



eCOMMONS

Loyola University Chicago
Loyola eCommons

Dissertations

Theses and Dissertations

2012

African American Male Student-Athletes: Identity and Academic Performance

Kathryn Mary O'Brien
Loyola University Chicago

Recommended Citation

O'Brien, Kathryn Mary, "African American Male Student-Athletes: Identity and Academic Performance" (2012). *Dissertations*. Paper 372.
http://ecommons.luc.edu/luc_diss/372

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Theses and Dissertations at Loyola eCommons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Loyola eCommons. For more information, please contact ecommons@luc.edu.



This work is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial-No Derivative Works 3.0 License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/).
Copyright © 2012 Kathryn Mary O'brien

LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

AFRICAN AMERICAN MALE STUDENT-ATHLETES:
IDENTITY AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO
THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
IN CANDIDCY FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

PROGRAM IN HIGHER EDUCATION

BY

KATHRYN MARY O'BRIEN

CHICAGO, IL

AUGUST 2012

Copyright by Kathryn Mary O'Brien, 2012
All rights reserved.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

They say it takes a village...it certainly does to write a dissertation! There are so many people to thank for their support on this journey.

First and foremost, to my family, I could not have done this without you. A special thanks to my mom who not only proofread this way too many times but also did my laundry and grocery shopping on too many occasions and to my Aunt who always cooked for me while I was writing and sent me home with food so I did not have to spend time cooking during the week.

To Chris Ferrer, my academic advisor at Purdue University and my “professional” guardian angel. Even though I did not know it at the time, you taught me how to be an amazing academic advisor—I only hope I can be half as good as you were.

Everyone at DePaul University has been so supportive: AAA—I truly never would have finished if it were not for all of you picking up my slack, making me laugh and listening to me cry. Thanks to Tina Duve and Tom Kowalski for bringing me into the AAA world (even though you hired someone else the first time) and to Jon Harris for teaching me so much (and making me laugh so often). Thanks to Terry Davis for moving on at the right time, thus allowing me to get my dream job. And thanks to Mark Gershman and Ann Anderson. If it were not for the two of you, I would never have even known about Athletic Academic Advising.

Thanks to my supportive supervisor Jim Doyle who always checked on my progress and made sure I was taking the time I needed to finish. To Lou O'Brien, Dr. Peggy Burke, Cindy Summers, Mark Laboe (who helped me create my conceptual framework), Dr. Art Munin, and Dr. Ellen Meents-DeCaigny, I cannot thank you enough for all of your support and guidance throughout this process. I am so lucky to work with all of you.

Thank you to my wonderful Athletics colleagues. When I first started, people told me AAA was the stepchild of Athletics. I have never once felt that way. I have always felt totally supported and claimed by both Student Affairs and Athletics. Special thanks to Jean Lenti Ponsetto, Kathryn Statz, Doug Bakker, Katie Ramsey and the many coaches and staff who kept me going when times got tough and who understood when I had to miss things so I could finish.

To Dr. Joel Whalen and Dr. John McEnroe, two of the most supportive faculty members at DePaul University, you always remembered to ask me about my progress and never hesitated to offer help when I needed it. To Dr. Kimberly Moffitt, thank you for all of the lessons you taught me while you were at DePaul. Many of the questions I hoped to address in this dissertation came for our conversations.

To the DePaul University Men's Basketball student-athletes and coaches from 2000-2010, especially Coach David Leitao who invited me into the day to day lives of his team. Tyler Jones for the many, many conversations we had during our breakfast club days. To Sammy Mejia, Tyler Smith, Lorenzo Thompson, Marcus Heard, Karron Clark, Cliff Clinkscales, and Wesley Green who were a true test of this White girl's ability to

work with young Black men. We did OK...thank you for letting me be a part of your world and teaching me what it is like to grow up as a Black male athlete.

To the former students and colleagues who taught me so much and helped me along this journey: Thomas Kent, Ahmadou Drame, DarQuavis Tucker, Mac Koshwal, Lamar Butler and Barron Thelmon. Thanks for your patience with my endless questions about what it was like to grow up as a Black male athlete.

To Father Dennis Holtschneider, you are the president of the largest Catholic university in the country, yet you took the time to meet with me about my research and were always very encouraging and supportive. Great leadership starts at the top and you make DePaul an amazing place to work. I am so blessed.

To my niece and nephew, Sabrina and Adam, thank you for teaching me that there is much more to life than work and for allowing me to be a part of all your fun activities, dance, cheer, baseball, basketball, etc. And Sabrina, thanks for reminding me that this was just a paper.

To Corey Wells, thanks for helping me learn about Black men when we did not even know what that meant.

To my Loyola classmates and fellow Dissertation Boot Campers: John Dahlstrand, Melissa Fisher, Scott Fech and Nat Wilburn, Paul Chelsen, Patrick Spence, Debbie Martin, Chris Waugh, Trish Dunkel and the rest of the crew from the Summer 2009 Dissertation Boot Camp at Loyola University Chicago. A special thanks to Dr. Dina Berger and Dr. Jessica Horowitz, for helping me get started before Dr. Bridget Kelly came to Loyola. A journey of a thousand miles begins with just one step and my first step was during our time together.

To Captain Black (Gene Jeffries)...the first Black man I ever met. You and my dad were the ones who taught me, not outright, but through your actions, that Black and White men could be equal, could be friends and that little White girls from the suburbs did not need to be afraid of big Black men from the city.

To Tim Spraggins, Jeff Brown, and Eric Mata, thank you for making me feel welcome at the table when issues surrounding men of color on our campus were addressed. While it was just your nature, you do not know how much it meant as not everyone was as welcoming. Tim also introduced me to Bill Cross and A.J. Franklin when they were brought to DePaul to speak. Dr. Franklin also welcomed me into this conversation with open arms. And, to Frankie Valencia, while I only met you a few times, you too were very open to my interest in the Men of Color Initiative and I greatly appreciated that. You will never be forgotten.

To the Scholar Baller creators for the advice you gave White women for working with Black male athletes...learn from them. It worked!

To my college roommate, Amber Stephenson, who introduced me to the world of Black fraternities when we were in college and all the Kappas that let Amber and her White friends be a part of the fun. To Rodney and Roderick Glass, even though I did not realize it at the time, the two of you were my first two Black friends.

To the many people at both Loyola University Chicago and DePaul University who helped me with the logistics throughout my dissertation process—Joe Filkins, Jaclyn Cameron, Jack Corliss, Tim Sacco and Lauree Garvin. A special thank you to Jaclyn Cameron, as I never could have done this without all of your help. Now it is your turn to enter the wonderful world of doctoral studies—good luck (not that you need it)!

To my colleagues in the BIG EAST Conference who let me survey their African American male student-athletes—Marvin Mitchell, David Benoit, Amy Morgan, Jen Porecca, Pat Holmes, Scott Carlin, and Eric Rienecker. Clearly, I could not have done this without you.

To the wonderful faculty members I had during my doctoral coursework—Dr. Terry Williams, Dr. Charlotte Briggs, Dr. Larry Braskamp, Dr. Terri Pigott, Dr. Leanne Kallemeyn, Dr. Janis Fine and Dr. Mark Engberg

And last, but certainly not least—thank you to my dissertation committee—Dr. Bridget Kelly, Dr. John Dugan and Dr. Robert Kelly. Thank you for the time, energy and effort you invested in my success. A special thanks to Bridget for coming to Loyola when you did. You were just the thing I needed to finish my degree—even if it took me a LONG time. It has been a pleasure working with you and getting to know you and your family. To Alex Kelly, thanks for being a three year old and making me look like less of a disaster to your mommy when we first started. Now that you are older, I am sure you put me to shame. And to Addie Kelly, thank you for not coming too early as my timeline revolved around your arrival.

And finally, to Coach Jerry Wainwright...here is our dissertation!

This dissertation is dedicated to my family (Mom, Dad, Aunt, Kevin, Kim, Sabrina, Adam and Emmie) who put up with the tears and mini breakdowns as well as the small victories and major breakthroughs. And to my guardian angels—Gram and Uncle John, thank you for looking over me during this process. Love you guys...Kiss, Cross, Knock!

To my mom who painstakingly read every single word of this dissertation many, many times. You might not have a grandbaby, but you have a **GRAND DISSERTATION!**

It's all about character
Watch your thoughts; they become words.
Watch your words; they become actions.
Watch your actions; they become habits.
Watch your habits; they become character.
Watch your character; it becomes your destiny.
—Frank Outlaw

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
ABSTRACT	xv
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
Background	1
Conceptual Framework	11
Purpose of the Study and Research Questions.....	13
Definition of Key Terms.....	17
Significance of the Study.....	19
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	27
Who are Athletic Academic Advisors (AAA)?	28
African American Men in Higher Education.....	30
PWIs Compared to HBCUs	31
Supporting Academic Success.....	35
Supporting African American Male Student-Athletes (AAMSAs).....	40
Racial Identity and AAMSAs	41
Athletic Identity and AAMSAs	42
Male Identity and AAMSAs	45
What is Racial Identity?.....	47
Racial Identity in the College Years	50
Racial Identity and Supporting African American Males.....	52
The Link Between Racial Identity and Academic Performance.....	54
What is Athletic Identity?	60
The Link Between Athletic Identity and Academic Performance	61
Jock versus athletic identity	66
What is Male Identity?.....	68
The Link Between Male Identity and Academic Performance.....	70
Multiple Identities and Intersectionality	76
Conclusion	79
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	80
Purpose and Research Questions	80
Methodological Framework.....	82
Research Design and Method	83
Study Approval	83

Participants.....	84
Method and Instruments	90
MIBI.....	91
MRNS	94
AIMS.....	96
Demographic Questionnaire	97
Data Preparation and Analysis.....	98
Ethical Considerations and Confidentiality	99
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS	102
Descriptive Statistics.....	103
Factor Analysis	104
Reliability Testing.....	106
MIBI.....	106
MRNS	107
AIMS.....	108
Partial Correlations	108
Post-Hoc Analyses	111
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION.....	112
Summary of Findings.....	112
Factor Analysis	113
Reliability Testing.....	113
Partial Correlations	114
Interpretation of the Findings.....	116
Limitations	119
Implications for Practice	122
Implications for Policy Development	127
Implications for Future Research.....	129
Accessing the Population.....	130
Use of the Scales within AAMSA Populations	132
Survey Logistics.....	134
Context.....	135
African American males and survey research	135
Electronic versus pen and paper surveys	136
Timing.....	138
Survey length	139
Incentives	140
Areas in Need of Further Study	142
Conclusion	145

APPENDIX A: MULTIDIMENSIONAL INVENTORY OF BLACK IDENTITY	146
APPENDIX B: ATHLETIC IDENTITY MEASUREMENT SCALE.....	151
APPENDIX C: MALE ROLE NORMS SCALE	153
APPENDIX D: DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE	156
APPENDIX E: BIG EAST INSTITUTIONS AND SPONSORED SPORTS FOR MEN.....	159
APPENDIX F: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH.....	163
APPENDIX G: LETTER OF COOPERATION.....	166
APPENDIX H: SAMPLE E-MAIL TO ATHLETIC DIRECTORS	168
APPENDIX I: SAMPLE E-MAILS TO INSTITUTIONAL CONTACTS	170
APPENDIX J: AIMS, MRNS AND MIBI MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS	174
REFERENCES	184
VITA	196

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Profile of the 16 BIG EAST Institutions	85
Table 2: Approximate Percentage of African American Male Student-Athletes in each Sport at BIG EAST Institutions	87
Table 3: Pattern and Structure Matrix for PCA with Oblimin Rotation of Two Factor Solution of AIMS Items.....	105
Table 4: Partial Correlations Between Identity Variables and Self-Reported College GPA	110

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Conceptual Model for Current Research.....	13
Figure 2: Multidimensional Model of Racial Identity	92
Figure 3: Male Role Norms Scale.....	95
Figure 4: Athletic Identity Measurement Scale	97
Figure 5: Proposed Model of African American, Male, Athletic Identity and its link to Academic Performance.....	100

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the current research was to examine racial, male and athletic identities and their individual and collective impact on the academic performance of African American male Division I student-athletes (AAMSAs). Data was collected using the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (MIBI), the Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS), and the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS). The MIBI is a measure of racial identity and is comprised of seven subscales: (1) centrality, (2) private regard, (3) public regard, (4) assimilation, (5) humanist, (6) minority, and (7) nationalist. The MRNS takes status, toughness and antifemininity into account to calculate a masculinity score. Finally, athletic identity can be measured by the AIMS, which attempts to quantify the level of importance and centrality athletics has in a person's life. Academic performance was measured by a student's self-reported GPA.

The aim of the study was to gather data that will better inform the work of athletic academic advisors (AAA) in the hope that it will allow the profession to best serve the AAMSA population. The goal was to determine if a link exists between any of the identities of interest and academic performance and what, if anything, AAAs need to know based upon the results. The stated purpose of this research was explored using two primary research questions:

1. To what extent are measures of racial, male, and athletic identities (MIBI, MRNS, and AIMS) psychometrically sound when used with a sample of AAMSAs?
2. To what extent do racial, male and athletic identities influence AAMSA's academic performance above and beyond what is accounted for by demographic variables?

The goal of this research was to determine if these non-cognitive factors impact the academic performance of AAMSAs in order to further inform the work of athletic academic advisors as they seek to increase the retention and graduation of this population.

The following four hypotheses were tested:

1. Black racial identity, as measured by the MIBI, will have various relationships with academic performance based on the subscales of the MIBI. High public and private regard scores will be positively related to academic performance. Nationalist and oppressed minority ideologies will have a negative relationship to academic performance while the assimilation and humanist subscales will be positively related. Centrality will have a curvilinear relationship with academic performance.
2. Male identity, as measured by the MRNS, will be negatively related to academic performance.
3. Athletic identity, as measured by the AIMS, will be negatively related to academic performance.
4. The combination of racial identity, athletic identity and male identity will be a stronger predictor of academic performance than any one of the variables individually. Depending on the various combinations of racial ideology, regard and

centrality, the relationship between racial identity and academic performance may be positive or negative.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

In this first chapter, I provide background information about myself as a researcher and the journey that brought me to this line of inquiry. Next, I explain the conceptual framework for the current research, discuss the purpose of the study, pose the research questions to be addressed, define key terms and make a case for the significance of the study. Chapter Two reviews the pertinent literature on African American male Division I student-athletes (AAMSAs) and Chapter Three provides an overview of the methodology and research design used in the study. In Chapter Four, I discuss how the data was prepared and analyzed as well as the results of the analysis. In the final chapter, I summarize my findings and discuss what they mean for practice and future research.

Background

How is it that a White woman from the suburbs found her passion in providing academic support to AAMSAs? When I tell people the focus of my research, the look on their faces is priceless. But, in retrospect, several people and experiences have brought me to this point. First and foremost, I grew up knowing that my dad's best friend was Black...Captain Black to be exact. They were buddies. We called him Captain Black and he called my dad Honky. My dad told stories about growing up on the Southside of Chicago and never getting into a fight until he went to an all White school. When he was one of only a few White students at a predominantly Black school, he never had any

problems. My dad taught me that Black and White men were equal, that they could be friends and it was just that simple—at least that is what I thought when I was younger.

Captain Black was the only person of color I knew well until I went to college. My grade school, junior high and high school were like most Northwest Suburban schools at that time—almost completely White. The only diversity I remember is the family down the street who fostered an African American girl my age, an Indian family who lived across the street, and a Persian classmate in high school. Other than a pair of Mexican brothers who were part of my social circle in high school, all of my friends were White as were my teachers and pretty much everyone with whom I interacted.

Fast forward to college, my White roommate was a little sister at a Black fraternity and I was an athletic training major. Almost every party I went to was a “Black” party and I was in the minority. But, it did not seem to matter to anyone. When I did my athletic training observation hours, I came into contact with many AAMSAs. I did not really think anything of it. My original career plan was to be a physical therapist, but when my 3.0 GPA was not good enough to get me into a physical therapy program after my undergraduate career, I had to find Plan B. I enrolled in DePaul’s MBA program with my heart set on a career in sports marketing. I knew I wanted to work in sports. While in graduate school, I was given the opportunity to serve as a Graduate Assistant (GA) in the College of Commerce. The position paid for school so it seemed to be a no-brainer that I would jump at the chance to be a GA. At the time, my brother was playing basketball in college and my supervisor observed that I liked “all that basketball stuff” and asked me to advise student-athletes in preparation for registration each quarter.

Another fast forward and I am working full-time in Athletic Academic Advising (AAA) at DePaul University. After working in the department for about a year, I was named Acting Director and given the responsibility and opportunity to work with our Men's Basketball student-athletes. When I first began working with this group, then Senior Associate Director of Athletics, Jean Lenti Ponsetto, a White woman, told me I better learn more about Black men if I wanted to be successful. I had no idea what that meant. I called my friend Corey, an African American male who played basketball in college and told him the story. He asked me what Jeanne meant. I vividly remember asking him how I was supposed to know, if he did not.

I always knew I wanted to work in sports, but did not know that positions like mine existed. So there I was, with my dream job in sports, being told I did not know what I needed to in order to be successful. How was that possible? I considered myself to be very open-minded; thought I could work well with others, but it seemed my ability to work with African American men was being questioned. Not only was I confused, but a bit offended to be honest. After reflecting on my own race, both personally and through my course work in the doctoral program, as well as learning about Black racial identity in class and via professional development opportunities at DePaul, I now understand what Jeanne meant.

I knew this group typically struggled academically, but I always assumed it was because of lack of preparation or effort because they all thought they were going to "the league." It was not until I was able to observe these men, day in and day out, that I saw that there was much more to the story than that. For the first part of my career, I assumed

it was race that made me different from these men. Dr. Kimberly Moffitt, a popular African American communications professor at DePaul University was the first to tell me that race was not an issue for these men working with me. They all had her class and knew I “had their backs.” She explained to me it was our backgrounds that made us different. I have no idea what it was like to be afraid to live in the neighborhood where I reside. I have never lost a loved one to violence or visited one in jail. I never worried from where my next meal was coming. I never experienced walking down the street and having someone cross to the other side because they were afraid of me. I have never been pulled over by the police because of my race and/or gender. And, I certainly have not been told since I was five years old that I was the next Michael Jordan. I did not know it at the time, or maybe I just did not have the words to articulate it, but Dr. Moffitt was introducing me to “White Privilege” (McIntosh, 1988).

I consider my work with our men’s basketball program, to be the beginning of my journey to this line of research. Little did I know at the time that their stories, the time we spent together, learning from each other, would shape the scholar I am today. I was invited into a world that few people like me get to experience. I was a White woman from a middle-class suburb of Chicago and the vast majority of these men were African American, several coming from backgrounds I had only heard about or seen on television. We ate breakfast together, traveled to away competitions together and most of all we bonded. Even though I never wanted to admit it, in some ways I was old enough to be their mothers and that is what I was to some of them...their mom away from home.

As I walked a group to the location where they would take their placement tests, I was making small talk and asked one if he had siblings. He responded immediately and emphatically “hell no, Ms. Kate, hell no.” I was still trying to process his response when one of the other guys chimed in “brothers and sisters man, not kids.” Being a White female from the suburbs, it would have never crossed my mind that someone would ask me if I had kids, especially when I was just beginning college. Obviously this student’s experiences and expectations for who could be a parent were very different from mine.

It took some time for me to earn their trust. They knew I had their academic best interests at heart from the very beginning, but it was not until I earned it, that they let me into their worlds. One grew up in such poverty that his coach told me he had never seen anything like it when he visited this student in his home during the recruiting process. This same student admitted to me that he never had to go to class in high school because he played ball. He carried his school books in a plastic grocery store bag. Another was the son of a former NBA star who was doing time because of drugs. His mother was left to raise and support four children as a single parent. This same student faced serious surgery as a freshman and had an injury plagued career. A third was the son of a very proud, hard working mom who did not understand what a credit hour or GPA was. She made me promise to take good care of her baby when we met during his recruiting visit. The fourth, a local student, came to my office the second day of his freshmen year for help with a paper because he knew college was a whole new world. While in school he lost both his father and the grandmother who raised him. The final young man was the youngest in a large family and in many ways was the golden child upon whom many

dreams rested. Three of the five were the first in their families to attend college and all were only given the opportunity at a higher education because of basketball. These are just a few of the men whose paths crossed with mine during the four years I served as the academic advisor to DePaul's men's basketball team.

Given my upbringing, I came to my role with what I call a kumbaya philosophy. I did not understand why we could not all just get along or why we are not all really the same. It took me a while to realize that just because I was not raised with the typical stereotypes of Black men that many of my peers were, did not mean that I was more advanced. In some ways, my openness stemmed from naiveté just as some people's close-mindedness does. I distinctly remember sitting in a hotel conference room listening to two African American male presenters educate the audience on a program they implemented for football student-athletes in Arizona. One woman in the audience asked the question I did not even know needed asking: "what do you do if you are a White chick from the suburbs working with a football or men's basketball team?" The answer she received was simple—learn from them.

I really took that advice to heart. I was so conditioned to think of myself as the teacher that I forgot I could be a student as well. As the guys became more comfortable letting me help them, I became more comfortable letting them teach me as well. When one complimented me on a scarf I was wearing I thanked him and said "yea, isn't it cute?" He rolled his eyes at me and corrected me—tight, Kate, it's tight. From then on, I knew things that were cool or cute to me, were tight to them. That is just one silly example of how our relationships evolved.

When I took over working with the team, their academics were a disaster. Several had GPAs below a 2.0, eligibility was always a concern and the coach was on the hot seat. At the same time I was named Director of Athletic Academic Advising (AAA), a new head men's basketball coach, Dave Leitao, was hired as the first African American head coach at DePaul University and our Senior Associate Athletic Director was promoted to Athletic Director. The new coach required the team to meet every morning between 8 and 9 a.m. for breakfast and asked that I attend. So, I did. We did many of the things that the research tells us are important in supporting African American men in higher education. Like other professionals in my field, I met with these students frequently. My office provided tutoring at no cost to them. We provided Life Skills programming. We were required to by the NCAA. The NCAA requires Division I institutions to provide academic support to their student-athletes. Things started to improve, but not to the level I would have liked. I began asking why schools across the country provide some of the best academic support available to their student-athletes (tutors, learning specialists, priority registration and academic support on the road) yet, as a group, these men were not faring well.

If schools like ours were doing their best to support these students academically, why were their graduation rates so low? The puzzle pieces started falling into place...not answers, just the questions. I saw firsthand how these men were looked at walking through airports, hotel lobbies and on campus. Some onlookers were in awe, others frightened. I heard the stories about being questioned about an attack in the neighborhood even though the offender was described as a Black male, five foot nine

inches tall and the person being questioned was six foot six inches tall. I saw these students get really excited about doing well on a paper or exam and at other times feel the pressure of not doing well academically. I watched them win and lose games and how this ebb and flow affected their schoolwork. I learned about the insecurities they had speaking up in class because people knew who they were and they did not want to appear stupid in front of their peers. They talked about being the only Black man in some of their classes and their perceptions of how faculty saw them based on their race, gender and athletic status. Some on campus assumed they were majoring in basketball and had no interest in academics. One was even embarrassed to wear his gear to class because of the negative stereotypes associated with being an African American male basketball player. Some were fathers or became fathers during their collegiate careers. One came to campus with only three shirts and three pairs of pants...no sheets for his bed, no school supplies, no idea of what it meant to be in college.

During my doctoral course work, I read about racial identity and wrote a paper on one of these young men. It seemed that race had a significant influence on his life experiences. But, so did the fact that he was a student-athlete. He was pulled over the night of his high school graduation by a White male police officer for no apparent reason other than that he was in the White part of town. When asked, he provided the officer with his license and proof of insurance. The officer said “thank you Mr. Adams, you’re going to be playing ball at DePaul next year, right?” Since he was, the officer congratulated him on his graduation, wished him luck in college and sent him on his way. I started to wonder if racial identity had any bearing on the academic performance of

these students. This particular student did well in school. He also took race based experiences in stride unlike some of his teammates who seemed to be angered by them.

It became obvious to me that there was much more at play than underpreparedness or lack of academic motivation. My interest in this line of research became solidified while exploring the literature on Black men in higher education as part of my comprehensive exam process. I read that some see “African American males as victims of their own coping strategies” (Osborne, 1999, p. 558). Not long after I read and began to ponder this, DePaul’s then Men’s Basketball coach raised the same issue. Coach Wainwright, a White man, explained to me that asking for help goes against the way Black men are socialized in U.S. society. I also heard a speaker, Vijay Pendakur, an Asian American, educate his audience on students of color and their social capital deficit and low help seeking behaviors.

While research has been conducted to identify programs and services that assist African American men in higher education and scholars have looked at the link between each of these identities and academic performance, a gap exists. How do these three identities—race, gender and athletic status—work together and how does the combination affect academic performance in AAMSAs? My experiences tell me we have to look deeper at the root causes of this issue, the source if you will, more so than at the support, the band-aid, we provide to our students. We spend so much time looking at inputs (high school GPA and test scores) and being judged on our outputs (graduation rates and APR scores). But there has to be more. These men are more than a test score

or a GPA. They bring their race, gender and athletic status with them to college and I believe all three impact their academic performance.

My interest and passion are student-athletes and given the additional factors at play, the typical programs and services we are using to support this population may not be enough. Research has shown what is needed to help these men succeed, but little has been done to try and explain how their identification as AAMSAs affects their academic performance. I know trust is an important factor in their success and I am confident most Division I schools are providing excellent academic support to their student-athletes. Now it is time to go one step further to begin unraveling some of these complexities in order to better serve this population.

Of the five AAMSAs discussed above, three earned degrees from DePaul University. One left after his freshmen year and another after completing his eligibility. The three that graduated were not necessarily the most gifted of the five or the most academically prepared when they arrived on campus. But they graduated. What made them different than the other two? One of the three is currently enrolled in graduate school. On paper, high school GPA and test scores, it may have appeared that this student would never pursue an advanced degree, but he is.

In 2005, the NCAA upped the ante academically. They were going to grant students greater access to playing sports in college but they were going to hold schools accountable for the retention and eligibility of their student-athletes each academic term. In layman's terms, it was going to be easier to get in, but harder to stay. After the first few years of this system, schools that did not perform as well as they were expected to

academically, like DePaul, faced penalties from the NCAA such as a loss of scholarships, a ban on post season play and, for repeat offenders, restricted membership in the organization.

This change, like others before it, brought heightened awareness to the academic support institutions were providing. Previous changes by the NCAA, all with good intentions of increasing the academic success and graduation of student-athletes, were viewed as racist by some in that they disproportionately impacted Black student-athletes (Johnson, 1989). But what is it about being Black, a male and an athlete that makes this group distinct from their White and African American female peers?

I now serve as the Director of Athletic Academic Advising and no longer work with our men's basketball team on a day-to-day basis. Giving them up was very difficult for me but then I realized that I was in a unique position to help them, even if I was not their go to person on a daily basis. In my role as a member of both our Vice President for Student Affairs and our Athletic Director's leadership teams, I am in a position to ask different questions.

Conceptual Framework

Just as I cannot ever shed my White female identity or separate the two, it is not possible to separate the identities these men wear. They are Black. They are men. They are student-athletes. How these three identities combine to influence their academic performance was the focus of this research. The conceptual framework used in this study made the assumption that these three identities impact academic performance individually and in the various combinations they provide (Black and male, Black and

athlete, male and athlete). But a further assumption of this research was that in addition to the individual and combined effects of these identities, the collective nature of all three is crucial and an AAMSA is just that. He is a man. He is Black. He is an athlete. While at one point, becoming an athlete was a choice, by the time a student enrolls and competes at a Division I institution, being an athlete is part of his identity. On any given day he cannot change his identity as he does his shirt, so therefore that is the lens through which he sees the world and the world sees him. That is how he interacts with the academy and how the academy receives him.

Figure 1 provides a visual depiction of the conceptual framework for the current research. It is based on three already existing constructs—racial, male and athletic identity—and three established instruments for assessing these concepts in college-aged subjects—the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (MIBI), the Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS) and the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS). It makes the assumption that each of these identities is not mutually exclusive, rather they each are a part of an AAMSA's multiple social identities. The research aimed to investigate the relationship between and amongst the three identities to determine how, if at all, they influence an AAMSA's academic performance.

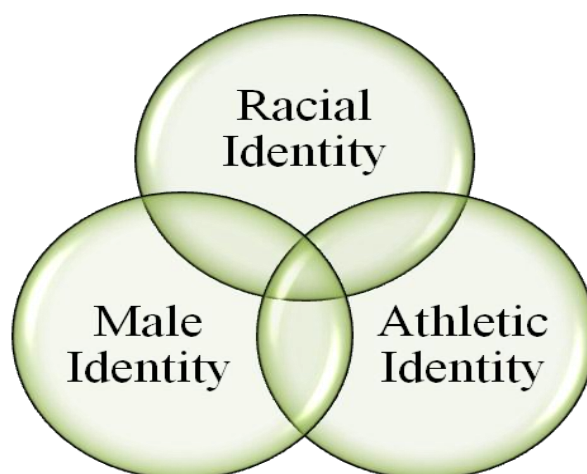


Figure 1. Conceptual Model for Current Research

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The statistics speak for themselves. AAMSAs graduate at lower rates than their White male or African American female peers (NCAA, 2009). This begs the question—what is it about being Black and male that impacts this group’s academic performance? The assumption is that there has to be a combination of both race and gender at play. Given that the statistics for White men are better it cannot be just about being a male—White male athletes graduate at a rate of 60% versus 48% for AAMSAs (NCAA, 2009). And given that Black women also fare better, it cannot just be about race—African American female student-athletes hold a 64% graduation rate (NCAA, 2009).

If it is perceived as not manly to ask for help, but statistics show that as a group these students come in less prepared for college level work than their peers, it seems to follow that those who subscribe to stereotypical male gender roles would be less likely to seek academic assistance and therefore not do as well academically. And, if education, especially higher education, and academic success are viewed as a White thing, then it

follows that those who are in an anti-White phase of their racial identity development, may not be as willing to devote as much time and energy as they need to in order to succeed academically because it would be acting White.

I am also interested in the athletic identity piece because in my experience, I have heard too many stories about how school does not matter because “I’m going to the league.” If athletics is central to a student’s identity and he believes a professional career is in his future, he might be less willing to invest the time and energy needed to succeed academically. Given that the majority of AAMSAs participate in football and basketball, how do racial identity and Black male identity influence the academic performance of those in sports without professional opportunities? Does participation in football and basketball have a different relationship to academic performance than track or lacrosse where there are less professional opportunities? Is the difference linked to athletic identity?

The purpose of the present research was to examine racial, male and athletic identities and their individual and collective impact on the academic performance of African American male Division I student-athletes (AAMSAs). Data was collected using the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (MIBI), the Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS), and the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS). The MIBI is a measure of racial identity and is comprised of seven subscales: (1) centrality, (2) private regard, (3) public regard, (4) assimilation, (5) humanist, (6) minority, and (7) nationalist. The MRNS takes status, toughness and antifemininity into account to calculate a masculinity score. Finally, athletic identity can be measured by the AIMS, which attempts to

quantify the level of importance and centrality athletics has in a person's life. Academic performance was measured by a student's self-reported GPA.

The aim of the study was to gather data that would better inform the work of athletic academic advisors (AAA) in the hope that it will allow the profession to best serve the AAMSA population. The goal was to determine if a link exists between any of the identities of interest and academic performance and what, if anything, AAAs need to know based upon the results. The stated purpose of this research was explored using two primary research questions:

1. To what extent are measures of racial, male, and athletic identities (MIBI, MRNS, and AIMS) psychometrically sound when used with a sample of AAMSAs?
2. To what extent do racial, male and athletic identities influence AAMSA's academic performance above and beyond what is accounted for by demographic variables?

The goal of this research was to determine if these non-cognitive factors impact the academic performance of AAMSAs in order to further inform the work of athletic academic advisors as they seek to increase the retention and graduation of this population.

The following four hypotheses will be tested:

1. Black racial identity, as measured by the MIBI, will have various relationships with academic performance based on the subscales of the MIBI. High public and private regard scores will be positively related to academic performance. Nationalist and oppressed minority ideologies will have a negative relationship to academic

performance while the assimilation and humanist subscales will be positively related.

Centrality will have a curvilinear relationship with academic performance.

2. Male identity, as measured by the MRNS, will be negatively related to academic performance.
3. Athletic identity, as measured by the AIMS, will be negatively related to academic performance.
4. The combination of racial identity, athletic identity and male identity will be a stronger predictor of academic performance than any one of the variables individually. Depending on the various combinations of racial ideology, regard and centrality, the relationship between racial identity and academic performance may be positive or negative.

The present study was quantitative and non-experimental in nature as there was no manipulation of the variables and the hope was to identify relationships between and amongst the variables (McMillan, 2004). Data was collected via Opinio (an online survey tool). For the purposes of this study, academic performance (self-reported GPA) served as the dependent variable while racial, male and athletic identities functioned as the independent variables. The hypotheses tested were both deductive and inductive in that they were formulated based on both a review of the literature and the researcher's experiences working in an academic support unit for student-athletes at a Division I institution (McMillan, 2004).

Definition of Key Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following terms are used as described below:

AAMSA: For the ease of reading, AAMSA was used to categorize the population as African American male Division I student-athletes.

Academic performance: In this study, academic performance was measured by a student's self-reported GPA. Other academic variables such as high school GPA, year in school and major were categorized as demographic variables for the purposes of this study.

African American/Black: These two terms are used interchangeably to categorize a person who self-identified as being of African or Black descent. Students who identified as multi-racial as well as those who are international students were also included in this study.

Athletic identity: For the purposes of this research, athletic identity was defined as the degree to which a student identifies as someone who participates in a competitive, organized sport.

Division I/DI: While more complex in reality, the term Division I or DI, referred to the highest level of amateur athletic competition in the United States. Students who compete at such an institution are often highly recruited, decorated in their chosen sport, the recipient of a scholarship and highly visible on their respective campuses and sometimes nationwide.

Male identity: For the purposes of this study, male identity was defined as the degree to which a participant subscribed to traditional gender norms. The more deeply

entrenched these beliefs are engrained in the subject, the more likely it is that he believes it necessary and important to “be a man” and in order to do so follow specific guidelines in establishing his masculinity.

National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA): The NCAA is the governing body of intercollegiate athletics to which institutions voluntarily subscribe.

Racial centrality: The term is used in this study as defined by the African American Racial Identity Lab (AARIL, n.d.): “the centrality dimension of racial identity refers to the extent to which a person normatively defines her/himself with regard to race” (para. 3).

Racial identity: Using the MIBI, this study hoped to categorize a subject’s level of racial identity—how he views his race, how he thinks others view his race and how central his race is to his identity—in order to assess where on the continuum of racial identity he fell.

Racial ideology: Is used as defined by the AARIL (n.d.):

ideology, is the individual's beliefs, opinions, and attitudes with respect to the way s/he feels Blacks should act. This dimension represents the person's philosophy about the ways in which African Americans should live and interact with society. Four ideologies are proposed: (1) a nationalist philosophy, characterized by a viewpoint that emphasizes the uniqueness of being of African descent; (2) an oppressed minority philosophy, characterized by a viewpoint that emphasizes the similarities between African Americans and other oppressed groups; (3) an assimilation philosophy, characterized by a viewpoint that emphasizes the similarities between African Americans and the rest of American society; and (4) a humanist philosophy, characterized by a viewpoint that emphasizes the commonalties amongst all humans. Although some individuals can be categorized as possessing one ideology predominantly, but [sic] it is likely that most people hold a variety of ideological philosophies that vary across areas of functioning. (para. 4)

Racial regard: Also is used as defined by the AARIL (n.d.): “regard, refers to a person’s affective and evaluative judgment of his/her race” (para. 5). This dimension has two components—public and private regard (AARIL). “Private regard refers to the extent to which individuals feel positively or negatively toward African Americans and their membership in that group...public regard refers to the extent to which individuals feel that others view African Americans positively or negatively” (AARIL, n.d., para. 5).

Student-Athlete: As opposed to just labeling participants as athletes, the term student-athlete is intentionally used throughout this study to represent the dual role these students play as both a *student* (a person matriculating toward a college degree) and an *athlete* (one who competes in an NCAA sponsored sport at the Division I level). While AAMSA is used throughout this manuscript, the intention was always to remember these men are students and athletes.

Significance of the Study

Neal (2005) claimed that “Black men are in crisis” (inside flap). Maxwell (2004) called on educators to “help end this crisis” (para. 7) and warned that Black men may in fact become an “endangered species” if nothing is done. “Black men make up 41 percent of the inmates in federal, state, and local prison, but Black men are only 4 percent of all students in American institutions of higher education” (para. 6). In his article, Maxwell (2004) identified several obstacles to higher education for this population which include poor public education, lack of role models, being subject to low expectations, low self-esteem and low aspirations. Rossi (2006), citing researcher Jenny Nagaoka, called the college graduation rates for Chicago Public School alumni “appalling” (para. 4). Rossi

stated that the current statistics for 9th graders in Chicago Public Schools indicated that only 3% of African American and Hispanic men will have earned a four-year degree by the time they hit their mid-twenties. Harper (2006a) called the enrollment rates of African American men in college alarming. He contended that Black men represented the same percentage of students enrolled in higher education, 4.3%, in 2002 as they did in 1976.

The goal of this research was to examine AAMSAs from three specific vantage points: racial identity, athletic identity and male identity. The focus is limited to African American men as statistics show African American women are faring better than their male counterparts as is evidenced by their 2-to-1 and sometimes 3-to-1 ratio on college campuses, which represents the largest difference between men and women for any race (Cuyjet, 1997, 2006; Schmidt, 2008). The margin between African American women and men earning degrees over the past 10-15 years has increased even though these men have made progress—18% hold bachelors degrees now as opposed to 13% in the mid-90s (Schmidt, 2008). According to Harper (2006a), Black men graduate at a lower rate than all other races and ethnicities—less than a third obtain a degree within six years of starting college. Additionally, this population has different needs than their female peers or other men of color (Cuyjet, 2006; LaVant, Anderson & Tiggs, 1997). According to Bonner and Bailey (2006), there are five key factors that play a role in the academic success of African American male college students: “peer group influence, family influence and support, faculty relationships, identity development and self-perception, and institutional environment” (p. 25). As part of the Personal Development component

of the NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills Program, AAAs could potentially help AAMSAs improve their academic self-perception and assist them on their identity development journey.

While some authors have addressed the concerns of this population across all levels of education, the focus here is on their college years and specifically those years spent at predominantly White institutions (PWIs). The focus is on PWIs because National Center for Education Statistics data showed that 87.5% of Black college students attend a PWI (Harper, 2006a). Additionally, this study looked at this specialized population at BIG EAST Conference institutions, all of which are PWIs.

Considered to be one of the nation's premiere athletic conferences and arguably the most competitive in many of the sponsored sports, the BIG EAST Conference is comprised of 16 member institutions (see Appendix E for a list) and sponsors 24 sports, 11 for men (see Appendix E for a list) and 13 for women. Seven schools are public, while the other nine are private—eight of the 16 institutions are Catholic. At 32 years old, the BIG EAST is the “largest Division I-A Conference” and home to over 5,500 student-athletes (BIG EAST Conference, 2010). Division I-A is the label used to categorize schools and conferences which sponsor college football at the highest level—conferences and athletic departments are classified based on whether they sponsor football as well as their level of football competition if they do. Also referred to as the Football Bowl Subdivision or Bowl Championship Series, these institutions must meet “minimum attendance standards” at each of their home football games and “comply with higher standards for sports sponsorship...and overall financial aid” (NCAA, 2010a).

Nine of the 16 member institutions hail from cities that top the nation's list of largest media markets and the conference's media reach extends to 25% of homes nationwide (BIG EAST Conference). This gives many BIG EAST student-athletes the opportunity to compete on a nationwide stage. In its history, member institutions in six sports have racked up 28 national titles and 128 individuals have been national champions, while 575 student-athletes garnered All-American recognition and 400+ have been named Academic All-Americans (BIG EAST Conference).

Overall, NCAA (2009) data revealed that member institutions graduate 48% of their AAMSAs while African American men who do not compete in intercollegiate athletics graduate at a rate of 38%. Sixty-four percent of African American female student-athletes graduate while 50% of their non-athlete peers do so. White male student-athletes graduate at a rate of 60% as opposed to 62% of those who are not student-athletes (NCAA, 2009). While the number of AAMSAs graduating is greater than their non-student-athlete peers, the fact that less than half graduate is alarming.

Why does the underrepresentation of African American men on college campuses matter? First and foremost, diversity on campus is good for everyone. Research has shown that a diverse student body has positive outcomes for all students—those in both the dominant and non-dominant groups (Association of American Colleges and Universities [AAC&U], 2002; Cuyjet, 2006). Based on the results of their analysis, Gurin et al. (2002) asserted that “the actual experiences students have with diversity consistently and meaningfully affect important learning and democracy outcomes of a college education” (p. 358). Additionally, a college education has positive outcomes for

students, which African American men will forgo if they do not pursue a higher education. Citing several researchers, Perna (2005) asserted that “the long-term investment benefits of higher education include higher lifetime earnings, a more fulfilling work environment, better health, longer life, more informed purchases, and lower probability of unemployment” (p. 24). The low enrollment and graduation rates of African American men, the benefits that accrue to those who graduate, the advantage of a diverse campus, and the link between academic performance and retention all point to the need for the present research on AAMSAs. Given the state of Black men in higher education and the expectations placed on institutions by the NCAA to graduate their student-athletes, research examining the intersection of racial identity, athletic identity and male identity is warranted. Not only was the current research warranted, the manner in which it was approached was equally important. The population of interest—AAMSAs—are not a problem that needs to be solved, rather improving their retention and graduation rates is an opportunity for AAAs to live out our educational mission.

“The operating framework used by schools to interface with African American males is often constructed based on lists of perceived problems, using an approach that identifies pathologies instead of promoting promise” (Bonner & Bailey, 2006, p. 24). McEwen, Roper, Bryant and Langa (1990) warned against viewing African American students from a deficiency standpoint. Rather, the unique skills, characteristics and strengths that arise from their Blackness should be taken into account when planning programs to support and sustain these students. According to Bonner and Bailey (2006), one of the challenges faced by African American men as they transition into higher

education is that they are not only acculturating to a new academic environment but also a social one that tends to be very different from their home communities. The unique needs and identities of African American men must be taken into account in order to best meet their needs. This was precisely the goal of this research—to better educate athletic academic advisors about this unique population in order to best support their academic endeavors.

While much has been written on African American men in higher education, little has focused specifically on the identity development of AAMSAs. Much of the literature on the retention of African American men focuses on the services and programs offered by institutions of higher education. Little, if any, attention has been given to their identity development, how it might impact their academic performance and what support services might best serve this population.

Institutions across the country have invested significant resources in academic support programs for student-athletes—especially those in high-profile, revenue-generating sports. According to National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletics (2005) data, institutions belonging to major conferences on average have an annual academic support budget of \$213,922, not including salaries or tutoring, and an average tutoring budget of \$135,195. While certain support services have been shown to be helpful to this population, something is still missing. If there is a link between any or all of these non-cognitive factors and the academic performance of AAMSAs, programming geared toward their identity development (racially, athletically and as men) may assist this population in succeeding beyond what has been traditionally addressed via

AAA offices. As a profession, much of our current work focuses on academic skill building and support. To a lesser degree, we assist students in their personal and career development, but we have not intentionally addressed identity development as a means to improving academic success.

It is important to note that while our role as Student Affairs educators is at the core about student development and providing the resources and spaces to assist students on their developmental journey (based on their readiness); it is also incumbent upon us to ensure our own development in order to meet our students' needs. Citing several scholars, Pope, Reynolds and Mueller (2004) highlighted the importance of student affairs professionals being trained on multicultural issues as little has been done to this point and multicultural criteria is seldom used in performance reviews. They also raised concern that many have viewed these skills as specialized to a select few and not a "compulsory competency area for all professionals" (p. 6). According to Pope et al. (2004), this skill set includes self-awareness, an understanding of others' viewpoints and cultural knowledge as well as how to utilize this information in professional practice—with those who are culturally different as well as similar to oneself. They acknowledged this is a long and infinite process not one that happens overnight or in a given period of time as students and cultural issues evolve. The authors indicated that such competence requires the knowledge of "cultural constructs such as racial identity" (p. 15). While these may seem like overwhelming expectations in light of NCAA rules compliance and the institution specific knowledge necessary to work in the field of athletic academic advising, they mark a call to action and identify an area ripe with opportunities for the

development of AAA staffs nationwide, especially given the demographics of the profession—mostly White females (N4A, 2005).

If we know that the AAMSA population is not graduating at the same rate as their White and African American female peers and we continue to allow this to happen, are we not guilty of the exploitation some have accused us of (Hawkins, 1999)? If there is a link between racial, male and athletic identity and academic performance, these topics could be included in the preparation programs for athletic academic advisors such as at the National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletics Professional Development Institute. It could be discussed at conferences and shared with our athletic administration peers. Brown (2006) recommended student affairs professionals take advantage of training to learn the intricacies of working with African American men, which goes above and beyond what is addressed in student development coursework.

Chapter One introduced the researcher, explained the topic to be studied and made a case for the current research. Next, Chapter Two reviews the relevant literature and explores each of the identities studied in greater detail.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the relevant literature on the population of interest—African American male Division I student-athletes (AAMSAs). While AAMSAs receive considerable attention in the media and popular literature, “research on African American student-athletes is sparse” (Steinfeldt, Reed, & Steinfeldt, 2010, p. 20). Therefore, whenever possible the literature included in this chapter relates as specifically as possible to the population of interest, but more often than not, the studies selected for inclusion focus on the larger population of African American men in college or one of the variables of interest. Before delving into the literature, a brief overview of athletic academic advising as a profession is presented. The review itself begins with an examination of African American men in higher education and their experiences at Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs) as compared to Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) as well as factors that have been identified as promoting academic success. The review of AAMSAs looked at the research conducted to date on this group and makes a case for studying the effects of non-cognitive variables on their academic performance. The final section examines each of the identities studied—racial, athletic and male.

Who are Athletic Academic Advisors (AAA)?

The main goal of the present research was to better inform AAAs about how to best serve AAMSAs. Therefore, it only makes sense to present a brief overview of the profession prior to reviewing the literature on the population or variables of interest. All National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I institutions are required to provide academic support and Life Skills programming to student-athletes. The NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills Program, begun in the early 1990s, charges Division I schools with five commitments to their student-athletes: academic excellence, athletic excellence, career development, personal development and community service. Institutions can provide these services either via campus-wide support units or through professional staff hired specifically to work with student-athletes. Many schools, particularly those at the Division I level choose the latter option. The staffs that work in these areas have a wide range of backgrounds and there is no one way to prepare for a career in athletic academic advising.

According to National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletics' (N4A, 2005) data, the vast majority of associate/assistant directors, academic advisors, learning specialists, life skills coordinators and tutor coordinators at major conference institutions are White and female ranging from 68-96% and 56-89% respectively depending on position. Seventy to 81% hold masters degrees in fields including business, psychology/counseling, kinesiology/sport science, higher education and others. The other category ranged from 23-39% depending on position highlighting the wide range of backgrounds from which AAAs come. With the exception of the learning specialist

position, the majority (63-74%) of those in other positions were student-athletes in college.

As a professional organization, N4A offers a Professional Development Institute (PDI) annually in conjunction with its national convention as well as a newly introduced Individual Certification Program. The two and a half day long PDI workshops are divided into three tracks “Leader/Manager, New Practitioner, and Learning Specialist” and are hosted by veteran advisors (N4A, n.d.b). The focus varies depending on track, but some of the topics covered include: developmental advising, integrity, eligibility, working with coaches and other staff, career planning, roles, learning strategies and program evaluation (N4A, n.d.b). The new Individual Certification Program was established to standardize the core competencies in and lend credibility to the field of athletic academic advising (N4A, n.d.a). There is a menu of options as to how to fulfill the requirement of certification, but like the PDI, one topic is notably missing—identity development—racial, athletic or male. N4A is in the process of developing a diversity training program that will include such topics and they are sometimes covered in the PDI sessions, but to date have not been an area of focus (T. Evans-Hunter, personal communication, February 3, 2011).

In addition to the PDI and Individual Certification Program, the organization also offers webinars, regional conferences, program certification and consulting services—all of which are available, but not mandatory—for members. Most of the training and development for professional staff is left to the discretion of each institution and varies widely. There have been numerous calls for professional development in the literature.

Abes, Jones and McEwen (2007) asserted that student affairs professionals need to focus on their own development as the more “complex professionals’ meaning-making capacity and self-understanding” the better able they will be to assist students in their development (p. 20). This sentiment was also echoed by Harris and Edwards (2010). They encouraged those working in higher education to be cognizant of their own gender identities and how their views on masculinity impact their work with male students. Torres, Howard-Hamilton and Cooper (2003) called on professionals in higher education to “recognize their own biases and privileges and be open to different interpretations” (p. 84). None of these calls can be answered unless professionals are aware of their own racial and gender identities.

African American Men in Higher Education

While the vast majority of those providing academic support services to student-athletes are White and female, and have not received mandatory training on race, gender or athletic identity, there is a large population of AAMSAs in Division I (DI) athletics. This disparity further supported the need for the current research in order to educate AAAs on the racial, athletic and male identities of their AAMSAs so as to best support these students. According to NCAA (2010b) ethnicity data, the percentage of AAMSAs in DI has increased over the last decade. An increase in the percentage of African American men’s basketball and football student-athletes has also occurred over the same period. In fact, the majority of DI men’s basketball and Bowl Subdivision football student-athletes are Black. Given these demographics and the scarcity of research on AAMSAs, a review of the relevant literature must begin with a look at the larger African

American male population in higher education. Therefore, this section looks at Black men at PWIs compared to HBCUs as well as the factors known to support academic success.

PWIs Compared to HBCUs

There is an extensive body of literature that has compared the experiences and outcomes of African American students at PWIs and HBCUs. It is beyond the scope of this review to discuss this line of research in detail, but a brief overview is warranted. African American students who enroll at PWIs face different challenges than their peers at HBCUs. In his review of 20 years of research on the non-cognitive variables that impact African American students at PWIs, Sedlacek (1987) asserted that Black students believed White faculty were prejudiced against them and they had concerns about the low numbers of Black faculty and staff members. The literature Sedlacek reviewed indicated that Black students on White campuses experienced problems in residence halls, fraternities, with campus police, athletics and faced discrimination about interracial dating. In general, these students did not believe they belonged on White campuses and thought others viewed them as less capable than their White peers. They reported feeling pressured to prove themselves academically and faced the assumption that they must be an athlete if they are a Black male with all the connotations that brings about “economic disadvantage and academic inferiority” which “threatened to erode their academic confidence and performance” (Fries-Britt & Turner, 2001, p. 427). Research has indicated that Black students on White campuses feel isolated, dissatisfied and the victims of racism (Bohr, Pascarella, Nora, & Terenzini, 1995).

Sedlacek's work laid the foundation for understanding African American students' experiences on campus and the themes he noted continue to be seen in more recent literature. Given the lower proportion of African American men to women on many campuses, PWI and HBCU, stereotypes about these men endure (Cuyjet, 2006). Without personal interactions to contradict the sometimes inaccurate media and pop culture messages, students, faculty and staff may continue to believe what they have learned from these sources "until provided contradictory, corrective data" (p. 12) via "positive interactions with African American college men" (p. 13). Another issue caused by the disproportion of African American women to men on campus is the reinforcement of African American female dominance and African American male invisibility (Cuyjet, 2006). As recently as last year, Harper et al. (2011) found that the even some of the most engaged African American men on college campuses face "racial microaggressions" (p. 188) on predominantly White campuses. The African American male resident assistants, who were the focus of the study, expressed concern about being viewed as stupid, incompetent, angry or lazy and faced undue scrutiny from peers and supervisors. This led them to report "diminished motivation, mistrust of White supervisors, and the inclination to not return for an additional year...[and] pressure to represent themselves and their race well" (pp. 192-193). Harper et al. asserted "that much remains to be done to make campus environments less racist" (p. 194). These issues, among others, continue to perpetuate a less than receptive environment for African American males on PWI campuses.

Conversely, the supportive environment, the opportunity for academic integration and the assistance available to students at HBCUs has been linked to positive academic outcomes and personal/social gains for students. Many researchers have attested that a major benefit of attending a HBCU is the supportive environment they provide for their students (Bohr et al., 1995; Flowers & Pascarella, 1999). Black men at HBCUs earn higher grades even though they enter college with lower high school grades and SAT scores than their peers who enroll at PWIs; a difference attributed to the support and integration at a HBCU (Davis, 1994). The mission, climate and culture of a HBCU is the basis for most hypotheses as to why African Americans graduate at a higher rate from HBCUs than from PWIs when academic ability is controlled (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Flowers (2002), through his review of the data on more than 7,500 African American students at the 207 institutions which participated in the College Student Experience Questionnaire, found that attending HBCUs had positive effects on African American students in four areas: “understanding the arts and humanities, personal and social development, understanding science and technology, and intellectual and writing skills” (p. 407). Flowers speculated that these differences were due to the greater level of faculty support Black students receive at HBCUs. Personal development was also shown to be influenced by institutional environment (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

In addition to support and integration, a greater level of student involvement on HBCU campuses has been shown to be significant in the success of African American students. Berger and Milem (2000) found, while controlling for several pre-college and in-college factors, African American students at two HBCUs experienced greater

increases in their social self-concept over their four years of enrollment, than did their peers at six PWIs. Pascarella and Terenzini, (2005) in their review of the college impact literature from the 1990s, asserted that these effects could possibly be attributed to higher levels of involvement on campus. Black students on Black campuses have been shown to be more involved (Allen, 1992; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005) which is known to be important to their success and retention (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Ultimately, college outcomes are based on the interaction of personal and institutional characteristics and how each student views and reacts to the college experience (Allen, 1992). Therefore, it is not as simple as assuming an African American student who attends a HBCU will perform better academically and stand a better chance of graduating than if he attended a PWI. In light of the fact that this study examined the AAMSAs at 16 PWIs that compete in the BIG EAST Conference and arguably, student-athletes are some of the most involved and supported students on any Division I campus, what other factors are contributing to or hindering their academic performance?

Several researchers have asserted that non-cognitive variables may hold the answer to more accurately predicting academic success, especially for students of color as compared to traditional cognitive markers. For example, Flowers and Pascarella (2003) claimed that non-cognitive measures may better assess African American students' abilities than standardized tests. Sellers and Kupermic (1997) found that "academic background (high school GPA and SAT scores) was not a significant predictor of academic aspirations" (p. 21). Gaston-Gayles' (2004) work indicated that "non-cognitive variables accurately predict academic performance across four years, whereas

standardized test scores are only predictive of the first year of college performance" (p. 76).

The next section looks at what the research has to say in terms of supporting African American men in college. Many of the programs and services recommended in the literature are already being employed by AAAs nationally. Consequently, research looking at AAMSAs beyond the academic support available to them, is critical in expanding the awareness of this unique population and filling a gap in the literature. Many of the hindrances to the academic success of African American men in college stem from the institutional environment and campus climate issues discussed above or a lack of the supportive factors discussed below. Therefore, the hindrances to academic success are not worthy of their own section in this review.

Supporting Academic Success

There should be no question why it is important for AAMSAs to graduate from college. Aside from the ethical (exploitation) and compliance (NCAA eligibility) considerations, it is clear that earning a college degree is crucial. Perna (2005) studied the effects of college across gender, race and socioeconomic status via an analysis of data from the National Educational Longitudinal Study. She looked at the affect of educational attainment on seven items that included economic benefits such as income and health insurance coverage as well as non-economic benefits. Perna concluded that Black students should be enrolling in college at a higher rate than White students, as they accrue greater educational benefits. Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) asserted that for the past 40 years, a college degree has had a greater impact on earnings for African

Americans than their White counterparts. The Economic Mobility Project, sponsored by the Pew Charitable Trusts, indicated that in 2004, Black families had median incomes that were only 58% of that of White families (Isaacs, n.d.). But, with a college degree, that percentage moves up to 95% (JBHE, 2005).

Many factors play a significant role in helping African American men remain, and succeed, in college. According to Bonner and Bailey (2006), there are five key factors that play a role in the academic success of African American male college students: “peer group influence, family influence and support, faculty relationships, identity development and self-perception, and institutional environment” (p. 25). Peers and family support as well as identity development and self-perception will be reviewed briefly, but the importance of campus involvement, faculty support and campus environment have already been discussed so they will not be considered again here.

African American men have to learn to navigate the higher education environment and often find that White men can behave in certain ways they cannot (Bonner & Bailey, 2006; Cuyjet, 2006). Traits that are viewed as suitable for White men, such as assertiveness and aggressiveness are not always accepted in Black men (Pelham as cited in Wilson-Sadberry et al., 1991). Therefore, peers are critical in fostering a sense of belonging and providing feedback (White & Cones, 1999). Participation in groups on campus such as student organizations, study groups, fraternities or sport teams tend to be where African American men find their niche or place to belong (Bonner & Bailey, 2006; Harper & Harris, 2006).

It is important for administrators to monitor peer relationships whenever possible to prevent negative peer pressure such as “academic success is not ‘manly’ or is associated with ‘acting White’” (Cuyjet, 2006, p. 239). Cuyjet encouraged professionals in higher education to help this population understand that it is not “unmanly” to ask for help; a key in bolstering their comfort level in seeking academic support. Cuyjet also asserted that it is important for staff to monitor the perceptions of academic support efforts for this group, so as to avoid negative stigmas which can decrease their effectiveness. Many AAA programs already use peer mentors, tutors and academic coaches to support student-athletes; a practice that is reinforced in the literature.

In addition to peer support, family encouragement has been found to be crucial to the persistence and academic success of African American men in college. According to Bonner and Bailey (2006), family support is linked to issues of “psychosocial development, racial identity, academic success, resilience, and self-esteem” (p. 28). The importance of family has been supported by significant research (Fries-Britt, 1997; Hall & Rowan, 2000; Hughes, 1987; Wilson & Constantine, 1999; Wilson-Sadberry et al., 1991). Wilson and Constantine (1999) found through their survey of 94 African American students at a southwestern PWI that for many, family support is especially important in developing a constructive racial identity, which is crucial in African American men’s abilities to find their personal power and place on a college campus.

Identity development and self-perception have also played a critical role in the college experiences of African American men. Academic disidentification, the lack of a relationship between academic achievement and self-esteem (Steele, 1992), is a concern

as it is linked to academic success (Osborne, 1999). Through Osborne's review of National Educational Longitudinal Study data on 15,000+ White, Black and Hispanic 8th graders over four years (1997) and a review of existing theory (1999), he found that while most students experienced disidentification during high school, African American males did so at a higher rate and the gap between these men and their peers is widening. He also explained that stereotype threat can cause academic disidentification, as a "self-protective measure," (Osborne, 1999, p. 557) as some African American men feel pressure that their mistakes reinforce beliefs about their race as exemplified in the quote below:

Like anyone, blacks risk devaluation for a particular incompetence, such as a failed test or a flubbed pronunciation. But they further risk that such performances will confirm the broader, racial inferiority they are suspected of. Thus, from the first grade through graduate school, blacks have the extra fear that in the eyes of those around them their full humanity could fall with a poor answer or a mistaken stroke of the pen. (Steele, 1992, p. 74)

Other research has indicated African American students may be trying to avoid "acting White." Fordham and Ogbu's (1986) ethnographic study of 33 eleventh graders at a low-income, majority Black school in Washington D.C. is helpful to higher education professionals in that it describes the mindset or thought patterns with which some African American male students come to campus each fall. They found that many African American students, male and female, "put brakes" (p. 193) on their academic success in order to fit in and avoid being called a "brainiac" or accused of "acting white" (p. 186). These students walk a fine line between academic success and trying to maintain their loyalty to being Black. While the remedies they offer are not applicable in the higher

education environment, their results identified a clear link between academics and identity. It seems that knowledge of this phenomenon is important when working with these students and might explain why some are hesitant to ask for help or use services that cause them to be perceived as “acting White.”

Harper (2006b) found the exact opposite of what Fordham and Ogbu’s (1986) study showed. The high-achieving African American college men in Harper’s study did not report pressure to hide their academic success or being called out for “acting White” if they were doing well academically. In fact, the men in his study reported feeling supported and encouraged by their same-race (male and female) peers. While this study focused on high-achieving men, these differences are important for academic advisors to keep in mind when working with students as they may be experiencing either of these situations and need to be approached accordingly. Additionally, it serves as a reminder that all Black men are not the same.

Given that the current research focused on three facets of AAMSAs’ identity, it is especially important to keep the above in mind. While the participants in the study have a certain degree of similarity given that they all participate in a Division I sport at a BIG EAST Conference school, they are also different based on their individual demographic and personal characteristics. It is also an important fact for advisors to keep in mind when working with this population as it is imperative to meet students where they are developmentally which varies widely, even within a very specific subset of the college population.

The goal of this section was to give a brief but important overview of African American males in higher education. Several of the recommended programs and services are being used in AAA offices across the country, but as the statistics have shown AAMSAs are still lagging behind their White male and African American female student-athlete peers when it comes to persistence and graduation. Since none of the studies reviewed focused specifically on AAMSAs, questions remain. What more needs to be known in order to best support this population? What about their racial, male and athletic identities could allow AAA programs to expand their services beyond what is suggested for the general population of African American men on college campuses? This review now looks at the population of interest. An overview of each of the identities to be investigated follows in order to further the case for their inclusion in this study.

Supporting African American Male Student-Athletes (AAMSAs)

Typically, African American student-athletes enter college less academically prepared and come from lower socioeconomic backgrounds than other student-athletes (Hawkins, 1999; Sellers, 1992) and have lower college GPAs than their White peers (Gaston-Gayles, 2004; Sellers, 1992). Benson's (2000) ethnographic interviews with eight academically at-risk, Division I, scholarship football players revealed that they reported being met with low academic expectations and believed they received messages that they were not capable of or expected to do the work (Benson, 2000). They found others (specifically those employed by the athletic department) to imply that academics were not important and believed no one cared about them as individuals (Benson, 2000). They thought professors did not care about them or their academic success or they would

have held them to higher standards. They admitted they succumbed to these low expectations and settled for “just getting by” (Benson, 2000, p. 233). They took the backseat and let their advisors, who were happy to take control, plan everything for them. Likewise, other researchers had similar findings. The 206 African American undergraduate male and female participants in Davis’ (2009) study generally believed that others hold a negative view of and place a low value on African Americans. Sailes’ (1993) study of 869 undergraduate and graduate students at Indiana University supported the students’ claims that they were viewed in a negative light. In his finding, Sailes noted that 12% of participants thought African American student-athletes were less intelligent than their White peers and 25% viewed them as academically underprepared for college.

As mentioned earlier, AAMSA’s have not been the subject of a significant body of scholarly research. What is presented here makes the case for studying the racial, athletic and male identities of Division I student-athletes. Each identity is examined in depth in the final section of the review.

Racial Identity and AAMSAs

While academic motivation is not the focus of this study it bears noting that “motivation is a function of identity” (Davis, 2009, p. 12). Simons et al. (1999) found that academic success, as influenced by academic motivation, is negatively impacted by a student’s desire to pursue a professional career in his sport (as cited in Gaston-Gayles, 2004). Sellers (1992) found that there were no race based differences in academic motivation for college student-athletes and that motivation (as measured by a student’s reported importance of receiving a degree) was related to college GPA for all students,

regardless of race. In this study, the model accounted for 4% of the variance in college GPA for African American student-athletes while it accounted for 15% of that for White student-athletes. High school GPA and mother's occupation were most significant for Black student-athletes while motivation and SAT/ACT score were not significant. These results suggest two relevant issues. First, there must be more at play in predicting the academic performance of AAMSAs as the predictor equation for Black student-athletes only accounted for 4% of the variance as compared to 15% for White student-athletes. Secondly, it again seems to indicate that ACT/SAT scores are not as accurate of an academic predictor for Black students as they are for White students. These two assertions support the need for the current research to see what, if any, role the three identities of interest play in the academic performance of AAMSAs. Research indicates that there is a difference between what variables best predict Black and White students' academic performance and that test scores are not as significant for Black students. If this is the case, then what is predictive for Black student-athletes? Does athletic identity play a role? Athletic identity in AAMSAs is the focus of the next section of this review.

Athletic Identity and AAMSAs

AAMSAs were reportedly more athletically motivated than their White and Division III (DIII) peers. Snyder (1996) surveyed 327 Black and White male student-athletes participating in Division I and III sports within one university system. He found significant differences between African American and White students in terms of academic versus athletic motivation at the DI institutions (as well as overall but not at DIII institutions). No race-based differences in motivation were found among DIII

student-athletes when examined separate from the DI student-athletes. AAMSAs were significantly more likely to choose "taking a job offer, perhaps professional, in their sports" (p. 660) over returning to graduate if they completed their eligibility but had more than one term of school remaining. They were also significantly "more likely to spend as much time as feasibly possible in order to achieve the highest possible grade in every class" (p. 661) when it came time to prepare for final exams during dead week. And, AAMSAs were more likely to select an athlete roommate despite their academic ability than were their White counterparts who were more likely to choose "nonathletes who are average students" (p. 661). On two of these three dimensions, the third being preparing for finals where they were more academically motivated, it appears AAMSAs were more likely to be athletically motivated than their White peers. According to Snyder, the roommate choice data is in line with research indicating isolation of African American student-athletes on campus.

Two of the questions in Snyder's study regarding missing practice for class or a field trip are not realistic from the point of view of someone who works in DI athletics. On these two items no significant race differences were found, but they were likely questions to which student-athletes, especially those in DI, would have thought they had no choice. For example, student-athletes, at least the DI level, do not get to choose between class/field trip and practice. The expectation is that classes are scheduled around practice (NCAA rules prohibit a student-athlete from missing class for practice unless that practice is in conjunction with an away competition); therefore missing practice is not an option. This does not necessarily indicate that students, like those in this study,

who answered they would attend practice over a field trip are less academically, or more athletically, motivated, it is just realistic. On the surface it may appear that practice is more important than class to these students, but if student-athletes and advisors are scheduling classes appropriately, students should not have to make a choice between class attendance and practice. It would be more accurate to present realistic scenarios and maybe then racial differences would have come to light on these items as well.

Another item of note in Snyder's (1996) study is that DI student-athletes received "outside help to gain admission" whereas DIII student-athletes met entrance standards" (p. 662). This led the researcher to speculate that DIII students maybe more academically prepared than their DI peers. Also, Snyder stated that "the issue of student-athlete academic motivation appears to be a function of programmatic professionalism (admissions requirements, grant-in-aid funding, and other budgetary support) rather than the ethnicity of the athletes involved" (p. 663). This statement is one the current research intended to address. Does "programmatic professionalism" speak to the athletic identity of DI student-athletes in high-profile, revenue-generating sports? Is that a factor in their academic motivation and performance? Is race? Do they work together? If so, the knowledge gained via the present research could better equip AAAs to serve the AAMSA population.

While Snyder asserted that academic motivation is linked to athletic identity, in the form of programmatic professionalism, other research has not supported this conclusion. In their study of 702 men's basketball and football AAMSAs, Sellers and Kupermic (1997) found that only a very small percent (5%) were goal discrepant and

most who fell into this category were underclassmen. They based this estimation on the role a student played on his current team (1st team/traveling squad or 2nd team/3rd team) along with his perception of the likelihood of having a professional athletic career after college. Students in highly competitive athletic programs and those who were more segregated from their non-student-athlete peers were more likely to be goal discrepant, meaning that their current status was not in line with their expectations for a professional career. The study also revealed that "it is possible for student-athletes to have unrealistically high athletic aspirations and still maintain high academic aspirations" (p. 21). There was no support for the notion that academic performance suffered in those who held unrealistic expectations for a professional career.

The research on the impact of athletic identity, in the forms of programmatic professionalism and goal discrepancy, is inconclusive. Therefore the current research investigated this concept further to see if a link does in fact exist between athletic identity and academic performance in the AAMSA population within the BIG EAST Conference. Results from such a study would expand the literature base in this area and ultimately provide useful information to AAAs in their quest to best support AAMSAs. Next the review turns to a brief look at male identity in the AAMSA population.

Male Identity and AAMSAs

Highly successful AAMSAs were found to have a different view of masculinity than did their less academically successful peers (Martin & Harris, 2006). The 27 high achieving AAMSAs interviewed for Martin and Harris' study wanted to be recognized for their academic accomplishments. They also thought it was masculine to mentor and

support others...to give back, to be good role models. They held different beliefs about dating and women than did their teammates...looking for and expecting a quality woman for an exclusive relationship instead of the hook up mentality of their peers. This line of research suggests that values and actions were different in high achieving AAMSAs as compared to their non-high achieving AAMSA peers.

They also thought that accountability and integrity were signs of being a man as opposed to their peers who measured their masculinity via material possessions, athletic status and women. Harper's (2004) work with high achieving African American male undergraduates highlighted the link between success in college, both in the classroom as well as in co-curricular activities and leadership positions and positive alternative conceptions of masculinity. "The resolution of identity issues is necessary for retention and success in college, and is especially critical for African American male undergraduates" (p. 105). If there is a link between male identity and academic performance, this is an area that AAAs could learn more about in order to expand the services provided to best meet the needs of the AAMSA population.

As mentioned earlier, there has not been much research to date that has specifically looked at the AAMSA population, therefore the rest of this review focuses on the three non-cognitive variables of interest: racial, athletic and male identity. It begins with an examination of racial identity; the most established and widely researched of the three variables.

What is Racial Identity?

“Nigrescence means the process of becoming Black...‘the psychology of becoming Black’” (Cross, 1978, p. 13). In 1971, William E. Cross, Jr. wrote about a five stage process by which a Black person goes from “non-Afrocentrism to Afrocentrism to multiculturalism” (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998, p. 74). He called it the Negro-to-Black Conversion Experience and the five stages include: Pre-Encounter, Encounter, Immersion-Emersion, Internalization and Internalization-Commitment (Cross, 1971, 1978). A brief overview of the model is presented below based on Cross’ 1971 article.

The Pre-Encounter stage is characterized as anti-Black where a person views Whiteness as superior. Feelings at this stage range from hostility toward Blackness to neutrality about it and the person focuses on himself as an individual. This is relevant to the current research in that an AAMSA in this phase of his development might prefer to play for a White coach or work with a White academic advisor. Two separate steps mark the Encounter stage. First, a Black person experiences an event that makes him think about his Blackness in a new way. This might be observing a racially motivated incident or talking to someone of a more advanced racial identity. Given what the literature offers about Black students on White campuses often being the victims of racism, an AAMSA might experience this phase early in his college years, if he has not already. Second, the person must begin to use this new information to reinterpret the world around him. While not demonstrating it outwardly, a person in this stage feels anger toward Whites and guilt for having not realized this sooner. As the name suggests, the Immersion-

Emersion stage begins with a person plunging himself into his Blackness. Black is now seen as superior and White inferior. An AAMSA in this phase might have a hard time working with White faculty, staff and coaches and since the literature tells us that there is a notable lack of Black men in the faculty ranks or in leadership positions on many campuses, this might be especially troubling. In addition to anger and guilt, those in this stage begin to develop pride in their race. They begin to feel a sense of community with other Blacks and adopt a group rather than an individual focus. An AAMSA in this stage might want to connect more with other Black students and begin to feel isolated on a PWI campus as a critical mass of Black students is often absent. After this intense commitment to all that is Black, a person emerges from his anti-White mentality. Guilt dissipates and pride replaces it. While still angry, there is recognition that Whites are humans, too (Cross, 1971). A person is now able to see that there are good and bad aspects of both Blackness and Whiteness.

Internalization is not as clear cut as the previous stages. Based on his experiences in Stage 3, a person may regress, stay in Stage 3 or be open to action. Some college students in this stage do not see a reason to study or further understand the Black experience beyond what they learned in their developmental process. The fifth and final stage, Internalization-Commitment is marked by action. Unlike the fourth stage, not only is there openness to action, but there is action. Whites are viewed less negatively and a person in this stage is committed to the betterment of Blacks and other oppressed peoples and not just himself or a small group of his people. Many in Stage 5 are eager to help others on their racial identity journey (Cross, 1971). An AAMSA in Stage 5 might be

willing to serve as a mentor to other AAMSAs and be a resource for them in their racial identity development. Cross (1978) noted that not everyone moves into Stage 5, for some “development levels off at stage four” (p. 18).

Helms’ (1995) People of Color Racial Identity “model” is an extension and refined version of the Cross model. Helms (1990) classified the Cross model stages as “world views” which are “the result of [a person’s] cognitive maturation level in interaction with societal forces” (p. 19). She described a world view as the way an individual processes and sorts racial information. Helms (1995) also introduced the word statuses instead of stages in order to more clearly explicate the “mutually interactive dynamic process by which a person’s behavior could be explained rather than static categories into which a person could be assigned” (p. 183). The names of Helms’ (1995) statuses and their corresponding Cross model stages are: Conformity (Pre-Encounter), Dissonance (Encounter), Immersion-Emersion (same), Internalization (same), and Integrative Awareness Status (Internalization-Commitment).

In advancing Cross’ work, Helms (1990) asserted that there are two different types of Pre-Encounter—active and passive. Active is what Cross originally described in his model and is characterized by an idolization of Whiteness and a belittling of Blackness. Passive, as Helms described it, is a more naïve, unconscious belief in racial equality. Additionally, Helms raised the question of whether or not Encounter should be its own stage, as for some, it is just a brief but powerful experience while for others it is a much more involved and long-lasting process. In any case, it is often difficult to isolate and measure empirically. For all intents and purposes, Helms’ descriptions of the

Immersion-Emersion and Internalization stages are essentially in keeping with the original work of Cross. She did clarify however, that the fifth stage of Cross' model is not in and of itself different enough from the others to be measured effectively.

Therefore, she recommended, as did others she cited, that the fifth stage be incorporated into the fourth as a second phase within that stage. The main difference between the two, as Helms described it, is that Stage 4 is a change in attitude or motivation where Stage 5 is marked by a change in behavior. Helms asserted that while behavior can be assessed, the motivation behind it is often unknown and therefore cannot be attributed to a certain stage as behaviors may be seen in other stages for different reasons.

AAAs are constantly challenged to try and explain why certain things happen academically and we often discuss topics such as preparation, ability or motivation, but rarely, if ever, is an AAMSA's racial identity taken into account. Helms point is well taken in that if the current research finds a connection between racial identity and academic performance, knowledge of this area of student development would be one more tool AAAs could use to best support the AAMSA population. Additionally, it is an area about which AAA's could educate coaches and athletic administrators.

Racial Identity in the College Years

Given that the focus of this literature review is on African American men in college, a brief look at what the different stages of racial identity development might look like in college aged men is in order. Based on Cross' model, Parham (1989) articulated how each of the stages may manifest itself at different times in a person's life. Unlike previous writers, he asserted that the racial identity development process is cyclical, not

linear, and repetitive, not a one-time process. Parham defined the underlying premise for those in late adolescence/early adulthood as involvement and activism. They begin to think about careers, relationships, and how they want to live their lives. It is also a time when a Black, young adult begins to realize that there are times and places he is included and others where he faces exclusion. Parham took readers through the stages of Cross' model from the viewpoint of a college age student, which will be the focus of the remainder of this section.

According to Parham (1989), those in Pre-Encounter are likely to have mostly White friends and be involved in predominantly White organizations and activities. They want to be seen as human as opposed to Black and they tend to be unaware of racism. Activism for this group is likely to be "non-race-related" (such as nuclear freeze or gay rights movements) and friends and significant others are likely to be White or other Blacks with a similar "Eurocentric (White) orientation" (p. 200). Encounter is marked by confusion spurred by an experience that causes the young adult to question his previous beliefs. Since everyone is different, the catalyst varies greatly from person to person. Helms asserted that the incident that prompts this realization can be a negative interaction with Whites or a positive one with Blacks (as cited in Parham, 1989). At this point, it is possible that the youngster withdraws from previous involvement and reflects on his beliefs and priorities.

Pro-Black, anti-White sentiments are the keystone of the Immersion-Emersion stage. The young adult is likely to dive head first into everything that represents Blackness, surround himself with Black friends and join Black organizations. He is

likely to become involved in race-based issues and may confront injustice with hostility. Relationships and careers are evaluated based on their degree of appropriateness for a Black person. There is little involvement with White people. Finally, those in Internalization are able to interact with Blacks and Whites successfully. They champion causes that support Blacks or other oppressed groups. Parham (1989) called them “biculturally successful” (p. 201).

Racial Identity and Supporting African American males

The knowledge of a student’s level of racial identity can be helpful in providing the right type of support to meet a student where he is developmentally. This kind of support requires that AAAs be knowledgeable about identity development and places the responsibility on advisors to reach out to students appropriately given their level of development. It requires AAAs to be multiculturally competent educators. Howard-Hamilton (1997) made recommendations for higher education professionals working with men at each stage. In Pre-Encounter, structure and support are keys to success. Programming that is helpful at this stage includes “culture-specific” (p. 21) events such as Black history month speakers and workshops that assist the men in assessing their own culture. Encounter calls for African American men to articulate the positive aspects in their own and other cultures. Programming should focus on cross-cultural interactions with the goal of minimizing mistaken beliefs about other cultures and improving dialogue. Immersion-Emersion is a time of “pro-black, antiwhite” (p. 21) feelings and calls for a mentor to challenge this belief. Men in this stage need to interact with supportive staff of other races and be given time to dialogue with other men to process

their feelings. Howard-Hamilton recommended that those in the Internalization and Internalization-Commitment stages continue cross-cultural dialogue and that campus administrators encourage the men to find a support group of like-minded peers and help others in their journey through the five stages of nigrescence. Black history month programming and the like, as well as the use of mentors, are easily something AAAs could incorporate into our work with AAMSAs if the current research indicates a relationship between racial identity and academic performance.

Dawson-Threat (1997) offered similar advice for each stage of development, specific to the classroom environment. Given that the goal of the present research is to identify ways in which AAA programs can better support AAMSAs on their academic journey and Dawson-Threat's recommendation that student affairs professionals educate faculty on student development, this topic seems relevant to the discussion. One example of the way AAAs could work with faculty in this area is to model a program hosted by the Center for Students with Disabilities (CSD) at DePaul University. Several years ago, using a Department of Education grant, CSD provided trainings to faculty and staff across campus on the unique needs of students with learning disabilities and provided tips on how to best serve this population. A similar program could be implemented by AAAs to help their campus colleagues understand student-athletes, their needs and how to best address them. AAAs could use Dawson-Threat's recommendations as a starting point for such trainings and in helping student-athletes bridge the gap when their faculty are not yet prepared to do so. Dawson-Threat found that those in Pre-Encounter can benefit from introductory information. A faculty member can begin the semester by laying out the

basics for the class such as working definitions and the ways of learning in the field. Given this population's reluctance to speak in class, mini research assignments and small group discussions can be used to build confidence prior to requiring whole class dialogue. Reflective writing is important for those in Encounter as it allows them to sort through their experiences and express their feelings via the course material. Those in Immersion welcome the opportunity to research a topic from the Black perspective and share their learning with classmates. Internalization may cause African American men to question class assignments and readings that do not include the Black perspective. They may prefer different, or even additional, readings as well as the opportunity to share ideas from this perspective as opposed to simply sharing their opinion in class.

Dawson-Threat's (1997) recommendations are applicable to an athletic academic advisor's work with AAMSAs. In addition to educating faculty on this area of student development, AAAs could help an AAMSA navigate his coursework if his professors do not approach topics as he needs them to based on his level of development. For example, an athletic academic advisor could recommend that a student look at an issue from a Black perspective or research a prominent Black figure in the field if he is allowed to pick a topic for an assignment and this approach best serves where he is developmentally. However, the question remains whether or not there is a link between racial identity and academic performance, which is the focus of the next section of this review.

The Link Between Racial Identity and Academic Performance

The review now turns to a look at the link between racial identity and academic performance. To date, no studies have specifically focused on racial identity and the

academic performance of AAMSAs. However, other research has indicated that such a study is warranted. This section looks at the relevant research available on racial identity and its link to academic performance in African American males. The literature in this area seems to be split into two groups. "One perspective relates group identification and awareness of racial barriers to educational risk, and the another [sic] perspective views these as facilitating positive academic development" (Chavous et al., 2003, p. 1077).

The first camp encompasses those who believe in academic disidentification such as Fordham and Ogbu (1986) as well as those like Steele (1992) and Osborne (1997, 1999) who believe that students of color act in ways to minimize the risk of attempting something at which their group is not known to excel. Oyserman, Harrison and Bybee (2001) asserted that making race salient can have positive or negative implications depending on the situation. They explained that making race salient for Asian Americans about to take a math test is very different than mentioning race to African Americans right before the same test. "Making one's racial identity salient may be promotive or deflating of competence depending on whether the content of one's racial identity is positive with regard to academics or leaves one vulnerable to negative stereotypes about one's group" (p. 379). Chavous et al. (2003) found no evidence of academic disidentification in their study rather they asserted that their results "reflect the protective, motivational perspective on group identification" (p. 1086). However, they acknowledged that both risk and protective implications of racial identity are possible.

The assertion that both positive and negative implications are possible is supported by Ford and Harris (1997). The researchers contended that "there may be a

curvilinear relationship between racial identity and achievement” (p. 106). Ford and Harris claimed that those in the earliest and latest stages of racial identity development have the “highest achievement orientation” (p. 106) while those in the middle stages are so focused on their search for identity that academics may become less important. In a series of one-on-one interviews focused on racial identity, achievement level and academic ability in 152 6th-9th grade Black boys and girls from five mid-Atlantic public school districts, Ford and Harris found that “males and underachievers had less positive racial identities than females and achievers” (p. 105). While the highest levels of racial identities were found in the gifted students. This study also supported what other research found. The African American males in the study had significantly lower GPAs than their female counterparts and half of the males were found to be underachieving.

While not finding a link between high school GPA and racial identity, Chavous et al. (2003) did find a link to post-high school academic outcomes. They conducted interviews with 606 African American 17-year old 12th graders at four schools in a large, predominantly Black, Midwestern public school district who had below a 3.0 GPA in 8th grade. They followed up two years later and interviewed 437 of the same students. While the results indicated that racial identity was not significantly related to the participants GPA in 12th grade, it was related to academic outcomes. Those not enrolled at the time of the follow-up interview scored lower in racial centrality and private regard than those in school. Students with low racial centrality, low public regard and low private regard were least likely to be enrolled at the time of the follow-up interview. Those with high racial centrality and high private regard but low public regard fared the

best academically. These results support the assertion that racial identity can have both positive and negative effects on academic outcomes.

While some researchers believe both positive and negative implications of racial identity are possible, research on college students has mixed results with regard to a link between racial identity and academic performance. Two such studies are presented below. While Cokely's (2001) results indicated no relationship, Davis (2009) found a relationship. They each looked at different samples—Cokely surveyed participants at two HBCUs and Davis' study was conducted at one PWI. Cokely used just one of the MIBI subscales which measures only one dimension of racial identity, while Davis used the entire scale. The results Davis found were reported based on a different subscale than Cokely used. The current research used the entire scale to more clearly examine the various facets of racial identity.

Cokely (2001) surveyed 258 African American male and female undergraduate students enrolled in liberal arts classes at two southern HBCUs and found no significant relationship between racial centrality and academic self-concept or academic motivation in the African American men in his study. Cokely posited that this could be due to a disidentification of racial identity from academic pursuits. "As Black males become increasingly disenchanted and disengaged from the educational process, their racial identity becomes detached from academics and increasingly associated with activities where there are more Black role models and perceived opportunities for success (i.e. athletics)" (p. 485). This assertion raises a question relevant to the present research. If academic disidentification pushes African American boys to athletics as they see it as a

venue for success, is their racial identity tied more closely to athletics than academics?

The current research looked at both athletic and racial identity for this very reason, to see how these two factors, combined with gender, influence the academic performance of AAMSAs.

While Cokely (2001) found no relationship between racial identity and academic performance, others have found a link in college students. Recently, Davis (2009) examined the racial identity, academic motivation and academic performance of 206 African American male and female undergraduates at a large, public, research focused PWI in the South. Davis found a statistically significant inverse relationship between GPA and score on the Public Regard subscale—students with lower subscale scores reported having higher GPAs. Davis' study revealed that students' GPAs were able to be forecasted by the combination of their racial identity and motivation. Since the study found a link between academic performance and racial identity, Davis called on those at PWIs to find ways to support the racial identity development of African American students. This is the primary motivation behind the current research—to find ways to best support AAMSAs based on their racial, athletic and male identities. In order to best support these students, AAs must be educated on the unique characteristics and needs of AAMSAs.

Based upon his review of the literature, Wright (2009) found that African American male students are motivated to do well academically and bring unique characteristics and skills to the academic environment such as their verbal and social adeptness, assertiveness and confidence. He asserted that their uniqueness needs to be

embraced and encouraged in order to most effectively facilitate their academic success and that in doing so, educators can minimize some of the negativity they hold toward school which often stems from being misunderstood. Wright asserted that some Black male students underperform academically as they are taking a stance in response to the way they are portrayed in the formal curriculum, not because they do not value education or are not capable of the work. This assertion, along with Hyatt's (2003) claim that information about non-cognitive variables assists in implementing strategies to support student-athletes as well as her charge to use this information to educate the campus community support the need for the present research. AAAs need to know more about racial identity and its impact on AAMSAs in order to help them leverage their unique traits in an effort to maximize their academic potential. Their unique traits may need to be interpreted to others as strengths as part of AAA's role in educating the campus community about student-athletes.

There have been very few attempts in the scholarly literature to link academic outcomes to racial identity and what has been found is inconclusive as to whether the impact is positive or negative (Wright, 2009). Wright asserted that "a healthy REI can promote high academic success among African American male adolescents" (p. 127) and that "it is no simple matter to disentangle achievement from identity" (p. 128). The current research attempted to further unravel the complexities in this area.

While the literature to date on racial identity and academic outcomes is inconclusive, the researchers do agree on a few things. Many call for further research into the impact of racial identity especially its intersection with gender (Ford & Harris,

1997; Spearman-Teamer, 2008; Wright, 2009). Some have suggested further use of the MIBI/MMRI in future studies (Davis, 2009; Spearman-Teamer, 2008). It was also noted that much of the research on the education of African American boys is focused on younger boys and not the men in higher education (Cokley, 2001) therefore making the present study important in filling the gap. And Chavous et al. (2003) claimed that "the MMRI is appropriate for addressing questions raised by the two approaches because it does not assume a particular identity orientation as optimal for youth development" (p. 1078). The current research used the MIBI (a part of the MMRI) in order to assess racial identity.

What is Athletic Identity?

Unlike racial identity, athletic identity is a relatively new field of study. It does not have predetermined, well-defined stages or statuses with associated attitudes and behaviors, rather it is an assessment of "the degree to which an individual identifies with the athletic role" (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993, p. 237). It is concerned with the strength and exclusivity of this identification. Studies have looked at the relationship between athletic identity and physical activity, eating disorders, drinking, aggressive behavior, injured and disabled athletes, hazing, college adjustment, retirement from or transition out of sport, and help seeking behaviors. The Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS) has been used in cross cultural settings in Asia and Europe and even translated into German. In spite of the numerous studies that have investigated the concept of athletic identity and the many that have used AIMS, no studies to date have looked at the impact of athletic identity on the academic performance of AAMSAs. The

present research attempts to fill this gap and extend the literature in the area of athletic identity.

Given the differences between racial and athletic identity and the lack of previous research relevant to the proposed study, this section of the literature review is different in format than the previous. It is simply a brief review of what has been done to date in an attempt to link athletic identity to academic performance. Since athletic identity is not a stage model, there is no discussion of the concept during the college years specifically as there was with racial identity. Rather a review of the literature specifically looks at the concept of athletic identity and the use of AIMS within college student-athlete populations.

The Link Between Athletic Identity and Academic Performance

While not much has been written about the link between athletic identity and academic performance, what has appeared in the literature thus far suggests that a strong, exclusive athletic identity has a negative impact on academic performance. Lally and Kerr (2005), through two retrospective interviews with four male and four female 4th and 5th year college student-athletes at a large Canadian university, found that early in their college careers participants indicated their athletic identity was salient and there was a "lack of investment in the student role" (p. 280). While their goal was to examine the relationship between athlete role identity, student role identity and career development their findings are relevant to the discussion here.

The participants revealed that, early on, athletics was their primary focus even though they believed earning a degree was very important. By senior year, things had

changed dramatically. Many had abandoned their aspirations of pursuing athletics after college, based on an assessment that those goals were unrealistic, and committed to academics in hopes of bettering their grades to compensate for the poor grades they earned in their early collegiate careers. They were concerned their early academic performance would negatively impact their future options. Participants reported a decreased athletic investment in their 4th and 5th years of college, however they continued to own a strong but no longer exclusive athletic identity. Their student roles became more prominent and their sense of self was more closely tied to their academics than before. In retrospect, the participants believed that their almost monofocus on athletics came at the detriment of their other roles, especially that of college students. Lally and Kerr (2005) asserted that "college student athletes have poor identity development" (p. 276).

The results of this study seem to indicate that student-athletes' athletic identities become less exclusive but remain strong over time and that this shift occurs as student-athletes realize there is an end to their athletic career. How does this impact those who still hold professional aspirations, especially in the revenue generating sports? If they do not anticipate an end to their athletic careers, do student-athletes always retain their exclusive athletic identity and if so, how does that impact their academic performance and what can AAAs do to assist them in navigating both of these identities as they need not be mutually exclusive? The present study collected demographic data which allowed the researcher to see how, if at all, athletic identity differs based on year in school and how, if at all, academic performance is thus impacted. It also allowed a comparison to be

made between scholarship and non-scholarship student-athletes. Given that this study was conducted in Canada where colleges typically do not provide athletic scholarships, it raises an interesting question about whether scholarships actually increase the level of athletic identity in AAMSAs. By including scholarship and non-scholarship student-athletes in this study, this question may be addressed. While the present study is cross-sectional in nature, therefore not allowing causality to be inferred, it aimed to shed preliminary light on the athletic identity of AAMSAs over their four years of college and across various demographic variables.

While Lally and Kerr (2005) approached this topic from a career development and student role identity perspective, other research has looked at athletic identity and perceived scholastic competence and found a link. Ryska (2002) surveyed 258 male and female public high school student-athletes from diverse racial backgrounds who compete in a variety of sports about their motivational orientation, athletic identity and perceived competence in a range of areas. Athletic identity was found to be related to perceived social, vocational and behavioral conduct competence. Most important to the present research, athletic identity was related to perceived scholastic competence, but the interaction was mediated by motivational orientation. Ryska found a significant negative relationship between the two constructs, but only in those with high ego-low task motivational orientations. For those with high task-low ego orientations, the opposite is true. Chaumont and Duda's (1988) results implied that ego-involved motivation is more likely at "higher competitive levels and in competitive situations" (p. 171). This

assertion makes Ryska's findings particularly important to the present study in that Division I athletics are considered the highest level of amateur sport in the United States.

Additionally, Ryska (2002) asserted that "a major premise in the goal perspective theory of achievement motivation states that the behavioral and affective responses demonstrated by ego-involved individuals tend to vary as a function of their perceived ability" (p. 123). Student-athletes who operate from an ego-based motivational orientation and who do not have much belief in their ability "are more prone to respond negatively in a particular evaluative setting" (p. 123). Such negative responses may take the form of avoidance or low effort and students may suffer from anxiety and concentration issues. Given that the results indicate cross domain effects are possible it is not a stretch to think that these negative effects may be seen in the academic arena. Investigating the mediating affects of motivational orientation is outside the scope of the present research. However, college student-athletes may be more ego-involved and this orientation appears to lead to their athletic identity having a more negative impact on their perception of their academic performance. Thus, it is important to see how athletic identity and academic performance are linked in AAMSAs.

The last study of relevance to the present research looked at racial identity, athletic identity and college adaptation. Steinfeldt, Reed, and Steinfeldt (2010) surveyed 163 Division I and II African American football student-athletes at 2 HBCUs and 3 PWIs in the Midwest and Southeast. As part of the college adaptation portion of this study, Steinfeldt et al. considered institutional attachment which encompasses a student's general perceptions about college as well as his feelings about his own institution. The

researchers found that racial and athletic identity explained "20% of the variance in Institutional Attachment" but all of the variance was explained by year in school and racial identity variables (p. 14). While initially these results seem to contradict what other studies have shown, further probing reveals a complex interaction between athletic identity and academic performance. Steinfeldt et al. did not directly measure the impact of athletic identity on academic performance, but rather assessed it via its relationship to institutional attachment (commitment to academic goals and to a particular institution). They asserted that the findings might be the result of the institutional affinity held by student-athletes in terms of school pride which offset the possibly negative impact of athletic identity on academic performance.

While the results of Steinfeldt et al. (2010) study did not indicate a link between athletic identity and institutional attachment (i.e., academic goals), they did find that AAMSAs at PWIs reported higher levels of athletic identity which is relevant to the present research in that all 16 institutions included in the study are PWIs. Also, the researchers, like others, asserted that AIMS scores have been shown to increase in relationship to an increase in competitive level of athletics which may also play a role in the present research in that all 16 institutions compete in Division I athletics. Steinfeldt et al. also found a correlation between racial and athletic identity and called for further study citing a lack of scholarly attention to African American student-athletes in general and the "dearth of studies" that have examined the combination of racial and athletic identity in student-athletes (p. 8). "Future research should be dedicated to better understanding role salience and how it relates to negotiating the duality of being a Black

man and being a student-athlete to see why this seemingly intuitive connection was not supported by the data in this study” (p. 21). They asserted that AAMSAs have to navigate both their race and athletic status each of which is prone to stereotypes. The present research looked at racial and athletic identity as well as male identity as it is one more inescapable facet of the multidimensional identity of the population of interest.

As this section demonstrated, studies have confirmed that a strong athletic identity has a negative impact on academics. Whether is it mediated by affinity, goal orientation or another unknown variable, it appears clear that athletic identity is related to academic performance. While only one of the reviewed studies looked specifically at AAMSAs and did not find a link between the two, is not unrealistic to hypothesize that a link exists between the athletic identity and academic performance of AAMSAs. The present research helped strengthen the literature in this area and shed light on the complexity of the interaction between athletic identity and academic performance.

Jock versus athletic identity. The next section of the chapter looks at male identity and its relationship to academic performance. Miller (2009) made a distinction between jock and athletic identity and asserted that the former is related to “high profile, high status sports for which some degree of structured physical violence and intensive, hegemonically masculine imagery are hallmarks” (p. 73). Jock identity is more “I” than “we” focused and measures success externally often through material means. In Miller’s study of 581 male and female “sport-involved” undergraduates at a large public university in the Northeast, she found that jock identity was related to an overall masculinity measure and three subscale scores—playboy, winning and risk—while

athlete identity was only positively related to one aspect of masculinity—winning—and was negatively related to the playboy measure.

Miller, Melnick, Barnes, Farrell and Sabo (2005) investigated the link between GPA, school behavior and subjective jock identity. They used participants from the Family and Adolescent Study which took place in western New York and encompassed 699 families with one 13-16 year old and at least one parent which were randomly selected to provide a "regionally representative sample" (p. 180). The larger study consisted of 6 waves with a 90% retention rate in each "subsequent wave" (p. 180). This study used data from the first and third waves. Participants were in 8th-11th grades in wave one and 9th-12th in wave three. The 586 who were still in school at wave three became the focus of this study and were interviewed in their home and asked to complete a follow-up questionnaire. Those who self-identified as a jock (based on the perception of how their peers would label them) were coded as jocks.

Results showed that Black jocks had significantly lower GPAs in wave 3 than their non-jock peers but jock identity did not have any effect on White students' grades and indicated that jock identity held a significant positive relationship with school misconduct as defined by missing class, skipping school, parents being called in and being sent to the principal's office. Miller et al. (2005) brought attention to the fact that little is known about the impact of athletic involvement on "scholastic behavior" and called for further research into the roles played by race and gender (p. 178). "Few researchers have attempted to disaggregate the academic effects of objective athletic participation (what one does) from the effects of subjective athletic identity (who one

perceives oneself to be)" (p. 179). The researchers raised an interesting question about the difference between objective versus subjective athletic involvement. Given that the AIMS looks at how a person identifies with the athlete role and not just at athletic participation, the present research was able to further address the question of subjective athletic involvement.

Even though the current research does not use the term jock identity or intend to differentiate between jock and athlete identity, studies on the topic provide an interesting background for the present line of research and a logical transition to a review of the literature on male identity.

What is Male Identity?

Black men and boys are often perceived as less intelligent than other groups (hooks, 2004). Historically, they were taught that physical strength would get them further than an education and they were often chastised in schools for their curiosity or for asking too many questions (hooks, 2004). One benefit of racial segregation was that being smart and doing well in school was not viewed as acting White. It was just accepted that Black boys were capable of doing well in school, and they did (hooks, 2004). After integration, education was seen as a "White thing" and therefore perceived as unattractive by masses of Black boys and men. Patriarchal masculinity promotes the belief that Black men are to be all brawn and no brain or risk being seen as unmanly (hooks, 2004). Black boys, who are cerebral, want to read, and who love books risk being ridiculed as not manly (hooks, 2004). hooks explained that Black boys are raised in a society that tells them that manhood comes from power, control and dominance, yet

they are not given access to positions that afford them these traits. Looking for positive attention, many Black boys turn to sports. Not only does this garner them the attention they are seeking, but it also is an acceptable form of masculine expression as opposed to those interested in academics or the arts (hooks, 2004). Participation in sports gives them “both visibility and a measure of respect” (p. 94).

Another consequence of patriarchal culture is strict adherence to gender roles (hooks, 2004). Patriarchal masculinity socializes Black boys to be emotionless and sends the message that Black boys should be tough or risk being seen as soft (hooks, 2004). Portraying an image of invulnerability is a survival skill and young Black boys are taught that “real men go it alone” (p. 50). Since power, control and dominance are at the heart of patriarchal masculinity, it is not difficult to understand why some Black men may be unwilling to seek assistance with their academic work even if they know they need it. They have been socialized to believe it is unmanly to be smart or to ask for help which might especially be true when the person they would be asking, their athletic academic advisor, is typically a White woman. Race adds another dimension to the equation in that for some, education is viewed as a “White thing.” The present research looked at male identity via each participant’s views on traditional gender roles, which based on hooks’ work is linked to their perception of masculinity and what it means to be a man.

“This traditional definition of masculinity is hegemonic in that its central organizing principle is placing men above women and some men...above other men (e.g., men of color...)” and leads to “the oppression of women, marginalization of some men, and limitations for all men” (Harris & Edwards, 2010, p. 45). It seems logical to

hypothesize that if there is a link between male identity and academic performance, AAA offices could work with these men to help them create alternative conceptions of masculinity (hooks, 2004). Programs and services that help these men realize that they can use their sport as a visible sign of their manhood while still being smart and seeking the assistance they need could be helpful. This is especially true if the culture supports this notion and the men are not asked to act outside the norm—it needs to be the norm.

Like athletic identity, male identity is not a stage model and much of the research to date on the topic has not been based on a college aged sample (Harper, 2004). Therefore, this section on male identity reviews what little literature does exist, particularly that which attempts to establish a link between male identity and academic performance. Harper asserted that research on the perceptions of masculinity of college aged African American men “is virtually nonexistent” and that the “intersection of race and gender among this population remains particularly understudied” (p. 89). This assertion identified a gap in the literature that the present research intended to address.

The Link Between Male Identity and Academic Performance

Harper (2004) provided an excellent overview of the literature to date on African American masculinity which is the basis for what is presented here. He cited various authors throughout his article who are referenced here to set the stage for a review of male identity in AAMSAs. Oliver claimed that there is a “tendency of blacks, especially lower-class blacks, to tolerate the ‘tough guy’ and ‘player of women’ images as acceptable alternatives to traditional definitions of manhood” (Oliver, 1989a, p. 18; Oliver, 1989b, p. 258). "Kunjufu (1988) asserted that African American boys must make

a choice between school achievement and peer acceptance” (Harper, 2004, p. 91). When forced to choose, adolescent men opt to be perceived as athletic, not scholars or leaders (Harper, 2004). The literature to date pointed to the fact that academic prowess is not masculine; therefore the present research looked at the link between adherence to traditional male roles as measured by the Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS) and academic performance. It is hypothesized that those holding higher male identity scores will perform less well academically. If that is the case, programming can be implemented to assist AAMSAs in their male identity development and the creation of alternative conceptions of masculinity. Gilbert and Gilbert (1998) claimed that “sport is one of a number of masculine pursuits which run counter to a commitment to school learning” (p. 63). “In fact, Gilbert and Gilbert (1998), and Price (2000), suggest that a healthy, conflict-free masculine identity positively affects a variety of student outcomes, including academic achievement” (Harper, 2004, p. 103). This assertion was at the crux of the present research. If a relationship between the MRNS and GPA is found, this would be crucial information for AAAs to know in order to maximize the support provided to this population as research has shown views on masculinity vary with achievement level.

High achieving African American male college students seem to hold different views on masculinity than do their average African American male student peers. Harper (2004) conducted a phenomenological study of 32 African American men at six Big Ten institutions, all of which are large, research-focused, PWIs located in the Midwest. To be included, participants had to have a GPA of 3.0 or higher with a record of involvement

and leadership, be respected by peers and administrators, have participated in enriching academic experiences and earned honors and awards. None were student-athletes.

Through a series of one-on-one in-person interviews and follow-up phone interviews, the high achieving males reported that their non-high achieving peers held narrow definitions of masculinity that centered on women, athletics, competition, and material possessions. They believed that their own activities were not in line with "the African American undergraduate male portfolio of masculinity" (Harper, 2004, p. 97). One participant relayed a story of his peers spending more time with women and trying to impress women than in class or studying. Many used material possessions as a way to impress women and their male peers. In addition to women, their non-high achieving peers used competition in intramurals and video games to appear manly and garner respect from their peers. Another told of a peer who confessed to only being in college to put himself in the position to find a job that would allow him to buy a nice car.

In stark comparison to these stories, the high-achieving men in the study reported that while they enjoyed some of the same activities in their free time, they did not use them as standards against which to measure their masculinity. They used a "taking care of business" approach to define their manhood (Harper, 2004, p. 98). The more all-encompassing definition provided by the participants included a belief in God, leadership, community involvement and taking responsibility as well as more traditional ideals such as "providing for and protecting" their African American families on campus, at home and those they plan on having in the future (p. 100). They also attributed masculinity to getting ahead someday in order to give back and help other African

Americans. Despite their differences, the participants reported feeling supported by their non-involved peers which is evidenced by their support in electing the participants to campus leadership positions and that their peers never doubted their masculinity.

Harris and Edwards (2010) each conducted individual studies of how college men view their gender. The results of the Edwards study are consistent with Harper's findings on non-high achieving men. Edwards found that college men felt that partying instead of academic endeavors was the key to demonstrating their manhood. Participants "described the expectations of college men specifically as having competitive heterosexual sex, drinking to excess, doing drugs, breaking the rules, and not caring about or putting work into academics" (p. 47). The participants in Harris' study, similar to the high achieving students in Harper's study, defined being a man via traditional male characteristics and responsibilities such as "being respected", "being confident and self-assured", "embodying physical prowess" and being the "breadwinner" (p. 48). The men in both studies acknowledged that coaches and sports, among other influences, helped shape their ideas surrounding masculinity. For some men of color, masculinity was defined in non-destructive yet socially acceptable ways, such as giving back, caring for their family and being a positive influence on younger siblings (Harris & Edwards, 2010). This is in line with what Harper found in his study with high achieving African American male students.

In contrast to the Harris and Edwards' studies which used diverse samples, Davis' (2002) research on gender role conflict in White men indicated that the men in his study had not thought much of their gender. He asserted that this may be due to the privilege

White men have in our society, an assertion he believes is supported by the Model of Multiple Dimensions of Identity and Helms racial identity work and possibly due to the culture of the campus on which the study was conducted. Even though they had not reflected on their gender, participants did clearly identify a fear of being labeled gay or unmanly if they did not behave as they were expected to as men.

Like those of Martin and Harris (2006), Harper's findings support the notion that there are differences in male identity between those who do well academically and those who do not. This assertion was the basis for including male identity in the present research. If a link is found between male identity and academic performance, and the literature shows that the two can coexist, programs and services to educate AAMSAs could be created accordingly. Davis' (2002) results indicated that participants "generally preferred one-on-one communication, felt more comfortable communicating with women, and expressed intimacy 'side-by-side' or in the context of doing" (p. 519). Harris and Edwards (2010) also made suggestions for helping college men combat traditional hegemonic masculinity which may be helpful to student affairs educators. They recommended that students interact with others from diverse backgrounds. However, as Snyder (1996) asserted African American student-athletes are typically isolated on college campuses.

In addition to achievement status, male identity has been found to be related to help seeking behaviors. Steinfeldt, Steinfeldt, England, and Speight (2009) studied gender role conflict (GRC), athletic identity and the stigma associated with seeking professional psychological help. They surveyed 211 football student-athletes (White and

students of color) at four Midwestern colleges—two NCAA Division III and two National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) schools. Steinfeldt et al. found that total GRC was significantly related to athletic identity as measured by the AIMS and help seeking as measured by the Stigma Scale for Receiving Psychological Help (SSRPH). There was also a significant correlation between AIMS and SSRPH. Cluster 1 "had a higher percentage of African American football players than any other cluster" but there were no significant demographic differences between clusters (Steinfeldt et al., 2009, p. 265). Cluster 1 had the highest Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) scores on all four subscales as well as higher AIMS scores than the other two clusters and higher SSRPH than Cluster 3. Cluster 1's GRCS subscale profile indicated they were likely to hold strict ideas about traditional hegemonic masculinity.

The results established a link between GRC and athletic identity and help seeking at least in terms of counseling. Is seeking academic help also stigmatized? If so, it is logical to hypothesize that AAMSAs who score high on the MRNS might not do as well academically as it is not unrealistic to think that they would carry over the stigma they associate with counseling to other help seeking scenarios.

Studies have also looked at the role gender plays in mediating stereotype salience. Harrison, Stone, Shapiro, Yee, Boyd, and Rullan (2009) conducted an experiment that tested how various stereotype primes affected male and female student-athletes at two large public universities in the Southwest. In a classroom setting, 88 participants of various races took a pen and paper test after being randomly primed for athletics, athletics and academics or provided a neutral prime. Other non-student athlete

participants were in the room at the time of the experiment to closely replicate a real classroom setting.

Results showed that providing an athletic prime to males caused them to earn significantly higher scores on the relatively more difficult GRE questions but there were no differences noted on the SAT questions based on the prime presented. This may be attributable to the pride males derive from their athletic status therefore reducing their susceptibility to stereotype threat and actually putting them in a position to benefit from thinking about this positive aspect of their lives before taking an exam. When they were primed for athletics and academics they did not do as well. The researchers attributed this to the fact that they felt more self-affirmation in the athletic only context. This could be an important item to keep in mind if the present research finds a link between male and athletic identities and academic performance. AAAs could continue to work with AAMSAs to help them do better academically and provide positive feedback on their academic performances which might lead to them feeling more self-affirmed in academics and not just athletics. “Examining the extent to which race and ethnicity place additional burdens on college athletes in the classroom is a critical question for fully understanding the role of identity threat in the academic performance of college athletes” (Duderstadt, 2000, as cited in Harrison et al., 2009, p. 91).

Multiple Identities and Intersectionality

Recent literature called for further exploration of college students’ multiple identities and the intersections of these identities (Abes, Jones & McEwen, 2007; Harper, Wardell & McGuire, 2011; Jones, 2009). “The complexities of identity development in a

postmodern world are not fully captured without attention to multiple and intersecting identities and the sociocultural contexts in which identities are constructed and negotiated” (Jones, 2009, p. 287). The current study aimed to undertake this challenge by looking at three social identities and how they impact academic performance individually and in their various intersections (race and gender, gender and athletic status, athletic status and race, and race, gender and athletic status).

“Every person has many social identities that are influenced by race, gender, sexual orientation, and religion, to name a few identities. If we see individuals in terms of only one identity, we minimize the complexity of who they are” (Pope, Reynolds & Mueller, 2004, p. 23). The Model of Multiple Dimensions of Identity (MMDI) accounts for the dynamic and evolving nature of socially constructed identities, the influence of context such as peers, family and stereotypes and asserts that “each dimension cannot be fully understood in isolation” (Abes, Jones & McEwen, 2007, p. 3). These multiple identities surround a core “sense of self” including personal attributes and personal identity (p. 3). While each of the identities explored in the present study are in and of themselves important to an AAMSA’s self perception, the MMDI, supported the need to look at the combination of these three identities as opposed to each individually as they are “experienced simultaneously” (p. 2).

While it was beyond the scope of the present study, Abes, Jones and McEwen’s (2007) work highlighted the role stereotypes play in the identity perception of students who utilize formulaic mean making. This presents an interesting opportunity for future research in that negative stereotypes of AAMSAs might be more influential in the

identity development of some AAMSAs than others. This stage of meaning making may prompt students to conform to stereotypes or be adamant about contradicting them.

While much more complex in reality, the study of intersectionality highlights the role of power/privilege, oppression and context in identity development (Jones, 2009). “This key premise, that critical social issues cannot be fully understood by focusing on one aspect of identity, or by focusing on multiple identities, held independently while added to each other, is a cornerstone of intersectionality” (Jones & Wijeyesinghe, 2011, p. 12). It also draws attention to the difference between invisible and visible dimensions of identity. These assertions support the need to look at the three social identities of interest in the current study—race, gender and athletic status—as they are individually and in combination. It also prompts us to consider context when studying identity, which is why the focus of this study is on students from a group of institutions who at least athletically, profess to have things in common.

Harper, Wardell and McGuire (2011) noted that little literature to date has focused on the “complex convergence of masculinities with other aspects of men’s social identities” (p. 82). They also cautioned that focusing on only one facet of identity, to the exclusion of others, may lead to inappropriate interventions and they challenge those in higher education to move beyond the “one-identity-at-a-time” approach commonly used (p. 92). If the results of the current study support the notion that the intersection of race, gender and athletic status impact academic performance, it will be necessary for AAAs to address all three identities, together, in order to best support this population. Harper, Wardell and McGuire asserted that most campuses are not structured or prepared to

address the needs of students, developmentally, who have complex, multilayered identities. This is yet another call for the professional development of student affairs staffs to best address the needs of current students.

Conclusion

The literature reviewed in this chapter supports the need for the present research. Gaps exist surrounding each of the identities to be studied as well as in the coverage of African American male student-athletes. Very little scholarly attention has focused on racial, male or athletic identity in the AAMSA population. Even though the literature supports the notion that a link may in fact exist between racial, athletic and male identities and academic performance, none to date has looked at all three together and none have examined the combination of all three identities in AAMSAs. What has been done indicates the need for further research into each of these identities and the population of interest and the current research aimed to extend the literature accordingly. Next, Chapter Three provides an overview of the methodology for the present study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, I present an overview of the methodology and methods I used to collect and analyze my data. The chapter begins with a restatement of the purpose of my study and a review of the research questions. Next, is a discussion of my methodological framework followed by a description of my research design and method (study approval, participants, and method and instruments). The chapter concludes with a look at how the data was prepared as well as a discussion of the ethical considerations and confidentiality issues.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of the current research was to examine racial, male and athletic identities and their individual and collective impact on the academic performance of African American male Division I student-athletes (AAMSAs). The aim of the study was to gather data that would better inform the work of athletic academic advisors (AAA) in the hope that it would allow the profession to best serve the AAMSA population. The goal was to determine if a link exists between any of the identities of interest and academic performance and what, if anything, AAAs need to know based upon the results. The stated purpose of this research was explored using two primary research questions:

1. To what extent are measures of racial, male, and athletic identities (MIBI, MRNS, and AIMS) psychometrically sound when used with a sample of AAMSAs?
2. To what extent do racial, male and athletic identities influence AAMSA's academic performance above and beyond what is accounted for by demographic variables?

The goal of this research was to determine if these non-cognitive factors impact the academic performance of AAMSAs in order to further inform the work of athletic academic advisors as they seek to increase the retention and graduation of this population.

The following four hypotheses were tested:

1. Black racial identity, as measured by the MIBI, will have various relationships with academic performance based on the subscales of the MIBI. High public and private regard scores will be positively related to academic performance. Nationalist and oppressed minority ideologies will have a negative relationship to academic performance while the assimilation and humanist subscales will be positively related. Centrality will have a curvilinear relationship with academic performance.
2. Male identity, as measured by the MRNS, will be negatively related to academic performance.
3. Athletic identity, as measured by the AIMS, will be negatively related to academic performance.
4. The combination of racial identity, athletic identity and male identity will be a stronger predictor of academic performance than any one of the variables individually. Depending on the various combinations of racial ideology, regard and

centrality, the relationship between racial identity and academic performance may be positive or negative.

Methodological Framework

Given that the ultimate goal of this study was to be able to use the results to better inform the work of AAA programs, finding relationships between the variables of interest and academic performance was desired. The study was quantitative and non-experimental in nature as there was no manipulation of the variables and the hope was to identify relationships between and amongst the variables (McMillan, 2004). For the purposes of this study, academic performance, as measured by cumulative GPA at the time of the survey, served as the dependent variable while racial, male and athletic identities functioned as the independent variables and demographics and personal characteristics served as control variables. Each of the independent variables is discussed in the next section. While major is posed as an open ended question in the Demographic Questionnaire, responses were categorized into business, computer science, communication, education, liberal arts (which included social sciences) and those who were undecided. This avoided forcing respondents to pick from a pre-determined list and allowed them to declare institution specific majors. Racial, male and athletic identities, as well as their various subscales, were all discrete variables.

The hypotheses that were tested are both deductive and inductive in that they were formulated based on both a review of the literature and the researcher's experiences working in an academic support unit for student-athletes at a Division I institution (McMillan, 2004). As discussed in Chapter One, the researcher has worked in Athletic

Academic Advising at DePaul University, a member of the BIG EAST Conference, for more than a decade.

Research Design and Method

Study Approval

This study focused exclusively on AAMSAs at the 16 BIG EAST institutions primarily due to the researcher's interest, as I have served on the Academic Affairs Committee and currently as co-chair of the Athletic Academic Advisors' group within the conference. DePaul University joined the BIG EAST Conference at the beginning of the 2005-2006 academic year in order to compete in a conference with other like institutions. According to the conference's website:

The conference reflects a tradition of broad based programs, led by administrators and coaches who place a constant emphasis on academic integrity. Its student athletes own significantly high graduation rates and their record of scholastic achievement notably show a balance between intercollegiate athletics and academics. (The BIG EAST Conference, 2010)

While 11 of the institutions compete in football, the other five do not and sponsor basketball as their primary sport, such as DePaul.

Further, eight of the institutions are Catholic and five of those eight are in major media markets—like DePaul. According to the BIG EAST website, the 16 member institutions hail from nine of the largest media markets in the U.S. This, along with the significant television presence of the BIG EAST thanks to agreements with CBS, ESPN and ABC, has lead to a high degree of visibility for student-athletes within the conference. While each institution is unique, the fact that all belong to the same

conference, provides enough similarities to make a study of AAMSAs within the conference worthwhile.

In order to move forward with answering the research questions, approval for this study was obtained from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Loyola University Chicago. As part of the application for IRB approval, the researcher provided letters of support from participating institutions (one school required the researcher to complete its IRB process in order to be granted a letter of support). Support was solicited via e-mail with Jean Lenti Ponsetto (DePaul University's Athletic Director), Kathryn Statz (DePaul University's Associate Athletic Director for Varsity Sports/Senior Women's Administrator) and Dr. John McEnroe (DePaul University's Faculty Athletics Representative) serving as references who supported the study. The support of the athletic department at each school was crucial in that student-athletes tend to be a very protected group and without their support, access could be an issue. Of even greater importance in this study is the fact that each school was asked to name a point person at their institution to assist in the recruitment of participants.

Participants

All AAMSAs who were rostered members (appearing on the official institutional squad list) of an intercollegiate athletic team at one of the 16 BIG EAST institutions were invited to participate. In total, BIG EAST institutions sponsor 133 teams for men. Table 1 provides a summary of each institution's enrollment, number of men's athletic teams, public or private affiliation, Carnegie Classification and level of selectivity.

Table 1. Profile of the 16 BIG EAST Institutions

BIG EAST Institution	Enrollment	# of NCAA Teams for Men	Public or Private	Carnegie Classification	Selectivity
University of Cincinnati	31,134	8	Public	RU/VH	Competitive +
University of Connecticut	25,029	10	Public	RU/VH	Highly Competitive
DePaul University	25,072	6	Private not-for-profit	DRU	Competitive +
Georgetown University	16,520	12	Private not-for-profit	RU/VH	Most Competitive
University of Louisville	21,016	9	Public	RU/H	Very Competitive
Marquette University	11,689	7	Private not-for-profit	RU/H	Highly Competitive +
University of Notre Dame	11,816	12	Private not-for-profit	RU/VH	Most Competitive
University of Pittsburgh	28,328	8	Public	RU/VH	Highly Competitive
Providence College	4,900	7	Private not-for-profit	Master's L	Highly Competitive
Rutgers University	37,366	9	Public	RU/VH	Highly Competitive
St. John's University	20,352	7	Private not-for-profit	DRU	Competitive
Seton Hall University	9,616	6	Private not-for-profit	DRU	Competitive
University of South Florida	40,022	8	Public	RU/VH	Competitive

Table 1 (continued)

Syracuse University	19,638	8	Private not-for-profit	RU/H	Highly Competitive
Villanova University	10,375	10	Private not-for-profit	Master's L	Most Competitive
West Virginia University	28,898	7	Public	RU/H	Competitive

Notes: RU/VH: Research Universities (very high research activity)

RU/H: Research Universities (high research activity)

DRU: Doctoral/Research Universities

Master's L: Master's Colleges and Universities (larger programs)

Enrollment source: National Center for Education Statistics

NCAA Teams source: BIG EAST Conference and institutional websites

Public vs. Private and Carnegie Classification source: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching

Selectivity source: Barron's Educational Series, Inc.

Based on institutional data, it was estimated that there are 3,750 male student-athletes on the 133 men's teams at the 16 BIG EAST Conference institutions. Using NCAA race and ethnicity data, it was anticipated that 832 of these men are African American (see Table 2). Given that the population of interest is AAMSAs, an identifiable population, and the low response rate often seen in survey research, the entire population was invited to participate in hopes of receiving enough responses to allow the data to be analyzed to a level of significance thus allowing results to be generalizable.

Table 2. Approximate Percentage of African American Male Student-Athletes in each Sport at BIG EAST Institutions

Sport	% of AAMSAs in Division I	# of Team in the BIG EAST	Total # in BE	Potential Pool
Baseball	5.7%	12	393	22.4
Basketball	60.4%	16	228	137.7
Cross Country				
Fencing	4.9%	2	47	2.3
Football	45.6%	11	998	455.1
Golf	2.6%	12	108	2.8
Hockey	0.7%	3	85	0.6
Lacrosse	1.7%	7*	308	5.2
Rifle	1.5%	1	8	0.1
Rowing	1.0%	2	121	1.2
Sailing	0.4%	1	23	0.1
Soccer	9.9%	16	438	43.4
Swimming & Diving	1.9%	11	261	5.0
Tennis	4.9%	9	97	4.8
Track & Field	26.6%	13	547	145.5
Wrestling	6.1%	3	95	5.8

Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association *Student-Athlete Ethnicity 1999-2000—2008-2009* and 16 BIG EAST institution websites.

*Since many cross country student-athletes also compete in track & field, only track & field numbers were used in this estimate. The percentage of AAMSAs in outdoor track & field is less than indoor track & field, only the indoor numbers were used. Marquette's lacrosse team will not be in place until 2013, therefore it is not included in this analysis. Counter limits for cross country and track & field are one number therefore for the purposes of this table, the track & field percentages are used.

While all 16 BIG EAST Conference institutions were invited to participate in the study, only five schools agreed and granted the researcher access to their AAMSAs. In total 248 AAMSAs at the five schools were sent the survey. Of the 248 invitees, 67 (27%) started the survey, but only 42 (17%) completed it. Of the 42 who completed the survey, only 39 (16%) respondents completed enough of the survey to be included in the analysis. Since participation was voluntary respondents had the option to leave any

questions they chose to blank (except consenting to the survey). Three respondents with 10% or more missing data (ten or more questions left unanswered) were considered incomplete and were removed from the data set. The sample was fairly evenly divided between students attending public and private schools—21 (54%) and 16 (41%) respectively. Two participants left this question blank. Most respondents played either football or basketball (65%), but in total seven sports were represented in the sample—football (39%), basketball (26%), baseball (5%), soccer (8%), swimming and diving (3%), tennis (3%) and track and field (18%). The vast majority (82%) were recruited out of high school and receive an athletic scholarship (79%)—62% receive a full scholarship, 18% a partial scholarship and eight opted not to answer this question. The sample was evenly divided between those who receive a Pell Grant and those who do not (49% in each category and one dissenter). As for year in school, almost half (46%) were freshmen, 20% were sophomores, 10% were juniors and 23% indicated they were seniors or above. Final high school GPAs ranged from 2.5-4.0 with an average of 3.125. Majors were representative of many fields—business (13%), computer science (3%), communication (18%), education (26%), liberal arts (18%) and those who were undecided (23%). Current college GPAs ranged from 2.1-4.0 with an average of 2.921. The ethnicity of the sample was mostly Black American (77%) with representation in other categories—African, Jamaican, Other Black and Other Caribbean—one student chose to leave this question blank.

E-mail was the primary method used to recruit participants. Since it was assumed that schools would be hesitant to release e-mail addresses to the researcher, there was no

attempt to e-mail the sample directly. All communication was generated via Opinio. While e-mail addresses are considered directory information and not covered under the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) many schools, like DePaul, limit access to such information to their campus community. Templates for each of the e-mails that were to be sent to participants were included in the e-mail that went to the contact person at each school and can be found in the appendices. Since NCAA rules prohibit the researcher from providing an incentive to participants and incentivizing the academic advisors at each institution could lead to student-athletes feeling pressured to participate, no such inducement was offered. A token of gratitude was sent to the contact person at each of the participating institutions after completion of the study.

In order to maintain the anonymity of each respondent yet allow the researcher to ensure the authenticity of responses, the contact person at each institution was asked to enter their AAMSA's e-mail addresses into Opinio. The contact was provided a login and password by Jack Corliss, Senior Analyst—Academic Technology at Loyola University Chicago. Once the e-mail addresses were entered, the contact's access was taken away and the researcher did not have access to view the participants' e-mail addresses. Two exceptions must be noted. The researcher had access to the e-mail addresses for participants from DePaul University as she entered them herself and one of the other participating schools asked that she enter e-mail addresses on their behalf. The researcher emphasized in her e-mails to the institutional contacts the importance of only inviting AAMSAs to participate. Opinio only allowed participants to answer the survey once. The goal was to collect data over a two week period with participants receiving an

initial invitation to participate followed by two reminders if they had not yet completed the survey. Reminder e-mails were automatically generated by Opinio. In reality, data collection took significantly more time as the survey was left open longer than originally planned to try and boost response rates. In addition to the planned reminders, student-athletes received up to three additional reminders with the permission of the institutional contacts. Participation was voluntary and neither the researcher nor the institutional contacts knew who did and did not complete the survey.

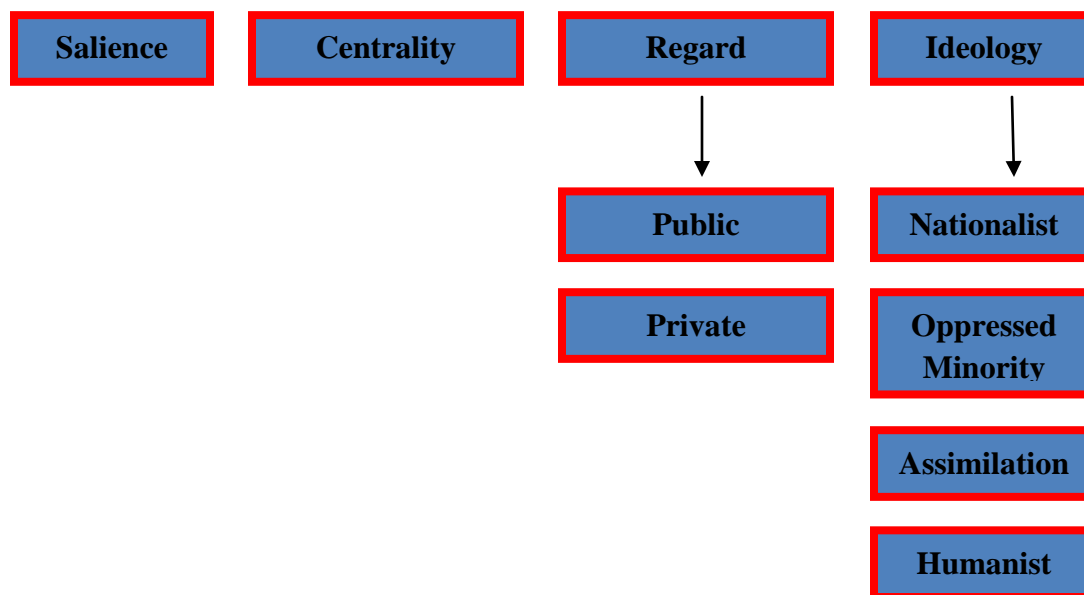
Method and Instruments

The proposed research utilized the MIBI, MRNS and AIMS to measure each participant's racial, male and athletic identities. Information such as school, sport, and self-reported GPA was collected via a Demographic Questionnaire created for the purposes of this study. The questionnaire was created based on those used in previous studies of this type. The three instruments and demographic questionnaire were administered via Opinio. Each participant received an e-mail invitation to participate that included a link to the study. The first screen of the survey explained the purpose of the study and the voluntary nature of participation. The consent form, in Appendix F, was included electronically and participants were asked to "click here" if they agreed to participate, at which point the survey began. The consent form also explained to potential participants the expected benefits of the research. While there was no individual benefit to participants, their responses will hopefully help AAA programs better serve AAMSAs in the future.

Given the potentially high profile nature of the sport in which some of the study participants compete and the geographic distance between institutions, an online survey was determined to be the best way to gather data. This method of data collection also helped minimize any potential limitation or bias due to the researcher's race (White). As discussed in Chapter Two, depending on where a potential participant is in his racial identity development, the race of the researcher may be an issue. Each participant was asked to complete the MIBI (56 items), the MRNS (26 items), the AIMS (7 items) and a Demographic Questionnaire (13 items). While the MIBI, MRNS and AIMS are three separate and distinct inventories, each uses a 7-point likert scale which allowed this survey to be presented in a consistent format thus minimizing any confusion on the scales. It was estimated that the survey would take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. A pilot was conducted with a former AAMSA who had just graduated to confirm the amount of time required to complete the survey as well as the clarity of the items in the Demographic Questionnaire. The student reported that the survey took 15 minutes to complete and he only had confusion on one item contained within the MIBI. The researcher verified that the question was entered correctly and proceeded with the study.

MIBI. The Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (MIBI) was created as part of the Multidimensional Model of Racial Identity (MMRI) which is based on several models of Black racial identity (African American Racial Identity Lab (AARIL), n.d.). The model takes into account the significance race has in a person's self-definition as well as his perception of being Black. The MMRI is comprised of four dimensions of

which the MIBI measures three: centrality, ideology and regard (see Appendix A for the complete instrument). The fourth dimension, salience, is situation specific so measuring it via objective surveys is not appropriate (AARIL, n.d.).



(Adapted from Sellers, Smith, Shelton, Rowley & Chavous, 1998)

Figure 2. Multidimensional Model of Racial Identity

The MIBI was specifically designed to measure the three concepts in college aged students and adults (Sellers, Rowley, Chavous, Shelton, & Smith, 1997 as cited by AARIL). The MIBI is comprised of seven subscales: (1) centrality, (2) private regard, (3) public regard, (4) assimilation, (5) humanist, (6) minority, and (7) nationalist. As defined by the AARIL (n.d.), centrality addresses the significance race plays in a person's life and self-definition while ideology and regard look at a person's perceptions of what it means to be Black and how Blacks are perceived by others. Private regard is a measure of a person's own feelings about his race while public regard quantifies how he thinks his

race is perceived by others. The four ideology subscales are defined as follows: assimilation focuses on the “similarities between African Americans and the rest of American society;” humanist is the “viewpoint that emphasizes the commonalities amongst all humans;” minority ideology “emphasizes the similarities between African Americans and other oppressed groups;” and finally the nationalist ideology is “characterized by a viewpoint that emphasizes the uniqueness of being of African descent” (AARIL, n.d., para. 4).

The 56-item instrument is divided over three scales and each item is answered on a 7-point likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. The questions are divided as follows: the centrality scale (8 items), the regard scale (private regard—6 items and public regard—6 items) and the ideology scale (assimilation subscale—9 items, humanist subscale—9 items, oppressed minority subscale—9 items and nationalist subscale—9 items). Given the nature of the instrument’s scales, a total score for the entire 56-item inventory is not appropriate. Therefore only average subscale scores were used in the data analysis (AARIL).

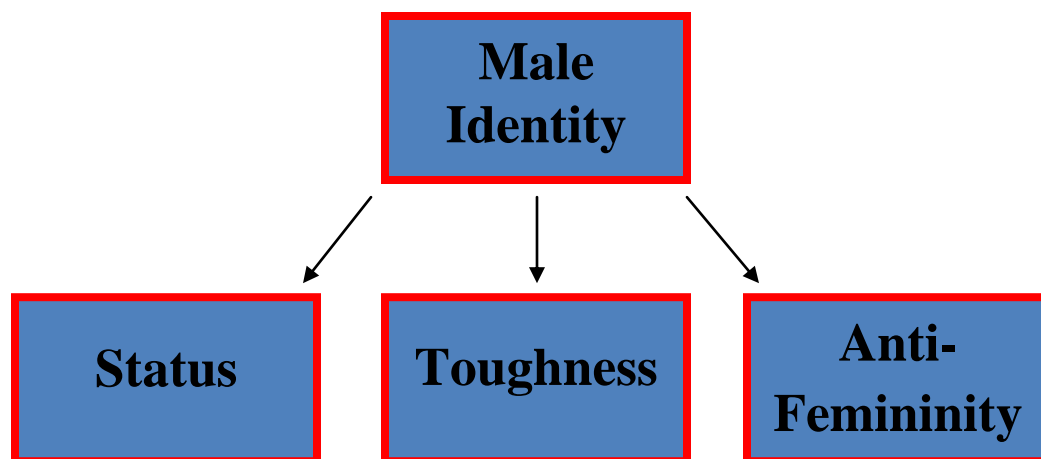
The measure was validated based on the responses of 474 African American students at one HBCU and one PWI using factor analysis (Sellers et al., 1998). The alphas for the centrality and ideology subscales range from .70 to .79, while those for both of the regard subscales are .78 (Sellers et al., 1998). Use of the MIBI allowed the researcher to address the question of whether or not racial identity influences the academic performance of AAMSAs and how, if at all, it interacts with male and athletic identity to influence academic performance. If relationships were found between the

subscales and academic performance in AAMSAs, it could help focus programs and services on the dimensions of racial identity linked with academic success. Permission to use the measure is not needed (N. Hoa, personal communication, May 6, 2008).

MRNS. The Male Role Norms Scale, which takes status, toughness and anti-femininity into account to calculate a masculinity ideology score, was used to quantify male identity. The 26-item MRNS encompasses three subscales (see Appendix C for the complete instrument). The questions are divided as follows: “status norms (11 items, $\alpha=.81$); toughness norms (8 items, $\alpha=.74$); and antifemininity norms (7 items, $\alpha=.76$)” (Thompson, Pleck, & Ferrara, 1992, p. 589). Like the MIBI, each item is answered on a 7-point likert scale. For the MRNS, the likert scale descriptors are (1) very strongly disagree to (7) very strongly agree. An average score for each subscale was calculated as was an average total score. According to Pleck, the total score is used in most research as it has slightly higher internal reliability (personal communication, October 9, 2010). This fact, combined with the results of factor analyses, support the use of only a total scale score in the correlation analysis and therefore that is what was used.

The instrument was chosen for the present study as it solely measures ideology (Thompson et al., 1992). Unlike many other scales, it does not consider “attitudes toward women or gender attitudes in general” (p. 589). This singular focus is preferred, according to Thompson et al., as it minimizes interpretation issues. The instrument is prescriptive in nature as the questions focus on “beliefs about what men should be like” (p. 577). The MRNS has an internal reliability of .86 based on a combination of 1510

male and female college students from multiple samples. Its construct validity has been verified in both adolescent males and college students (Thompson et al., 1992).



(Adapted from Thompson, Pleck, & Ferrara, 1992)

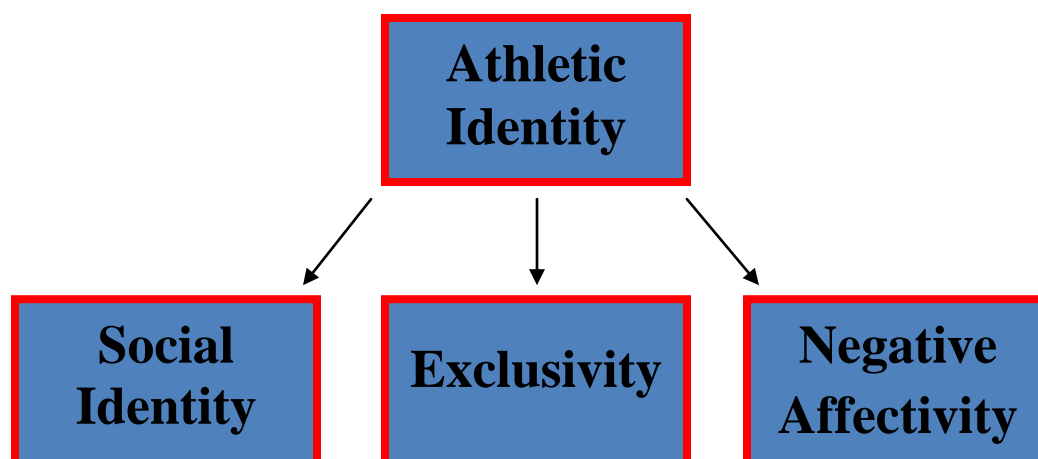
Figure 3. Male Role Norms Scale

Thompson et al. (1992) evaluated 17 scales intended to measure masculinity concepts. Eleven of those reviewed, including the MRNS, focused on “the respondent’s attitudes toward the rights and responsibilities of men” (p. 577). The MRNS is considered a “relatively short measure” (p. 590) as eight of the eleven above mentioned scales are longer. Use of the MRNS allowed the researcher to address the question of whether or not male identity influences the academic performance of AAMSAs and how, if at all, it interacts with racial and athletic identity to influence academic performance. If correlations were found between the subscales and academic performance in AAMSAs, it could help focus programs and services on the dimensions of masculinity ideology linked with academic success. Permission to use the MRNS is not needed (J. Pleck, personal communication, July 26, 2010).

AIMS. Athletic identity was measured by the AIMS, which attempts to quantify the level of importance and centrality athletics has in a person's life. Like both the MIBI and MRNS, each item is answered on a 7-point likert scale anchored by (1) strongly disagree and (7) strongly agree (see Appendix B for the complete instrument). The appeal of this instrument, and the reason it was selected for use in the current research is that it measures "both strength and exclusivity of identification with the athlete role" (Brewer et al., 1993, p. 242). While only one score for the entire measure is calculated, the instrument takes into account three aspects of athletic identity: social (questions 1-3), exclusivity (questions 4-5) and negative affectivity (questions 6-7) (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001). Therefore, high scores on the AIMS indicate a strong and exclusive athletic identity. It possesses an internal consistency of .81. Some researchers have indicated that use of subscale scores may be appropriate, but the creators advocate the use of one total score. An average total score for the inventory was calculated and used in the analysis because factor analyses indicated that the use of subscale scores was not appropriate with this sample.

Use of the AIMS allowed the researcher to address the question of whether or not athletic identity influences the academic performance of AAMSAs and how, if at all, it interacts with racial and male identity to influence academic performance. While individual subscale scores are not necessarily calculated in the use of AIMS, should a correlation between athletic identity and academic performance be found, a closer look at the subscales may be useful in determining the programs and services best suited for

assisting the AAMSA population. Permission to use AIMS in the present research was granted by Dr. Britton Brewer (personal communication, July 25, 2010).



(Adapted from Brewer & Cornelius, 2001)

Figure 4. Athletic Identity Measurement Scale

Demographic Questionnaire. The 13-item demographic questionnaire was created for the purposes of the current research based upon those used in similar studies (see Appendix D). The goal of the instrument was to gather relevant demographic information that would allow conclusions to be drawn about the impact of racial, athletic and male identities upon academic performance above and beyond those accounted for by demographic differences. Participants were asked to list their institution, sport, year in school, major and GPAs—both high school and current cumulative college GPA. High school GPA was included as a “pretest” (Pascarella, 2001, p. 489). Given that the present research was not experimental in nature and the goal was to be able to make claims about the influence racial, athletic and male identities have on academic performance, a student’s pre-college academic ability must be taken into account. Pascarella asserted

that “we need good baseline data, and the best way to get that is with a pre-intervention (pretest) measure of the outcome” (p. 489). Participants were also asked to indicate whether or not they were recruited out of high school by their institution and if they receive an athletic scholarship—full or partial. Each of these questions was geared toward gauging the level of athletic involvement of the participants. A question about Pell Grant eligibility was also included as it is the standard measure used by the NCAA in allowing institutions to provide resources based on financial need. The final three questions about race and international status were meant to ensure those participating in the study fit the profile intended by the researcher. It was not the intent of the study to look at multiracial identity or to include international students as they may hold different views of each of the identities based on their country of origin. However, given the low response rate, all completed surveys were used in the analysis including those who identified as international, multiracial or other. While this was not the original intent, this group was fairly small (10% international, 15% multiracial and 5% who identified their race as other) and the lack of variability in responses indicated there was no need to exclude these participants.

Data Preparation and Analysis

Are racial, male and athletic identities, as measured by the MIBI, MRNS and AIMS respectively, correlated to the academic performance of African American male student-athletes? Quantitative data analyses were used to answer these questions. The data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to ensure that the reliability and validity of

the scales hold to the sample as well as to determine if there was support for the use of subscale scores (AIMS and MRNS) as indicated in some of the literature. Subscale scores were not supported by the data therefore they were not used in the analyses. Prior to running analyses to answer the second research question, the independent variables were subjected to collinearity diagnostics and all categorical variables were dummy coded against a reference group determined based upon the sample.

Partial correlations were used to analyze the relationships between the identity variables and academic performance as they allow researchers “to control for the possible effects of another confounding variable” (Pallant, 2007, p. 101). Correlations were run on each of the identity variables controlling for demographic and pre-college characteristics (institution, sport, year in school, high school GPA, recruitment, scholarship, Pell eligibility and major) as well as the other identity variables. The goal of the data analysis was to find the unique relationship the independent variables (AIMS, MRNS and MIBI) each have with the dependent variable (college GPA) while controlling for demographic and pre-college characteristic as well as the other identity variables.

Ethical Considerations and Confidentiality

While data about institution and sport were collected, results are not reported to that level of detail as the participation rates did not allow for the data to remain non-personally identifiable. Data was only reported in the aggregate to protect the confidentiality of participants. As part of the consent screen in the online survey, students were assured of the confidential nature of the study and provided assurance that

the data would be stored securely in a password protected file. Given that the risk to participants is minimal the data was stored on the researcher's personal laptop and university issued personal computer (as well as those of a statistical consultant employed by DePaul University) until the analyses were completed. Once all data were collected the IRB protocol was closed. At the conclusion of the project, all files will be destroyed. Only the researcher and those overseeing her dissertation process have access to the data. This group includes a research consultant with expertise in electronic data analysis. Jaclyn Cameron, Research Associate—Institutional Research and Market Analysis at DePaul University, helped the researcher analyze the data. Her participation adds a layer of objectivity and helps minimize any bias in data analysis due to the researcher's work in AAA.

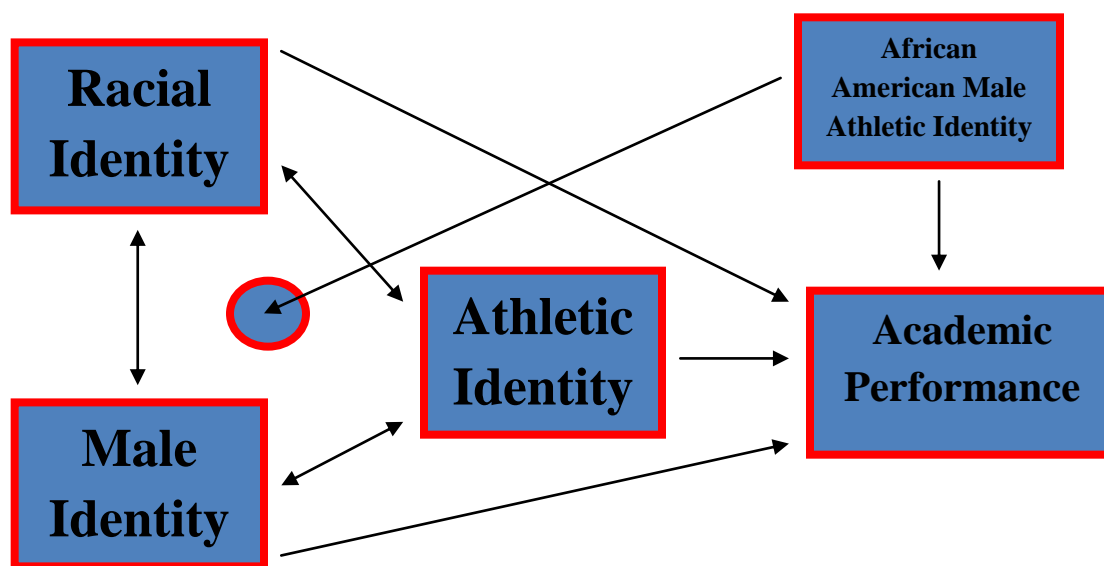


Figure 5. Proposed Model of African American, Male, Athletic Identity and its link to Academic Performance

Next, Chapter Four details the data preparation and analysis used in the present research.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

In this chapter, I discuss how the data was prepared and analyzed as well as the results of the analysis. In preparation for analysis, the 67 surveys were reviewed for completeness. Only 42 were taken as complete and the other 25 were removed from the data set. Three additional cases were removed because respondents left more than 10% of the questions blank. Since the demographic questionnaire was at the end of the survey, those who stopped taking the survey prior to the end never entered their demographic data. Therefore no analysis of those who did not complete the survey could be made. However, it was possible to see where in the actual survey each participant stopped. One person never answered any questions, five stopped after completing the AIMS, nine stopped somewhere within or at the end of the MRNS and 10 stopped within the MIBI. It is worth noting that five stopped after Question 18 in the MRNS and four after Question 10 in the MIBI which might be worth investigating in future research. In total, 39 cases were deemed complete and data cleaning began. First, the six items on the MIBI and the two on the MRNS that needed to be reverse scored were re-coded in SPSS. New variables were created for each of the subscale averages (three in AIMS, three in MRNS and seven in MIBI) as well as average total scores for AIMS and MRNS (see Appendix J for the means and standard deviations of each item and subscale). As mentioned in Chapter Three, a total score for the MIBI is not

appropriate given the nature of the instrument. Next, demographic variables were coded as follows:

Year in school: 1=Freshman, 2=Sophomore, 3=Junior and 4=Senior or above

Major: 0=Humanities, 1=Helping Professions

Institution Type: 0=Public, 1=Private

Pell Eligibility: 0=Not Pell Eligible, 1=Pell Eligible

Recruitment: 0=Not Recruited, 1=Recruited

Scholarship: 0=No, 1=Yes

Scholarship Type: 0=Partial, 1=Full

Wherever appropriate, the variables were coded based on perceived privilege with one equaling privileged status (i.e., private school, recruited, scholarship)

Descriptive Statistics

The sample was fairly evenly divided between public and private schools—21 (54%) and 16 (41%) respectively. Two participants left this question blank. Most respondents played either football or basketball (65%), but in total seven sports were represented in the sample—football (39%), basketball (26%), baseball (5%), soccer (8%), swimming and diving (3%), tennis (3%) and track and field (18%). The vast majority (82%) were recruited out of high school and receive an athletic scholarship (79%)—62% receive a full scholarship, 18% a partial scholarship and eight opted not to answer this question. The sample was evenly divided between those who received a Pell Grant and those who did not (49% in each category and one dissenter). As for year in school, almost half (46%) were freshmen, 20% were sophomores, 10% were juniors and 23%

indicated they were seniors or above. Final high school GPAs ranged from 2.5-4.0 with an average of 3.125. Majors were representative of many fields—business (13%), computer science (3%), communication (18%), education (26%), liberal arts (18%) and those who were undecided (23%). Anyone who left the field blank was determined to be undecided. Current college GPAs ranged from 2.1-4.0 with an average of 2.921. The ethnicity of the sample was mostly Black American (77%) with representation in other categories—African, Jamaican, Other Black and Other Caribbean—one student chose to leave this question blank.

Factor Analysis

As discussed in Chapter Two, the creators of the AIMS recommend using a total score for the instrument in data analyses while some research has indicated the presence of subscales within the instrument. Previous studies have suggested there are three subscales within the AIMS—social (items 1-3), exclusivity (items 4-5) and negative affectivity (items 6-7). Factor Analyses were conducted to confirm whether or not the proposed subscales held true with the current sample.

The seven items of the AIMS were subjected to principal components analysis using SPSS. While the sample is smaller than the recommended size for running such an analysis, it does meet the other three criteria. Some of the correlations are above .3, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant ($p=.000$) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value is .548 (which can be rounded to the recommended .6). Principal components analysis revealed the presence of two components with eigenvalues greater than 1 which explained 34.255% and 20.085% respectively and the scree plot showed a break after the

second component. The Pattern Matrix revealed that both components contained strong loadings (greater than .4) and all variables loaded substantially on only one component. One variable loaded on both components but only one was above .4. There was a weak correlation between the two factors ($r=.191$). The results of this analysis do not support the proposed subscales seen in other studies.

Table 3. Pattern and Structure Matrix for PCA with Oblimin Rotation of Two Factor Solution of AIMS Items

Item	Pattern Coefficients		Structure Coefficients		Communalities
	Component 1	Component 2	Component 1	Component 2	
AIMS 4	.868		.854		.734
AIMS 7	.773		.750		.576
AIMS 5	.759		.770		.596
AIMS 6	.523	.319	.584	.419	.439
AIMS 2		.775		.749	.578
AIMS 1		.751		.763	.586
AIMS 3		.532		.540	.293

Similarly, there is some debate about the use of subscale scores within the MRNS. According to Pleck, the total score is used in most research as it has slightly higher internal reliability (personal communication, October 9, 2010). Therefore, Factor Analyses were conducted to confirm whether or not the proposed subscales held true with the current sample. The 26 items of the MRNS were subjected to principal components analysis using SPSS. In addition to the sample size being smaller than normally recommended for running such an analysis, the results indicated that the use of factor analysis with the given sample is not appropriate. The correlation matrix revealed some

values greater than .3 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ($p=.000$) but the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was only .430 which is lower than the recommended value of .6 so the results of the factor analysis are not reported here and only a total score was used in the analysis.

Reliability Testing

To answer my first research question—To what extent are measures of racial, male, and athletic identities (MIBI, MRNS, and AIMS) psychometrically sound when used with a sample of AAMSAs—the reliability of each scale/subscale was run in SPSS using Cronbach's alphas.

MIBI

As discussed earlier, the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (MIBI) is used to assess the significance race has in a person's self-definition as well as his perception of being Black. It measures three dimensions of racial identity: centrality, ideology and regard and is comprised of seven subscales: (1) centrality, (2) private regard, (3) public regard, (4) assimilation, (5) humanist, (6) minority, and (7) nationalist. As defined by the AARIL (n.d.), centrality addresses the significance race plays in a person's life and self-definition while ideology and regard look at a person's perceptions of what it means to be Black and how Blacks are perceived by others. In the present study, its reliability was determined to be .533 (8 items). Private regard is a measure of a person's own feelings about his race while public regard quantifies how he thinks his race is perceived by others. Reliabilities for these two subscales were .587 (6 items) and .489 (6 items) respectively. The four ideology subscales are defined as follows: assimilation

focuses on the “similarities between African Americans and the rest of American society;” humanist is the “viewpoint that emphasizes the commonalties amongst all humans;” minority ideology “emphasizes the similarities between African Americans and other oppressed groups;” and finally the nationalist ideology is “characterized by a viewpoint that emphasizes the uniqueness of being of African descent” (AARIL, n.d., para. 4). Cronbach’s alphas for each ideology subscale were Assimilation=.685 (9 items), Humanist=.779 (9 items), Minority=.678 (9 items) and Nationalist=.760 (9 items).

Sellers et al. (1998) reported that the alphas for the centrality and ideology subscales range from .70 to .79 while those for both of the regard subscales are .78. Clearly, the reliabilities in this study are lower, sometimes substantially so, likely due to the small sample size. The reliabilities for centrality, public and private regard and two of the four ideology (Assimilation and Minority) subscales are lower than what has been reported in earlier studies, while the Humanist and Nationalist ideology reliabilities are in line with previous reports. Given that the reliabilities for five of the seven MIBI subscales in this study are lower than previously reported, the MIBI was determined to not be psychometrically sound for my sample. Only the subscales with reliabilities greater than .6 were used in the correlation in hopes that using the more reliable subscales would yield a stronger relationship between racial identity and college GPA. Therefore, centrality and public/private regard were not used in the correlation analysis.

MRNS

The Male Role Norms Scale, which takes status, toughness and anti-femininity into account to calculate a masculinity ideology score, was used to quantify male identity.

Reliabilities for each of the subscales and the total score were as follows: Status=.792 (11 items), Toughness=.705 (8 items), Anti-femininity=.647 (7 items) and Total=.847 (26 items). According to Thompson, Pleck and Ferrara (1992), the reliabilities for each subscale are Status=.81, Toughness=.74 and Anti-femininity=.76. While the subscales did not hold true for the sample in the current study, the reliability score for the Status subscale and MRNS total score are in line with previously reported data.

AIMS

The AIMS attempts to quantify the level of importance and centrality athletics has in a person's life. As mentioned earlier, there is some debate in the literature whether or not one total score or three subscale scores should be used when interpreting the AIMS. Factor analysis performed on the current sample did not support the presence of three subscales rather the data suggested two subscales. Using SPSS, Cronbach's alphas were calculated and reported as follows Social=.355 (3 items), Exclusivity=.798 (2 items), Negative Affectivity=.602 (2 items) and Total=.659. Based on the factor analysis and reliability testing, it seems that the social subscale does not reliably measure the construct in my sample. Brewer and Cornelius (2001) reported that the AIMS has an internal consistency of .81 which is much higher than the .659 found in this sample. Only the total score was used in the analysis because factor analyses indicated that the use of subscale scores was not appropriate with this sample.

Partial Correlations

Partial correlations were run using SPSS to answer the second research question—to what extent are racial, male and athletic identities related to an AAMSA's

academic performance above and beyond what is accounted for by demographic variables? Partial correlations were used to analyze the relationships between the identity variables and academic performance as they allow researchers “to control for the possible effects of another confounding variable” (Pallant, 2007, p. 101). Correlations were run on each of the identity variables controlling for demographic and pre-college characteristics (institution, sport, year in school, high school GPA, recruitment, scholarship, Pell eligibility and major) as well as the other identity variables. The goal of the data analysis was to find the unique relationship the independent variables (AIMS, MRNS and MIBI) each have with the dependent variable (college GPA) while controlling for demographic and pre-college characteristic as well as the other identity variables. Based on the correlations, each hypothesis proposed in Chapter One is addressed below.

Hypothesis 1—Black racial identity, as measured by the MIBI, will have various relationships with academic performance based on the subscales of the MIBI. High public and private regard scores will be positively related to academic performance. Nationalist and oppressed minority ideologies will have a negative relationship to academic performance while the assimilation and humanist subscales will be positively related. Centrality will have a curvilinear relationship with academic performance. Although no relationships were found to be significant, trends in these variables were analyzed using Pearson’s partial order correlations. As mentioned earlier, only subscale scores with reliabilities above .6 were used in the correlation. Therefore, centrality, public and private regard were omitted. While none of the relationships were significant,

two of the four subscales showed a moderate relationship with academic performance (Assimilation: $r=-.269$ $p=.265$, $r^2=.072$, Humanist: $r=-.025$ $p=.920$, $r^2=.001$, Minority: $r=.207$ $p=.396$, $r^2=.043$ and Nationalist: $r=.271$ $p=.262$, $r^2=.073$).

Hypothesis 2—Male identity, as measured by the MRNS, will be negatively related to academic performance. No significant relationship between MRNS and college GPA was found, however the results indicate a weak positive relationship ($r=.158$, $p=.066$, $r^2=.025$).

Hypothesis 3—Athletic identity, as measured by the AIMS, will be negatively related to academic performance. Again, no significant relationships were found, however the results indicate a weak inverse relationship ($r=-.102$, $p=.718$, $r^2=.010$)

Table 4. Partial Correlations Between Identity Variables and Self-Reported College GPA

Scale	Partial Correlation Controlling for Other Subscales
AIMS Total	-.102 ($p=.718$, $r^2=.025$)
MRNS Total	.158 ($p=.066$, $r^2=.010$)
MIBI Assimilation	-.269 ($p=.265$, $r^2=.072$)
MIBI Humanist	-.025 ($p=.920$, $r^2=.001$)
MIBI Minority	.207 ($p=.396$, $r^2=.043$)
MIBI Nationalist	.271 ($p=.262$, $r^2=.073$)

Hypothesis 4—The combination of racial identity, athletic identity and male identity will be a stronger predictor of academic performance than any one of the variables individually. Depending on the various combinations of racial ideology, regard and centrality, the relationship between racial identity and academic performance may be

positive or negative. Either way, the combination of the three variables will be a stronger predictor of academic performance than any one of the variables alone. The fourth hypothesis could not be answered given the small sample size. The original goal of the current research was to use regression analyses in order to determine predication which was not possible with only 39 completed surveys.

Post-Hoc Analyses

Post-Hoc analyses revealed three other relationships worth noting. There was a non-significant, but slightly negative relationship between institution type (public versus private) and GPA ($\tau=-.157$, $p=.306$). In my sample, there was no link between high school and college GPA ($r=.033$, $p=.856$). Additionally, there was also a drop in average GPA for my sample from high school to college. A paired sample t-test was run to evaluate the difference between final high school and current cumulative college GPA for my sample. The decrease seen from high school GPA ($M=3.125$, $SD=.384$) to college GPA ($M=2.921$, $SD=.487$) was not significant $t(31)=1.897$, $p>.05$.

While no significant results were found in the study, the process and findings provide several important learnings which are discussed in detail in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

In this final chapter, I summarize my findings and discuss what they mean for practice and future research. The conclusions, questions and learnings reported here are based on three sources of information: the results of the current study, the literature reviewed and my own insights as a professional who has worked in Athletic Academic Advising (AAA) at the Division I level for more than a decade.

Summary of Findings

As indicated in earlier chapters, the original intent of my study was to determine the individual and collective predictive ability of racial, male and athletic identity on the academic performance of African American male student-athletes (AAMSAs). While there is a wide range of what is considered an acceptable sample size for running regression analyses, the sample in the current study was too small for such analyses even according to the most liberal standards. According to Healy (2009), the minimum number of cases needed to perform a regression analysis is five for every variable considered and the recommended number is usually much higher (up to 40 cases per variable). Given that factor analyses suggested the use of total average scores for the AIMS and MRNS and that the MIBI is comprised of seven subscales, I would have needed at least 45 completed responses to run a regression (nine variables times five cases for each). Therefore, partial correlations were used to analyze my data. While

prediction is not possible using correlations, they did allow me to evaluate the unique relationship between each of the identities and academic performance. I now briefly review my findings before turning to an analysis of their implications. The findings are based on the responses of 39 AAMSAs to the MIBI, MRNS, AIMS and Demographic Questionnaire.

Factor Analysis

Factor Analyses were conducted to confirm whether or not the proposed subscales in both the AIMS and MRNS held true with the current sample. Both instruments were subjected to principle components analysis. The AIMS met the criteria for such an analysis and results revealed that the subscales did not hold true for the current sample. This was not an issue in proceeding with data analysis in that the average total AIMS score could be used (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001). The proposed subscales are simply components of the larger scale, all aimed at measuring the construct of athletic identity. The MRNS did not meet the criteria for factor analysis and it was determined that only a total average MRNS score would be used in the correlation analysis. As is the case with the use of a total average AIMS score, the use of a total average MRNS score did not impact the data analysis as the total is still a measure of male identity (Pleck, personal communication, October 9, 2010).

Reliability Testing

To answer my first research question—To what extent are measures of racial, male, and athletic identities (MIBI, MRNS, and AIMS) psychometrically sound when used with a sample of AAMSAs—the reliability of each scale/subscale was run in SPSS

using Cronbach's alphas. In terms of the MIBI, the reliabilities for centrality, public and private regard and two of the four ideology (Assimilation and Minority) subscales are lower than what has been reported by the instrument's creator, while the Humanist and Nationalist ideology reliabilities are in line with previously reported findings (Sellers et al., 1998). The reliabilities for the five of the seven MIBI subscales in this study are lower, sometimes substantially so, than previously reported and therefore indicate they are not psychometrically sound for my sample (Sellers et al., 1998). While the MRNS subscales did not hold true for the sample in the current study, the reliability score for the Status subscale and MRNS total score are in line with previously reported data (Thompson, Pleck & Ferrara, 1992). Based on the factor analysis and reliability testing, it seems that the AIMS Social subscale does not reliably measure the construct in my sample and reliability testing showed that the instrument is not as reliable for my sample as has been reported with previous samples (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001). The small sample size in the current study is likely the reason for the lower than previously reported reliabilities.

Partial Correlations

Partial correlations were run using SPSS to answer the second research question—to what extent are racial, male and athletic identities related to an AAMSA's academic performance above and beyond what is accounted for by demographic variables? Based on the correlations, each hypothesis proposed in Chapter One is addressed below:

Hypothesis 1—Black racial identity, as measured by the MIBI, will have various relationships with academic performance based on the subscales of the MIBI. High public and private regard scores will be positively related to academic performance. Nationalist and oppressed minority ideologies will have a negative relationship to academic performance while the assimilation and humanist subscales will be positively related. Centrality will have a curvilinear relationship with academic performance. Although no relationships were found to be significant, trends in these variables were analyzed using Pearson's partial order correlations. As mentioned earlier, only subscale scores with reliabilities above .6 were used in the correlation. Therefore, centrality, public and private regard were omitted. While none of the relationships were significant, two of the four subscales showed a moderate relationship with academic performance (Assimilation: $r = -.269$ $p = .265$, $r^2 = .072$ and Nationalist: $r = .271$ $p = .262$, $r^2 = .073$).

Hypothesis 2—Male identity, as measured by the MRNS, will be negatively related to academic performance. No significant relationship between MRNS and college GPA was found, however the results indicate a weak positive relationship ($r = .158$, $p = .066$, $r^2 = .025$).

Hypothesis 3—Athletic identity, as measured by the AIMS, will be negatively related to academic performance. Again, no significant relationships were found, however the results indicate a weak inverse relationship ($r = -.102$, $p = .718$, $r^2 = .010$).

Hypothesis 4—The combination of racial identity, athletic identity and male identity will be a stronger predictor of academic performance than any one of the variables individually. Depending on the various combinations of racial ideology, regard

and centrality, the relationship between racial identity and academic performance may be positive or negative. Given that correlations cannot be used to determine prediction, this hypothesis could not be confirmed.

Interpretation of the Findings

In Hypothesis 1, I expected to find a relationship between racial identity and academic performance. Results showed otherwise. Only two of the subscales even approached a moderate relationship and both were the opposite of what I expected. An Assimilation ideology ($r=-.269$ $p=.265$, $r^2=.072$) was shown to have a negative relationship with academic performance while a Nationalist ideology ($r=.271$ $p=.262$, $r^2=.073$) was positively related. Given the small sample size in the current study, it is hard to make meaning of these results in any way other than that they are likely due to the small number of respondents. There have been very few attempts in the scholarly literature to link academic outcomes to racial identity and what has been found is inconclusive as to whether the impact is positive or negative (Wright, 2009).

Unfortunately, my results do not shed any additional light on what previous researchers found but they do support the notion that the relationship could be positive or negative.

In Hypothesis 2, I expected to find a negative relationship between male identity and academic performance; however, the results indicated a weak positive relationship ($r=.158$, $p=.066$, $r^2=.025$). Previous studies suggested that values and actions were different in high achieving AAMSAs as compared to their non-high achieving AAMSA peers (Martin & Harris, 2006), but much of the research to date on the topic has not been based on a college aged sample (Harper, 2004). My data appears to contradict the

assumption that an increased belief in traditional male roles would be related to a decrease in GPA but it does at least begin to paint the picture of the concept in college aged AAMSAs. Since not much empirical evidence is available in this area, maybe the original hypothesis was incorrect. Is it possible that AAMSAs at the highest level athletically actually have a positive link between male identity and academic performance? Are they able to express their masculinity via athletics and not have it negatively impact their academic performance?

My data did support my third hypothesis. The results indicate a weak inverse relationship between athletic identity and academic performance which is what I expected to find ($r=-.102$, $p=.718$, $r^2=.010$). While not much has been written about the link between athletic identity and academic performance, what has appeared in the literature thus far suggests that a strong, exclusive athletic identity has a negative impact on academic performance (Lally & Kerr, 2005; Ryska, 2002). Even though my findings were not significant, they do lend support for the belief that a relationship between athletic identity and academic performance does in fact exist, at least in my sample. Given that my results were not significant, they cannot be generalized.

It is important to note that my analysis was limited by my small sample size and low reliabilities as well as little variability in responses. This created a challenge for using and interpreting statistical analyses and finding significant results. But it also raises the possibility that the GPAs of AAMSAs do not vary as much as non-student-athletes due to the GPA requirements they must meet in order to be eligible to compete in their sport. While this assertion does not seem to have been supported by empirical data yet, it

is a logical hypothesis based the fact that a student-athlete who intends to be eligible for competition is limited to keeping his GPA above a certain minimum based on his year in school. In addition to the above findings, two interesting relationships were noted in the correlations. There was a positive relationship between public institutions and higher GPAs ($\tau = .157$, $p = .306$). While the number of participants was fairly evenly divided between public and private institutions, only one public institution agreed to participate in the study. The difference in GPA might actually be due to the programs and services offered by this one particular public school rather than a true indication that AAMSAs at public schools earn higher GPAs. It is also possible that public schools are more diverse than private schools thus allowing AAMSAs to find a community of support, at least at the one school in this study. The public school in this study had a larger African American population than three of the four private schools—12% versus 8.6%, 3.2%, 15.2% and 4.9% (National Center for Education Statistics, n.d.b.) and has a larger percentage of African American full-time faculty members than all four of the private schools—5.83% versus 5.77%, 2.01%, 5.24% and 3.02% (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2011).

Additionally, in my sample, there was no link between high school and college GPA ($r = .033$, $p = .856$). Sellers (1992) found that high school GPA and mother's occupation were most significant for predicting the variance in college GPA for Black student-athletes. While mother's occupation is not known in my study, the fact that there was not a relationship between high school and college GPA in my sample again begs the question of what is predictive for AAMSAs if GPA is not.

There was also a drop in average GPA for my sample from high school to college. While not significant $t(31)=1.897, p>.05$, the decrease seen from high school GPA ($M=3.125, SD=.384$) to college GPA ($M=2.921, SD=.487$) raises several interesting possibilities. First and foremost, since almost half of my sample was freshmen, is the lower college GPA indicative of their transition to college and learning to navigate a new academic and athletic environment? My results also raise the question of grade inflation for star student-athletes in high school. I have heard too many times to ignore that some of my AAMSAs did not have to work hard in high school because “they played ball.” Also, football and basketball student-athletes made up almost two-thirds of my sample. This leads me to wonder if the possibility of a professional career impacts their college GPA. Has intercollegiate athletics created an environment where there is no incentive beyond meeting minimum academic eligibility requirements for an AAMSA to maintain a high GPA? There is no GPA minimum to be drafted into the NFL or NBA like there was to be given the opportunity to play in college. By most standards, the NCAA GPA requirements are not very stringent and therefore do not hold students to high standards which are known to be important for African American males (Benson, 2000; Maxwell, 2004).

Limitations

While every measure was taken to decrease the limitations of the current research, a few must be noted. This study only looked at Division I student-athletes within the BIG EAST Conference, therefore the results are not generalizable to other Division I schools or conferences or to Division II or III institutions or conferences. Two logistical

issues are also note-worthy. One is the often low response rate seen in survey research (Sheehan, 2001) as participation is voluntary and the other is the use of self-reported GPAs. Low response rate was a factor in the current study and impacted the data analyses as did the low reliabilities seen on several of the subscales. Small sample sizes often lead to results that are not generalizable to other samples (Pallant, 2007). Low reliabilities raise a concern about whether or not the instrument is truly measuring the construct it intends to for the given sample.

The use of self-reported GPAs is the biggest challenge the current research faced. Kuncel, Credé and Thomas (2005) through their meta-analysis and literature review found “that self-reported grades are less construct valid than many scholars believe” (p. 63). Two of the concerns raised in this study are of particular note in the present research. Kuncel et al. asserted that self-reporting is of specific concern when working with minority students and those with low grades or low ability. Given what the literature has reported about the often lower GPAs seen within African American student-athlete populations, this is potentially problematic. Typically, African American student-athletes have lower college GPAs than their White peers (Gaston-Gayles, 2004; Sellers, 1992). However, they also noted that inflation is particularly concerning when either the participants do not trust those collecting the information or when they had something to gain by inflating their grades or GPA. It was the hope that having the survey appear to be sent by an institutional representative helped alleviate the first issue at least a little. Instead of asking participants to trust a stranger who sends them a survey, they received it from someone they already know and who they know is aware of their actual GPA. As

for the second issue, there was nothing to gain by participants inflating their GPAs. For all intents and purposes, the researcher is a stranger and their responses are anonymous which may minimize their need to guard “their pride or self-respect” (Kuncel et al., 2005, p. 77).

Kuncel et al. (2005) also raised the issue that “self-reported grades become increasingly inaccurate” as time passes (p. 77). However, Pascarella’s claim about the importance of a pretest outweighed the concern about self-reported high school GPAs in the present research. Additionally, they reported that college students are more reliable when providing self-reported information. Ultimately, they claimed that “the relationship between self-reported and school-reported grades is strong” (pp. 77-78). Given that the researcher did not have access to the students’ official academic records and the potential the research had to improve the academic services provided to AAMSAs, the study moved forward in spite of these limitations.

Another potential limitation is the protective nature of an athletic program and the fear potential participants may have of “sharing outside the family.” This was hopefully minimized as the students received the survey from someone at their institution, therefore lending credibility and a measure of support for the research. Additionally, the race and gender of the researcher may be a concern to participants. It was my hope that my work in AAA and with other advisors in the BIG EAST Conference as well as my own personal and academic reflection on my identity and my study of Black, male, athletic identity would offset this.

Two last limitations of note need to be mentioned. First, the study of identity is inherently dynamic and quantitative research is static. Second, the fact that so many freshmen completed the survey may have skewed the results. Some who completed the survey did so in the fall when all they had in terms of college grades were two classes from the summer (NCAA rules allow institutions to pay for incoming freshmen on scholarship to take two classes the summer before they begin their freshman year). Even those who completed the survey after fall grades were in only had one term worth of grades in their cumulative GPA which may not be truly indicative of their academic performance. Therefore, an extremely high or low grade in just one class could dramatically impact their GPA and thus not be reflective of their true academic performance in college.

Implications for Practice

Based on the above findings, there are a few lessons for Athletic Academic Advisors (AAA). Even though my study did not yield any significant results, it did further emphasize the need for professional development for AAA staffs. I strongly believe that for the most part, AAA staffs are comprised of dedicated professionals who are providing top-notch services to student-athletes. I would however highlight the fact that there is not a standard preparation program for those interested in the field. I think it is incumbent upon those of us currently in leadership roles in the field to encourage younger and aspiring professionals to learn about working with AAMSAs. This training could cover topics such as motivating students of color, stereotype threat, the fear some AAMSAs have of acting White (Cuyjet, 2006), the important role peers and family play

with this population (Bonner & Bailey, 2006) and the stigma associated with help seeking behaviors (Cuyjet, 2006; Fordham & Ogbu, 1986; Steinfeldt et al., 2009). AAAs need to understand why our services are needed and how best to assist AAMSAs in using them effectively.

Part of the education AAAs need to undertake is the importance of holding AAMSAs to high standards. Maxwell (2004) identified several obstacles to higher education for the African American male population which include poor public education, lack of role models, being subject to low expectations, low self-esteem and low aspirations. AAAs are in a perfect position to set and hold AAMSAs to high academic standards as well as to assist in realistic goal setting and provide positive encouragement to boost academic self-esteem. I would challenge AAAs to begin, or continue, to hold our AAMSAs to maximizing their academic potential. It is unethical, in my opinion, to allow students who are capable of more, to simply settle for meeting minimum NCAA eligibility requirements.

It is also important for us to keep in mind that many of our AAMSAs are recruited to our campuses and receive a scholarship to compete for our institution. This therefore obligates us to meet their needs; especially those that we emphasized in the recruiting process. Given that we have access to their high school grades and test scores, we are in a position to let them know if we see their GPAs decreasing from high school to college and to investigate why.

Another important issue for AAAs to include in trainings for new professionals is identity development—both their own and that of the students with whom they work.

Lally and Kerr (2005) asserted that "college student athletes have poor identity development" (p. 276). In my opinion, the NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills Program calls us to address this topic with our student-athletes, as appropriate, as part of the Personal Development component of the program. Not only is assisting student-athletes in their identity development important, but knowledge of the topic better prepares us to work with students.

The importance of AAA professionals focusing on their own identity development cannot be understated. While Howard-Hamilton's (2000) examples are geared toward faculty, her points can easily be adapted to the AAA environment. She discussed each of the White Racial Identity Ego Statures and what a person in each stage might be thinking relative to working with African American students. Advisors in Contact might not even realize they need use a different approach with AAMSAs. They may be oblivious to racism and the role they play in perpetuating its affects. In Disintegration, the advisor becomes aware of racial issues in her work and might feel anger or guilt about her previous lack of awareness. In these stages, she might minimize the importance of race to AAMSAs and therefore not be as supportive of their unique needs as she could be. Reintegration might cause an advisor to be defensive in that she did not personally play a role in the exploitation of AAMSAs in the past. The more advanced stages of development, Pseudo-Independence, Immersion, Emersion and Autonomy, allow an advisor to recognize her need to learn more about AAMSAs and that they have different needs. She might discuss the topic with colleagues at her institution or in N4A and ultimately becomes an advocate for AAMSAs.

In addition to our own awareness of identity development, the literature reviewed in this study also called us to educate our faculty colleagues about student development. Given that the goal of the present research was to identify ways in which AAA programs can better support AAMSAs on their academic journey and Dawson-Threat's (1997) recommendation that student affairs professionals educate faculty on student development, AAAs need to answer this call. For example, The Center for Students with Disabilities at DePaul University conducted trainings for faculty and staff on issues that students with learning disabilities face and how to best support that unique population. This might be a model AAAs could follow.

Last but not least, I urge AAA professionals to further the knowledge base in our field. Increased research by AAA professionals would not only let us learn more about our student-athletes, but it would also increase the coverage of AAMSAs in the scholarly literature which is desperately needed. In addition to conducting research ourselves, I also encourage us to allow our AAMSAs to participate in studies conducted by our colleagues. While some of my counterparts within the BIG EAST Conference were supportive of my study, less than a third of schools participated. If the people with whom we have professional relationships are not willing to let us survey their students, who will and without empirical evidence to support our work, how do we get better? In my proposal defense, Dr. Robert Kelly asked me what I was afraid to find. Honestly, I found the only thing I was afraid to find...nothing. As a profession, I do not think we should be afraid of what we might find, but rather embrace the lessons we could learn. It is also

imperative that we help influence others at our institutions in key decision making positions to allow our students to be studied.

In terms of the results of the current study, it appears that four areas need to be covered in the professional development of AAA staffs. As far as racial identity, only the Nationalist and Assimilation scales approached a moderate relationship with academic performance. As a reminder, assimilation is “characterized by a viewpoint that emphasizes the similarities between African Americans and the rest of American society” (AARIL, n.d., para. 4). The Nationalist ideology is “characterized by a viewpoint that emphasizes the uniqueness of being of African descent” (para. 4). Knowing that AAMSAs, at least in this study, have a link between wanting to be seen as part of the larger society while acknowledging the uniqueness of being and their academic performance, these are important issues to keep in mind when working with this population. Since institutional environment has been linked to the academic success of African American males in college (Bonner & Bailey, 2006), an academic advisor could acknowledge the importance of an AAMSA’s race as well as their need to be a part of the larger American society in order to build a trusting relationship with her advisees. The same can be said for the role male identity and athletic identity may have in the academic performance of AAMSAs, at least for the sample studied here.

As mentioned in Chapter Two, athletic identity is a relatively new field of study. It does not have predetermined well-defined stages or statuses with associated attitudes and behaviors like racial identity. Therefore there is little in the literature in terms of recommendations on working with students based on their level of athletic identity. The

same is true of male identity. Like athletic identity, male identity is not a stage model and much of the research to date on the topic has not been based on a college aged sample (Harper, 2004). This presents yet another opportunity for future researchers. Once more is known about the link between athletic and male identity and the academic performance of AAMSAs recommendations for use in practice can be made. The male identity literature does offer a few suggestions. Davis' (2002) results indicated that participants "generally preferred one-on-one communication, felt more comfortable communicating with women, and expressed intimacy 'side-by-side' or in the context of doing" (p. 519). Harris and Edwards (2010) also made suggestions for helping college men combat traditional hegemonic masculinity which may be helpful to student affairs educators. They recommended that students interact with others from diverse backgrounds. However, as Snyder (1996) asserted African American student-athletes are typically isolated on college campuses. These are important lessons for AAAs to keep in mind when working with our AAMSAs. AAAs need to be mindful of providing a diverse staff to work with a diverse student-athlete population. As a field, we need to continue to work with AAMSAs one-on-one and provide links between a student's sport activity and their coursework as well as present opportunities for interacting with other student-athletes from various racial and ethnic backgrounds.

Implications for Policy Development

While the results of the current study are not significant and therefore cannot be generalized beyond the sample used, they highlight three areas that may be beneficial for leaders in the AAA field to keep in mind when making policy decisions in the future.

First and foremost, as mentioned before the professional development of AAA staffs is crucial. The goal of this study was to determine if there was a link between identity and academic performance in AAMSAs. While no link was found, the small sample size is likely the reason and the results do not conclusively indicate that such a relationship does not exist. Therefore, it is incumbent on AAAs to create professional standards (such as training on racial, male and athletic identity) required to enter the field as well as opportunities for continuing education in these areas. N4A's Professional Development Institute and Individual Certification Program are the ideal place for such topics to be covered. Given the statistics discussed in Chapter Two about the varied academic backgrounds from which AAAs come, it cannot be assumed that all new professionals have learned about identity during their graduate studies, therefore it is important for our profession to assume the responsibility for educating ourselves on this important topic.

Another area in which identity maybe helpful is in the assessment of student-athletes when they arrive on our campuses. Much like students are required to take placement tests in math, writing and foreign languages, having them take identity inventories may also prove beneficial. Ultimately, information such as this would benefit AAAs in knowing how to work with AAMSAs based on their level of racial, male and athletic identity which in the long run would hopefully lead to these students to have even more positive experiences while on our campuses. Decision makers could work to create a policy whereby this would be an expectation of AAAs nationwide (assuming the profession is trained to use this type of information).

Last but not least, AAAs could work to create the expectation that Trustees and Athletic Boards, as well as faculty and athletic administrators, are made aware of topics such as these and the impact they may have on the academic performance of our AAMSAs. It cannot be overstated that the results of this study cannot be generalized, but based on the trends seen in the data and what has appeared in the literature, identity is a likely a factor in the academic performance of our students and therefore we have an ethical obligation to educate our various campus constituents.

Implications for Future Research

While the results of this study raised more questions than answers, they offer exciting opportunities for future research. A lot can be learned from the process, if not the results. This next section focuses on what I learned from conducting my study that may be helpful to those interested in pursuing a similar line of inquiry in the future. I echo the call for further research into the impact of racial identity especially its intersection with gender (Ford & Harris, 1997; Spearman-Teamer, 2008; Wright, 2009). I also advocate the use of the MIBI/MMRI in future studies (Davis, 2009; Spearman-Teamer, 2008). I specifically chose to use the MIBI in the current research because Dr. Robert Sellers, the instrument's creator, is an African American male who earned All-American honors as a football player in college and researches the "psycho-social development of the African American student-athlete" (AARIL). It was also noted that much of the research on the education of African American boys is focused on younger boys and not the men in higher education (Cokley, 2001) so further research on African American men in college is important. Lastly, in spite of the numerous studies that have

investigated the concept of athletic identity and the many that have used AIMS, no studies prior to the current one looked at the impact of athletic identity on the academic performance of AAMSAs. Therefore more empirical evidence is needed in this area.

While the results of this study indicate the need for future research in this area, a few logistical concerns that arose during my research must be noted. The remainder of this section is divided into categories of advice for future researchers based on the following: accessing the population, use of the scales within AAMSA populations, survey logistics and areas in need of further study.

Accessing the Population

Previous researchers have noted that in general “research on African American student-athletes is sparse” (Steinfeldt, Reed, & Steinfeldt, 2010, p. 20). And that there is a “dearth of studies” that have examined the combination of racial and athletic identity in student-athletes (p. 8). Is there a lack of scholarly literature on AAMSAs because they are a difficult population to access? As someone who works in Division I intercollegiate athletics, I was surprised that more of my colleagues were not willing to allow me to survey their AAMSAs. First and foremost, future researchers should be aware that access to student-athletes is very difficult to obtain even when the researcher works in the field of intercollegiate athletics.

As mentioned earlier, at my proposal defense, Dr. Robert Kelly asked me what I was afraid to find. The number one question my study raised, for me, is are we afraid of finding something or just protective of our AAMSAs? As a profession, intercollegiate athletics has been accused of exploiting AAMSAs in the past and I cannot help but

wonder if we are still afraid of that. If we are afraid, is that about us or our students? If it is about us, is it about our history of being accused of exploiting AAMSAs?

In terms of gaining access, I directed my requests to the Athletic Directors within the BIG EAST Conference, mainly because at DePaul I would need Jean Lenti Ponsetto's permission before allowing a colleague to survey our AAMSAs. In retrospect, I probably would have been better served by identifying a contact at each school who has good relationships with students and was invested in my study. They could have then pursued the appropriate approvals required at their institution as opposed to me assuming I had to go right to the Athletic Director who has bigger issues to address on a daily basis than my research. Ultimately, this is what happened at the schools that chose to participate. The person who ended up helping me self-identified as opposed to being assigned by the Athletic Director. I also question whether or not the approach I used allowed my institutional contacts to best leverage their relationships with students. They uploaded their students' addresses into Opinio, but after that everything was sent using the automated function in Opinio. I drafted the e-mail notifications that were sent therefore not allowing my contacts to truly influence their students' participation. One other item of note here is that I could have done a better job making sure my colleagues knew how passionate I was about the topic and the time I had invested both personally and educationally on not only Black racial identity but my own identity as a White woman. If I had to do it over, I would pick up the phone and solicit support prior to sending e-mail requests. I talked to some of my colleagues prior to the study and they seemed to be the most supportive.

It also bears mentioning that one institution declined my request because two key decisions makers, both African American men, were offended by some of the racial identity questions. I asked for the opportunity to speak with either about the instrument to learn more about their concerns but neither agreed to do so. I think the fact that the instrument was written by an African American man who was an All-American football player in college might have helped alleviate their concerns. When conducting identity research, it is important to bear in mind that those approving access are also the product of their own identity development and may or may not be open to such topics given their level of development. Unwarranted concerns can be the result of the developmental level of those making decisions to allow access to a population of interest.

Last but not least, my original intention was to only use AAMSAs who were born and raised in the United States but I ended up including a small group of multiracial and international students to boost the number of responses I could use in my data analysis. Not only was this group small, but also nothing in their responses indicated that they held any different views than domestic students. This might be an interesting topic to pursue in the future. Do international and multiracial students hold different views on racial, male and athletic identity? If not, is sport the uniting factor? Do AAMSAs regardless of ethnicity or country of origin “learn” their identity through sport?

Use of the Scales within AAMSA Populations

Not only is access an issue, so is the use of appropriate scales given the population being studied. As detailed in Chapter Four, factor analyses did not support the use of the AIMS and MRNS subscales with my population and the reliabilities indicated

that the majority of the scales/subscales were not psychometrically sound with my sample. While it is possible these findings are the result of my small sample size, they also raise an interesting question for future researchers to address. Are the use of AIMS, MRNS and MIBI appropriate with AAMSA populations?

The MIBI was validated based on the responses of 474 African American students at one HBCU and one PWI using factor analysis (Sellers et al., 1998). The MRNS reliability was based on a combination of 1510 male and female college students from multiple samples (Thompson et al., 1992). And the AIMS was validated on 2,856 male and female respondents (13-55 years of age, of various races but predominantly White—82.1%) from various studies. The sample included, but was not limited to NCAA Division I student-athletes from various sports (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001).

Nothing indicated that any of the three instruments had been validated on AAMSAs specifically. While the AIMS was likely tested on at least some AAMSAs, the literature did not indicate this was the focus of any of the studies on which the instrument was validated. This would not only be a fascinating study, but it would also help future researchers know if these instruments accurately measure the constructs of racial, male and athletic identity for AAMSAs or if other instruments need to be used or created. For many years, concerns have been raised about the use of standardized tests for African American students due to a lack of predictive validity (Fleming & Garcia, 1998). While he was referring to the SAT, Sedlacek's (2004) assertion that standardized tests are not as useful "for people of color, women, or anyone who has not had a White, middle-class, Euro-centric, heterosexual, male experience in the United States" (p. 6) is a good

reminder. If the instruments we use in our research are not valid for our samples, then we cannot truly uncover what we are hoping to learn. Future research into the use of the MIBI, MRNS and AIMS with AAMSAs is warranted.

In addition to investigating the validity of the scales within AAMSA populations, future researchers might be well served looking into some of the questions asked. While my study did not allow me to analyze the demographics of those who did not take the survey to completion, since the demographic questionnaire was at the end of the survey, it did highlight a couple of questions that might need to be reviewed. Five participants stopped after Question 18 of the MRNS—If I heard about a man who was a hairdresser and a gourmet cook, I might wonder how masculine he was. An additional four stopped after Question 10 in the MIBI—Blacks who espouse separatism are as racist as White people who espouse separatism. These nine represent over a third of those who did not complete the survey. What is it about those two questions, if anything, which prompted respondents to stop? This might prove to be an interesting and insightful topic for future researchers.

Survey Logistics

In addition to raising questions about gaining access to AAMSAs for research purposes and the use of the scales with my population of interest, my study also prompted me to ask about other factors that may have played a role in my results. This very broad category of survey logistics is broken down into context, African American males and survey research, electronic versus pen and paper surveys, timing, survey length, and

incentives each of which will be addressed before turning to a look at the topical areas still in need of further study.

Context. While I made a case for researching the AAMSAs within the BIG EAST Conference, studies along conference lines might not be necessary in the future. Cook, Heath and Thompson (2000) asserted that “response representativeness is more important than response rate in survey research” (p. 821). Unless there is something that makes AAMSAs in one conference distinctly different than those in another, cross conference studies would be in order especially if including more schools helps increase response rates. There seems to be no reason to focus on one conference especially given the recent movement in conference alignments seen in Division I athletics. It seems to me that conferences may be more about what makes the most sense athletically than about institutional profiles. If that is the case, then I would advocate future studies looking at Division I schools that are willing to participate regardless of conference so we can begin to create a more robust literature base on AAMSAs. As there are distinct differences between NCAA Divisions I, II and III, NAIA and two-year schools, I do think studies within a specific division are warranted.

African American males and survey research. “African American males tend to have low response rates in survey research studies” (Williams, 1995, Data Quality Questions section, para. 1). Shaver-Hornaday et al. (1997) and Corbie-Smith et al. (1999) asserted that African Americans do not participate in medical research because of their lack of trust in the field. Participants in Corbie-Smith et al.’s study mentioned previous exploitation of African Americans by the medical community as a reason for

their concern. While the current study is obviously not medical in nature, these findings are interesting in that they raise a question about how AAMSAs view research. Do the concerns seen in medical studies carry over to academic research? Given that racial identity was one of the topics studied and the literature indicates that some African American men may view education as a “White thing” is it possible that research is also viewed as a “White thing?” If so, does a potential participant’s racial identity level impact his willingness to participate and how can we overcome this in future studies? One possibility is that researchers like me could partner with African American male researchers in order to overcome this possible limitation. Also, since intercollegiate athletics has historically been accused of exploitation of AAMSAs, maybe that plays a role in some AAMSAs' hesitation to participate. If this is the case, then personal relationships are especially critical in recruiting future study participants. The mistrust of research might also play a factor in securing approval to survey AAMSAs if administrators have had bad experiences in the past with researchers who claimed to have good intentions but ultimately misrepresented their students or university.

Electronic versus pen and paper surveys. Regardless of the population, the method of delivery is always an important question to be addressed. While electronic surveys have been shown to elicit a slightly quicker return rate, the evidence about their response rates in comparison to pen and paper surveys is inconclusive (Hayslett & Wildemuth, 2004). Fan and Zheng (2010) estimated response rates to electronic surveys to be 10% less than those seen in other methods such as pen and paper instruments or phone surveys while Baruch and Holtom (2008) found response rates using electronic

means to be similar or higher than those found in “traditional mail methodology” (p. 1139). Kaplowitz et al. (2011) weighed in on the side of electronic surveys having lower response rates.

Regardless of there not being conclusive proof one method is more effective than another, pen and paper surveys may be worth pursuing in future research with AAMSAs. Recently, DePaul was asked to allow our student-athletes to participate in a survey being conducted by a doctoral student at another BIG EAST institution. Instead of using an electronic survey, this researcher sent me six envelopes, one for each of the teams to be surveyed, and asked me to have the captains of each team distribute the surveys to their team and return them to me. Not only did my students respond incredibly quickly, I would assume we got a very high response rate. While I cannot confirm that since the captains were asked to seal and sign the envelopes, at least anecdotally, it appears that having the captains ask prompted their team to respond to the survey. This might prove to be especially important in studying AAMSAs as the literature has highlighted the important role peers play for African American men (Bonner & Bailey, 2006).

Additionally, a pen and paper survey may have minimized the logistical difficulties I encountered with using Opinio and the level of support I needed to set everything up electronically. A pen and paper approach might have facilitated the process while still minimizing the effect of my race. Cook, Heath and Thompson (2000) found that “personalized correspondence” leads to improved response rates (p. 831). Jensen (2012) also recommended the use of personalized communications and reminders.

By having a peer or another person hand a potential participant a hard copy of the survey, maybe they would feel more inclined to respond.

Hayslett and Wildemuth (2004) asserted that follow-up attempts boosted response rates in both electronic and traditional surveys. They also recommended giving participants the option to respond electronically or via hard copy. Kaplowitz et al. (2011) advocated the use of mixed methods for inviting students to participate in a study indicating “that conventional mail is more novel or stands out to students” (p. 7). Future researchers might want to give students the option to respond electronically or via hard copy and use mixed methods to recruit participants and remind them to respond.

Timing. Another issue raised by Cook et al.’s (2000) assertion about representativeness of the sample, is the overrepresentation of freshmen seen in the current study. As mentioned previously, freshmen have fewer grades calculated into their college GPA than their older teammates, so therefore their current cumulative college GPA may not be truly indicative of their academic performance. Future studies need to try and recruit a more representative sample of respondents, at least based on year in school, so that the results of those studies may be generalizable to other settings and more accurately assess the constructs in the AAMSA population.

Not only was response rate in and of itself a concern in the current study, it raises an additional concern as “response rate is important if it bears on representativeness” (Cook, Heath, & Thompson, 2000, p. 821). One possible reason so many freshmen responded is based on institution specific requirements of which AAMSA’s are required to meet regularly with AAAs. While it varies from school to school and team to team,

AAMSAAs might not be required to meet with their athletic academic advisor as frequently based on their year in school and GPA. Typically freshmen are the most likely to be required to check in with AAAs weekly or even daily, therefore maybe that is why they responded more. The AAAs who participated might have had more opportunity to remind their freshmen to respond to my survey therefore increasing their response rate disproportionately to older students. Most schools also have policies about who has to meet with their AAA advisor based on their GPA. It is possible that the students who were reminded about the study by their AAA advisors were students with lower GPAs as they might have had more contact with their advisor which provided the opportunity for reminders. Also, one school encouraged their student-athletes in a required study table session to take the survey. Mandatory study tables also tend to be in place for freshmen and those with lower GPAs, possibly explaining the large number of freshmen and the lower college GPA seen in my sample. In terms of representativeness, are there others who are more likely to respond to survey requests? Are those with higher GPAs more likely to complete such survey requests? Those with certain majors? In certain sports? If so, how can future researchers incentivize other students to respond so as to ensure a representative sample?

Survey length. In addition to the timing of when a survey is administered, the amount of time it takes to complete is an issue. According to Galesic and Bosnjak (2009) the longer a survey is estimated to take the less likely participants are to begin the survey. Once respondents began, their responses became shorter, quicker and less varied as they approached the end of the survey. Admittedly, the survey used in the current study was

long—maybe too long. Future researchers might want to look at each of the identities of interest individually so as to shorten the survey. Once relationships between racial, male and athletic identity and academic performance in AAMSAs are confirmed, longer studies utilizing all three instruments could be conducted. Galesic and Bosnjak's findings also highlighted the need to be cautious about the order in which questions are presented and made a case for varying the order. Future researchers using long surveys, such as the one used in this study, might want to find a way to randomly rotate the order of the questions so as to minimize the impact of questions toward the end not being given as much time or thought as those presented earlier in the survey.

Incentives. Like the literature on delivery method, what has appeared on the use of incentives is also inconclusive but seems to indicate they are not an effective way to increase response rates. Cook, Heath and Thompson (2000) found that the use of incentives was “associated with more homogenous and lower response rates” (p. 832). Baruch and Holtom (2008) found that incentives do not necessarily increase response rates and Porter and Whitcomb (2003) confirmed previous assertions that incentives “have little or no impact on survey response” (p. 403). They cautioned that the use of too small or too large of incentives can be detrimental to response rate. Bigger is not necessarily better. One of the concerns I had from the very beginning was that NCAA rules prohibited me from offering an incentive to participate in my study. They do allow incentives to be offered in certain situations and if future researchers find that they are in a position to offer an incentive, I think it would be worth pursuing within reason. From what I saw in the literature, nothing specifically addressed the use of incentives in studies

of AAMSAs, so maybe they would be helpful with this population as some literature did indicate the effectiveness of incentives is population specific (Baruch & Holtom, 2008).

The final section of this chapter looks at the areas still in need of further study, but before I turn my attention to that important topic, a few final tips to future researchers arose during my research. Johnston (2009a, 2009b) recommended finding others who are invested in the results to help promote a survey, asking allies to encourage their contacts to respond, sending reminders, and offering incentives. I tried to do all of the above in my study (except offering an incentive) and would encourage future researchers to do the same. Cook, Heath and Thompson (2000) and Bean and Roszkowski (1995, as cited in Sheehan, 2001) raised the issue of salience and indicated that lower response rates are seen when the topic being covered is not salient for participants. Was my survey not of interest to the population? This may be an important issue for future researchers to explore. Is the link between identity and academic performance not salient for AAMSAs and if that is the case, what does that mean? I would like to think it is because they trust their AAAs to provide them with the best services based on their needs, but maybe that is not the case. Maybe they think it is up to AAAs to figure out what they need and not their job to tell us.

There is also some support for conducting multiple pilots prior to launching a survey to tweak some of the issues that potentially impact response rate (Fan & Yan, 2012). Maybe I could have piloted my survey with more AAMSAs which might prove beneficial to others in the future. And lastly, Kaplowitz et al. (2011) discussed various elements of a survey invitation that could be taken into account in future research but are

beyond the scope of the discussion here. Issues such as the length of the invitation, where in the invitation the link is shown, the estimated amount of time the survey will take and what is included in the subject line are shown to impact response rates.

Areas in Need of Further Study

Based on the above logistical issues noted in the current research and my own reflection during my writing of this dissertation, I offer several ideas for future research. The MMDI emphasized the importance of context, so future inquiry that investigates contextual issues such as campus climate, religious affiliation and athletic status is in order. Future researchers could look at the backgrounds of participants to see how the relationship between identity and academic performance is impacted by the type of high school an AAMSA attended, the racial composition of his high school, the race of his high school coach as well as family factors such as multiracial families, how, where and by whom an AAMSA was raised. It would be interesting to look at male versus female athletic identity, as well as revenue versus non-revenue sports to see how if at all the opportunity for a professional career impacts a student-athlete's identity and therefore college grades.

Many researchers have attested that a major benefit of attending a HBCU is the supportive environment they provide for their students (Bohr et al., 1995; Flowers & Pascarella, 1999). Future researchers may want to look at identity and academic performance within the AAMSA population at HBCUs versus PWIs. Personal development was also shown to be influenced by institutional environment (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). This may indicate the need to look at several factors and the role they

play in the link between identity and academic performance. Does a student's level of racial identity impact if he chooses to play for an African American or White coach and how are his academics thus impacted? Does the race of other key administrators play a role (i.e., academic advisors, athletic directors, strength and conditioning coaches and the like) in the relationship between identity and academic performance?

Given the relationships found in the current study between institutional type (public versus private) and Pell Grant eligibility and college GPA and the lack of relationship between high school and college GPA for the AAMSAs in my study, studies that investigate each of these factors could prove useful. It would also be interesting to look at the GPAs of AAMSAs in comparison to their non-student-athlete peers to see if NCAA GPA requirements impact the variability of AAMSAs' GPAs. Additionally, are the GPA requirements too low in terms of motivating and expecting AAMSAs to perform better academically? Also, it would be fascinating to learn why the average high school GPA of my sample was higher than their average college GPA. Do NCAA initial eligibility requirements play a role in motivating AAMSAs to do well in high school but without the same requirement to play at the next level is their motivation impacted?

An additional contextual issue is campus religious affiliation. Walker and Dixon (2002) found that "spiritual beliefs and behaviors" were related to academic performance in African American students (p. 117). This could indicate that a study of the impact of religious affiliation (catholic versus non-catholic versus other institutional types) on the relationship between identity and academic performance of AAMSAs is necessary. Also, race, gender and athletic identity are only three of the many social identities of AAMSAs.

Additional research into other factors such as socioeconomic status, sexual orientation and other facets of an AAMSA's multiple identities is warranted. Since family is important to the success of African American men, looking at how far their college is from home and the role it plays in their identity development and academic performance could prove useful.

Not only are studies of the above topics needed, but the method in which they are conducted is also an important consideration for future researchers. The current study was intentionally quantitative in the hope of identifying a predictive relationship between identity and academic performance, but as noted earlier the study of identity is dynamic while survey research is static. Future qualitative studies that could better explore the relationship between identity and academic performance in AAMSAs are needed. Such studies would allow issues of causality and students' stories to be explored. Additionally, the current study was cross-sectional in nature as to allow me to graduate within the time frame I was given. Longitudinal studies could allow future researchers to see how each of the identities evolve over time in AAMSAs and how their academic performance is thus impacted.

Last but not least, a look at academically successful AAMSAs, similar to the works of Harper (2004) and Martin and Harris (2006) could prove helpful. Looking at the components of each of the identities in isolation such as the strength and exclusivity pieces of athletic identity may also be beneficial. Maybe academics are only impacted by an exclusive athletic identity but a strong identity is not harmful as suggested by Sellers (1992) and Lally and Kerr (2005). Obviously questions still remain that need to be

addressed before we can more fully understand the relationship between racial, male and athletic identity and the academic performance of AAMSAs.

Conclusion

While the current study did not conclusively find a link between any of the identity variables of interest and academic performance in African American male student-athletes, it also did not confirm that no such link exists. It is likely that the low response rate and lack of variability in responses are the reason no links were found, not that the links do not exist. As mentioned in various ways throughout this dissertation, identity development is a complex subject but one that is in need of further investigation so that Student Affairs educators can best serve the students with whom we work. Wright (2009) asserted that "a healthy REI can promote high academic success among African American male adolescents" (p. 127) and that "it is no simple matter to disentangle achievement from identity" (p. 128). The current research attempted to further unravel the complexities in this area and while it raised more questions than answers, it does provide some interesting suggestions for future research.

The three main learnings from the current study are: (1) more research is needed on the AAMSA population and how to best support their academic performance based on their racial, male and athletic identity, (2) access to the population and the low response rate seen in the current study highlight a need to find creative ways to research this population and entice them to respond, and (3) in the meantime, the professional development of AAA staffs need to include information on racial, male and athletic identity and how to use that knowledge to best support our AAMSAs.

APPENDIX A
MULTIDIMENSIONAL INVENTORY OF BLACK IDENTITY

- | | Strongly
Disagree | | | Neutral | | | Strongly
Agree |
|--|------------------------------|---|---|----------------|---|---|---------------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
1. Overall, being Black has very little to do with how I feel about myself.
 2. It is important for Black people to surround their children with Black art, music and literature.
 3. Black people should not marry interracially.
 4. I feel good about Black people.
 5. Overall, Blacks are considered good by others.
 6. In general, being Black is an important part of my self-image.
 7. I am happy that I am Black.
 8. I feel that Blacks have made major accomplishments and advancements.
 9. My destiny is tied to the destiny of other Black people.
 10. Blacks who espouse separatism are as racist as White people who also espouse separatism.
 11. Blacks would be better off if they adopted Afrocentric values.
 12. Black students are better off going to schools that are controlled and organized by Blacks.
 13. Being Black is unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am.
 14. Black people must organize themselves into a separate Black political force.
 15. In general, others respect Black people.
 16. Whenever possible, Blacks should buy from other Black businesses.
 17. Most people consider Blacks, on the average, to be more ineffective than other racial groups.

18. A sign of progress is that Blacks are in the mainstream of America more than ever before.
19. I have a strong sense of belonging to Black people.
20. The same forces which have led to the oppression of Blacks have also led to the oppression of other groups.
21. A thorough knowledge of Black history is very important for Blacks today.
22. Blacks and Whites can never live in true harmony because of racial differences.
23. Black values should not be inconsistent with human values.
24. I often regret that I am Black.
25. White people can never be trusted where Blacks are concerned.
26. Blacks should have the choice to marry interracially.
27. Blacks and Whites have more commonalties than differences.
28. Black people should not consider race when buying art or selecting a book to read.
29. Blacks would be better off if they were more concerned with the problems facing all people than just focusing on Black issues.
30. Being an individual is more important than identifying oneself as Black.
31. We are all children of a higher being, therefore, we should love people of all races.
32. Blacks should judge Whites as individuals and not as members of the White race.
33. I have a strong attachment to other Black people.
34. The struggle for Black liberation in America should be closely related to the struggle of other oppressed groups.
35. People regardless of their race have strengths and limitations.
36. Blacks should learn about the oppression of other groups.
37. Because America is predominantly white, it is important that Blacks go to White schools so that they can gain experience interacting with Whites.

38. Black people should treat other oppressed people as allies.
39. Blacks should strive to be full members of the American political system.
40. Blacks should try to work within the system to achieve their political and economic goals.
41. Blacks should strive to integrate all institutions which are segregated.
42. The racism Blacks have experienced is similar to that of other minority groups.
43. Blacks should feel free to interact socially with White people.
44. Blacks should view themselves as being Americans first and foremost.
45. There are other people who experience racial injustice and indignities similar to Black Americans.
46. The plight of Blacks in America will improve only when Blacks are in important positions within the system.
47. Blacks will be more successful in achieving their goals if they form coalitions with other oppressed groups.
48. Being Black is an important reflection of who I am.
49. Blacks should try to become friends with people from other oppressed groups.
50. The dominant society devalues anything not White male oriented.
51. Being Black is not a major factor in my social relationships.
52. Blacks are not respected by the broader society.
53. In general, other groups view Blacks in a positive manner.
54. I am proud to be Black.
55. I feel that the Black community has made valuable contributions to this society.
56. Society views Black people as an asset.

Centrality—Items 1, 6, 9, 13, 19, 33, 48 and 51

Private Regard—Items 4, 7, 8, 24, 54 and 55

Public Regard—Items 5, 15, 17, 52, 53 and 56

Assimilation—Items 10, 18, 37, 39, 40, 41, 43, 44 and 46

Humanist—Items 23, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32 and 35

Minority—Items 20, 34, 36, 38, 42, 45, 47, 49 and 50

Nationalist—Items 2, 3, 11, 12, 14, 16, 21, 22 and 25

Six items (1, 13, 17, 24, 51 and 52) must be reverse scored.

(Source: <http://sitemaker.umich.edu/aaril/files/mibiscaleandscoring.pdf>)

APPENDIX B

ATHLETIC IDENTITY MEASUREMENT SCALE

Please select the number that best reflects the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your sport participation.

- | | Strongly
Disagree | | | | | | Strongly
Agree | |
|----|------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---------------------------|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| 1. | | | | | | | | I consider myself an athlete. |
| 2. | | | | | | | | I have many goals related to sport. |
| 3. | | | | | | | | Most of my friends are athletes. |
| 4. | | | | | | | | Sport is the most important part of my life. |
| 5. | | | | | | | | I spend more time thinking about sport than anything else. |
| 6. | | | | | | | | I feel bad about myself when I do poorly in sport. |
| 7. | | | | | | | | I would be very depressed if I were injured and could not compete in sport. |

Social—Items 1, 2 and 3
 Exclusivity—Items 4 and 5
 Negative Affectivity—Items 6 and 7

(Source: Adapted from Brewer & Cornelius, 2001)

APPENDIX C
MALE ROLE NORMS SCALE

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

- | | Very
Strongly
Disagree | | Neutral | | | Very
Strongly
Agree | |
|-----|--|---|----------------|---|---|------------------------------------|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 1. | Success in his work has to be a man's central goal in this life. | | | | | | |
| 2. | When a man is feeling a little pain he should try not to let it show very much. | | | | | | |
| 3. | It bothers me when a man does something that I consider "feminine." | | | | | | |
| 4. | The best way for a young man to get the respect of other people is to get a job, take it seriously, and do it well. | | | | | | |
| 5. | Nobody respects a man very much who frequently talks about his worries, fears, and problems. | | | | | | |
| 6. | A man whose hobbies are cooking, sewing, and going to the ballet probably wouldn't appeal to me. | | | | | | |
| 7. | A man owes it to his family to work at the best paying job he can get. | | | | | | |
| 8. | A good motto for a man would be "When the going gets tough, the tough get going." | | | | | | |
| 9. | It is a bit embarrassing for a man to have a job that is usually filled by a woman. | | | | | | |
| 10. | A man should generally work overtime to make more money whenever he has the chance. | | | | | | |
| 11. | A man always deserves the respect of his wife and children. | | | | | | |
| 12. | I think a young man should try to become physically tough, even if he's not big. | | | | | | |
| 13. | Unless he was really desperate, I would probably advise a man to keep looking rather than accept a job as a secretary. | | | | | | |
| 14. | It is essential for a man to always have the respect and admiration of everyone who knows him. | | | | | | |
| 15. | A man should never back down in the face of trouble. | | | | | | |

16. Fists are sometimes the only way to get out of a bad situation.
17. If I heard about a man who was a hairdresser and a gourmet cook, I might wonder how masculine he was.
18. I always like a man who's totally sure of himself.
19. A real man enjoys a bit of danger now and then.
20. I think it's extremely good for a boy to be taught to cook, sew, clean the house, and take care of younger children.
21. A man should always think everything out coolly and logically, and have rational reasons for everything he does.
22. In some kinds of situations a man should be ready to use his fists, even if his wife or his girlfriend would object.
23. I might find it a little silly or embarrassing if a male friend of mine cried over a sad love scene in a movie.
24. A man should always try to project an air of confidence even if he really doesn't feel confident inside.
25. A man should always refuse to get into a fight, even if there seems to be no way to avoid it.
26. A man must stand on his own two feet and never depend on other people to help him do things.

Status Factor—Items 1, 4, 7, 10, 11, 14, 15, 18, 21, 24 and 26

Toughness Factor—Items 2, 5, 8, 12, 16, 19, 22 and 25

Anti-Femininity Factor—Items 3, 6, 9, 13, 17, 20 and 23

Two items (20 and 25) must be reverse scored.

(Source: Received via e-mail on July 26, 2010 from Dr. Joseph Pleck)

APPENDIX D
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Which BIG EAST institution do you attend?

- University of Cincinnati
- University of Connecticut
- DePaul University
- Georgetown University
- University of Louisville
- Marquette University
- University of Notre Dame
- University of Pittsburgh
- Providence College
- Rutgers—State University of New Jersey
- St. John's University
- Seton Hall University
- University of South Florida
- Syracuse University
- Villanova University
- West Virginia University

What is your sport? If you compete in more than one sport, please select your primary sport or the sport for which you receive an athletic scholarship?

- Baseball
- Basketball
- Cross Country
- Fencing
- Football
- Golf
- Hockey
- Lacrosse
- Rifle
- Rowing
- Sailing
- Soccer
- Swimming & Diving
- Tennis
- Track & Field
- Wrestling

Were you recruited out of high school by the institution you are currently attending?

- Yes
- No

Do you receive an athletic scholarship?

- Yes
- No

If yes, do you receive a full or partial scholarship?

- Full
- Partial

Do you receive a PELL grant?

- Yes
- No

What is your year in school?

- Freshman
- Sophomore
- Junior
- Senior or above

What was your final cumulative high school GPA (on a 4.0 scale)? __ . __ __ __

What is your major? _____

What is your current cumulative GPA (on a 4.0 scale)? __ . __ __ __

Do you identify as an international student?

- Yes
- No

This survey has only been sent to African American male student-athletes, please select how you describe your race?

- African American/Black
- Multi-Racial
- Other

What is your ethnicity?

- Black American
- African
- West Indian
- Brazilian
- Haitian
- Jamaican
- Other Caribbean
- Other Black

APPENDIX E

BIG EAST INSTITUTIONS AND SPONSORED SPORTS FOR MEN

BIG EAST Institutions

University of Cincinnati
 University of Connecticut
 DePaul University
 Georgetown University
 University of Louisville
 Marquette University
 University of Notre Dame
 University of Pittsburgh
 Providence College
 Rutgers University
 St. John's University
 Seton Hall University
 University of South Florida
 Syracuse University
 Villanova University
 West Virginia University

BIG EAST Sponsored Sports for Men

Baseball
 Basketball
 Cross Country
 Football
 Golf
 Lacrosse
 Soccer
 Swimming
 Tennis
 Track and Field

BIG EAST Sponsored Sports for Men by Institution**University of Cincinnati—8 Teams**

baseball, basketball, cross country, football, golf, soccer, swimming & diving,
 track & field

University of Connecticut—10 Teams

baseball, basketball, cross country, football, golf, hockey*, soccer, swimming & diving,
 tennis, track & field

DePaul University--6 Teams

basketball, cross country, golf, soccer, tennis, track & field

Georgetown University—12 Teams

baseball, basketball, cross country, crew*, football*, golf, lacrosse, sailing*, soccer, swimming & diving, tennis, track & field

University of Louisville—9 Teams

baseball, basketball, cross country, football, golf, soccer, swimming & diving, tennis, track & field

Marquette University—7 Teams

basketball, cross country, golf, lacrosse, soccer, tennis, track & field

University of Notre Dame—12 teams

baseball, basketball, cross country, fencing*, football*, golf, hockey*, lacrosse, soccer, swimming & diving, tennis, track & field

University of Pittsburgh—8 Teams

baseball, basketball, cross country, football, soccer, swimming & diving, track & field, wrestling*

Providence College—7 Teams

basketball, cross country, hockey*, lacrosse, soccer, swimming & diving, track & field

Rutgers University—9 Teams

baseball, basketball, cross country, football, golf, lacrosse, soccer, track & field, wrestling*

St. John's University—7 Teams

baseball, basketball, fencing*, golf, lacrosse, soccer, tennis

Seton Hall University—6 Teams

baseball, basketball, cross country, golf, soccer, swimming & diving

University of South Florida—8 Teams

baseball, basketball, cross country, football, golf, soccer, tennis, track & field

Syracuse University—8 Teams

basketball, cross country, football, lacrosse, rowing*, soccer, swimming & diving, track & field

Villanova University—10 Teams

baseball, basketball, cross country, football*, golf, lacrosse, soccer, swimming & diving, tennis, track & field

West Virginia University—7 Teams

baseball, basketball, football, rifle*, soccer, swimming & diving, wrestling*

* These teams do not compete in the BIG EAST Conference, but the students are enrolled at BIG EAST institutions and served by the same academic advisors as those students who compete in a BIG EAST sport. Therefore, they are included in the current study.

(Source: The BIG EAST Conference and institutional websites)

APPENDIX F
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Project Title: African American male student-athletes: Identity and academic performance

Researcher(s): Kate O'Brien

Faculty Sponsor: Dr. Bridget Kelly

Introduction: You are being asked to take part in a dissertation research study being conducted by Kate O'Brien under the supervision of Dr. Bridget Kelly in the School of Education at Loyola University of Chicago.

You are being asked to participate because you are a member of the population of interest—an African American male Division I student-athlete at a BIG EAST Institution.

Please read this form carefully and ask any questions you may have before deciding whether to participate in the study. Questions can be directed to Kate O'Brien (847.828.2205 or kobrien@depaul.edu) or Dr. Bridget Kelly (bkelly4@luc.edu).

Purpose: The purpose of the proposed research is to examine racial, male and athletic identity and their individual and collective impact on the academic performance of African American male Division I student-athletes.

Procedures: If you agree to participate in the study, you will be asked to complete a demographic questionnaire (13 items), and three identity measures—the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (56 items), the Male Role Norms Scale (26 items) and the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (7 items). It is estimated that the entire process will take 15-20 minutes of your time.

Risks/Benefits: There are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this research beyond those experienced in everyday life. Your participation in this online survey involves risks similar to a person's everyday use of the Internet. Some of the questions may cause discomfort and participants are free to skip any question or stop the survey at any time if they choose. While there is no individual benefit to participants, your responses will hopefully help athletic academic advising programs better serve African American male student-athletes in the future.

Compensation: Due to NCAA bylaws, the researcher is not allowed to provide compensation to participants.

Confidentiality: Your responses will be anonymous. You will not be asked to share your name. All data will be kept confidential and stored in a password protected file only accessible by the researcher and those overseeing her study. Data will only be used for the researcher's own research purposes and raw data will not be shared with your institution or the media. Data will only be reported if it remains personally unidentifiable.

Voluntary Participation: Participation in this study is voluntary. If you do not want to be in this study, you do not have to participate. If you choose not to participate, there will be no penalty and it will not prejudice your relationship with your university or athletic department. Even if you decide to participate, you are free not to answer any question or to withdraw from participation at any time without penalty.

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Loyola University Office of Research Services at (773) 508-2689.

Statement of Consent: Clicking the “Continue to Survey” button below indicates that you have read the information provided above, have had an opportunity to ask questions, and agree to participate in this research study.

(Adapted from template available at http://www.luc.edu/irb/irb_XX.shtml)

APPENDIX G
LETTER OF COOPERATION

Letter of Cooperation

The purpose of the proposed research is to examine racial, male and athletic identity and their individual and collective impact on the academic performance of African American male Division I student-athletes (AAMSAs). Data will be collected using the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (MIBI), the Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS) and the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS). Academic performance will be measured by a student's self-reported GPA. Academic and demographic data will be collected via a Demographic Questionnaire developed by the researcher for this study.

The aim of the study is to gather data that will better inform the work of athletic academic advisors (AAA) in hopes that it will allow the profession to best serve the AAMSA population. The goal is to determine if a link exists between any of the identities of interest and academic performance and what, if anything, AAAs need to know based upon the results. The stated purpose of this research will be explored using two primary research questions:

1. To what extent are measures of racial, male, and athletic identities (MIBI, MRNS, and AIMS) psychometrically sound when used with a sample of AAMSAs?
2. To what extent do racial, male and athletic identities influence AAMSA's academic performance above and beyond what is accounted for by demographic variables?

It is estimated that it will take participants 15-20 minutes to complete the demographic questionnaire and three measurement surveys. There are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this research beyond those experienced in everyday life. While there is no individual benefit to participants, responses will hopefully help athletic academic advising programs better serve African American male student-athletes in the future.

All responses will be confidential. Participant's name and school information will be stored separately and only used to verify the authenticity of respondents. All data will be stored in a password protected file only accessible by the researcher and those overseeing her study. Data will only be reported if it remains personally unidentifiable. Participation in this study is voluntary.

I, _____, grant Kate O'Brien (Doctoral Student at Loyola
(name and title)

University Chicago and Director of Athletic Academic Advising at DePaul University) permission to survey African American male student-athletes at my institution as part of her dissertation entitled "African American male student-athletes: Identity and academic performance."

Signature: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX H
SAMPLE E-MAIL TO ATHLETIC DIRECTORS

Dear (insert name),

Hope you are well! I am conducting my dissertation research on African American male student-athletes (AAMSAs) in an effort to find ways to best support this subset of our student-athlete population. I am specifically interested in racial, male and athletic identities and how they impact the academic performance of the AAMSAs in our conference. In order to move forward with my research and begin collecting data, I need your assistance. I have already received conditional IRB approval from Loyola University Chicago (where I am a doctoral student) and all I need to finalize the approval is a letter of support/cooperation from each of the BIG EAST institutions. I am hoping you can help me obtain the appropriate signature from (insert institution). I have copied your AD, SWA and FAR as well as mine on this e-mail. If you could please print and sign (or have signed if you are not the right person to ask for this) the attached letter of cooperation on your institutional letterhead and return it to me by March 31st, I would greatly appreciate it. You can fax it back to me at 773.325.7551, scan and e-mail it back to kobrien@depaul.edu or send it via mail to:

Kate O'Brien
Athletic Academic Advising
2323 N. Sheffield Avenue
Suite 410
Chicago, IL 60614

Once I receive letters back from all 15 schools, I will be in touch again. At that point, if you would please send the survey to your African American male student-athletes on my behalf, I would very much appreciate it. If there is someone else I should contact to send the electronic survey to your student-athletes or if you'd like any additional information on my proposed research, please just let me know!

Once my study is complete, I will happily share the results with you.

Thanks in advance for your assistance...I am so excited to be at this point in my project!

Kate

Kate O'Brien
Director
Athletic Academic Advising
kobrien@depaul.edu
773.325.7254

APPENDIX I

SAMPLE E-MAILS TO INSTITUTIONAL CONTACTS

Dear (insert name),

Thank you so much for agreeing to allow your African American male student-athletes (AAMSAs) to participate in my dissertation research. I apologize for the delay between the time you granted permission and now. I am excited that I am to the point I can launch my survey and am so grateful for your help.

In order to offer anonymity to participants instead of just confidentiality, I have changed my protocol. The new process will take a few extra minutes on your part, but in the long run, my committee felt this was the way to go. In addition to better protecting participants, it will also allow me to use the system to send reminder e-mails to those who have not yet responded which will eliminate any follow-up on your end.

Instead of asking you to forward a link to the AAMSAs at your institution, you will be given a login and password by Jack Corliss (copied on this e-mail) to Opinio. Once logged in, you will be asked to enter the e-mail addresses of your AAMSAs. No one beside you and Jack will ever have access to the e-mail addresses. As the System Administrator at Loyola University Chicago, Jack must sign an annual confidentiality agreement and abide by it or face dismissal from the university. Below are the instructions you will need to follow as well as the e-mail your students will see when they receive the survey. The initial e-mail will appear to come from you as will the reminder e-mails.

Getting good data from the right population is of the utmost importance, so your help in recruiting only African American males is greatly appreciated. I hope to launch my survey on (insert date) and participants will have until (insert date) to complete the survey. They will receive one reminder e-mail 5 days after the initial launch as well as a last call e-mail 5 days after that.

Thanks in advance for your assistance! I realize that you are very busy and I so appreciate your help! Please let me know if you have any questions. I will follow-up with you on (insert date) to make sure everything is set to send my survey to your students on (insert date).

Best,
Kate O'Brien

Directions for Uploading E-mail Addresses in Opinio

- 1) Login using the ID and password provided by Jack Corliss
- 2) In the center of the screen follow the path below:

Research: Graduate Studies → kobrie8 → dissertation research → School Name

3) Along the left hand navigation bar follow the path below:

Publish survey → Invitations → School Name → Add Invitees → Paste addresses from excel file (saved as a .csv file) in “Invitee email address” field → Save (It may take a moment for all addresses to load. Please verify that the Invitees total is equal to the number of addresses you entered before you proceed) → Click to Activate

Opinio Generated E-mail to Participants:

Dear (insert name of institution) Student-Athlete,

My colleague at DePaul University is a doctoral student at Loyola University Chicago and is conducting a study entitled African American male student-athletes: Identity and academic performance. Please take 15-20 minutes to complete her study which can be found at the link below by (insert date).

Thanks,
(insert name and title of institutional contact)

Opinio Generated Reminder E-mail #1:

Dear (insert name of institution) Student-Athlete,

If you are receiving this message, you have not responded to the survey below. Please take 15-20 minutes to complete the survey being administrated by my colleague at DePaul.

Thanks,
(insert name and title of institutional contact)

Opinio Generated Remind E-mail #2:

Dear (insert name of institution) Student-Athlete,

If you are receiving this message, you have not responded to the survey below. Please take 15-20 minutes to complete the survey being administrated by my colleague at DePaul. This is the last reminder you will receive. The survey is scheduled to close on (insert date).

Thanks,
(insert name and title of institutional contact)

Opinio Generated Thank You:

Thank you for taking the time to complete my survey. It is my hope that the results of my study will help Athletic Academic Advisors better serve African American Male Student-Athletes.

Here's to a great 2011-2012!

Kate O'Brien
Loyola University Doctoral Student
DePaul University Athletic Academic Advising

APPENDIX J

AIMS, MRNS AND MIBI MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

AIMS

Question	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
1) I consider myself an athlete.	39	6.90	.502
2) I have many goals related to sport.	39	6.31	1.004
3) Most of my friends are athletes.	39	5.69	1.321
AIMS Social Subscale	39	6.30	.6614
4) Sport is the most important part of my life.	39	4.79	1.689
5) I spend more time thinking about sport than anything else.	39	4.77	1.693
AIMS Exclusivity Subscale	39	4.782	1.542
6) I feel bad about myself when I do poorly in sport.	39	5.720	1.555
7) I would be very depressed if I were injured And could not compete in sport.	39	6.000	1.451
AIMS Negative Affectivity Subscale	39	5.859	1.272
AIMS Total	39	5.740	.788

MRNS

Question	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
1) Success in his work has to be a man's central goal in this life.	39	5.46	1.354
2) When a man is feeling a little pain he should try not to let it show very much.	39	5.33	1.420
3) It bothers me when a man does something that I consider "feminine."	38	4.37	1.715
4) The best way for a young man to get the respect of other people is to get a job, take it seriously, and do it well.	39	5.10	1.518
5) Nobody respects a man very much who frequently talks about his worries, fears, and problems.	39	4.72	1.572
6) A man whose hobbies are cooking, sewing, and going to the ballet probably wouldn't appeal to me.	39	4.69	1.575
7) A man owes it to his family to work at the best paying job he can get.	39	5.21	1.609
8) A good motto for a man would be "When the going gets tough, the tough get going."	38	5.45	1.408
9) It is a bit embarrassing for a man to have a job that is usually filled by a woman.	39	3.51	1.805
10) A man should generally work overtime to make more money whenever he has the chance.	39	4.69	1.608
11) A man always deserves the respect of his wife and children.	39	4.72	1.919
12) I think a young man should try to become	38	5.00	1.611

physically tough, even if he's not big.

13) Unless he was really desperate, I would probably advise a man to keep looking rather than accept a job as a secretary.	39	3.56	1.744
14) It is essential for a man to always have the respect and admiration of everyone who knows him	38	4.50	1.428
15) A man should never back down in the face of trouble.	38	5.18	1.690
16) Fists are sometimes the only way to get out of a bad situation.	38	3.53	1.856
17) If I heard about a man who was a hairdresser and a gourmet cook, I might wonder how masculine he was.	38	4.24	1.667
18) I always like a man who's totally sure of himself.	38	5.03	1.442
19) A real man enjoys a bit of danger now and then.	39	4.59	1.409
20) I think it's extremely good for a boy to be taught to cook, sew, clean the house, and take care of younger children.	39	2.90	1.373
21) A man should always think everything out coolly and logically, and have rational reasons for everything he does.	39	5.51	1.097
22) In some kinds of situations a man should be ready to use his fists, even if his wife or his girlfriend would object.	39	4.31	1.641
23) I might find it a little silly or embarrassing if a male friend of mine cried over a sad love scene in a movie.	39	4.33	1.752
24) A man should always try to project an air of confidence even if he really doesn't feel	39	5.05	1.468

confident inside.

25) A man should always refuse to get into a fight, even if there seems to be no way to avoid it.	38	4.474	1.447
26) A man must stand on his own two feet and never depend on other people to help him do things.	39	4.33	1.660
MRNS Status Subscale	39	4.98	.864
MRNS Toughness Subscale	39	4.68	.885
MRNS Anti-Femininity Subscale	39	3.94	.939
MRNS Total	39	4.61	.700

MIBI

Question	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
1) Overall, being Black has very little to do with how I feel about myself.	39	4.59	1.996
2) It is important for Black people to surround their children with Black art, music and literature.	39	4.64	1.709
3) Black people should not marry interracially.	39	2.36	1.597
4) I feel good about Black people.	39	5.92	1.476
5) Overall, Blacks are considered good by others.	39	3.97	1.597
6) In general, being Black is an important part of my self-image.	38	5.74	1.519
7) I am happy that I am Black.	39	6.46	1.097
8) I feel that Blacks have made major accomplishments and advancements.	39	6.31	1.080
9) My destiny is tied to the destiny of other Black people.	39	4.67	1.752
10) Blacks who espouse separatism are as racist as White people who also espouse separatism.	38	5.45	1.501
11) Blacks would be better off if they adopted Afrocentric values.	39	3.85	1.479
12) Black students are better off going to schools that that are controlled and organized by Blacks.	39	3.03	1.564
13) Being Black is unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am.	39	3.72	2.089
14) Black people must organize themselves into a separate Black political force.	39	2.77	1.693

15) In general, others respect Black people.	39	4.13	1.625
16) Whenever possible, Blacks should buy from other Black businesses.	39	4.64	1.328
17) people consider Blacks, on the average, to be more ineffective than other racial groups.	38	4.24	1.567
18) A sign of progress is that Blacks are in the mainstream of America more than ever before.	39	5.13	1.321
19) I have a strong sense of belonging to Black people.	39	5.46	1.519
20) The same forces which have led to the of Blacks have also led to the oppression of other groups.	36	4.36	.798
21) A thorough knowledge of Black history is very important for Blacks today.	39	5.82	1.295
22) Blacks and Whites can never live in true harmony because of racial differences.	39	3.05	1.669
23) Black values should not be inconsistent with human values.	39	4.85	1.785
24) I often regret that I am Black.	39	1.95	1.638
25) White people can never be trusted where Blacks are concerned.	39	3.00	1.573
26) Blacks should have the choice to marry interracially.	38	6.08	1.217
27) Blacks and Whites have more commonalties than differences.	38	4.82	1.392
28) Black people should not consider race when buying art or selecting a book to read.	39	4.95	1.432
29) Blacks would be better off if they were more concerned with the problems facing all	39	4.59	1.464

people than just focusing on Black issues.			
30) Being an individual is more important than identifying oneself as Black.	38	5.24	1.422
31) We are all children of a higher being, therefore, we should love people of all races.	39	5.97	1.367
32) Blacks should judge Whites as individuals and not as members of the White race.	38	5.58	1.348
33) I have a strong attachment to other Black people.	39	5.31	1.575
34) The struggle for Black liberation in America should be closely related to the struggle of other oppressed groups.	39	4.69	1.127
35) People regardless of their race have strengths and limitations.	39	5.87	1.361
36) Blacks should learn about the oppression of other groups.	39	5.46	1.166
37) Because America is predominantly white, it is important that Blacks go to White schools so that they can gain experience interacting with Whites.	39	4.74	1.352
38) Black people should treat other oppressed people as allies.	39	4.38	1.498
39) Blacks should strive to be full members of the American political system.	39	5.28	1.450
40) Blacks should try to work within the system to achieve their political and economic goals.	38	5.21	1.339
41) Blacks should strive to integrate all institutions which are segregated.	39	5.15	1.387
42) The racism Blacks have experienced is similar to that of other minority groups.	39	4.10	1.667

43) Blacks should feel free to interact socially with White people.	39	5.44	1.483
44) Blacks should view themselves as being Americans first and foremost.	39	4.97	1.367
45) There are other people who experience racial injustice and indignities similar to Black Americans.	39	4.95	1.413
46) The plight of Blacks in America will improve only when Blacks are in important positions within the system.	37	4.59	1.536
47) Blacks will be more successful in achieving their goals if they form coalitions with other oppressed groups.	39	4.23	1.385
48) Being Black is an important reflection of who I am.	39	5.46	1.536
49) Blacks should try to become friends with people from other oppressed groups.	39	4.72	1.234
50) The dominant society devalues anything not White male oriented.	38	4.58	1.266
51) Being Black is not a major factor in my social relationships.	39	4.44	1.683
52) Blacks are not respected by the broader society.	39	4.03	1.564
53) In general, other groups view Blacks in a positive manner.	38	4.05	1.524
54) I am proud to be Black.	38	5.79	1.742
55) I feel that the Black community has made valuable contributions to this society.	37	5.49	1.677
56) Society views Black people as an asset.	37	4.27	1.610

MIBI Centrality Subscale	39	4.92	.843
MIBI Private Regard Subscale	39	5.31	.831
MIBI Public Regard Subscale	39	4.11	.911
MIBI Assimilation Subscale	39	5.11	.735
MIBI Humanist Subscale	39	5.32	.855
MIBI Minority Subscale	39	4.61	.669
MIBI Nationalist Subscale	39	3.68	.908

REFERENCES

- Abes, E. S., Jones, S. R., & McEwen, M. K. (2007). Reconceptualizing the model of multiple dimensions of identity: The role of meaning-making capacity in the construction of multiple identities. *Journal of College Student Development, 48*(1), 1-22. doi: 10.1353/csd.2007.0000
- African American Racial Identity Lab. (n.d.). *Measures*. Retrieved from <http://sitemaker.umich.edu/aaril/measures>
- African American Racial Identity Lab. (n.d.). *Principal investigator*. Retrieved from http://sitemaker.umich.edu/aaril/principal_investigator
- Allen, W. R. (1992). The color of success: African-American college student outcomes at predominantly White and historically Black public colleges and universities. *Harvard Educational Review, 62*(1), 26-44.
- Association of American Colleges and Universities. (2002). *Research shows positive student response to diversity initiatives*. Retrieved from <http://www.diversityweb.org/Digest/F96/research.html>
- Barron's Educational Series, Inc. (2011). *Profiles of American colleges 2011* (29th ed.). Hauppauge, NY: Barron's Educational Series, Inc.
- Baruch, Y. & Holtom, B. C. (2008). Survey response rate levels and trends in organizational research. *Human Relations, 61*(8), 1139-1160. doi: 10.1177/0018726708094863
- Benson, K. F. (2000). Constructing academic inadequacy: African American athletes' stories of schooling. *The Journal of Higher Education, 71*(2), 223-246. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2649249>
- Berger, J. B., & Milem, J. F. (2000). Exploring the impact of historically Black colleges in promoting the development of undergraduates' self-concept. *Journal of College Student Development, 41*(4), 381-394.
- Bohr, L., Pascarella, E. T., Nora, A., & Terenzini, P. T. (1995). Do Black students learn more at historically Black or predominantly White colleges? *Journal of College Student Development, 36*(1), 75-85.

- Bonner, F. A., & Bailey, K. W. (2006). Enhancing the academic climate for African American college men. In M. J. Cuyjet, & Associates (Eds.), *African American men in college* (pp. 24-46). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Brewer, B. W., & Cornelius, A. E. (2001). Norms and factorial invariance of the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale. *Academic Athletic Journal*, *15*, 103-113.
- Brewer, B. W., Van Raalte, J. L., & Linder, D. E. (1993). Athletic identity: Hercules muscle or Achilles heel? *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, *24*, 237-254.
- Brown, C. (2006). The impact of campus activities on African American college men. In M. J. Cuyjet, & Associates (Eds.), *African American men in college* (pp. 47-67). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Chaumeton, N. R., & Duda, J. L. (1988). Is it how you play the game or whether you win or lose?: The effect of competitive level and situation on coaching behavior. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, *11*(3), 157-174.
- Chavous, T. M., Bernat, D. H., Schmeelk-Cone, K., Caldwell, C. H., Kohn-Wood, L., & Zimmerman, M. A. (2003). Racial identity and academic attainment among African American adolescents. *Child Development*, *74*(4), 1076-1090.
- Cokley, K. O. (2001). Gender differences among African American students in the impact of racial identity on academic psychosocial development. *Journal of College Student Development*, *42*(5), 480-487.
- Cook, C., Heath, F., & Thompson, R. L. (2000). A meta-analysis of response rates in web- or internet-based surveys. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *60*(6), 821-836. doi: 10.1177/00131640021970934
- Corbie-Smith, G., Thomas, S. B., Williams, M. V. & Moody-Ayers, S. (1999). Attitudes and beliefs of African Americans toward participation in medical research. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, *14*(9): 537-546. doi: 10.1046/j.1525-1497.1999.07048.x
- Cross, Jr., W. E. (1971). The Negro-to-Black conversion experience: Toward a psychology of Black liberation. *Black World*, *20*(9), 13-27.
- Cross, Jr., W. E. (1978). The Thomas and Cross Models of Psychological Nigrescence: A review. *Journal of Black Psychology*, *5*(1), 13-31. doi: 10.1177/009579847800500102
- Cuyjet, M. J. (1997). *Helping African American men succeed in college*. New Directions for Student Services, no. 80. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Cuyjet, M. J., & Associates. (2006). *African American men in college*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Davis, G. P. (2009). Racial identity, motivation, and academic performance in African American college students. Paper presented at the meeting of Association for the Study of Higher Education, Vancouver, BC.
- Davis, J. E. (1994). College in black and white: Campus environment and academic achievement of African American males. *Journal of Negro Education*, 63(4), 620-633.
- Davis, T. L. (2002). Voices of gender role conflict: The social construction of college men's identity. *Journal of College Student Development*, 43(4), 508-521.
- Dawson-Threat, J. (1997). Enhancing in-class academic experiences for African-American men. In M. J. Cuyjet (Ed.), *Helping African American men succeed in college* (pp. 31-41). New Directions for Student Services, no. 8. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- DePaul University. (2011). *Sports*. Retrieved from <http://www.depaulbluedemons.com/>
- Evans, N. J., Forney, D. S., & Guido-DiBrito, F. (1998). *Student development in college*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Fan, W., & Zheng, Y. (2010). Factors affecting response rates of the web survey: A systematic review. *Computers in Human Behavior* 26, 132–139. doi: 10.1016/j.chb.2009.10.015
- Fleming, J., & Garcia, N. (1998). Are standardized tests fair to African Americans?: Predictive validity of the SAT in Black and White institutions. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 69(5), 471-495.
- Flowers, L. A. (2002). The impact of college racial composition on African American students' academic and social gains: Additional evidence. *Journal of College Student Development*, 43(3), 403-410.
- Flowers, L. A., & Pascarella, E. T. (1999). Cognitive effects of college racial composition on African American students after 3 years of college. *Journal of College Student Development*, 40(6), 669-676.
- Flowers, L. A., & Pascarella, E. T. (2003). Cognitive effects of college: Differences between African American and Caucasian students. *Research in Higher Education*, 44(1), 21-49.

- Ford, D. Y., & Harris III, J. J. (1997). A study of the racial identity and achievement of Black males and females. *Roeper Review*, 20(2), 105-110. doi: 10.1080/02783199709553865
- Fordham, S., & Ogbu, J. U. (1986). Black students' school success: Coping with the "burden of 'acting White.'" *The Urban Review*, 18(3), 176-206.
- Fries-Britt, S. L. (1997). Identifying and supporting gifted African American men. In M. J. Cuyjet (Ed.), *Helping African American men succeed in college* (pp. 65-78). New Directions for Student Services, no. 8. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Fries-Britt, S. L., & Turner, B. (2001). Facing stereotypes: A case study of Black students on a White campus. *Journal of College Student Development*, 42(5), 420-429.
- Galesic, M. & Bosnjak, M. (2009). Effects of questionnaire length on participation and indicators of response quality in a web survey. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 73(2), 349-360. doi: 10.1093/poq/nfp031
- Gaston-Gayles, J. L. (2004). Examining academic and athletic motivation among student athletes at a Division I university. *Journal of College Student Development*, 45(1), 75-83.
- Georgetown University. (2011). *Sports*. Retrieved from <http://www.guhoyas.com/>
- Gilbert, R., & Gilbert, P. (1998). *Masculinity goes to school*. New York: Routledge.
- Gurin, P., Dey, E. L., Hurtado, S. & Gurin, G. (2002). Diversity and higher education: Theory and impact on educational outcomes. *Harvard Educational Review*, 72(3), 330-366.
- Hall, R. E., & Rowan, G. T. (2000). African American males in higher education: A descriptive/qualitative analysis. *Journal of African American Men*, 5(3) 3-14.
- Harper, S. R. (2004). The measure of a man: Conceptualizations of masculinity among high-achieving African American male college students. *Berkeley Journal of Sociology*, 48(1), 89-107.
- Harper, S. R. (2006a). *Black male students at public flagship universities in the U.S.: Status, trends and implications for policy and practice*. Washington, DC: Joint Center for Political and Economic Studies Health Policy Institute.
- Harper, S. R. (2006b). Peer support for African American male college achievement: Beyond internalized racism and the burden of "acting White." *The Journal of Men's Studies*, 14(3), 337-358.

- Harper, S. R., Davis, R. J., Jones, D. E., McGowan, B. L., Ingram, T. N., & Platt, C. S. (2011). Race and racism in the experiences of Black male resident assistants at predominantly white universities. *Journal of College Student Development, 52*(2), 180-200.
- Harper, S. R., & Harris III, F. (2006). The role of Black fraternities in the African American male undergraduate experience. In M. J. Cuyjet, & Associates (Eds.), *African American men in college* (pp. 128-153). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Harper, S. R., Wardell, C. C., & McGuire, K. M. (2011). Man of multiple identities: Complex individuality and identity intersectionality among college men. In J. A. Laker, & T. Davis (Eds.), *Masculinities in higher education: Theoretical and practical considerations* (pp. 81-96). New York: Taylor & Francis.
- Harris III, F., & Edwards, K. E. (2010). College men's experiences as men: Findings and implications from two grounded theory studies. *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice, 47*(1), 43-62. doi: 10.2202/1949-6605.6085
- Harrison, C. K., Stone, J., Shapiro, J., Yee, S., Boyd, J. A., & Rullan, V. (2009). The role of gender identities and stereotype salience with academic performance of male and female college athletes. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues, 33*(1), 78-96. doi: 10.1177/0193723508328902
- Hawkins, B. (1999). Black student athletes at predominantly White National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I institutions and the pattern of oscillating migrant laborers. *The Western Journal of Black Studies, 23*(1), 1-9.
- Hayslett, M. M., & Wildemuth, B. M. (2004). Pixels or pencils? The relative effectiveness of Web-based versus paper surveys. *Library and Information Science Research, 26*, 73-93. doi: 10.1016/j.lisr.2003.11.005
- Healy, J. F. (2009). *Statistics: A tool for social research* (8th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Helms, J. E. (1990). *Black and White racial identity: Theory, research and practice*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Helms, J. E. (1995). An update of Helm's White and people of color racial identity models. In J. Ponterotto, J. Casas, L. Suzuki, & C. Alexander (Eds.), *Handbook of multicultural counseling* (pp. 181-198). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- hooks, b. (2004). *We real cool: Black men and masculinity*. New York: Routledge.

- Howard-Hamilton, M. F. (1997). Theory to practice: Applying developmental theories relevant to African American men. In M. J. Cuyjet (Ed.), *Helping African American men succeed in college* (pp. 17-30). New Directions for Student Service, no. 80. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Howard-Hamilton, M. F. (2000). Creating a culturally responsive learning environment for African American students. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, 82, 45-53. doi: 10.1002/tl.8205
- Hughes, M. S. (1987). Black students' participation in higher education. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 28(6), 532-545.
- Hyatt, R. (2003). Barriers to persistence among African American intercollegiate athletes: A literature review of non-cognitive variables. *College Student Journal*, 37(2), 260-275.
- Isaacs, J. B. (n.d.). *Economic mobility of Black and White families*. Retrieved from http://www.economicmobility.org/assets/pdfs/EMP_ES_Black_White_Families.pdf
- Jensen, J. M. (2012). Ten easy ways to increase response rates for your online survey. Retrieved from <http://www.questionpro.com/a/showArticle.do?articleID=deploy01>
- Johnson, J. B., & Ashe, A. (1989). Is Proposition 42 racist? *Ebony*, 44(8), 138-140.
- Johnston, B. (2012a). Increasing survey response rates: Part I. Retrieved from <http://www.surveygizmo.com/survey-blog/increasing-survey-response-rates/>
- Johnston, B. (2012b). Increasing response rates: Part II, using incentives. Retrieved from <http://www.surveygizmo.com/survey-blog/increasing-response-rates-part-ii-using-incentives/>
- Jones, S. R. (2009). Constructing identities at the intersections: An autoethnographic exploration of multiple dimensions of identity. *Journal of College Student Development*, 50(3), 287-304.
- Jones, S.R., & Wijeyesinghe, C. L. (2001). The promises and challenges of teaching from an intersectional perspective: Core components and applied strategies. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, 125, 11-20. doi: 10.1002/tl.429
- Journal of Blacks in Higher Education*. (2005). Holding a four-year college degree brings Blacks close to economic parity with Whites. Retrieved from http://www.jbhe.com/news_views/47_four-year_collegedegrees.html

- Kaplowitz, M. D., Lupi, F., Couper, M. P., & Thorp, L. (2011). The effect of invitation design on web survey response rates. *Social Science Computer Review*. doi: 10.1177/0894439311419084
- Kuncel, N. R., Créde, M., & Thomas, L. L. (2005). The validity of self-reported grade point averages, class ranks, and test scores: A meta-analysis and review of the literature. *Review of Educational Research*, 75(1), 63-82.
- Lally, P. S., & Kerr, G. A. (2005). The career planning, athletic identity, and student role identity of intercollegiate student athletes. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 76(3), 275-285.
- LaVant, B. D., Anderson, J. L., & Tiggs, J. W. (1997). Retaining African American men through mentoring initiatives. In M. J. Cuyjet (Ed.), *Helping African American men succeed in college* (pp. 43-53). New Directions for Student Services, no. 8. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Marquette University. (2011). *Teams*. Retrieved from <http://www.gomarquette.com/>
- Martin, B. E., & Harris III, F. (2006). Examining productive conceptions of masculinities: Lessons learned from academically driven African American male student-athletes. *The Journal of Men's Studies*, 14(3), 359-378.
- Maxwell, B. (2004, January 4). On campus, grim statistics for African-American men. *St. Petersburg Times Online*. Retrieved from <http://www.sptimes.com>
- McEwen, M. K., Roper, L. D., Bryant, D. R., & Langa, M. J. (1990). Incorporating the development of African-American students into psychosocial theories of student development. *Journal of College Student Development*, 31(5), 429-436.
- McIntosh, P. (1988). *White privilege: Unpacking the invisible knapsack*. Retrieved from <http://www.nymbp.org/reference/WhitePrivilege.pdf>
- McMillan, J. H. (2004). *Educational research: Fundamentals for the consumer* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Miller, K. E. (2009). Sport-related identities and the "toxic jock." *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 32(1), 69-91.
- Miller, K. E., Melnick, M. J., Barnes, G. M., Farrell, M. P., & Sabo, D. (2005). Untangling the links among athletic involvement, gender, race, and adolescent academic outcomes. *Social Sport Journal*, 22(2), 178-193.

- National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletics. (2005). *2005 Athletic Academic Support Survey*. Retrieved from <http://nfoura.org/committees/documents/2005-N4A-Survey-Final-Report.pdf>
- National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletics. (n.d.a). *Individual Certification*. Retrieved from <http://nfoura.org/career-center/individual-certification.php>
- National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletics. (n.d.b). *Professional Development Institute*. Retrieved from <http://nfoura.org/career-center/pdi.php>
- National Center for Education Statistics. (n.d.a.). *College Navigator*. Retrieved from <http://nces.ed.gov/collegenavigator/>
- National Center for Education Statistics. (n.d.b.). *Global Locator*. Retrieved from <http://nces.ed.gov/globallocator/>
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2009). *2009 NCAA Division I Federal Graduation Rate Data*. Retrieved from http://web1.ncaa.org/app_data/nH8einstAggr2009/1_0.pdf
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2010a). *Differences among the Three Divisions*. Retrieved from <http://www.ncaa.org/wps/wcm/connect/public/ncaa/about+the+ncaa/who+we+are/differences+among+the+divisions/division+i/about+division+i>
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2010b). *Student-Athlete Ethnicity 1999-2000—2008-2009*. Indianapolis, IN: National Collegiate Athletic Association.
- Neal, M. A. (2005). *New Black man*. New York: Routledge.
- Oliver, W. (1989a). Black males and social problems: Prevention through Afrocentric socialization. *Journal of Black Studies*, 20(15), 15-39. doi: 10.1177/002193478902000102
- Oliver, W. (1989b). Sexual conquest and patterns of Black-on-Black violence: A structural-cultural perspective. *Violence and Victims*, 4(4), 257-273.
- Osborne, J. W. (1997). Race and academic disidentification. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 89(4), 728-735.
- Osborne, J. W. (1999). Unraveling underachievement among African American boys from an identification with academics perspective. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 68(4), 555-565.

- Oyserman, D., Harrison, K., & Bybee, D. (2001). Can racial identity be promotive of academic efficacy? *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 25(4), 379-385. doi: 10.1080/01650250042000401
- Pallant, J. (2007). *SPSS Survival Manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for Windows* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Open University Press.
- Parham, T. A. (1989). Cycles of psychological Nigrescence. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 17(2) 187-226. doi: 10.1177/0011000089172001
- Pascarella, E. T. (2001). Using student self-reported gains to estimate college impact: A cautionary tale. *Journal of College Student Development*, 42(5), 488-492.
- Pascarella, E. T., & Terenzini, P. T. (2005). *How college affects students: A third decade of research*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Perna, L. W. (2005). The benefits of higher education: Sex, racial/ethnic, and socioeconomic group differences. *The Review of Higher Education*, 29(1), 23-52.
- Pope, R. L., Reynolds, A. L., & Mueller, J. A. (2004). *Multicultural competence in student affairs*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Porter, S. R., & Whitcomb, M. E. (2003). The impact of lottery incentives on student survey response rates. *Research in Higher Education*, 44(4), 389-407.
- Providence College. (2011). *Sports*. Retrieved from <http://www.friars.com/>
- Rossi, R. (2006, April 21). CPS college grad rate 'appalling.' *Chicago Sun-Times*. Retrieved from http://ccsr.uchicago.edu/news_citations /042106_suntimes.html
- Rutgers University. (2011). *Sports*. Retrieved from <http://www.scarletknights.com/>
- Ryska, T. A. (2002). The effects of athletic identity and motivation goals on global competence perceptions of student-athletes. *Child Study Journal*, 32(2), 109-129.
- Sailes, G. A. (1993). An investigation of campus stereotypes: The myth of Black athletic superiority and the dumb jock stereotype. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 10, 88-97.
- Schmidt, P. (2008). Colleges seek key to success of Black men in classroom. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 55(7), A1.
- Sedlacek, W. E. (1987). Black students on White campuses: 20 years of research. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 28, 484-495.

- Sedlacek, W. E. (2004). *Beyond the big test: Noncognitive assessment in higher education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Sellers, R. M. (1992). Racial differences in the predictors for academic achievement of student-athletes in Division I revenue producing sports. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 9, 48-59.
- Sellers, R. M., & Kuperminc, G. P. (1997). Goal discrepancy in African American male student-athletes' unrealistic expectations for careers in professional sports. *Journal of Black Psychology*, 23(1), 6-23. doi: 10.1177/00957984970231002
- Sellers, R. M., Smith, M. A., Shelton, J. N., Rowley, S. A. J., & Chavous, T. M. (1998). Multidimensional Model of Racial Identity: A reconceptualization of African American racial identity. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 2(1), 18-39.
- Seton Hall University. (2010). *Sports*. Retrieved from <http://www.shupirates.com/>
- Shavers-Hornaday, V. L., Lynch, C. F., Burmeister, L. F. & Torner, J. C. (1997). Why are African Americans under-represented in medical research studies? Impediments to participation. *Ethnicity and Health*, 2(1/2), 31-45. doi: 10.1080/13557858.1997.9961813
- Sheehan, K. B. (2001). E-mail survey response rates: A review. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 6(2), 0. doi: 10.1111/j.1083-6101.2001.tb00117.x
- Snyder, P. L. (1996). Comparative levels of expressed academic motivation among Anglo and African American university student-athletes. *Journal of Black Studies*, 26(6), 651-667. doi: 10.1177/002193479602600601
- Spearman-Teamer, C. A. (2008). African American male athletes: An examination of a conflicted sense of masculinity as a source of psychological distress. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Tennessee State University, Nashville, TN.
- St. John's University. (2011). *Sports*. Retrieved from <http://www.redstormsports.com>
- Steele, C. M. (1992). Race and the schooling of Black Americans. *The Atlantic Monthly*, 269(4), 71-78.
- Steinfeldt, J. A., Reed, C., & Steinfeldt, M. C. (2010). Racial and athletic identity of African American football players at Historically Black Colleges and Universities and Predominantly White Institutions. *Journal of Black Psychology*, 36(1), 3-24. doi: 10.1177/0095798409353894

- Steinfeldt, J. A., Steinfeldt, M. C., England, B., & Speight, Q. L. (2009). Gender role conflict and stigma toward help-seeking among college football players. *Psychology Men and Masculinity, 10*(4), 261-272. doi: 10.1037/a0017223
- Syracuse University. (2011). *Men's sports*. Retrieved from <http://www.suathletics.com/>
- The BIG EAST Conference. (2010). *About the BIG EAST*. Retrieved from <http://www.bigeast.org/AbouttheBIGEAST.aspx>
- The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. (n.d.). *The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education*. Retrieved from <http://classifications.carnegiefoundation.org/>
- The Chronicle of Higher Education. (2011). Race and ethnicity of full-time faculty members at more than 4,200 institutions. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved from <http://chronicle.com/article/Sortable-Tables-Race-and/129099/>
- Thompson, E. H., Jr., Pleck, J. H., & Ferrera, D. L. (1992). Men and masculinities: Scales for masculinity ideology and masculinity-related constructs. *Sex Roles, 27*(11/12), 573-607.
- Torres, V., Howard-Hamilton, M. F., & Cooper, D. L. (2003). *Identity development of diverse populations: Implications for teaching and administration in higher education*. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, 29 (6). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- University of Cincinnati. (2011). *Sports*. Retrieved from <http://www.gobearcats.com/>
- University of Connecticut. (2011). *Sports*. Retrieved from <http://www.uconnhuskies.com/>
- University of Louisville. (2011). *Sports*. Retrieved from <http://www.uoflsports.com/>
- University of Notre Dame. (2011). *Sports*. Retrieved from <http://www.und.com/>
- University of Pittsburgh. (2011). *Teams*. Retrieved from <http://www.pittsburghpanthers.com/>
- University of South Florida. (2011). *Sports*. Retrieved from <http://www.gousfbulls.com/>
- Villanova University. (2011). *Sports*. Retrieved from <http://www.villanova.com/>
- Walker, K. L., & Dixon, V. (2002). Spirituality and academic performance among African American college students. *Journal of Black Psychology, 28*, 107-121. doi: 10.1177/0095798402028002003

- West Virginia University. (2011). *Teams*. Retrieved from <http://www.msnsportsnet.com/>
- White, J. L., & Cones, J. H. (1999). *Black man emerging: Facing the past and seizing a future in America*. New York: W.H. Freeman and Company.
- Williams, D. R. (1995). African American mental health: Persisting questions and paradoxal findings. *African American Research Perspectives: An Occasional Report of the Program for Research on Black Americans*. Retrieved from <http://www.rcgd.isr.umich.edu/prba/perspectives/spring1995/dwilliams.pdf>
- Wilson, J. W., & Constantine, M. G. (1999). Racial identity attitudes, self-concept, and perceived family cohesion in Black college students. *Journal of Black Studies*, 29(3), 354-366. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2668063>
- Wilson-Sadberry, K. R., Winfield, L. F., & Royster, D. A. (1991). Resilience and persistence of African-American males in postsecondary enrollment. *Education and Urban Society*, 24(1), 87-102. doi: 10.1177/0013124591024001007
- Wright, B. L. (2009). Racial-ethnic identity, academic achievement, and African American males: A review of literature. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 78(2), 123-134.

VITA

Kate O'Brien was born in Chicago, Illinois and raised in Arlington Heights, Illinois. She earned a Bachelor of Arts in Movement and Sports Science in 1994 from Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana and a Master of Business Administration with Distinction in Marketing and Human Resources Management from The Charles H. Kellstadt School of Business at DePaul University, Chicago, Illinois. While at DePaul, Kate was inducted into Delta Mu Delta, National Honor Society in Business Administration. She was also inducted into Loyola University's chapter of Phi Delta Kappa during her doctoral program.

Currently, Kate is the Director of Athletic Academic Advising at DePaul University in Chicago, Illinois. In addition to her administrative duties, she teaches in the Chicago Quarter Program and serves as co-chair of the BIG EAST Academic Advisors Group and on the NCAA Region IV Postgraduate Scholarship Committee. She resides in Chicago.