were reported for student-athletes performing community service as other college students (Richard & Aries, 1999). Jarvie and Paule-Koba (2013) interviewed senior, men's basketball student-athletes at an NCAA Division II institution. Many of the themes captured in this study were similar to benefits reported by other college students. Student-athletes viewed their experiences as "invaluable" and an opportunity that was not available to them inside of the classroom (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013). Performing community service also provided them with great satisfaction and an opportunity to develop their leadership skills (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013). Given the specific sub-population being examined and small sample size ($n = 3$), there are concerns this study's findings are not generalizable to the student-athlete population.

Another study found student-athletes indicated feelings of social responsibility and civic duty after performing community service (McHugo, 2005). For student-athletes who performed community service for social causes, their benefits were more pronounced, as awareness for social responsibility and civic

duty were heightened. Furthermore, performing community service for social causes influenced the participants to foresee how community service would apply in their future plans (McHugo, 2005). Another study recorded similar findings: athletes participating in social-cause community service reported stronger feelings of social responsibility and civic duty than athletes participating in nonsocial-cause community service (Boettger, 2007).

On the contrary, the Jarvie and Paule-Koba (2013) study also found student-athletes reported unique benefits compared to non-athlete students who performed community service. Participants expressed their dependency on their coach to locate and participate in community service projects. Regardless of their involvement, the student-athletes expressed their coach's role as "pivotal". Participants expressed benefits related to the "team environment". Community service allowed the participants to set a positive example for their teammates (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013). They appreciated their team's engagement with the community, as they viewed the experience as more motivating and "fun". Performing community service was also an occasion to build friendships with former players and people close to the coaching staff (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013). While college students indirectly mention characteristics of role modeling, student-athletes explicitly mentioned feelings of being a role model during their community engagement experience (McHugo, 2005).

With student-athletes mentioning the importance of coaches in choosing or administering community service (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013), there is concern as

to whether student-athletes perform obligated or required community service. Benefits for student-athletes who performed “obligated” community service were stunted compared to those who autonomously chose to perform community service (McHugo, 2005). Student-athletes displayed decreased awareness of civic duty and responses of external pressure and obligation to perform community service (McHugo, 2005).

Just as universities receive benefits from students performing community service in the form of future donations and increased intentions to attend graduate (Avalos et al., 1999), athletic departments receive benefits from student-athletes who perform community service (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013; Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2013). A community service opportunity involving student-athletes, coaching staff, and athletic administrators provides an opportunity to foster a stronger relationship among them (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013). Student-athletes also mentioned that reaching out to the community connected them with their fans, especially with those who attended their games (Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2013). This connection can provide an opportunity for fans to build increased loyalty with the athletic department, the team, and the student-athletes.

Summary

Higher education institutions have been encouraging their students to perform community service since their inception. In fact, many of institutions include the topic of community engagement within their mission statement (Sullivan et al., 2013). This allows the institution to make a positive contribution

into its local community, but also provides an environment of learning outside of the classroom for their students.

Even though community service provides benefits to each stakeholder (university, student, and community service organization), there are also drawbacks. CSOs have complained about the lack of communication or passion displayed by the university, and the lack of professionalism and readiness of students. Students wish their university could highlight community service opportunities with greater conviction. Even faculty believe the university does not provide the necessary support to allow them to pursue research within the field of community service.

College students have shown a willingness to perform community service. In fact, many have been introduced to community service before they start college. Students frequently mentioned performing community service for a class requirement as their reason for performing volunteering experience. Students performed community service in a variety of venues: education, human needs, environment, and public safety (Astin & Sax, 1998). When examining the frequency of student-athlete volunteerism, they were as likely or more likely to perform community service than their peers. One study found almost 94 percent of student-athletes had recently performed community service (Chalk, 2008).

To explain their willingness to volunteer, research has shown college students have a litany of motivations to perform community service. A group of authors established the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) to measure student

motivations to volunteer (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1992; Clary et al., 1998). VFI has recorded student motivations categorized as career, social, values, understanding, enhancement, and protective. Student-athletes have reported similarly themed motivations, but also discussed motivations aligning with their athletic identity and team environment.

There is established literature examining the benefits students' extract from their community service experience. These benefits include clarity on future career goals (Taylor & Pancer, 2007), constructing a life philosophy (Astin, 1993), feelings of empowerment (Knapp et al., 2010), improved time management skills (MacNella & Gannon, 2014), and many others. The literature examining the benefits of student-athletes performing community service has discussed similar benefits. Student-athletes believe community service provides them with an opportunity to improve their leadership skills (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013), heightened social responsibility (McHugo, 2005), and an opportunity to bond with their coaches, teammates, and former players (Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2013).

Examining the literature on community service highlights the potential connection with higher education, the frequency of college students performing community service, their motivations, and the benefits they receive from performing community service. Knowing these potential advantages, there is a need to further investigate the association between student-athletes and community service. Additionally, it is important to examining theoretical implications of this study. Universities are invested in helping their students develop academically

while in college (Astin, 1984). The theoretical application will first provide an overview of previous research within the field of student development, followed by an overview of Astin's (1984) Student Involvement Theory.

Theoretical Framework

Student Development

Higher education institutions attempt to create the best learning environment possible for their students. Providing this environment can increase students' odds of persisting, graduating, and improving their career satisfaction from their college experience (Checkoway, 2001). While faculty and administrators have numerous options to improve the academic development of their students, deciding which will provide the greatest impact for students is critical.

Since the early 1900s, university personnel have been examining potential theories to apply to their student population in an effort to increase student development, persistence, and graduation (Evans et al., 2009). One of the initial student development theories was created by Frank Parsons (1909), which focused on finding a matching between a student's characteristics and established occupations. This theory was readily applied during the Great Depression, as students felt increased pressure to secure a job upon earning their degree. For almost 50 years this was the predominant theory applied within higher education. While this theory was the initial link between students and vocation, it has many weaknesses. Unlike modern theories, it does not address any development accrued by students during their college experience, let alone what activities may spur such

development to take place. It perceived students' characteristics as "rigid", believing they would remain the same from their first year of college through graduation.

It wasn't until the 1960's that, with social revolution across the United States, sociologists began to investigate how students transform during their college years (Evans et al., 2009). Nevitt Sanford theorized how students attempt to balance challenge and support in college (Sanford, 1967). Sanford believed students face various challenges in the college environment, prompting them to seek out support to conquer those challenges. Sanford believed higher education is a developmental setting because of this ebb and flow of challenge and support. Roy Heath (1964) believed two developments, ego functioning and individual style, impacted college student development. Ego functioning was defined as "the manner in which the self interacts with the world, achieves its satisfaction, and defends itself from threats to its survival" (Heath, 1973, p. 59). Individual style referred to how "the individual regulates the 'dynamic tension' between the inner, instinctual, feeling self and the outer, more rational self" (Knelfelkamp, Parker, & Widick, 1978, p. 94). These advancements within college student development provided the first insights of college students evolving in midst of pursuing their degree. That said, student development theory was still very much dichotomous, as it lacked the ability to ascertain how or what student characteristics impacted their development. It also had yet to identify what activities supplied student development.

Chickering's Identity of Student Development (Chickering, 1969), one of the most critically acclaimed theories on student development, is still widely accepted

among practitioners. Chickering believed there were seven distinct vectors of development contributing to a student's identity. These vectors are: developing competence, managing emotions, moving through autonomy toward interdependence, developing mature interpersonal relationships, establishing identity, developing purpose, and developing identity (Chickering, 1969). Chickering believed these vectors were transition periods leading to students becoming more individualized beings. Chickering's (1969) Identity of Student Development has been heavily used to examine student sub-populations, such as gender, race, and sexual orientation.

Starting in the 1980s, student development theory became a priority for universities and sociologists alike, resulting in many of the theoretical frameworks employed by institutions today. Some theoretical frameworks focused on how students' individual characteristics would alter their perception and exposure to their environment. These theories include Myers-Briggs Theory of Personality Type (Myers, 1980) and Kolb's Theory of Learning Style (1984). Most important for this study was the introduction of models on the interaction between students and their environment (Rodgers, 1990). These models focused on how universities could influence specific environment characteristics known to foster college student development. One of the most well-known theories within person-environment models was Astin's Student Involvement Theory (1984).

Astin found multiple theories were being implemented across higher education in an effort to create the best academic environment for college students.

As Astin researched these theories, he found inherent weakness that helped in the creation of the Student Involvement Theory (Astin, 1984). These theories were content theory, resource theory, and individualized theory.

First, Content Theory (also known as Subject-Matter Theory) is defined as exposing students to a bevy of “worthwhile” courses with the assumption that students develop by “attending lectures, doing the reading assignments, and working in the library” (Astin, 1999, p. 520). This theoretical framework requires professors to have “expert-level” familiarity with the content of the course to maximize the development of the student. Because of its foundation, this theory requires each faculty member in the department to have narrowly defined specializations to ensure students develop in all facets of their general education and major curriculum. Ensuring this expertise within each academic department across a university’s campus is an impossible task. Another limitation for this theory is that it requires students to assume a “passive” role in their learning process. As mentioned previously, Astin believes Content Theory impairs student development by positioning them outside of an active learning environment. Astin (1999) describes Content Theory as, “The ‘knowledgeable’ professor lectures to the ‘ignorant’ student so that the student can acquire the same knowledge” (p. 520). While this approach may appeal to highly motivated students who are adhering to this theoretical process already, it would not apply to the majority of students’ learning process.

Second, while Content Theory is constructed from a foundation of knowledge, Resource Theory believes that college students need adequate resources to learn and develop. Resources in higher education include physical facilities (e.g. libraries, laboratories), fiscal resources (e.g. scholarships, endowments), and human resources (e.g. tenured faculty, academic counselors) (Astin, 1999). University administrators are especially fond of this theory, as it places them in an active role for fostering student development. Two resources highly coveted by Resource Theory practitioners are low student-faculty ratio and “high-quality” professors (Astin). Extending beyond faculty, Resource Theory also views “high-achieving” students as a resource that contributes to development for other students (Astin).

One limitation of this theory is its dependence on robust external funding from state/federal legislators and alumni donations. If a university employing this theory encounters a difficult financial period, providing the above-mentioned resources can cause serious strain on the university. Another challenge of implementing Resource Theory is the finite number of available high-achieving faculty and students, meaning that every university will not be able to achieve similar results from a quality perspective. This limitation would not apply for universities specifically targeting students in the lower levels of academic achievement (e.g. community college, institutions without membership in the Association of American Universities). Lastly, this theoretical approach focuses on resource accumulation and not resource implementation. Having lavish resources is not beneficial without a plan for how they will be utilized to foster student

development and learning. Astin (1999) provides an example of how a university might have “successfully recruited a faculty ‘star’, [but] the college may pay little attention to whether the new faculty member works effectively with students” (p. 521).

Third, Individualized Theory is based on creating a curricular and instructional method that best aligns with the individual student’s learning process (Astin, 1999). Individualized Theory implements the best portions of multiple theories to strengthen its theoretical foundation. Institutions look at the individual needs of each of their students and provide endless resources to improve their academic success. These resources can range from high-achieving faculty, career counselors, tutors, intervention specialists, and many other support personnel. While many institutions already offer these resources, Individualized Theory postulates each university employee should spend the necessary time with individual students to better understand their environment and implement the support necessary to foster their personal development. Universities implementing this approach will offer students a number of elective courses and reduce the number of required courses for graduation. This theory also places high importance on competency-based learning, where every student has the same learning expectations, but each is allowed to reach those goals at his/her own pace (Astin, 1999). The limitation for Individualized Theory is that its high costs make it difficult to implement. To provide an environment that allows all students to pursue their educational development individually, universities will have to provide enormous

human resource and facilities resources. This challenge is only augmented as the student population of an institution increases.

After examining these varying theories, Astin (1984) believed students were not active participants in their development. This lack of “activity” was concerning for Astin, and served as the premise for the Student Involvement Theory.

Additionally, he believes the Student Involvement Theory provides a solution to the many of the problems plaguing the above-mentioned theories.

Student Involvement Theory

Since Astin (1984, p. 297) felt, “casual reading of the extensive literature on student development in higher education can create confusion and perplexity”, he saw the need to provide a simpler approach to college student development. Astin (1984) voiced concerns about how institutions attempt to garner the attention of their students with an overwhelming amount of resources and academic opportunities can adversely affect college student development. Astin introduced the Student Involvement Theory, which focuses on student involvement as vital to student development (Astin, 1985). Student Involvement Theory refers to the physical and psychological energy students apply to their academic experience (Astin, 1984). For example, a highly involved student is someone who spends a significant amount of time on academics, such as class assignments or projects, participating in student organizations or clubs, connects with other students and faculty, and spends most of his/her time on campus (Astin, 1984).

The Student Involvement Theory has five basic postulates:

1. Involvement refers to the investment of physical and psychological energy in various objects.
2. Regardless of its object, involvement occurs along a continuum
3. Involvement has both quantitative and qualitative features
4. The amount of student learning and personal development associated with any education program is directly proportional to the quality and quantity of student involvement in that program
5. The effectiveness of any educational policy or practice is directly related to the capacity of that policy or practice to increase student involvement (p. 298)

Astin's (1984) Student Involvement Theory differentiates itself from other theories on college student development by focusing on the progression leading to the student's development (the *how* of student development) instead of directly on development outcomes (the *what* of student development). Ultimately, the theory is a resource for higher education administrators to encourage the student's effort to reach the desired outcome in his/her development (Astin, 1984). With the student's time a finite resource, attention to detail is essential when implementing or changing university policy and practice, as many of these (e.g. academic actions, class schedules, club and intramural availability) can impact if, and how often, students utilize their time towards their academic options. This sensitivity to the time available to students is important is connecting this theory to student-athletes. Student-athletes have been shown to have extremely limited amounts of free time outside of their athletic obligations and class schedule (Hardin & Pate, 2013).

Student-athletes are often dependent of their athletic support team in making academic-related decisions, such as registration (Ridpath, 2010). This dependency of student-athletes on university administrators provides an opportunity to test Astin's theory, which requires student-athletes to be active in their development and university personnel to only support their decisions, not make decisions for them.

Astin also reported how participation in specific activities impacts the student's involvement and development. One of those activities was involvement in varsity athletics. Varsity athletics requires a significant time investment. These commitments are in the form of practice, studying film, traveling for games, and potentially living in housing specifically for athletes (Astin). The increase of a time commitment to a university activity has shown to improve different student academic outcomes, such as persistence to graduation, grade point average (GPA), and building relationships with faculty (Carodine, Almond, & Gratto, 2001; Chen, Snyder, & Wagner, 2010; Hathaway, 2005; Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, & Whitt, 2010). On the other hand, hyper-involvement with the same student population, teammates, and specific athletic activities (as mentioned above) leads to isolation from peer groups on campus (Astin, 1984; Gaston-Gayles & Hu, 2009). Performing community service, one of many facets of student involvement, has shown to counteract isolation by helping participants connect with students outside of athletics (Astin & Sax, 1998).

There is a need to apply the Student Involvement Theory in a study focusing on student-athletes, as there is limited literature on this topic. Only recently has Student Involvement Theory been applied in studies focusing on intercollegiate athletics (Andrassy et al., 2014; Huml et al., 2014; Weight et al., 2014). Weight et al.'s (2014) study found conflicting results pertaining to Astin's theory. Their results show participating in intercollegiate athletics did not associate with greater personal development or learning. The authors suggested examining the development of student-athletes from a four-year window did not provide the necessary time line to measure such development. Other studies using Student Involvement Theory reported results on student-athletes, but those studies foundations focused on the entire college student population (Astin, 1984, 1999). This lack of focus on student-athletes leaves considerable gaps on the academic activity of student-athletes and how universities can increase their student-athletes involvement within their own academic development. As other studies have examined the implementation of theoretical perspectives on college student sub-populations, there is a need to examine the fit of Student Involvement Theory as it pertains to student-athletes.

The Student Involvement Theory has been utilized in this study because of concerns related to athletic activity impacting the student's involvement in college. There are a multitude of challenges that student-athletes face in college stunting their academic development or decrease their likeliness to graduate upon the expenditure of their athletic eligibility. Additionally, with student-athletes spending such a large portion of their available time on athletic-related activities (Wolverton,

2014), Student Involvement Theory may not be the ideal strategy for student-athletes to develop academically. Unlike the general student population, it may be best for university personnel to be the primary participant in student-athletes becoming involved in academic-related activities.

Summary

Student Involvement Theory (Astin, 1984) was introduced to provide a model allowing students to take an active role in their academic development. When Astin reviewed other student development theories being utilized by practitioners, each had inherent weaknesses and placed students in a passive role for their development. Student Involvement Theory believes the institution needs to provide support in a supplementary role to the student's development. This role can be accomplished by highlighting potential developmental opportunities available to students (e.g. community service) and helping them connect with outside constituents. The institution also needs to be aware students have a finite amount of time available for developmental activities, reinforcing the importance of selecting valuable opportunities to present to their student population. While Astin's Student Involvement Theory has been well accepted within the field of higher education research, there is a need to apply it to the development of student-athletes. This need exists because student-athletes often encounter a different experience in higher education than the general student population.

Proposed Model

Within this study, the author is investigating the relationship between the athletic identity of student-athletes, motivations to perform community service, and the benefits received from performing community service. As mentioned above, this model was created through the modifying of the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI), Inventory of Service Experience (ISE), and Athlete Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS).

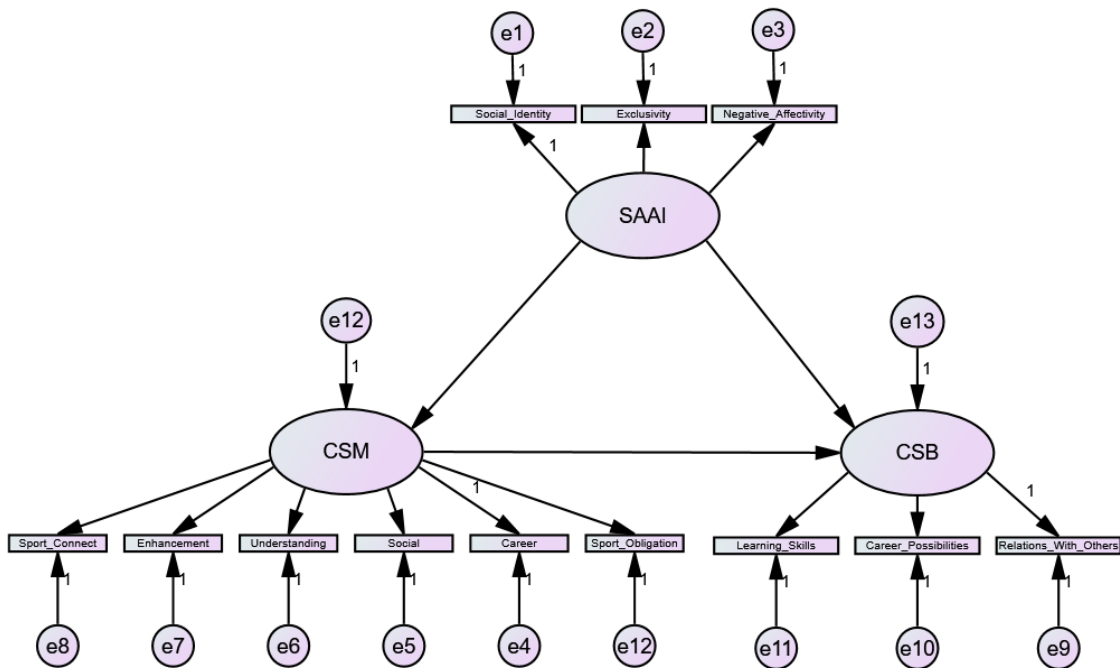


Figure 1. Proposed Model

CHAPTER III

METHOD

There is a lack of literature on the motivation of student-athletes to perform community service, the benefits they receive from community service, and the effect of their athletic identity on motivation and benefits. Further investigation on the association between student-athletes and community service is needed due to concerns about student-athletes' academic development while they are in college (Lally & Kerr, 2005; Miller & Kerr, 2003). Student-athletes face potential difficulties gaining admission into the university (Eitzen & Sage, 1997; Espenshade et al., 2004), acclimating to the first year of university-level academic expectations (Lally & Kerr, 2005; Miller & Kerr, 2003), possessing an over-bearing athletic identity (Bimper, 2014; Murphy et al., 1996; Woodruff & Schallert, 2008), overcoming an athletic culture dissuading interest in academics (Huml et al., 2014; Lewinter et al., 2013), being stereotyped by their teachers and peers (Lawrence et al., 2009), being manipulated to declare a major not aligning with their career goals (Fountain & Finley, 2009; Otto, 2012), and difficulties fulfilling their academic responsibilities due to an intense athletic schedule (Hardin & Pate, 2013). Each of these sub-topics highlights how the intercollegiate athletic culture negatively impacts a student-athlete's academic development.

Community service has been shown to be an academic activity positively associated with the academic development of college students (Kuh, 1995). Performing community service has been shown to improve GPA (Astin & Sax, 1998), understanding of a student's major (Taylor & Pancer, 2007), increase cultural understanding (Einfield & Collins, 2008), help students connect with their student peers and leaders within the community (Hunter & Brisbin, 2000), and eliminate stereotypes of the underprivileged (Primavera, 1999).

With student-athletes facing a challenging athletic environment restricting their academic growth, community service shows promise to assist college students improve their academic skills. This creates a need to examine the association between student-athletes and community service. The primary purpose of this study was to examine the motivation of student-athletes to perform community service, the benefits they receive from community service, and the association of their level of athletic identity and the student-athletes' motivation and benefits received. The following research hypotheses were developed to coincide with the study's purpose.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses present the proposed relationships between community service motivations for student-athletes, community service benefits for student-athletes, and level of student-athlete athletic identity. Specifically, these hypotheses assess the instrument's structural component of the proposed model.

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis examined the relationship between community service motivations and community service benefits. Research has found participants are more likely to perform community service in the future if the benefits they experience are relevant to their motivations to participate (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, 2008; Houle et al., 2005). Finkelstein reported this positive relationship after collecting results from the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) scale, the same scale used in this study.

Hypothesis 1: Community service motivations will have a direct and positive effect on community service benefits.

Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis examined the relationship between level of athletic identity and community service motivations. There have been multiple studies highlighting how an increased level of athletic identity leads to a decrease in participating in academic activities (Albion & Fogarty, 2005; Lally & Kerr, 2005; Linnemeyer & Brown, 2010; Murphy et al., 1996; Yopyk & Prentice, 2005).

Hypothesis 2: The level of student-athlete athletic identity will have a direct and negative effect on community service motivations.

Hypothesis Three

The third hypothesis examined the relationship between level of athletic identity and community service benefits. Previous literature has reported student-athletes extract similar benefits from community service as non-athlete students

(Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013). On the other hand, student-athletes have also reported community service benefits directly related to their status as varsity athlete, such as connecting with coaches or former teammates while performing community service (Boettger, 2007; Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013; McHugo, 2005).

Hypothesis 3: Level of student-athlete athletic identity will have a direct and negative effect on community service benefits.

This methods chapter will cover the following topics: (a) the study's research design and rationale, (b) the study's participants, (c) process of data collection, (d) process of data analysis, and (e) the study's limitations.

Research Design

The research design utilized in this study was a cross-sectional study. Cross-sectional studies allow the collection of data from a population at one specific point in time (Cresswell, 2008). A survey is suitable for addressing a population's attitude, opinions, behaviors, and characteristics (Cresswell, 2008). With this study examining the athletic identity of student-athletes, in addition to their motivations and benefits to perform community service, using a survey to capture this information is appropriate. There are multiple advantages to using a cross-sectional survey design. First, cross-sectional surveys allow the researcher to lower attrition rates of participants compared to experimental designs (Cresswell, 2008). Second, cross-sectional surveys allow for the collection of data across an entire population, compared to a case study design only collecting data from a small subset with a population. Third, cross-sectional designs allow the researcher to estimate

prevalence of interest (Cresswell, 2008). This is due to cross-sectional surveys generally collecting information from an entire population.

Study Participants

Since the study's results are only generalizable to the population surveyed (Dillman, 2007), the author targeted student-athletes across all NCAA divisions (NCAA Division I, Division II, and Division III). The study's participants would be athletes participating in an NCAA sanctioned sport who were eligible to participate at the time of data collection. This target population was chosen because the literature has identified the higher education experience of student-athletes is unique compared to other college students (Adler & Adler, 1991; Lawrence et al., 2009; Potuto & O'Hanlon, 2007; Watson & Kissinger, 2007; Weight & Zullo, 2015).

The sampling frame was constructed from the public database available at the NCAA's website (NCAA, n.d.). This database includes the name of every NCAA institution across all divisions. The survey population included over 7,000 student-athletes from 17 different NCAA institutions. These institutions were chosen through a stratified random sampling technique. University athletic departments were then contacted based on their NCAA division (Division I, II, and III) and geographic region (East Coast, Northeast, Southeast, Midwest, Mid-South, Northwest, West Coast, and Southwest). Geographic location was chosen because a university's location has shown to be associated with its institutional mission related to community engagement (Ayers, 2002; Huml et al., 2014; Sullivan et al., 2013; Weerts & Sandmann, 2008). The institution's NCAA division was also chosen

because of public statements of prioritizing community service within specific NCAA divisions (NCAA, n.d.) and the differing educational experience of student-athletes depending on their NCAA division level (Baucom & Lantz, 2001; Bouchet & Hutchinson, 2011; Huml et al., 2014; Richard & Aries, 1999; Sturm et al., 2011; Zimbalist, 2013).

Sample Size

A total of 576 surveys were completed by participants from an initial pool of 7,098 total participants, for an overall response rate of 8.1%. Of the 576 complete surveys, 30 were deemed unusable by the researcher. The removed participants were due to either incomplete data or reported the same score for almost the whole instrument. Following these removals, the final participant total was reduced to 546, representing a response rate of 7.7%. While this response rate is traditionally lower than acceptable, the high number of total responses provides an accurate depiction of the total population (i.e. active student-athletes) (Bartlett, Kortlik, & Higgins, 2001).

Data Collection and Sampling Procedure

This study's survey instrument included the following four sections: (a) demographics, (b) student-athlete athletic identity, (c) motivations to perform community service, and (d) benefits from performing community service. The expected time required for the student-athlete to complete the instrument was 10-12 minutes. With recent scandals involving student-athletes and potential academic fraud (Wolverton, 2015), athletic departments have become more protective of any

data gathering involving student-athletes (Wolverton, 2015). Due to this increased concern, the author originally communicated with an athletic administrator involved with student-athlete development selected for the study. This communication was to solicit the department's interest in disbursing the instrument to their student-athletes. This solicitation involved an introduction of the researcher, an explanation of the topic and purpose of the study, the expected time required from the student-athlete to complete the instrument, and a copy of the survey instrument.

Once the institution's athletic department has approved the study's use, the author sent the athletic administrator an e-mail link for the instrument. This link would be embedded within the text re-introducing the student-athletes to the study, expected time required to complete the instrument, IRB approval information, and contact information for the researcher. The athletic administrator would then disburse this e-mail to their university's student-athletes. Upon opening the survey, the student-athletes would be introduced to a consent form. This consent form would highlight the study's purpose, IRB contact information, and a statement of the survey being voluntary. At the bottom of this consent form would be two options for the student-athletes: (1) agreeing to continue with the survey, and (2) not agreeing to continue the survey. If a student-athlete did not agree to continue with the survey, it removed them from the study.

The instrument was disbursed to all student-athletes within a five-day window. One week after the initial survey disbursement, the author sent a follow-up

e-mail to the athletic administrator to re-disburse the instrument to his/her student-athletes. A one-week time lapse between the initial e-mail is received fits within the guidelines of web survey reminders created by Dillman (2007). After a second week of access, the author sent the final reminder to the athletic administrators to disburse to the student-athletes. Finally, one week after the second reminder was disbursed, the survey was closed. By closing the survey any participants who had yet to complete the survey were no longer able to submit results.

Instrumentation

The author utilized modifications of four separate scales to construct the final version of this study's instrument. This section will provide an overview of each scale, how it was modified, and the instrument's reported measures of validity and reliability. Following the review, an explanation will be provided for the pilot study and how its results were implemented into the final instrument.

Demographics

The instrument included items on the participants' demographics and questions related to the student-athletes' community service involvement. The seven demographic variables included the student-athletes': (a) gender (male or female), (b) race/ethnicity (Caucasian, African-American, Pacific Islander, Native American, Hispanic/Latino/Latina, and others), (c) grade point average (fill-in-the-blank ranging from 0.00 to 4.00), (d) academic class (i.e. freshman, sophomore, junior, senior, or graduate student), (e) sport(s) played (list of all NCAA sanctioned

sports), (f) NCAA division of their institution (NCAA Division I, II, or III), and (g) their current declared major (fill-in-the-blank). Demographics from final participants is provided in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Characteristic	<i>n</i>	%
Community Service Hours (Hours per Semester)		
0	82	15
1-5	154	28
6-10	143	26
11-20	103	19
21-50	56	10
>51	8	1
Community Service as Punishment		
Yes	26	5
No	520	95
Coach or AD Choosing Service Activity		
Never	89	16
Rarely	76	14
Sometimes	216	40
Often	109	20
All of the Time	56	10
Gender		
Female	385	70
Male	161	30
Race		
American Indian/Native Alaskan	2	< 1
Black/African American	32	6
Asian	10	2
Hispanic/Latino/Latina	18	4
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	3	1
White/Caucasian	443	81
Multi-Racial	31	5
Other	7	1
Year in College		
First	211	39
Second	105	19
Third	119	22
Fourth	91	17

Fifth	19	4
Institutional Designation		
Public	203	37
Private	343	63
NCAA Division		
Division I	217	40
Division II	228	42
Division III	101	19

Note. Totals of percentages are not 100 for every characteristic because of rounding

The female to male ratio of the participants was surprising, as it does not align with the general population of NCAA student-athletes. Also, the split between the participant's institutional designation (public/private) and NCAA Division (Division I/II/III) was not even. These splits were not surprising because the participating institutions did not include as many public and NCAA Division III institutions as the other categories. Additionally, Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics from the participants' responses to the scale.

Following the demographic variables, the participants were required to answer three items related to their community service experience. The variables involved the three following topics: hours spent performing community service, have they performed community service as punishment, did their coach/athletic department choose the community service for the student-athlete. Investigating the presence of community service being used as punishment will further explore the conflicting literature on compulsory community service (Huml et al., 2014; Stukas, et al., 1999; Taylor & Pancer, 2007; Warburton & Smith, 2003). Additionally, there is conflicting research on the influence of the participant not getting to choose the

community service, especially with studies showing a connection between the student's motivation to perform community service and the benefits they extract from performing community service (Berger & Milem, 2002; Johnson et al., 2013). Following the demographic questions, the student-athletes responded to questions on selected scales.

Athlete Identity Measurement Scale

Athletic identity was measured using a modified version of the Athlete Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS) (Brewer et al., 1993). AIMS was designed to assess "the strength and exclusivity of identification with the athlete role" (Brewer et al., 1993, p. 242). The original instrument included 10 items incorporating a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), summarizing into a unidimensional construct. A more comprehensive study performed by Brewer and Cornelius (2001) found three, first order factors within the athletic identity latent factor.

Statistics reported within Brewer et al.'s (1993) study suggests the scale is both valid and reliable. Evidence for construct validity was provided from the authors over two separate studies. First, they compared the instrument's results to the Perceived Importance Profile scale (PIP) (Fox, 1987). The PIP scale is designed to measure differences between students exhibiting high levels of physical activity and low levels of physical activity (Fox, 1987). These differences are measured from subscales on importance of sport, physical conditioning, physical strength, and physical attractiveness (Fox, 1987). Brewer et al. used PIP as a guide to create AIMS,

specifically the PIP subscale on the Importance of Sport. The reported results from AIMS were highly correlated with the scores reported from the PIP – Important of Sport subscale, $r(225) = .83, p < .001$. This means the AIMS scale correlated significantly with another scale measuring similar constructs, demonstrating evidence of convergent validity. Convergent validity is “the evidence of similarity between measures of theoretically related constructs” (DeVellis, 2012, p. 69).

Brewer et al. (1993) performed a two-way ANOVA with gender and level of athletic involvement serving as the independent variables and AIMS scale as the dependent variable. The authors reported a significant main effect of the level of student-athlete athletic involvement, $F(3, 242) = 91.89, p < .01$, meaning participants with higher level of athletic participation self-reported significantly higher scores on AIMS (Brewer et al., 1993). The authors also reported Cronbach’s alpha and performed a test-retest reliability coefficient with a 14-day interval to ensure the score’s reliability. Cronbach’s alpha was reported to be .93, ensuring the scale scores were internally consistent, and a test-retest reliability coefficient of .89, showing the scores were consistent over a period of time. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) recommend a Cronbach’s alpha score of .70 or higher to be acceptable in social science research.

The second study for Brewer et al. (1993) compared the AIMS scale to the Involvement of the Self in the Sport, a subscale within the Self-Role Scale (SRS) (Curry & Weiss, 1989), and Sport Orientation Questionnaire (SOQ) (Gill & Deeter, 1988). The SRS is a measure of one’s involvement within a sport role (Curry &

Weiss, 1989). The SOQ is designed to measure the participant's orientation towards sport achievement (Gill & Deeter, 1988). Similar to the PIP subscale mentioned above, Brewer et al. (1993) used these scales to guide the creation of the AIMS scale. Brewer et al. reported an internal consistency reliability coefficient of .87, which indicated the participants' responses to the items were fairly consistent. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) recommend a Cronbach's alpha score of .70 or higher to be acceptable in social science research. AIMS was also highly correlated with the Self in the Sport subscale, $r(415) = .61, p < .01$, and the three subscales of SOQ: Competitiveness, $r(415) = .53, p < .01$, Win Orientation, $r(415) = .34, p < .01$, and Goal Orientation, $r(415) = .26, p < .01$. Similar to the first AIMS study, this construct homogeneity between AIMS, SRS, and SOQ demonstrates evidence of convergent validity.

In an effort to examine the potential multi-dimensionality of athletic identity, Brewer and Cornelius (2001) performed a longitudinal study with a sample of over 2,800 participants. The authors tested multiple proposed models (Brewer et al., 1993; Hale, James, & Stambulova, 1999; Martin, Eklund, & Mushett, 1997), finding the data supported three, first order factors defining athletic identity. Their results yielded only seven items for the three factors, which was highly correlated with the 10-item version of AIMS. This study will employ the seven-item version of AIMS to measure the participant's athletic identity.

Volunteer Function Inventory (Motivations)

The motivations of student-athletes to community service were measured using the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) (Clary et al., 1992). VFI is designed to “measure the functions served by volunteerism” (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1518). The full instrument has 30 items and is measured using a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The VFI has six subscales: career, social, values, understanding, enhancement, and protective, with each subscale possessing five items. Only 20 of the original 30 items were utilized for this study. This item reduction was made because certain subscales within VFI did not align with the intentions of this study or with the theoretical framework being utilized in this study. Of the subscales in the VFI instrument, values and protective subscales were removed for this study. Additionally, two other items were removed due to poor factor loading scores reported the original study (Clary et al., 1992). These removed items were: (a) volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession (Item 15, factor loading = .43), and (b) volunteering is a way to make new friends (Item 29, factor loading = .35).

Six new items were added to two athletic subscales to capture the unique aspect of student-athletes’ motivation to perform community service. These items were created after investigating the literature on student-athlete academic experience within community service. Research indicates the motivations of student-athletes to perform community service are different than that of the general student body (Boettger, 2007; Chalk, 2008). Student-athletes have mentioned the unique circumstance of being built within a team environment impacting their

experiences (Boettger, 2007). Related to community service, qualitative findings have reported satisfaction from student-athletes about how volunteering has helped them connect with their team, coaches, and former players from the program (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013). Unlike other college students, student-athletes have mentioned motivations of obligation due to their athlete status and community service being a required team activity (Chalk, 2008). Research has also shown how the lack of free time of student-athletes has inhibited them from participating in academic activities (Adler & Adler, 1991; Kimball, 2007; Miller & Kerr, 2002; Potuto & O'Hanlon, 2007).

Clary and his co-authors (1998) performed statistical analysis to show the instrument was both valid and reliable. They performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on their five-, six-, and seven-factor solution. Fit indices for the six-factor solution suggest a good model fit, $\chi^2 (120) = 412.69$; $GFI = .91$; $NFI = .90$. The reported scores of goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and normed fit index (NFI) both met the threshold of .90 or higher recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999) to ensure construct validity. Clary et al. also tested the scale's internal consistency by calculating Cronbach's alpha. Each VFI subscale reported a Cronbach's alpha of .80 or above (career = .89, enhancement = .84, social = .83, understanding = .81, protective = .81, and values = .80), which shows the internal consistency reliability coefficient of the participant's responses were acceptable.

Inventory of Service Experience (Benefits)

The benefits experienced by community service participants were measured using the Inventory of Service Experience (ISE) (Taylor & Pancer, 2007). ISE was designed to measure “the extent to which they experienced positive outcomes in their community service setting” (Taylor & Pancer, 2007, p. 320). The full instrument consists of 52 items and on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The ISE has seven subscales: relations with others, family and friends, organizational support, making a difference, learning skills, and exposure to career possibilities, and enjoyment.

Only 14 items, measuring three dimensions of this inventory, were used for the purpose of this study. The subscales removed for this study were family and friends, organizational support, making a difference, and enjoyment. Previous studies have reported similar benefits between student-athletes and the general student body as it relates to their satisfaction with helping others and participation satisfaction (Boettger, 2007). Items were also removed if they did not align with the intentions of this study and/or with the theoretical framework utilized in this study. Finally, some items were removed due to low factor loadings reported by the original study (Taylor & Pancer, 2007). Items removed were item 6 (factor loading = .47), item 12 (factor loading = .42), item 24 (factor loading = .53), item 39 (factor loading = .56), and item 47 (factor loading = .60). The remaining 14 items included the following subscales: relations with others, learning skills, and exposure to career possibilities.

Taylor and Pancer (2007) provided evidence supporting validity and internal consistency reliability of the scores from ISE. Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability of the scores generated from the instrument, with each subscale (relations with others = .75, family and friends = .75, organizational support = .76, making a difference = .82, learning skills = .82, and exposure to career possibilities = .85) meeting the minimum threshold suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) for consistency between scores. The authors reported a positive correlation between the instrument's subscales and the participants' desire to perform community service in the future ($r = .39, n = 211, p < .001$). The participants' desire to perform community service was captured with one item, having the participants report their willingness to perform community service in the future, with 1 being extremely unlikely and 7 being extremely likely. Additionally, Taylor and Pancer (2007) reported positive correlations between subscales, which ranged from .18 to .36. Each correlation between subscales was significant at the .01 level, except for family and friends (which is not used in this study). This correlation between willingness to perform community service in the future and inter-correlation between scales supports the overall instrument's construct validity.

Scale Development

There is theoretical support for creating a separate sub-scale examining community service motivations based on sport-related reasons. Astin (1984) raised a concern that involvement in varsity athletics isolates student-athletes from other academic activities and their student peers. Student-athlete involvement with community service would be a positive development, but if these activities are

controlled by an athletic department entity, it may mean academic development will be stunted and student-athletes will still be isolated from their student peers (Astin, 1984; Gaston-Gayles & Hu, 2009). Due to this variation in the literature on student-athletes' motivation to perform community service, and a connection to the theoretical framework, the researcher initially created a new subscale to capture sport-related reasons for performing community service. This initial sport-related subscale included the following items:

1. Volunteering allows me to connect with my teammates
2. Volunteering allows me to connect with my coaches and/or fans who attend our games
3. Our yearly team activities involve volunteering
4. My time commitment for my sport makes it difficult to volunteer

To assess reliability and validity before the final study was disbursed, the researcher performed a field test four weeks prior to full data collection. The initial instrument was disbursed to 47 first-year student-athletes at a NCAA Division I university in the Midwest. In addition to assessing the results of the study, the researcher used the field test participants to provide feedback on phrasing of the items, the length of time required completing the study, and any questions raised by the participants. The participants had no concerns about the items and did not believe the instrument took too long to complete.

Once the field test results were collected, internal consistency reliability estimates were calculated for the new athletic-related subscale. The cronbach alpha for the athletic subscale within VFI ($\alpha = .79$) exceeded Nunnally and Bernstein's (1994) minimally acceptable internal consistency reliability score of .70. The researcher then performed an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to examine the factor structure of the items. Field test results showed the proposed new items did not load on the same subscale. After reviewing the results from the field test, modifications were made to address the lack of a unified factor structure for athletic-related volunteer motivation. Internal consistency reliability estimates showed the subscale shared similar conceptual meaning for the participants. Because of this, the researcher re-examined the literature to strengthen the content validity of the scale.

Further examination of the literature shows two, distinct topics of student-athletes and community service: (1) volunteer opportunities created inherently through the student-athlete experience, and (2) volunteer challenges created inherently through the student-athlete experience. This dichotomous lens of athletic-related motivation of community service encouraged an expansion of the proposed items from four to six, followed by splitting them into two separate subscales. The first subscale was named the Sport Connection Subscale, which included the following items:

Sport Connection Subscale

1. Volunteering allows me to connect with my teammates

2. Volunteering allows me to connect with my coaches
3. Volunteering allows our team to connect with our community

These items interpret Astin's (1984) statement of student-athletes becoming isolated in higher education as assuming student-athletes frequently participate in activities with other student-athletes. Also, Jarvie and Paule-Koba (2013) interviewed senior student-athletes on their experiences in community service, finding many of their motivations to volunteer stemmed from the opportunity to bond with their teammates, coaches, former players, and fans. The second subscale was named the Sport Obligation Subscale, which included the following items:

Sport Obligation Subscale

1. I feel obligated to volunteer because I am a student-athlete
2. When our team performs a volunteering activity, we have to attend
3. If me or one of my teammates gets in trouble, they may be required to perform community service

The creation of a subscale for sport-related challenges from performing community service is supported from empirical evidence of student-athletes having time restrictions to perform community service (Hardin & Pate, 2013; Miller & Kerr, 2002), concerns about compulsory community service (Warburton & Smith, 2003), and athletic departments using community service as a form of punishment (Andrassy & Bruening, 2011; Huml et al., 2014). Following the changes made to the items, the researcher went forward with the main study.

Data Analysis

In order to address the study's hypotheses, the author used a variety of statistical analyses. This section will outline the varying statistical methods used, including reasoning for the chosen statistical analysis, and connection between the hypothesis and the theoretical framework and/or previously published research.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) will be used to specify a specific factor model for each subscale used in this study. While this study is primarily focused on the causal relationships among the three latent variables, CFA will supplement this primary objective as it is used to "examine patterns of interrelationships among several latent constructs" (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006, p. 4). Performing a CFA on the above mentioned subscales are supported with empirical research and the presented theoretical framework. Following the CFA, structural equation modeling (SEM) will be used to examine the relationships among the latent variables of athletic identity of student-athletes, motivations to perform community service, and benefits extracted from performing community service.

SEM is a comprehensive statistical method that explores the causal relationship between variables of interest (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). SEM allows measurement of the latent (unobserved) variables by measuring the observed variables, therefore providing an indirect measure of the latent construct (Byrne, 2012; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). SEM allows the researcher to account for measurement error within observed variables in the model (Raykov & Marcoulides,

2006). Another advantage of SEM is estimating factor models and the structural model simultaneously (Kline, 2011).

Structural equation models must be conceived from a well-established theoretical and/or empirical foundation (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). These models often include constructs difficult to measure directly, such as identity and motivation. SEM attempts to decipher the relationships between the observed variables covariances and maximize the explained relationship within the model (Kline, 2011). Structural equation models are fit to matrices of inter-relationship indices, or covariance, between observed variables (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). SEM attempts to explain the maximum possible amount of the relationship within the model by using a process called maximum likelihood (Kline, 2011). Maximum likelihood attempts to find model parameter estimates for the model parameters that maximize the likelihood the available data represented similar results to if the researcher would collect data from the same population a second time (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006).

SEM analysis was performed by following Kline's (2011) six-step process: (1) specifying the model, (2) evaluation model identification, (3) selecting the measures, (4) estimating the model, (5) re-specifying the model, and (6) reporting the results. For step one, a proposed model was developed as explained by the empirical and theoretical support reported earlier. The proposed model was reported earlier in Figure 1. Proposing an accurate model based on previous theoretical and empirical findings is paramount for the correctness of the model and

the reported results from the remaining steps (Kline, 2011). Second, statistical software must be able to determine an estimate for every parameter of the model (Kline, 2011). If this cannot be performed, the proposed model will need to be altered. The third step is collecting and reviewing the data, such as identifying outliers, collinearity, or missing data from participants.

The fourth step is estimating the model. This will involve determining the model's ability to clearly explain the data collected (Kline, 2011). If the results identify a poor fit, the researcher will need to alter the model and re-start the process. Fifth, the data may highlight the need to re-specify the model. This re-specification involves a statistical analysis of the data collected in two steps. The first step is a chi-square test on the model (Kline, 2011). If the chi-square test is not statistically significant, this means the overall data fits the proposed model. The second step is reporting goodness of fit indices. Model fit for the CFAs were assessed by standards reported by Hu and Bentler (1999), which recommends a chi-square/df (cmin/df) of 5 or less, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) .90 or greater, goodness-of-fit index (GFI) greater than .95, adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) .80 or greater, and a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of .10 or less.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The primary purposes of this study were threefold: to examine (a) the motivation of student-athletes to perform community service, (b) the benefits they receive from community service, and (c) the association of their level of athletic identity and the student-athletes' motivation and benefits received. The hypothesis designed to guide this study were as follows:

1. Community service motivations (CSM) will have a direct effect on community service benefits (CSB)
2. The level of student-athlete athletic identity (SAAI) will have a direct effect on community service motivations (CSM)
3. The level of student-athlete athletic identity (SAAI) will have a direct effect on community service benefits (CSM)

Because of adjustments made during the course of the study, the instruments have been re-named using the following acronyms: student-athlete athletic identity (SAAI), community service motivations (CSM), and community service benefits (CSB). In this chapter, the researcher initially presents the descriptive statistics of the subscales within SAAI, CSB, and CSM, along with correlations of the subscales within the validation sets, and internal consistency reliability coefficients from the

participants within the pre-determined subscales. Next, results from the measurement model are presented, followed by the results from the structural model.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics related to the subscales from SAAI, CSM, and CSB. Means and standard deviations for CSM and CSB were within a similar range across subscales. There were mean differences between subscale composite scores for SAAI. Mean composite scores for the *Exclusivity* and *Negative Affectivity* subscales were higher compared to responses to items within the *Social Identity* subscale. When examining standard deviation scores, all CSM subscales besides *Understanding* were within a similar range. Standard deviation composite scores for CSB and SAAI were not within a similar range, as *Career Possibilities* for CSB had more variation than *Relations with Others* and *Learning Skills*, and *Social Identity* for SAAI had less variation than *Exclusivity* and *Negative Affectivity*.

Table 2: Responses to Survey Items from SAAI, CSM, and CSB

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
SAAI		
Social Identity	4.47	.58
Exclusivity	2.94	.95
Negative Affectivity	3.30	.83
CSM		
Career	5.28	1.06
Social	4.68	1.08
Enhancement	5.16	1.08
Understanding	5.78	.78
Sport Connections	5.27	1.08
CSB		
Relations with Others	5.19	1.07
Career Possibilities	4.79	1.24
Learning Skills	5.22	1.00

Note. All SAAI items are a 5-point Likert Scale, while CSM and CSB items are a 7-point Likert Scale.

The results from the subscales for SAAI were consistent with the data from the original study where the scale was developed (Brewer et al., 1993). That study reported means for *Social Identity* as 4.38, *Exclusivity* as 2.89, and *Negative Affectivity* as 3.43, all of which are .13 or closer to the results from this study. Unfortunately, Brewer et al. (1993) did not provide standard deviations for comparison. For CSM subscales, the results from this study were not within a similar range compared to the findings from the original study where the subscales were developed (Clary et al., 1998). Clary and his corresponding authors reported lower composite means and higher composite standard deviations compared to the reported scores from this study. This pattern of lower means and increased standard deviations was consistent for all four of the subscales (*Career*, *Social*, *Enhancement*, and *Understanding*) used in this study (*Sport Connection* is a new

subscale for this study and was not previously used by Clary et al. (1998)). Mean differences ranged from .52 (*Enhancement*) to 1.73 (*Social*), while standard deviation differences ranged from .20 (*Social*) to .54 (*Career*). The increased standard deviations means participants from this study had greater variability in their responses compared to the previous study.

Lastly, CSB subscale responses varied from previous findings (Taylor & Pancer, 2007). Taylor and Pancer's reported means for the subscales of *Relations with Others*, *Learning Skills*, and *Career Possibilities* were all higher than the reported means from this study. Also, the standard deviations from Taylor and Pancer (2007) were all higher than the reported data from this study. Mean differences ranged from .35 (*Learning Skills*) to .60 (*Career Possibilities*), while standard deviation differences ranged from .01 (*Relations with Others*) to .2 (*Career Possibilities*).

Correlation Analysis

Table 3 provides the bivariate correlations for each subscale. When examining the three separate scales (SAAI, CSM, and CSB) within the instrument, correlation within each of the predetermined subscales was positive and statistically significant at the .01 level. Additionally, the new *Sport Connect* subscale was significantly and positively correlated with all subscales within SAAI, CSM, and CSB. These coefficients indicate a positive relationship between sport-related motivations to perform community service and athletic identity, community service motivations, and community service benefits. These correlations have been mentioned previously in the literature (Astin, 1984; Boettger, 2007; Chalk, 2008;

Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013; Weight et al., 2014) but hasn't been tested quantitatively. Another finding was the strong correlation between CSM and CSB subscales, which were all statistically significant at the .01 level. These findings were consistent with the literature, as previous researchers found a strong relationship between the motivations to perform community service and the benefits extracted from performing community service (Astin & Sax, 1998; Chesbrough, 2011; Cruce & Moore, 2007). Additionally, no previous study has utilized items from both Volunteer Functions Inventory and Inventory of Survey Experiences to measure motivations and benefits from performing community service.

Table 3: Intercorrelations for Subscales within SAAI, CSM, and CSB Instruments from Study Participants

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
SAAI										
1. Social Identity	--									
2. Exclusivity	.434**	--								
3. Neg. Affectivity	.307**	.522**	--							
CSM										
4. Career	.094*	.059	.069	--						
5. Social	.032	.054	.041	.480**	--					
6. Understanding	.053	-.060	.032	.608**	.486**	--				
7. Enhancement	.030	.018	.146**	.434**	.527**	.570**	--			
8. Sport Connect	.167**	.161**	.103*	.486**	.461**	.519**	.384**	--		
CSB										
9. Relate Others	.049	.011	-.011	.407**	.562**	.583**	.447**	.386**	--	
10. Learning Skills	.020	-.004	.013	.512**	.499**	.688**	.514**	.437**	.636**	--
11. Career Poss.	.031	.034	.028	.688**	.429**	.537**	.388**	.422**	.482**	.710**

Note. * Correlation is significant at the $p < .05$ level. ** Correlation is significant at the $p < .01$ level.

When examining some of the correlation coefficients, a few of the findings are noticeable. First, there is a strong and statistically significant correlation between the *Career* subscale from CSM and the *Career Possibilities* subscale from CSB (.688). While this strong correlation is from two subscales from different instruments (one measuring community service motivation, the other measuring community service benefits), a strong correlation between the two is not surprising. They are related to career-related motives and benefits and previous research has shown a connection between motivations to perform community service and benefits received by performing community service. Another strong and significant correlation was reported between *Learning Skills* and *Career Possibilities* from the CSB scale (.710). This finding suggests student-athletes interpret the importance of learning new skills as improving the career outlook after performing community service.

Next, the researcher examined the coefficient of determination to determine the proportion of variance explained from each composite score that is predictable from the other subscales (Field, 2009). Reporting the coefficient of determination provides us with the effect size, an objective measure of the magnitude of the observed effect (Cohen, 1988). Cohen determined effect size varies by three magnitudes: small (>.10), moderate (>.30) and large (>.50) effect sizes. The coefficient of determination for SAAI subscales varied from between small effect sizes to just shy of moderate effect sizes. Specifically, effect sizes ranged from .094 (*Social Identity to Negative Affectivity*) to .272 (*Exclusivity to Negative Affectivity*). The original study (Brewer et al., 1993) did not report any statistics related to the

effect size for the *Social Identity*, *Exclusivity*, and *Negative Affectivity* subscales. Brewer and the corresponding authors only reported correlation coefficients between the entire instrument and previously established instruments related to athletic identity.

The coefficient of determination for the CSM subscales varied between small and moderate effect sizes, ranging from .147 (*Enhancement to Sport Connect*) to .369 (*Career to Understanding*). The coefficient of determination from this study could not be compared to the original study (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1999; Clary et al., 1998), as the authors did not provide information on the coefficient of determination for the subscales.

Lastly, the coefficient of determination for CSB varied from effect sizes between small/moderate and large effect sizes. Specifically, the effect sizes ranged from .232 (*Relations with Others to Career Possibilities*) to .504 (*Learning Skills to Career Possibilities*). The original study (Taylor & Pancer, 2007) did provide coefficient of determination scores for each subscale, allowing a comparison with the participant scores from this study. Each of the coefficient of determination for this study show a greater magnitude of the observed effect compared to the results from the original study. For example, the greatest discrepancy between the original and current study is between *Relation with Others* and *Learning Skills*, as this study reported an effect size of .404 while the original study's effect size for those two subscales was .211.

Reliability Analysis

To examine the internal consistency reliability of the participants' responses, Cronbach's alpha was examined. Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the internal consistency reliability coefficients for each subscale of SAAI, CSM, and CSB. These subscales have been used in previous studies, but further examination of internal consistency reliability coefficients would provide further confidence for the researcher regarding the instrument. The coefficient alpha estimates are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients of the Subscales within SAAI, CSM, and CSB

Subscale	Coefficient of Internal Consistency		
	Total Items	Literature	Current
SAAI			
Social Identity	3	None	.67
Exclusivity	2	None	.77
Negative Affectivity	2	None	.46
CSM			
Career	4	.89	.78
Social	5	.83	.86
Understanding	5	.81	.86
Enhancement	4	.84	.87
Sport Connection	3	New	.78
CSB			
Relations with Others	3	.75	.80
Learning Skills	4	.82	.83
Career Possibilities	3	.85	.85

The internal consistency reliability coefficients for the SAAI subscales were low. Of the three subscales from SAAI, only one of the internal consistency reliability coefficients (*Exclusivity* = .77) was above DeVellis' (2012) recommended standard

(.70), with one of the subscales far below the recommended standard (*Negative Affectivity* = .46). The researcher found these internal consistency reliability coefficients unexpected because the SAAI was unaltered by the researcher, has been well established in previous studies, and utilized a similar student-athlete population as previous studies. Unlike most studies reporting results for scale development, the original article introducing the instrument for athletic identity (identified as AIMS by the authors) established convergent validity by examining correlation coefficients from AIMS with other established scales related to athletic identity (Brewer et al., 1993). For example, Brewer et al. (1993) examined the correlation between subscales from a previous scale and the AIMS. The reported correlation provided support to the notion the scales were measuring similar constructs. Also, the authors performed a test-retest reliability examination to assess the consistency between participant responses. Unfortunately, however, the authors did not report internal consistency reliability coefficients of the scores from the scale, which makes it impossible for any comparison to see if the observed internal consistency reliability of the scores from this study are consistent or represent a significant deviation with previous uses of the scale. While the researcher is not certain, one possibility for the low internal consistency reliability coefficients may be because this study collected responses from student-athletes across all NCAA divisions. Many of the previous studies focused on the AIMS scale focused on a singular NCAA division (i.e. NCAA Division I).

Additionally, each factor within the SAAI scale has a maximum of three items (two of the three factors only have two items each). Cortina (1993) discussed how

the value of α is dependent on the number of items within the scale; the more items within the scale, the greater likelihood of an increased internal consistency reliability coefficient. With each of these factors having limited items per scale, a lower internal consistency reliability coefficient was to be expected. Regardless of the internal consistency reliability coefficients from the participants being below the acceptable threshold, the researcher moved forward with the subscales under SAAI.

Examining the participant scores from items related to CSM and CSB, the internal consistency reliability coefficients were all above the .70 threshold recommended by DeVellis (2012). All of the CSM subscales were above .80, with the internal consistency reliability coefficients of the *Career* subscale higher than the reported reliability scores from the original study (Clary et al., 1998). These high internal consistency reliability coefficients reflect participants' relatively consistent responses to the items on the scales.

The remaining subscales (*Social, Understanding, and Enhancement*) were all lower, but within range, with the previously reported study. Also, responses for the new *Sport Connection* subscale established by the researcher under CSM, produced an acceptable internal consistency reliability coefficient ($\alpha = .78$). Lastly, internal consistency reliability coefficients for CSB subscales were slightly lower than previously reported in the original study, but were within range of previously reported statistics from Taylor and Pancer (2007). Each internal consistency reliability coefficient was within .05 or closer to the previously reported study.

Structural Equation Modeling

Measurement Model (CFA)

The researcher used IBM AMOS version 22.0 to test the hypothesized measurement and structural models for this study. AMOS is able to consider measurement error for each indicator when performing confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Kline, 2011). Similar to other often-used software, AMOS also provides recommendations on how to improve model fit, called Modification Indices (Kline, 2011). Modification Indices (MI) are univariate Lagrange multipliers that are presented in AMOS as chi-square statistics (Kline, 2011). As the MI increases in value, the greater the improvement that can be made to model fit by making the recommended modification to the model (Kline, 2011).

Also, the researcher used parceling to test the hypothesized measurement and structural models. A parcel is an aggregate-level indicator containing the sum of multiple items within one composite score (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). The researcher created parcels by constructing composite scores for the SAAI (*Social Identity, Exclusivity, and Negative Affectivity*), CSM (*Career, Social, Understanding, Enhancement, and Sport Connection*), and CSB (*Relations with Others, Learning Skills, and Career Possibilities*) subscales. With the researcher wanting to examine the relationship between SAAI, CSM, and CSB, parceling provides a few advantages. First, parcels can potentially possess increased reliability and are less susceptible of distributional violations (Little et al., 2002). Also, with the researcher performing SEM, parceling would reduce the number of parameters required for the

measurement and structural models, therefore improving model fit (Little et al., 2002).

Model fit for the CFAs were assessed by standards reported by Hu and Bentler (1999), who recommended a chi-square/df (CMIN/df) of 3 or less (5 or less is permissible), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) .90 or greater, Goodness-Of-Fit Index (GFI) of .95 or greater, Adjusted Goodness-Of-Fit Index (AGFI) of .80 or greater, and a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of .05 or less (.10 or less is permissible). Hu and Bentler (1999) also recommended a non-statistically significant chi-square test ($p > .05$), which means the examined model is consistent with the model fitting the covariance matrix (Kline, 2011). Alternatively, Hu and Bentler (1999) stated a statistically significant chi-square test is likely if the researcher is utilizing a large sample size ($n > 200$).

The initial model identified three latent factors as theorized by the researcher: Student-Athlete Athletic Identity (SAAI), Community Service Motivations (CSM) and Community Service Benefits (CSB). SAAI had three indicator variables: *Social Identity*, *Exclusivity*, and *Negative Affectivity*. The large difference in the factor structure coefficient from *Social Identity* and *Negative Affectivity* compared to *Exclusivity* may be due to the low internal consistency reliability coefficients reported earlier from *Social Identity* and *Negative Affectivity*. The second latent variable, CSM, had five indicator variables, with *Career*, *Social*, *Understanding*, *Enhancement*, and *Sport Connection*. The last latent variable, CSB, had three

indicator variables, with *Relations with Others*, *Career Possibilities*, and *Learning Skills*.

An initial analysis of the model found the model fit the data poorly. An analysis of the model fit summary showed the current model failed four of the five recommended standards, with CMIN/df beyond the acceptable threshold (8.531), a poor CFI (.883), a poor GFI (.902), an acceptable AGFI (.843), and a poor RMSEA (.118). Also, the chi-square test was statistically significant (CMIN = 349.75, $p < .001$). Individual factor scores were above Kline's recommendation of .50 (lowest is Social Identity subscale under SAAI = .514) to achieve large factor loadings. Also, Table 5 provides the data on squared multiple correlations, which show the latent factors explained a high percentage of variability within each of the indicators. For example, *Exclusivity* explained 70 percent of the variance explained by SAAI. Also, compared to the other indicator variables within CSM the *Understanding* indicator variable represented the greatest explained variance with just fewer than 69 percent. Due to poor initial model fit, MIs were examined to improve the fit of the model.

Table 5: Squared Multiple Correlations of Indicator Variables

Latent Factor	Indicator	Multiple <i>R</i>
SAAI	Social Identity	.264
	Exclusivity	.702
	Negative Affectivity	.386
CSM	Career	.529
	Social	.439
	Understanding	.688
	Enhancement	.439
	Sport Connection	.387
CSB	Relations with Others	.503
	Learning Skills	.605
	Career Possibilities	.788

Kline (2011) recommended any adjustments made during the measurement (CFA) stage should be limited and need to be theoretically justified. The MIs were examined for additional parameters that could be included into the model to improve model fit. Modification indices are only chosen if, in addition to theoretical justification, they are large enough to improve model fit (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). Two MIs suggested to add parameters to the current model to improve model fit: (1) *CSM-Career* (Error) to *CSB-Career Possibilities* (Error) (Chi-Square Change = 127.437) and (2) *CSM-Social* (Error) to *CSB-Relations with Others* (Error) (Chi-Square Change = 36.710). Specifically, MIs suggested a correlation between (1) error 4 and error 10, and (2) error 5 and error 9 (see Figure 3). Adding parameters between error rates of two different latent factors is acceptable if the researcher expected correlation between the subscales (Kenny, 2011). With previous research showing a strong relationship between community service motivations and

community service benefits (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, 2008; Houle et al., 2005), it should be expected this relationship would be even stronger between similarly named subscales. For example, it can be assumed that this relationship would be strong between being motivated for career reasons (*CSM-Career*) and career-related benefits (*CSB-Benefits*) and motivated for social reasons (*CSM-Social*) and benefits of building relationships with others (*CSB-Relations with Others*). Another analysis with the two additional parameters yielded improved model fit. The second model is provided in Figure 2.

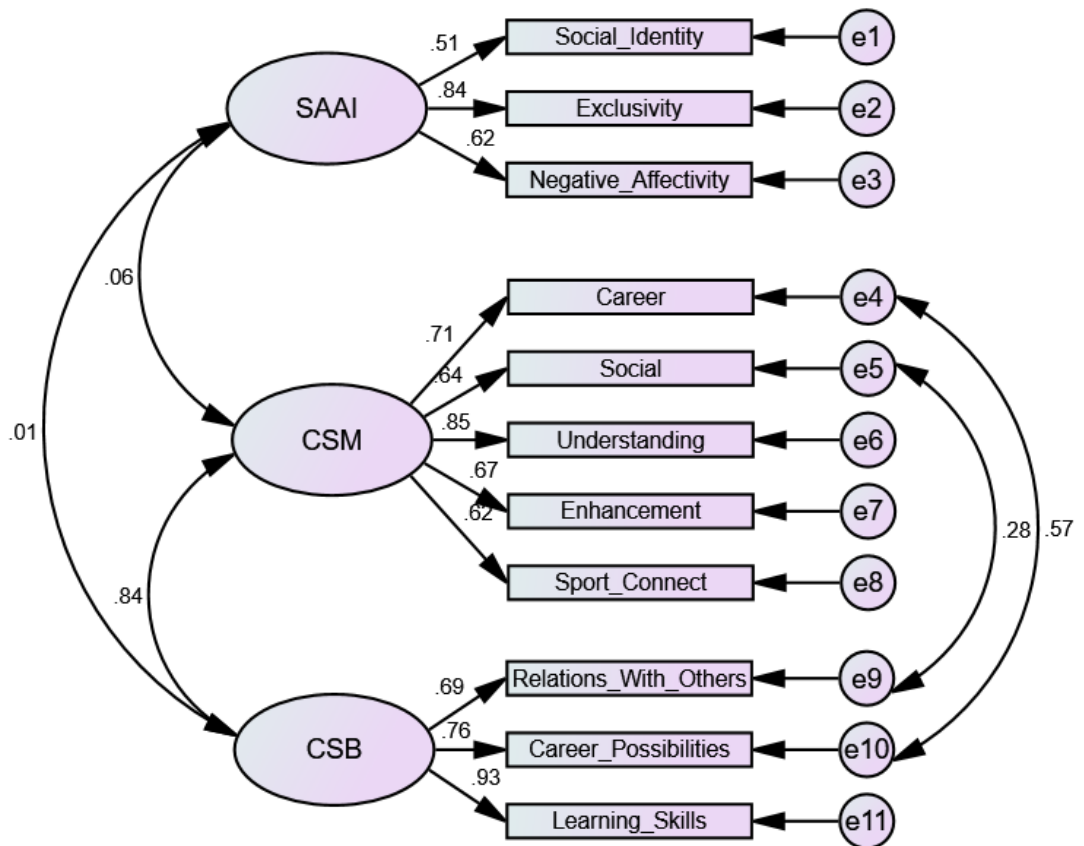


Figure 2. Finalized measurement model with standardized estimates

All five of the recommended standards from Hu and Bentler (1999) were achieved in the final model. The CMIN/df was acceptable (4.114), the CFI was good (.954), GFI was acceptable (.951), AGFI was good (.916), and RMSEA was acceptable (.076). Similar to the initial model, all factor loadings were above the .50 threshold recommended by Kline (2011) for large factor loadings for CFA. Also similar to the initial model, the chi-square test was statistically significant (CMIN = 160.446, $p < .001$). As mentioned previously, Hu and Bentler reported the difficulty of achieving a non-statistically significant chi square test when the reported sample size is over

200. With the participants for the study over 500, the statistically significant chi-square test was sensitive to the sample size. An acceptable model fit means the model is adequately reliable and valid. Table 6 provides a comparison of model fit differences from the initial and final model.

Table 6: Values and Recommendations of Model Fit for Measurement Model

Index	Recommended	Model	
		Initial	Final
CMIN/DF	5 or less	8.531	4.114
CFI	.90 or greater	.883	.954
GFI	.95 or greater	.902	.951
AGFI	.80 or greater	.843	.916
RMSEA	.10 or less	.118	.076

Note. CMIN/DF = chi-square divided by degrees of freedom. CFI = Comparative Fit Index. GFI = Goodness-Of-Fit Index. AGFI = Adjusted Goodness-Of-Fit Index. RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation. Recommendations are from Hu and Bentler (1999).

Structural Model

Following the test of the measurement model (CFA), the structural model was then tested. For the structural model, SAAI was exogenous variables, while CSM and CSB were the endogenous variables. Also, the model fit for the structural model was identical with the model fit from the final measurement model (CMIN/df = 4.114, CFI = .954, GFI = .951, AGFI = .916, and RMSEA = .076). Each of these statistics fits within the model fit standard recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999). Figure 3 presents the structural model with standardized path coefficients.

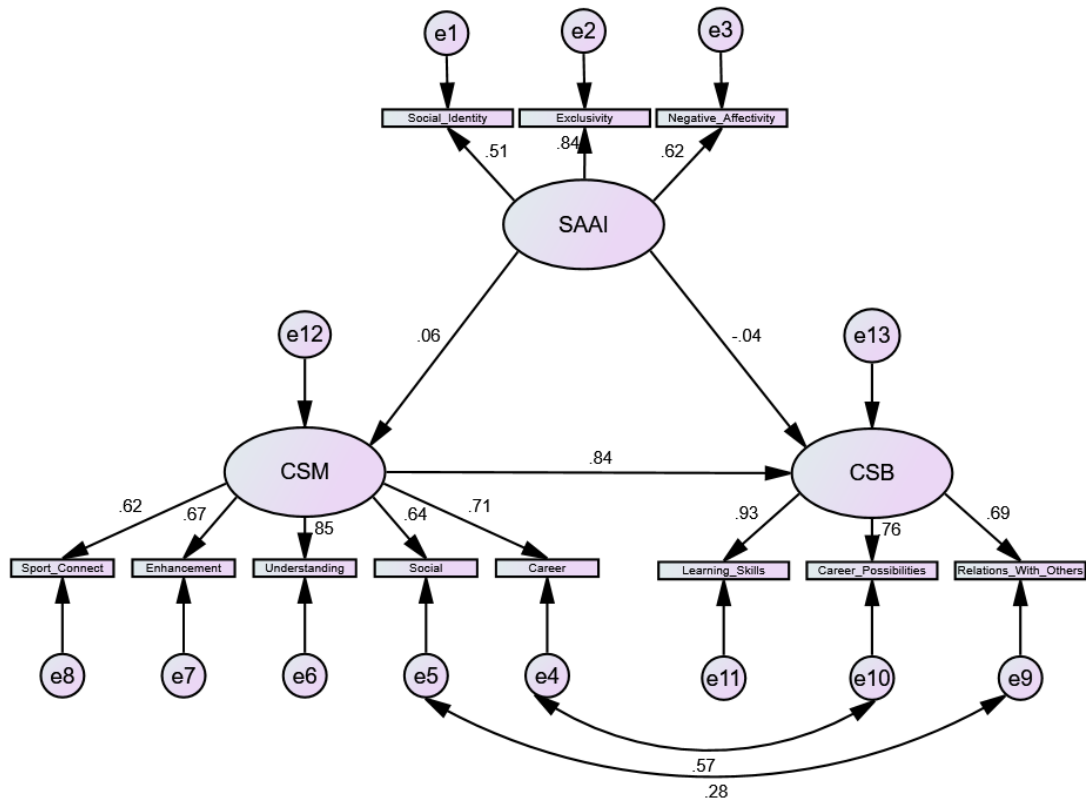


Figure 3. Structural model with standardized direct effects

This study introduced three path coefficients for testing the hypothesis. First, the path coefficient from CSM to CSB (path coefficient = .84), which means, if the path coefficient is statistically significant, for every one standard deviation change in CSM there was a corresponding .84 standard deviation increase in CSB. Next is the path coefficient from SAAI to CSM (path coefficient = .06). The hypotheses in the current study focused on the direct relationship between student-athlete athletic identity, motivations for performing community service, and benefits from performing community service. Therefore, the researcher needed to examine the statistical significance of the direct pathways in the model. Table 7 presents

information on the direct effects (standardized) of the relationships between the three variables and whether the relationship was statistically significant (.05 level). The standardized parameter direct effect estimates revealed the relationship between CSM and CSB was statistically significant ($p < .001$), but the relationships between student-athlete athletic identity and community service motivations ($p = .226$) and student-athlete athletic identity and community service benefits were not statistically significant.

Table 7: Standardized Parameter Direct Effect Estimates with Significance Results

Hypothesized Path	Direct Effect	Significance
CSM → CSB	.840	< .001
SAAI → CSM	.064	.226
SAAI → CSB	-.043	.207

Following the findings from the measurement and structural models, the researcher applied these results to the study's hypotheses.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis anticipated a positive, significant relationship between community service motivations and community service benefits. This hypothesis was confirmed (Standardized Direct Effect = .840, $p < .001$) from the structural model results. As stated previously, this means for every 1 standard deviation increase in CSM, there was a corresponding increase in CSB by .840 standard deviations. This finding is similar to previous findings identifying a relationship

between motivations to perform community service and benefits from performing community service (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, 2008; Houle et al., 2005).

Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis anticipated a negative, significant relationship between student-athlete athletic identity and community service motivations. This hypothesis was not confirmed, as the relationship was not statistically significant (Standardized Direct Effect = .064, $p = .226$). This finding is in contrast with previous studies conceptually linking athletic identity to motivations to perform community service (Albion & Fogarty, 2005; Cabrita et al., 2014; Lally & Kerr, 2005; Murphy et al., 1996; Yopyk & Prentice, 2005).

Hypothesis Three

The final hypothesis anticipated a negative, significant relationship between student-athlete athletic identity and community service benefits. This hypothesis was also not confirmed, as the relationship between the variables was not statistically significant (Standardized Direct Effect = -.043, $p = .207$). Although the relationship was negative as hypothesized, it was still statistically insignificant. Similar to the previous hypothesis, this finding contradicts previous findings conceptually linking a relationship between athletic identity and benefits for performing community service (Adler & Adler, 1991; Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013; Lally & Kerr, 2005; Linnemeyer & Brown, 2010; Yopyk & Prentice, 2005).

Summary of Results

This study used structural equation modeling to examine the relationship between student-athlete athletic identity (SAAI), motivations to perform community service (CSM), and benefits from participating in community service (CSB). Additionally, the researcher created two new subscales within CSM related to sport, named *Sport Connection* and *Sport Obligation*. Initial tests (pilot study, internal consistency reliability) raised significant concerns about the viability of the *Sport Obligation* subscale, leading the researcher to remove it from the study and move forward with *Sport Connection* as the only new subscale.

Initial results from the measurement model showed poor model fit scores (cmin/df = 8.531, CFI = .883, GFI = .902, AGFI = .843, and RMSEA = .118). Modification Indices (MI) were examined to improve model fit. Two MIs were identified to potentially improve model that also were theoretically supported. The two MIs were applied to the model, which improved the model fit to acceptable levels (cmin/df = 4.114, CFI = .954, GFI = .951, AGFI = .916, and RMSEA = .076).

Following measurement model analysis, the structural model was evaluated to examine the relationship between SAAI, CSM, and CSB. Standardized direct effect estimates indicated a statistically significant relationship between CSM and CSB ($p < .001$), but non-statistically significant relationships between SAAI and CSM ($p = .226$) and SAAI and CSB ($p = .207$). These findings provide support for hypothesis one, but do not support the expected relationships from hypothesis two and three. The final chapter discusses these findings and their application to the literature,

future studies, implications for practitioners, limitations of the study at-hand, and conclusions.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The primary purposes of this study were threefold: to examine (a) the motivation of student-athletes to perform community service, (b) the benefits they receive from community service, and (c) the association of their level of athletic identity with the student-athletes' motivation and benefits received. Data were collected from active student-athletes at multiple universities across all three NCAA divisions. The hypotheses designed to guide this study were as follows:

1. Community service motivations will have a direct and positive effect on community service benefits
2. The level of student-athlete athletic identity will have a direct and negative effect on community service motivations
3. The level of student-athlete athletic identity will have a direct and negative effect on community service benefits

Hypothesis one was confirmed, as motivation to perform community service was found to have a significant relationship with benefits received from performing community service. Regarding hypothesis two, the study results indicated no

significant relationship between a student-athlete's athletic identity and his/her motivation to perform community service. Finally, for hypothesis three, results from this study indicated no statistically significant relationship between athletic identity and benefits from performing community service.

This final chapter discusses the results from Chapter IV as they related to the guiding hypotheses. Following discussion of the hypotheses, an overview of the instrument development is provided, followed by implications related to the theoretical framework, and suggestions for practitioners. Finally, future research related to the findings, limitations, and a summary of the study are discussed.

Demographic and Frequency Findings

The researcher collected information on participant demographics and basic frequencies related to community service. Specifically, the researcher gathered demographic information on the participants' race, gender, GPA, year in college, sport(s) played, chosen major, NCAA division, geographic location of their institution, and whether their institution was public or private. For descriptive information, the researcher gathered average hours spent performing community service in a semester, frequency of performing community service as punishment, and frequency of having their coaches or athletic administration staff choose the student-athletes' community service activity.

Because it was of particular interest from previous studies, the researcher asked participants if they had ever been required to perform community service as punishment. Only five percent of the participants confirmed they were required to

perform community service as punishment. This is an optimistic finding, as previous research highlighted negatives associated with requiring or using community service as punishment (Gage III & Thapa, 2012; Henderson et al., 2014; Milem & Berger, 1997; Munter, 2002; Stukas et al., 1999; Warburton & Smith, 2003). Students forced to volunteer are less likely to volunteer in the future (Gage & Thapa, 2012). The current study reported a 25 percent lower percentage of student-athletes being required to perform community service as punishment compared to a previous study (Huml et al., 2014). Still, other studies found over 30 percent of athletic departments utilizing community service as a form of punishment (Andrassy & Bruening, 2011; Huml et al., 2014). The finding in the current study may mean athletic departments retain the option of using community service as punishment, but participants in this study indicated doing so less frequently than reported in previous studies.

In addition to using community service as punishment, there are also concerns that compulsory (i.e., required) community service does not provide the same benefits as freely choosing the activity (Munter, 2002; Warburton & Smith, 2003). Students who reported some benefits from performing compulsory community service still wished the activity had not been forced upon them (Henderson et al., 2014).

Next, the findings on who chooses the service activities for student-athletes were telling. Results showed only 30 percent of student-athletes always or often chose their community service activity, leaving 70 percent of student-athletes

choosing their service activity on their own sometimes, rarely, or never. Student-athletes have previously shown a strong willingness to allow their coaches or athletic administrators to choose their community service activity for them (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013). While this does not align with having community service as a form of punishment, it does remove a level of autonomy for student-athletes to choose their service activity. Allowing the participant(s) to decide on the community service has inherent benefits. Participants are more likely to perform community service in the future if the benefits are relevant to their motivations to participate (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, 2008; Houle et al., 2005). Having someone other than the student-athlete choose the activity (or even in the situation where a single student-athlete is choosing the service activity for the entire team) may lessen the potential benefits the community service activity potentially provides (Henderson et al., 2014). Students are also self-aware of these motivations, as those who were provided with additional reading material on a potential service opportunity were more likely to choose that activity (Clary et al., 1998).

Lastly, 70 percent of the respondents for this study were women, a greater percentage than is typically present within the general NCAA student-athlete population (43 percent women) (Johnson, 2014). These differences compared to the general student-athlete population may coincide with some self-selection bias, as females are more than three times more likely to participate in community service than males (Chesbrough, 2011; Metz et al., 2003; Sullivan et al., 2013). In addition to performing community service more often than males, females achieve greater satisfaction from volunteering (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2011), achieve greater post-

test scores for social development (Hamilton & Fenzel, 1988), and consider community service a greater personal priority (Astin et al., 2011). These trends were evident in Crawford's (2007) study, which found female student-athletes were also more likely than male student-athletes to perform community service. For athletic administrators this may mean a greater willingness to having the athletic department choose community service activities for their male student-athletes. If male student-athletes do not choose to take part in community service activities, they may miss out on opportunities for development.

Each of these findings is related to demographics or frequency-related items on the survey. The next section focuses on the findings related to the researcher's hypotheses. The first hypothesis examined the relationship between the participant's motivation to perform community service and the perceived benefits of performing community service.

Hypotheses

As stated previously, the primary purposes of this study were threefold: to examine (a) the motivation of student-athletes to perform community service, (b) the benefits they receive from community service, and (c) the association of their level of athletic identity with the student-athletes' motivation and benefits received. The researcher utilized three hypotheses to address these purposes.

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis predicted a positive relationship between a student-athlete's motivation to perform community service and the benefits received from

performing community service. Previous research has examined this relationship with general college students (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, 2008; Houle et al., 2005), but no previous study specifically looked at student-athletes. This hypothesis was confirmed, as motivation to perform community service was found to have a significant relationship ($p < .01$) with benefits received from performing community service. This means that a higher score for motivations to perform community service was related to an increase in the benefits received from community service.

This finding is consistent with previous research highlighting the relationship between motivations and benefits connected to community service for general college students (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, 2008; Houle et al., 2005). While research involving student-athletes performing community service is scarce, student-athletes experience different types of recognized benefits from performing community service not mentioned by the general college student population (Chalk, 2008; Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013; Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2013; McHugo, 2005). These benefits include connecting with teammates, coaches, and former student-athletes from their same program, feelings of civic duty, and a sense of social responsibility.

This beckons the initial question that, even though student-athletes may have additional motivations for performing community service, do they still align with the perceived benefits found in previous research (Astin & Sax, 1998; Eyler & Giles, 1999; MacNeela & Gannon, 2014; Metz et al., 2003; Plein, 2011; Youniss & Yates, 1997)? To help examine the relationships among these different forms of

motivation, the researcher created a new subscale named *Sport Connection* within the pre-existing VFI scale, to highlight sport-related motivations. The strong, positive relationship between the motivations to perform community service and benefits from performing community service (.840) confirmed this relationship extends to student-athletes. It also reinforced that student-athletes can be motivated to perform community service for reasons related to their status as a student-athlete (i.e., team activity to perform community service) and still receive benefits related to their career aspirations, learn new skills, and create new friendships.

This finding provides support for coaches and athletic administrators to require their student-athletes to perform community service for the betterment of the team, athletic department, or other sport-related reasons (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013; Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2013). While this requirement may lessen some of the positives student-athletes experience from performing community service (Gage III & Thapa, 2012; Henderson et al., 2014; Milem & Berger, 1997; Munter, 2002; Stukas et al., 1999; Warburton & Smith, 2003), it does show a community service initiative advocated for by the athletic department can provide benefits for student-athletes.

This confirmed hypothesis furthers the literature examining student-athletes and community service. Previous findings related to student-athletes and community service have only (a) investigated similarities between student-athletes and professional athletes, and (b) interviewed a very small group (three

participants) of senior basketball players about their experience with community service while in college (Boettger, 2007; Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013). With the confirmation of a relationship between motivations and benefits from performing community service for student-athletes, the next two hypotheses focused on the involvement of athletic identity with motivations/benefits from community service.

Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis predicted a negative relationship between a student-athlete's athletic identity and his/her motivation to perform community service. In other words, it was anticipated that the higher the level of athletic identity, the lower the motivation to perform community service. No previous study examined the relationship between athletic identity and motivation to perform community service, although other studies examined the relationship between athletic identity and other academic activities (Adler & Adler, 1991; Albion & Fogarty, 2005; Cabrita et al., 2014; Lally & Kerr, 2005; Linnemeyer & Brown, 2010; Murphy et al., 1996; Yopyk & Prentice, 2005). The result of the study, however, indicated no significant relationship between a student-athlete's athletic identity and his/her motivation to perform community service.

While the finding was not statistically significant, the lack of a negative relationship between athletic identity and motivation to perform community service was an encouraging finding. This lack of a statistically significant relationship indicates the presence of a strong athletic identity may not negatively impact a student-athlete's motivation to perform community service. As student-athlete

identity increases, student-athletes are more likely to cast aside academic-related activities and focus primarily on their athletic goals (Adler & Adler, 1991; Miller & Kerr, 2002). This strong athletic identity could mean student-athletes decide to abandon any motivation to perform community service. Martin, Fogarty, and Albion (2014) also found student-athletes disinterested in pursuing certain activities in higher education if those activities did not align with their athletic goals. This finding could be extended to community service, as student-athletes may not perceive any apparent benefits related to sport-related career opportunities.

While this finding did not support a negative relationship between athletic identity and motivation to perform community service, it also did not show support for a positive relationship. The researcher created a new CSM subscale related to sport (*Sport Connect*), but findings were inconclusive as to whether a student-athlete's athletic identity stunted motivation to perform community service. This leads to the final hypothesis examining the relationship between athletic identity and benefits derived from performing community service.

Hypothesis Three

The final hypothesis predicted a negative relationship between athletic identity and the benefits from performing community service. In other words, the higher level of athletic identity, the fewer benefits student-athletes believed they would accrue from community service activity. Similar to hypothesis two, no previous study examined the relationship between athletic identity and benefits from performing community service. Also similar to hypothesis two, results from

this study found no statistically significant relationship between athletic identity and benefits from performing community service.

While the finding was not statistically significant, the lack of a negative relationship between athletic identity and benefits from community service was an encouraging finding. As mentioned previously, almost all previous studies examining the association between athletic identity and academic-related activities alluded to a negative relationship (Adler & Adler, 1991; Albion & Fogarty, 2005; Cabrita et al., 2014; Lally & Kerr, 2005; Linnemeyer & Brown, 2010; Murphy et al., 1996; Yopyk & Prentice, 2005). Ramifications of a strong athletic identity include increased likeliness of poor academic performance and increased risk of ineligibility (Lally & Kerr, 2005; Yopyk & Prentice, 2005). This could enhance the importance for student-athletes to perform community service, as a number of benefits from community service could counteract the negative consequences of a strong athletic identity (Astin & Sax, 1998; Eyler & Giles, 1999; MacNeela & Gannon, 2014; Metz et al., 2003; Plein, 2011; Youniss & Yates, 1997).

Results from this study may also connect with stereotype-threat theory and how it applies to student-athletes (Steele, 1997). Steele's (1997) stereotype-threat theory hypothesizes that when people continue to hear negative stereotypes about a sub-population they personally identify with (i.e., student-athletes), they may start to embody those negative stereotypes. For example, if faculty members or other students say that student-athletes are not interested in education or avoid non-athletic activities, the student-athletes may start to believe what they hear and act

as they are perceived (Lawrence et al., 2009; Parsons, 2013). This could result in student-athletes missing out on the benefits of performing community service, such as learning new skills.

This study also aimed to look at new concepts of examining the relationships between level of athletic identity and student-athlete involvement in community service. As part of this study, therefore, the researcher also worked on various elements of instrument design. The next section explains some of the issues encountered with developing the instrument for the study.

Instrument Development

The instrument used this study was based on a number of existing valid and reliable instruments. In an effort to create an instrument directly connected to the interaction between athletic identity and community service, while optimizing the total number of items to avoid survey fatigue, the researcher made selected modifications to some of these existing instruments. The Athletic Identity Measurement Scales (AIMS) (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001; Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993) was used in its original form, but the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1992; Clary et al., 1998) and the Inventory of Service Experience (ISE) (Taylor & Panczer, 2007) were altered to provide greater fit for this study's purpose. As previously published, VFI and ISE contained 30 and 52 items, respectively. For the current study, the number of items on the VFI and ISE were reduced to 24 and 14 respectively.

Specifically, the researcher wanted to develop separate subscales related to sport within the VFI, since as is, the VFI contained no items related to sport. The two newly created subscales were related to the greater connections from sport related to community service (*Sport Connection*) and potential challenges from sport related to community service (*Sport Obligation*). The decision to create a subscale was rooted in previous findings indicating community service was impacted by the athletic identity of student-athletes (Boettger, 2007; Brewer et al., 1993; Chalk, 2008; Hale et al., 1999; Martin et al., 1997).

Concerns arose during the initial analysis related to the lack of consistency within participant scores on the *Sport Obligation* subscale. The analysis showed the researcher did not have a single scale to measure athletic-related challenges for performing community service, which was the reason for designing the *Sport Obligation* subscale, leading to its removal from the measurement and structural model analysis. Further examination of the failure of the *Sport Obligation* subscale led to a future recommendation of creating items highlighting more general challenges related to performing community service as a student-athlete. After re-reviewing the items used in *Sport Obligation* for this study, the items were more descriptive, potentially leading to student-athletes being inconsistent in their responses. For example, a student-athlete could easily have challenges related to one item (i.e., when our team performs a volunteering activity, we have to attend) but not another (i.e., If me or one of my teammates gets in trouble, they may be required to perform community service). Following the recommendation, an example item that could have been used instead would be the following: "I would

like to perform community service, but my athletic-related commitments make it difficult to find time to volunteer.” This more general item potentially could have generated more consistency between participant scores.

On the other hand, creating and validating a new subscale related to sport connections for community service was useful. A quantitative measurement or scale had not previously been created to capture the potential relationship between student-athlete athletic identity, motivations to perform community service, and benefits from performing community service (Boettger, 2007; Chalk, 2008; Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013). Boettger (2007) examined differences in motivation to perform community service between active student-athletes and semi-professional athletes using the VFI scale. Chalk (2008) investigated student-athletes’ motivations to perform community service and how these motivations aligned with the athlete’s personal values. Jarvie and Paule-Koba (2013) conducted qualitative interviews with senior college basketball players on their sport-related involvement in community service. The Boettger (2007) and Chalk (2008) studies created an initial investigation into the relationship between student-athletes and community service using established scales, while Jarvie and Paule-Koba furthered this connection by interviewing athletes about their connection to community service through sport. The current study continued this line of inquiry by creating an established subscale for investigating the sport connection to community service. An established scale would be important for athletic departments and community service organizations alike as it could encourage greater community service participation by student-athletes. Athletic departments would have a tool to support the fact that community

service would positively impact academic development of their student-athletes (Gilson et al., 2013; Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2013). Also, it would create greater involvement of college students in community service, an important goal for community service organizations (Blouin & Perry, 2009).

This study established evidence of successfully reducing the number of items on both the VFI and ISE. The concern for the researcher was that participants would experience survey fatigue if required to complete the full versions of both VFI and ISE (in addition to other demographic items and the AIMS scale) (Porter, Whitcomb, & Weitzer, 2004). Internal consistency reliability scores from the participants indicated the responses were both reliable and valid. The instrument (not including the demographics but including the full AIMS) for this study included only 45 items. As a comparison, the full ISE scale is 51 items (Taylor & Pancer, 2007). This finding is limited, as the researcher specifically retained items to certain subscales better related to the topic at-hand, which may not best serve future studies. Beyond reduction, this was the first study of its kind to utilize the ISE scale with a population of student-athletes. Additionally, this study was the first to use VFI for a population of student-athletes across all NCAA divisions.

Implications

The implications for this study are divided into two separate sections: (a) theoretical implications that add to the current literature, and (b) practical implications designed to provide recommendations for coaches, athletic administrators, and student-athletes moving forward.

Theoretical Implications

These findings contribute to the sport management and student development literature in several ways. First, this study further reinforces the importance of college students controlling the activities they participate in (Astin, 1977, 1984, 1993). The results indicated a positive relationship between student-athletes' motivations to perform community service and the benefits they experience from those service activities. This finding highlights the importance of student-athletes having a voice in choosing their volunteer opportunities. Astin (1977, 1984, 1993) discussed the importance of students controlling the decision to perform community service and institutions providing supplementary support, such as highlighting available opportunities and assisting to make sure an activity is accessible. This relationship between motivations and benefits related to community service is highlighted in one of Astin's (1984) postulates: "The amount of student learning and personal development associated with any education program is directly proportional to the quality and quantity of student involvement in that program" (p. 298).

Second, Astin (1984) believed the involvement of students in varsity athletics would improve specific academic outcomes, such as GPA and relationships with faculty. Astin (1984) did caution about "hyper involvement" in these activities, leading the student-athletes to feeling isolated from other student sub-populations, potentially stunting their academic development. The findings from this study provide pause on Astin's (1984) belief of hyper involvement negatively affecting student-athletes, at least as applied to community service. The lack of relationship

between athletic identity and either motivations to perform or benefits from performing community service provides evidence an increased focus on athletics does not dissipate a student-athlete's feelings for community service. This is an important finding due to the concerns raised in previous literature examining the negative ramifications of a strong athletic identity for student-athletes (Adler & Adler, 1991; Albion & Fogarty, 2005; Cabrita et al., 2014; Lally & Kerr, 2005; Linnemeyer & Brown, 2010; Murphy et al., 1996; Yopyk & Prentice, 2005).

Third, Astin (1984) cautions about the time limitations students experience while they are in college. Extensive literature has shown that time availability for student-athletes is even more restricted compared to the general college student population (Benford, 2007; Miller & Kerr, 2002; Rothschild-Checroune et al., 2014; Wolverton, 2014). Even given their lack of discretionary time, the findings of this study revealed that student-athletes exhibit many of the same motivations to perform community service as other college students (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, 2008; Houle et al., 2005). These similar motivations to perform community service, regardless of time limitations, speaks to student-athletes' desire to volunteer, though they may face more challenges finding opportunities to help their communities.

Practical Implications

These findings generate multiple recommendations for practitioners. First, as mentioned in the theoretical implications section, it is important for student-athletes to choose their community service activities and be directly involved with

planning instead of the activities being chosen by coaches or athletic administrators (Astin, 1984). This issue is complicated by time constraints for student-athletes and the difficulty of balancing academic and athletic responsibilities (Benford, 2007; Bimper, 2015; Hardin & Pate, 2013; Kulics, Kornspan, & Kretovics, 2015; Navarro, 2015; Weight et al., 2014; Wolverton, 2014). Because of this, athletic department personnel need to find time during team activities to provide additional information about available service opportunities on or around their campus. One such solution would be the integration of technology, such as the use of mobile apps (i.e., Helper Helper), allowing athletic department personnel to provide community service opportunities for their student-athletes, monitor their volunteer hours, and send reminders for upcoming events. Also, with student-athletes mentioning the importance of their coaches in choosing community service activities, coaches would be the recommended athletic department representative to communicate these opportunities to their student-athletes (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013). Additional literature recommends coaches becoming more involved in supporting the academic development of their student-athletes (Comeaux, 2013; Comeaux & Harrison, 2011).

Second, this study shows student-athletes reap benefits from participating in community service, a further confirmation from other studies (Astin & Sax, 1998; Eyler & Giles, 1999; MacNeela & Gannon, 2014; Metz et al., 2003; Plein, 2011; Youniss & Yates, 1997). Athletic departments receive indirect benefits from having their student-athletes participate in community service (Avalos et al., 1999; Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013; Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2013). Some examples of these benefits

include the improvement of student-athletes' GPA, decreased stereotyping, and greater awareness of social issues.

Athletic departments are charged with the academic development of their student-athletes, and community service can contribute to that academic development (Andrassy et al., 2014; Huml et al., 2014). When student-athletes perform community service with their coaches, teammates, athletic administrators, or former athletes/alumni, it provides opportunities to build team cohesion (Kamusoko & Pemberton, 2013). In addition, student-athletes are identifiable in local community service activities because of their athletic reputation and public persona. This provides athletic administrators an opportunity to showcase athletes and highlight the importance of "giving back" to their fans and other supporters (Svensson et al., 2014). The findings from this study, together with results of previous studies, highlight the importance of athletic department personnel prioritizing community service as an academic-related activity.

Third, findings in this study indicate athletic department personnel need to develop a greater understanding of their student-athletes' motivations to perform community service. As this research shows, a strong, positive relationship exists between a student-athlete's motivation to perform community service and the benefits s/he extracts from the community service experience. If athletic administrators become more aware of their student-athletes' motivations to volunteer, they can provide more appropriate recommendations for community service opportunities (Astin, 1984). Also, acknowledging that many athletic

administrators will continue choosing community service activities for their student-athletes, regardless of the potential reduction in academic benefits, having a more accurate picture of student-athlete motivations would encourage choosing community service activities more closely aligned with the a student-athlete's interests (Jarvie & Paule-Koba, 2013).

Lastly, on the opposite spectrum, athletic administrators should be aware of potential challenges for their student-athletes related to academic development.

Opinions differ on whether mandating community service is appropriate for college students (Gage III & Thapa, 2012; Henderson et al., 2014; Milem & Berger, 1997; Munter, 2002; Stukas, Snyder, & Clary, 1999; Warburton & Smith, 2003).

Community service has been shown to expose students to volunteer opportunities they would have not tried unless it was required (Henderson et al., 2014). Given that many athletic administrators and coaches will continue choosing community service activities for their student-athletes, they could identify areas where student-athletes or teams need work (leadership, promoting diversity) and target an activity geared to academic-related improvement. For example, a coach of a primarily White/Caucasian team could require an activity requiring interaction with a more diverse population. Primavera (1999) found community service activities could aid in reducing negative stereotypes with unfamiliar cultural populations or environments.

Future Research

While this study looked at the important topic of the relationship between athletic identity, motivations to perform community service, and the benefits extracted from performing community service, there are many other areas to examine from the dataset. These provide the basis for ideas for future research.

Gender Comparisons

The researcher collected information on other variables related to the participants that can be examined at a later date, particularly sex. Women have previously been found to possess lower levels of athletic identity (Tyranee et al., 2013) and greater propensity to participate in community service than men (Chesbrough, 2011; Crawford, 2007; Metz et al., 2003; Sullivan et al., 2013). A future study can examine if there are differences related to athletic identity responses between males and females. Tyranee et al. (2013) found athletic identity was related to post-college career outlets within the student-athlete's sport. Their findings suggest connections related to sex, as female athletes have fewer opportunities to play their sport professionally after graduation. As the NCAA often states, these athletes will be going pro in something other than sports. Also, no previous study has addressed whether female student-athletes participate in more community service opportunities than male student-athletes.

Future studies could also examine differences related to gender and motivations to perform community service and benefits from completing community service. Chesbrough (2011) found men were more likely to exhibit

extrinsic motivation to perform community service, while women were more likely to describe their volunteer experiences using emotion-related (internal) adjectives. Another study found women were more likely to perform community service related to social issues compared to men (Metz et al., 2003). A study examining differences among student-athletes related to gender and motivations/benefits of performing community service would be the first of its kind.

NCAA Divisional Comparisons

Similar to the future study recommendations examining differences between men and women, future studies could look at differences related to athletic identity and the participant's NCAA division. Previous studies have examined a singular NCAA division (Mignano, Brewer, Winter, & Van Raalte, 2006; Miller & Kerr, 2002; Richard & Aries, 1999) or compared two of the three NCAA divisions (Sturm et al., 2011), but no previous study has examined differences across all three NCAA divisions. For example, with the significant amount of year-round coverage on some Division I sports, future results may show athletic identity at heightened levels for Division I student-athletes compared to other NCAA divisions.

Also, a future study could compare differences related to motivations to perform community service and benefits from performing community service related to NCAA division. NCAA Division II and Division III have unique initiatives to motivate their student-athletes to perform community service, but this does not exist in NCAA Division I (Durham, 2015; NCAA, n.d.). For example, NCAA Division III has an initiative called "Division III Week" where institutions are recommended to

seek out an outreach activity in their local community (NCAA, n.d.). NCAA Division II has had a relationship with the community service organization, Make A Wish, for over 10 years and raised over \$4 million in donations (Durham, 2015). Regardless of these differences, no previous study has examined differences related to community service and NCAA division.

Other Comparisons

A previous study found the level of athletic identity decreased the longer a student-athlete stayed in college (Miller & Kerr, 2002). While this study did not specifically examine year in college, a future study could examine differences related to athletic identity, motivation to perform community service, and benefits from performing community service by years in school. Lastly, multiple studies examined the relationship between race and athletic identity (Bimper, 2014) and academic-related outcomes for student-athletes (Carter-Francique, Hart, & Steward, 2013; Comeaux & Harrison, 2007). Researchers have reported minority students are more likely to perform community service (Cruce & Moore, 2007; Sullivan et al., 2013), but Caucasian students are more likely to report greater benefits from their experiences (Berger & Milem, 2002). While the studies examined race and community service with college students, no previous study has extended any inquiry to student-athletes. Lastly, a future study could examine potential differences related to student-athletes' enrollment at a public or private institution. This study could examine differences related to athletic identity and motivations/benefits of performing community service depending on if the student-athlete is at a public or private institution.

Scale Development

This study attempted to create two new subscales for sport-related motivations to perform community service, one for positive sport motivations, named *Sport Connect*, and another for negative sport motivations, named *Sport Obligation*. As the researcher examined the results, it became clear the *Sport Obligation* subscale was not supported by the participants' responses. Reflecting back, the *Sport Obligation* subscale was deemed too broad to load on a singular construct. A future study could investigate this potential sub-construct further, as the research highlights potential challenges faced by student-athletes impacting their availability or interest in community service in ways differing from the general college student population (Adler & Adler, 1991; Benford, 2007; Cantor & Prentice, 1996; Hardin & Pate, 2013; Lawrence et al., 2009; The Coalition on Intercollegiate Athletics, 2005).

This study focused on the relationship between athletic identity, community service motivation, and benefits from community service at the second-order level latent factor. With the researcher also validating a new subscale for motivation to perform community service based on sport, a future study will need to examine if a relationship exists between athletic identity and the new sport-related motivation subscale. This would provide a more direct examination of interaction between two athletic-related scales. If a positive relationship was discovered between athletic identity and a sport-related motivation to perform community service, this could identify sport-related reasons student-athletes are motivated to perform community service.

Limitations

The study employed a cross-sectional approach for data collection. Since the data was collected in a snapshot of time, it is limited in applying the findings to the general student-athlete population. This study purposely targeted only active student-athletes, therefore limiting the application of findings to other student sub-populations. Also, National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) and National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA) student-athletes were not surveyed for this study, limiting the generalizability of these findings to all student-athletes. Additionally, demographics from this study's participants do not exactly align with gender and race breakdowns from the NCAA (Johnson, 2014). This may imply a response bias from the participants who responded and limits its generalizability to the NCAA student-athlete population as a whole.

This study was the first to present a new athletic-related subscale for motivation to perform community service. Further studies will be needed to provide additional evidence of its viability as an instrument. Also, this study did not employ a pre-test/post-test approach to examine differences related to motivations and benefits of community service. The researcher depended on participants to explain their motivations to perform community service and reflect upon the benefits of performing community service in the past.

Summary of Study

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the interaction between student-athletes' athletic identity, their motivation to perform community service,

and their benefits from performing community service. This purpose can be deconstructed into three separate topics: (a) investigating the relationship between a student-athlete's motivation to perform community service and the benefits s/he receives from performing community service, (b) investigating the relationship of level of athletic identity on motivations to perform community service and, and (c) investigating the relationship of level of athletic identity with the benefits student-athletes receive from performing community service.

Data was collected from 546 student-athletes from 17 different NCAA Division I, II, and III institutions. Results found a statistically significant, positive relationship between motivations to perform community service and benefits extracted from performing community service. Also, a non-significant relationship was reported between athletic identity and (a) motivations to perform community service and also (b) benefits from performing community service.

These findings highlight the importance of allowing student-athletes to be the decision-makers when choosing to participate in community service. As student-athletes could choose community service based on their unique motivations to volunteer, it would allow them to maximize the benefits from their experience. The lack of statistical significance indicated between athletic identity and motivation/benefits of performing community service may represent a potential academic outcome that is not negatively impacted by the student-athlete's athletic identity. This finding runs contrary of others examining the impact of athletic identity on academic-related outcomes.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Recruitment Letter

September 18th, 2015

Dear Student-Athlete,

You are being invited to participate in a research study about your experience in performing community service as a college student. There are no known risks for your participation in this research study. The information collected may not benefit you directly. The information learned in this study may be helpful to others. The information you provide will help athletic departments and student-athletes foster their connection with community service organizations. Your completed survey will be stored at the University of Louisville. The survey will take approximately 8 to 12 minutes of your time to complete.

Individuals from the Department of Health and Sport Sciences, the Institutional Review Board (IRB), the Human Subjects Protection Program Office (HSPPPO), and other regulatory agencies may inspect these records. In all other respects, however, the data will be held in confidence to the extent permitted by law. Should the data be published, your identity will not be disclosed.

Taking part in this study is voluntary. By completing this survey you agree to take part in this research study. You do not have to answer any questions that make you uncomfortable. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to be in this study you may stop taking part at any time. If you decide not to be in this study or if you stop taking part at any time, you will not lose any benefits for which you may qualify.

If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints about the research study, please contact: Matt Huml (502-852-2570).

If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you may call the Human Subjects Protection Program Office at (502) 852-5188. You can discuss any questions about your rights as a research subject, in private, with a member of the Institutional Review Board (IRB). You may also call this number if you have other questions about the research, and you cannot reach the research staff, or want to talk to someone else. The IRB is an independent committee made up of people from the University community, staff of the institutions, as well as people from the

community not connected with these institutions. The IRB has reviewed this research study.

If you have concerns or complaints about the research or research staff and you do not wish to give your name, you may call 1-877-852-1167. This is a 24-hour hot line answered by people who do not work at the University of Louisville.

Sincerely,

Dr. Meg Hancock

Dr. Mary Hums

Matt Huml

Appendix B

Instrument

Demographics (7 Items)

1. Gender
2. Race
3. GPA
4. Academic Class
5. Sport
6. NCAA Division
7. Major

General Information (3 Items)

1. How many hours do you participate in community service per semester?
2. Have you performed community service as a form of punishment?
3. Does your coach or athletic department choose the community service you participate in?

Athlete Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS) (7 Items)

1. I consider myself an athlete
2. I have many goals related to sport
3. Most of my friends are athletes
4. Sport is the most important part of my life
5. I spend more time thinking about sport than anything else
6. I need to participate in sport to feel good about myself
7. Other people see me mainly as an athlete

Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) (Seven-Point Likert Scale) (Add sport-related scale) (20 Items)

- **Career**
- **Social**
- **Understanding**
- **Enhancement**
- **Sport**

I eliminated values and protective subscales for two reasons because I believe they do not align with the intentions of this study or with the theoretical framework being used in this study.

1. Volunteering can help me get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.
2. My friends volunteer.

3. People I'm close to want me to volunteer.
4. Volunteering makes me feel important.
5. People I know share an interest in community service.
6. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.
7. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.
8. Volunteering increases my self-esteem.
9. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.
10. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.
11. Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.
12. Volunteering lets me learn through direct "hands on" experience.
13. Volunteering will help me succeed in my chosen profession.
14. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.
15. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.
16. Volunteering makes me feel needed.
17. Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.
18. Volunteering experience will look good on my résumé.
19. Volunteering is a way to make new friends.
20. I can explore my own strengths.
21. Volunteering allows me to connect with my teammates
22. Volunteering allows me to connect with my coaches
23. Volunteering is a valuable part of participating in athletics
24. As an athlete I have the power to bring awareness to an area of need
25. Volunteering allows me to connect with my teammates
26. Volunteering allows me to connect with my coaches
27. Volunteering allows our team to connect with our community
28. I feel obligated to volunteer because I am a student-athlete
29. When our team performs a volunteering activity, we have to attend
30. If me or one of my teammates gets in trouble, they may be required to perform community service

Inventory of Service Experience (Benefits) (14 Items)

- Relations With Others
- Learning Skills
- Exposure to Career Possibilities

I eliminated community engagement subscale and items within the academic engagement subscale because they had low factor loading scores, and I believe they do not align with the intentions of this study or with the theoretical framework being used in this study.

1. I have met a lot of nice people through my volunteer work.
2. I have become friends with new people through my volunteer activities.
3. The people I work with as a volunteer are not very supportive.
4. I feel that the people within the organization with which I volunteer care about me and enjoy my company.
5. The people I work with as a volunteer are not very nice to me.

6. I am broadening my problem-solving skills through my volunteer experience.
7. My volunteer experience is providing me with information about possible careers.
8. My volunteer experience makes me realize that I have the ability to do work in that field.
9. I am not really learning any new skills through my volunteer work.
10. I am developing useful contacts for future employment through my volunteer experience.
11. Volunteering helps me learn skills that will be useful in my career in work life.
12. My volunteer experience has not supplied me with any new information about potential careers.
13. I am learning how to better interact with people through my volunteer activities.
14. I am learning to better organize my time due to my volunteer involvement.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Matt Huml
Porter Education Building Room 140
University of Louisville
Louisville, KY 40292

Education

- 2016 **Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Leadership and Organizational Development**
(Expected) University of Louisville, Louisville, KY
Specialization: Sport Administration
Anticipated Graduation: Spring 2016
Doctoral Advisor: Dr. Mary Hums
Dissertation: Examining the Motivations and Benefits of Student-Athletes Performing Community Service
- 2011 **Master of Education in College Student Affairs Leadership**
Grand Valley State University, Allendale, MI
Thesis: An Examination of Student-Athletes' Use and Perceptions of Academic Support Services
- 2009 **Bachelor of Science in Physical Education**
Grand Valley State University, Allendale, MI
Emphasis: Coaching
Minor: Business

Research

Research Interests

My research interests focus on the academic experience of the student-athletes. Specific sub-topics include: (1) performing community engagement, (2) interactions with university academic personnel, (3) the balance of time commitment within intercollegiate athletics and academics, and (4) the interaction between intercollegiate athletics and student-athletes choosing an academic major and intended career path.

Peer-Reviewed Journal Publications

Huml, M. R., Svensson, P. G., & Hancock, M. G. (2014). Exploring the role of educational institutions in student-athlete community engagement. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics, 7*, 224-244. **(19.7% acceptance rate)**

Huml, M. R., Bergman, M. J., & Hums, M. A. (2014). Comeback player of the year: Former student athletes returning to school as adult students. *Journal for the Study of Sports and Athletes in Education, 8*(3), 148-167. **(11% acceptance rate)**

Huml, M. R., Hancock, M. G., & Bergman, M. J. (2014). Additional support or extravagant cost? Student-athletes' perspective on athletic academic centers. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics, 7*, 410-430. **(19.7% acceptance rate)**

Svensson, P. G., **Huml, M. R.,** & Hancock, M. G. (2014). The impact of student-athlete community service partnerships on community agencies. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 18*(4), 97-128. **(2.4% acceptance rate)**

Andrassy, E. J., Bruening, J. E., Svensson, P. G., **Huml, M. R.,** & Chung, M. (2014). The role of organizational capacity in student-athlete development. *Journal of Intercollegiate Sport, 7*, 218-244. **(h index: 7)**

Publications in Review or in Progress

Weight, E. A., & **Huml, M. R.** (*Under Second Review*). Facilitating education through athletics: An examination of academic courses designed for NCAA athletes. *Journal of Intercollegiate Sport*.

Huml, M. R., & Moorman, A. M. (*Under Second Review*). Student-athlete educational records? The involvement of FERPA within recent NCAA Division I academic scandals. *Journal of Legal Aspects of Sport*.

Huml, M. R., Hums, M. A., & Choi, N. (*Under Second Review*). Creating balance? The perception of NCAA Division II head coaches on the Life in the Balance initiative. *Journal of Intercollegiate Sport*.

Huml, M. R., Hambrick, M. E., & Hums, M. A. (*Under Review*). The reduction of athletic commitment for Division II Student-Athletes: Development and validation of a measure of athletic/academic balance. *Journal of Intercollegiate Sport*.

Huml, M. R., Hancock, M. G., & Svensson, P. G. (*Revisions in Progress*). Community service and college athletics: The philosophy of student-athlete engagement for NCAA athletic departments. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics*.

Huml, M. R., Hums, M. A., & Hambrick, M. E. (*Manuscript in progress*). Do coaches know best? Qualitative examination of college coaches on promoting student-athlete work/life balance. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*.

Huml, M. R. (*Manuscript in progress*). Selective service: Development and validation of a measure on specialized centers for athletic academic centers. *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*.

Conference Presentations & Abstract Publications

Huml, M. R., & Hums, M. A. (*Accepted*). Changing rules: A stakeholder perspective of college coaches on NCAA policy. 2016 North American Society of Sport Management. Orlando, FL.

Huml, M. R., & Hums, M. A. (2015, June). Student-athletes in the balance: Perceptions of college coaches on the NCAA Division II Life in the Balance Legislation. 2015 North American Society of Sport Management. Ottawa, ON.

Huml, M. R., Hums, M. A., & Hanna, C. (2015, April). NCAA Division II Life in the Balance: The perception of athletic administrators and coaches on legislation for balancing athletics and academics. 8th Annual CSRI Conference on College Sport. Columbia, SC.

Huml, M. R., & Weight, E. A. (2015, April). Credit for participation: Academic valuation of the NCAA athlete experience. 8th Annual CSRI Conference on College Sport. Columbia, SC.

Andrassy, E. J., Bruening, J. E., Svensson, P. G., **Huml, M. R.,** & Chung, M. (2015, April). Best practices: Collegiate athletes and community service. American Educational Research Association 2015 Annual Meeting. Chicago, IL.

Huml, M. R., & Moorman, A. M. (2015, March). Student-athlete educational records? The involvement of FERPA within recent NCAA Division I academic scandals. 28th Annual SRLA Conference. Charlotte, NC.

Bergman, M. J., & **Huml, M. R.** (2014, November). Comeback player of the year: Adult perspectives from former student athletes returning to school as adult students (Adult learner's perspective). American Association for Adult and Continuing Education 2014 Annual Conference. North Charleston, SC.

Huml, M. R., Craig, J. B., & Hums, M. A. (2014, October). Comeback player of the year: Advising practices for former student athletes returning to school as adult students (Advisor's perspective). National Academic Advising Association's 38th Annual Conference. Minneapolis, MN.

Huml, M. R., & Hancock, M. G. (2014, June). Community service and college athletics: The philosophy of student-athlete engagement for NCAA athletic departments. 2014 North American Society of Sport Management. Pittsburgh, PA.

Huml, M. R. (2013, July). Selective service: Student-athletes' perspective on athletic academic centers. 2013 Fourth International Conference on Sport and Society. Chicago, IL.

Svensson, P. G., & **Huml, M. R.** (2013, May). The impact of student-athlete community service partnerships on community agencies. 2013 North American Society of Sport Management. Austin, TX.

Huml, M. R., & Svensson, P.G. (2013, March). Exploring the role of educational institutions in student-athlete community engagement. Muhammad Ali Center Athletes and Social Change Forum. Louisville, KY.

Huml, M. R. (2012, January). Awareness and participation of student-athletes in academic and athletic programming. 2012 NCAA Scholarly Colloquium. Indianapolis, IN.

Instructed Courses

University of Louisville

SPAD 390 – Sport Governance (Online Course) (Spring 2016 – 25 students)

- Course Evaluation Score: N/A (Five Point Scale)

HSS 397 – Student-Athlete Development (Fall 2015 – 30 students – Two sections)

- Course Evaluation Score: 4.39 (Five Point Scale)

SPAD 382 – Organizational Behavior in Sport (Spring 2015 – 32 students)

- Course Evaluation Score: 4.05 (Five Point Scale)

SPAD 281 – Principles of Sport Administration (Fall 2014 – 30 students)

- Course Evaluation Score: 4.25 (Five Point Scale)

SPAD 390 – Sport Governance (Spring 2014 – 35 students)

- Course Evaluation Score: 4.25 (Five Point Scale)

Grand Valley State University

PED 315 – Sport in Society (Spring 2011 – 30 students)

MOV 202 – Social Cultural Dimensions of Sport (Fall 2010 – 35 students)

Invited Lecturer/Presentations

University of Louisville

Guest Lecturer SPAD 702 – Research Colloquium I (Spring 2016)

Lecture Topic: Job Talk

Guest Lecturer SPAD 404 – Financial Principles in Sport (Fall 2015)

Lecture Topic: Economic Impact

Guest Lecturer ELFH 710 – Doctoral Seminar in Educational Leadership (Fall 2015)

Lecture Topic: Surviving the PhD - First Year

Guest Lecturer SPAD 689 – Legal Aspects in the Sport Industry (Fall 2014)
Lecture Topic: Student-Athlete Rights

Guest Lecturer ELFH 710 – Doctoral Seminar in Educational Leadership (Fall 2014)
Lecture Topic: Constructing a Literature Review

Guest Lecturer ELFH 602 – Survey Research and Attitude Measurement (Summer 2014)
Lecture Topic: Online Survey

Guest Lecturer SPAD 281 – Principles of Sport Administration (Spring 2014)
Lecture Topic: College Sports

Guest Lecturer SPAD 284 – Issues and Ethics in Sport (Fall 2013)
Lecture Topic: Sport and Education

Guest Lecturer SPAD 382 – Organizational Behavior in Sport Administration (Fall 2013)
Lecture Topic: Personality

Guest Lecturer ELFH 300 – Prior Learning Assessment (Fall 2013)
Lecture Topic: Work Specialization

Guest Lecturer ELFH 311 – Needs Assessment (Fall 2013)
Lecture Topic: Occupational Training

Professional Experience

University of Louisville

Assistant Director of Education Advising & Student Services Current

2013-

Oversees undergraduate advising for prospective and currently enrolled undergraduate students in the Departments of Health and Sport Sciences (HSS) and Education and Leadership, Foundations & Human Resource Education (ELFH).

- Advise prospective and current students seeking undergraduate degrees in the HSS and ELFH Departments including preparation of academic plans and assistance with the development of academic and career goals.
 - Has overseen a 24% increase in HSS & ELFH student graduations.
- Oversee the tracking of undergraduate CEHD students, including the supervision of academic action processing, and compiling and analyzing statistical data to aid in program development for student retention and completion.
- Represent Education and Advising and Student Services at CEHD and university-wide meetings and as a member of committees.
- Educate student-athletes and advising staff regarding NCAA compliance issues.
- Supervision and training of 5 academic advisors.
- Approve undergraduate students majoring within HSS and ELFH for degrees.

- Achieved Master Advisor certification in February 2015.
- Created accelerated program with AthLife and NFLPA to assist current and former NFL players to enroll and complete their degree within the OLL program.

Senior Academic Counselor

2012-2013

Advised and counseled students in the Organizational Leadership & Learning (OLL) program.

- Supervised and coordinated the recruitment, testing, admissions, and orientation of new students.
- Acted as liaison with faculty, special programs administrators, and academic and student personnel departments to determine and promote awareness of special student needs.
- Supervised and directed the collection of data and the maintenance of student files and other administrative records.
- Planned and coordinated recruitment activities including development of informational presentations, publications, and other materials.

University of Tennessee

Academic Advisor I

2011-2012

Provided comprehensive advising for students with majors or minors for undergraduate and teacher licensure programs in the College of Education, Health, and Human Sciences.

- Built appropriate academic schedules for incoming transfer students based on intended major and degree program, transferring coursework, and university general education requirements.
- Led groups in advising sessions at freshmen and transfer orientation.
- Acted as Athletic Liaison for advising and eligibility questions for student-athletes.

Grand Valley State University

Academic Advisor (Graduate Assistant)

2009-

2011

Advised first and second year students with majors or minors in the School of Communications, Movement Science Department, and College of Education.

- Advised first and second year students with majors or minors in the School of Communications, Movement Science Department, and College of Education.
- Organized phone, Skype, and Go To Meeting orientations for incoming transfer students who cannot make one of the transfer orientation dates.
- Corresponded with faculty and staff members during transfer orientation sessions to ensure quality information is provided to students throughout the transfer process.

Contracts and Grants Funded

- Awarded **\$2,000,000** for Cadre and Faculty Development Course: Proof of Principle, U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command, FY2015 to FY2016 (Co-Investigator).
- Applied for \$46,349 for doctoral dissertation support through the 2015 National Service and Civic Engagement Research Competition from the Corporation for National and Community Service. Project was not funded.
- Applied for \$595 for Mplus statistical software to support statistical analysis required for doctoral dissertation through the CEHD Research & Faculty Development Grant at the University of Louisville (Summer 2015). Project was not funded.
- Awarded **\$450** for travel to the 2015 College Sport Research Institute Conference through the University of Louisville Graduate Student Council.
- Applied for \$1,175 for travel and presentation to the 2015 College Sport Research Institute Conference in Columbia, SC (*Credit for participation: Academic valuation of the NCAA athlete experience*) through the CEHD Research & Faculty Development Grant at the University of Louisville (Fall 2014). Project was not funded.
- Applied for \$5,595 for *Academic clustering: Impact of intercollegiate athletics' structure on student-athletes in academic transition* project through the 2014 NCAA Graduate Student Research Grant (2015). Project was not funded.
- Awarded **\$771** for travel to the 2014 North American Society of Sport Management through the University of Louisville Staff Small Grant Committee (2014).
- Awarded **\$180** for travel to the 2014 North American Society of Sport Management through the Sport Administration department at the University of Louisville (2014).
- Awarded **\$375** for travel to the 2013 Fourth International Conference on Sport and Society through the Sport Administration department at the University of Louisville (2013).
- Awarded **\$300** for interview transcription for 2013 NASSM Study, The Impact of Student-Athlete Community Service Partnerships on Community Agencies from the Graduate Student Council at the University of Louisville (2013).
- Awarded **\$590** for travel to the 2012 NCAA Scholarly Colloquium in Indianapolis, IN through the College of Education of Health and Human Sciences (2012).
- Awarded **\$500** for travel to the 2011 College Sport Research Institute Conference in Chapel Hill, NC through the Movement Science Adjunct Faculty Professional Development (2011).
- Awarded **\$100** for travel to the 2011 College Sport Research Institute Conference in Chapel Hill, NC through the College Student Affairs Leadership Professional Development (2011).

- Awarded **\$200** for travel to the 25th Annual North American Society for Sport Management Conference in Tampa, FL through the CLAS Academic Advising Professional Development Funds (2010).
- Awarded **\$130** for travel to the 2010 NCAA Emerging Leaders Seminar in Indianapolis, IN through the College Student Affairs Leadership Professional Development (2010).
- Awarded **\$200** for travel to the 2010 NCAA Emerging Leaders Seminar in Indianapolis, IN through the GVSU Athletic Department Professional Development Fund (2010).

Service

Professional

- Member – North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), 2009 – Current
 - NASSM Conference Committee Member - Student Representative, 2015-16
- Member – North American Society for the Sociology of Sport (NASSS), 2012 - Current
- Member – National Academic Advising Association (NACADA), 2009 – Current
 - Reviewer - National Academic Advising Association's 38th Annual Conference, Spring 2014
- Guest Reviewer – Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics (JIIA) – 2015-Current
- Reviewer – Sport and Recreation Law Association Annual Conference, Spring 2016
- Reviewer – The National Youth-At-Risk Conference, Summer 2015
- Member – Conference Program & Planning Committee, Veteran Symposium for Higher Education, Spring 2014
 - NACADA Representative
- Consultant – GameDay Consulting, LLC, Fall 2012
- Attendee – NCAA Emerging Leaders Seminar, 2010

University

- Member – Competency Based Education Healthcare Leadership Program, Fall 2015 - Current
- Member – Academic Counselor Search Committee, Summer 2015
 - Health & Sport Sciences Department
- Member – Flight Plan (Policies and Procedures Subcommittee), Fall 2014 - Current
- Member – Athletic Academic Advising Council, Summer 2014 – Current
- Member – Intra-University Transfer Taskforce, Summer 2014 – Current
- Member – Advisor Development Advisory Committee, Spring 2014 – Fall 2015
 - Organizing and planning the professional development and retreat activities for all University of Louisville academic advisors
- Member – Faculty Search Committee, Spring 2014
 - Non-Tenure Track Position, Organizational Leadership & Learning Program
- Chair – Senior Academic Counselor Search Committee, Spring 2014
 - Health & Sport Sciences Department
- Member - College of Education & Human Development Curriculum Committee, Fall 2013 – Present

- Member – Organizational Leadership & Learning Advisory Board, Fall 2013 – Present
- Member – Senior Academic Counselor Search Committee, Fall 2013
 - Organizational Leadership & Learning
- Member – Academic Counselor Search Committee, Fall 2013
 - Health & Sport Sciences Department

Community Engagement

- Coordinator – Basketball Segment, National Girls and Women in Sports Day, 2008 - 2010
- Volunteer – 2010 PGA Junior Championship, Egypt Valley Country Club, Summer 2010
- Member – Student-Athlete Advisory Committee Member (SAAC), 2007-2008
- Participant – Athletes Who Care, 2007 - 2008

Coaching Experience

- Graduate Assistant, Men’s Basketball, Grand Valley State University, 2009 – 2010
- Undergraduate Assistant, Men’s Basketball, Grand Valley State University, 2008 - 2009
- Camp Instructor, Men’s Basketball, University of Utah, 2008
- Camp Instructor, Men’s Basketball, Grand Valley State University, 2007 – 2008
- Recruiting Coordinator, Baseball, Kishwaukee College, 2007
- Head Coach, Junior Varsity Baseball, Kaneland Senior High School, 2005 – 2006
- Head Coach, Junior Varsity Basketball, Kaneland Senior High School, 2004 – 2006
- Head Coach, Freshman Basketball, Kaneland Senior High School, 2004 - 2006