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**THE EFFECTS OF INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETIC PARTICIPATION
ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND SELECTED MOTIVATIONAL
FACTORS FOR ATHLETIC PARTICIPATION BY URBAN YOUTH**

by

DELANO W. TUCKER

DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate School

of Wayne State University,

Detroit, Michigan

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

1999

MAJOR: ADMINISTRATION AND
SUPERVISION-GENERAL

Approved by:

Burns Hall 2-8-99
Advisor date

Frank M. Biele

Gregory E. J.

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DEDICATION

To my late mother Ollie, who valued education
and taught me, among other things, mental toughness.

To my Dad, the “gator,” who values learning,
taught me to “roll with the punches,” and how to be a man.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The relationship between athletic participation and academics is an important issue in our secondary and post-secondary educational institutions. Proponents of sports programs maintain that students who participate in school sports have better grades, and are more highly disciplined than nonparticipants. Nonpartisan counter that athletes perform better in their academic work because they are allowed to take easy courses so they will stay eligible to participate.

Eligibility regulations in interscholastic sports govern age, residence, remuneration, and academics. State high school athletic associations regulate the academic eligibility of those youth who represent their schools. One of the rules, often called “no pass, no play,” helps prevent academic exploitation by requiring that students meet minimum academic standards for eligibility to play on school teams. Governing bodies such as the National Federation of State High School Associations (NFHS), the 50-state athletic/activity associations, and the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) have taken steps to promote legislation that will regulate athletic eligibility. These regulations, in theory, level the playing field so that all competitors have an equal chance of succeeding (Lumpkin, Stoll, & Bellar, 1994).

Due to the standards established by local school districts in concert with state athletic associations, student athletes are held to the same standards as non-athletes, and

in some cases higher standards. For example, in the school district of our study, nonstudent athletes may “pass” classes with a grade of D (1.00); however, students who wish to participate in interscholastic athletics must average a C (2.00) in all classes the semester prior to and during their season of competition (Athletic Manual, 1995-99). This study will address the following questions: What is the academic value to urban students who participate in interscholastic athletics? and What motivates them to participate in sports?

A consequence of the extraordinary popularity of sports in United States secondary schools is its generation of status for males and, increasingly, for females as well. Foremost, for males, the athlete, regardless of other attributes, is favored over the nonathlete, with the highest preference being “scholar-athlete” (Eitzen & Sage, 1997). Sport participation is also important for young women, but being an athlete usually must be combined with other things for a young woman to be popular within the student cultures of most high schools. While the traditional definitions of femininity may be discarded, to be popular, females usually need to demonstrate they are something other than just tough and competitive in sports. Physical attractiveness is often a basis for a young woman’s popularity, as well as being a member of the “in crowd” (Eder, 1995).

Sports can contribute to the educational development of high school student athletes (Harris, 1994; Sabo, 1988). Athletes tend to perform at higher levels in the classroom than do their nonathletic counterparts (Coakley, 1994; Leonard, 1993). In addition, many high school athletes believe that participation in high school athletics might possibly deliver educational, social, and life-skill benefits and opportunities that would facilitate the transition to purposeful productivity and full employment in later life (Harris, 1993; Oliver, 1980). The National Federation of State High School Associations also supports this claim. Moreover, studies indicate that high school athletes had higher aspi-

rations to attend college than did their nonathletic counterparts, and parents took greater interest in their children's socialization when the children were involved in high school sports (McElroy, 1981).

Spreitzer (1973) a sociologist from Bowling Green State University, analyzed data from a national probability sample of 12,000 young men and women from 1,100 public and private schools throughout the United States. The data from his study indicated that when compared with other students, young people who played on varsity sports teams were more likely to come from economically privileged backgrounds and have above-average cognitive abilities, self esteem, and academic performance records (grades and test scores). In other words, students who tried out for teams, made teams, and stayed on them were different in certain ways from other students even before they became high school athletes. He also found that young men and women who started playing varsity sports as sophomores and continued through their senior years were different from those who were cut from teams or who voluntarily quit teams. Those who were cut or quit were different in the following ways, they:

- a) were more likely to come from less advantaged economic backgrounds;
- b) were more likely to have lower cognitive abilities;
- c) had lower levels of self esteem;
- d) had lower grade point averages; and,
- e) were less likely to take college preparation courses.

Furthermore, young women were twice as likely as men to discontinue participation (Coakley, 1998).

In another report, commissioned by the Women's Sports Foundation, it was found that high school sports provided greater opportunities, inspired higher educational aspira-

tions, developed a stronger sense of self-worth, and provided an overall positive experience for participants as compared to nonparticipants (Sabo, 1988). Findings from Marsh's (1993) study of 14,249 students and their involvement in extracurricular activities indicate that when all activities are examined, only athletic participation remains significantly related to a reduction in the dropout rate. Membership on a varsity team is a valued source of status in most schools in the United States, and membership also seems to go hand-in-hand with positive educational experiences for some students. A study commissioned in 1979 by the Kansas Activities Association of 373 high schools in their state found that of the 111,196 students in grades 10-12, 6.3% or 7,023 dropped out of school. Of those who dropped out, only 435 or .04% were participants in any kind of interscholastic athletic program (Illinois High School Athletic Association, 1987).

Regulation and Governance

Amateur athletics/sports, especially in high school and college, are highly visible, very popular and subject to universal scrutiny. Interscholastic participation is woven into the fabric of our nation and, in some regions of the country and in certain communities, is viewed as an expectation or considered a way of life. Typically, athletic programs are taken for granted until budget cutbacks and highly publicized problems in certain high school and college programs raise questions about how sports are related to educational goals and the overall development of young people. Program supporters claim that interscholastic sports support the educational mission of schools; critics claim they interfere with learning (Coakley, 1998). In its attempt to provide equality for all institutions and participants in athletics, the regulation of athletic eligibility is important and necessary, but viewed by many as arbitrary, capricious, and heavy-handed. The National Collegiate

Athletic Association (NCAA) is the governing body for most amateur athletics at the college level nationwide. The National Federation of State High School Associations serves as the national voice of high school athletics. However, state associations like the Michigan High School Athletic Association (MHSAA) typically govern athletics within their own states and set eligibility guidelines. It has been suggested that these governing bodies are responsible for the more academically prepared student-athlete in the college setting (Eitzen & Sage, 1997).

The NCAA, a nonprofit voluntary association consisting of approximately 900 four-year colleges and universities, was established to govern intercollegiate athletics. Its regulations regarding initial-eligibility in the NCAA's hundreds of member institutions is a major factor in the development of secondary curriculum throughout communities nationwide. Recently, however, the NCAA has come under fire from educators, parents, and other organizations across the country. The Minnesota State Board of Education and the Annenberg Rural Challenge (funded by the Annenberg Foundation) have written the NCAA urging the organization to stop trying to dictate course content. According to Joe Nathan, director of the Center for School Change, University of Minnesota-Minneapolis, the NCAA is inappropriately attempting to dictate the curriculum for U. S. high schools (Nathan, 1998). These initial-eligibility requirements are considered biased by many other groups, including the Black Coaches Association (BCA) and the Rainbow Commission on Fairness in Athletics, both of which consider these requirements as racially and culturally insensitive. A high school student, given the talent, physical tools and projected skills required to participate collegiately in a given sport, in the ninth grade must begin enrolling in courses that the NCAA has deemed appropriate and desirable for incoming college freshman. The NCAA determines the core courses, the number of core courses, the num-

ber of credits or Carnegie units, the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) or American College Test (ACT) score, and the Grade Point Average (GPA) within the NCAA-selected core subjects to determine whether a high school athlete is eligible to participate and to receive an athletic scholarship to an NCAA member institution. The following excerpts highlight the NCAA's recent efforts to bolster academic readiness:

- 1983—NCAA passes Proposition 48 setting minimum standards that a high school graduate attain to be eligible to play on a Division I college team.
- 1986—Proposition 48 takes effect. First-year students (high school graduates) are eligible to participate in sports at a Division I school only if they have a 2.0 GPA in 11 core subjects in high school and a score of 700 on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) or 15 on the American College Test (ACT). Proposition 48 permits students who meet only one of the requirements (SAT/ACT score or a 2.0 GPA in core courses) to be accepted at college and given athletic aid if they graduated from high school with a 2.0 GPA in all of their courses. But these partial qualifiers are not permitted to work out with their teams during their first year, and they have to forfeit one year of athletic eligibility; these restrictions mean they can play for only three years instead of the normal four years.
- 1993—NCAA boosts Proposition 48 initial-eligibility requirements from a 2.0 to 2.5 high school GPA and from 11 to 13 core courses. It renamed the ACT scale and increased the minimum score from a 60 to a 68 score on the new ACT scale, and from 700 to 820 on the new SAT scale.
- 1996—New initial-eligibility requirements take effect. All high school students wishing to play at Division I or II schools must register and be certified

by a NCAA Initial Eligibility Clearinghouse. An index (sliding scale) of GPA and test scores is used to determine “qualifiers” and “partial qualifiers.” The lower the GPA, the higher the test score must be for eligibility. Students failing to meet the standards cannot play in games, practice with a team, or receive athletic grants during their first year, although they can receive need-based financial aid.

The additional requirements and subsequent changes in initial eligibility were intended to send a clear message to high schools and to high school student-athletes that a commitment to academic achievement was required to play college sports (Coakley, 1998).

The National Federation and the state athletic associations are also nonprofit voluntary organizations. The National Federation encompasses 50 individual state high school athletic or activities associations, plus the District of Columbia. The National Federation makes rules for athletic competition. However, individual state associations establish the academic guidelines for their particular state. In Michigan, local school districts may also set guidelines, but the guidelines must be more stringent than those established by the MHSAA. In Michigan, in order to be eligible to participate in interscholastic sport, the MHSAA requires that a student:

1. pass four full credit (units) courses during the previous semester;
2. be currently passing four full credit courses per semester;
3. be under age 19, unless the birthday occurs on or after September 1; and
4. must not have competed in more than eight semesters.

The urban school district in this study requires a 2.0 grade point average with at least four classes or units passed to be eligible.

Statement of the Problem

There is a general lack of respect for athletic programs in our secondary schools because such programs are not perceived as associated with the educational mission of schools. Almost six million boys and girls (38% girls, 62% boys) participated in programs during the 1996-97 school year, more than ever before (National Federation, 1998). Even though empirical data and anecdotes support that athletes have higher grade point averages, better self images, and lower dropout rates, athletics has low status as it relates to the total educational experience, and is generally one of the main areas cited for cuts when funding issues are discussed. The National Federation maintains that co-curricular programs are inherently educational. They provide valuable lessons for many practical situations such as teamwork, sportsmanship, winning, losing, and hard work. Through participation in athletic and activity programs, students learn self-discipline, build self-confidence, and develop skills to handle competitive situations. These are the qualities the public expects schools to develop in students so that they become responsible adults and productive citizens (National Federation, 1998). Finally, athletes are generally better students.

Some outstanding high school athletes are not academically motivated. As a result, many athletes are then perceived as “dumb jocks” who take “easy” classes/courses, who are not interested in school, and who are generally poor students. Athletic participation increases educational aspirations because many student-athletes, especially those in urban areas, feel that they are destined to play professional sports, and the vehicle to that end is through college. A 1990 poll conducted by Louis Harris and associates revealed that 55% of black high school athletes queried expected to play ball in college and 43% said that they could make it to the pros. Only 39% of the White athletes thought they

would get to play in college, and 16% thought they had a shot at the pros (NCAA News, 1990).

As outlined earlier, the NCAA has established guidelines that are crystal clear regarding individuals who are eligible to participate in their member institutions. NCAA requirements for participation in college, which often exceed the local school district requirements for graduation, have been suggested as the driving force behind a better academically prepared student athlete.

Athletic programs are often viewed by school boards as luxuries and thought to deprive educational programs of resources, facilities, and staff. In reality, most school districts operate athletic programs at or around 1% of the total operating budget. The National Federation has determined through information received across the country that activity programs make up only 1-3% of the overall education budget in a school. In Chicago, that figure is even less. In 1992, the overall budget for the Chicago Board of Education was \$2.6 billion, and activity programs received only \$2.9 million, a minuscule 0.1% (National Federation, 1992).

Traditionally, when athletic participation is addressed, females are often overlooked or their participation is trivialized. In 1997, a record number of 2.6 million girls participated in interscholastic athletics. Since 1971, female participation has increased from one in twenty-seven to the current one in three. Additionally, the Women's Sports Foundation in its research found that girls who participate in sports are less likely to become involved with drugs, less likely to become pregnant and more likely to graduate from high school than those who do not play sports (Women's Sports Foundation, 1997). Also, half of all girls participating in some kind of sports experience higher than average levels of self-esteem and less depression (Colton & Gore, 1991).

With the advent of multi-million dollar, multiyear professional sports contracts, the star quality afforded many athletes, and the increased television and media exposure of all sports for men and women, it is not always clear why young people play sports. College football in some regions is tantamount to religion, with new heroes weekly. After college football season, college basketball for men and women takes center stage, and cable TV always seems to have a contest. Harter (1978) suggests that individuals are motivated to play sports to demonstrate competence and achievement in particular areas. Edwards (1973) and Harris (1994) argue that among African-American youth, family, friends, and teachers are the factors that motivate participation. Intuitively, we know that most individuals begin and continue to play sports because of the pleasure or fun derived from activity. The cultural and social variables that impact upon and shape the lives of young people are complex, and for certain groups sports appears to be one of the few allowable and available opportunities for success. This appears to be especially true for African-American youth who are over-represented in many team sports relative to the numbers in the general population. As much as anything else, sport participation allows athletes to be seen, recognized, valued as participants, and hopeful for a future .

Purpose of the Study

There is a benefit to interscholastic athletic participation. The purpose of this study is to examine interscholastic athletics and to ascertain its academic value to urban students. This study also asked urban students why they participate in athletics and how certain motivational factors effected their reasons for interscholastic athletic participation.

Significance of the Study

Information and data gathered in this study will broaden the knowledge base of urban education and urban athletics as it relates to urban students. There is limited information that supports or rejects the beneficial aspects of athletic participation, and little to none regarding the benefit or lack thereof in urban areas or by urban students.

Definition of Terms

Amateur athletics—programs in which individuals engage in competition for pleasure rather than financial benefit.

Athletic scholarship—a grant of financial aid awarded to a student for the purpose of attending a college or university and participating in athletics.

Cocurricular—complementing, but not part of the regular school curriculum.

Core subjects—defined by the NCAA as requirements for eligibility at its member institutions; a recognized academic course that offers fundamental instructional components in a specified area of study.

Eligibility—fulfilling the requirements of a school and or governing body necessary for participation in interscholastic or intercollegiate athletic participation.

Extracurricular activities—school-sponsored activities that carry no academic credit and are not governed by a course of study.

Extrinsic motivation—external reasons or rewards for athletic participation such as winning, receiving trophies, awards, or money, and pleasing others.

Grade point average (GPA)—a 4-point numerical scale that describes letter grades used in many secondary/high schools: 4=A, 3=B, 2=C, 1=D, and 0 = E or failing.

Interscholastic athletics—extracurricular activities that are athletic in nature between

schools, sponsored by secondary/high schools, and typically are governed by state athletic associations.

Intercollegiate athletics—extracurricular activities between colleges and universities that are athletic in nature and sponsored by their institutions, and typically are governed by one or more national organizations.

Intrinsic motivation—internal reasons for participating in athletics, such as pleasure, fun, curiosity, health, and personal mastery.

MHSAA—Michigan High School Athletic Association, a private, nonprofit organization that governs high school and junior high/middle schools athletics within the state of Michigan.

NCAA—National Collegiate Athletic Association, a private nonprofit organization that governs the conduct of the intercollegiate athletics programs of its member institutions.

National Federation of State High School Associations (NFSHSA)—a private nonprofit organization that serves as the national governing body and coordinator for high school sports.

Participant in interscholastic athletics—any high school student who is an eligible member of a given high school/secondary team.

Proposition 48—an eligibility standard established by the NCAA in 1986, aimed at reforming and increasing academic standards of high schools.

Secondary schools—schools that are intermediate in level between elementary school and college, and that usually offer general, technical, vocational, or college-preparatory curricula.

Socioeconomic Status (SES)—of or relating to income and social position.

Women's Sports Foundation—a non-profit, member-based organization dedicated to increasing opportunities for girls and women in sports and fitness through education, advocacy, recognition, and grants.

Research Questions

1. *To what extent does interscholastic athletic participation affect academic achievement among urban youth?*
2. *To what extent does interscholastic athletic participation affect educational aspirations among urban youth?*
3. *To what extent do selected motivational factors affect interscholastic athletic participation among urban youth?*
 - a) *To what extent do intrinsic and extrinsic motivation affect urban youth?*
 - b) *To what extent does the motivation to play professional sports affect urban youth?*

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of the literature has been arranged relative to the order of the research questions listed in Chapter I. The review arranged in this fashion will enable the reader to look at the primary sources that pertain directly to the area of investigation. An attempt has also been made to order the sources chronologically from earliest to most recent.

Athletic Participation and Academic Achievement

Some of the earliest research regarding academics and interscholastic athletic participation was done by Coleman (1961). His seminal work concluded several findings including that athletics was valued by teenagers both as spectators and participants. He argued a zero-sum model in which he stated that the more time spent on nonacademic goals, i.e., sports, the more attention was diverted from school, leading to less time spent on homework and less investment in school. Coleman suggested that students may prefer to invest time and energy in sports activities and neglect academic work that is not as valued by their peers. This explanation in general assumes that time and energy are finite, and if these scarce resources are spent in one role, they are drained away and are not available for another role (Goode, 1960; Coleman, 1961). Marks (1977) took issue with these findings. He argued that we tend to find little energy for anything to which we are uncommitted, and doing these things leaves us feeling spent, drained, or exhausted, and

abundant energy is found for anything to which we are committed. Marks concluded that:

- 1) If one is participating in sports there may be an increased interest in school, including academic activities;
- 2) To maintain athletic eligibility the athlete is motivated to perform at a higher academic level;
- 3) Athletic success may lead to a heightened sense of self-worth that spills over into academic achievement;
- 4) Coaches, teachers, and parents take a personal interest in athletes, including their classroom performance;
- 5) Athletic participation may lead to membership in the elite peer groups and an orientation toward academic success; and
- 6) The athlete may have the expectation of participating in athletics in college.

A 1968 Shafer and Armer study of 535 boys in two Midwest high schools found a mean grade point average of 2.35 for athletes and 1.83 for nonathletes. In the study, controls were applied for five relevant variables, and while the grade point subsamples were reduced (2.35 to 2.24), the direction of the data still showed a positive association between academic performance and athletic participation.

Rehberg and Shafer (1968), in their study of almost 800 senior males from three public and three parochial schools in three mid-size Pennsylvania cities, suggest that there is a linkage between participation and boys from working-class homes with low parental encouragement to go to college. These boys stand to gain the most from their participation in athletics and the concomitant heightened peer status. In short, they seem to develop an orientation toward educational achievement because of the influences of their peers, who are members of the leading crowd in high school (Snyder & Spreitzer, 1978).

Using the National Longitudinal Survey, Hanks (1979) examined the effects of sports participation by Black and White males and by Black and White females. He found that sports participation had more impact on males than on females. Also, sports participation had greater effects on White students with low socioeconomic status (SES) and low ability than on other White students, but this effect was not found for Black students.

Prior to the implementation of Title IX in 1971, there were few opportunities for interscholastic participation for girls . While there was and is limited information concerning the relationship between participation and academics, the majority of investigations included only boys. Feltz and Weiss (1984), in a study of 935 girls, found that it was apparent from past research on academic orientations, as well as from the findings of their own study, that the stereotype of “dumb jock” is a misnomer. Girls who participated in more extracurricular activities, as well as athletics, typically had higher SES and greater academic achievement. The results of the study indicated that although female athletes who participated only in athletics recorded the lowest average academic achievement scores, SES levels and the extent of extracurricular involvement were a greater influence on academic achievement scores than were students’ participation categories. They suggest that a number of measures, such as background characteristics (SES, race, type of sport, sex, socialization, and extent of involvement) all contribute to a multitude of academic orientations, including achievement scores, educational aspirations, educational attainment, and academic performance.

The National Federation of State High School Associations (1986) reviewed studies done by several state athletic associations in regard to extracurricular participation and academic achievement. The results of these studies in Minnesota, Iowa, North Dakota, and a fourth completed by Indiana University for the National Federation, all con-

cluded that extracurricular activity participants had higher grade point averages than non-participants. These grade point differentials varied by study, with the greatest discrepancy appearing in the North Dakota study, where extracurricular participants had an aggregate grade point average of 3.32 compared to nonparticipants who had a collective grade point average of 2.48 (Diringer, 1993).

Manning (1990) in his study of at-risk students found that weekly progress reports, teacher awareness, and regular study hall improved 77% of the student-athletes' grade point averages by 0.5.

Snyder and Spreitzer (1990), using a baseline sample of almost 12,000 students from a 1980 High School and Beyond (HSB) study, investigated high school athletic participation as related to college attendance among Black, Hispanic, and White males. Their findings in this study support a variety of earlier studies that demonstrate a positive relationship between high school athletic participation and academic achievement. A larger percentage of the Black students participated in sports than did students in the two other ethnic categories; the findings lend only modest support to the hypothesis that sports have a unique mystique in the Black subculture. Interestingly, the positive effect of sports participation on college attendance is more evident among students who had a lower degree of cognitive development. For many students who are least disposed to enter college (based on cognitive skills), sports participation exerts the greatest influence (see Table 1).

A more recent study (Melnick, Sabo, & Vanfossen, 1992) used data collected by the U.S. Department of Education in 1987 (see Table 1). A national, stratified, probability sample from the HSB study of 3,686 African-American and Hispanic boys and girls was selected for their investigation. They found that sports participation was generally unrelated to grades and standardized test scores and, depending on the location of the school

Table 1: Percentage of White, Black, and Hispanic Males Attending College

Social Status	Parental Relations	Cognitive Development	High School Participation						Athletic Effect		
			YES			NO			White	Black	Hispanic
			White (n=1037)	Black (n=643)	Hispanic (n=650)	White (n=1201)	Black (n=590)	Hispanic (n=755)			
HIGHER	Good	Higher	85	90	64	78	73	90	7	17	-26
		Lower	54	62	36	19	30	31	35	32	5
	Bad	Higher	75	84	74	67	68	63	8	16	11
		Lower	57	59	49	19	30	28	35	29	21
LOWER	Good	Higher	57	75	78	49	66	64	8	9	14
		Lower	31	47	35	15	23	20	16	24	15
	Bad	Higher	56	61	71	39	41	55	17	20	16
		Lower	30	31	25	9	24	20	21	7	5

Source: Snyder, E. E., & Spreitzer, E. (1990). High school athletic participation as related to college attendance among Black, Hispanic, and White males: A research note. *Youth & Society, 21*(3), 390-398.

(urban, suburban, rural), athletic participation was significantly related to lower dropouts rates for some minority youth. Further, African-American male and female athletes who attended suburban schools were significantly more involved in extracurricular and community activities than nonparticipating African-American students. Athletic participation was also significantly and positively related to extracurricular involvement for rural Black females and rural Hispanic males. The findings support the belief that high school athletic participation was a social resource for many minority youth in the 1980's but served as an academic resource only in its influence on school retention. While these findings indicate that athletic participation has very little academic impact on minority youth, there was no minority subgroup in which athletes did not at least equal the academic record of their nonathletic counterpart.

Diringer (1993) in his findings reported a positive association between academics and interscholastic participation. He found that the grade point average increased with the increase in the number of activities. He also found that female athletes had a mean grade point average of 2.92 and male athletes, 2.63.

Marsh (1993) in his study of 10,613 students concluded that, based on a large number of complicated analyses, participation in sports has many positive effects with no apparent negative effects, and the positive effects are quite robust. He found that the largest effect was on social self-concept.

Summary

The review of the literature suggests an overwhelming positive relationship between academic achievement and participation in interscholastic athletics. While most investigations have centered around White males, the limited study given to other eth-

nicities and females seems to reflect the same positive stance. Participation in sports is not “draining” and, in examining the research, increased activity levels suggest an invigorating motivation to better grades. More directly, however, participation often brings social status and affords membership in the high school elite group and that group is often highly motivated academically, especially in schools where academic achievement is highly recognized. This, coupled with the positive effect of participation on the concept of self, self-worth and self-confidence, improves self-esteem, which is essential in the learning process. There is strong indication that academic achievement is linked to SES; however, several studies indicate that males and females on the lower rungs of SES who participate in athletics tend to gain more academically than those who do not participate.

Athletic Participation and Educational Aspirations

The results of studies by various researchers have indicated a positive relationship between activity participation and increased educational aspirations. Coleman (1961) in one of his clearest findings, held that the relationship between athletic participation and membership in the leading crowd is “striking.” He concluded that the educational expectations of the elite (leading crowd) included college.

Rehberg and Shafer (1968) reported a positive relationship between male athletic participation and plans to attend college. For boys not otherwise disposed toward college (low SES, low academic standing, and little parental encouragement), the relationship was strongest. Spady (1971) found similar results in that boys from lower SES families who participated in athletics tended to have high educational aspirations. Spady further added that participation provides exposure to a range of potentially functional socialization experiences that equip youth with interpersonal, organizational, and leadership skills

that may be translated into later socioeconomic advantage.

Spady (1971) concluded that students are exposed to a range of potentially functional socialization experiences in pursuing extracurricular activities. These activities not only provide participants with varying degrees of status and prestige, they also facilitate the development of skills and attitudes that serve as resources in students' quests for future success. A lack of extracurricular participation deprives the student of these experiences and jeopardizes his chances of either acquiring or realizing viable college goals.

Spreitzer and Pugh (1973) replicated Rehberg and Shafer's findings. In schools where athletes were highly rewarded and valued, the relationship between participation and aspiration was strong; in schools in which the "all-around boy" was rewarded, the relationship was weaker. The weakest relationship between athletic participation and aspiration was found in schools in which academic excellence was rewarded. They also reported that there was a significant relationship between aspiration and participation among males who had a high self-perceived peer status, but not among boys who had a low self-perceived peer status (Holland & Andre, 1994).

The data of Otto and Alwin (1977) confirmed earlier research reporting that participation in athletics has an effect on educational aspirations statistically controlling on socioeconomic origins, mental ability and academic performance. In general, they found a positive effect, but they found no evidence supporting the hypothesis that perceived peer status was a dominant factor. Also, they stated that participation may teach interpersonal skills that are readily transferable and marketable outside of athletics and that athletics may serve an allocation function by raising the visibility of participants and providing them with an early success definition or label. Finally, athletics may introduce participants to interpersonal networks, contacts, and information channels that are beneficial in

establishing careers.

Anderson (1990), in his study of African-American males in New York City, found that the hypothesis that African-American athletes were being hurt by unrealistic aspirations was not supported. However, based on mean grade point averages, seniors had more realistic goals regarding where they wanted to attend college than did sophomores and juniors. The findings also confirmed the Spreitzer and Pugh (1973) study of specialized academic schools; that is, in schools where academic excellence is valued, not much harm is done to educational expectations by athletic participation.

In the study cited earlier, Snyder and Spreitzer's (1990) primary finding indicated that a greater percentage of the students of various ethnicities who participated in high school sports went on to college as compared to the nonathletes. Also, there was a positive effect with Black males and participation irrespective of the variables social status, parental relations, and cognitive development; however, percentages were higher for those males who were higher in social status.

Melnick, Sabo, and Vanfossen (1992) found no relationship between African-American and Hispanic youth participation in athletics and educational expectations. Their findings also showed that high school sports participation was neither a powerful resource for minority athletes nor a "treadmill to oblivion." From this standpoint, athletic participation was not counterproductive, and therefore gives rise to the notion that teachers may not adequately challenge the intellectual abilities of their minority student-athletes given the intellectually inferiority of minorities and dumb-jock stereotypes.

Sabo, Melnick and Vanfossen (1993) found that athletic participation among White female athletes from suburban and rural schools in 1984 was significantly related to four year college attendance. Hispanic male athletes from suburban and rural schools

were somewhat more likely than nonathletes to attend four-year colleges in 1984. The same was true for rural Hispanic females. No Black males or females in any category were more likely to be attending college in 1984 if they had participated in high school sports. Overall, these findings suggest that high school athletic participation was more related to educational mobility on the basis of race and ethnicity than to gender. Whites experienced the greatest educational mobility, followed by Hispanics, while Blacks derived no post-secondary advantages as a result of their previous athletic participation.

Summary

The importance and exposure of athletics in our society does bring about a degree of prestige and status for its participants. As a result, interscholastic participation with varying degrees of importance typically affords membership in a school's elite group. This group, especially in a locale where academic excellence is highly recognized, is expected to and plans to attend college. While significant social changes have occurred in American society since the research done by Coleman in 1961, student ability and family socioeconomic status are important and have been used almost universally as control variables in studies of educational aspirations.

Many of the early studies of educational aspirations and athletic participation were aimed at White males in urban, suburban, and rural areas, and the findings typically showed a positive relationship. It appears that the ensuing research in area of educational aspirations and athletic participation is still positive, with the relationship strongest for White males in suburban and rural areas, followed by White females from suburban and rural high schools. African-American student-athletes and urban students in some studies did not appear to have similar aspirations. Other research indicated to the contrary, that is,

that overall educational aspirations were increased for participants in interscholastic athletics irrespective of race.

With family socioeconomic status as a variable, a possible explanation regarding Blacks and aspirations may involve the financial aspect of attending college. The Social-Class Structure of African-American Families (Billingsley, 1990) shows that in 1983 and 1986 upper and middle class Blacks were 29% and 36%, respectively, of the total African-American population. The remaining 71% and 64%, respectively, were among the working class poor and nonpoor, and the nonworking poor.

A study by Fuhrmann, Armour, and Wergin (1991) at Virginia Commonwealth University indicated entering freshman relied primarily on parents for financial support, with Whites more likely than Blacks to do so (77% of White females and males; 67% of Black males; 64% of Black females). Additionally, approximately 50% of White students indicated that parents would provide 76% or more of their college expenses, while only about 25% of Black students so indicated. The cost of attending college was rated as "very important" by 57% of the Black females and 46% of the Black males. White females rated cost at 34% and White males at 30%. Black student athletes may have held aspirations for college, but were not able to secure the financial support necessary for attending.

Motivation/Reasons for Athletic Participation

Harry Edwards (1973) in his research claims that the African-American family and community reward athletic achievement among their youth more than any other activity, and this motivates them to participate. He adds that this is another factor that lures young Blacks in sports career aspirations. Additionally, young African-American males

see sports as a means of proving their manhood.

Gould and Horn (1984) concluded that young athletes have numerous and diverse motives for participation. Affiliation, skill development, excitement and success were consistently rated highly, while power over others, independence, aggression and pleasing others received little endorsement. Gender differences were apparent, indicating that females attributed greater importance to fun and friendship than did males (Ashford, Bidle, & Goudas, 1993).

Snyder (1983) states that while the element of commitment to sports is not exclusive to social support factors, or intrinsic or extrinsic satisfaction, they are none-the-less important. He goes on to say that individuals are socialized into sports roles, and the agents include parents, peers, teachers, coaches, and siblings who all influence individuals' initial and continued involvement in sports. He maintains that intrinsic satisfaction, or the sheer enjoyment, pleasure, ecstasy, and fun of physical exertion, and the competence to perform a challenging task in competitive sports, is another factor towards commitment. Finally, extrinsic motivation is central to sports roles in the competition for victories, trophies, recognition, prestige, money, awards, favors, and other ego-gratifying outcomes associated with successful athletic performance.

Klint and Weiss (1987), in a study of perceived competence and motives for participating in youth sports, supported the competence motivation theory. Those athletes who were high in perceived physical competence rated skill development (intrinsic) as a more important reason for participating than did low-perceived physical competence athletes. This category comprised the items: (a) learn new skills, (b) improve skills, and (c) compete at higher levels. In addition, those perceiving themselves as physically competent in sports also cited affiliation/team atmosphere as a more important participant mo-

tive than did those lower in their perceptions.

In 1990, the Athletic Footwear Association did a study of 10,000 students and their feelings about sports using these topics:

- a) Why they participate,
- b) Why they quit,
- c) How they feel about winning, and
- d) How motivations differ.

They found that motivation for involvement in sports is not the same for all students. Three groups were classified according to the way they rated a number of motivational factors.

- 1) **Reluctant participants.** Roughly 25% of the respondents seemed to feel they “had to” be in sports because of outside pressure.
- 2) **Image-conscious socializers.** While this group represented 40% of the total, they seemed more inclined to draw their motivations from rewards or approval of others.
- 3) **Competence-oriented.** This group was the most likely to continue in sports. They practiced and played harder, yet their primary motivation was to improve their skills.

Melnick, Sabo, and Vanfossen (1992) speculate that a holding effect (not dropping out of school) did exist for some minorities because they found sports participation fun and personally satisfying. They stayed in school because they enjoyed sports and the friendships and popularity it fostered.

Harris (1994) in his study of race, sport, and social support, found that African-Americans were more likely than Whites to report receiving encouragement to play bas-

ketball from a friend and from teachers (the relationship being strongest in public schools). They received most of their support from outside the home, and this finding differs from Edwards and others who believe that the Black family, in particular, pushes its children to excel in sports. He also found that the majority of African-Americans and Caucasians see sports as the best route to social mobility for African-Americans and that African-Americans who primarily attend public schools, and Caucasian student-athletes have different motives for playing basketball. Additionally, African-Americans (11%) were more likely than Caucasians (2%) to score high on the pro-future scale. In sum, African-Americans are more likely to report playing basketball for reasons that clearly involve an anticipated future in basketball. African-Americans, more than Caucasians, play because they hope to get a college scholarship, plan to play in college, and they get a chance to show their talent. Caucasians were slightly more likely than African-Americans to endorse enjoyment as a reason for playing basketball.

Devoe and Carroll (1994) used student information obtained from Ewing and Seefeldt (1987) in a study of almost 4,000 students. The results of this study included 112 high school coaches perceptions of motivation and actual student motivation for participation in interscholastic athletics. Some items in the participation survey were rated nearly identically by students and coaches (i.e., male and female students rated "to have fun" as number one, with this item also rated number one by the male coaches and number two by the female coaches). However, certain items revealed vast differences in opinion for the coaches and the students. "To improve my skills" was rated number two and number four by male and female students, respectively. This item was rated substantially lower by coaches. It was rated number eight for the females, and not rated in the top 10 by the male coaches.

Table 2. Motivation to Participate/Coaches Perceptions

Female Coaches (N=30)	Male Coaches (N=82)
1. to be with friends	1. to have fun
3. to do something I'm good at	2. to be with friends
4. to feel important	3. to do something I'm good at
2. to have fun	4. to feel important
5. to win	5. to be popular
6. to play as part of a team	6. for the excitement of the competition
7. for the rewards (trophies, recognition)	7. for the rewards (trophies, recognition)
8. to improve my skills	8. to win
(tie) for the excitement of competition	9. to attract boys/girls' attention
10. to be popular	10. parents or close friends wanted me to participate
Student Responses	
Female Students (N=1,900)	Male Students (N=2,000)
1. to have fun	1. to have fun
2. to stay in shape	2. to improve skills
3. to get exercise	3. for the excitement of competition
4. to improve skills	4. to do something I'm good at
5. to do something I'm good at	5. to stay in shape
6. to play as part of a team	6. for the challenge of competition
7. for the excitement of competition	7. to play as part of a team
8. to learn new skills	8. to win
9. for the team spirit	9. to go to a higher level of competition
10. for the challenge of the competition	10. to get exercise

Source: DeVoe, D., & Carroll, T. J. (1994). Student participation patterns: High school coaches' perceptions. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance*, 63-68.

McNeal (1995), in his study of 735 public high schools and over 14,000 students states that an increased probability of subsequent criminal behavior (Thornberry, Moore, & Christenson, 1985), lower occupational and economic prospects (Rumberger, 1987; Steinberg, Blinde, & Chan, 1984), lower lifetime earnings (Catterall, 1985; Rumberger, 1987; Steinberg et al, 1984), and an increased likelihood of becoming a member of the underclass (Rickette & Sawhill, 1988) accompany dropping out of high school in the United States. Students with low academic ability, from lower social classes, and from racial-ethnic minority groups typically have increased chances of dropping out. Involvement is the most salient aspect of the student's social bond to the school and is analogous to concepts used in various theoretical approaches. Athletics is generally the most prestigious extracurricular activity, and the degree of participation/identification mediates a student's likelihood of dropping out. He found that when all else is held constant, students who participated in athletics were an estimated 1.7 times less likely to drop out than were those who did not participate. Although no tests of statistical significance were performed for indirect effects, it appears that athletic participation may further decrease the probability of dropping out for Blacks, higher SES students, and those enrolled in the academic track.

Northeastern University Center for the Study of Sport in Society in a recent survey found that 66% of African-American males between the ages of 13 and 18 believe they can earn a living playing professional sports. This statistic is more than double the proportion of young White males who hold such beliefs. Black parents also are four times more likely than White parents to believe that their children are destined for careers in professional athletics (U.S. News and World Report, 1997).

Summary

While there are many reasons that students elect to participate in sports, the reasons all seem to fall under the umbrellas of intrinsic or extrinsic motivation. The excitement and fun of “playing” (intrinsic), along with the competence to perform challenging physical tasks, is the type of motivation that the researchers suggest keeps individuals involved longer and more committed to their sport. Extrinsic rewards, such as winning, popularity, prestige, trophies, certificates, etc., are important, and these rewards have increased or lessened value depending on age, activity, and gender, and possibly race. Also, extrinsic rewards have been shown to reduce intrinsic motivation. Interestingly, students in a self-report indicated that their motives were more intrinsic than youth coaches perceived them to be.

The literature clearly indicates that while sports is viewed as important for all races, for African-Americans it seems more important as evidenced by their greater percentage of involvement. While the research seems to suggest more extrinsic motivation, it is unclear if the greater motivation comes from inside or outside the home. African-American parents may push participation from the standpoint of keeping their child in school (not dropping out) and also away from the criminal element. For males, participation may also be a way of showing manhood. There is also a suggestion that the media and advertisers have played a major role and have created the impression among many lower-income Blacks that there are unlimited opportunities on the nation’s basketball courts, baseball diamonds, and football fields, and therein creates a major motivation for participation.

Review of the Literature Summary

Various and sundry researchers over the last 40 years have found a positive relationship between high school athletic participation and academic achievement. Additionally, non-profit organizations such as the National Federation of State High School Association and the Women's Sport Foundation give athletic participation high marks. The National Federation states unequivocally that:

- activities, including athletics, support the academic mission of schools,
- activities, including athletics, are inherently educational, and
- activities, including athletics, foster success later in life.

The socioeconomic status of the participant may not be the only factor for academic achievement. The eligibility requirements to participate in all 50 states may have some influence, as would the initial-eligibility requirements of the NCAA, for those who have aspirations of playing in college. The support of teachers and coaches is also a factor that contributes to achievement, as well as the self-selected nature of sports. That is, students low in academic ability may not elect to pursue athletics. An interesting correlate in many studies finds that the more activities or sports in which student-athletes are involved, the higher the grade point average.

Other researchers have addressed athletic participation as having a positive effect on youth staying in school and lowering the dropout rate. Another positive element, though unrelated to academia, is the time spent participating in sports between the hours of 2 and 8 p.m. These are the hours that are prime for youth crime, and participation in sports could reduce delinquency. Additionally, the self-confidence often displayed during competition has some educational carry-over and has been suggested as an integral educational element that serves as a component to increased achievement.

The study of interscholastic athletic participation and the aspirations to attend college have also generally found a positive relationship. Within the American school social structure, both the academic and athletic roles are socially valued. As an activity, high school athletic participation is highly regarded, so much so that one study found that males, whether they participated in high school athletics or not, would like to be remembered as a star athlete.

Students from lower SES, as a result of athletic participation, find themselves in the high school elite group. This group is comprised of members from other activities including academic clubs. Members of academic clubs are typically students of higher SES, and their future includes college attendance. The academic expectations of the elite group include college, which, by virtue of sport participation, makes one a member of the elite group. Research suggests that these students least disposed to academia with respect to SES experience a profound benefit. Findings suggest that participation positively effects the aspirations of White males and suburban and some rural students. Aspirations for African-American students may be similar, with the same hopes and desires; however, the costs involved with college, and the inability of families to contribute financially, may reflect more SES reality than actual aspirations.

Finally, more high school students are participating in school sports than ever before. Seefeldt, Ewing, and Walk (1991) also found that participation varies by race, with African-Americans and Hispanic boys and girls underrepresented in soccer and volleyball, respectively, while participating in numbers larger than expected in basketball and baseball. The research clearly indicates that high school students as a group are more motivated intrinsically. They like the action, the excitement, and the competition that accompanies participation. They enjoy using the acquired skills that enable them to perform

challenging physical tasks. They compete solely for “the love of the game.” There are many who participate for other or extrinsic reasons. They play because family members have pressed them into “play.” They play because of the visibility, the trophies, the acclaim, or for the hope of an athletic scholarship to college. They play because this is the beginning of their eventual rise to the professional ranks. African-Americans, over-represented in certain more highly visible sports, are motivated to participate because sports appears to be one of the few viable occupations open to them. According to sports sociologist Harry Edwards,

Black society, as does the dominant White society, teaches its members to strive for that which is defined as the most desirable among potentially achievable goals. Since the onset of integrated, highly rewarding sports opportunities and the impact of television in communicating to all the ostensible influence..... glamour, affluence, and so forth, of the successful black athlete, the talents of Afro-American males (and females, again, to a lesser extent) are disproportionately concentrated toward achievement in this one area. In high-prestige occupational positions outside of the sports realm, black role models are an all but insignificant few. These are not readily visible, and they seldom have contact or communications with the masses of blacks.

Intrinsic motivation and extrinsic rewards are both integral components to interscholastic athletic participation. Between the two, they express competence, desire, dreams and, more important, hope.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

This chapter presents the methodology that was used to collect and analyze the data. These data were then used to answer the research questions. The chapter includes the research design, variables in the study, setting for the study, the population, and sample. Instrumentation, including reliability, content validity, pilot data, and procedures are also included.

Research Design

A non-experimental, descriptive and inferential research design that incorporates student records and survey methodology was used for this study. This type of design is appropriate when the independent variables are not manipulated and no treatment is provided for the participants. An instrument of 17 items was used to collect the data.

Variables in the Study

The variables measured in this study include:

Athletic participation—membership in at least one high school team sport

Academic achievement—grade point average (GPA)

Educational aspirations—desire or plan to attend college

Motivational factors—reasons for participation in interscholastic athletics

Research Questions

1. *To what extent does interscholastic athletic participation affect academic achievement among urban youth?*

The literature clearly suggests a positive relationship between athletic participation and academic achievement. In general, reviews of the literature have reported that male high school athletes receive somewhat higher grade point averages than do nonathletes. To date, the majority of studies in this area have been limited to White males. There have been very limited studies done in this line of research on urban interscholastic athletes or females. Descriptive and inferential statistics using student records that include grade point averages (GPA) were used to address this question.

2. *To what extent does interscholastic athletic participation affect educational aspirations among urban youth?*

Researchers have examined whether participation in athletics influences educational aspirations (going to college), and the results have generally indicated a positive relationship. In schools in which athletes were highly rewarded and valued, the relationship between participation and aspiration was strong. In schools where the “all-around boy” was rewarded, the relationship was weaker (Spreitzer & Pugh, 1973). To date, very limited studies have been done in this line of research on urban athletes or females, and in those studies conflicting results have been found. Descriptive and inferential statistics using data from the instrument were used to address this question. Interviews with school guidance counselors were also used.

3. *To what extent do selected motivational factors effect interscholastic athletic participation among urban youth (collectively and by gender)?*

a. *To what extent does intrinsic and extrinsic motivation affect urban youth?*

b. *To what extent does the motivation to play professional sports affect urban*

youth?

High school students participate in sports for various reasons. Research shows that some reasons include staying in condition, improving athletic skills, exciting competition, or simply for the enjoyment. These areas represent intrinsic motivation. Other reasons include extrinsic motivation and involve rewards such as pleasing others, recognition, winning, popularity, and scholarships. Sports participation by some athletes is presumed to be a path toward success and upward mobility, and the overrepresentation of African-Americans in certain professional sports is sometimes used to support that argument. Some sport sociologists have claimed that the high visibility of African-American athletes and the low visibility of other successful African-Americans (such as African-American executives and other professionals) in American society accentuates the restricted focus of African-American youth on sports (Harris, 1997). The literature suggests that sports is an attractive goal to many African-American males.

To date, there have been very limited studies done in this line of research on urban athletes, African-Americans, or females. This question and sub-questions were addressed by the use of descriptive and inferential statistics with data taken from our instrument.

Setting of the Study

The urban area located in the Midwest in which this study took place is a community with a population of 1,027,974 according to the 1990 U.S. Census. A 1996 estimate, however, listed a 2.7% drop in the population. The ethnic composition of the city is 75.7% African-American (approximately 780,000), 21.6% White (224,000), and 2.7% (28,000) listed as other. Nearly half (136,560 or 46.4%) of all children under 18 years of age live below the poverty level. Almost one third (247,480 or 29.0%) of all families in

the city are below the poverty line. Single-parent families represent 55% of all families living in the city. In 1995, there were almost one-half million food stamp recipients, and the per house income was \$15,102, down from \$16,790 in 1990. There are almost 182,000 students in the public schools, and the families of two thirds of the students in the public schools live below the poverty line. Seventy percent of the students in the city public schools participate in the free lunch program. Sixty-two percent of the city residents have high school diplomas, and 9% of its residents are college graduates.

Study Population

The school district in which this study took place has a total population of approximately 182,000 students and of that number, 37,415 are in grades 9–12. There are 7,040 student athletes in the district, with approximately 5,200 participants in grades 10–12. The district has a 29.7% graduation rate, and the ethnic composition for the district is as follows:

African-American	91.02%
White	4.79%
Hispanic	2.79%
Asian	.99%
Native American	.24%

Sample Population

The study population was comprised of student athletes in grades 10–12 from four public high schools in the city. The Public School Athletic League establishes the league based on geographic location (East, West, Southwest, and Southeast), with six high schools per division. For the study, one school per division was randomly selected. The selected East high school is located on the far east side, the West high school is located in

the northwest section, the Southwest high school is located in the mid-southwest section, and the Southeast high school is located in the central city. The schools in the study have a large percentage of low-income students and all exceed 35% participation in the free lunch, with three schools near or above 60%. Dropout rates show a decline from the previous years (see Table 3).

Table 3. Characteristics of the Sample

Area	Enrollment	Low Income		Free Lunch Program	Dropout Rate	
		Number	%	%	95/96	96/97
East-F	1,453	324	22.2	59.6	42.3	38.7
West-M	1,629	421	25.8	35.	39.2	37.1
Southwest-W	1,094	344	31.4	69.4	41.2	38.5
Southeast-N	1,467	608	41.4	60.7	44.6	42.2

The sample consisted of all student athlete team members in the 10th, 11th, and 12th grades who had participated in at least one sport.

Instrument

The student-athletes were administered a participation questionnaire that included demographics, participation information, and items that addressed motives/reasons for interscholastic athletic participation by high school students. The items used in this instrument were modified from two instruments. Items were modified from a study of motives and predictors: Participation in community sports centers (Ashford, Biddle, & Goudas, 1993), and Harris (1994) in a study of race, sport, and future orientation. The questionnaire was also given to the guidance counselor to obtain the student-athletes' school-reported GPA. There was a total of 17 items.

The instrument, divided into five sections, addressed demographic information, interscholastic participation, college aspirations, motivation to participate, and professional player aspirations.

Table 4. Breakdown of Instrument Items

	Item	No. of Items
Demographic	1, 2	2
Interscholastic Participation	3, 4	2
College Aspirations	5, 6	2
Motivation to Participate	7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15	9
Professional Aspirations	16, 17	2

The demographics section included gender, rank in school and grade point average. The first two items required a forced choice. The second section asking for participation information included two items. The items asked in which sport(s) the student athletes participated, and which they considered their best sport. These items required written responses. The college aspirations section contained two item with three options for each. The response categories were YES = 3, NO = 1, MAYBE = 2.

In the fourth section there were nine items that addressed the motivation to participate. The response categories ranged from VERY TRUE = 4, PRETTY TRUE =3, NOT VERY TRUE = 2, NOT TRUE AT ALL. Section five included two items that addressed aspirations/chances to become a professional athlete. The response categories were: YES = 3, NO = 1, MAYBE = 2; and VERY MUCH = 3, PRETTY MUCH = 2, SOMEWHAT = 1, respectively.

Table 5. Breakdown of Instrument Sub-Scale

	Item	No. of Items
Intrinsic motives		
Enjoyment/excitement	10, 13	2
health and fitness	8, 9	2
self-control	14, 15	2
Extrinsic motives		
Achievement/Recognition	7, 12	2
College Aspirations/Scholarship	5, 6, 11	3
Professional Athlete	16, 17	2

Pilot Study

A pilot test of the instrument and items was implemented in a non-selected high school within the school district.

Table 6. Characteristics of Pilot Study Findings

Enrollment	Low Income		Free Lunch Program	Dropout Rate	
	Number	%	%	95/96	96/97
1,447	448	30.9	57.1	47.4	48.5

Reliability

Internal consistency reliability of the instrument was obtained by the use of Cronbach's alpha coefficients. The alpha coefficient for the nine items that measure motivation was .74. The alpha coefficient for college aspirations and professional player aspirations measured .80 and .64, respectively. This provided evidence that the instrument had good internal consistency.

Validity

Content validity was obtained through various professionals in the field. The instrument was reviewed by the former Director of Health, Physical Education, Recreation

and Safety in the district of the study; the Director of Athletics of the high school in the pilot study; the Compliance Director for Intercollegiate Athletics at Florida International University; an Assistant Director of the Michigan High School Athletic Association; and an Associate Professor of Sport Management at the University of New Mexico. The instrument was reviewed for clarity and content. Suggestions were offered and taken regarding language that better reflected the study population.

Pilot Sample Data

The following tables represent sample data from the pilot study. The variables listed are consistent with the pilot study. They have been re-coded for the study instrument.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics Representing the Mean, Standard Deviation, and Variance of Student Athlete Grade Point Averages of Pilot Study.

Grade Point Average	Label	Frequency	Valid (Percent)	Cumulative (Percent)
1.90	1	3.7	3.8	3.8
2.00	1	3.7	3.8	7.7
2.20	1	3.7	3.8	11.5
2.30	2	7.4	7.7	19.2
2.33	1	3.7	3.8	23.1
2.40	2	7.4	7.7	30.8
2.50	5	18.5	19.2	50.0
2.60	1	3.7	3.8	53.8
2.70	2	7.4	7.7	61.5
2.80	1	3.7	3.8	65.4
2.90	1	3.7	3.8	69.2
3.00	3	11.1	11.5	80.8
3.20	1	3.7	3.8	84.6
3.30	1	3.7	3.8	88.5
3.50	2	7.4	7.7	96.2
Total 3.90	1	3.7	3.8	100.0

Mean—2.709

Std deviation.—485

Variance—.235

Valid cases—26

Missing cases—1

No conclusions were drawn from this sample because data regarding official grade point averages were not requested from the school where the instrument was piloted.

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics Representing Student-Athlete Motivation in Pilot Study. N=27.00.

Variable	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.
VAR00012	3.93	.27	3.00	4.00
VAR00011	3.81	.40	3.00	4.00
VAR00013	3.74	.45	3.00	4.00
VAR00010	3.74	.45	3.00	4.00
VAR00014	3.67	.48	3.00	4.00
VAR00015	3.67	.48	3.00	4.00
VAR00009	3.00	1.00	1.00	4.00
VAR00017	2.89	1.22	1.00	4.00
VAR00016	2.85	.99	1.00	4.00

An analysis of the data suggests that the primary motivation relative to the items addressed is enjoyment, followed by fitness, a college scholarship, and staying healthy. The motivation least favored for participation was controlling emotions followed by relieving stress.

Table 9. One-Sample t-Tests of Pilot Study.

Variable	# of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
GPA	26	2.7088	.484	.095

Test Value = 1.5 Mean 95% CI

Difference	Lower	Upper	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig.
1.21	1.013	1.405	12.72	25	.000

An analysis of the t-test shows that there is a significant difference between the total mean of the pilot school and the mean of the pilot study athletes.

Procedures

The data were collected in the following manner. The researcher contacted the school district's Director of the Department of Health, and Physical Education to seek permission and to detail the nature of the study. A similar contact was made with the school principals to obtain permission and through correspondence to inform the schools' directors of athletics of the nature of the study. The survey was distributed by the researcher or designee to the student-athletes with each school's athletic director or designee present. The researcher contacted each school's guidance department to ascertain student GPAs . The researcher or designee visited each school twice to administer the survey.

Data Analysis

The data collected from the surveys was entered into a computer file for analysis using the SPSS Graduate Pack Advanced Power Mac Version. Descriptive statistics of summaries that included measures of central tendency and dispersion were used to address the research questions. Cross-tabulation was used to address educational aspirations and the hope of a college scholarship. This application was also used to look at professional aspirations by gender. Inferential statistics included one-sample t-tests that examined the grade point average relationship between the sample athletes and the overall school. Independent t-tests looked at the effect of gender on participation, and one-way ANOVAs compared sports participation and academic achievement.

Table 10. Statistical Analysis

Research Question	Variables	Statistical Analysis
1. To what extent does interscholastic athletic participation affect academic achievement among urban youth?	<p>Independent Variable Interscholastic athletic participation</p> <p>Dependent Variable Academic achievement</p>	<p>Measures of central tendency and dispersion.</p> <p>One-sample t-test for means Independent t-tests</p> <p>One way ANOVA</p>
2. To what extent does interscholastic athletic participation affect educational aspirations among urban youth ?	<p>Independent Variable Interscholastic athletic participation</p> <p>Dependent Variable Educational aspirations</p>	<p>Measures of central tendency and dispersion</p> <p>Cross-tabulation</p>
<p>3. To what extent do selected motivational factors affect interscholastic athletic participation among urban youth ?</p> <p>Sub question A: To what extent does intrinsic and extrinsic motivation affect urban youth ?</p> <p>Sub question B: To what extent does the motivation to play professional sports affect urban youth ?</p>	<p>Independent Variable Motivational factors</p> <p>Dependent Variable Interscholastic athletic participation</p>	<p>Measures of central tendency and dispersion</p> <p>Independent t-tests</p> <p>Crosstabulation</p> <p>One-way ANOVA</p>

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis that were used to describe the sample and to answer the research questions posed for this study. The description of the sample was obtained using descriptive statistics that included measures of central tendency and dispersion that used frequency distributions and cross-tabulations. Inferential statistics were also used and included one-sample t-tests, t-tests for two independent samples, and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The purpose of this study was to examine the academic value of interscholastic athletic participation of urban high school students and to ascertain, within selected motivational factors, why they participate in school sports.

The data analysis is divided into two sections. The first section provides a description of the sample. The second section answers the research questions addressing the total sample and the samples by school. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to address both sections.

Description of the Sample

Four high schools in the selected urban area were chosen for study. The school district makes provisions for league and intra-league play by establishing four divisions. Four schools were chosen by use of cluster random sampling and were representative of

their respective divisions. Data were collected during the fall semester of the academic year. Freshman athletes were not included in this study. Given the relatively short time that freshman had been enrolled in high school, cumulative academic records would not have been established. A total of 400 surveys were distributed equally among the four target schools, and 256 were completed, giving a return rate of 64%. Individually, School A had a return rate of 67%; School B, a return rate of 82%; School C, a return rate of 40%; and School D, 67% (see Table 11) .

Table 11. Return Rate by School

School	Enrollment	Surveys Distributed	Returned	Return Rate Percent
East Division (A)	1,453	100	67	67
West Division (B)	1,629	100	82	82
Southwest Division (C)	1,094	100	40	40
Southeast Division (D)	1,467	100	67	67
Total	5,643	400	256	64

Sophomore, junior, and senior athletes from the four high schools were surveyed. The sample included 88 sophomores (36%), 70 juniors (27%), and 92 seniors (37%) (see Table 12).

Table 12. Number of Athletes by School Rank

	Sophomores		Juniors		Seniors		Total #
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
School A	23	34.3	20	29.9	21	31.3	64
School B	30	36.1	17	18.1	34	41.0	81
School C	17	42.5	10	25	13	32.5	40
School D	18	26.9	23	34.3	24	35.8	65
Total	88	36	70	27	92	37	250

(6 missing)

The number of sports in which an athlete participated during the school year was one of the variables influencing academic achievement. Athletes are allowed to participate in a maximum of three different sports per year. School A had a total of 23 athletes who played one sport only, 26 played two sports, and 15 played three sports. At School B, 36 athletes played only one sport, 29 played two sports, and 16 played three sports. School C had 19 athletes who played only one sport, 13 who played two sports, and eight who played three sports. At School D, 32 played only one sport, 20 played two, and 13 played three sports. A total of 52 athletes in the sample (21%) played the maximum of three sports per year. The literature in this area suggests that the greater the level of participation, the higher the grade point average. The distribution of athletes by the number of sports played is shown in Table 13.

Table 13. Number of Sports by Athletes

No. of Sports	Sophomore			Juniors			Seniors			Totals		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
School A # of athletes	9	10	4	9	7	4	5	9	7	23	26	15
School B # of athletes	16	8	6	7	6	4	13	15	6	36	29	16
School C # of athletes	8	7	2	4	3	3	7	3	3	19	13	8
School D # of athletes	9	5	4	15	6	2	8	9	7	32	20	13
Totals	42	30	16	35	22	13	33	36	23	110	88	52
Totals	(88)			(70)			(92)			(250)		

(6 missing)

Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972 was aimed at eliminating gender discrimination in educational institutions that receive federal funding. Monitoring of gender equity is now part of the fabric in the evaluation of athletic programs. Existing research regarding athletic participation and academic achievement traditionally examined

males only. Females accounted for almost 45% of the subjects in this study and will increase the knowledge base as it relates to their participation in sports. Participation by gender is shown in Table 14.

Table 14. Athletic Participation by Gender

	Males	Percent	Females	Percent
School A	47	70.1	20	29.7
School B	41	49.4	40	48.2
School C	25	62.5	15	37.5
School D	29	43.1	38	56.7
Total	142	55.9	113	44.1

(1 missing)

Research Questions

Research Question 1:

To what extent does interscholastic athletic participation affect academic achievement among urban youth ?

The literature clearly suggests a positive relationship between athletic participation and academic achievement. In this study, both descriptive and inferential statistics were used. This question was addressed by using the grade point average as the indicator of academic achievement. The problem was examined by total school district, by individual schools, by gender, and by the number of sports played.

Administrators and counselors at the high schools were asked to provide academic information in the form of cumulative grade point averages (GPAs) for the student-athletes. The grade point averages were calculated and descriptive statistics were used to describe the sample in Table 15. The mean GPA for the 256 athletes was 2.48. The cumulative grade point average for all high schools in the district of the study was 1.9. Grade point averages were calculated using the traditional four-point scale: A = 4.00, B =

3.00, C = 2.00, D = 1.00. Figure 1 illustrates the results.

Table 15. Grade Point Average for Athletes

Cases	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Variance	Range	Min.	Max.
255	2.48	2.50	.64	.41	3.29	.714	4.00

(1 missing)

Research presented by many, including Diringer (1993) and Marsh (1993), report a positive association between academics and interscholastic participation. Marsh, in his study of 10,613 students, concluded that based on a large number of complicated analyses, participation in sports has many positive effects with no apparent negative effects, and the effects were quite robust. The North Dakota study mentioned earlier reported an aggregate grade point average of 3.32 for extracurricular participants compared to 2.48 for nonparticipants.

In a description of gender sub-populations in Table 16, a comparison of the mean between male and female grade point averages showed females with a 2.73 grade point average, and males with a 2.28. Independent t-tests are implemented later in the chapter to determine if this difference is statistically significant. Figure 2 representing males and Figure 3 representing females illustrate the results of the mean gender difference.

Table 16. Gender Sub-Population Grade Point Average

	Cases	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Variance	Range
Group	255	2.48	2.50	.6389	.4082	3.29
Males	142	2.282	2.25	.5745	.3300	
Females	113	2.728	2.80	.6312	.3985	

(1 missing)

Figure 1

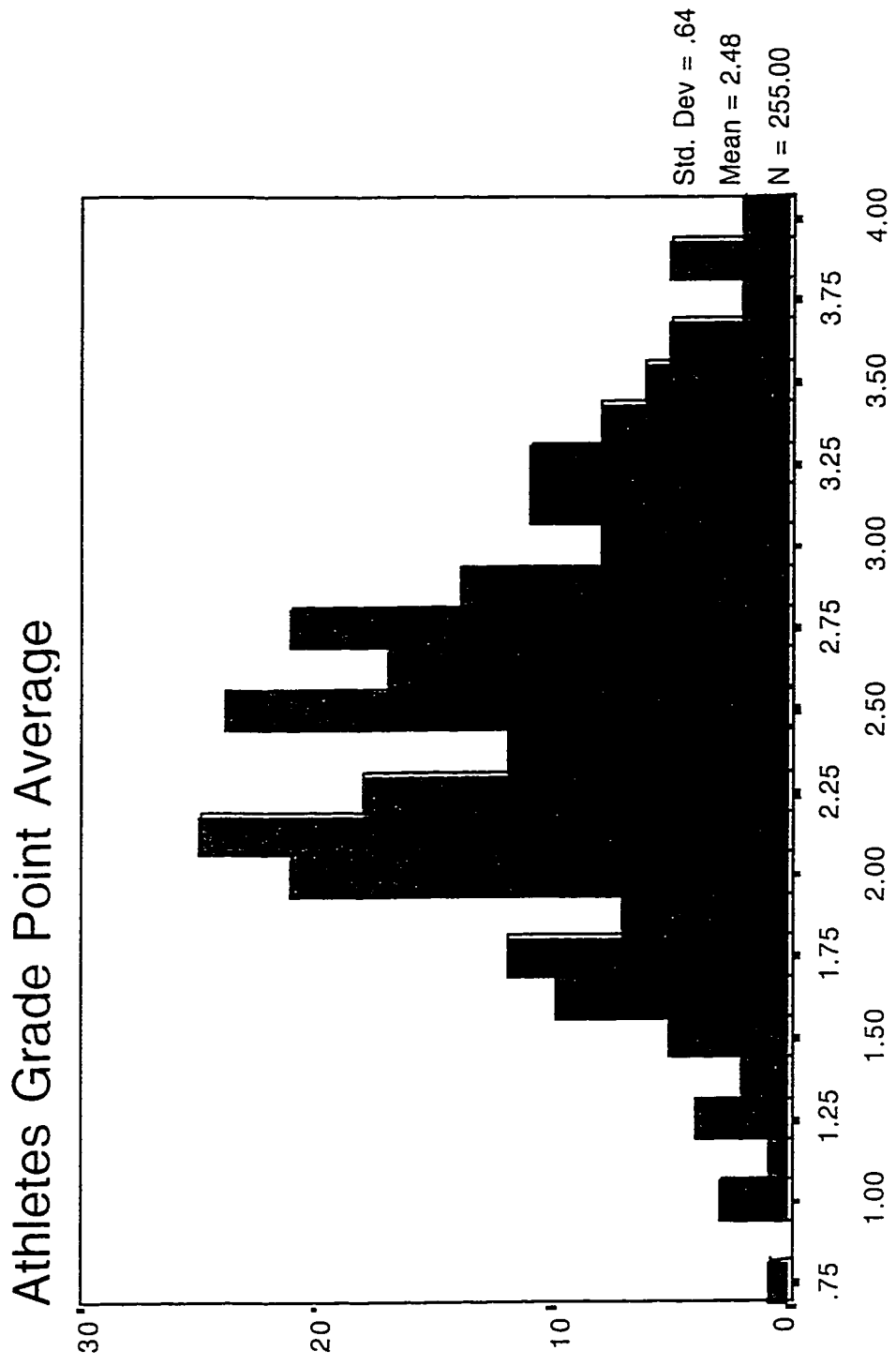


Figure 2

Male Athletes

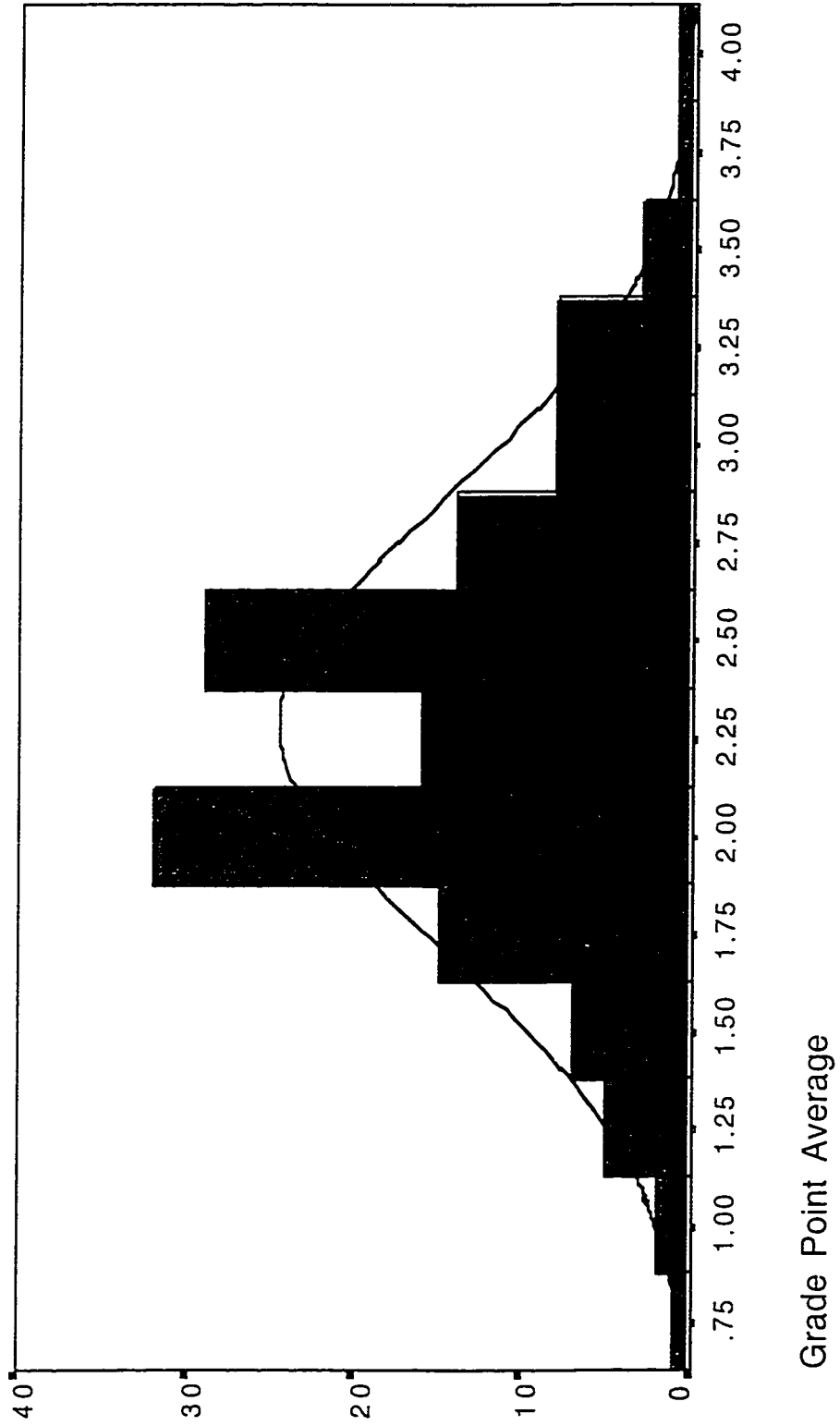
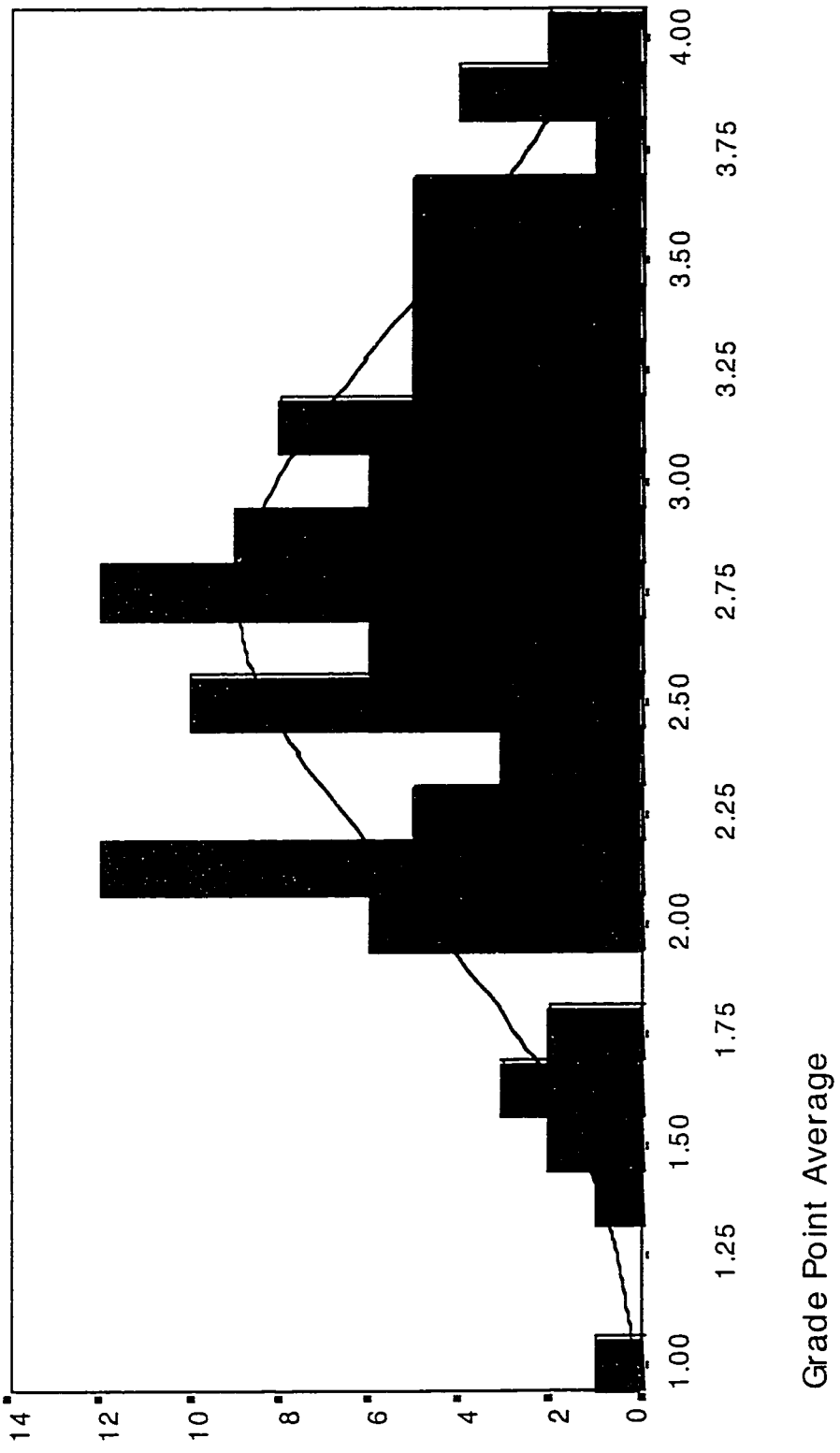


Figure 3

Female Athletes



Grade Point Average

Feltz and Weiss in a 1984 study of 935 girls found that girls who participated in athletics had greater academic achievement. Diring in his 1993 study found that female athletes had a mean grade point average of 2.92 as compared to male athletes, with 2.63.

The sub-population of student rank and grade point average was also addressed, and inferential statistics were used to compare the grade point averages of sophomore, junior and senior athletes. A one-way analysis of variance was used to describe this sub-group, as indicated in Table 17. The F-ratio of .8227 shows that the differences in the means are not significant.

Table 17. School Rank and Grade Point Average

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	F-ratio
Sophomores	2.42	.697	1.00	4.00	.8227 (NS)
Juniors	2.54	.649	.714	3.84	
Seniors	2.51	.586	1.03	3.95	
Total	2.48	.645	.714	4.00	

To assure that the difference in the relative means were not due to chance or sampling errors, a one-sample t-test was used to compare the mean of the sample and the mean of the district. The 1.9 district grade point average was assigned as the test value, and the athletes' mean of 2.48 was used as the test variable. An obtained t-value of 14.5 was statistically significant at an alpha level of .01 with 254 degrees of freedom. The results suggest that the high school students in the study who participated in interscholastic athletics had statistically significant higher grade point averages than the overall school district grade point average. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 18.

Table 19 compares the grade point averages of these same student-athletes by gender. A t-test for independent samples was used to compare the means of males and

Table 18. Comparison of School District and Athletes' Grade Point Average

Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
2.48	2.50	.69	.58	254	14.5*

* $p < .01$

Table 19. Comparison of Male and Female Athletes' Grade Point Averages

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
Male	2.28	.574	.4462	254	-5.90 *
Female	2.73	.631			

* $p < .05$

females who participate in interscholastic athletics. Grade point average was used as the test variable and gender was used as the grouping variable. A mean difference of .4462 was reported. The obtained t-values were statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 254 degrees of freedom. This analysis suggests that females who participated in interscholastic athletics had higher grade point averages than males who participate.

Table 20 compare the number of sports played and the grade point average. The F-ratio of 9.82 in Table 20 shows that the differences in the mean between those who participated in one sport, two sports, or three sports are statistically significant. This analysis suggests that the greater the participation level, the higher the grade point average.

Table 20. Comparison of the Number of Sports Played and Grade Point Average

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	F-ratio
One sport	2.35	.6197	1.03	3.95	9.82*
Two sports	2.44	.6275	.714	3.90	
Three sports	2.80	.5969	1.60	4.00	
Total	2.48	.6356	.714	4.00	

* $p < .05$

The Post Hoc analysis of Tukey's HSD also showed that the significant difference occurred between the mean of three sports and the mean of both one and two sports. The results of this analysis are consistent with those of the literature. Diring in his 1993 study reported that the grade point average increased with the increase in the number of activities. The preceding analysis reflects the total sample and its findings; the following analysis reflects the academic value of sport participation at the individual schools.

School A had a total of 67 student-athletes who participated in the study. They reported a mean GPA of 2.41, and a median of 2.50 with a range of 2.10. Figure 4 illustrates these results. Table 21 shows the results of a descriptive statistics analysis.

Table 21. Grade Point Average of Athletes—School A

Cases	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Variance	Range	Min.	Max.
67	2.41	2.50	.533	.28	2.10	1.30	3.40

The cumulative grade point average for School A was 1.6. To assure that the difference in the mean was not due to chance or sampling error, a one sample t-test was used to compare the overall mean of the school with the mean of the School A sample student-athletes. The obtained t-value of 12.37 was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 66 degrees of freedom. The results suggest that the students at School A who participated in interscholastic athletics had significantly higher grade point averages than the overall school. The results of that analysis are presented in Table 22.

Table 23 compares the grade point averages of the same student-athletes by gender at School A. A t-test for independent samples was used to compare the mean of males and females who participated in school sports. Grade point average was used as the test variable, and gender was used as the grouping variable. The obtained t-values were sta

Figure 4

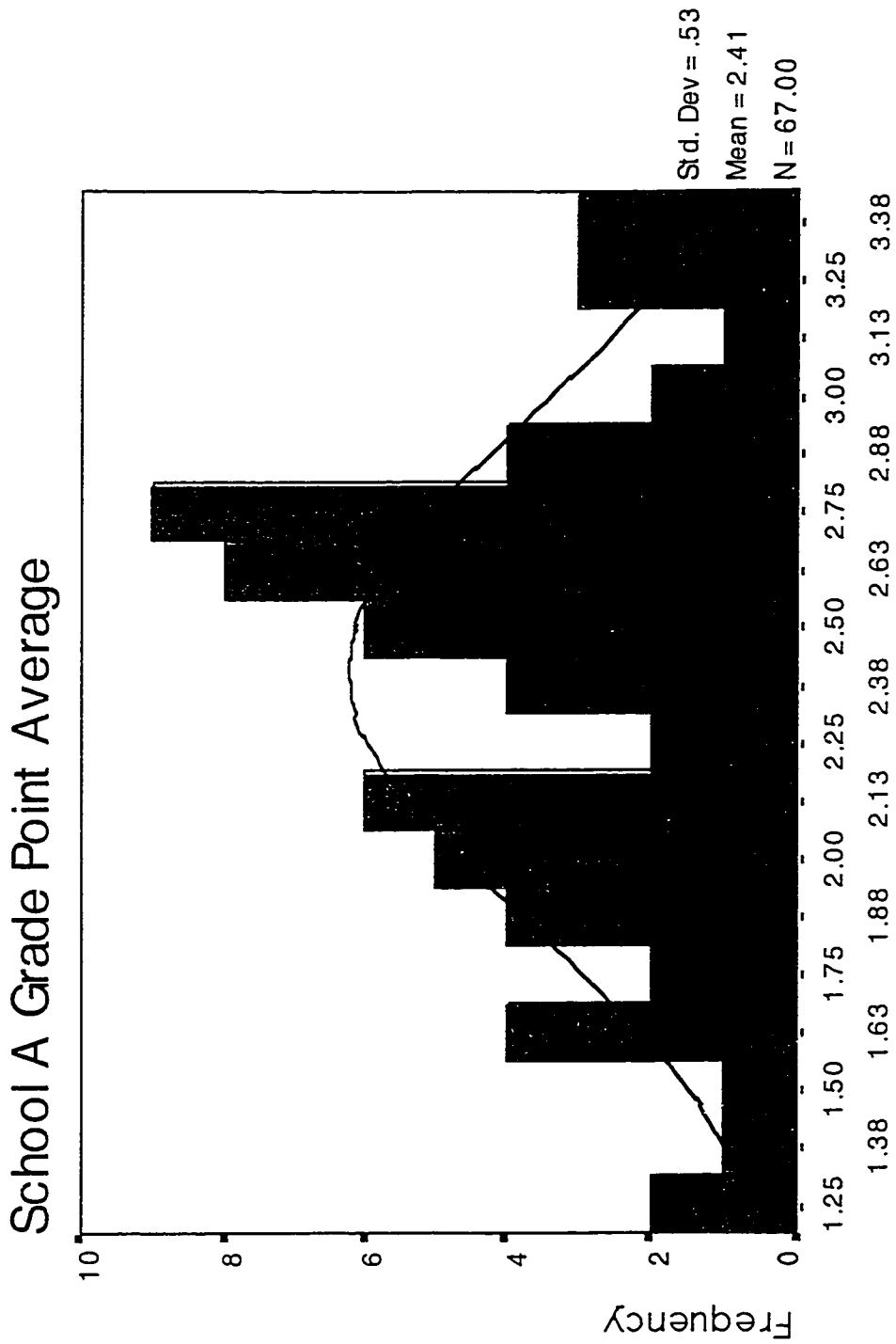


Table 22. Comparison of School A and Athletes' Grade Point Average

Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
2.41	2.50	.533	.81	66	12.37*

* $p < .05$

tistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 65 degrees of freedom. This analysis suggests that females who participated in interscholastic athletics at School A had higher grade point averages than males who also participated. A mean difference of .389 was reported.

Table 23. Comparison of Male and Female Athletes Grade Point Averages —School A

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
Male	2.29	.543	.389	65	-2.88*
Female	2.68	.401			

* $p < .05$

Table 24 compares the number of sports played and the grade point average. The F-ratio of 2.21 in Table 24 shows that the differences in the mean between those who participate in one sport, two sports, or three sports are statistically significant. This analysis suggests that for those who participated in sports at School A, the greater the level of participation, the higher the grade point average. The Post Hoc analysis of Tukey's HSD also showed that the difference occurred between the mean for three sports and the mean for both one and two sports. The results of this analysis are consistent with the literature.

School B had a total of 82 students who participated in the study. These student-athletes had a mean grade point average of 2.46 as shown in Figure 5. The reported mean

Table 24. Comparison of Number of Sports Played and Grade Point Average—School A

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	F-ratio
1 sport	2.25	.6063	1.30	3.33	2.21*
2 sports	2.43	.5205	1.41	3.33	
3 sports	2.60	.3688	2.05	3.40	
Total	2.41	.5331	1.30	3.40	

* $p < .05$

of 2.46 also has a median of 2.50 and a range of 3.00. Table 25 gives the results of the descriptive statistics.

Table 25. Grade Point Average of Athletes—School B

Cases	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Variance	Range	Min.	Max.
81	2.46	2.50	.642	.412	3.00	1.00	4.00

(1 missing)

The cumulative grade point average for School B was 1.8. To assure that the difference in the mean was not due to chance or sampling error, a one sample t-test was used to compare the overall mean of the school with the mean of the School B sample student-athletes. The obtained t-value of 9.26 was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 66 degrees of freedom. The results suggest that the high school students at school B who participated in interscholastic athletics had significantly higher grade point averages than the total grade point average at School B. The results of that analysis are presented in Table 26.

Table 27 compares the grade point averages of the student-athletes by gender at School B. A t-test for independent samples was used to compare respective means of

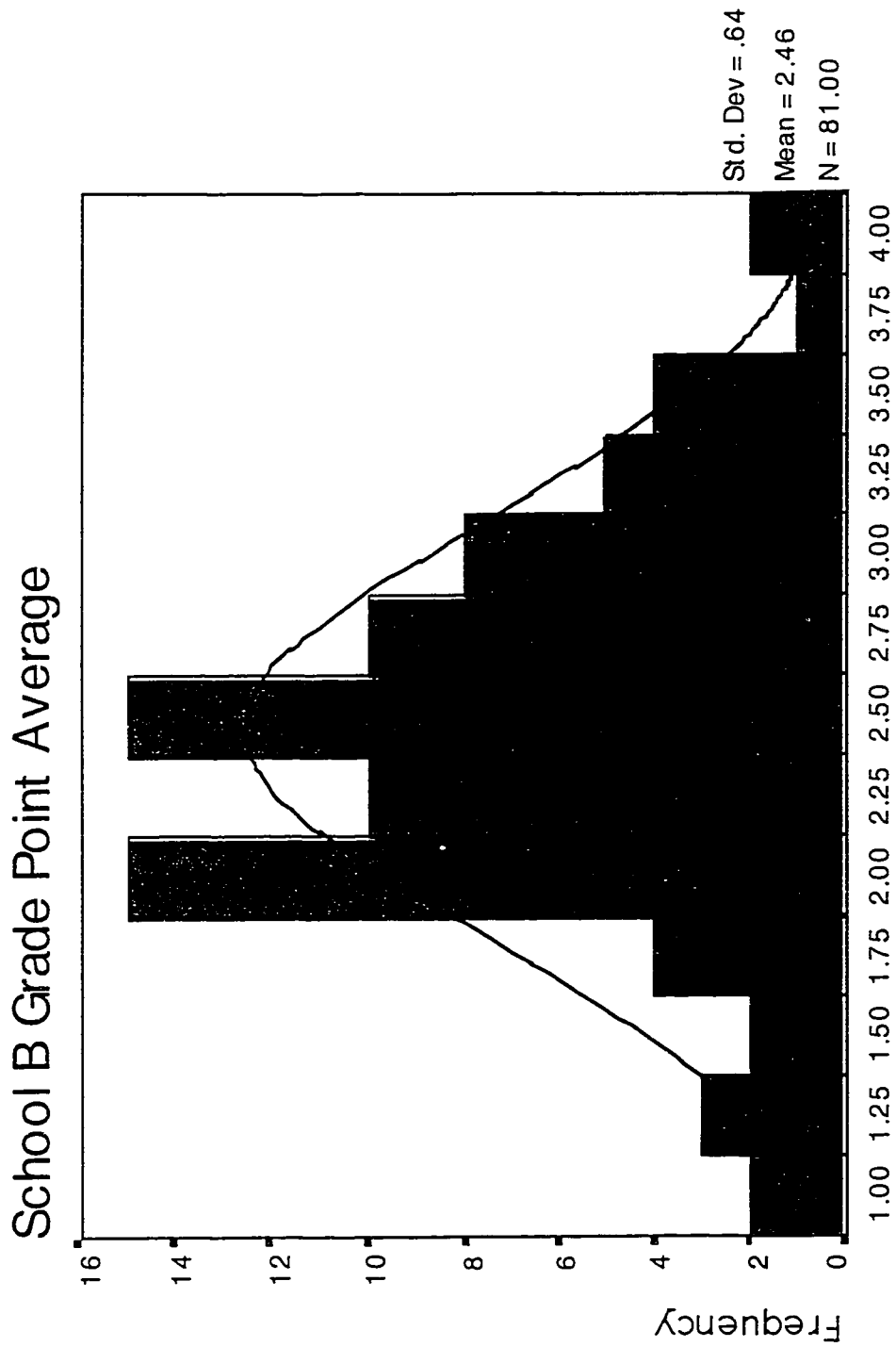


Figure 5

Table 26. Comparison of School B and Athletes Grade Point Average

Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
2.46	2.50	.642	.66	80	9.26*

* $p < .05$

males and females. Grade point average was used as the test variable and gender was used as the grouping variable. A mean difference of .305 was reported. The obtained t-value was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 78 degrees of freedom. This analysis suggests that females who participated in interscholastic athletics at School B had higher grade point averages than males who also participated.

Table 27. Comparison of Male and Female Athletes' Grade Point Averages —School B

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
Male	2.31	.613	.305	78	-2.17 *
Female	2.62	.644			

* $p < .05$

Table 28 compares the number of sports played and the grade point average. The F-ratio of 6.70 in Table 23 shows that the differences in the mean between those who participated in one sport, two sports, or three sports are statistically significant. This analysis suggests for those who participate in sports at School B, the greater the level of participation, the higher the grade point average. The Post Hoc analysis of Tukey's HSD also showed that the significant difference occurred between the three sport mean and the mean of both one and two sports. The results of this analysis are consistent with the literature.

Table 28: Comparison of the Number of Sports Played and Grade Point Average—School B

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	F-ratio
1 sport	2.27	.56	1.03	3.30	6.70 *
2 sports	2.43	.66	1.00	3.90	
3 sports	2.93	.58	2.15	4.00	
Total	2.46	.64	1.00	4.00	

* $p < .05$

School C had a total of 40 student-athletes who participated in the study. They reported a mean of 2.30 with a range of 2.90. Table 29 reports the descriptive statistics and Figure 6 illustrates those results.

Table 29. Grade Point Average of Athletes—School C

Cases	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Variance	Range	Min.	Max.
40	2.30	2.20	.594	.35	2.90	1.00	3.9

The cumulative grade point average for School C was 1.7. To assure that the differences in the mean were not due to chance or due to sampling error, a one sample t-test was used to compare the overall mean of the school with the mean of the School C sample student-athletes. The obtained t-value of 6.37 was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 39 degrees of freedom. These results suggest that the high school students at school C who participated in interscholastic athletics had significantly higher grade point averages than the total grade point average at School C. The results of that analysis are presented in Table 30.

Table 31 compares the grade point averages of these student-athletes by gender at School C. A t-test for independent samples was used to compare the mean of males and

Figure 6

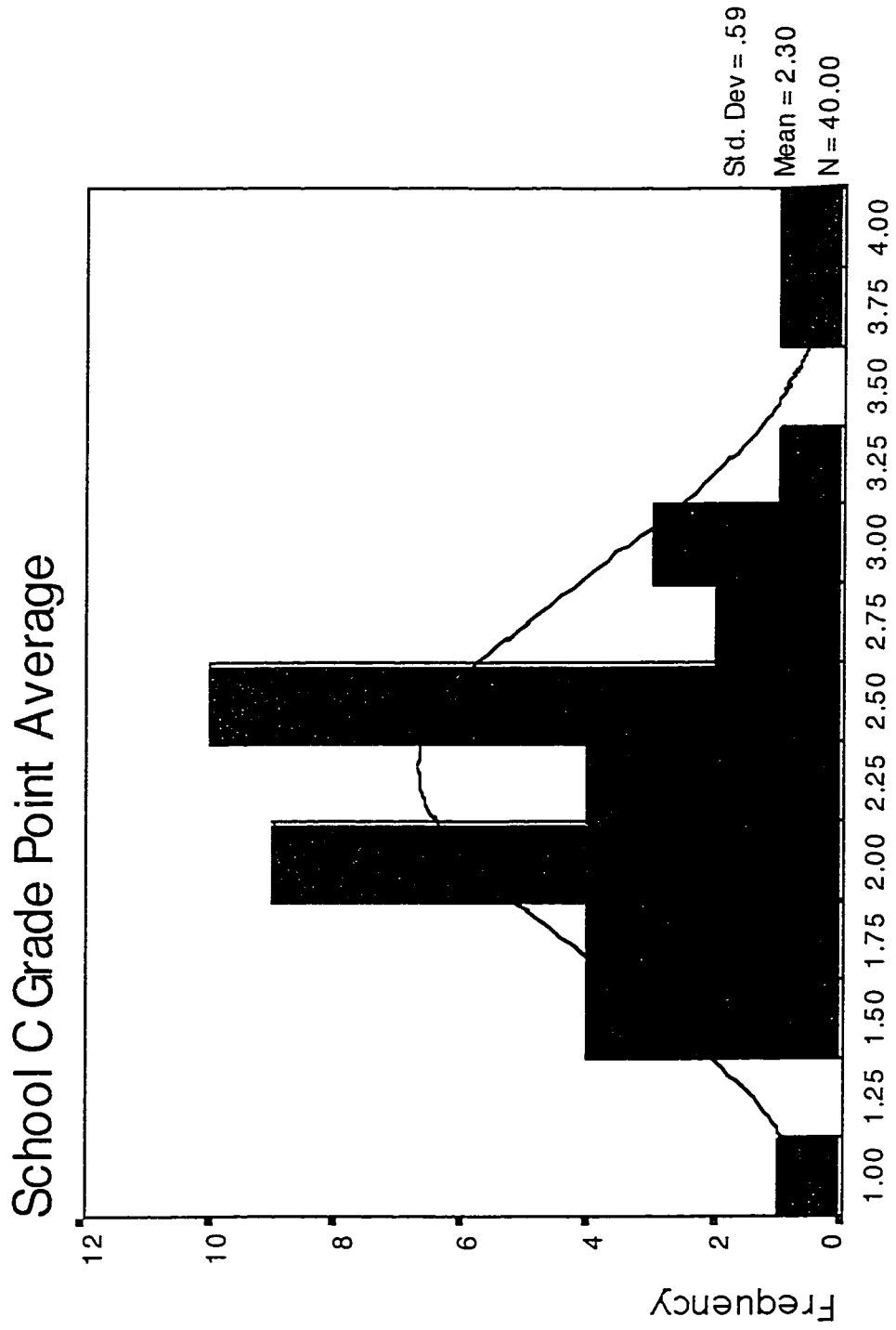


Table 30. Comparison of School C and Athletes' Grade Point Average

Cases	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
40	2.298	2.20	.594	.60	39	6.37 *

* $p < .05$

females sports participants. Grade point average was used as the test variable and gender was used as the grouping variable. The obtained t-value was not statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 38 degrees of freedom. This analysis suggests that there was statistically no difference in the mean grade point averages of males or females who participated in interscholastic athletics at School C. A mean difference of .3537 was reported.

Table 31. Comparison of Male and Female Athletes' Grade Point Averages—School C

	Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
Male	25	2.17	.550	.354	38	-1.88 (NS)
Female	15	2.52	.617			

Table 32 compares the number of sports played and the grade point average. The F-ratio of .300 in Table 32 shows that the differences in the mean between those who participated in one sport, two sports, or three sports are not statistically significant. This analysis shows that for those who participated in sports at School C there was a higher grade point average with increased levels of participation; however, the differences are not statistically significant.

School D had a total of 67 student-athletes who participated in the study. They reported a mean of 2.69, a median of 2.75 and a range of 3.24. Table 33 gives the de-

Table 32. Comparison of Number of Sports Played and Athletes' Grade Point Average—School C

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	F-ratio
1 sport	2.258	.4587	1.50	3.17	.300 (NS)
2 sports	2.265	.6959	1.00	3.83	
3 sports	2.446	.7493	1.60	3.90	
Total	2.298	.5937	1.00	3.90	

Table 33. Grade Point Average of Athletes; School D

Cases	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Variance	Range	Min.	Max.
67	2.69	2.75	.714	.510	3.24	.71	3.95

scriptive statistics. Figure 7 illustrates those results.

The cumulative grade point average for School D was 1.7. To assure that the difference in the mean was not due to chance or sampling error, a one-sample t-test was used to compare the overall mean of the school with the mean of the School D sample student-athletes. The obtained t-value of 11.32 was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 66 degrees of freedom. These results report that the high school students at School D who participated in interscholastic athletics had significantly higher grade point averages than the overall grade point average at School D. The results of that analysis are presented in Table 34.

Table 34. Comparison of School D and Athletes Grade Point Average

Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
2.69	2.750	.714	.99	66	11.32*

* $p < .05$

Table 35 compares the grade point averages of the same student-athletes by gender at School D. A t-test for independent samples was used to compare the mean of males

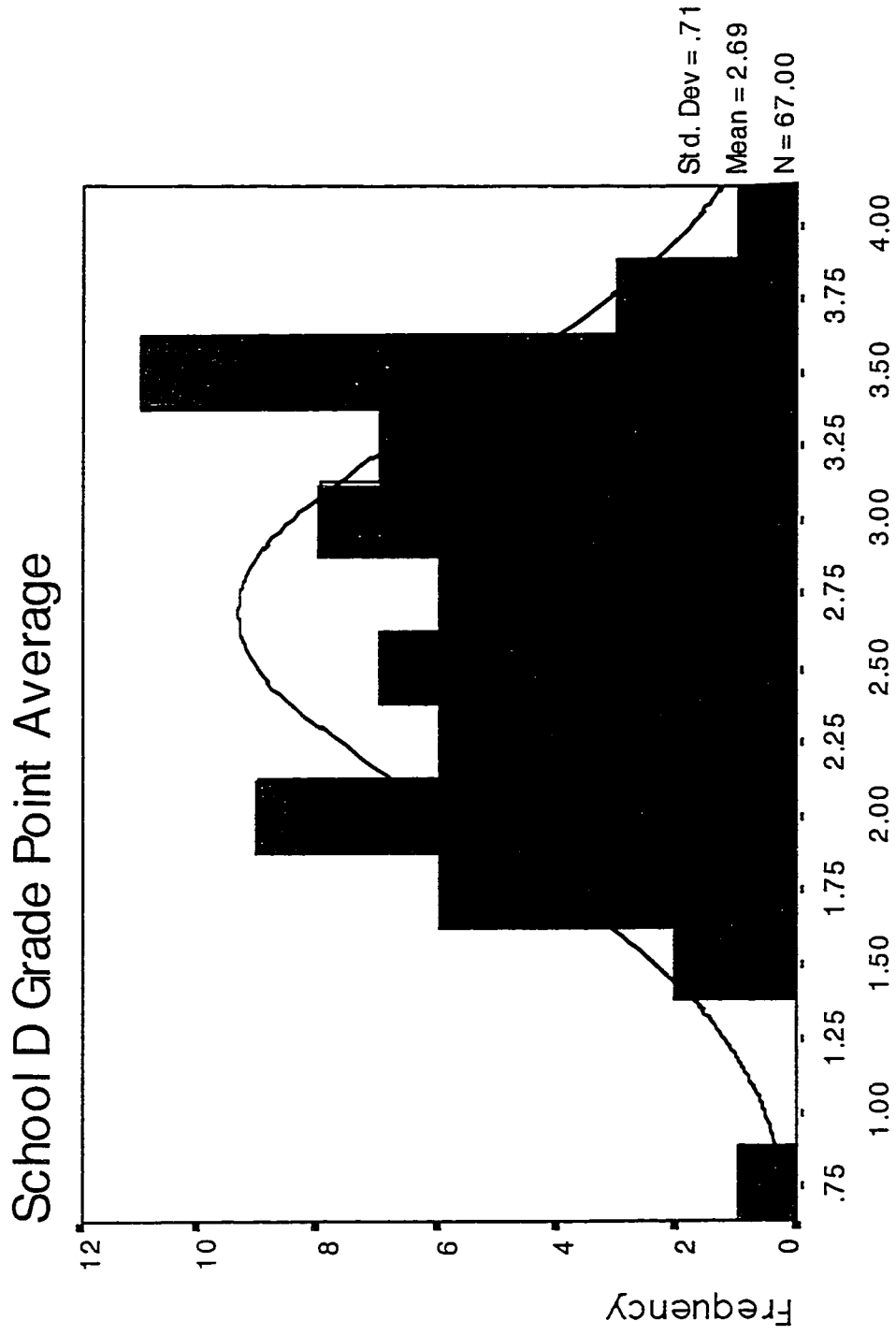


Figure 7

and females who participated in interscholastic athletics. Grade point average was used as the test variable and gender was used as the grouping variable. The obtained t-value was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 65 degrees of freedom. This analysis suggests that females who participated in interscholastic athletics at School D had higher grade point averages than males who participated. Females accounted for 60% of the sample with a mean grade point average of 2.95. This increased the total mean for the sample. A mean difference of .6152 was reported.

Table 35. Comparison of Male and Female Athletes' Grade Point Averages—School D

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
Male	2.34	.61	.615	65	-3.84*
Female	2.95	.68			

* $p < .05$

Table 36 compared the number of sports played and the grade point average. The F-ratio of 3.21 in Table 36 shows that the differences in the mean between those who participated in one sport, two sports, or three sports were statistically significant. This analysis suggests that the greater the level of participation at School D, the higher the grade point average. The Post Hoc analysis of Tukey's HSD also showed that the significant difference occurred between the mean for three sports and the mean for one sport. The results of this analysis are consistent with the literature.

The analysis of the data for the four schools collectively and individually suggests a positive relationship between interscholastic athletic participation and academic achievement.

Table 36. Comparison of the Number of Sports Played and Grade Point Average—School D

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	F-ratio
1 sport	2.58	.7335	1.41	3.95	3.21*
2 sports	2.59	.6760	.714	3.75	
3 sports	3.12	.5929	2.00	3.84	
Total	2.69	.714	.714	3.95	

* $p < .05$

Research Question 2

To what extent does interscholastic athletic participation affect educational aspirations among urban youth?

Athletic participation in schools where athletics is highly valued gives its participants high visibility and elite status. This status places athletes among the elite group of other student achievers of whom college attendance is expected. Two variables addressed the question of college matriculation. To the first question, “*Would you like to attend college?*” 96% of the student athletes indicated in the affirmative. In answer to the second question, “*Do you plan to attend college?*” 94% of our sample indicated in the affirmative. Tables 37 and 38 report the frequency distributions for both questions and Figures 8 and 9 illustrate the negatively skewed results.

Table 37. Would You Like to Attend College?

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	231	95.5
Maybe	8	3.3
No	2	.8
Total	241	100

(15 missing)

Would Like to Attend College

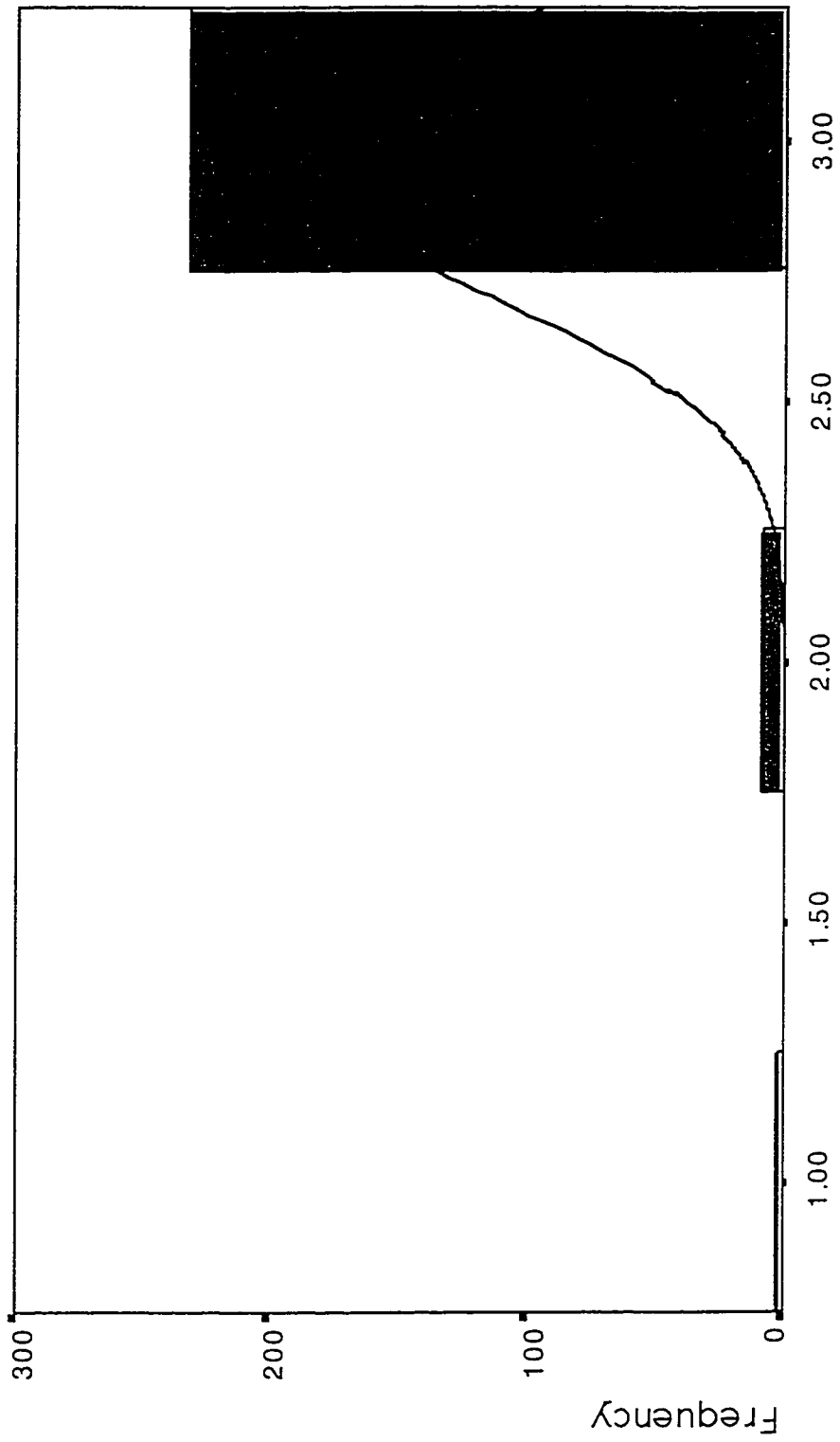


Figure 8

Plan to Attend College

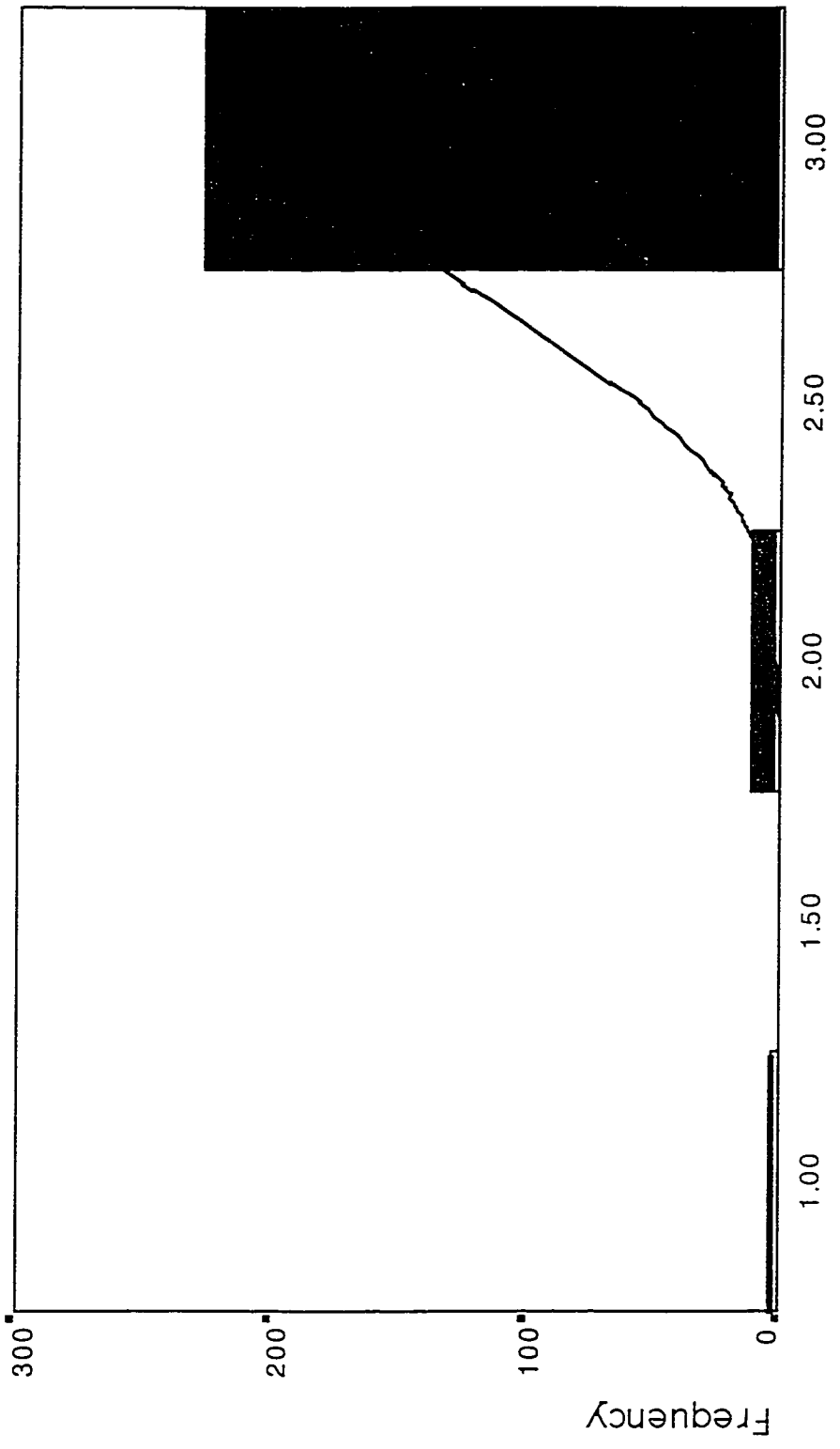


Figure 9

Table 38. Do You Plan to Attend College?

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	227	94.2
Maybe	11	4.5
No	3	1.2
Total	241	100

(15 missing)

In the study cited earlier, Snyder and Spreitzer's (1990) primary findings indicated that a greater percentage of the students of various ethnicities who participated in high school sports went to college as compared to the non-athletes. Also, there was a positive effect with African-American males and participation irrespective of many controlled-for variables. Rehberg and Shafer (1968) reported that for males not otherwise predisposed toward college, the positive relationship between athletic participation and plans to attend college was the strongest.

Of the 227 student-athletes who planned to attend college, 76% hoped for a scholarship. A cross-tabulation analysis indicated that a positive correlation existed between the questions "*Do you plan to attend college?*" and "*Do you hope to get a scholarship?*" (see Table 39). The literature suggests that for similar populations, scholarships to college are important variables.

Table 39. Planning to Attend College with a Scholarship

Responses		
Very true	Pretty true	Unlikely
76	14	11

Student athletes in this study overwhelmingly wanted to attend college, and they plan to attend college. The majority of these athletics also hope to receive a scholarship.

Research Question 3

To what extent do selected motivational factors affect interscholastic athletic participation among urban youth (collectively and by gender)?

- a. *To what extent do intrinsic and extrinsic motivation affect urban youth?*
- b. *To what extent does the motivation to play professional sports affect urban youth?*

High school students participate in sports for various reasons. Research shows that some reasons include staying in condition, improving athletics skills, the excitement of competition, or simply for the enjoyment (Gill, 1986). These areas represent intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation, an equally important variable, involves rewards such as pleasing others, recognition, winning, popularity, and scholarships.

Nine items in the survey addressed selected motivational factors. The nine items were ranked by the student-athletes and the results are shown in Table 40. Enjoyment was the number one factor for interscholastic athletic participation. The next five factors, which contained both intrinsic and extrinsic factors were, closely ranked. The final three factors did not appear to share the same motivational appeal for the student-athletes as did the previous six.

Table 40. Selected Motivational Factors for Athletes

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
1. Enjoyment (I)	3.90	.41	.17
2. Thrills and Excitement (I)	3.69	.57	.33
3. Physical Fitness (I)	3.69	.59	.35
4. Show Talents (E)	3.63	.67	.45
5. Stay healthy (I)	3.63	.63	.39
6. Scholarship to College (E)	3.61	.76	.57
7. Relieve Stress (I)	2.93	1.10	1.21
8. Control Emotions (I)	2.90	.98	.97
9. Status and Recognition (E)	2.84	1.01	1.02

I = Intrinsic: E = Extrinsic

When these selected factors are compared by gender, the variables, “*to show talents, scholarship to college, and controlling emotions*” showed statistically significant differences. Males reported more of a proclivity to display their talents than did females. Males also reported that their participation in athletics was motivated more by the hope of a college scholarship than did females. These two factors indicate extrinsic motivation. Finally, males appeared to be more motivated than females to participate in athletics to control their emotions. The result of that analysis is shown in Table 41.

Table 41. Gender Differences for Selected Factors

To Show Talents (E)					
Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
Males	3.76	.570	.273	238	3.20*
Females	3.49	.749			
Total	3.63	.671			*p<.05
Scholarship to College (E)					
Males	3.70	.680	.2022	238	2.07*
Females	3.50	.830			
Total	3.60	.758			*p<.05
Controlling Emotions (I)					
Males	3.15	.897	.523	238	4.26*
Females	2.63	1.01			
Total	2.90	.983			*p<.05

I = Intrinsic E = Extrinsic

Two Scales were also developed to measure intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors. The intrinsic factors of *enjoyment, thrills and excitement, physical fitness, staying healthy, relieving stress, and controlling emotions* responses were summed and a mean and median were established. The maximum score on the intrinsic scale was a score of 24. The minimum score was 4. Subjects had a range of 12 with a mean of 20.8 and a median of 21 (see Table 42).

Table 42. Intrinsic Motivation Scale Results

Cases	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Variance	Range	Min.	Max.
242	20.8	21.0	2.67	7.1	12	12	24

Table 43 shows the frequency distribution for intrinsic motivation. A total of 45 student-athletes reported a maximum score of 24 and 56.8% of the sample appears to display high intrinsic motivation by scoring at the median of 21. The distribution illustrated in Figure 10 is negatively skewed.

Table 43: Intrinsic Motivation

Score	Frequency	Percent
24	45	18.6
23	32	13.2
22	32	13.2
21	28	11.8
20	33	13.6
19	21	8.7
18	19	7.9
17	13	5.4
16	4	1.7
15	4	1.7
14	5	2.1
13	1	.4
12	1	.4
Total	242	100

(14 missing)

When gender was addressed using the intrinsic motivation scale, there was a statistically significant difference between males and females. Males with a mean difference of .7782 scored higher on the intrinsic scale. This appears to suggest that the males in this study were more motivated by internal factors for athletic participation than were females. The t-value of 2.27 was statistically significant at .05. A t-test was used to measure the

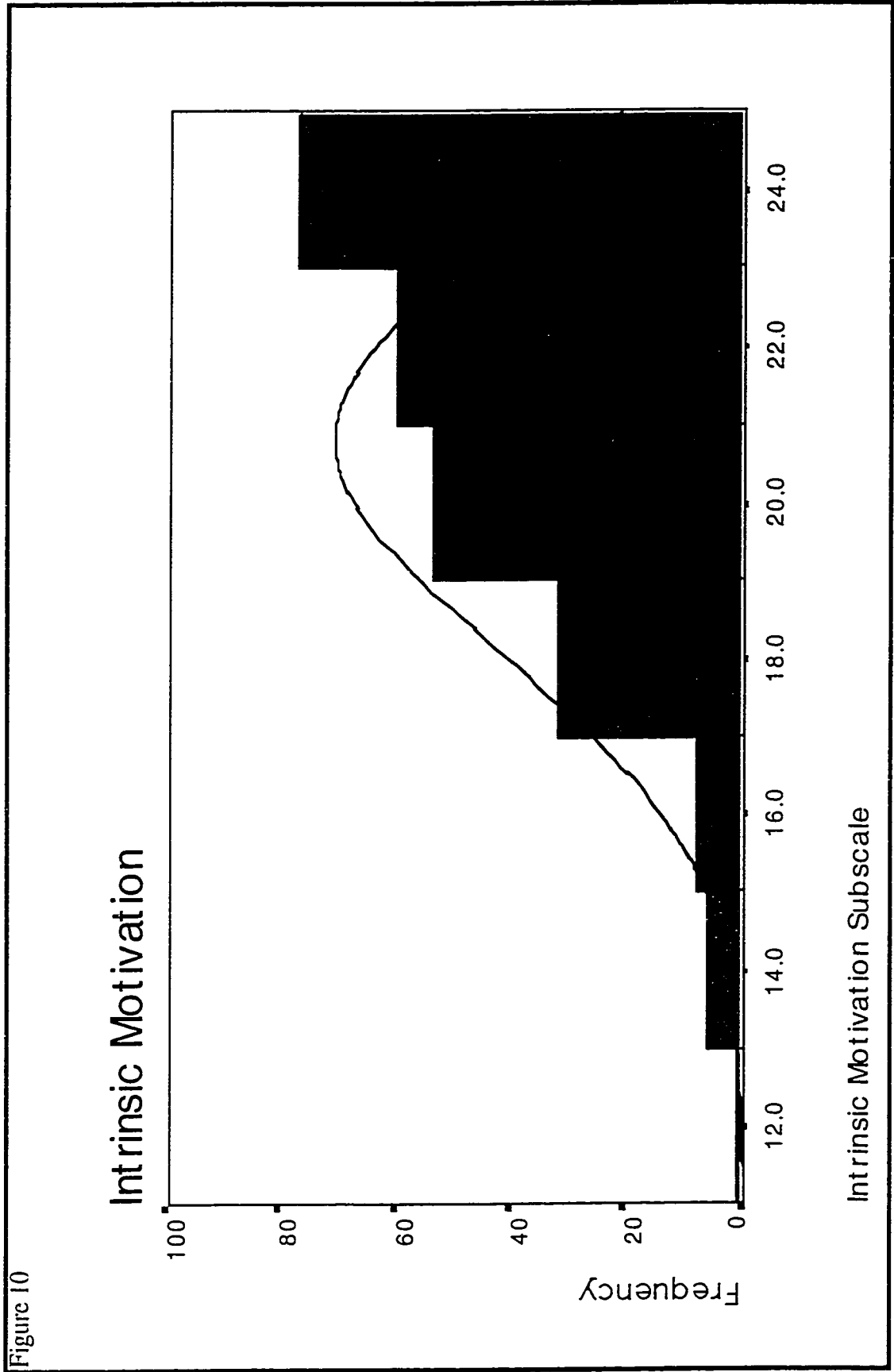


Figure 10

differences and the results are shown in Table 44.

Table 44. Comparison of Intrinsic Motivation by Gender

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
Males	21.17	2.60	.7782	235	2.27*
Female	20.40	2.70			
Total	20.80	2.67			

* $p < .05$

The extrinsic factors of *showing talent, scholarship to college, and status and recognition* responses were summed and a mean and median were established. Maximum score on the extrinsic scale was 12. The minimum score was 4. Subjects had a range of 6 with a mean of 10.1 and a median of 10 (see Table 45).

Table 45. Extrinsic Motivation Scale Results

Cases	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Variance	Range	Min.	Max.
242	10.1	10	1.6	2.85	8	4	12

Table 46 shows the frequency distribution for extrinsic motivation. A total of 61 student-athletes reported a maximum score of 12, and 65% of the sample appear to display high extrinsic motivation by scoring at the median score of 10. Figure 11 illustrates the results of this distribution.

When gender was addressed using the extrinsic motivation scale, there was no significant difference between males and females. Males with a mean difference of .4007 did score higher on the intrinsic scale; however, the t-value of 1.84 was not statistically significant at .05. A t-test was used to measure the differences, and the results are shown in Table 47.

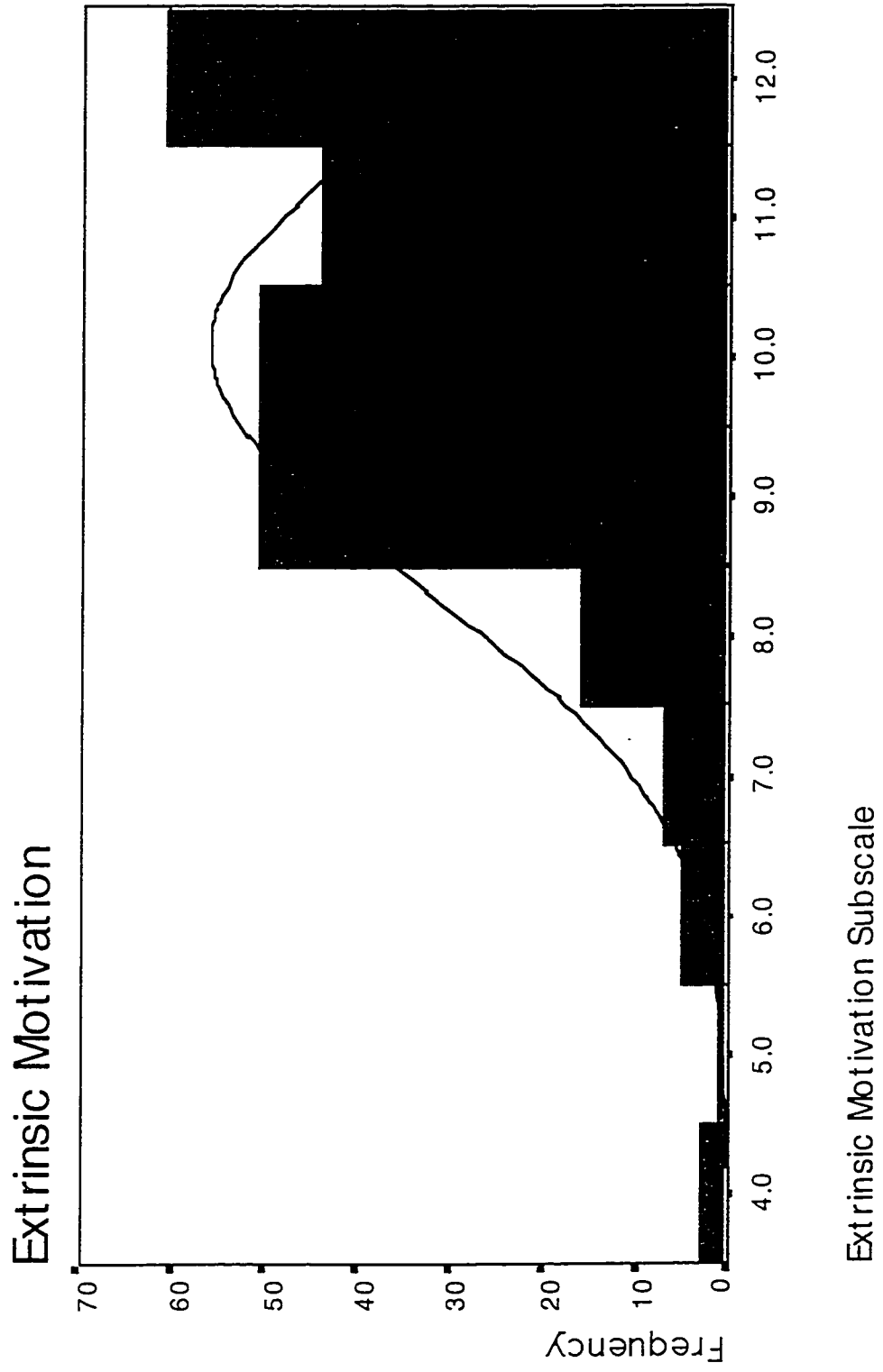


Figure 11

Table 46. Extrinsic Motivation

Score	Frequency	Percent
12	61	25.2
11	44	18.2
10	51	21.1
9	51	21.1
8	16	6.6
7	7	2.9
6	5	2.1
5	1	.4
4	3	1.2
Total	242	100

(14 missing)

Table 47. Comparison of Extrinsic Motivation by Gender

Group	Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
Males	128	10.27	1.64	.4007	236	1.84(NS)
Females	110	9.87	1.73			
Total	238	10.09	1.69			

Extrinsic motivation involving professional sports was addressed using descriptive statistics and independent t-tests. The first question involving professional sports was: “*Would you like to become a professional athlete someday?*” The second question was: “*How much would you like to be a professional athlete?*” For question one, 64% of the subjects answered in the affirmative. For question two 56% responded in the affirmative. In Tables 48 and 49 a frequency distribution was used to address these questions and Figures 12 and 13 illustrate the distribution.

Table 50 presents the results of aspirations to become professional athletes. Applying a t-test and addressing the question by gender shows a significant difference between males and females relative to careers in professional sports. With a mean differ-

Table 48. Would You Like to Become a Professional Athlete?

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	154	63.6
Maybe	61	25.2
No	26	10.7
Total	241	100

(15 missing)

Table 49. How Much Would You Like to Become a Professional Athlete?

Response	Frequency	Percent
Very Much	136	56.3
Pretty Much	25	10.3
Somewhat	74	30.6
Total	235	100

(21 missing)

Table 50. Professional Sports Aspirations by Gender

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
Males	2.72	.516	.3884	238	4.62*
Females	2.33	.776			
Total	2.53	.683			

* $p < .05$

ence of .39, males appear to possess greater motivation to become professional athletes. Males reported a mean of 2.72 as compared to a mean for females of 2.33. Males indicated a greater desire to become professional athletes as demonstrated with a mean of 2.57 as compared to a mean of 1.89 for females. A mean difference of .677 and a t-value of 6.11 appear to demonstrate this significant difference. Table 51 provides the analysis. Figure 14 illustrates both questions by gender.

To examine the question of the motivation for professional sports by gender more

Figure 12

Professional Aspirations

Would you like to be a pro athlete ?

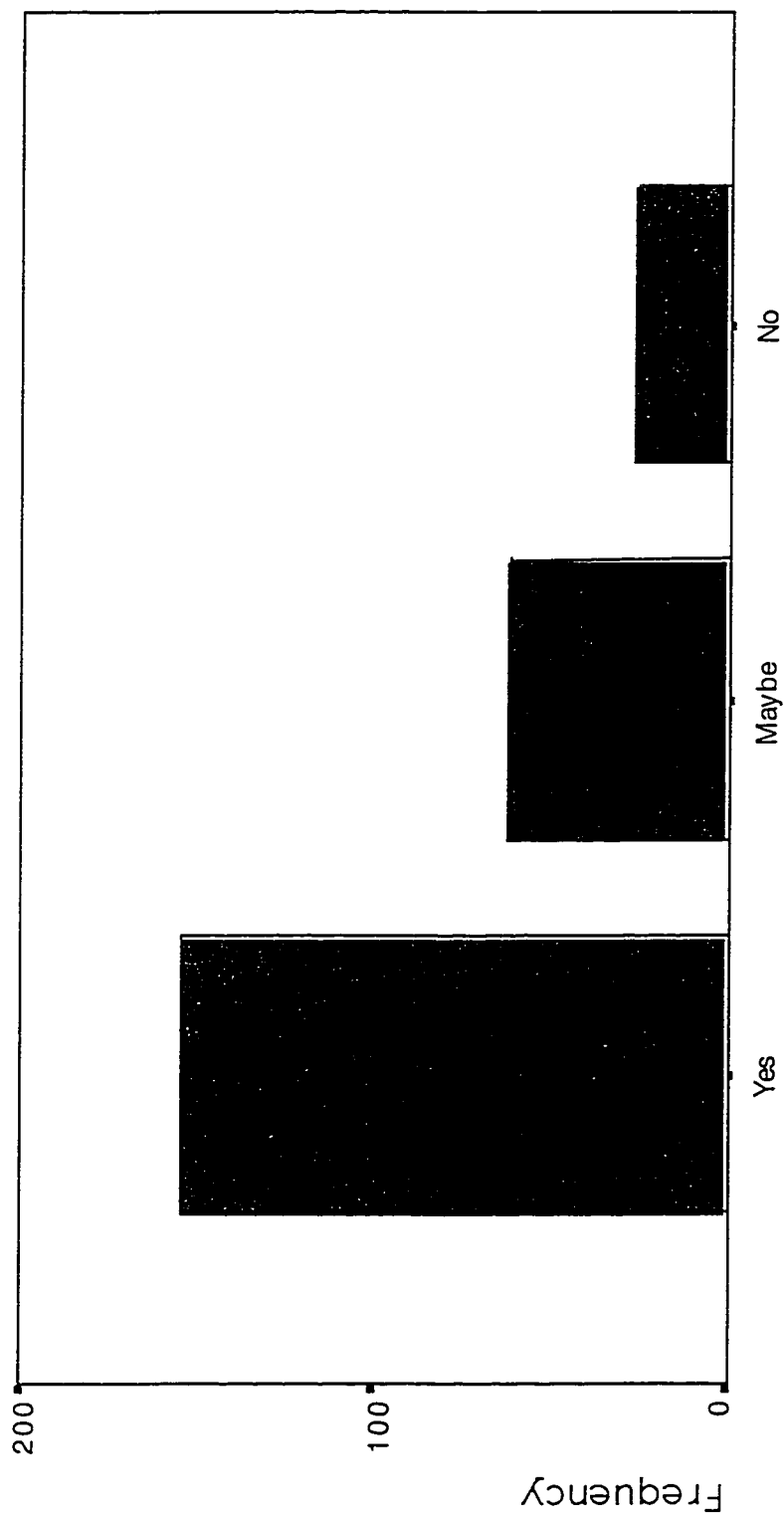
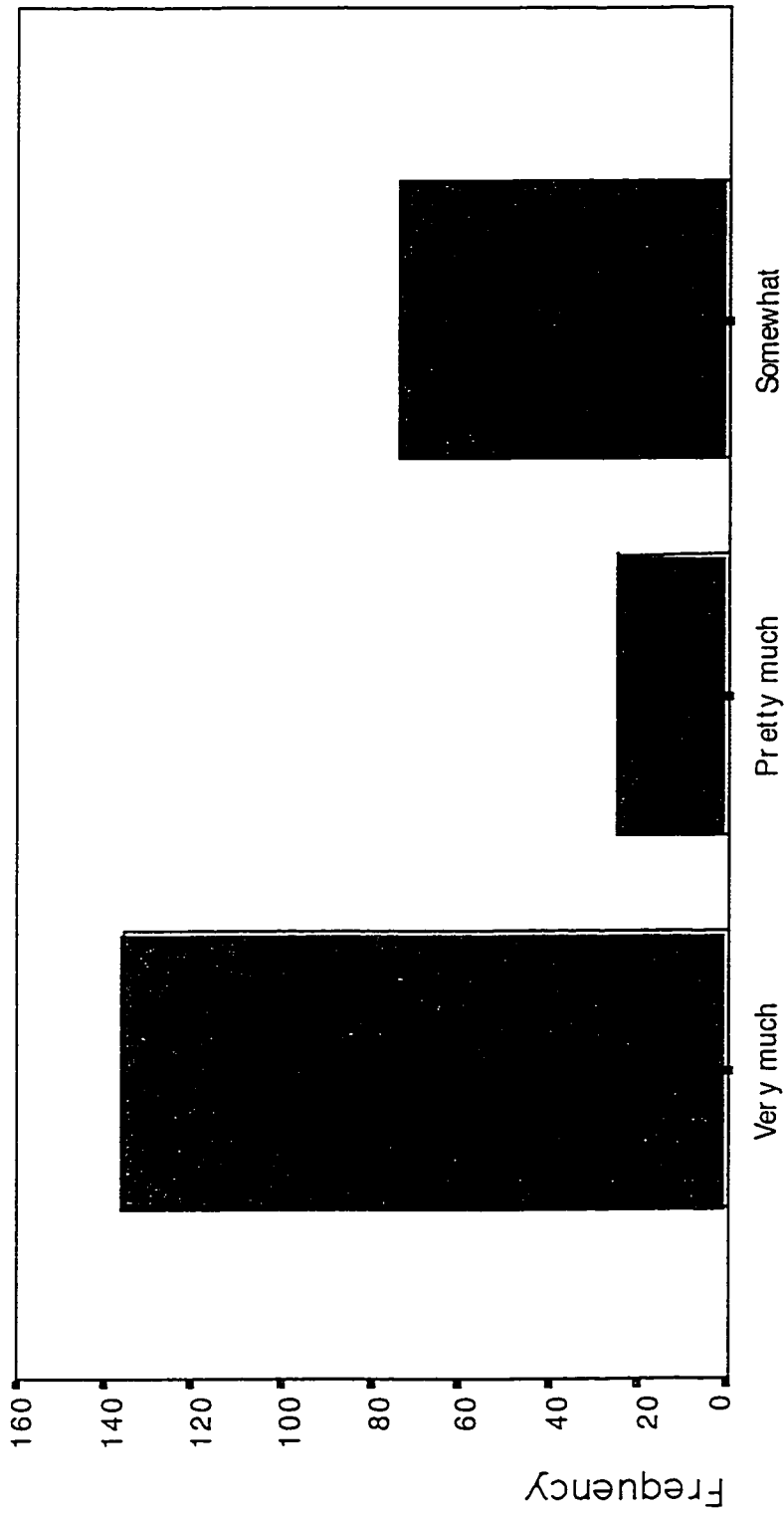


Figure 13

Professional Aspirations

How much would you like to become a pro athlete ?



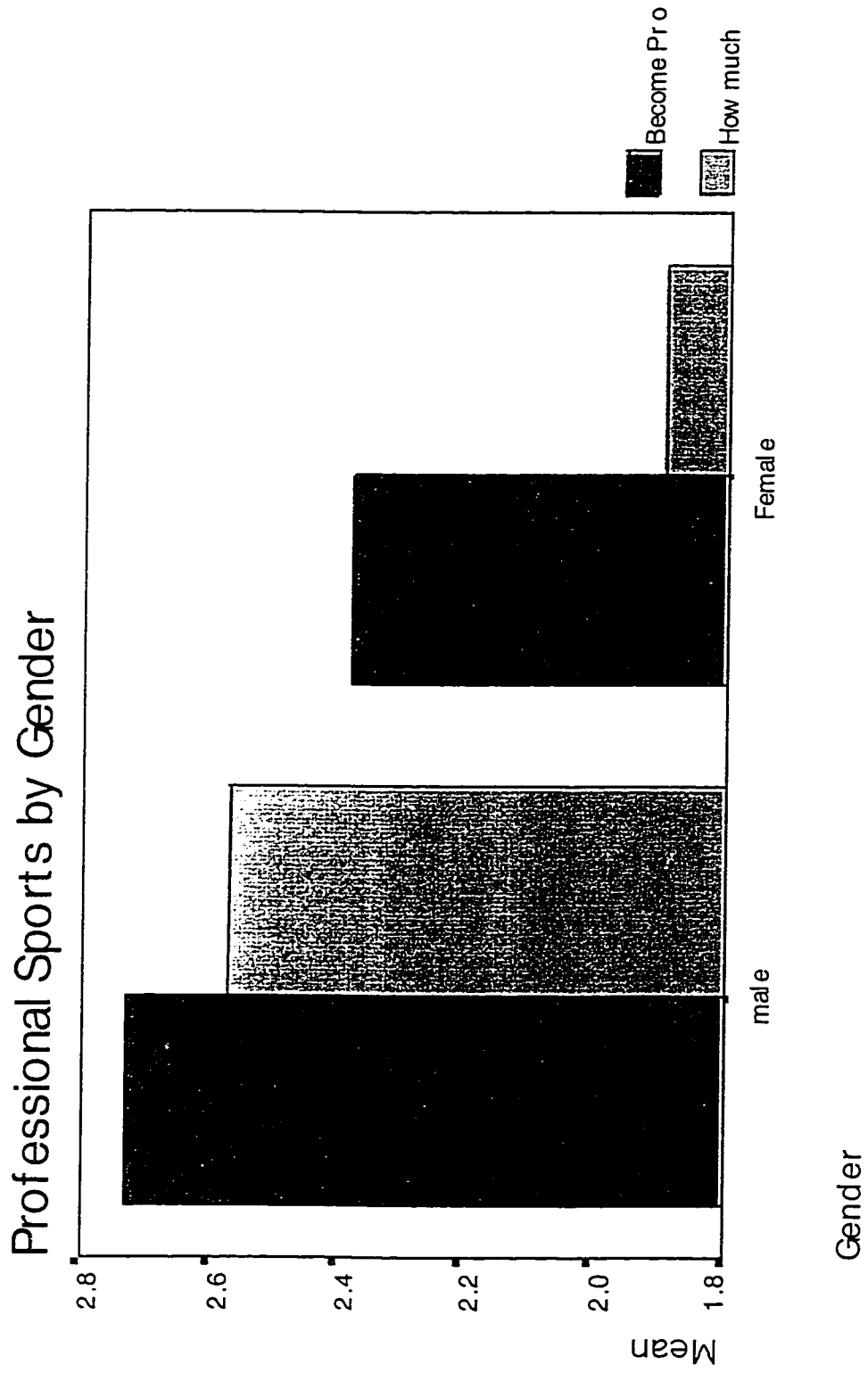


Figure 14

Table 51. Desire to Become Professional Athletes by Gender (How Much)

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	DF	t-value
Males	2.57	.751	.677	233	6.11*
Females	1.89	.947			
Total	2.26	.910			

* $p < .05$

thoroughly, a cross-tabulation analysis was employed. This analysis showed that 75% of the males reported that they wanted to become professional athletes, as compared to 52% of the females (see Table 52). Males also indicated more desire to become professional athletes (How Much) than females by 33% as illustrated in Table 53.

Table 52. Would You Like to Become a Professional Athlete?

Gender	Yes (percent)	Maybe (percent)	No (percent)
Male	75	22	3
Female	52	29	19

Table 53 How Much Would You Like to Become a Professional Athlete?

Gender	Very Much (percent)	Pretty Much (percent)	Somewhat (percent)
Male	73	11	16
Female	40	10	50

Students are motivated to participate in interscholastic athletics for a variety of factors. Student-athletes in this study possessed both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation at high levels; however, the number one factor for participation was enjoyment, an indicator of intrinsic motivation. Scholarships to college, an extrinsic factor, also appeared to be an important variable for interscholastic participation and, given the demographics of the sample relative income, this factor alone may prove to decide which of these athletes ul-

timately attend college. Showing their talents and aspirations for professional sports appears to provide strong motivation for males; however, it does not seem to exceed the importance of playing just for fun. Both males and females in this study participated in interscholastic athletics because they enjoyed playing sports.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter summarizes the findings of the study and presents conclusions, implications and recommendations based on those findings. The summary follows the major questions that guided the study, which addressed academic achievement, educational aspirations and selected motivational factors for interscholastic athletic participation.

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to examine the academic value of interscholastic athletic participation, to appraise how such participation affected educational aspirations, and to ascertain within selected motivational factors why high school students play sports. Interscholastic athletic programs and athletic participation are often perceived as inconsistent or not associated with the educational mission of schools. This perception appears to suggest that high school athletes are enrolled in nonchallenging and nonacademic courses that serve to keep them eligible for play. Credence to this impression is often granted when outstanding athletes who are not academically oriented have difficulty matriculating to college due to a lack of academic preparation and their problems are made public. Athletic programs are also perceived as imposing a major financial burden on school districts by depriving academic units of needed resources. The high visibility and the luxury status often afforded athletics make interscholastic athletic programs increas-

ingly vulnerable during district budget review, even though, as reported by the National Federation of State High School Associations, such programs typically operate at or around 1% of a district's total operations budget.

Because of various state and school district athletic eligibility rules, student athletes are required to maintain an established grade point average as well as enrolling in and passing a minimum number of classes. The district in which this study was conducted requires a 2.0 grade point average the semester prior to competition and during the semester of competition to be eligible. Additionally, a student-athlete must successfully complete a minimum of four classes, and only one physical education class may be used for eligibility purposes. Many school districts also apply attendance standards with eligibility requirements, where trancies from classes could result in suspensions from contests or dismissal from the squad.

Student athletes who wish to continue participating in their sport in college must follow rigorous external standards established by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). These external standards require 13 core subjects (none of which includes physical education courses) and a minimum Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) or American College Test (ACT) score for a student-athlete to be eligible for freshman athletic participation and to receive an athletic scholarship. Many student-athletes in the city of our study receive athletic scholarships.

There are many benefits to interscholastic athletic participation, including learning about teamwork, sportsmanship, and hard work. Snyder and Spreitzer (1990) present six areas in which athletic participation can have a positive effect on academic achievement. They include: (1) increased interest in school, including academic pursuits; (2) high school academic achievement in order to maintain eligibility; (3) increased self-

confidence that generalizes to academic achievement; (4) increased attention from parents, teachers, and coaches; (5) membership in elite groups and orientation toward success; and (6) expectations of participation in college sports. Spreitzer and Pugh (1973) also found that in schools where athletes were highly rewarded and valued, the relationship between athletic participation and college aspirations was strong. Otto and Alwin (1977) state that participation in athletics may teach interpersonal skills that are readily transferable and marketable outside of athletics. Through participation in athletics, students learn self-discipline, build self-confidence, and develop skills to handle competitive situations. These are qualities that the public expects schools to develop in students.

In addition to the six positive qualities that are developed as a result of athletic participation, the excitement and fun of “playing,” along with the competence to perform challenging physical tasks are elements of intrinsic motivation. Researchers suggest that this type of motivation keeps individuals involved longer and more committed to sports. Extrinsic rewards have increased or decreased value depending on certain factors such as age, activity, and gender. Rewards of this nature include prestige, popularity, trophies, and scholarships (Gill, 1986).

Review of Methods and Procedures

A non-experimental descriptive research design that included descriptive and inferential statistics was used for this study. Survey methodology that incorporated student records was also included in the design. The variables were not manipulated and no treatment was provided to the participants. Schools were selected by use of cluster random sampling, and athletes from four high schools were asked to fill out a 17-item *Athletes Questionnaire* that solicited reasons for participation, the degree of participation,

and aspirations for collegiate and professional sports. School counselors provided academic information on a separate sheets to ensure confidentiality.

Description of the Sample

African-Americans represent 75% of the city's population and more than 90% of the public schools' enrollment in the city where this study was conducted. The schools in the study were reflective of these figures with the exception of School C. School C had two significant minority populations: African-Americans represented 35% and Hispanics represented 64% of the enrollment. The four schools in the study are considered to have a high regard for sports and value athletes. Two of the schools during the time of the study had girls' teams involved in the championship series of the city and state basketball tournaments. All of the schools have currently or in the recent past had an alumnus of their school playing sports professionally. The four schools also have many graduates participating in various sports at the collegiate level. The 256 student athletes who participated in this study represent 5% of all athletes in the public schools and came from four different areas of the city. These areas (East, West, Southwest, and Southeast) provided a cross-section of athletes from the city. Sophomores, juniors and seniors who participated in at least one sport were asked to respond to the survey.

Summary of Research Questions

Three research questions and two sub-questions were developed for the study. Each question was addressed using either descriptive or inferential statistical analysis or both. Decisions regarding inferential statistical analysis, with the exception of one analysis, were made at an alpha level of .05. The one exception was made at an alpha level of

.01. Question 1 was analyzed using the total sample and by individual school. Questions 2 and 3 were addressed using the total sample only.

Research Question 1

To what extent does interscholastic athletic participation affect academic achievement among urban youth ?

Findings

Descriptive statistics using frequencies showed a grade point average of 2.48 for all athletes in the study. Further analysis showed a mean of 2.28 for males and a mean of 2.73 for females. By school rank, sophomores had a mean grade point average of 2.42; juniors, a mean of 2.54; and seniors, a mean of 2.51. A one-way analysis of variance for grade point average and school rank showed no significant difference between the three groups. A one-sample t-test was used to compare the school district's 1.9 grade point average and the athletes' grade point average of 2.48. The district's 1.9 grade point average used for this analysis was computed by the school district's Performance Report Committee. Athletes reported a significantly higher grade point average at an alpha level of .01. An independent t-test was used to appraise grade point average and gender differences. This analysis indicated a significant difference between male and female athletes with females in the study reporting higher grade point averages. Finally, a one-way ANOVA was performed to analyze the differences between grade point average and the number of sports played. The one-way ANOVA showed significant differences between the number of athletes who play one, two, or three sports. Athletes participating in three sports had the highest grade point averages.

School A. Descriptive statistics using frequencies showed a grade point average of 2.41 for the student-athletes in the study at School A. The School A sample reported a

lower grade point average than the total athlete grade point average by .07. Further use of this application indicated a mean of 2.29 for males and a mean of 2.68 for females. A one-sample t-test was employed to compare the School A 1.6 grade point average and the athletes' grade point average of 2.41. The athletes had a significantly higher grade point average at an alpha level of .05. An independent t-test was implemented to examine grade point average and gender differences. This analysis indicated a significant difference between male and female athletes, with females showing higher grade point averages and a mean difference of .3894. Finally, an analysis between grade point average and the number of sports played was performed and a one-way ANOVA showed significant differences between the number of athletes who played one, two or three sports. Athletes participating in three sports had the highest grade point averages (2.60 for three sports, 2.43 for two sports, and 2.25 for one sport).

School B. Descriptive statistics utilizing frequencies showed a grade point average of 2.48 for the student-athletes in the study at School B. This application further showed a mean of 2.31 for males and a mean of 2.62 for females. A one-sample t-test was used to compare the school B overall 1.8 grade point average and the athletes' grade point average of 2.48. The athletes had a significantly higher grade point average at an alpha level of .05. An independent t-test was applied to examine grade point averages and gender differences. This analysis revealed a significant difference between male and female athletes. Females displayed higher grade point averages, with a mean difference of .3045. An analysis of grade point average and the number of sports played was implemented. The one-way ANOVA showed significant differences between the number of athletes who played one, two or three sports. Athletes participating in three sports had the highest grade point averages (2.93 for three sport athletes, 2.43 for two sport athletes and, 2.27

for one sport athletes).

School C. Descriptive statistics that employed frequencies showed a grade point average of 2.3 for the student-athletes in the study at School C. School C had a lower grade point average than the total athlete grade point average by .18 or almost 20%. This application was further analyzed to display a mean of 2.17 for males and a mean of 2.52 for females. A one-sample t-test was implemented to compare the School C overall 1.7 grade point average and the athletes' grade point average of 2.3. The athletes reported a significantly higher grade point average at an alpha level of .05. An independent t-test was performed to examine grade point average and gender differences. This analysis showed a significant difference between male and female athletes with female athletes showing a higher GPA and a mean difference of .3537. Finally, an analysis of grade point average and the number of sports played was performed and a one-way ANOVA found no significant differences.

School D. Descriptive statistics using frequencies showed a grade point average of 2.69 for the student-athletes in the study at School D. School D posted a mean higher by .21 than the total athlete sample. This application also showed a 2.34 grade point average for males and a 2.95 grade point average for females. A one-sample t-test was utilized to compare the School D overall 1.7 grade point average with the athletes' grade point average of 2.69. The athletes had a significantly higher grade point average at an alpha level of .05. An independent t-test was employed to examine grade point averages and gender differences. This analysis showed a significant difference between male and female athletes, with female athletes showing a higher GPA and a mean difference of .6152. An analysis of grade point average and the number of sports played was implemented. The one-way ANOVA found significant differences between the number of ath-

letes who play one, two or three sports. Athletes participating in three sports had the highest grade point averages (3.12 for those participating in three sports, 2.59 two sports, and 2.58 for one sport, respectively).

Conclusions

It appears that a positive relationship exists between interscholastic athletic participation and academic achievement as defined by grade point averages. Students who participate in interscholastic athletics have higher grade point averages than does the general student population. An alpha level of .01 substantiates that claim and a large t-value of 14.5 supports this conclusion.

Females who participated in interscholastic athletics had higher grade point averages than the males who participated. It is widely accepted that females enrolled in high school have better grades than males, this study supports that conventional claim. The sample showed that for the 21% of athletes who played the maximum of three sports, there was also a higher grade point average. The study suggests that the greater the participation, the better the grades.

The overall athletes' mean grade point average was computed at 2.48; two schools in the study reported athletes with scores above the mean, and two fell below. However, all schools in the study showed a positive relationship between interscholastic athletic participation and academic achievement. The analysis showed that female athletes at the individual schools also had higher grade point averages than their male counterparts. Three of the four schools showed a statistical significance in the number of sports played and a higher grade point average. Collectively and individually, there appears to be a positive relationship between interscholastic athletic participation and academic achieve-

ment. Also, collectively and individually, female athletes would appear to perform better academically than male athletes. Finally, collectively and individually, it appears as though the greater the level of participation, the higher the grade point averages.

Research Question 2

To what extent does interscholastic athletic participation affect educational aspirations among urban youth?

Findings

For the two questions in the survey regarding attending college, “*Would you like to attend college?*” and “*Do you plan to attend college?*” a frequency distribution showed that the sample population responded 96% YES to the first question and 94% YES to the second question. A cross-tabulation analysis also shows a positive correlation between responses to the question, “*Do you plan to attend college?*” and hope for a college scholarship. While 94% responded that they planned to attend college, 76% of that group responded that it was “very true” that they hoped to get a college scholarship and 14% responded that it was “pretty true.” It was reported by 11% of the student-athletes that it was unlikely that they would receive an athletic scholarship to attend college.

Conclusions

Student-athletes overwhelmingly would like and are planning to attend college. A 90% response for college matriculation appears high; however, it is consistent with the early literature of Spady (1971), and the more recent findings of Snyder and Spreitzer (1990) and Buoye (1998). This literature suggests that interscholastic athletic participation brings elite status, prestige, and experiences that enhance goals such as college. When statistically controlling for socioeconomic status, mental ability, and academic per-

formance, athletes report a high rate of wanting to attend. Athletes would appear to be valued highly in the schools of the study, and many former teammates and alumni have extended their careers and compete in college. These current student-athletes would like to follow in those footsteps as evidenced by the 76% who hoped for a college scholarship. Seventy-six percent of these student athletes felt strongly about receiving scholarships to college. Whether or not they all attend, interscholastic athletic participation seems to have increased their aspirations for college and they have demonstrated that desire with higher grade point averages.

Research Question 3

To what extent do selected motivational factors affect interscholastic athletic participation among urban youth (i.e., collectively and by gender)?

- a. *To what extent does intrinsic and extrinsic motivation effect urban youth?*
- b. *To what extent does the motivation to play professional sports effect urban youth?*

Findings

Using descriptive statistics, the responses to selected motivational factors were totaled and a mean was established. The factors were then ranked from highest to lowest, and the rank order established for the total sample of student-athletes is as follows (see Table 54).

Table 54. Ranked Selected Motivational Factors

1. Enjoyment	6. Scholarship to college
2. Thrills and excitement	7. To relieve stress
3. Physical fitness	8. To control emotions
4. To Show talents	9. Status and recognition
5. To Stay healthy	

Enjoyment was the primary factor with a mean of 3.9 out of a possible 4.0. The next five factors were very close, with a range of 3.69 to 3.61. The final three factors indicated means of 2.93, 2.90, and 2.84, respectively.

These selected factors were compared by gender employing an independent t-test. The test showed significant differences between males and females in factors 4, 6, and 8 “*to show talents*,” “*scholarship to college*,” and “*to control emotions*.” The factor “*to show talents*,” displayed a mean difference of .273, with a mean of 3.76 for males and 3.49 for females. Factor 6, “*scholarship to college*,” showed a mean difference of .20, with a mean of 3.70 for males and a 3.50 for females. Factor 8, “*to control emotions*,” showed a mean difference of .532, with a mean of 3.15 for males and 2.63 for females.

Conclusions

The strongest motivational factor for the athletes in this study was “enjoyment.” According to the literature, this suggests that athletes whose primary motivation is enjoyment may stay with their sport longer and are more committed to it. Statistically, the next five factors show little difference in ranking (.08), and appeared to show the same or similar reasons for participation. However, the final three factors, “*to relieve stress*,” “*to control emotions*,” and “*status and recognition*” seemed to possess less appeal than the top six.

In assessing the effects of participation by gender, we might conclude that for male athletes, it is more important to display their talents than it is for female athletes. We may also conclude that male athletes often see college scholarships as a natural progression in their athletic careers. For females athletes, due in part to college athletic scholarships for women being a more recent phenomenon, (a) Some may not yet see this as a

way to extend their athletic careers; (b) Some may not know of the availability of scholarships or the networking involved in securing one; (c) There may be fewer scholarships available for females; and (d) Some female athletes may not wish to extend their careers beyond high school participation. Finally, we might conclude that females do not participate in sports “to control emotions.”

Sub-question A

To what extent do intrinsic and extrinsic motivation affect urban youth?

Findings

Two sub-scales were developed to measure intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors. On the intrinsic motivation sub-scale, the range extended from a maximum score of 24 to a minimum score of 12, with a mean of 20.8. In establishing a median score of 18 as the midpoint, 80% of the sample scored above the median and 57% scored above the mean. Over 18% (18.6%) of the sample scored the maximum of 24 and the sub-scale was negatively skewed. When gender was addressed, an independent t-test showed a statistically significant difference between males and females. With a mean difference of .7782, males reported a mean of 21.17 and females a mean of 20.4.

On the extrinsic motivational sub-scale, the range extended from a maximum score of 12 to a minimum score of 4, with a mean of 10.1. Establishing the median score of 8 as the midpoint, 86% of the sample scored above the median and 43% above the mean. Twenty-five percent of the sample scored at the maximum level of 12. This sub-scale was also negatively skewed. When gender was addressed, the independent t-test showed no significant statistical difference between males and females with respect to extrinsic motivation.

Conclusions

Both the intrinsic and extrinsic sub-scales are negatively skewed, suggesting that the athletes in this study possessed high degrees of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. As stated earlier, the strongest selected motivational factor reported by the total sample was “*enjoyment*.” There was very little difference between the next five factors, “*thrills and excitement*,” “*physical fitness*”, “*to show talents*,” “*to stay healthy*,” and “*scholarship to college*.” A statistically significant difference was shown, however, when intrinsic motivation was examined by gender. Males in this study reported a higher score in this domain. There were no statistically significant differences shown when extrinsic motivation was addressed by gender.

It appears that the primary reason males and female participate in interscholastic athletics is for enjoyment, and that for males there may be additional explanations for their involvement. Both sexes revealed that external rewards are important, but beyond enjoyment, there appears to be no evidence to suggest a dominance of either intrinsic or extrinsic motivation.

Sub-question B

To what extent does the motivation to play professional sports affect urban youth?

Findings

For the two questions on professional athletics asked in the survey, “*Would you like to become a professional athlete?*” and “*How much would you like to become a professional athlete?*”, a frequency distribution showed that 64% of the sample responded “yes” (they would like to become professional athletes). The question also showed that 36% of the student athletes responded either “maybe” or “no” to the same question. For

the second question, 56% of the athletes responded that they would like to become professional athletes “very much,” and 40% responded that they did not want to become professional athletes “very much.” A chi-square cross-tabulation analysis showed that 75% of the males wanted to be professional athletes as compared to 52% of the females. Analysis showed that 73% of the males responded that they wanted to become a professional athlete “very much” as compared to 40% of the females in the study. An independent t-test was used to address these questions by gender, and statistically significant differences were found between males and females who wanted to become professional athletes, and how much they wanted to become professional athletes. The first question showed a mean difference of .388, with males showing a mean of 2.72 and females a mean of 2.33. Responses to the question of how much student-athletes wanted to become professional athletes showed a mean difference of .677, with males showing a mean of 2.57 and females a mean of 1.89.

Conclusions

It appears that two thirds of the student athletes in this study would like to become professional athletes. When totaling all of the athletes in the study, slightly more than one half would like this occupation “very much.” The rest of the sample did not respond as strongly. When separated by gender, males more than females expressed a desire to become professional athletes. This may suggest that for the male student-athletes in this study, athletics is an occupational area that is perceived open and available to them. For females, their view of a career in professional sports may reflect a reality in which options for participation have not been adequately or clearly defined.

Implications

More than 90% of the sample responded that they would like to, and do plan to attend college. This is a remarkable finding in a school district where only 30% of ninth graders graduate from high school. Seventy-five percent of the total hoped for a scholarship to college. Obtaining a scholarship may be central to their attending college. The median income of families in the city of the study is under \$20, 000 annually. Previous studies have shown that the cost of attending college was rated as very important by African-American students, and that scholarships were critical (Fuhrmann, Armour, & Wergin, 1991).

With the implementation of Title IX, females are participating in interscholastic athletics in unprecedented numbers. There were more than 2.6 million females participating in interscholastic athletics in 1997 (Womens Sport Foundation, 1997). The increase in opportunities and the heightened media attention on females in sports suggest increases in their share of college scholarships. The formation of professional leagues for women in basketball, volleyball, and hockey may also increase their professional sports aspirations. There is limited data regarding female interscholastic athletic participation overall, and even less on urban females. Forty-four percent of the participants in the study were females, and the information gathered regarding their participation will help to increase knowledge in the field.

Seventy-five percent of the male student-athletes in the study indicated a desire to become professional athletes. According to the NCAA, there are approximately one million high school football players and 500,000 male high school basketball players in the United States (Sailes, 1997). On average, 150 athletes annually find employment in the National Football League (NFL) and approximately 50 will sign contracts with a National

Basketball Association (NBA) team. Consequently, the odds of a high school football player playing professional football in the NFL are about 6,000 to 1, and the odds of a high school player playing professional basketball in the NBA are approximately 10,000 to 1. In both sports, an average career lasts between three and five years(Sailes, 1997). Given these unfavorable statistics, school counselors, coaches, and administrators should inform athletes of the improbability of playing sports as a career, and encourage them to pursue options with more attractive odds.

For this study, by school individually and collectively, the student-athletes who participated in more sports reported higher grade point averages. One might conclude that organizational skills and arranging priorities are essential to these students because they were able to balance participation in their sport with academic achievement and to do it at a higher level than those students who were participating in fewer sports.

This study suggests that there is academic value in athletic participation. It can be argued, however, that this potential is used sparingly because the educational establishment and the public at large either does not comprehend its educational value, or disdains it due to academic bias. Other studies employing original research have demonstrated that many athletes have better grades and more graduate from college than do nonathletes (NCAA, 1998). A report on graduation statistics from the NCAA shows that many colleges (including the University of Detroit, Michigan State University, Central Michigan University, and Eastern Michigan University) have higher graduation rates for athletes than nonathletes (Vincent, 1998).

It may also be proposed that in an era of dysfunctional families, interscholastic athletic participation can supplement elements that are sometimes missing in these social units. Among those elements, mentoring and continuity, staples in all levels of sports,

might be considered. Coaches, and the demands of good sportsmanship, routinely require discipline and high ethical standards. These requirements engender pride, a strong work ethic, and commitment to team goals. In an era where many athletes seem to seek and expect individual acclaim, it is interesting to note that in this study individual status and recognition ranked last among selected motivational factors. This study also concluded that a higher percentage of males than females participate in sports to control their emotions. This is significant if in fact team membership and mentoring by coaches in and out of season make it easier for males to manage their emotions.

Another area that might be facilitated by sports participation is that of interracial and intercultural involvement. As our population grows more culturally diverse, today more than at any time in our history we need activities to promote common involvement among people of different backgrounds. Not only were athletics and co-curricular activities originally developed in our public schools to discourage gang membership and other youth-related problems at the turn of the twentieth century, but they were also intended to help resolve cultural differences (Jeziorski, 1994). Today we see in our cities evidence of increased gang membership. The need to belong might be positively addressed through participation in interscholastic team sports.

Hope, the belief that what we want is attainable, is empowering and is central to sports. Hope allows athletes to feel that they have some control over their situation. Whether one wins or loses, there is always the next day to improve and to get better. There is always a next shot, a next inning, a next play, and always next year. Hope cannot exist, however, if there is no dream. The dream of interscholastic athletic participation is often fleeting in urban areas due to a lack of physical education programs. The Surgeon General's report emphasizes the central role of physical activity in our nation's schools,

and further, that curriculum shift away from physical education could ultimately undermine the health of the nation. Interscholastic athletics is often an outcome of physical education programs, and when there are fewer physical education classes taught, there is less orientation to rules, to skill development, and to team play. If there are fewer students in physical education, the probability is that there will be fewer athletes. From 1990 to 1997, participation in one sport, high school football, declined in 38 states, including the state of this study (Wahl, 1998). Many of these states have also eliminated physical education requirements in their districts or severely cut program offerings. One cannot but speculate on whether or not there is a causal connection here.

Future Research

Replication of this study would be of value. Involvement of a larger sample from the district and/or studies involving other similar populations would help to confirm or refute the findings.

Academic achievement in education is defined in several ways, including grade point averages and standardized test scores. This study concerned itself with grade point averages, and reported grade point averages were clearly higher for participants. However, a study that would look at the standardized test scores, such as the Michigan Education Assessment Program (MEAP) and the Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT), of both participants and non-participants in interscholastic athletic participation would be revealing. The analysis of standardized tests would control for the subjectivity of letter grades and course enrollment. The Ruster Foundation is a non-profit organization that is committed to youth development. The Foundation implements training programs at no cost to orient individual schools and school districts in research procedures that are exclu-

sive to interscholastic athletic participation and academic achievement. This organization, incorporated in 1983, could provide direction in an area in which more research is needed.

Students who participate in individual sports and team sports sometimes have very different motives for athletic participation. Team sports emphasizes the importance of “sacrificing for the team,” and individual sports encourage individuals to “succeed for themselves.” Future studies that would investigate the effects of athletic participation, academic achievement, and participation motives of athletes in individual and team sports would add to the body of knowledge in this area. Finally, a survey of middle-school athletes and their reasons for playing sports could contribute to our understanding in this area. If it were found that there are unrealistic motives for extrinsic rewards such as professional sports and/or television commercials and endorsements, vocational counseling could begin immediately. This counseling would not necessarily be directed to kill the dream of a career in sports, but possibly to enlighten students to other careers that create new dreams and new hope.

APPENDIX A

INSTRUMENT

Athletes Questionnaire, p. 104

Athletes Questionnaire

(Ques. 1,2 choose one for each)

1. Male Female
2. Sophomore Junior Senior

(Ques. 3-4, please write in your answer)

3. What school sports do you play ? _____
4. What do you consider as your best sport ? _____

(Ques. 6,7 Choose one of the three options for each question)

5. Would you like to attend college ? YES NO MAYBE
6. Do you plan to attend college ? YES NO MAYBE

(Ques. 8-16, Please place an X under your best answer)

Would you say the big reasons that you participate in sports are

	VERY TRUE	PRETTY TRUE	NOT VERY TRUE	NOT AT ALL TRUE
7. To gain status and recognition	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. To help me stay healthy	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. To help develop physical fitness	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. I enjoy playing.	_____	_____	_____	_____
11. I hope to get a college scholarship.	_____	_____	_____	_____
12. I get a chance to show my talents.	_____	_____	_____	_____
13. To experience the thrills and excitement.	_____	_____	_____	_____
14. I learn to control my emotions.	_____	_____	_____	_____
15. It helps to relieve my stress.	_____	_____	_____	_____

(Ques. 17,18, Please circle your best answer)

16. Would you like to become a professional athlete someday ? YES NO MAYBE
17. How much would you like to be a professional athlete ? VERY MUCH SOMEWHAT PRETTY MUCH

APPENDIX B

HUMAN SUBJECTS MEMORANDUM

Notice of Expedited Protocol Approval, p. 106

Narrative Expansion—Doctoral Dissertation Proposal, p. 107

Information Sheet, p. 108



Wayne State University
Human Investigation Committee

'98 NOV 30 10 29

Behavioral Institutional Review Board
4201 St. Antoine Blvd., 8C
Detroit, MI 48201
(313) 577-1628 Office
(313) 993-7122 Fax

Notice of Expedited Protocol Approval

To: Delano W. Tucker
Dean's Office
441 Education Building

From: Peter A. Lichtenberg, Ph.D. Peter A. Lichtenberg
Chairman, Behavioral Institutional Review Board (B03)

Date: November 18, 1998

RE: **Expedited Approval of Protocol #: 10-94-98(B03)-ER;** "The Effects of Interscholastic Athletic Participation on Academic Achievement and Educational Aspirations, and the Motivation for Participation." No funding requested

As required under provisions of the Department of Health and Human Services Regulation 45 CFR 46 (as amended), and/or other pertinent Federal regulations to assure that the rights of human subjects have been protected, the above protocol and consent form, initially submitted on October 27, 1998, revised and resubmitted on November 11th and again on November 18th, has been **APPROVED** following **Expedited Review (#7)*** by the Wayne State University Behavioral Institutional Review Board (B03), for the period of **November 18, 1998 through November 17, 1999.**

NOTE: Information Sheet must be mailed via first class mail to parents.

As I have not evaluated this proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human subjects in relation to potential benefits, this approval does not replace, or serve in the place of, any departmental or other approvals that may be required.

This protocol will be subject to annual review by the Behavioral Institutional Review Board.

Cc: James H. Blake, Ph.D.
251 Education

ACAD. SERV. DIV.

15 DEC 98 4:44

Narrative Expansion
Doctoral Dissertation Proposal

The Effects of Interscholastic Athletic Participation on Academic Achievement and Educational Aspirations, and the Motivation for Participation

Much has been assumed regarding the effects of interscholastic athletic participation on students academic achievement , educational aspirations, or what motivates them to play. Even though there has been research done in these areas, the assumption is generally negative.

Snyder and Spreitzer (1990) used a baseline sample of almost 12,000 students from a 1980 High School and Beyond (HSB) study, investigated "High School Athletic Participation as related to College Attendance among Black, Hispanic, and White Males." Their findings supported a number of earlier studies that demonstrated a positive relationship between high school athletic participation and academic achievement. Rehberg and Shafer (1968), in their study of almost 800 senior males from three public and three parochial schools in three middle-sized Pennsylvania cities, suggested that there is a linkage between athletic participation and boys from working class homes with low parental encouragement to go to college. These boys stand to gain the most from their participation in athletics and the concomitant heightened peer status. Gould and Horn (1984) concluded that young athletes have numerous and diverse motives for participation. Affiliation, skill development, excitement and success were consistently rated highly. Power over others, independence, aggression and pleasing others received little endorsement. Gender differences were apparent, indicating that females attributed greater importance to fun and friendship in comparison to males (Ashford, Biddle, & Goudas, 1993)

Delano W. Tucker
App # 10-94-98 (BO3)

Information Sheet

Project Title: The Effects of Interscholastic Athletic Participation on Academic Achievement and Educational Aspirations, and the Motivation for Participation.

Investigator: Mr. Delano W. Tucker, 441 Education Building , Wayne State University
313-577-3284

Location: Detroit Public Schools

Purpose: The purpose is to ascertain the benefit(s) of interscholastic athletic participation and it's academic value to urban students. This study is a requirement for completion of a Doctor of Education Degree through Wayne State University.

Procedure: You (student-athletes) will be asked to complete a seventeen item survey during regular education classes regarding your educational aspirations, and the reasons why you participate in interscholastic athletics.

Risks: There are no known risks.

Benefits: You will have the opportunity to focus on why you participate in sport and to develop an appreciation that the study of athletics and athletes is a real educational choice.

Questions: If you have any questions regarding this project or request any additional information, please call Delano W. Tucker at 313-577-3284. To request information about human subjects' rights, please telephone Dr. Peter Lichtenberg, chairperson, Wayne State University's Behavioral Investigation Committee, (313) 577-5174.

Confidentially: Your participation in this study is voluntary and your name will not appear in any report or document. Additionally, you have had this information sheet read to you about this research study you understand it, and agree to participate. You may withdraw from this study at anytime without penalty.

Parent(s) if you do not wish for your child to participate in this project, please call me at 313-577-3264 or Mr.Simpkins at 313-232-4307.

APPENDIX C
ELIGIBILITY REQUIREMENTS

Eligibility Summary, p. 110

PART VI

Michigan High School Athletic Association N.C.A.A. Rule 14.3 Eligibility Summary

To be eligible, students must comply with both the state and local school district requirements.

Detroit Public Schools

Students participating in interscholastic athletics are required to have a C average (2.0) or better for the semester immediately prior to such participation and must maintain a C average (2.0) or better during the period of such participation.

1. Only one physical education class can be included in the C average for credit submitted for eligibility.
2. Student athletes must be ruled ineligible and dropped from competition following any card marking in which the average drops below C (2.0.).
3. Summer school credits may apply for fall eligibility provided the student repeats **ONLY** those courses of low grades or failures from the semester ending in June. If the course is not offered in summer school at the student's regular school, he may have the option of successfully repeating the failed or low grade course in summer school at any North Central Association accredited high school.

Michigan High School Athletic Association

1. ENROLLMENT

Must have been enrolled in a high school by Monday of fourth (4th) week of present semester.

2. AGE

Must be under nineteen (19) years of age at time of contest unless nineteenth (19th) birthday occurs on or after September 1 of a current school year, in which case student is eligible for balance of that school year in all sports.

3. PHYSICAL EXAMINATIONS

Must have passed a current year physical examination. Record must be on file in school office.

4. SEASONS OF COMPETITION

Must have not more than four (4) first and four (4) second semester seasons of competition in a sport in a four (4) year high school of three (3) first and second semester seasons, each in a sport in a three (3) year high school, including present season. When two seasons leading to a state championship or the same sport are offered, an athlete may participate in only one.

5. SEMESTER OF ENROLLMENT

A student shall not compete in any branch of athletics who has been enrolled in grades nine to twelve, inclusive, for more than eight semesters. The seventh and eighth semesters must be consecutive. Enrollment in a school beyond the fourth Friday after Labor Day (first semester) or fourth Friday of February (second semester), or competing in one or more interscholastic athletic contests, shall be considered as enrollment for a semester under this Rule. (1926)

6. UNDERGRADUATE STANDING

Must not be a high school graduate.

7. PREVIOUS SEMESTER RECORD

Must have received at least twenty (20) credit hours for work taken during the previous semester of enrollment.

8. CURRENT SEMESTER RECORD

Academic eligibility checks of not more than ten weeks are required. If a student is not passing at least twenty (20) credit hours when checked, that student is ineligible for competition until the next check but not less than for the next Monday through Sunday. If the next eligibility check reveals the student is still not passing at least twenty (20) credit hours, that student is ineligible for competition for not less than the next Monday through Sunday, and so on until the student is passing twenty (20) credit hours from the start of the semester through the most recent eligibility check. (1989)

9. TRANSFERS

Generally, must have had an accompanying change of residency by the athlete's parent/guardian or other person with whom athlete has been living during the period of his last high school enrollment, into the district or service area of the school, to be eligible during the first semester in attendance. A student may not compete for two different schools in an MHSAA meet or tournament in the same sport, even though a legal transfer has been completed.

10. AWARDS

Must not have accepted money or merchandise exceeding \$15.00 in value for athletic performance. Accepting memberships, privileges, services, negotiable certificates or money are violations.

11. AMATEUR PRACTICES

Must not have accepted money, merchandise, memberships, privileges, services or other valuable considerations for participating in any form of athletics, sports or games or for officiating interscholastic athletic contests, nor have signed a professional baseball contract. (Reinstatement will not be considered for one year.)

12. LIMITED TEAM MEMBERSHIP

Must not have participated in any outside competition in a sport during the season after the athlete has represented his school in that sport except individual participation in a maximum of two individual sports meets or contests. Must not have participated in a so-called all-star, charity or exhibition athletic activity during the school year.

N.C.A.A. RULE 14.3 (Formerly Proposition 48) College Freshman Eligibility Requirements

N.C.A.A. RULE 14.3 (formerly Proposition 48) AFFECTS ALL HIGH SCHOOL ATHLETES ELIGIBLE FOR N.C.A.A. DIVISION ONE ATHLETIC SCHOLARSHIP OR THOSE WHO PLAN TO PARTICIPATE IN ANY DIVISION ONE ATHLETIC PROGRAM AS A NON-SCHOLARSHIP ATHLETE (WALK-ON).

General Requirements

Students who want to practice and play their freshman year at an N.C.A.A. Division I or Division II college, must satisfy the requirements of N.C.A.A. Bylaw 14.3, commonly known as Proposition 48. Bylaw 14.3 requires students to:

1. Graduate from high school;
2. Attain a grade-point average of 2.000 (based on a maximum of 4.000) in a successfully completed core curriculum of at least 11 academic courses [this core curriculum includes at least three years in English, two in mathematics, two in social science and two in natural or physical science (including at least one laboratory class, if offered by the high school)], and
3. Achieve a 700 combined score on the SAT verbal and math sections or an 18 composite score on the ACT.

Details of these general requirements are contained in the 1991-92 N.C.A.A. Guide for the College-Bound Student-Athlete which is available in high schools.

N.C.A.A. eligibility rules are often complex as they might apply to certain students; therefore, you should contact the N.C.A.A. office or appropriate conference office for proper interpretations in specific cases. Your inquiries should be addressed to the N.C.A.A. legislative services staff at 6201 College Boulevard, Overland Park, Kansas 66211-2422.

N.C.A.A. PROPOSITION 16 College Freshman Eligibility Requirements

Effective August 1, 1995, student-athletes will have to meet the following eligibility index to be eligible for an Athletic Scholarship.

<u>Core GPA</u>	<u>SAT</u>	<u>ACT</u>
2.500 & above	700	17
2.475	710	18
2.450	720	18
2.425	730	18
2.400	740	18
2.375	750	18

<u>Core GPA</u>	<u>SAT</u>	<u>ACT</u>
2.350	760	19
2.325	770	19
2.300	780	19
2.275	790	19
2.250	800	19
2.225	810	20
2.200	820	20
2.175	830	20
2.150	840	20
2.125	850	20
2.100	860	21
2.075	870	21
2.050	880	21
2.025	890	21
2.000	900	21

The Core GPA will include 13 classes (formerly 11 classes). The student-athlete must have a minimum of 2.0 GPA in the Core Curriculum. The Core Curriculum is as follows:

English	3 years
Mathematics	2 years
Natural or Physical Science (including at least one Laboratory Course, if offered by the high school)	2 years
Additional courses in English, Mathematics or Natural or Physical Science)	2 years
Social Science	2 years
Additional Academic Courses (If any of the above areas or Foreign Language, Computer Science, Philosophy or Nondoctrinal Religion (e.g., Comparative Religion courses)	2 years

These are the only classes that can be used to complete the Core GPA.

APPENDIX D

THE RUSTER FOUNDATION ACADEMICS AND ATHLETICS PROGRAM

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Program Overview, p. 116

Data Collecting Component, p. 117

Promotion Component, p. 118

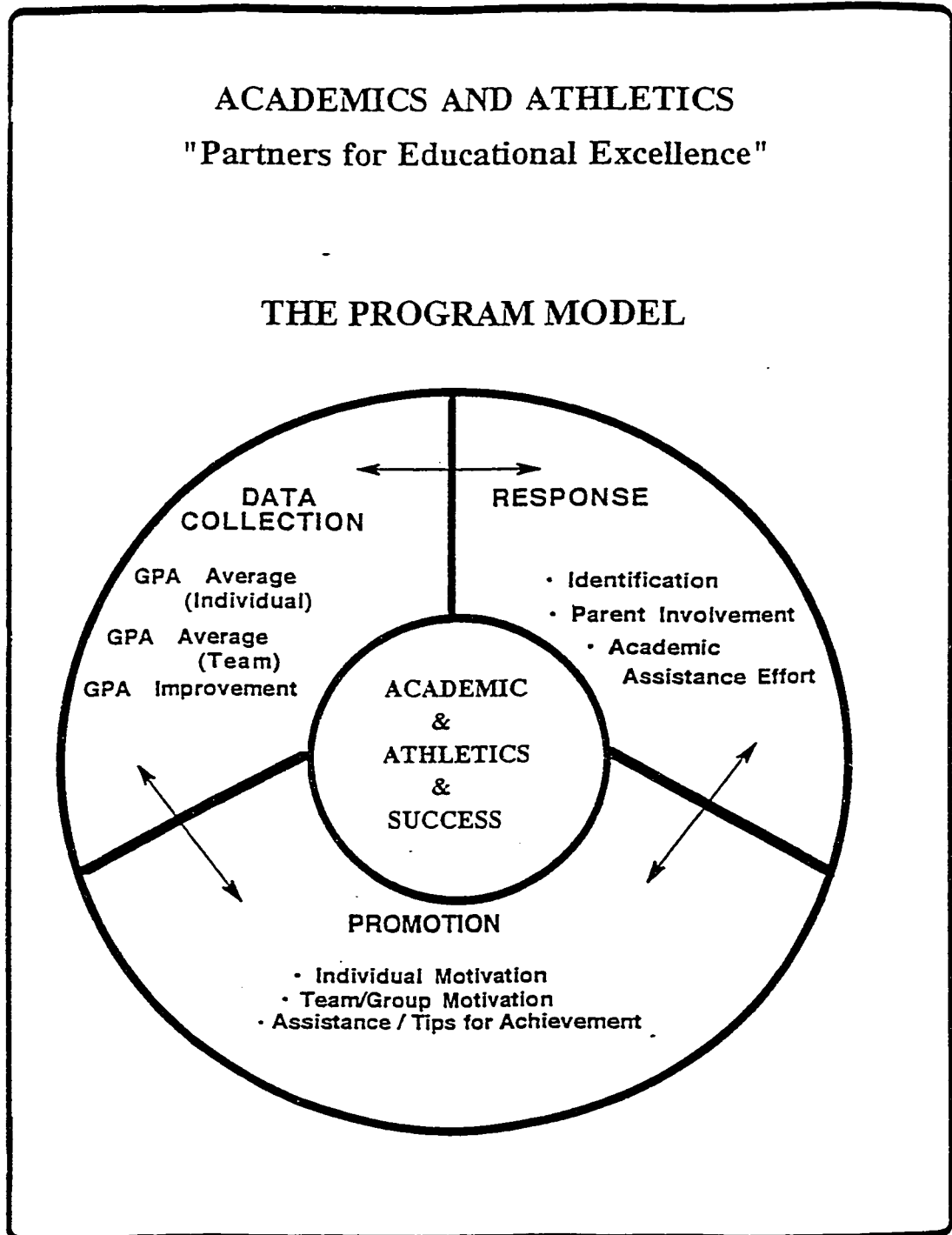
Response Component, p. 119

Suggestions for Those Who Are Concerned
About the Academic Achievement
of a Student Athlete, p. 120

Behaviors of Concern, p. 121

ACADEMICS AND ATHLETICS
 "Partners for Educational Excellence"

THE PROGRAM MODEL



ACADEMICS AND ATHLETICS

"Program Overview"

Program Goal:

To provide schools and their athletic departments with the information, ideas and skills necessary to plan and implement a comprehensive program designed to help student athletes achieve their maximum academic potential.

ACADEMICS AND ATHLETICS

"Data Collecting Component"

GOAL: Collect data related to academic achievement in the most cost effective and time efficient manner possible.

OBJECTIVES:

1. Develop and Provide Data To:

- Recognize exemplary achievement
- Identify academic deficiencies
- Track individual student athlete's academic achievements
- Compare GPA's of athletes with non-athletes
- Record GPA's of varsity letter winners
- Compare GPA's of student athletes in-season and out-of-season
- Compare GPA's of teams, schools, leagues, etc.

- 2. Collect GPA data of student athletes**
- 3. Compile and publicize GPA comparisons**
- 4. Evaluate the "program"**

ACADEMICS AND ATHLETICS "PROMOTION COMPONENT"

GOAL: Design and implement programs to motivate student athletes to achieve their maximum academic potential.

OBJECTIVES:

1. Develop procedures to promote;
 - student athletes' awareness of;
 - a. importance of education
 - b. academic expectations
 - c. academic responsibilities
 - staff/parent awareness of their roles in helping student athletes achieve academic potential.
2. Plan and conduct meetings for student athletes, parents, coaches and other school staff.
3. Develop programs to motivate student athletes to greater academic achievement.
4. Institute awards that promote academic achievement.
5. Develop "Pride" awards for coaches and parents.
6. Provide experiences and materials which will assist student athletes in maximizing their potential.

ACADEMICS AND ATHLETICS

"Response Component"

GOAL: To design and implement programs to respond to student athletes with academic deficiencies.

OBJECTIVES:

1. Define and reinforce the roles of the coach, teacher and parents in resolving academic deficiencies.
2. Develop programs to help student athletes with learning problems.
3. Develop intervention policy and procedures.
4. Identify those student athletes in need of assistance.

**SUGGESTIONS FOR THOSE WHO ARE CONCERNED
ABOUT THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT
OF A STUDENT ATHLETE**

Suggested procedures for those desiring to help a student athlete with academic problems in order to bring about positive changes and results:

1. Identify specific academic achievement problems.
2. Identify specific behaviors, procedures and/or attitudes that are interfering with academic performance.
3. Share your concerns with the student athlete in a caring, positive manner.
4. Refer the student athlete for assistance if needed.
5. Provide support for the student athlete.

ACADEMICS AND ATHLETICS

"Behaviors of Concern"

**Specific observable and
documented
academic problems
that cause you
to be concerned.**

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECTS OF INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETIC PARTICIPATION ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND SELECTED MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS FOR ATHLETIC PARTICIPATION BY URBAN YOUTH

by

DELANO W. TUCKER

May 1999

Advisor: Dr. Burnis Hall Jr.
Major: Administration and Supervision-General
Degree: Doctor of Education

The purpose of the study was to examine the academic value of interscholastic athletic participation, to appraise how such participation affected educational aspirations, and to ascertain, within selected motivational factors, why high school students play sports. A non-experimental descriptive research design that included descriptive and inferential statistics was used. Survey methodology that incorporated student records was also included in the design. The variables were not manipulated and no treatment was provided to the participants. Schools were selected by use of cluster random sampling and athletes from four high schools were asked to fill out a seventeen-item *Athletes Questionnaire* that solicited reasons for participation, the degree of participation, and aspirations for collegiate and professional sports.

It appears that a positive relationship exists between interscholastic athletic participation and academic achievement as defined by grade point averages. Students who participated in interscholastic athletics had higher grade point averages than the general

student population and overwhelmingly would like to and are planning to attend college. Students are motivated to participate in interscholastic athletics for a variety of reasons. Student-athletes in this study possess both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation at high levels; however, the primary factor for participation was enjoyment, an indicator of intrinsic motivation.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

DELANO W. TUCKER

Education:

Doctor of Education
General Administration
Wayne State University, Detroit, MI

Master of Arts
Educational Psychology
Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI

Bachelor of Arts
Psychology
Wayne State University, Detroit, MI

Employment:

1995 - Present
Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan
Assistant to the Dean, College of Education
Lecturer, College of Education, Division of
Health, Physical Education and Recreation

1990-1994
Livingstone College, Salisbury, North Carolina
Director of Athletics/Head Football Coach

1987-1990
University of California, Davis, California
Academic Advisor for Intercollegiate Athletics
Student Affairs Officer
Assistant Football Coach

1973-1986
East Lansing School District, East Lansing, Michigan
1981-1986
Skills Center Coordinator
1979-1981
Assistant Principal, High School

1972-1975
Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan
1972-1975
Residence Hall Director
1972
Graduate Assistant Football Coach