

2016

The Impact of Formal Extracurricular Activities on Satisfaction and Attitudes-toward-School among At-Risk Adolescents

Derek G. Miller

Concordia University - Portland

Follow this and additional works at: <http://commons.cu-portland.edu/gradproj>

 Part of the [Civic and Community Engagement Commons](#), [Education Commons](#), and the [International and Area Studies Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Miller, Derek G., "The Impact of Formal Extracurricular Activities on Satisfaction and Attitudes-toward-School among At-Risk Adolescents" (2016). *MA IDS Thesis Projects*. 39.
<http://commons.cu-portland.edu/gradproj/39>

This Open Access Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate Theses & Dissertations at CU Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in MA IDS Thesis Projects by an authorized administrator of CU Commons. For more information, please contact libraryadmin@cu-portland.edu.

The Impact of Formal Extracurricular Activities on Satisfaction and Attitudes-toward-School
among At-Risk Adolescents

Derek G. Miller

Concordia University

Portland, Oregon

A Thesis was submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree:

Masters of Arts

In

International Development and Service

College of Theology, Arts, and Science, Concordia University- Portland

Department of Theology, Arts, and Science

April 2016

Acknowledgments

First and foremost, I want to give honor to God for blessing me throughout the process of composing and completing this thesis project.

Then, I want to thank my family, mom, dad, brother, and special lady for every encouraging word to motivate me in completing this final product for my degree.

Next, I want to thank all faculty and staff at Siena Italian Studies, San Francisco de Quito, Concordia University and other affiliates. I want to extend a special thanks to Dr. Angela Owusu-Ansah of Concordia University for agreeing to advise me throughout this intense period of graduate application. I will forever be in debt to you for your scholastic and professional assistance.

Last but not least, I want to thank every at-risk adolescent student who inspires me to seek solutions for advancing the betterment of academic achievement.

Abstract

At-risk adolescents, comprised mainly of low-income African American and Hispanic/Latino students, tend to disengage and dropout of school because they lack a bond to school and society. Formal extracurricular activity in schools is one way to develop student involvement and attachment to school. The researcher sought to explore how participation of at-risk adolescent students in formal extracurricular sport activity impacted their academic perceptions, attitudes toward school, motivation, and satisfaction with life. The researcher also examined whether location, international versus local, made a difference in the impact of formal extracurricular activities on at-risk adolescent students. Seventy-four at-risk adolescent and primarily students of Hispanic descent (thirty-nine Hispanic participants, from and living in Cumbaya, Ecuador and thirty-five made up of Hispanics, African Americans, and Caucasians living in Gresham, Oregon) served as participants. These adolescents were chosen because low-income Hispanics form the fastest growing immigrant ethnic minority in schools and represent an extremely at-risk population. The analyses revealed that at-risk adolescents participating in formal extracurricular activity irrespective of location rated academic perceptions, attitudes toward school, motivation, and satisfaction with life positively. Combining extracurricular activities with other sports and duration of participation had a positive impact on motivation and attitude towards teachers and families, respectively. Overall life satisfaction in participants who spent a minimum of two years in sports was greater than that of those who did not participate. Participants in Cumbaya had more positive attitudes toward academic self-perception, teachers and school, and were also more motivated and satisfied with school than participants in Gresham.

Keywords: formal extracurricular activities, at-risk adolescents, Hispanic/Latino students

Table of Contents

Acknowledgments 2

Abstract..... 3

Chapter I..... 8

Introduction 8

Statement of the Problem.....10

Purpose.....10

Significance of the Study11

Theoretical Framework11

Research Questions.....15

Null Hypotheses15

Definition of Terms.....16

Chapter II 17

Literature Review 17

Overview17

Adolescence and At-Risk Adolescent Students.....19

At-Risk Adolescent Students and School Disengagement.....20

At-Risk Adolescent Students and School Engagement25

Extracurricular Activities29

Types of Extracurricular Activities.....30

Impacts of Extracurricular Activities30

Theoretical Bases35

IMPACT OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITES	5
Benefits to the Community	43
Chapter III	46
Methodology	46
Design	46
Participants	47
Instruments	49
Data Collection Procedures	52
Survey Administration.....	54
Attendance Data.....	55
Data Analysis Procedures	56
Limitations	57
Chapter IV	58
Findings	58
Overview	58
Research Questions	59
Null Hypotheses	60
Analyses Of Overall Participants: Similarities Between Gresham And Cumbaya (Considering Locations Together)	61
Overall Attitudes and Satisfaction.....	61
Overall Gender Differences.....	62
Overall Age Differences.....	64
Overall Duration of Participation Differences.....	64

IMPACT OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITES	6
Overall Participation in Formal Extracurricular Activities with Participation in Sports Differences.....	66
Overall life satisfaction in participants who spent a minimum of two years in sports was greater than that of those who did not participate.....	68
Analyses Of Gresham Versus Cumbaya: Location Comparison	68
Cumbaya vs. Gresham: Scores on Satisfaction and Attitudes.	69
Gender Differences: Cumbaya vs. Gresham.....	72
Age Differences: Cumbaya vs. Gresham.....	72
Differences in Duration in Formal Extracurricular Activities, Combination of Extracurricular activity and Sports, and Sports in General: Cumbaya vs. Gresham.....	74
Analysis of School Attendance/Absenteeism as a Measure of Motivation.....	74
Chapter V.....	76
Discussion of Results	76
Discussion	78
Limitations	84
Chapter VI.....	85
Conclusion.....	85
Implications	88
Recommendations for Future Studies	89
References	91
APPENDIX A: ASSENT/CONSENT FORM ENGLISH	104

IMPACT OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITES	7
APPENDIX B: ASSENT/CONSENT FORM SPANISH	109
APPENDIX C: LETTER TO PRINCIPAL.....	114
APPENDIX D: SAAS-R ENGLISH	117
APPENDIX E: SAAS-R SPANISH	119
APPENDIX F: MSLSS ENGLISH.....	121
APPENDIX G: MSLSS SPANISH	123
APPENDIX H: BASIC DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION SURVEY ENGLISH	125
APPENDIX I: BASIC DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION SURVEY SPANISH.....	127
APPENDIX J: IRB LETTER OF APPROVAL	129

Chapter I

Introduction

Every nine seconds a high school student drops out of school (Shin & Kendall, 2013). According to the National Council on Education Statistics (NCES), in 2012 the national dropout rate was estimated to be 7 percent. The rates for low-income populations, however, were worse at 12 percent, as well as for African Americans and Hispanics/Latinos at 8 and 13 percent (Tackie, 2014). Most of the students who drop out of high school are classified as at-risk by their educational institution (Burrus & Roberts, 2012). The breakdown of Burrus and Roberts' (2012) study showed that students of color, namely African American and Hispanic/Latino, and low-income students are highly at-risk. Additionally, at-risk adolescents exist in all countries (Smyth & McInerney, 2007), and recent immigration trends show schools in America are increasing diverse students who are mainly global (minorities). Maxwell (2014) noted that in the fall of 2014, the overall number of Hispanic/Latino, African-American, and Asian students in public K-12 classrooms surpassed, for the first time, the number of non-Hispanic whites. The National Center for Education Statistics (2010) projected minorities statuses would raise to majority (50.3%) in K-12 schools in 2014. The growth is driven mainly by an increase in the Latino-Hispanic low socio-economic population and, to a lesser degree, by a steady rise in the number of Asian-Americans. In addition, 23 percent of African American students and 15 percent of Hispanic/Latino students, (compared with 5 percent of white students), according to Tackie (2014) attend dropout factories, which are schools that fail to graduate more than 60 percent of their freshman class four years later (GradNation, 2014). Consequently, in preparation for future enrollment projections and effective schools, leaders of middle and high

school institutions ought to determine ways to structure schools to reduce at-risk adolescent behaviors such as disengagement, lack of motivation, and negative attitudes towards school and life, which ultimately lead to increases in dropout rates.

Dropping out of high school is not an idea that surfaces overnight (Bulger & Watson, 2006; Finn, 1989; Tackie, 2014). It is a result deriving from a prolonged history of steadily increasing disengagement and other behavioral indicators that lead to students dropping out of school (Burrus & Roberts, 2012; Finn, 1989; Tackie, 2014; Voelkl, 1997). Moreover, Klem and Connell (2004) concluded 40 to 60 percent of at-risk adolescent high school students experience “chronical disengagement”. Disengaged students are characterized by chronic absenteeism, course failure, truancy, disruptive behaviors, feeling bored, and social isolation (Burrus & Roberts, 2014; Tackie, 2014; Finn, 1989; GradNations, 2014; Shin & Kendall, 2013). In addition, when students feel that their school environment is impersonal, neglectful, or against their personal success, they tend to disengage from school and stop attending classes (Voelkl, 1997). Also, students who internally think their teachers have low expectations for them believe they are not capable of performing well and unfortunately this perception also leads to little self-motivation and increased levels of disengagement (Bloom, 1976; Steele, 2010).

Researchers suggest several interventions to increase student engagement in school and to reduce dropout rates of at-risk adolescent students. According to Marshall (2015) and Merkel (2013), extracurricular activities are one of the interventions that positively impact students’ attitudes towards school and academic achievement, and at-risk adolescent students who do not participate in extracurricular activities are not as likely to succeed academically (Thompson & Austin, 2003). Specifically, formal extracurricular activities, like sports (Fujita, 2006) and

afterschool programs (Lareau, 2003) impact at-risk adolescent students positively, but informal extracurricular activities, also known as leisure activities, do not (Kirschner & Karpinski, 2010).

Statement of the Problem

Hispanic/Latino and African American adolescent students of low socio economic status in America often demonstrate “at-risk” behaviors. There is a steady influx of low socio-economic minorities, in particular Hispanic(s), to the United States. This suggests a strong likelihood of an increase in the number of adolescents characterized as at-risk in American schools. In the United States, interventions such as formal extracurricular activities have been shown to reduce at-risk adolescent students’ disengaged behavior. Most previous research on the impact of extracurricular activities on at-risk adolescents, were conducted in the United States. Therefore this study will extend on current research by conducting the study in a Hispanic/Latino country. It will explore the differences and similarities of the impact of formal extracurricular activity on at-risk adolescent students in their country of origin, and on a mixed population of Hispanics, African American, Caucasian, and Asian, at-risk adolescents in an American school.

Purpose

The purpose of the study is to explore the similarities and differences in attitudes towards school and satisfaction with life among at-risk adolescents who participate in formal extracurricular activities. Specifically, this research tested whether at-risk adolescent students’ involvement in formal extracurricular activities affected their academic perceptions, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, motivations and satisfactions with family, friends, school, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction. It also sought to determine whether similarities and differences existed between participants in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham,

Oregon with respect to gender, age, duration of participation, and participation in additional sports.

Significance of the Study

This study may provide insights to education policy makers as well as middle and high school administrators on formal extracurricular activities as a strategy to support the unique needs of at-risk adolescent low socio-economic Hispanic/Latino and African-American adolescent students in their communities. Participating in formal extracurricular activities could increase at-risk adolescent students' engagement with school, and reduce chronic disengagement and dropout rates. Formal extracurricular activities could improve their motivation, attendance, and academic self-perceptions in ways that could reduce dropout rates and increase graduation rates. This is important because of the rise in potentially low-income Hispanic/Latino at-risk students in K-12 schools.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of the study focuses on explaining reasons for adolescent disengagement and implicitly informs and supports plausible solutions. In considering at-risk adolescent behavior it is necessary to understand childhood development theories and adolescent behavior models. The theories and models should also explain why students disengage and drop out of school (Finn, 1989; Hampton, Linton, Smink & Drew, 2007), students' attitudes toward school (Hangauer, 2007; Kelstrom; 1998; Ponter, 1999; Stephens & Schaben, 2003), their academic motivations, (Burrus & Roberts, 2012; Eccles & et. al, 1993), their academic perceptions (Combs & Cooley, 1968; Voelkl, 1997), their levels of school-related satisfactions (Baker, 1999; Bloom, 1976), and their overall satisfactions with life (Hinck & Brandell, 1999;

Shin & Kendall, 2013). In this study, a combination of two childhood developmental theories and two children behavior models were utilized to encompass its conceptual framework.

First, the stage-environment fit theory is included to explain the impact that one's personal environment may have on one's childhood developmental stages (Eccles & et. al, 1993). Second, the ecological systems theory supports the associations of extracurricular activities and their correlation with student's attitudes toward school (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Third, the frustration-self-esteem model explains dropout rates, academic failure, and negative attitudes toward school through emotional instabilities (Finn, 1989). Fourth, the participation identification model emphasizes how if a student engages in school participation and school identification, then the likelihood of that student dropping out of school decreases while their positive impression of that school increases (Voelkl, 1997).

The stage-environment fit theory, (Eccles et. al, 1993), proposes that in the developmental stages of adolescents, motivational constructs such as interests in school, intrinsic motivations, self-concepts, self-perceptions and self-confidences regarding their intellectual abilities, are influenced by their environment. By describing the relationship between adolescents and their environments, Eccles et. al (1993) claimed there is a positive association between personal connections to one's own environment and their senses of belonging to that environment. In other words, this theory stated, as one's personal attachments to their environments increase, motivational constructs such as intrinsic motivations, self-concepts, self-perceptions, and self-confidences will also increase. Also, within this theory, personal environments may include family, school, extracurricular activities, and social settings. By understanding this theoretical structure the researcher stresses the importance that adolescents

should fit their stage environment in order to increase their sense of belonging and motivational constructs.

Also pertinent to this study is Bronfenbrenner's thinking, which poses a slightly different perspective in addressing childhood development as it relates to environmental factors. Bronfenbrenner's (1994) ecological systems theory suggested, people's actions and decisions are strongly impacted by specific changes to environmental factors. This theorist stated, in order for these specific changes to become lasting, the environmental change must be routine and consistent. In his theory, the routine and consistent environmental change is defined as the "proximal process" and shows how this process can exist between parents and children, and also between children and child activities such as extracurricular activities. Nonetheless, this extracurricular proximal process is essential and necessary when at-risk students need to change disadvantageous actions or decisions affecting their attitudes toward school. In conclusion, Bronfenbrenner (1994) theory purports, in order for at-risk students to change behavioral actions like not attending classes, completing homework, and engaging in coursework, extracurricular activities should be incorporated to spark this adjustment and stimulate their interest.

From the school personnel's perspective the frustration-self-esteem model, which describes how school facilitators have the ability to reduce disruptive behaviors and positively influence student's perceptions of school, is relevant to this study. Bloom (1976) argues that mental health (positive self-regard and ego strength) matures and advances as children establish self-confidence through successful school-related experiences. Furthermore, when a student displays poor academic achievement, this is because their educational institution has failed at providing an emotionally safe environment for them to successfully operate (Dike, 2012).

According to the frustration-self-esteem model, low self-perception is the primary emotional attitude that leads to less academic achievement and frustrated feelings; low self-perception is operationalized generally as low self-esteem, self-concept, or academic self-concept; and low self-perception can be perceived as embarrassment (Finn, 1989). Nonetheless, as a student's low self-perception or embarrassment increases, disruptive behaviors also begin to increase thus creating a detrimental impact on the student's academic achievement and ability to participate in school-related activities (Bloom, 1976; Finn, 1989; Voelkl, 1997).

Lastly, Voelkl (1997) claimed school participation and school identification factors are imperative measures for student engagement. Voelkl's (1997) participation identification model stated, the possibility of a student successfully completing twelve years of school is maximized if that student participates and identifies with school-related activities. From this model researchers understand school participation relates to physical commitment while school identification involves an emotional attachment. Also, as a student begins to identify with their school and participate in school activities, a sense of belongingness is created and research has proved this characteristic is imperative for establishing positive attitudes towards school (Eccles, 2004). As a student generates positive attitudes toward their school, eagerness to go to school and personal desires to perform well in school are increased (Eccles and Roeser, 2009). Finn (1989) went on to say school identification and participation is directly related to extracurricular activities, but if no school identity is created and no ambition to participate in school is established, low levels of academic achievement surface and dropout rates increase.

These four paradigms contribute to the conceptual framework of this study and provide different but important viewpoints on addressing the attitudes at-risk students have toward school

and their satisfaction with life. These theories and models were the foundation of this research and could help explain the results of the study on how at-risk adolescent students' involvement in extracurricular activities relate to their academic perceptions, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, motivations and satisfactions with family, friends, school, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction (Bloom, 1976; Bronfenbrenner, 1994; Eccles & et. al, 1993; Finn, 1989; Voelkl, 1997).

Research Questions

1. What are the *overall* similarities between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life?
2. What *overall* differences exist among at-risk adolescent students who participate in formal extracurricular activities with respect to gender, age, duration in formal extracurricular activities, participation in other sports, and participation in sports in general, in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life?
3. What are the differences between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life?
4. What are the differences in attendance rates (motivation) for school between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities?

Null Hypotheses

1. There will be no *overall* differences among at-risk adolescent students who participate in

formal extracurricular activities with respect to gender, age, duration in formal extracurricular activities, participation in other sports, and participation in sports in general, in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life.

2. There will be no differences between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life.
3. There will be no differences in attendance rate (motivation) for school between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities.

Definition of Terms

At-Risk Adolescent: An individual between the ages of 10 and 17 who have been deemed by school officials as “at-risk” of graduating from school (Bulger & Watson, 2006).

Dropout Students: Individuals between the ages of 16 and 24 who are not enrolled in school and do not have a high school diploma or equivalency credential, such as a General Educational Development certificate (Tackie, 2014).

Formal Extracurricular Activities: These are usually school related structured activities, such as sports, completed after school hours that involve teamwork, routine practices, and active participation (Fujita, 2006). In this study, formal extracurricular activities sport explored was soccer. Soccer is an international sport played in both Hispanic/Latino countries and the United States.

Overall Participants: This refers to all the participants in the study from both locations combined.

Chapter II

Literature Review

Overview

The following literature review covers concepts related to at-risk, low socio economic adolescent students and formal extracurricular activities. First, the meaning of adolescence is explained to understand its connection with the school setting and atmosphere. Then the term “at-risk” is elaborated on to explain the characteristics associated with this distinction. The end of the first section will establish a combination of concepts pertaining to adolescence and at-risk students.

Additionally, literature on why at-risk adolescent students struggle to advance academically in traditional school settings will be provided throughout the second section of this literature review. The literature includes psychological, emotional, and behavioral factors, which contribute to low levels of academic achievement, low levels of academic motivation, and a low sense of belonging to the school environment, often resulting in , school disengagement. As school disengagement increases, so does the likelihood of at-risk adolescent students dropping out of school. This section will also show the prevalence of national dropout rates for African American and Hispanic/Latino at-risk adolescent students.

Further, this review of literature mentions pivotal constructs for engaging at-risk adolescent students in school, curbing negative school-related effects, and improving positive factors that are imperative for school engagement. This third section highlights student’s attitudes toward school and teachers, academic achievement, sense of social inclusion, parental involvement, and involvement in school-related (formal) extracurricular activities as the main

construct to engage disengaged students. This section emphasizes involvement in school-related formal extracurricular activities as the most influential construct and will be further evaluated.

In addition, this review explains the intricacies of extracurricular activities including the sphere of extracurricular activities discussions, different types of extracurricular activities and the impacts that extracurricular activities have on at-risk adolescent students. Studies that used extracurricular activities as a variable for measuring school engagement among at-risk adolescent students and also how they used extracurricular activities in this regard are included in the fourth section of the literature review. Also, studies that display the influential impact extracurricular activities have on African American and Latino at-risk adolescent students are discussed. This chapter ends by mentioning previous sections of the literature review, stating the focus of this study, and transitions into a detailed conceptual framework of the study.

The literature review explains the conceptual framework of the research study. Included are two adolescent developmental stage theories and two adolescent behavioral models that explain the theoretical paradigm of this research study. All four theoretical concepts are well known and have been utilized in the many recent studies regarding at-risk adolescent students and their interactions within the school environment. These theories and supporting research of the theories bring awareness to the significance of this study, support the idea that dropping out of high school is a deeply rooted problem that deserves specific attention, and establishes a framework on how to reduce the problems of low academic achievement, low academic motivation and low sense of belonging.

Lastly, chapter two ends by expressing the overall relevance of this study with supporting previous studies and literature. These benefits shed light on the reasons why this study was conducted and highlights what its content has to offer to the world of scholarship.

Adolescence and At-Risk Adolescent Students

The word adolescent is of Latin origin and is a derivative of the verb adolescence, which means, “to grow into adulthood” (Benner & Hill, 1999, p. 11). Holmbeck (1994) claimed adolescence and its developmental stages are the transitional periods between childhood and adulthood. Steinberg (1996) further stated this period of transition is characterized by biological, psychological, and social role changes. The adolescence transitional stages are roughly between ages 10 and 20 (Benner & Hill, 1999; Holmbeck, 1994; Steinberg, 1996). As adolescent students graduate from primary school and enter secondary education, they begin to establish autonomous emotions and create individual identities apart from their parents (Dike, 2012). In the educational context, the foundation of their personal identity establishes the type of person they want to be around their peers, the type of individual they want to be in their social environment, and, more importantly, the type student they desire to be in their school environment (Benner & Hill, 1999; Dike, 2012; Holmbeck, 1994; Steinberg, 1996).

The school environment affects adolescent students’ developmental stages (Eccles & et. al, 1993). Many school-related factors such as physical setting, limitation of resources, teacher expectations, curriculum characteristics, and interaction between teacher and student have significant influences on the developmental stages of adolescents (Dike, 2012). According to Bloom (1976), if school-related experiences like academic achievement, comfortable relationships with teachers, and comfortable relationship with friends are positive, the

developmental process and perceptions of school appreciation for these adolescents are also positive. But if these experiences are negative, the student has a negative experience. In addition, students may view these experiences as negative when they are “at-risk adolescents” (Bulger & Watson, 2006).

In the United States, adolescent students, especially those of color and lower socioeconomic status that have little chance of graduating from school are considered “at-risk” (Bulger & Watson, 2006). However, the distinction “at-risk adolescent student” should not only imply that a student has a lower chance of graduating from school, it should also imply that additional information be rendered to school counselors and school officials to fully understand why these student are considered at-risk (Bulger & Watson, 2006). Academic failure, dissatisfaction with school, low levels of motivation, and school disengagement are all issues that cause a student to become at-risk of graduating from school. These factors are not choices, ideas, or behaviors that happen overnight, they are the results of deeply rooted concerns that may be related to the school environment (Rumberger, 2004). Many studies have shown there is a direct connection between at-risk adolescent students and students living with low socioeconomic statuses (Lan & Lanthier, 2003). As financial resources are not readily available to low income students, especially African American and Hispanic/Latino students, the chances of these students becoming at-risk increases and the importance of completing school may not be priority (Smith, 2003).

At-Risk Adolescent Students and School Disengagement

Consistent findings in previous literature confirm the idea that dropping out of school is correlated with low socioeconomic class, ethnic minority status, low levels of academic

achievement, and dissatisfaction with school (Rumberger, 2001). Students living in families with low socio-economic status and low financial resources face challenges that attack their academic desires and ambitions daily (Hangauer, 2007). According to Tobin and Sprague (2000), studies have shown most at-risk adolescent students experience academic failure, drop out of school at higher rates than other students, and comprehend coursework materials at lower levels than other students. They further indicated these factors are due to low levels of academic motivation and academic achievement. Moreover, at-risk adolescent students are not motivated to improve academic and behavioral performances because of environmental, emotional, and psychological factors that hinder ones' ambition to succeed in school (Wehlage & Rutter, 1986). Hence, this is why the term "at-risk" should not only include surface level criteria but also should include background characteristics, internal characteristics, and environmental factors that holistically represent its intricacies (Boss, 1998; Bulger & Watson, 2006; Dike, 2012).

Certain background characteristics like ethnicity and socio-economic status have played influential roles in the lives of many at-risk adolescent students (Boss, 1998). Students who are considered at-risk with racial minority backgrounds, low socio-economic statuses, and English as a second language have higher dropout rates and greater chances of not graduating from school than students of other ethnic origins (Lan & Lanthier, 2003). Dating back to the 1980's, African American and Hispanic/Latino students have always rated lower on percentages of graduation rates in comparison to Anglo and Asian students (Dora A De La, 1998; Wehlage & Rutter, 1986; Lan & Lanthier, 2003). In 2002, the national graduation rate for African American students was 56%, and 55% for Hispanic and Latino students, so this showed that, in 2002, at least 45% of African American and Latino students did not graduate from school (Ellis, 2007). Unfortunately,

a recent study confirmed this academic disparity remains present in current educational institutions (Lund, 2014; Tackie, 2014). Though percentages have improved, a decade later the National Council on Education Statistics (NCES) estimated for low-income African American and Hispanic/Latino students the dropout rates were 8 and 13 percent, and 5 percent for White American students (Tackie, 2014).

These numbers illustrate low income Hispanic/Latino students struggle the most with graduating from school and staying engaged in school when compared to African American and other ethnic minority students. Caruba (2001) alleged Hispanic/Latino students, especially low income Hispanic/Latino immigrants, struggle the most with graduating from school and staying engaged in school because of illiteracy issues. Ellis (2007) further supported this notion by adding, the literacy rates for low income Hispanic/Latino students are worse than the rates of African American and other ethnic minority students. Due to their inability to effectively read, write, and understand the English language, these two authors believe it is harder for low income Hispanic/Latino students to progress academically, and this struggle increases their chances of becoming at-risk students. Other authors like Dike (2012), Smith (2003), and Dora A De La (1998) stated, because of low socio-economic statuses, Hispanic/Latino students have a higher probability of engaging criminal activity, becoming homeless, and dropping out of school to help support the family. These are all characteristics that increases their chances of becoming at-risk. Nevertheless, socio-economic status is not the only factor that contributes to the reasons why students become at-risk adolescents (Rumberger, 2001; Rumberger, 2004).

Psychological (Grady, 2006), emotional (Dike, 2012), and behavioral (Finn, 1989) factors also cause students to become at-risk adolescents and these variables lead to school

disengagement and potentially increase dropout rates (Dora A De La, 1998; Lund, 2014; Rumberger, 2001; Wehlage & Rutter, 1986). Because students rely on psychological factors such as relationships with parents and teachers, perceived impressions of parents and teachers, and their sense of belonging in school environments to gauge their academic abilities, once they have uncomfortable interactions with any of those psychological factors, it can cause them to become at-risk and result in outcomes like school disengagement (Bloom, 1976, Voelkl, 1997).

Lund (2014) completed a study that concluded, adolescents who identified their classroom as a non-supportive environment stated this was a reason for students to drop out of school. Additionally, according to the adolescents that participated in this study, a lack of familial (parent) and instructional (teacher) support was another important reason for students to disengage and drop out of school. Furthermore, other factors such as family dysfunction and teen parenting can have psychological impacts on the mental health of students and, although nothing at school is going wrong, instability in one's home environments can cause students to become at-risk (Grady, 2006).

Influences like family dysfunction and teen parenting create highly stressful and intense environments for students outside the school setting (Henry, Cavanagh, & Oetting, 2011). Dysfunctional families make it difficult for students to focus on coursework at home while providing for a child as a teen parent takes away time required to be academically successful (Helge, 1990). The hectic lifestyle of dysfunctional families and teen parenting increases students' chances of becoming at-risk because the struggles associated with these realities are academically disadvantageous (Dike, 2012). Some studies blended the impacts of how

psychological and emotional factors cause students to become at-risk (Dora A De La, 1998), but Shin and Kendall (2013) separated their significance.

According to Shin and Kendall (2013), previous research proved students who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) have problems with making friends and fitting social norms, so, in addition to psychological factors, emotional factors such as sexual orientation cause students from, but not limited to, the LGBTQ community to become at-risk adolescent students (Shin & Kendall, 2013). Based on this emotional challenge, students of the LGBTQ community believe since they do not belong to their school environment, they would rather disengage from school participation and school-related activities (Bloom; 1997; Huebner, 1994; Lund, 2014; Voelkl, 1997). Furthermore, as a result of their emotional circumstances, delinquent behaviors are possible to arise and this act of disengagement further causes them to become at-risk of graduating and increases their chances of dropping out of school (Lund, 2014).

Tobin and Sprague (2000) indicated behavioral issues cause students to become at-risk increasing their likelihood of not completing school or dropping out of school. Finn (1989) stated, inappropriate behaviors in the school setting usually derive from a place of frustration and agitation. When a student is frustrated with academic failure and witnesses low levels of academic achievement, a natural response is to express this frustration through delinquent behaviors (Dora A De La, 1998; Finn, 1989, Grady, 2006). Finn (1989) further attested, as a student becomes less stressed with academic achievement and behavioral performances improve, their likelihood of remaining in school increases and their chances of dropping out of school decreases. Likewise, studies have shown that behavioral issues are interconnected with learning disabilities and mental issues like attention deficit disorders (ADD) and attention deficit

hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) (Dike, 2012). Symptoms from these diagnoses hinder many students' ability to focus on course materials for long periods of time and make it difficult for them to progress in traditional academic environments (Brooks, 1994; Dike, 2012). According to Brooks (1994), ADD and ADHD affects student's self-esteem, personal relationships, and tolerance levels related to frustration. Consequently, since there are so many reasons why students can be considered at-risk and these characteristics shed light on why they disengage from school, more information on reasons why student engaged in school should be articulated (Rumberger, 2001; Rumberger, 2004; Rumberger & Larson, 1998).

In order to address various reasons why adolescents are considered at-risk students and explain approaches that can better the learning environment of at-risk adolescent students, reasons expressing variables to keep at-risk adolescent students in school should be evaluated (Lan & Lanthier, 2003). In this regard, literature has proven that increased graduation rates and decreased chances of at-risk adolescent students dropping out of school are associated with the following constructs: positive attitudes toward school and teachers; positive academic perceptions; increased levels of parental involvement, motivation, school participation, and school activities; and enhanced degrees of belonging to one's environment and satisfaction with families, friends, self, living environments, and life have (Broh, 2002; DiClemente, Salazar, & Crosby, 2011; Fujita, 2006; Hangauer, 2007; Hinck & Brandell, 1999; Huebner, 1994; Kelstrom, 1998; Mahoney, Lord, & Carryl, 2005).

At-Risk Adolescent Students and School Engagement

According to Morse, Anderson, Christenson, and Lehr (2004), student engagement is defined as the participation in school activities and the student's identification with school while

accepting school values. They further define student's identification as obtaining a sense of belonging and safety security at school, maintaining social commitments, and creating comfortable relationships with teachers to the extent which the student values school success. Overall, previous research claimed school success and academic success are a very important factors and key indicators of assuming if an at-risk adolescent students will stay enrolled in school (Holt, 2007; Rumberger, 2001; Rumberger, 2004; Rumberger & Larson, 1998; Smith, 2003). In many cases, for at-risk adolescent students, school success is equated by the student's attitudes toward school and teachers (Huebner, 1994), academic achievement (Dora A De La, 1998; Hangauer, 2007), sense of social inclusion (Eccles & et. al, 1993; Hinck & Brandell, 1999; Shin & Kendall, 2013), parental involvement (Fujita, 2006; Henry, Cavanagh, & Oetting, 2011), and involvement in school-related extracurricular activities (Marshall, 2015; Merkel, 2013).

Boss (1998), Lan and Lanthier (2003), and Lund (2014) suggested by creating a supportive school and classroom atmosphere, teachers can help at-risk students with low academic achievement. Teachers are able to create this supportive environment by adapting to the students' skill and knowledge level, increasing one-on-one interactions with the students, using simple instructed tasks and assignments, and establishing a system that allows student to comprehend segments one at a time. They further attested, executive school officials can also play a role in this regard by ensuring at-risk students have necessary resources such as study periods and tutoring programs to progress academically (Dike, 2012). Once the student is able to see academic progress, their attitudes toward school and teachers begin to improve (Hueber, 1994, Hangauer, 2007). Also, as this psychological factor improves, the at-risk adolescent

student becomes more committed to increasing academic performance and enhancing academic achievement (Grady, 2006).

A study by Holt (2007) claimed, low academic achievement levels are the main reasons why at-risk adolescent students disengage from school. For most students, academic achievement is the sole indicator of intellectual capabilities (Bloom, 1976). Simply, if an at-risk adolescent student struggles with low levels of academic achievement, it is harder for them to engage in course work and also harder for them to participate in school-related activities (Voelkl, 1997). Holt (2007) finally concluded that school engagement, along with other variables such as emotional, behavioral, and motivational constructs, have a direct connection to academic achievement and can be evaluated to determine the likelihood of whether a student will remain in school or not.

Motivational constructs such as interests in school, intrinsic motivations, self-concepts, self-perceptions and self-confidences regarding one's intellectual abilities, are influenced by their environment (Eccles & et. al, 1993). For at-risk adolescent student, their impressions of how they fit their social environment has a major impact on their willingness to remain in school (Shin & Kendall, 2013). As at-risk adolescent students evaluate social spaces and their sense of belonging within these spaces, when their interactions are unsettling, they tend to withdraw and are forced to operate in a socially awkward school environment (Finn, 1989). On the other hand, if their interactions are comfortable and positive, a sense of belonging is created which encourages the at-risk adolescent student to remain in that environment, which causes them to remain in school (Macaluso, 2013).

Additionally, parents and family members have major influences on the academic achievement of their students (Fujita, 2006). Studies that involved students completing surveys, claimed the lack of parental support is a reason why at-risk adolescent students should drop out of school (Lund, 2014). Measurements of school engagement such as absenteeism, misbehavior, and academic expectations can be linked to how students view the impressions of their parents (Rumberger and Larson, 1998). For at-risk adolescent students, if they obtain positive support from their parents and families, they are more likely to engage and remain stay in school (Hinck & Brandell, 1999). Also if the parents of at-risk adolescent students are actively involved in their student's academic progression, the student is more likely to engage and remain in school (Henry, Cavanagh, & Oetting, 2011).

Lastly, school-related extracurricular activities such as sports (Darling, Caldwell, & Smith, 2005), music programs (Ponter, 1999), and community service projects (Hinck & Brandell, 1999) foster environments where students are able to formulate strong identifications with school (Finn, 1989; Marshall, 2015; Merkel, 2013). As stated before, a strong identification with school reduces school dropout rates and increases school engagement characteristics for at-risk adolescent students (Morse & et al, 2004). Specifically, among the school-related extracurricular activities listed above, sports have proven to be the most effective approach in producing positive attitudes toward school and keeping at-risk adolescent student engaged in school (Fujita, 2006; Macaluso, 2013; Marsh & Kleitman, 2002; Smith, 2003; Stephens & Schaben, 2002). Sports are an effective approach because they establish a sense of belonging; generate self-motivation and responsibility; and institute self-discipline through participation and hard work ethics (Macaluso, 2013). In fact, according to Smith (2003), both students and

teachers agree that involvement in intramural programs (sports) have a positive impact on relationships between students and teachers, peer relationships, and student self-esteem. This study continued to infer that students' involvement in extracurricular sports programs may result in outcomes that facilitate student academic achievement and school engagement.

Extracurricular Activities

Since the implementation of extracurricular activities, in the early twentieth century, various debates have tried to explain the associations between extracurricular activities and at-risk adolescent academics (Broh, 2002). Some researchers suggested the impacts that extracurricular activities have on at-risk adolescent students are positive (Eady & Wilson, 2004; Hangauer, 2007; Marsh & Kleitman, 2002; Ponter, 1999; Stephens & Schaben, 2002), and others researchers implied they were negative (Broh, 2002; Kirschner & Karpinski, 2010; Thompson, & Austin, 2003), but although parental involvements, socio-economic statuses, and motivations are crucial factors regarding the success of children academia, many findings concluded extracurricular activities have the most influential impact on attitudes towards school and academic achievement amongst at-risk adolescent students (Eady & Wilson, 2004; Fujita, 2006; Marshall, 2015; Merkel, 2013; Ponter, 1999; Stephens & Schaben, 2002).

For at-risk adolescent academic achievement to be attained, educational institutions must stress the incorporation of extracurricular activities into the daily routine of at-risk adolescent students because those who regularly participated in extracurricular activities report higher grades, increased positive attitudes toward school, and generated higher academic aspirations (Darling, Caldwell, & Smith, 2005), and, unfortunately, students who do not participate in extracurricular activities are not as likely to succeed academically (Thompson & Austin, 2003).

Even though extracurricular activities are credited for increased academic performances, it is important to specify what types of extracurricular activities have the greatest impact (Fujita, 2006).

Types of Extracurricular Activities

Most literature described two types of extracurricular activities, formal and informal (Broh, 2002; Eady & Wilson, 2004; Hangauer, 2007; Kirschner & Karpinski, 2010; Marsh & Kleitman, 2002; Ponter, 1999; Stephens & Schaben, 2002; Thompson, & Austin, 2003). Formal extracurricular activities are usually structured or school-related activities like sports, intramurals, performing arts, and after school programs (Fujita, 2006). Informal extracurricular activities, also known as leisure activities, include less structured activities like watching television and browsing social media (Kirschner & Karpinski, 2010; Shin, 2004). Constructs such as motivation and personal satisfaction are influenced by formal and informal extracurricular activities, and these constructs measure subjective influences that are placed on at-risk adolescent student's academic achievement and attitudes toward school (Guest & Schneider, 2003).

Impacts of Extracurricular Activities

Though informal and formal extracurricular activities have been proven to influence academic achievement, motivation, and personal satisfaction, studies have also confirmed that they impact school-related experiences such as student's attitudes toward school, attitudes towards teachers, and academic perceptions because both types of activities require time spent after school and can shift the student's motivations or impressions of school (Marsh & Kleitman, 2002; Ponter, 1999; Shin, 2004). Because many research articles confirmed formal

extracurricular activities are associated with increased academic achievement and positive attitudes toward school (Eady & Wilson, 2004; Ponter, 1999; Stephens & Schaben, 2002), informal activities are evaluated first express its significance and lack thereof.

Informal extracurricular activities are considered leisure or personal activities (Kirschner & Karpinski, 2010). Fujita (2006) conducted a study that concluded informal activities increase academic achievements while other studies indicated informal extracurricular activities have negative effects on attitudes toward school and academic achievements (Kirschner & Karpinski, 2010; Shin, 2004). In light of using informal activities to validate negative connections between informal extracurricular activities and at-risk adolescent academics, Shin (2004) and Fujita (2006) conducted a study that expressed contradicting findings.

The time spent on informal activities is an important factor pertaining to student's academic success. Shin (2004) determined watching television can have a positive effect on academic performance. However, it was further noted that the determining factor was based on how much television the at-risk adolescent student watched. Shin (2004) concluded if students watch more than 30 hours of television in the span of a week, the effects on attitudes toward school, academic perceptions and academic achievement were detrimental. On the contrary, Fujita (2006) did not evaluate this criterion, instead, this study simply surveyed students that watched television and evaluated their academic achievement without calculating how much television they watched. Fujita (2006) concluded watching television did not reduce academic achievement and no correlation was interconnected.

Informal extracurricular activities impact academic achievement. Kirschner and Karpinski (2010) further investigated informal extracurricular activities and the usage of social

media website regarding the effects on academic achievement. Their study showed, adolescent students who used Facebook had lower grade point averages and spent less time studying than non-users. This study also claimed, increased time spent on Facebook caused students to deem academic priorities (such as completing homework, assignments, and projects) as unimportant while decreasing their desire to engage in school-related tasks after school. In that respect, most literature affirmed the overall conclusion of Kirschner and Karpinski's (2010) study that stated informal extracurricular activities have negative influences on positive attitudes toward school and academic achievement amongst at-risk adolescent students (Eady & Wilson, 2004; Hangauer, 2007; Marsh & Kleitman, 2002; Ponter, 1999; Stephens & Schaben, 2002).

On the other hand, formal extracurricular activities have proven to produce positive correlations between academic achievement and positive attitudes toward school-related experiences among at-risk adolescent students (Darling, Caldwell, & Smith, 2005; Eady & Wilson, 2004; Eccles et. al, 1993; Fujita, 2006; Kelstrom; 1998; Ponter, 1999; Stephens & Schaben, 2002). Furthermore, the impacts that formal extracurricular activities have on African American and Latino at-risk adolescent students are more influential than their impacts on White American students (Camacho & Fuligni, 2015; Dawes, Modecki, Gonzales, Dumka, & Millsap, 2015; Faircloth & Hamm, 2005).

Researchers suggest at-risk adolescent students' participation in formal extracurricular activities is positively correlated with higher educational aspirations, increased school attendance, and reduced absenteeism among at-risk adolescent students (Macaluso, 2013; Smith, 2003). Literature also stated students who do not participate in formal extracurricular activities show lower degrees of academic achievement, lower levels of satisfaction with life, negative

attitudes toward school, and insufficient ways of adjusting to attain better grades (Darling, Caldwell, & Smith, 2005). In addition, previous research specified extracurricular activities should be routine and practiced over a number of years because at-risk adolescent students who participated in formal extracurricular activities, such as sports, for more than one season had higher levels of scholarships when compared to students who only did not (Stephens & Schaben, 2002).

Students are encouraged to remain in environments that produce higher levels of scholarship and academic achievement because these social structures increase community belonging, motivation, and positive attitudes toward school (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). With that in mind, Kelstrom (1998) explained how the comradery generated through musical performances cause students to acquire higher academic achievement, and Ponter (1999) indicated that music training (formal extracurricular activity) should be considered a fundamental part of academic curriculum because music training enhances brain functions required for math, reading, science, and these brain functions are necessary for completing school. Since it is assumed at-risk adolescent students perform better in school when they are more likely to remain in school (Bloom, 1976), these studies stressed the idea that formal extracurricular activities and their association with increased academic achievement, academic perceptions, and attitudes toward school encourage students to remain in school (Eccles et. al, 1993; Kelstrom, 1998; Ponter, 1999).

In contrast to previous research supporting formal extracurricular activities and how they increase positive school-related experiences, a study by Fujita (2006) stated music participation does not improve academic achievement. As a result of this study, Fujita (2006) concluded

music participation was not correlated with academic achievement. Instead, the results analysis of this study supported the notion that formal extracurricular activities like sports are most associated with increased academic achievement and positive school-related experiences.

Throughout the composition regarding this literature review, Fujita (2006) study supported some aspects of previous literature and disproved others. Because of this, the decision was made to further evaluate sports as the specific formal extracurricular activity and its impact on at-risk adolescent students' attitudes towards school, attitudes toward teachers, motivations, and satisfactions with family, friends, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction.

With respect to African American and Latino students, who are the most marginalized group of at-risk adolescents, extracurricular activities have been influential at improving academic achievement, sense of belonging, attitudes toward school, and peer relationships (Camacho & Fuligni, 2015). Researchers believe this is so because formal extracurricular activities accommodate many cultural values for African American and Latino at-risk adolescent students and offer additional school-related experiences that increase school participation and school identification (Dawes, Modecki, Gonzales, Dumka, & Millsap, 2015; Finn, 1989). Specifically for the Hispanic/Latino community, two cultural values highlighted by extracurricular activities are community immersion and family obligation (Fuligni, Tseng, & Lam, 1999).

Community immersion and family obligation are central characteristics of collectivistic ideologies (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 1991). In addition, collectivistic theories encompass values, beliefs, and ideas that provide an explanation as to why formal extracurricular activities work better in Hispanic/Latino communities when compared to other ethnic minority

communities (Mallol, Holtom, & Lee, 2007). According to Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (1991), the collectivistic ideology involves placing community and family interests before one's own. Furthermore, collectivistic views strongly emphasize the advancements of one's family or community rather than individual desires. In other words, members of collectivistic societies would rather progress the needs of the community than personal needs.

On that note, because collectivistic philosophies are usually found in Hispanic/Latino communities (Mallol, Holtom, & Lee, 2007) and Hispanic/Latino adolescents who participate in formal extracurricular activities possess a greater connection to their collectivistic values such as respecting and supporting family obligations (Fuligni, Tseng, & Lam, 1999), one is led to believe that formal extracurricular activities have a more significant impact on Hispanic/Latino at-risk adolescent students than other ethnic minority students.

In a nutshell, studies have claimed that formal extracurricular activities are one simple way to improve the perceptions of school, attitudes toward school, peer relationships and academic achievements of at-risk adolescent students, especially those who are ethnic minority and have low socio-economic status (Faircloth & Hamm, 2005).

Theoretical Bases

As researchers try to understand theoretical philosophies behind adolescent behaviors and the transition period from the stages of adolescence to adulthood, it may be beneficial to look at developmental progressions that describe why at-risk adolescent students disengage from and drop out of school (Finn, 1989; Hampton, Linton, Smink & Drew, 2007). Scholastic authors found that school disengagement and disengaging behaviors can be caused by negative attitudes toward school (Hangauer, 2007; Kelstrom; 1998; Ponter, 1999; Stephens & Schaben, 2002), low

levels of motivation, (Burrus & Roberts, 2012; Eccles & et. al, 1993), low levels of academic perceptions (Combs & Cooley, 1968; Voelkl, 1997), low levels of school satisfaction (Baker, 1999; Bloom, 1976), and generally low overall life satisfactions (Hinck & Brandell, 1999; Shin & Kendall, 2013).

In this research study, a combination of two childhood developmental theories and two children behavior models were utilized to encompass its conceptual framework. First, the stage-environment fit theory is included to explain certain impacts that one's personal environment has on adolescent developmental stages (Akos & Kurz, 2016; Dike, 2012; Eccles, 2004; Eccles & et. al, 1993; Eccles, & Roeser, 2009; Gutman & Eccles, 2007; Zimmer-Gembeck & et. al, 2006). Second, the ecological systems theory supports positive associations between extracurricular activities and adolescent attitudes toward school-related experiences (Bronfenbrenner, 1994; Darling, Caldwell, & Smith, 2005; Eisman & et. al, 2016; Feldman & Matjasko, 2005; Gilman, Meyers, & Perez, 2004; Posner, & Vandell, 1999). Third, the frustration-self-esteem model explains dropout rates, academic failure, and negative attitudes toward school through emotional instabilities (Finn, 1989; Griffin, 2002; Hung, Chung, Su, & Lin, 2016; Kaplan, Peck, & Kaplan, 1997; Nielsen, 2016; Stearns, Moller, Blau, & Potochnick, 2007). Fourth, the participation identification model emphasizes a student's involvement with school participation and school identification and the likelihood of that student dropping out of school (Cavendish, 2016; Finn, & Cox, 1992; Jennings, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Van Houtte & Demanet, 2016; Voelkl, 1997).

To begin with, the stage-environment fit theory states, in the developmental stages of adolescents, motivational constructs such as interests in school, intrinsic motivations, self-

concepts, self-perceptions and self-confidences are influenced by one's environment (Eccles, 2004; Eccles & et. al, 1993; Eccles, & Roeser, 2009; Gutman & Eccles, 2007). This theory also describes the relationship between at-risk adolescent students and their school environment by claiming if adolescents create personal connections and a sense of belonging within their personal environment, positive feelings between that adolescent and their environment increase (Eccles, & Roeser, 2009). Additionally, as personal attachments to their environment increases, motivational constructs such as intrinsic motivations, self-concepts, self-perceptions, and self-confidences also increase (Dike, 2012; Eccles & et al, 1993; Gutman & Eccles, 2007). As part of this theory, personal environments may include family, school, extracurricular activities, and social settings (Zimmer-Gemback & et. al, 2006). Becker and Luthar (2002) and Shonk and Cicchetti (2001) have used the stage-environment fit theory to study at-risk adolescent students and their behaviors at school.

Becker and Luthar (2002) used the stage-environment fit theory in a manner similar to this research. They evaluated four critical social-emotional components that influence achievement performance among disadvantaged students, also known as at-risk students (Bulger & Watson, 2006). Their purpose for this study was to inform policy makers, administrators, and schools about the social-emotional factors that influence disadvantaged students' learning. The four social-emotional components were: academic and school attachment, teacher support, peer values, and mental health. In conclusion they found that these social-emotional factors heavily influenced academic achievement among disadvantaged students, but in terms of their theoretical framework it was important to establish how the stage-environment fit theory played a major role in the student's academic success.

Other researchers used the stage-environment fit theory to make certain connections between the students and their school environment (Shonk & Cicchetti, 2001). Shonk and Cicchetti's (2001) study explained how the presence of maltreatment in one's personal environment could affect academic engagement. Their data collected contained a combination of teachers' comprehensive evaluations, school records, and camp counselors' ratings to test the effects maltreatment had on disadvantaged adolescents. Their findings concluded maltreated children showed less academic engagement, more social skills deficits, and lower ego resiliency than nonmaltreated children. Although the academic risk of maltreated children was mediated by academic engagement, these authors used the stage-environment fit theory to express the importance it has on academic motivation. These two studies support why this theoretical structure is paramount for this research because they show how it continues to stress the idea that students, especially at-risk adolescent students, should fit their stage environment in order to feel a sense of belonging and perform well academically (Akos & Kurz, 2016; Dike, 2012; Eccles, 2004; Eccles & et. al, 1993; Eccles, & Roeser, 2009). Nevertheless, Bronfenbrenner (1994) adds a slightly different perspective in addressing at-risk adolescence developmental stages, academic achievement, and attitudes toward school.

Bronfenbrenner's (1994) ecological systems theory suggested adolescents' actions and decisions are strongly impacted by specific changes to environmental factors (Darling, Caldwell, & Smith, 2005; Eisman & et. al, 2016; Feldman & Matjasko, 2005; Gilman, Meyers, & Perez, 2004; Posner & Vandell, 1999). In order for these specific changes to become lasting, the environmental change must become routine and consistent (Darling, Caldwell, & Smith, 2005). This theory suggests the routine and consistent environmental change is defined as the "proximal

process,” and shows how this process can exist between parents and children, and also between children and extracurricular activities (Eisman & et. al, 2016; Feldman & Matjasko, 2005). This extracurricular proximal process is essential and required if there is a need for at-risk adolescent students to change disadvantageous actions or decisions affecting their attitudes toward school and academic achievement (Posner & Vandell, 1999). Based on this theory, in order for at-risk adolescent students to improve behavioral actions like attending classes, completing homework, and engaging in school, extracurricular activities should be incorporated to spark this adjustment and stimulate their interests (Bronfenbrenner, 1994; Feldman & Matjasko, 2005; Gilman, Meyers, & Perez, 2004; Macaluso, 2013).

In their study, Gilman, Meyers and Perez (2004) used the ecological systems theory to explain a few concepts. First, they described how student’s participation in structured extracurricular activities (SEAs) affect academic and “personal-social” variables such as self-concept and life satisfaction. Then, they investigated potential preventive effects SEAs have on at-risk adolescents regarding negative developmental outcomes. Lastly, they researched potential benefits and shortcomings of many SEAs. The conclusion of their study stated students’ academic and personal-social variables increase as they are engaged in SEAs while negative developmental outcomes reduce as at-risk adolescent students engage in SEAs. These findings were based on the ecological systems theory claiming academic improvements were caused by routine changes to environmental factors.

In addition to the ecological systems theory, the frustration-self-esteem model describes how school institutions can possibly manage disruptive behaviors and influence student’s perceptions of school (Finn, 1989; Griffin, 2002; Hung, Chung, Su, & Lin, 2016; Kaplan, Peck,

& Kaplan, 1997; Nielsen, 2016; Stearns, Moller, Blau, & Potochnick, 2007). Bloom (1976) argues that mental emotions (positive self-regard and ego strength) mature as at-risk adolescent students establish self-confidence through successful school-related experiences. Furthermore, poor academic achievement usually is the result of educational institutions failing to provide an emotionally safe environment for at-risk adolescent students (Dora A De La, 2006; Hung, Chung, Su, & Lin, 2016; Kaplan, Peck, & Kaplan, 1997). According to the frustration-self-esteem model, low self-perception is the primary emotional attitude that leads to little academic achievement (Nielsen, 2016; Stearns, Moller, Blau, & Potochnick, 2007), low self-perception is operationalized as general self-esteem, self-concept, or academic self-concept, and low self-perception can be perceived as frustration or embarrassment (Finn, 1989). Nonetheless, as a student's low self-perception or embarrassment increases, disruptive behaviors also begin to increase thus creating a detrimental impact on the at-risk adolescent students' academic achievement and attitude towards school (Bloom, 1976; Finn, 1989; Voelkl, 1997).

School alienation is one dimension of behavioral performance that is studied through the frustration self-esteem model (Oerlemans & Jenkins, 1998). According to Oerlemans and Jenkins (1998), adolescents who have been alienated from school usually experience an adulthood of alienation and live in poverty. These authors denoted the frustration self-esteem model as an instrumental theory for understanding the process of school alienation. Their research suggested adolescent alienation leads to negative behaviors such as deviant behavior. In addition, school alienation also hinders adolescent students' preparedness for society and future employment. Oerlemans and Jenkins (1998) concluded, delinquent behaviors in the school setting derive from a place of frustration and embarrassment, and if these attributes are addressed

and possibly ameliorated, school alienation can be prevented. Furthermore, they attested, reduced school alienation is paramount for the mental health of adolescent students and provides opportunities for them to advance in future endeavors and school environments.

In respect to the frustration self-esteem model, Meškauskienė (2013), however, conducted a study with similar but slightly different implications. Their research revealed, school teachers are responsible for creating positive internalizations of self-esteem and reduced feelings of frustration in the school environment. Based off the frustration self-esteem model, Meškauskienė (2013) stated children's self-esteem depends on the teacher's working style and teaching methods. This study implied, if students are frustrated and have low levels of self-esteem this is not related to the student's personality but more connected to the approach of their teacher. According to this study, because teachers have a powerful influence on student's self-esteem, ineffective teaching methods and inactive teachers cause adolescent students to become academically frustrated and behave poorly.

Lastly, the participation identification model highlights the importance of students participating in school identification and school-related activities (Cavendish, 2016; Finn, & Cox, 1992; Jennings, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Van Houtte & Demanet, 2016; Voelkl, 1997). This second model claims, the possibility of a student successfully completing twelve years of school is maximized if they participate in and identify with school-related activities (Finn, 1989; Finn & Cox, 1992). As a student begins to identify with their school environment and participate in school activities, a sense of belongingness is created and research has proven this characteristic is imperative for positive attitudes towards school, academic motivation, and academic achievement (Eccles, 2004; Eccles & et. al, 1993; Jennings, 2003; Leithwood &

Jantzi, 2000). As students generate positive attitudes toward school, an eagerness to go to school and desire to perform well in school increases (Voelkl, 1997). Griffin (2002), Finn (1989), Van Houtte and Demanent (2016) went on to say school identification and school participation is directly related to extracurricular activities, but if a student establishes no school identity and no ambition to participate in school-related activities, low levels of academic achievement surface and dropout rates increase.

Griffin (2002) used the participation identification model and disidentification hypothesis to learn if Black and Hispanic students in Florida showed characteristics of low school identification once they decided to disengage from school. This research found, an important indicator of whether students remained in school was linked to how much they identified with their school. Furthermore, the data collected from this study proved the disidentification hypothesis and participation identification model which stated, students' decisions to disengage from school is a result of low school identification. As Black and Hispanic students dropped out of school, this study concluded that this was a result of them not identifying with their school environment.

These four paradigms contribute to the conceptual framework of this research and provide different perspectives but important viewpoints on addressing at-risk adolescent students' school-related experiences and satisfactions with life (Bronfenbrenner, 1994; Eccles & et. al, 1993; Finn, 1989; Voelkl, 1997). The importance of students fitting their environmental surroundings, feeling a sense of belongingness, creating a routine to change decisions, and participating in school-related activities while establishing a school identity is directly related to their attitudes toward school, chances of dropping out of school, and academic achievement

(Akos & Kurz, 2016; Darling, Caldwell, & Smith, 2005; Dike, 2012; Eisman & et. al, 2016; Van Houtte & Demanet, 2016). Implementing the proximal process to promote behavioral changes, focusing on theories that effect adolescence developmental stages, and addressing emotional factors that influence disruptive behaviors enable educational institutions and state board officials to decrease dropout rates and increase positive attitudes toward school amongst at-risk students (Bulger & Watson, 2006; Rumberger, 2001; Rumberger, 2004).

These theories and models framed the conceptual foundation of this research and helped to explain how at-risk adolescent students' involvement in extracurricular activities relate to their academic perceptions, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, motivations and satisfactions with family, friends, school, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction. (Akos & Kurz, 2016; Dike, 2012; Bloom, 1976; Bronfenbrenner, 1994; Eccles & et. al, 1993; Finn, 1989; Hung, Chung, Su, & Lin, 2016; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Voelkl, 1997)

Benefits to the Community

The impacts of dropping out of school are detrimental for national and state governments (Dike, 2012; Henry, Cavanagh, & Oetting, 2011; Wehlage & Rutter, 1986), at-risk adolescent African American and Latino students (Smith, 2003), and the families of at-risk adolescent students (Caruba, 2001; De La Rosa, 1998; Ellis, 2007). On the national level, each year 1.3 million students fail to graduate while dropping the United States' high school graduation rate to 69% (Henry, Cavanagh, & Oetting, 2011). According a 2008 research study, Californian students who drop out of high school cause the government to pay \$1.1 billion annually as a result of juvenile crimes (Dike, 2012). For other state governments, every \$1 that is spent on the prevention and education of potential dropouts, could be \$9 in returned to the state's budget

(Wehlage & Rutter, 1986). Moreover, reduced dropout rates would prevent thousands of these crimes committed by African Americans and Latinos in African American and Latino communities (Dora A De La, 1998).

Dropping out of school is the surest way of perpetuating the cycle of poverty and crime that many students are born into (Ellis, 2007). By failing to focus on the academic needs of African American and Hispanic/Latino at-risk adolescent students, educational institutions foster increased numbers of marginalized youths that do not have the potential for success and witness a greater number of impoverished realities such as adult literacy (Caruba, 2001), criminal engagement (Dike, 2012), underemployment (Smith, 2003), and dependency on welfare services (Tobin & Sprague, 2000). Furthermore, dropout adolescent students who are unemployed or employed in low paying jobs struggle to make enough money to live above poverty (Lan & Lanthier, 2003), and this places economical and psychological stresses on the families of at-risk adolescent students who drop out of school (Grady, 2006).

Most well-paying jobs require skills that call for high proficiencies in basic reading, writing, and math, and the opportunities for at-risk adolescent dropouts to obtain these well-paying job are low (Lerman & Schmidt, 1999). Ironically, some at-risk adolescent students living in a family of low socio-economic status disengage from school to help with family finances, but they are not able to obtain employment because minimum job requirements are not met, making it harder for that low income family to survive (Grady, 2006). This study is not focusing on such at-risk adolescent students who cannot participate in formal extracurricular activities. But for the at-risk adolescent student who can participate in extracurricular activities, the direct and indirect benefits of extracurricular activities associated directly with academic

perceptions, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, motivations and satisfactions with family, friends, school, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction, and indirectly with the larger community locally and globally, are numerous.

Chapter III

Methodology

In this chapter the research design, participants, instruments, data collection and data analysis procedures are outlined to describe each section's role in this study. The purpose of the study is to explore the similarities and differences in attitudes towards school and satisfaction with life among at-risk adolescents who participate in formal extracurricular activities.

Specifically, this research tested whether at-risk adolescent students' involvement in formal extracurricular activities affected their academic perceptions, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, motivations and satisfactions with family, friends, school, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction. It also sought to determine whether similarities and differences existed between participants in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon with respect to gender, age, duration of participation in formal extracurricular activities, and participation in additional sports.

Design

For the purposes of this research, a cross-sectional survey design was used to collect data. The cross-sectional survey design was used because the independent variables were present in the participants, prior to measuring their association with the dependent variables. In addition, the study could claim associative relationships but not cause-effect. It was not possible to conduct pre-surveys, so only post surveys were used. The independent variables of the study include at-risk adolescent students' participation in formal extracurricular activity, gender, age, duration of participation in formal extracurricular activities, and participation in additional sports. The dependent constructs include students' academic perception, attitude toward

teachers, attitude toward school, motivation and satisfaction with family, friends, school, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction.

This cross-sectional survey design utilized three surveys. One survey was administered to gather basic demographic information and the other two surveys, the *School Attitude Assessment Survey-Revised* (SAAS-R) and the *School Satisfaction Subscale of the Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale* (MSLSS), were standardized questionnaires developed and applied in similar previous studies (Hangauer, 2007; Huebner, 1994; McCoach & Siegle, 2003).

Participants

The participants of this study included at-risk adolescent students ranging from 10 to 17 years old attending a secondary school in Cumbaya, Ecuador, and a Middle School located in Gresham, Oregon. At each school, 90% of the student population consisted of at-risk students. This distinction was based off the student's ethnicity minority status and low socio-economic status. In Ecuador, the participating school partnered with their national professional soccer team (El Nacional) to create a soccer program that engaged low income and ethnic minority Ecuadorian students. This soccer program incorporated the importance of formal education with soccer (formal extracurricular activity) to improve academic performances and graduation rates among at-risk Ecuadorian students. In Oregon, the participating school partnered with a nonprofit organization to improve the academic success of low income and ethnic minority students. The researcher decided to survey students at these institutions because both obtained a high population of low income students, ethnic minority students, and Latino/Hispanic students.

The participants at both locations varied in ethnicity, in Gresham the ethnic percentages are as follow: 70% Hispanic, 15% Multiracial (Russian, Pacific Islander, and Somalian), 10% Caucasian, and 5% African American. Overall, 90% (Hispanic, Multiracial, and African American) of the students surveyed in Oregon were considered ethnic minorities. In Ecuador, 100% of the students were considered Hispanic/Latino, but a further explanation of this Hispanic/Latino identity is warranted. In Latin America, especially Ecuador, there are three main identifiers related to ethnicity, Mestizo, Afro-Ecuadorian, and Indigenous. The percentages of Ecuadorian students who participated in this study are as follows: 60% Afro-Ecuadorian, 20% Indigenous, and 20% Mestizo. Overall, 80% (Afro-Ecuadorian and Indigenous) of the students surveyed in Ecuador were considered ethnic minorities.

A total of 180 students received assent and consent forms for this study, the response rate out of 180 students was 41.1%, which generated a total of 74 responses from the students. In Cumbaya, Ecuador the researcher facilitated information sessions and administered all three surveys for six participating classes with approximately 20 students per class (total=120). The researcher completed the same process for three participating classes with approximately 20 students per class (total=60) in Gresham, Oregon.

Concerning gender, in Ecuador, less than 5% of the participants were female because the students attending the Ecuadorian educational facility were predominately male. In Gresham, Oregon 51% of the participants were female.

At each school, the participants were enrolled in classes designed specifically for assisting at-risk adolescents at their general point of need and to increase academic achievement. In Cumbaya, Ecuador the participating school was an alternative educational institution who

partnered with the national soccer team to help low-income and ethnic minority at-risk Hispanic/Latino students. In Gresham, Oregon the participating school was sponsored by a nonprofit organization to assist at-risk adolescent students with academic achievement. Students at both schools were considered at-risk because of low socio-economic statuses and ethnic minority statuses; and respective school officials created this at-risk distinction so school guidance counselors could better accommodate these students.

Lastly, the formal extracurricular activity measured at each school was soccer. In terms of daily routines, soccer was practiced Monday through Friday for two hours each day. Before the surveys were administered, all participants completed at least 0-5 months of this formal extracurricular activity.

Instruments

Three surveys were administered at both locations. The first survey was administered to gather basic demographic information. It consisted of five questions created by the primary researcher and the faculty advisor of the primary researcher in response to inputs and recommendations made by Concordia's Institutional Review Board (IRB) chair. A few questions on this survey were as follows: "*How long have you participated in the formal extracurricular activity?*" and "*What is your gender?*" The other two surveys were standardized questionnaires that have been developed and applied in previous studies. These two questionnaires, the *School Attitude Assessment Survey-Revised* [SAAS-R] (McCoach & Siegle, 2003) and the *School Satisfaction Subscale of the Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale* [MSLSS] (Huebner, 1994) have supporting validity and reliability related to the variables studied in this study. They also were compatible with this research and the direction of the

study. In that manner, these instruments were chosen because of their statistical reliability and validity results related to its intended measures.

The SAAS-R is a thirty-five-item survey questionnaire that measures five elements: general academic perceptions, attitudes toward school, attitudes toward teachers and classes, motivation and self-regulation, and goal valuation. The SAAS-R uses a seven point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagrees to strongly agree. Some statements on the SAAS-R are: "*My classes are interesting*", "*I am intelligent*", and "*I learn new things quickly in school*". Acceptable reliability and validity have been established for this instrument. The internal consistency reliability coefficients for this survey were .85 for all five factors (Hangauer, 2007).

The MSLSS is a forty-statement scale that measures life satisfaction in regards to school, family, friends, living environment, and self. This survey questionnaire was also utilized for similar reasons related to the SSAS-R. The MSLSS scale employs a six point Likert scale with responses ranging from strongly disagrees to strongly agree. Its validity results have offered reliability alpha coefficients of .77 to .84 for domain scores (Hangauer, 2007). Certain statements listed on this survey are: "*I feel bad at school*", "*I like being in school*", and "*I learn a lot at school*". In regards to its construct validity, this instrument has supported both explanatory and confirmatory factor analyses (Huebner, 1994). Also, convergent and discriminant validity has been established for the MSLSS and it has been applied to early adolescent populations while being denoted as the only successful subscale indicator for this population (Baker, 1999; Hangauer, 2007; Marsh, 1990). A copy of all three surveys can be found in the appendices section at the end of this document (See Appendix D, E, F, G, H, and I).

The two standardized survey questionnaires (SAAS-R and MSLSS) were chosen because they measure variables the researcher was interested in exploring. The SAAS-R measures motivation, attitude towards school and the general academic perceptions. For the purposes of this study, the researcher operationalized motivation to be the observable behavior of high-class attendance at their respective school (attendance 85% or higher of school days for the year). The MSLSS measures general overall life satisfaction in regards to family, friends, school, living environment and self, which together with the SAAS-R will help the researcher answer, the research questions. (Bolded concepts in Table 1 below show the fit between the surveys and the study’s purpose.)

Table 1. *Relevance and Fit of Surveys to the Study*

SAAS-R measures adolescents’	The dependent variables the researcher intend to measure in the study	MSLSS measures 3 rd to 12 th graders’ satisfaction with
Attitudes toward school, Attitudes toward teachers, Goal-valuation, Motivation, General academic perceptions	General academic perceptions Motivation Attitudes toward school Attitudes toward teachers Satisfaction with: School Family Living environment Self General overall life satisfaction	School, Family, Friends, Living environment, Self; General overall life satisfaction;

In addition, the three surveys are written with a readability scale of 1.5 grade level, so most students required little or no assistance in responding to the questions. Because each survey was provided in English and Spanish, this readability scale also made translations less complicated.

Data Collection Procedures

Before collecting data, the researcher had to obtain permission from the IRB at Concordia University. The researcher also had to get consent from principals of the participating schools (on behalf of teachers) and parents of the participants to allow their student(s) to participate in completing three surveys, namely the basic demographic information survey, the SAAS-R survey, and the MSLSS survey.

As part of the preparation for administering the surveys, and to improve data collection procedures and the response rates of the students, the purpose and details of the study were explained in more than one setting. The principals, teachers, and students heard the instructions, purpose, and details of the study at least three times before consent forms, assent forms, and letters of permission were given and requested for signature.

The researcher prepared permission letters to ask participating school principals for authorization to survey their students and requested school attendance records of the participants. The researcher also distributed assent and consent forms for parents to sign granting permission for their child to participate in the study. To preserve the integrity of the study, the title of the study on each form did not include the term “at-risk”. Please see Appendix A and B.

A benefit to using the MSLSS and SAAS-S surveys is that they are both publicly available. The surveys and how to score them are available online and easily accessible. The MSLSS developed by Huebner (2001) categorically states, “The MSLSS is in the public domain. Researchers may use it without permission. The author welcomes any feedback regarding its usefulness. (p.5)”

The researcher sought permission from the principals, parents and student to include the student's attendance data in the study. Parents and students indicated their agreement to the researchers request by checking "yes" on the consent forms (see Appendix A and B to review form).

None of the three surveys given to the students have questions that are sensitive or difficult, and the surveys do not include content that will cause physical or emotional harm to the students. Teachers were asked to administer the surveys in their classrooms to assenting students whose parents had given consent to students' participation. It took each student participant an average of 10 minutes to complete one survey. The administration of the surveys in the classrooms did not disrupt classes significantly.

Because the surveys were administered in Ecuador and the United States, where participants fluently speak either Spanish or English, respectively, the researcher translated the MSLSS and the basic demographic surveys into Spanish and used the English versions in Gresham, Oregon. The researcher also translated all surveys, consent forms, assent forms, and letters of permission, in Cumbaya, Ecuador to Spanish as well. For the basic demographic information survey and MSLSS, the researcher sought the assistance of two native Spanish-speaking teachers and a native Spanish-speaking adolescent to translate these instruments. The Spanish translation of SAAS-R used in this study was developed in 2014 by Pablo Miñano Pérez, Juan Luis Castejón Costa and Raquel Gilar Corbí (Pérez, Costa, & Corbí, 2014). According to their study on psychometric properties, the Spanish version of the SAAS-R is a useful measure, with a reliability co-efficient of .78.

After the translators deemed the surveys comprehensible (inter-rater reliability) the researcher arranged with the class teacher a day and time to administer the surveys.

Survey Administration.

As part of the preparation to administer the surveys, the teachers of the selected participating classes and students were informed that participation in the study was solely voluntary and no repercussions would follow if students chose not to participate. Informed consent was explained and students were asked to get their parents or guardian to sign appropriate forms. Students were also told that in order to maximize confidentiality and ensure that no traceable documentation was associated with the adolescent students, they were not to place their names on the surveys and that the surveys would have identification codes pre-designed by the researcher.

On the day of survey administration, the researcher explained the instructions on how to complete the surveys to the teacher and the students. Before the surveys were distributed, and so as to not adversely affect student responses or the results of the study, the students were told a partial purpose of the survey, that is, that the researcher wanted to know their attitude towards school and their satisfaction with school over the past school year. The survey title did not include the term “at-risk”. Since students were required to attend classes there was no recruiting process and only students with parental consent forms signed were able to participate. Those who chose not to participate waited as other students completed their survey and were not be penalized in any way. Participating students could stop at any time during the survey administration. The students were only asked to complete the surveys and no other actions were

required of them. The surveys took approximately 10 minutes per survey to complete so there was 30 minutes in total needed to complete all three instruments.

After the surveys were completed, the researcher thanked the students for their participation and expanded further on the purpose of the research, to include the full intent of the study, i.e., the impact of participating in the extracurricular activity. In Ecuador, the researcher, who is bilingual (speaks English and Spanish), helped the respective teacher explain all facets of the study to ensure correct information was relayed to the students.

If any participant or parent had questions about the study and wanted to contact the researcher at a later date, the name, email, and contact information of the researcher was provided to the teacher and principal.

Attendance Data.

Data provided on attendance was obtained by asking only for attendance information of each individual participant. The researcher gave a list with the participant students' to the school principal (or designated administrative assistant in charge of keeping attendance records) of the participating schools. The researcher also gave to the principal or attendance official a list of names of students who had assented to and whose parents had granted permission to the school to provide attendance information to the researcher.

No information on how participating students answered the survey questions was reported with the attendance data. Only the researcher is able to link the attendance data (which is by name) to the responses on the surveys. There is only one data file with this "key" that matches the names to the study codes. This file is securely guarded and not emailed or used in

any computer other than the researcher's computer. The attendance information was summarized in aggregate and reported as a motivation score.

Data Analysis Procedures

The researcher used SPSS to analyze the collected data. For analyzing satisfaction with school and general satisfaction with life, the MSLSS scores are straightforward and based on sums or averages per domain or survey as a whole. Consequently, the higher the scores (or average) in the school experience domain or the overall survey, the greater the perception or indication of satisfaction of participants with school and life, respectively. To analyze attitude towards school and general academic perceptions, average scores of 5 or higher per construct was deemed as positive attitudes toward school and general academic perceptions on the SAAS-R. On the MSLSS average scores of 4 or higher per construct was deemed as satisfaction with life. To answer the other research questions, a comparison between the scores of the participants in Ecuador and those in Oregon was made using independent t-tests or ANOVA tests for each dependent variable, to determine the location differences.

Each participating student received a study code. The surveys obtained this code (not the participant's name). In this way, even if someone was to see a survey, they only saw a study code and not the participant's name. Only the researcher knew which names were linked to the study code. The key that linked the name with the study code was kept confidential and only viewed by the primary research investigator. When analyzing the data, only the study code was used.

While in Ecuador, the data collected for this study was stored in a locked filing cabinet located in the personal room of the researcher. The only person with a key to this cabinet and

permitted access to this cabinet was the researcher. Each survey had a given numerical identity and no other identifiers were associated with the participants. Before the researcher issued the surveys, numerical values were written in the place of the names. The participants also were encouraged to only answer the questions and write nothing extra on the surveys. The same process was replicated for the informed consent and assent.

Limitations

Due the nature of the settings and the participants in the study, the researcher was unable to fulfill the requirements of a classical experimental design, that is, the researcher could not provide every student with an equal opportunity of being selected (randomization) so as to reduce biases. In addition, the researcher was unable to administer a pre-assessment to participants engaged in formal extracurricular activities. The researcher was also unable to include a comparative (control) group who would have been individuals similar to participants but who did not participate in formal extracurricular activities. The researcher had limited time to collect data in Ecuador. As a result, the researcher made the decision to use surveys with purposive sampling to target at-risk adolescent American and Hispanic/Latino students who participated in formal extracurricular activities. It is important to note that purposive sampling works well with the cross-sectional survey design (Sanora, 2014; Tongco, 2007).

Chapter IV

Findings

Introduction

In this chapter the results of the study and the data analysis conducted will be presented. The chapter begins with a brief overview of the study and the methods used to collect relevant data. The statistical significance of the results linked with the analyzed data will also be discussed with respect to each associated null hypothesis. Finally, the chapter will end by explaining significances related to the results and the studied constructs.

Overview

The purpose of the study was to determine whether participation in extracurricular activities by at-risk adolescents positively impacted their attitude towards school and their level of life satisfaction. Participants included adolescents in schools in Gresham, Oregon and Cumbaya, Ecuador. The analysis was conducted on all participants together (both locations) to determine general trends, and separately in the two different locations, to explore location differences. Any reference to the word *overall* is referring to the combined participants from both locations.

The two surveys used the MSLSS, *Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale* (Huebner, 2001) and the SAAR-S, *School Attitude Assessment Survey-Revised* (McCoach & Siegle, 2003) measured the following constructs below, which were well aligned with the purpose of the study. The bolded concepts in the table below show the fit between the surveys and the study's purpose. See Table 2.

Table 2. *Alignment of Surveys with Constructs (dependent variables) of the Study*

SAAS-R measures adolescents'	The dependent variables I intend to measure in the study	MSLSS measures 3 rd to 12 th graders' satisfaction with
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attitudes toward school, • Attitudes toward teachers, • Goal-valuation, • Motivation, • General academic perceptions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General academic perceptions • Motivation • Attitudes toward school • Attitudes toward teachers • Satisfaction with: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School • Family • Living environment • Self • General overall life satisfaction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School, • Family, • Friends, • Living environment, • Self; • General overall life satisfaction

Research Questions and Hypotheses

In this study, the following questions and hypotheses were examined and tested, respectively, to evaluate at-risk adolescent students' attitudes toward teachers and school, academic perception, and motivation, and their satisfaction with family, friends, school, living environment, self, and general overall life satisfaction.

Research Questions

1. What are the *overall* similarities between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life?
2. What *overall* differences exist among at-risk adolescent students who participate in formal extracurricular activities with respect to gender, age, duration in formal extracurricular activities, participation in other sports, and participation in sports in general, in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life?

3. What are the differences between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life?
4. What are the differences in attendance rates (motivation) for school between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities?

Null Hypotheses

1. There will be no *overall* differences among at-risk adolescent students who participate in formal extracurricular activities with respect to gender, age, duration in formal extracurricular activities, participation in other sports, and participation in sports in general, in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life.
2. There will be no differences between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life.
3. There will be no differences in attendance rates (motivation) for school between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities.

Note: It is important to note that most of the analyses would have been better analyzed using a MANOVA tests but the accessible SPSS package could only conduct ANOVA tests and so the researcher conducted a series of ANOVA tests instead.

Analyses Of Overall Participants: Similarities Between Gresham And Cumbaya (Considering Locations Together)

The following null hypothesis will be tested using a series of independent sample t-tests and ANOVAs: There will be no differences *overall* among at-risk adolescent students who participate in formal extracurricular activities with respect to gender, age, duration in formal extracurricular activities, participation in other sports, and participation in sports in general, in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life.

Overall Attitudes and Satisfaction.

Using descriptive statistics, the study measured the perceptions at-risk adolescent students who participated in formal extracurricular activities had toward school and their satisfaction with life using the MSLSS and SAAS-R surveys. The MSLSS survey measures general attitudes towards school while the SAAS-R survey measures overall satisfaction with life. The MSLSS rating scale ranges from 1 to 6 with scores 4, 5, and 6 indicating satisfaction with life and the SAAS-R scale ranges from 1 to 7 with scores, 5,6, and 7 indicating agreement with positive attitudes towards school. Consequently, for the MSLSS an average score of 4 or higher means that the students have a mild to high positive attitude and for the SAAS-R survey a score of 5 or higher denotes that the students possess a moderate to high satisfaction with life.

The results revealed that in general, all participants, those in Ecuador and the United States, together had an average score of 4.05 or higher on the MSLSS and a 5.28 or higher on each of the constructs measured on the SAAS-R survey. This indicates that at-risk students in both locations participating in formal extracurricular activities expressed positive attitudes towards school and possess moderate to high levels of life satisfaction. See Figure 1.

The at-risk adolescent students rated their satisfaction with their environment the least relatively to all the attitude and satisfaction scores.

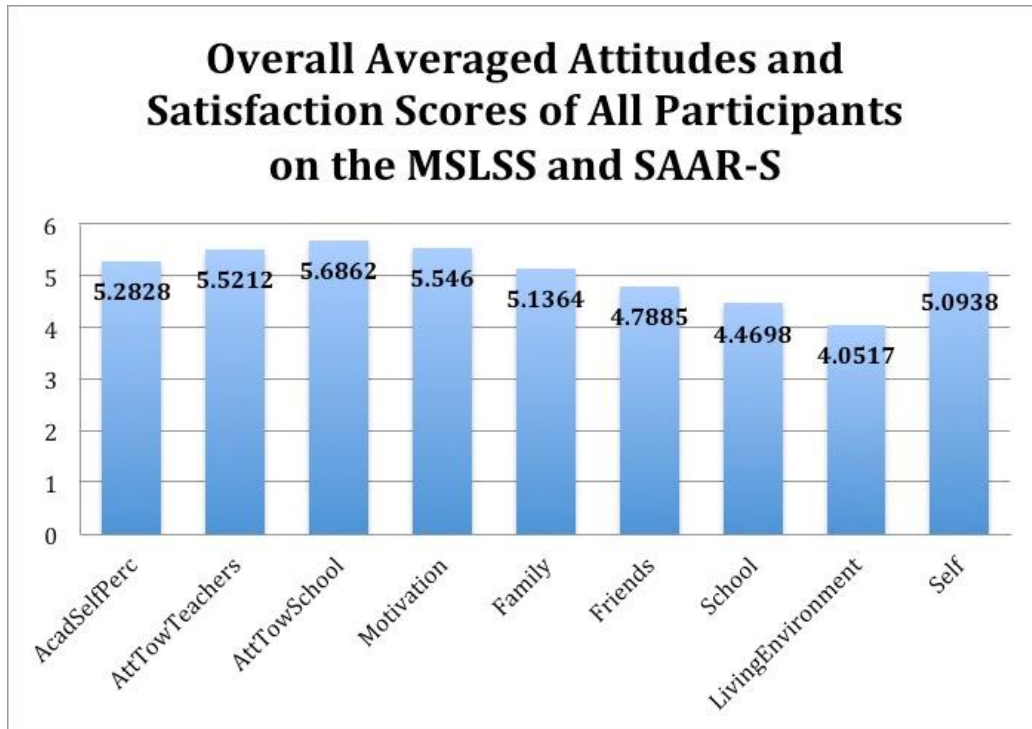


Figure 1. Overall Average Scores

Overall Gender Differences.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to assess whether there would be a difference in the following constructs with respect to gender: academic perceptions, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, motivations and satisfactions with family, friends, school, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction amongst at-risk adolescent students participating in formal extracurricular activities in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon. The analysis revealed there was no statistically significant differences in the average scores between male and female students for each of the constructs, academic perception $t(64) = .293, p = .770$; attitude toward teacher $t(57) = 1.26, p = .212$; attitudes toward school $t(63) = .509, p = .612$; motivation $t(61) = 1.015, p = .314$; satisfaction with family $t(64) = .054, p = .957$;

satisfaction with friends $t(50) = .66, p = .512$; satisfaction with school $t(60) = 1.28, p = .206$; satisfaction with living environment $t(56) = .42, p = .680$; satisfaction with self $t(65) = .80, p = .426$; satisfaction with overall life $t(28) = 1.08, p = .289$.

The results indicated, on average, at-risk adolescent students participating in formal extracurricular activities did not differ with respect to gender on satisfaction (MSLSS) and attitudes towards school-related experiences (SAAS-R). Furthermore, in the overall analysis, gender did not show a significant difference when it was compared to each measured construct. Though Cumbaya, Ecuador had fewer girls than Gresham, Oregon this independent variable (gender) was not significant to the results revealed in this study. Nonetheless, because gender overall was not statistically significant, it was appropriate to compare males and females in both locations instead of only comparing males in Cumbaya to males in Gresham. See Table 3.

Table 3. Means and Standard Deviations of MSLSS and SAAS-R Constructs: Gender

Gender	Constructs	N	M	SD	p
Male	Academic self-perception	48	5.31	1.17	.770
Female		18	5.21	1.21	
Male	Attitudes towards teachers	43	5.40	1.34	.212
Female		16	5.86	.97	
Male	Attitudes towards school	52	5.65	1.26	.612
Female		13	5.85	1.29	
Male	Motivation	45	5.46	1.19	.314
Female		18	5.77	.91	
Male	Family	48	5.14	.81	.957
Female		18	5.13	1.01	
Male	Friends	38	4.73	1.23	.512
Female		14	4.96	.82	
Male	School	45	4.38	.97	.206
Female		17	4.72	.89	
Male	Living Environment	44	4.08	.78	.680
Female		14	3.98	.79	
Male	Self	49	5.14	.67	.426
Female		18	4.98	.87	
Male	General Life Satisfaction	21	4.81	.65	.289
Female		9	4.56	.30	

Overall Age Differences.

ANOVA tests were conducted to evaluate the differences in the following constructs with respect to age: academic perceptions, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, motivations and satisfactions with family, friends, school, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction amongst at-risk adolescent students participating in formal extracurricular activities in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon. The analysis revealed there was no statistically significant differences in the average scores among different ages in each of the constructs: academic perception $F(6, 59) = 1.51, p = .190$; attitudes toward teacher $F(6, 52) = .597, p = .732$; attitudes toward school $F(6, 58) = .49, p = .810$; motivation $F(6, 56) = .65, p = .690$; satisfaction with family $F(6, 59) = .96, p = .458$; satisfaction with friends $F(6, 45) = 1.94, p = .162$; satisfaction with school $F(6, 55) = .548, p = .747$; satisfaction with living environment $F(6, 51) = .45, p = .634$; satisfaction with self $F(6, 60) = .20, p = .899$; satisfaction with overall life $F(6, 23) = 1.33, p = .284$.

The results indicated, on the average at-risk adolescent students participating in formal extracurricular activities did not differ with respect to age on satisfaction (MSLSS) and attitudes towards school-related experiences (SAAS-R).

Overall Duration of Participation Differences.

One-way ANOVA was used compare the average time in months spent participating in formal extracurricular activities and its impact on the MSLSS and SAAS-R constructs. The analysis revealed a statistically significant difference with regards to satisfaction with family $F(4, 61) = 2.71, p = .038, \eta^2 = .151$. The strength of the relationship between the duration of

participation and satisfaction with family, as assessed by η^2 , was strong, with the duration of participation accounting for 15% of the variance in the satisfaction with family.

Follow-up multiple comparisons were carried out using Tukey's HSD test. The computed pairwise comparisons are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. *Results of Multiple Comparisons Using Tukey's HSD test*

Comparison in months	Mean diff	Standard Error	<i>P</i>
0-5 to 6-11	.48	.27	.406
0-5 to 12-17	.58	.29	.289
0-5 to 18-23	.05	.59	1.000
0-5 to 24+	.42	.34	.729
6-11 to 12-17	1.06	.35	.028*
6-11 to 18-23	.54	.63	.912
6-11 to 24+	.90	.39	.154
12-17 to 18-23	.53	.64	.920
12-17 to 24+	.16	.40	.995
18-23 to 24+	.37	.66	.980

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

There was a statistically significant difference in the means between the duration of 6 to 11 months and 12 to 17 months. The average overall satisfaction with family was greater with at-risk adolescents who participated at least 12-17 months in the formal extracurricular activities than those who had participated 6-11 months.

No statistically significant differences were established in the average scores among different participation times in the remaining constructs: academic perception $F(4, 61) = 1.47$, $p = .222$; attitudes toward teacher $F(3, 55) = 1.04$, $p = .382$; attitudes toward school $F(4, 60) = 1.78$, $p = .146$; motivations $F(4, 58) = 1.33$, $p = .269$; satisfaction with friends $F(4, 47) = .376$, $p = .825$; satisfaction with school $F(4, 57) = .984$, $p = .423$; satisfaction with living environment $F(4, 53) = 1.59$, $p = .192$; satisfaction with self $F(4, 62) = 1.51$, $p = .211$; satisfaction with overall life $F(4, 25) = 2.24$, $p = .093$.

Overall Participation in Formal Extracurricular Activities with Participation in Sports Differences.

One-way ANOVA was used to compare participation in other sports together with participating in formal extracurricular activities and its impact on the MSLSS and SAAS-R constructs. The analysis revealed a statistically significant difference with regards to attitude toward teacher $F(3, 54) = 4.46$, $p = .007$; $\text{Eta}^2 = .199$ and motivation $F(3, 57) = 3.346$, $p = .025$, $\text{Eta}^2 = .150$. The strength of the relationship between doing school-related extracurricular activities in addition to other formal extracurricular activities, as assessed by η^2 , was strong, accounting for approximately 20% and 15% respectively of the variance in the attitudes toward teachers and motivation.

Follow-up multiple comparisons were carried out using Tukey's HSD test. The computed pairwise comparisons are presented in Table 5 and 6.

Table 5. Results of Multiple Comparisons Using Tukey's HSD test: Attitude toward Teachers

Comparison in Months	Mean diff	Standard Error	P
No vs. Yes, before	.631	.397	.392
No vs. Yes, Now	.090	.852	1.000
No vs. Yes Now and Before	1.278	.359	.004**
Yes, before vs. Yes Now	.721	.881	.845
Yes, before vs. Yes Now and Before	.647	.422	.426
Yes Now vs. Yes Now and Before	1.369	.864	.397

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

There was a statistically significant difference in the means of attitudes towards teachers between the at-risk adolescent students who had no participation in sports ($M=4.97$, $SD=1.53$) and those who combined participation in formal extracurricular activities and additional sports ($M=6.24$, $SD=1.62$). There was also a statistically significant difference in the means of motivation between the at-risk adolescent students who had no participation in sports ($M=5.13$, $SD=1.30$) and those who combined participation in formal extracurricular activities and additional sports ($M=6.16$, $SD=.82$). The average overall attitude towards teachers and motivation was greater with at-risk adolescents who participated in both formal extracurricular activities and additional sports than those who did not participate sports.

No statistically significant differences in the average scores among different participation times in the remaining constructs: academic perception $F(3, 60) = 2.56$, $p = .063$; attitudes toward school $F(3, 59) = 2.25$, $p = .091$; satisfaction with family $F(3, 59) = 2.10$, $p = .110$; satisfaction with friends $F(3, 46) = .706$, $p = .563$; satisfaction with school $F(3, 57) = .148$,

$p = .231$; satisfaction with living environment $F(3, 52) = .840$, $p = .478$; satisfaction with self $F(3, 60) = 1.10$, $p = .356$; satisfaction with overall life $F(3, 26) = 2.31$, $p = .100$, were revealed.

Table 6. *Results of Multiple Comparisons Using Tukey's HSD test: Motivation*

Comparison in Months	Mean diff	Standard Error	<i>P</i>
No vs. Yes, before	.326	.347	.783
No vs. Yes, Now	.373	.785	.964
No vs. Yes Now and Before	1.034	.328	.013*
Yes, before vs. Yes Now	.326	.805	1.000
Yes, before vs. Yes Now and Before	.708	.374	.242
Yes Now vs. Yes Now and Before	.661	.797	.840

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Overall life satisfaction in participants who spent a minimum of two years in sports was greater than that of those who did not participate.

Based on the results of the preceding analysis, the null hypothesis which stated that there would be no *overall* differences among at-risk adolescent students who participate in formal extracurricular activities with respect to gender, age, duration in formal extracurricular activities, participation in other sports, and participation in sports in general, in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life, was rejected.

Analyses Of Gresham Versus Cumbaya: Location Comparison

The following null hypothesis will be tested using a series of t-tests and ANOVAs: There will be no differences between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life.

Cumbaya vs. Gresham: Scores on Satisfaction and Attitudes.

An independent-sample t-test was conducted to test the differences in the following constructs between Gresham and Cumbaya at-risk adolescents participating in formal extracurricular activities: academic perception, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, motivations, satisfactions with specific elements such as family, friends, school, living environment, self and general overall life satisfaction. The analysis revealed statistically significant differences in the average scores between students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon in the following constructs: academic perception $t(64) = 4.58, p < .001, \text{Eta}^2 = .25$; attitude toward teacher $t(57) = 2.2, p = .03, \text{Eta}^2 = .07$; attitudes toward school $t(63) = 3.1, p = .003, \text{Eta}^2 = .13$; motivation $t(61) = 3.09, p = .003, \text{Eta}^2 = .14$; satisfaction with school $t(60) = 2.66, p = .01, \text{Eta}^2 = .11$. The analysis revealed there were no statistically significant differences in the average scores between students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon in the following constructs: satisfaction with family $t(64) = .75, p = .455$; satisfaction with friends $t(50) = 1.63, p = .11$; satisfaction with living environment $t(56) = .77, p = .446$; satisfaction with self $t(65) = 1.08, p = .285$; and general overall life satisfaction $t(28) = 1.37, p = .183$. For the means and standard deviations of all constructs see Table 7.

The use of Eta^2 revealed a large effect size for academic perception. The Eta square index indicated that 25% of the variance of the academic perception score was accounted for by location, i.e., whether the at-risk adolescent was Ecuadorian or American. The results indicated that on the average Ecuadorian at-risk adolescent students participating in formal extracurricular activities had greater academic perception than their American counterparts.

The use of η^2 revealed a moderate effect size for attitudes toward teachers. The η^2 index indicated that 7% of the variance of the attitudes toward teachers score was accounted for by location, i.e., whether the at-risk adolescent was Ecuadorian or American. The results indicated that on the average Ecuadorian at-risk adolescent students participating in formal extracurricular activities had more positive attitudes toward teachers than their American counterparts.

The use of η^2 revealed a moderately large effect size for attitudes toward school. The η^2 index indicated that 13% of the variance of the attitudes toward school score was accounted for by location, i.e., whether the at-risk adolescent was Ecuadorian or American. The results indicated that on the average Ecuadorian at-risk adolescent students participating in formal extracurricular activities had more positive attitudes toward school than their American counterparts.

The use of η^2 revealed a large effect size for motivation. The η^2 index indicated that 14% of the variance of the motivation score was accounted for by location, i.e., whether the at-risk adolescent was Ecuadorian or American. The results indicated that on the average Ecuadorian at-risk adolescent students participating in formal extracurricular activities had greater levels of motivation than their American counterparts.

The use of η^2 revealed a moderate effect size for satisfaction with school. The η^2 index indicated that 11% of the variance of the satisfaction with school score was accounted for by location, i.e., whether the at-risk adolescent was Ecuadorian or American. The results indicated that on the average Ecuadorian at-risk adolescent students participating in

formal extracurricular activities had greater satisfaction with school than their American counterparts.

Table 7. Means and Standard Deviations of MSLSS and SAAS-R Constructs: Location

Location	Constructs	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>P</i>
Cumbaya, Ecuador	Academic self perception	35	5.83	.81	<.001**
Gresham, Oregon		31	4.67	1.24	
Cumbaya, Ecuador	Attitudes towards teachers	34	5.82	.86	.03*
Gresham, Oregon		25	5.11	1.60	
Cumbaya, Ecuador	Attitudes towards school	36	6.1	.81	.003**
Gresham, Oregon		29	5.18	1.52	
Cumbaya, Ecuador	Motivation	34	5.92	.69	.003**
Gresham, Oregon		29	5.1	1.36	
Cumbaya, Ecuador	Family	33	5.22	.76	.455
Gresham, Oregon		33	5.06	.96	
Cumbaya, Ecuador	Friends	28	4.56	1.4	.11
Gresham, Oregon		24	5.06	.64	
Cumbaya, Ecuador	School	30	4.79	.66	.01*
Gresham, Oregon		32	4.17	1.09	
Cumbaya, Ecuador	Living Environment	34	4.12	.64	.446
Gresham, Oregon		24	3.96	.94	
Cumbaya, Ecuador	Self	36	5.18	.63	.285
Gresham, Oregon		31	5	.82	
Cumbaya, Ecuador	General Life Satisfaction	16	4.87	.63	.183
Gresham, Oregon		14	4.59	.48	

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Gender Differences: Cumbaya vs. Gresham.

An independent-sample t-test was conducted to determine whether there would be a difference between male and female at-risk adolescent students in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life with the participants in Gresham. The analysis was not conducted with participants in Cumbaya, because there were only 2 females in comparison to 34 males in Cumbaya, and a t-test was not feasible.

The results for Gresham indicated that on the average at-risk adolescent students participating in formal extracurricular activities did differ with respect to gender on the following constructs: attitudes towards teachers $t(23)=3.25, p=.004$; motivation, $t(27)=2.93, p=.007$; and attitudes towards school, $t(30)=2.82, p=.008$. On review of the analysis, females scored greater on each of those constructs in Gresham, specifically, attitude towards teachers for males ($M=4.13, SD=1.67$) and females ($M=5.88, SD=1.03$); motivation, for males ($M=4.38, SD=1.46$) and females ($M=5.69, SD=.94$); and attitude towards school for males ($M=3.68, SD=1.09$) and females ($M=4.66, SD=.789$).

Age Differences: Cumbaya vs. Gresham.

ANOVA tests were conducted to examine the null hypothesis which stated there would be no difference in the following constructs: academic perceptions, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, motivations and satisfactions with family, friends, school, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction amongst at-risk adolescent students participating in formal extracurricular activities in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon with respect to age. The analysis revealed no statistically significant differences in the average scores among different ages in each of the constructs in both Gresham and Cumbaya, with the exception of

family in Gresham, $F(3, 21) = 3.51, p = .033$ and satisfaction with overall life $F(3, 10) = 4.45, p = .031$.

A follow up multiple comparison revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in attitude towards teachers with respect to at-risk adolescent students participating in formal extracurricular activities between 11 ($M=5.83, SD=.86$) and 13 year olds ($M=3.48, SD=1.38$) as well as between 13 ($M=3.48, SD=1.38$) and 12 year olds ($M=5.66, SD=.99$). Eleven and twelve year old at-risk adolescent students participating in formal extracurricular activities in Gresham had greater attitudes towards teachers than the participating thirteen year olds. In addition, eleven year olds had greater overall ratings of life satisfaction ($M=5.09, SD=.25$) than fourteen year olds ($M=4.04, SD=.37$). The eleven year olds in Gresham had greater ratings of satisfaction with overall life than the fourteen year olds.

In general, participants showed great attitude towards teachers in Cumbaya consistently across all ages, with 5.41 as the lowest rating and 6.11 out of 7 as the highest. The students in Cumbaya ranged from 13 years to 17 years old.

No statistical significant differences in Cumbaya were found in age for the following constructs: academic perception $F(4, 30) = .42, p = .742$; attitudes toward teacher $F(4, 29) = .74, p = .570$; attitudes toward school $F(4, 31) = 1.91, p = .134$; motivation $F(4, 29) = .47, p = .760$; satisfaction with family $F(4, 28) = .83, p = .515$; satisfaction with friends $F(4, 23) = 1.19, p = .343$; satisfaction with school $F(4, 25) = .81, p = .532$; satisfaction with living environment $F(4, 29) = .86, p = .502$; satisfaction with self $F(4, 31) = .18, p = .945$; and satisfaction with overall life $F(4, 11) = .79, p = .551$.

No statistical significant differences in Gresham were found in age for the following constructs: academic perception $F(3, 27) = .738, p = .539$; attitude toward family $F(3, 29) = 2.65, p = .068$; attitudes toward school $F(3, 25) = 1.65, p = .203$; motivation $F(3, 25) = .95, p = .429$; satisfaction with friends $F(3, 20) = 1.04, p = .397$; satisfaction with school $F(3, 28) = .975, p = .418$; satisfaction with living environment $F(3, 20) = .69, p = .563$; and satisfaction with self $F(3, 27) = .94, p = .431$.

The results indicated, on the average at-risk adolescent students participating in extracurricular activities did not differ with respect to age on the MSLSS and SAAS-R constructs in Cumbaya for all constructs but they did differ with respect to age in Gresham.

Differences in Duration in Formal Extracurricular Activities, Combination of Extracurricular activity and Sports, and Sports in General: Cumbaya vs. Gresham.

It was not possible to run an ANOVA analyses to compare the two locations in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life, because for each construct, some of the subgroups had less than 2 individuals.

Based on the results of all the analysis comparing Cumbaya with Gresham, the null hypothesis, which stated there would be no differences between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life was rejected.

Analysis of School Attendance/Absenteeism as a Measure of Motivation

Unfortunately, the school in Cumbaya could not provide their attendance records and so a comparison of attendance records with Gresham was not feasible. The researcher could not test the null hypothesis that there would be no differences in attendance rates (motivation) for school,

between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participated in formal extracurricular activities.

However, the researcher determined from the attendance records of the at-risk adolescents who participated in this study their average absenteeism rate. The researcher also obtained the average absenteeism rate for the Middle School in Gresham, Oregon. The adolescents' absenteeism rate of the Middle School in Gresham was 19%, and the absenteeism rate of the at-risk adolescents who participated in formal extracurricular activities and in this study was 12%.

Chapter V

Discussion of Results

In this chapter, the study findings will be discussed. Included is an overview of the study, which includes a summary of the research procedures such as the purpose, methods, participants, findings, data analysis used and the statistical significance of the findings. A detailed discussion of the results will also be presented by going through each research question and providing previous studies to support or contradict the study results. Finally, the chapter will end with the limitations of the study leading into the conclusion section.

Overview of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore the similarities and differences between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon who are involved in formal extracurricular activities. Specifically, the participating students were assessed on their academic perceptions, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, motivations and satisfactions with family, friends, school, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction. The students in this study include at-risk adolescents ranging in ages from 10 to 17 attending participating schools in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon. To examine the impact of extracurricular activities have on satisfaction and attitudes toward school among at-risk adolescent students, a cross-sectional survey design was used. The participants in the study consisted of male and female students in grades 6 through 11 from two public educational facilities in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon. Participants in Cumbaya were 100% Hispanic/Latino and the participants in Gresham were 70% Hispanic, 15% Multiracial (Russian, Pacific Islander, and Somalian), 10% Caucasian, and 5% African American. The participants in

Gresham consisted of about 50% males and females, and in Cumbaya the males made up 94% of the participants. All students studied in this research currently participate in formal extracurricular activities.

The data collection instruments used were the Demographic Information (DI) survey, the School Attitude Assessment Survey—Revised (McCoach & Siegle, 2003), and the Multidimensional Life Satisfaction Scale (Huebner, 1994). The DI survey was developed by the primary researcher and the faculty advisor of the primary researcher in response to inputs and recommendations made by Concordia's Institutional Review Board (IRB) chair. The DI survey was created to gather basic information of the students. Items on this survey included: *"How long have you participated in the formal extracurricular activity?"* and *"What is your gender?"*

The School Attitude Assessment Survey—Revised (SAAS-R) was the second survey distributed in this study. The SAAS-R is a thirty-five-item instrument that measures five elements: general academic perceptions, attitudes toward school, attitudes toward teachers and classes, motivation and self-regulation, and goal valuation. The SAAS-R uses a seven point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree and it is made up of 35 items. Certain statements on the SAAS-R are: *"My classes are interesting"*, *"I am intelligent"*, and *"I learn new things quickly in school"*.

The Multidimensional Life Satisfaction Scale (MSLSS) was the third survey distributed in this study. The MSLSS is a forty-statement instrument that measures life satisfaction in regards to school, family, friends, living environment, and self. The MSLSS scale employs a six point Likert scale with responses ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Certain statements for this instrument are: *"I feel bad at school"*, *"I like being in school"*, and *"I learn a*

lot at school". All students participating in the study completed all three surveys. Of the 180 students informed about this research study, 74 completed all three surveys and participated in the data collection process. Consequently, the response rate was 41.1%.

The null hypotheses for the study were tested using independent t-tests and ANOVA tests. The four research questions of this study were investigated using descriptive and inferential statistical analysis with SPSS. The resulting similarities and differences between participating students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon were in the following constructs: academic perceptions, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, motivations and satisfactions with family, friends, school, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction, with respect to age, gender, and duration in the extracurricular activity were discussed.

Discussion

The discussion of the results will be per each research question. The research questions were of two main categories, questions exploring general trends of overall participants and then comparing the participants in the two different locations. The four research questions to be discussed and evaluated in this study are as follows:

1. What are the *overall* similarities between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life?
2. What *overall* differences exist among at-risk adolescent students who participate in formal extracurricular activities with respect to gender, age, duration in formal

extracurricular activities, participation in other sports, and participation in sports in general, in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life?

3. What are the differences between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life?
4. What are the differences between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities in terms of attendance (motivation) rates for school?

Question Number 1: What are the *overall* similarities between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life?

The analysis revealed on average all participating students rated each construct associated with attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life above average-to-high scores. This means in general that all participating at-risk students involved in formal extracurricular activities irrespective of the country viewed the following constructs positively: academic perceptions, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, levels of motivation and levels of satisfaction with their family, friends, school, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction. Darling, Caldwell, and Smith (2005) along with Gilman, Meyers and Perez (2004) endorsed formal extracurricular activities as the reason why students report positive testimonials related to school experiences and satisfactions within personal environments. Gilman, Meyers and Perez (2004) conducted a study that described how students' participation

in structured extracurricular activities (SEAs) impact academic and “personal-social” variables such as self-concept and life satisfaction. In conclusion, they found students’ academic and personal-social variables increase as students were engaged in SEAs. Darling, Caldwell, and Smith (2005) concluded similar findings that stated students who did not participate in formal extracurricular activities expressed lower levels of academic achievement, reduced satisfactions with life, negative attitudes toward school, and minor levels of adjustments to attain better grades in comparison to those who did participate in formal extracurricular activities.

Question Number 2: What overall differences exist among at-risk adolescent students who participate in formal extracurricular activities with respect to gender, age, duration in formal extracurricular activities, participation in other sports, and participation in sports in general, in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life?

The results revealed that overall life satisfaction in at-risk adolescents who spent a minimum of two years in sports was greater than for those who did not participate in sports. The results also revealed that the duration of participation in formal extracurricular activities of at-risk adolescent students, specifically a year to 17 months, was associated with a greater satisfaction with family in comparison to students participating in formal extracurricular activities for 6-11 months. Interestingly, at-risk adolescent students’ participation in extracurricular activities in addition to participation in other sports was associated with positive attitudes toward teachers and motivation. The study results are affirmed by the research of Stephens and Schaben (2002) and Schlessner (2004). Their studies reported, students who participated in formal extracurricular activities, such as sports, for more than one season have

higher levels of scholarships and increased personal characteristics such as career and family satisfaction. In addition, the results are supported by the works of Eccles and Roeser (2009), who claimed academic motivation, teacher-student relationships, and extracurricular activities encompass an interwoven equation where respective influences can be positive and impact each other. Additionally, as an adolescent's personal attachments to their environment increase, motivational constructs such as intrinsic motivations, self-concepts, self-perceptions, and self-confidences also increase (Dike, 2012; Eccles & et al, 1993; Gutman & Eccles, 2007). Also, within this assumption, personal environments may include family, school, extracurricular activities, and social settings (Zimmer-Gemback & et. al, 2006).

The analysis revealed gender and age, in general, do not affect the perceptions of at-risk adolescent participants in terms of attitudes towards school-related experiences and satisfaction with life. In regards to gender specifically, although Cumbaya, Ecuador had fewer girls than Gresham, Oregon, because gender overall was not statistically significant, it was appropriate to compare males and females in both locations instead of only comparing males in Cumbaya to males in Gresham.

Question Number 3: What are the differences between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate in formal extracurricular activities in terms of attitudes toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life?

The analysis of the results indicated, participating students in Cumbaya, Ecuador had higher academic perceptions, motivations, and satisfactions with school; and more positive attitudes toward teachers and school, than students in Gresham, Oregon. This finding is

supported by Davalos, Chavez, and Guardiola's (1999) which examined how extracurricular activities, perceptions of school, and ethnic identifications were associated with school retention rates among Mexican American and White non-Hispanic students. Although the students of Hispanic origin evaluated in their study were not from Latin America, they found that students who participated in extracurricular activities were 2.30 times more likely to be enrolled in school and have more positive perceptions of school than White non-Hispanic students.

In addition, a study conducted by Fuligni, Tseng, and Lam (1999) claimed Latin American adolescent students possessed stronger values for assisting, respecting, and supporting their family obligations than students of other ethnic origins. According to their study, family obligations included establishing positive experiences and social relationships at school, home, and in their community. Moreover, because many Latino populations' value collectivistic ideologies (Mallol, Holtom, & Lee, 2007) and formal extracurricular activities embrace the collectivistic principles (Fuligni, Tseng, & Lam, 1999), it brings reasons as to why this study confirmed students from Cumbaya, Ecuador had higher academic perceptions, motivations, and satisfactions with school; and more positive attitudes toward teachers and school, than students in Gresham, Oregon.

With respect to gender, in Cumbaya, Ecuador there were only two girls in comparison to 34 boys participating in the formal extracurricular activity, soccer. In Ecuador, soccer is predominantly played, in the formal context by, males. Consequently, the only statistical analysis conducted on gender comparison was for the Gresham participants. In Gresham, Oregon the sample proportion for boys and girls were relatively equal (about 50% each). The analysis showed females rated their attitude toward teachers, school, and motivation more

positively than the boys. This finding does not support previous studies which implied females have less interest in school subject such as mathematics (Catsambis, 1994) and science (Weinburgh, 1995) than boys. However the study results supported statements by Houtte (2004) and Candeias (2011) that claimed girls have higher attitudes toward school and school-related experiences than boys.

With respect to age, the results indicated that in Cumbaya, average scores for all ages were high for attitude toward school-related experiences and satisfaction with life. There was no difference across the ages. In Gresham, however, 14 year olds were distinctly less satisfied than the 11 year olds when it came to overall life satisfaction (Walsh, Clerkin, & Nic Gabhainn, 2006).

Question Number 4: What are the differences in attendance (motivation) rates for school between at-risk adolescent students in Cumbaya, Ecuador and Gresham, Oregon, who participate formal in extracurricular activities?

Unfortunately, the school in Cumbaya could not provide the absenteeism rates of the participating students, so a motivation measure was not determined for Cumbaya and a comparison of attendance rates with Gresham was not feasible. Nonetheless, the analysis was conducted on Gresham participants in comparison to its average school attendance rate. The analysis of the results revealed, the at-risk adolescent students participating in this study had a lower absenteeism average rate than the school average. This finding was contrary to the assumption that most at-risk adolescent students have lower school attendance than the average school attendance rate (Burrus & Roberts, 2014; Tackie, 2014; GradNations, 2014; Shin &

Kendall, 2013). This study used the absenteeism rate as a score of motivation, where a rate higher than the school's average, would indicate low motivation and an absenteeism rate lower than the school's average would be a measure of high motivation. This assumption is supported by many researchers who stated at-risk adolescent students who engage and remain in school encounter increased levels of academic motivation in addition to increased academic achievement, sense of belonging, and positive attitudes toward school (Bronfenbrenner, 1994; Dike, 2012; Eccles, & Roeser, 2009; Finn, 1989; Gutman & Eccles, 2007).

Limitations

Due the nature of the settings and the participants in the study, the researcher was unable to fulfill the requirements of a classical experimental design, that is, the researcher could not provide every student with an equal opportunity of being selected (randomization) so as to reduce biases. In addition, the researcher was unable to administer a pre-assessment to participants engaged in formal extracurricular activities. The researcher was also unable to include a comparative (control) group who would have been individuals similar to participants but who did not participate in formal extracurricular activities. Other limitations speak to the fact that the researcher had limited time to collect data in Ecuador and did not measure various components of the Ecuadorian culture, or other significant factors in the two different geographical settings. As a result of these limitations, the researcher made the decision to use surveys with purposive sampling to target at-risk adolescent American and Hispanic/Latino students who participated in formal extracurricular activities. It is important to note that purposive sampling works well with the cross-sectional survey design (Sanora, 2014; Tongco, 2007).

Chapter VI

Conclusion

At-risk adolescent students involved in formal extracurricular activities overall gave positive ratings to their academic perceptions, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, levels of motivation and levels of satisfaction with their family, friends, school, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction. The results of the study allow the researcher to describe at-risk adolescents participating in formal extracurricular activities as having positive ratings of school-related experiences and life satisfaction. Existing research demonstrates that typical at-risk adolescent students lack positive attitudes towards school-related experiences and life satisfaction. The researcher cannot claim formal extracurricular activities as the cause of the positive relations, but he can claim to have results supported by existing research.

The results also showed that in as little as a year to 17 months, at-risk adolescents participating in formal extracurricular activities perceived family experiences more positively than those who participate for less than a year. Also, at-risk students who participated in sports along with participation in formal extracurricular activities perceived more positive attitudes toward teachers and motivation, than those who did neither. And at-risk adolescents, who participate in sports for at least two years, have greater overall life satisfaction than those who do not participate in sports at all. Soccer was the sport played in the formal extracurricular activity of the study. It appears from these results, that participating in informal sports alone takes a longer time to show an impact on at-risk adolescents' attitudes and satisfaction with school and life. However, combining formal structured sports with informal sport impacted at-risk adolescents within a year and in multiple behaviors.

The participants in both locations consisted mainly of Hispanic/Latino adolescent students. The study found that Hispanic students participating in their country of origin Cumbaya, Ecuador had higher academic perceptions, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, motivations, and satisfactions with school, than Hispanic/Latino at-risk adolescent students, as well as other at-risk students participating in extracurricular activities in the school in Gresham, Oregon.

In Gresham, the female students viewed their teachers, school, and motivation more favorably than boys. This suggests that participation in extracurricular activities does not affect gender in the American context.

Lastly, the researcher chose to use absenteeism as a measure of student motivation. However, it was not possible to compare Cumbaya absenteeism rates with Gresham's rates because of lack of data from the school in Cumbaya. The researcher believed that examining motivation was relevant to the study, and consequently, the researcher compared the absenteeism rates of at-risk adolescents participating in formal extracurricular activities from Gresham with the absenteeism average of the middle school in Gresham. At-risk adolescent students from the school in Gresham, Oregon participating in the formal extracurricular activities had lower absenteeism rates than their school's average. The researcher viewed this unexpected result as an indicator of a high level of motivation among participating at-risk adolescents.

These conclusions are supported by the following theories and prior studies. According to the ecological theory and the stage-environment fit theory, children who participate in extracurricular activities feel a sense of belonging in their environment (school and family) and the established routine of extracurricular activities is more likely to influence psychological

emotions e.g., attitudes towards school, motivation, and school satisfaction (Bronfenbrenner, 1994; DiClemente, Salazar, & Crosby, 2013; Eccles & et. al, 1993). On the other hand, the frustration self-esteem model and participation identification model showed the impacts that frustration, self-esteem, school participation, and school identification have on school disengagement and school-related experiences (Finn, 1989; Hung, Chung, Su, & Lin, 2016; Nielsen, 2016; Van Houtte & Demanet, 2016; Voelkl, 1997).

Researchers suggest several interventions to increase student engagement in school and reduce rates of at-risk adolescent students dropping out of school. According to Marshall (2015) and Merkel (2013), extracurricular activities positively impact students' attitudes towards school and academic achievement, and at-risk adolescent students who do not participate in extracurricular activities are not as likely to succeed academically (Thompson & Austin, 2003). Specifically, formal extracurricular activities, like sports (Fujita, 2006) and afterschool programs (Lareau, 2003) impact at-risk adolescent students positively, but informal extracurricular activities, also known as leisure activities, do not (Kirschner & Karpinski, 2010).

As reasons vary case by case, more research should be conducted to further understand or find an association identifying why at-risk students drop out of school (Rumberger, 2001). Although many attempts to address this issue have taken place, there still remains a lacking of educational advancement among the at-risk adolescent population (Rumberger, 2004). By understanding significant associations, modifications in school curriculums and in extracurricular activities can be redesigned to reduce the harmful effects that cause such academic disparities (Hangauer, 2007).

Implications

The results of the current study have several implications for families and schools with at-risk adolescent individuals. Schools and parents ought to require at-risk adolescent students to participate in a formal extracurricular activity for at least a year and encourage the students to engage informally in a sport simultaneously. At the very least, the at-risk adolescent should be encouraged to participate in an informal sport for a minimum of two years.

Hispanic/Latino families in Cumbaya with at-risk adolescent children in school and those planning to bring at-risk adolescent students to school in America, as well as families in Gresham with at-risk adolescents ought to consider encouraging their adolescents to participate, for at least one year, in formal extracurricular activities. Leaders in middle and high schools in both locations ought to develop extracurricular activities for at-risk students and require the at-risk student's commitment for at least one year.

With that in mind, school board officials should consider policies that encourage formal extracurricular activities. The impact of formal extracurricular activities include improved emotional, psychological, and behavioral factors towards school engagement, which addresses disengagement issues, dropout rates, and keeps students enrolled in school. School engagement shows that evidence in academics, social acceptance, extracurricular school participation, positive feelings about teachers, positive attitudes toward school environments, and willingness to learn are strong predictors of graduation and can provide information to analyze academic performances, attitudes toward school-related experiences and overall satisfactions with well-being (Bulger & Watson, 2006; Burrus & Roberts, 2012; Tackie, 2014).

Based on the results, formal extracurricular activities should be offered to both genders and all ages of at-risk adolescent students to encourage interaction among students who rate the following constructs moderately high or high and positively: academic perceptions, attitudes toward teachers, attitudes toward school, levels of motivation and levels of satisfaction with their family, friends, school, living environment, self, and overall life satisfaction. Therefore, school board officials and educational administrators in middle and high school ought to advocate for formal extracurricular activity programs for boys and girls of all adolescent ages.

Most interestingly, participating in formal extracurricular activities together with informal extracurricular activities appeared to yield more positive results than the formal extracurricular activities alone. Schools should consider offering formal extracurricular activities with the opportunity for informal extracurricular activities as a package deal.

Since the findings showed students should participate in formal extracurricular activities for at least 12 months to positively impact attitudes toward school and motivation, school board officials and educational institutions should consider designing programs for students that engage them or require them to participate for a least 12 to 17 months. In addition, strategies must focus on encouraging at-risk adolescent students to participate in building their positive attitudes towards school and life satisfaction.

Recommendations for Future Studies

Since Hispanic at-risk adolescent students in the Cumbaya location rated attitudes toward school higher in comparison to Hispanic students in the Gresham School location, research should be conducted to explore reasons for the difference. In addition, future studies related to this research, should consider a quasi –experiment with pre and post surveys administered to at-

risk adolescent students participating in formal extracurricular activities and those not participating in formal extracurricular activity. Lastly, many constructs were analyzed concurrently in this study. One recommendation is to explore one construct for an entire study.

Summary

In summary, this study is significant because America's dropout "epidemic" (Tackie, 2014), affects the student, their family, and governmental institutions in negative ways (Dike, 2012; Hangauer, 2007; Wehlage & Rutter, 1986). If at-risk adolescent students continue to drop out of school, personal finances will decrease, the probability of these students becoming homeless will increase, governments spending to assess these members will increase (Burrus & Roberts, 2012; Dora A De La, 1998; Hammond, Linton, Smink, & Drew, 2007), and society suffers.

Specifically, this study provided insights on formal extracurricular activities as a strategy to support the unique needs of at-risk adolescent low socio-economic Hispanic/Latino (locally and globally) and African-American adolescent students. It affirmed how extracurricular activities, locally and globally, relates to at-risk adolescent students' engagement with school, which reduces chronic disengagement and dropout rates. This is important because with the steady influx of low socio-economic minorities in K-12 schools, the potential for a rise in at-risk students in K-12 schools is high, and schools need to be prepared in promoting the success of all students.

References

- Akos, P., & Kurz, M. S. (2016). Applying hope theory to support middle school transitions. *Middle School Journal, 47*(1), 13-18.
- Baker, J.A. (1999). Teacher-student interaction in urban at-risk classrooms: Differential behavior, relationship quality, and student satisfaction with school. *Elementary School Journal, 100*, 57-70.
- Becker, B. E., & Luthar, S. S. (2002). Social-emotional factors affecting achievement outcomes among disadvantaged students: Closing the achievement gap. *Educational psychologist, 37*(4), 197-214.
- Benner, D., & Hill, C. P. (Eds.). (1999). Gale encyclopedia of psychology and counseling (2nd ed.). Grand Rapids, MI: Baker.
- Bloom, B. S. (1976). Human characteristics and school learning. New York: McGraw-Hill
- Boss, S. (1998) Learning from the margins: Lessons from an alternative school. Northwest Regional Education Laboratory. Retrieved March 19, 2016, from http://www.nwrel.org/nwedu/summer_98/text2.html
- Broh, B. A. (2002). Linking extracurricular programming to academic achievement: Who benefits and why?. *Sociology of education, 69*-95.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1994). Ecological models of human development. *Readings on the development of children, 2*, 37-43.
- Brooks, R. B. (1994). Children at risk: Fostering resilience and hope. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 64*(4), 545.

- Bulger, S., & Watson, D. (2006). Broadening the definition of at-risk students. *The Community College Enterprise*, 12(2), 23.
- Burrus, J., & Roberts, R. D. (2012). Dropping out of high school: Prevalence, risk factors, and remediation strategies. *R & D Connections*, 18, 1-9.
- Candeias, A. A., Rebelo, N., & Oliveira, M. (2011). Student's attitudes toward learning and school-Study of exploratory models about the effects of socio-demographics and personal attributes. In *Proceedings of London International Conference on Education (LICE-2011)* (pp. 380-385).
- Caruba, A. (2001). Illiterate America. Enter Stage Right. Retrieved March 19, 2016, from <http://www.enterstageright.com>
- Catsambis, S. (1994). The path to math: Gender and racial-ethnic differences in mathematics participation from middle school to high school. *Sociology of Education*, 199-215.
- Cavendish, W. (2016). The role of gender, race/ethnicity, and disability status on the relationship between student perceptions of school and family support and self-determination. *Career Development and Transition for Exceptional Individuals*, 2165143416629359.
- Chin, T., & Phillips, M. (2004). Social reproduction and child-rearing practices: Social class, children's agency, and the summer activity gap. *Sociology of Education*, 77(3), 185-210.
- Combs, J., & Cooley, W. W. (1968). Dropouts: In high school and after school. *American Educational Research Journal*, 5, 343-363.
- Darling, N., Caldwell, L. L., & Smith, R. (2005). Participation in school-based extracurricular activities and adolescent adjustment. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 37(1), 51-76.

- Davalos, D. B., Chavez, E. L., & Guardiola, R. J. (1999). The effects of extracurricular activity, ethnic identification, and perception of school on student dropout rates. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 21(1), 61-77.
- DiClemente, R. J., Salazar, L. F., & Crosby, R. A. (2011). Health behavior theory for public health: Principles, foundations, and applications. Jones & Bartlett Publishers.
- Dike, D. E. (2012). A descriptive study of intrinsic motivation in three California accredited model continuation high schools (Order No. 3535792). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (1286748960). Retrieved from <http://cupdx.idm.oclc.org/login?url=http://search.proquest.com.cupdx.idm.oclc.org/docview/1286748960?accountid=10248>
- Dora A De La, R. (1998). Why alternative education works. *The High School Journal*, 81(4), 268. Retrieved from <http://cupdx.idm.oclc.org/login?url=http://search.proquest.com.cupdx.idm.oclc.org/docview/220222814?accountid=10248>
- Eady, I., & Wilson, J. D. (2004). The influence of music on core learning. *Education*, 125, 243-249.
- Eccles, J. S. (2004). Schools, academic motivation, and stage-environment fit. *Handbook of adolescent psychology*, 2, 125-153.
- Eccles, J. S., & Roeser, R. W. (2009). Schools, academic motivation, and stage-environment fit. *Handbook of adolescent psychology*.
- Eccles, J. S., Midgley, C., Wigfield, A., Buchanan, C. M., Reuman, D., Flanagan, C., & MacIver, D. [et. al] (1993). Development during adolescence: The impact of stage-environment

fit on young adolescents' experiences in schools and in families. *American psychologist*, 48(2), 90.

Eisman, A. B., Stoddard, S. A., Bauermeister, J. A., Caldwell, C. H., & Zimmerman, M. A. (2016). Trajectories of organized activity participation among urban adolescents: An analysis of predisposing factors. *Journal of youth and adolescence*, 45(1), 225-238.

Ellis, K. (2007). Literacy and national reading statistics, teaching reading. Retrieved March 19, 2016 from Educational Cyber Playground website: <http://www.educyberpg.com/literacy/stats.asp>

Feldman, A. F., & Matjasko, J. L. (2005). The role of school-based extracurricular activities in adolescent development: A comprehensive review and future directions. *Review of educational research*, 75(2), 159-210.

Finn, J. D. (1989). Withdrawing from school. *Review of educational research*, 59(2), 117-142.

Finn, J. D., & Cox, D. (1992). Participation and withdrawal among fourth-grade pupils. *American Educational Research Journal*, 29(1), 141-162.

Freeman, J., & Simonsen, B. (2015). Examining the impact of policy and practice interventions on high school dropout and school completion rates a systematic review of the literature. *Review of Educational Research*, 85(2), 205-248.

Fujita, K. (2006). The effects of extracurricular activities on the academic performance of junior high students. *Undergraduate Research Journal for the Human Sciences*, 5(1).

Fulgini, A. J., Tseng, V., & Lam, M. (1999). Attitudes toward family obligations among American adolescents with Asian, Latin American, and European backgrounds. *Child development*, 70(4), 1030-1044.

- Gilman, R., Meyers, J., & Perez, L. (2004). Structured extracurricular activities among adolescents: Findings and implications for school psychologists. *Psychology in the Schools, 41*(1), 31-41.
- GradNation. (2014). Building. Retrieved from:
http://civicenterprises.net/MediaLibrary/Docs/17548_BGN_Report_finalfull.pdf
- Grady, P. L. (2006). Increasing academic, behavioral and psychological engagement among at risk junior high students (Order No. 3248220). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (304961773). Retrieved from
<http://cupdx.idm.oclc.org/login?url=http://search.proquest.com.cupdx.idm.oclc.org/docview/304961773?accountid=10248>
- Griffin, B. W. (2002). Academic disidentification, race, and high school dropouts. *The High School Journal, 85*(4), 71-81.
- Guest, A., & Schneider, B. (2003). Adolescents' extracurricular participation in context: The mediating effects of schools, communities, and identity. *Sociology of education, 89*-109.
- Gutman, L. M., & Eccles, J. S. (2007). Stage-environment fit during adolescence: trajectories of family relations and adolescent outcomes. *Developmental Psychology, 43*(2), 522.
- Hammond, C., Linton, D., Smink, J., & Drew, S. (2007). Dropout risk factors and exemplary programs: A technical report. *National Dropout Prevention Center/Network (NDPC/N)*.
- Hangauer, J. D. (2007). The relationship between students' perceptions of school climate, attitudes towards school, and substance use among early adolescents. Retrieved at
<http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/etd/2200>
- Helge, D. (1990). A national study regarding at-risk students.

- Henry, K. L., Cavanagh, T. M., & Oetting, E. R. (2011). Perceived parental investment in school as a mediator of the relationship between socio-economic indicators and educational outcomes in rural America. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 40*(9), 1164-77.
doi:<http://dx.doi.org.cupdx.idm.oclc.org/10.1007/s10964-010-9616-4>
- Hinck, S. S., & Brandell, M. E. (1999). Service learning: Facilitating academic learning and character development. *Nassp Bulletin, 83*(609), 16-24.
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind* (Vol. 2). London: McGraw-Hill.
- Holmbeck, G. N. (1994). Adolescence. In V. S. Ramachandran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior* Vol.1 (pp. 17-28). Orlando, FL: Academic Press.
- Holt, L. J. (2007). Enhancing school engagement in urban minority youth at risk for adolescent problems (Order No. 3277295). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (304804953). Retrieved from
<http://cupdx.idm.oclc.org/login?url=http://search.proquest.com.cupdx.idm.oclc.org/docview/304804953?accountid=10248>
- Houtte, M. V. (2004). Why boys achieve less at school than girls: The difference between boys' and girls' academic culture. *Educational studies, 30* (2), 159-173.
- Huebner, E.S. (1994). Preliminary development and validation of a multidimensional life satisfaction scale for children. *Psychological Assessment, 6*, 149-158.
- Huebner, S. (2001). Multidimensional students' life satisfaction scale. *University of South Carolina, Department of Psychology, Columbia, SC, 29208*.

- Hung, C. M., Chung, C. Y., Su, Y. K., & Lin, C. C. (2016). Decision model for suspension or withdrawal of college students in Taiwan: Constructing a conceptual model. *British Journal of Education, 4*(3), 89-98.
- Jennings, G. (2003). An exploration of meaningful participation and caring relationships as contexts for school engagement. *The California School Psychologist, 8*(1), 43-51.
- Kaplan, D. S., Peck, B. M., & Kaplan, H. B. (1997). Decomposing the academic failure-dropout relationship: A longitudinal analysis. *The Journal of Educational Research, 90*(6), 331-343.
- Kelstrom, J. M. (1998). The untapped power of music: Its role in the curriculum and its effect on academic achievement. *Nassp Bulletin, 82*(597), 34-43.
- Kirschner, P. A., & Karpinski, A. C. (2010). Facebook® and academic performance. *Computers in human behavior, 26*(6), 1237-1245.
- Klem, A., & Connell, J. (2004). Engaging youth in school. *Institute for Research and Reform in Education*. Retrieved from: www.irre.org/publications/pdfs/EngagingYouth, 15(09), 2014.
- Lan, W., & Lanthier, R. (2003). Changes in students' academic performance and perceptions of school and self before dropping out of schools. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk, 8*(3), 309-332. Retrieved from <http://cupdx.idm.oclc.org/login?url=http://search.proquest.com.cupdx.idm.oclc.org/docview/18849869?accountid=10248>
- Lareau, A. (2003). Unequal childhoods: Race, class and family life. *Berkeley: University of California Press*.

- Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (2000). The effects of transformational leadership on organizational conditions and student engagement with school. *Journal of Educational Administration, 38*(2), 112-129.
- Lerman, R. I. & Schmidt, S. R. (1999). Functional literacy and labor market outcomes. Paper presented at the Urban Institute conference, Washington, DC. June, 1999.
- Lund, I. (2014). Dropping out of school as a meaningful action for adolescents with social, emotional and behavioral difficulties. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs, 14*(2), 96-104. Retrieved from <http://cupdx.idm.oclc.org/login?url=http://search.proquest.com.cupdx.idm.oclc.org/docview/1651849961?accountid=10248>
- Macaluso, S. C. (2013). The factors contributing to the increased academic performance of high school athletes (Order No. 3569907). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (1371654030). Retrieved from <http://cupdx.idm.oclc.org/login?url=http://search.proquest.com.cupdx.idm.oclc.org/docview/1371654030?accountid=10248>
- Mahoney, J. L., Lord, H., & Carryl, E. (2005). An ecological analysis of after-school program participation and the development of academic performance and motivational attributes for disadvantaged children. *Child development, 76*(4), 811-825.
- Mallol, C. M., Holtom, B. C., & Lee, T. W. (2007). Job embeddedness in a culturally diverse environment. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 22*(1), 35-44.
- Marsh, H., & Kleitman, S. (2002). Extracurricular school activities: The good, the bad, and the nonlinear. *Harvard Educational Review, 72*(4), 464-515.

- Marsh, H.W. (1990). Manual for the self-description questionnaire-II. University of Western Sydney, Campbelltown, NSW, Australia.
- Marshall, J. D. (2015). Is there an academic benefit to participating in extracurricular activities? A systemic review and meta-analysis.
- Maxwell, L. (2014). U.S. School Enrollment Hits Majority-Minority Milestone. *Education Week*. Vol. 34, Issue 01, Pages 1, 12, 14-15.
- McCoach, D. B., & Siegle, D. (2003). The MSSS: A new instrument to identify academically able students who underachieve. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 63, 414-429.
- Merkel, D. L. (2013). Youth sport: Positive and negative impact on young athletes. *Open Access Journal of Sports Medicine*, 4, 151–160.
- Meškauskienė, A. (2013). Schoolchild's self-esteem as a factor influencing motivation to learn. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 83, 900-904.
- Morse, A. B., Anderson, A. R., Christenson, S. L., & Lehr, C. A. (2004). Promoting school completion. National Association of School Psychologists. Retrieved March 19, 2016, from http://www.naspcenter.org/principals/nasap_completion.html
- National Center for Education Statistics (2010). Enrollment and percentage distribution of enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by race/ethnicity and region: Selected years, fall 1995 through fall 2023. Retrieved at: http://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d13/tables/dt13_203.50.asp
- Nielsen, K. (2016). Engagement, conduct of life and dropouts in the Danish vocational education and training (VET) system. *Journal of Vocational Education & Training*, 1-16.

- Oerlemans, K., & Jenkins, H. (1998). There are aliens in our school. *Issues in Educational Research*, 8(2), 117-129.
- Pérez, P. M., Costa, J. L. C., & Corbí, R. G. (2014). Psychometric properties of the Spanish adaptation of the School Attitude Assessment Survey-Revised. *Psicothema*, 26(3), 423-430.
- Ponter, J. R. (1999). Academic achievement and the need for a comprehensive, developmental music curriculum. *NASSP Bulletin*, 83(604), 108-114.
- Posner, J. K., & Vandell, D. L. (1999). After-school activities and the development of low-income urban children: a longitudinal study. *Developmental psychology*, 35(3), 868.
- Rumberger, R. W. (2001). Why students drop out of school and what can be done. UCLA: The Civil Rights Project / Proyecto Derechos Civiles. Retrieved from:
<http://eprints.cdlib.org/uc/item/58p2c3wp>
- Rumberger, R. W. (2004). Why students drop out of school. In Gary Orfield (Ed.), *Dropouts in America: Confronting the graduation rate crisis* (pp. 131-155). Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.
- Rumberger, R.W. & Larson, K.A. (1998). Student mobility and increased risk of high school dropout. *American Journal of Education*, 107,1-35.
- Sanora, R. (2014). The Effectiveness of using alphabet soup game towards students writing ability at MTsN Bandung.
- Schlesser, C. E. (2004). The correlation between extracurricular activities and grade point average of middle school students (Doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin-Stout).

- Shin, N. (2004). Exploring pathways from television viewing to academic achievement in school age children. *The Journal of genetic psychology*, 165(4), 367-382.
- Shin, R. Q., & Kendall, M. A. (2013). Dropout prevention: A (re) conceptualization through the lens of social justice. *The Oxford handbook of prevention in counseling psychology*, 213-225.
- Shonk, S. M., & Cicchetti, D. (2001). Maltreatment, competency deficits, and risk for academic and behavioral maladjustment. *Developmental psychology*, 37(1), 3.
- Smith, G. M. (2003). Perceptions of an intramural, extracurricular sports program in an urban middle school (Order No. 3091178). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (305302117). Retrieved from <http://cupdx.idm.oclc.org/login?url=http://search.proquest.com.cupdx.idm.oclc.org/docview/305302117?accountid=10248>
- Smyth, J., & McInerney, P. (2007). "Living on the Edge": A case of school reform working for disadvantaged young adolescents. *The Teachers College Record*, 109(5), 1123-1170.
- Stearns, E., Moller, S., Blau, J., & Potochnick, S. (2007). Staying back and dropping out: The relationship between grade retention and school dropout. *Sociology of Education*, 80(3), 210-240.
- Steele, C.M. (2010). Whistling Vivaldi: How stereotypes affect us and what we can do (issues of our time). New York, NY: W.W. Norton & Co.
- Steinberg, L. (1996). Adolescence (4th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Stephens, L. J., & Schaben, L. A. (2002). The effect of interscholastic sports participation on academic achievement of middle level school students. *Nassp Bulletin*, 86(630), 34-41.

Tackie, H. (2014). Resource guide: Not just this kid's story. *Education Trust*. November, 2014.

Retrieved from: [http://edtrust.org/wp-](http://edtrust.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/10/ButterfliesInTheHallway_ResourceGuide.pdf)

[content/uploads/2013/10/ButterfliesInTheHallway_ResourceGuide.pdf](http://edtrust.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/10/ButterfliesInTheHallway_ResourceGuide.pdf)

Thompson, F. T., & Austin, W. P. (2003). Television viewing and academic achievement revisited. *Education*, 124(1), 194.

Tobin, T., & Sprague, J. (2000). Alternative education program for at-risk youth: Issues, best practices, recommendations. In H. Walker & M. Epstein (Eds.), *Making schools safer and violence free: Critical issues, solutions, and recommended practices* (pp. 150-159). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Tongco, M. D. C. (2007). Purposive sampling as a tool for informant selection.

Van Houtte, M., & Demanet, J. (2016). Teachers' beliefs about students, and the intention of students to drop out of secondary education in Flanders. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 54, 117-127.

Voelkl, K. E. (1997). Identification with school. *American Journal of Education*, 294-318.

Walsh, K., Clerkin, P., & Nic Gabhainn, S. (2006). Emotional well-being among Irish schoolchildren.

Wehlage, G. G., & Rutter, R. (1986). Dropping out: How much do schools contribute to the problem? *Teachers College Record*. 87 (3), 374-92. In Weis, E. F., & Petrie, H.G., eds. *Dropouts From School: Issues, Dilemmas, and Solutions*. Albany, New York: State University of New York.

Weinburgh, M. (1995). Gender differences in student attitudes toward science: A meta-analysis of the literature from 1970 to 1991. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 32(4), 387-398.

Zimmer-Gembeck, M. J., Chipuer, H. M., Hanisch, M., Creed, P. A., & McGregor, L. [et. al] (2006). Relationships at school and stage-environment fit as resources for adolescent engagement and achievement. *Journal of adolescence*, 29(6), 911-933.

APPENDIX A: ASSENT/CONSENT FORM ENGLISH

Research Study Title: Extracurricular Activities and Attitudes toward School and Satisfaction with School among Adolescents
Principle Investigator: Derek Miller
Research Institution: Concordia University - Portland
Faculty Advisor: Dr. Angela Owusu-Ansah

This form is for a student and also for the parent or guardian of a student, so we use the words “you” to mean you and your student (if you are a parent of the child student).

Description of the Research Project:

You are invited to participate in a research study on attitude toward school and satisfaction (happiness) with school. The purpose of the study is to determine how students in the extracurricular activity for soccer feel toward school and their satisfaction with school. Specifically, the study measure participation in formal extracurricular activity (soccer), amount of participation in soccer, motivation (class attendance), attitudes toward school, and school satisfaction.

This study hopes to benefit students by discovering how activities can improve satisfaction (happiness) with school. We want to inform schools of ways that participation in extracurricular sports, student satisfaction, and student attendance are related. We hope you will see this research bring more programs that help your experience at school. You might not be able to see this benefit, but we anticipate that other children will see this benefit in the next year.

To be in this study, you need to volunteer to participate. Both the child and the parent (or guardian) needs to volunteer as a participant. Saying, “yes,” or “no,” will not affect your or any student’s grades or opportunities in school.

Description of Participant’s Role:

The student will be asked to circle how much they agree or disagree with the statements about his/her feelings and satisfaction about school. The types of statements include “I learn a lot at school”, “I am glad that I go to this school”, and “I don’t enjoy school activities”. Your child will also be asked to write how old they are (age) and how often they play and practice with the soccer team or other formal group sport activity. These statements and questions will be on paper, and the students write on the paper without writing their name on the paper. It will take approximately 30 minutes. This will be in their class time, but at a time when the teacher agrees that the student can have this time to fill out the surveys if the student wants to do this.

If you agree, the study will get information on the number of school days attended in the past two years of school. The number of days attended at school (school attendance) will be given by the school record office. The school will not know how you answered the questions. Only the number of days school was attended will be obtained by the school, and the school already knows this information. Therefore, this study will not provide any information about your student to the school.

Participation is voluntary. The parent or student can say “no,” and there will be no penalty and no one will be upset. You can stop participation at any time in the study.

Risks:

There are no foreseen major risk in participating in this study. The minor risk is that somehow your information is seen by another person. However, we are protecting your information.

Confidentiality:

The opinions in the survey and the attendance data will be kept private. This is done by using code numbers rather than student names. The data will not be studied with your child’s name or other identifying information. Your child’s individual privacy will be maintained, and no data will be reported or released in a way that could identify your child. We are grouping the data to report averages by class. When the study is over, all information will be deleted.

If you have questions:

Derek G. Miller is the primary researcher. If you have any questions or concerns, please just ask in person or email or telephone him at derek.gerrod.miller@gmail.com or telephone +1-336-347-8036. If you want to talk with an advocate for participants you can contact the Concordia

University Institutional Review Board (IRB) to speak to the Director of IRB, Dr. Oralee Branch, obranch@cu-portland.edu.

Consent of parent or guardian:

I,, consent (agree) for my child to participate in

(print parent or guardian name in clear letters)

this study about activities in extracurricular sports, satisfaction in school, and school

attendance. I read or was read this material about this study. I

have a copy of this material.

Signature: _____

Date: _____



Research Study Short Title: Extracurricular Activities, Attitudes and Satisfaction in School

Researcher: Derek Miller

Consent or assent for child student :

I,, volunteer to be in this study as a participant. (print student name in clear letters)

I understand that I can say “Yes” or “No.”

If I have questions, asked or I know that I can ask the researcher, Derek. I know I can ask my family member, my teacher, or my principal if I have questions now or later.

Below, I check what I volunteer to do:

Yes

I agree to answer questions on paper that ask about my feelings about school and feelings that keep me motivated or not motivated. These answers will be on a paper that does not have my name on the paper, and this will be kept private.

Yes

I agree for Derek Miller, the researcher, to ask the school the number of days I attended school in the past two years.

Signature of Student: _____

Date: _____



APPENDIX B: ASSENT/CONSENT FORM SPANISH

Estudio de Investigación Título: Actividades Extracurriculares y actitudes hacia la escuela y la satisfacción con la escuela entre los adolescentes

Investigador Principio: Derek Miller

Institución de investigación: Universidad de Concordia

Facultad Asesor: Dra. Angela Owusu-Ansah

Este formulario es para un estudiante y también para el padre o tutor de un estudiante, así que usamos las palabras "usted" para decir que usted y su estudiante (si usted es un padre del estudiante del niño).

Descripción del Proyecto de Investigación:

Se invita a su hijo a participar en un estudio de investigación sobre la actitud hacia la escuela y la satisfacción con la escuela. El propósito del estudio es determinar cómo los participantes de la actividad extracurricular para el fútbol sienten hacia la escuela y su satisfacción con la escuela. En concreto, el estudio explorará la participación en actividades formales extracurricular (fútbol), la cantidad de participación en el fútbol, la motivación (asistencia a clase), las actitudes hacia la escuela, y la satisfacción de la escuela.

Este estudio pretende beneficiar a los estudiantes mediante el descubrimiento de cómo las actividades pueden mejorar la satisfacción (felicidad) con la escuela. Queremos informar a las escuelas de manera que la participación en deportes extracurriculares, satisfacción de los estudiantes, y asistencia de los estudiantes se relacionan. Esperamos que usted verá esta investigación traer más programas que ayudan a su experiencia en la escuela. Puede que no seas

capaz de ver este beneficio, pero anticipamos que otros niños verán este beneficio en el próximo año.

Para participar en este estudio, es necesario participar voluntariamente. Tanto el niño y el padre (o tutor) debe ser voluntario como participante. Decir "sí" o "no", no afectará a sus estudiantes de los grados o las oportunidades en la escuela.

Descripción del Rol del Participante:

Se le pedirá al estudiante para rodear cuánto están de acuerdo o en desacuerdo con las declaraciones acerca de su / sus sentimientos y la satisfacción sobre la escuela. Los tipos de declaraciones incluyen "Aprendo mucho en la escuela", "Me alegro de que me voy a esta escuela", y "No me gusta las actividades escolares". También se le pedirá a su hijo que escriba la edad que tengan (edad) y la frecuencia con que desempeñan y la práctica con el equipo de fútbol o de otra actividad deportiva grupo formal. Estas declaraciones y preguntas serán sobre el papel, y los estudiantes que escriban en el papel sin necesidad de escribir su nombre en el papel.

Tomará aproximadamente 30 minutos. Esto será en el tiempo de la clase, pero en un momento cuando el profesor está de acuerdo en que el estudiante puede tener este tiempo para llenar los cuestionarios si el estudiante quiere hacer esto.

Si está de acuerdo, el estudio obtendrá información sobre el número de días escolares atendidos en los últimos dos años de escuela. El número de días de asistencia en la escuela (asistencia escolar) será dada por la oficina de registro de la escuela. La escuela no sabrá cómo contestaste

las preguntas. Sólo el número de días de la escuela asistieron se obtendrá por la escuela, y la escuela ya conoce esta información.

Por lo tanto, este estudio no proporciona ninguna información sobre su hijo a la escuela.

La participación es voluntaria. El padre o el estudiante puede decir "no", y no habrá ninguna pena y nadie se molesta. Usted puede dejar de participar en cualquier momento en el estudio.

Riesgos:

No hay riesgo importante previsto en participar en este estudio. El riesgo de menor importancia es que de alguna manera su información es visto por otra persona. Sin embargo, estamos protegiendo su información.

Confidencialidad:

Las opiniones expresadas en la encuesta y los datos de asistencia se mantendrán privada. Esto se hace mediante el uso de números de código en lugar de nombres de los estudiantes. Los datos no se estudiarán con el nombre de su hijo u otra información de identificación. Se mantendrá la privacidad individual de su hijo, y no hay datos será reportado o se libera de una manera que pueda identificar a su hijo. Estamos agrupando los datos para informar promedios por clase. Cuando el estudio ha terminado, se borrará toda la información.

Si tienes preguntas:

Derek G. Miller es el investigador principal. Si usted tiene alguna pregunta o inquietud, por favor pregunte en persona o por correo electrónico o llamarlo por teléfono al derek.gerrod.miller@gmail.com o teléfono + 1-336-347-8036. Si quieres hablar con un defensor de los participantes puede comunicarse con la Junta de Revisión Institucional de la Universidad de Concordia (IRB) para hablar con el director del IRB, el Dr. Oralee Branch, obranch@cu-portland.edu.

El consentimiento del padre o guardián:

Yo,, *acuerdo*
 (padre de impresión o el nombre del guardián en letras claras)

el consentimiento para mi hijo a participar en este estudio sobre las actividades de los deportes extracurriculares, la satisfacción en la escuela, y la escuela asistencia. He leído o me leí este material acerca de este estudio. Tengo una copia de este material y formulario sobre este estudio.

Firma: _____

Fecha: _____



Estudio de Investigación Título Abreviado:

Actividades Extracurriculares, actitudes y satisfacción en la Escuela

Investigador:

Derek G. Miller

El consentimiento o asentimiento para el estudiante:

Yo,, Voluntario para participar en

(escribe el nombre del estudiante en letras claras)

este estudio como participante. Entiendo que puedo decir "Sí" o "No"

Si tengo preguntas, pidió o yo sé que puedo pedir al investigador, Derek. Sé que puedo hacer a mi pariente, mi maestro, o de mi director si tengo preguntas ahora o más tarde.

A continuación, puedo comprobar lo que me ofrezco a hacer:

Sí

Estoy de acuerdo en responder a las preguntas sobre el papel que preguntan acerca de mis sentimientos acerca de la escuela y los sentimientos que me mantienen motivado o no motivado. Estas respuestas serán en un papel que no tiene mi nombre en el papel, y esto se mantendrá en privado.

Sí

Estoy de acuerdo para Derek Miller, el investigador, al pedir a la escuela el número de días que asistí la escuela en los últimos dos años.

Firma del estudiante: _____

Fecha: _____



APPENDIX C: LETTER TO PRINCIPAL

Dear Principal _____,

My name is Derek G. Miller and I am currently a graduate student at Concordia University-Portland conducting a study on Middle School students in the surrounding counties. The purpose of this study is to determine how participants in the extracurricular activity for soccer feel toward school and their satisfaction with school. Specifically the study will explore participation in formal extracurricular activity (soccer), amount of participation in soccer, motivation (class attendance), attitudes toward school, and school satisfaction, using surveys. There are no emotional or physical risks associated with these surveys or this study, and I will keep confidential records to protect the identities of participating students. The benefit will be to help schools to understand and improve student satisfaction, motivation, and attendance.

Within this study, the role in the student's participation is to answer a survey that I will give by handing the survey to them during class. I will explain that I want to know their opinions and I want to know their attendance records. The student answering the survey helps me know how to score their motivation level. Each student will be asked to circle how much they agree or disagree with the statements, which will be on two surveys designed to measure adolescents' feelings and satisfaction about schools. The types of statements the students will be exposed to in the study include "*I learn a lot at school*", "*I am glad that I go to this school*", and "*I don't enjoy school activities*". One survey has 35 statements (attitude towards school) and the other has 40 statements (satisfaction with school). A third small survey will be administered asking simple questions such as "*What is your gender*" and "*How long have you participated in the formal extracurricular activity?*" to get basic information of the students.

Each survey takes 10 minutes or less to complete. The student’s participation in the study will take a total of approximately 30 minutes.

In addition to asking your students if they will agree to (consent) to answer this survey, I will inform them that I need to review students’ attendance records. Therefore, I will need to get attendance records of students who say that I can get this information.

As the principal, I will come to you with a list of students who agree to me getting their attendance record. You will have the list of names who agreed, but you will not know how they answered the survey. I will not tell you, or anyone, the answers to the survey or any information that is private.

At the end of the study, if you give permission for the study, the results will be given to you in a summarized form to link factors that could improve school attendance and satisfaction.

Sign one of the statements below to let me know whether or not you are willing and able to grant me permission to survey the middle grade students in your school and/or willing to provide me the attendance data of students who agree to participate. If you have any questions, feel free to contact me at derek.gerrod.miller@gmail.com.

Regards,

Derek G. Miller

PERMISSION FORM. Sign if you give permission. If you do not give permission, but want to fill out this form, you check the box “No.” If you do not fill out the form at all, your school will not be included.

I am, the principal of
..... Middle School.

If you do not give permission to conduct this study, please check here No

If you do give permission, please check the “Yes” box to what you agree to and sign below.

Ye I agree to allow Derek Miller into the middle school classroom to **ask if the students want to participate in this study.**

Ye I agree to give Derek Miller information on school attendance for students who agree to participate and agree to their **attendance information being provided for this study.**

Signature of Principal

Date

APPENDIX D: SAAS-R ENGLISH

School Attitude Assessment Survey-Revised [SAAS-R] (McCoach & Siegle, 2003)

Instructions: This survey should take approximately 5 minutes to complete.

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements. In answering each question, use a range from (1) to (7) where (1) stands for **strongly disagree** and (7) stands for **strongly agree**. Please circle only one response choice per question.

STATEMENT	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My classes are interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I am intelligent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I learn new ideas quickly in school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I am glad to come to this school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. This is a good school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am working hard in school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I get along with my teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I am self-motivated to do my homework.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I feel good at school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. School is easy for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I like my teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. My teachers make learning interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. My teachers care about me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Doing well in school is important for my future career goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I like this school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I understand complicated concepts in school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Doing well in school is one of my goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I usually do my homework.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

IMPACT OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITES

19. It is important to get good grades in school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I am organized with my homework.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I have several ways to learn new things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I want to do my best in school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. It is important for me to do well in school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I spend a lot of time doing my homework.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Most teachers in this school are good teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I am a responsible student.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I work hard at my tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I like my classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I focus on my tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I check my homework before I turn it in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. I am able to do outstanding in everything.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. I want to get good grades in school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I am good at learning new things in school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. I am ready for school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. I am proud of this school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX E: SAAS-R SPANISH

School Attitude Assessment Survey-Revised [SAAS-R] (McCoach & Siegle, 2003)

Instrucciones: Esta encuesta debería tomar aproximadamente 5 minutos para completar. Por favor indique que tan de acuerdo o en desacuerdo está con las siguientes frases. Al responder a cada pregunta, use un rango de (1) a (7), donde (1) **significa muy en desacuerdo** y (7) **representa muy de acuerdo**. Por favor circule sólo una respuesta para cada pregunta.

DECLARACIÓN

	Completamente en desacuerdo	Completamente en desacuerdo	Completamente en desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo ni en Desacuerdo	Completamente en desacuerdo	Completamente en desacuerdo	Completamente en desacuerdo
1 Mis clases son interesantes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2 Soy inteligente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3 Aprendo ideas nuevas rápidamente en la escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4 Me alegro de venir a esta escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5 Este es una buena escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6 Estoy trabajando duro en la escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7 Me llevo bien con mis profesores.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 Me siento automotivado para hacer mis tareas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9 Me siento bien con la escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10 La escuela es fácil para mí.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11 Me gustan mis profesores.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12 Mis profesores hacen que aprender sea interesante.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13 Mis profesores se preocupan por mí.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14 Estar bien en la escuela es importante para los objetivos de mi futura	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15 Me gusta esta escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16 Entiendo conceptos complicados en la escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17 Estar bien en la escuela es uno de mis objetivos.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

IMPACT OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITES

120

18	Regularmente yo realizo las tareas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Es importante sacar buenas notas en la escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Soy organizado con mis tareas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Tengo varias maneras para aprender cosas nuevas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Quiero hacerlo lo mejor posible en la escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Es importante para mi hacer bien las cosas en la escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Dedico mucho tiempo a mis tareas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	La mayoría de profesores de esta escuela son buenos profesores.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	Soy un estudiante responsable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Me esfuerzo mucho en mis tareas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	Me gustan mis clases.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	Me concentro en mis tareas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	Reviso mis tareas antes de entregarlas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	Soy capaz de sacar sobresaliente en todo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	Quiero sacar buenas notas en la escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	Soy bueno aprendiendo cosas nuevas en la escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	Estoy listo para estar en la escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	Estoy orgulloso de esta escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX F: MSLSS ENGLISH

Multidimensional Students’ Life Satisfaction Scale [MSLSS] (Huebner, 2001)

Instructions: This survey should take approximately 5 minutes to complete.

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements. In answering each question, use a range from (1) to (6) where (1) stands for **strongly disagree** and (6) stands for **strongly agree**. Please circle only one response choice per question.

STATEMENT		Strongly Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Mildly Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I feel bad at school	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I learn a lot at school	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	There are many things about school I don't like	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I wish I didn't have to go to school	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I look forward to going to school	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I like being in school	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	School is interesting	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I enjoy school activities	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I enjoy being at home with my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	My family gets along well together.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I like spending time with my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My parents and I doing fun things together.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	My family is better than most.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Members of my family talk nicely to one another.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My parents treat me fairly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	My friends treat me well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	My friends are nice to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I wish I had different friends.*	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	My friends are mean to me.*	1	2	3	4	5	6

IMPACT OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITES

20	My friends are great	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	I have a bad time with my friends.*	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I have a lot of fun with my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	I have enough friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	My friends will help me if I need it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I like where I live.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I wish there were different people in my neighborhood.*	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I wish I lived somewhere else.*	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I like my neighborhood.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	I wish I lived in a different house.*	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	This town is filled with mean people.*	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I like my neighbors.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	My family's house is nice.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	There are lots of fun things to do where I live.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	I think I am good looking.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	I am fun to be around.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	I am a nice person.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	Most people like me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	There are lots of things I can do well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	I like to try new things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	I like myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX G: MSLSS SPANISH

Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale [MSLSS] (Huebner, 2001)

Instrucciones: Esta encuesta debería tomar aproximadamente 5 minutos para completar. Por favor indique que tan de acuerdo o en desacuerdo está con las siguientes frases. Al responder a cada pregunta, use un rango de (1) a (6), donde (1) **significa muy en desacuerdo** y (6) **representa muy de acuerdo**. Por favor circule sólo una respuesta para cada pregunta.

DECLARACIÓN

		Completamente en desacuerdo	Completamente en desacuerdo	Completamente en desacuerdo	Completamente en desacuerdo	Completamente en desacuerdo	Completamente en desacuerdo
1	Yo me siento mal en la escuela.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Yo aprendo mucho en la escuela	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Hay muchas cosas de la escuela que no me gusta	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Desearía no tener que ir a la escuela	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Deseo ir a la escuela	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Me gusta estar en escuela	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	La escuela es interesante	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Disfruto de las actividades escolares	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Disfruto estar en casa con mi familia.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Todos nos llevamos bien en la familia	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Me gusta pasar tiempo con mis padres.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Mis padres y yo hacemos cosas divertidas juntos.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Mi familia es mejor que la mayoría.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Los miembros de mi familia hablan amablemente uno con otro.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Mis padres me tratan sin preferencias.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Mis amigos me tratan bien.	1	2	3	4	5	6

17	Mis amigos son amables conmigo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Desearía tener amigos diferentes. *	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Mis amigos son malos conmigo. *	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Mis amigos son geniales	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Tengo un mal momento con mis amigos. *	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	Me divierto mucho con mis amigos.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	Tengo suficientes amigos.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	Mis amigos me ayudarán si lo necesito.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	Me gusta donde vivo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	Desearía que hubieran diferentes personas en mi vecindario. *	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	Ojalá pudiera vivir en otro lugar. *	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	Me gusta mi barrio.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	Ojalá pudiera vivir en una casa diferente. *	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	Esta ciudad se llena de gente mala. *	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	Me gustan mis vecinos.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	La casa de mi familia es agradable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	Hay un montón de cosas divertidas que hacer donde vivo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	Creo que soy guapo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	A las personas les gusta estar conmigo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Soy una persona agradable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	A la mayoría de las personas les gusta como soy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	Hay un montón de cosas que puedo hacer bien.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	Me gusta probar cosas nuevas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	Me gusta como soy.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX H: BASIC DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION SURVEY ENGLISH

Information Survey

Student Code:.....

Mark the circle below that is most correct.

1. What gender do you identify with?

- male
- female

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| <input type="radio"/> 10 years old | <input type="radio"/> 14 years old |
| <input type="radio"/> 11 years old | <input type="radio"/> 15 years old |
| <input type="radio"/> 12 years old | <input type="radio"/> 16 years old |
| <input type="radio"/> 13 years old | <input type="radio"/> 17 or more years old |

2. How old are you?

3. How many months, approximately, have you been attending this class, where you do sports as an extracurricular activity as part of the class program?

- 0-5 months
- 6-11 months
- 12-17 months
- 18-23 months
- 24 or more months

4. Do you have now or had in the past participated in any other sport activity that you do in addition to this class?

- No:** I did not participate in any other sport activity class before this class
- Yes, **before:** Before I began taking this class, I had another sport activity class or group sport meeting
- Yes, **now:** Now, I have another sport activity or group sport meeting
- Yes, **now and before:** Now, and also before, I have another sport activity or group sport meeting

5. How many months, approximately, have you participated in sports activities?

- 0-5 months
- 6-11 months
- 12-17 months
- 18-23 months
- 24 or more months

APPENDIX I: BASIC DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION SURVEY SPANISH

Encuesta Información

Código del Estudiante:.....

Marque el círculo de abajo que es lo más correcto.

1. ¿Qué género te identificas con?

- hombre
- mujer

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <input type="radio"/> 10 años | <input type="radio"/> 14 años |
| <input type="radio"/> 11 años | <input type="radio"/> 15 años |
| <input type="radio"/> 12 años | <input type="radio"/> 16 años |
| <input type="radio"/> 13 años | <input type="radio"/> 17 o mas años |

2. ¿Cuántos años tienes?

3. ¿Cuántos meses, aproximadamente, ha estado asistiendo a esta clase, donde haces el deporte como una actividad extracurricular fuera de este programa de clase?

- 0-5 meses
- 6-11 meses
- 12-17 meses
- 18-23 meses
- 24 o mas meses

4. ¿Tiene ahora o ha tenido en el pasado participó en cualquier otra actividad deportiva que lo hace además de esta clase?

- No:** Yo no he participado en cualquier otra clase de actividad deportiva antes de esta clase
- Si, antes:** Antes de que comenzara tomar esta clase, tenía otra clase o deporte grupo de actividad deportiva

- Sí , **ahora**: Ahora, además de esta clase, tengo otra actividad deportiva o reunión deporte grupo
- Sí , **ahora y antes**: Ahora, además de esta clase, y también antes, tengo otra actividad deportiva o reunión deporte grupo

5. ¿Cuántos meses, aproximadamente, has participado en actividades deportivas?

- 0-5 meses
- 6-11 meses
- 12-17 meses
- 18-23 meses
- 24 o mas meses

APPENDIX J: IRB LETTER OF APPROVAL

DATE: December 16, 2015

TO: Derek G. Miller

FROM: Concordia University – Portland IRB (CU-p IRB)

PROJECT TITLE: [807606-1] The Relationships between Formal Extracurricular Activities
and Attitudes toward School

REFERENCE #: MAIDS-20151212 Miller

SUBMISSION TYPE: new project

ACTION: APPROVED, with condition of needing approval from Oregon-based school

EFFECTIVE DATE: December 16, 2015

EXPIRATION DATE: December 16, 2016

Thank you for your submission of new project materials for this project (IRBNet # **807606-1**).

The CU-p IRB has “APPROVED with conditions” your submission. The APPROVAL has the condition that recruitment or data collection not take place in Oregon-based schools until they have approved. This approval is based on an appropriate risk/benefit ratio and a project design. All research must be conducted in accordance with this approved submission.

The stamped copy of the approved consent form has been sent to you by email and by the IRBNet system. You must use this stamped consent form. Informed consent is a process beginning with a description of the project, followed by a signed consent form, and continued via a dialogue between the researcher and research participant. Federal regulations require that each participant receives a copy of the consent document.

Please note that any revision to previously approved materials must be approved by this committee prior to initiation. Please use the appropriate revision forms for this procedure.

All UNANTICIPATED PROBLEMS involving risks to subjects or others (UPIRSOs) and SERIOUS and UNEXPECTED adverse events must be reported promptly to this office. Please use the appropriate reporting forms for this procedure. All reporting requirements of the sponsor, or other agencies, should also be followed. Furthermore, all NON-COMPLIANCE issues or COMPLAINTS regarding this project must be reported promptly to this office.

This new project, IRBNet # **807606-1**, has been determined to be a minimum risk project. Based on the risks, this project requires continuing review by this committee on an annual basis. Your request for continuing review must be received before the expiration date of December 16, 2016. Regardless of needing continuing review approval, you are required to submit your research completion close-out report by December 16, 2016. If your request for continuing review is not received or not approved, then all work other than archival data analysis must stop. Please use the appropriate reporting forms for your close-out report or the

continuing review request. Please note that all research records must be retained for a minimum of three years after the completion of the project.

If you have any questions, please contact the CU-p IRB by emailing OraLee Branch at irb@cuportland.edu. Please include your project title and IRBNet number in all correspondence.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within Concordia University's records. December 16, 2015.

Concordia University 2811 NE Holman Street Portland OR 97211 t 503-288-9371 800-321-9371 www.cu-portland.edu