

University of Windsor

Scholarship at UWindor

Electronic Theses and Dissertations

Theses, Dissertations, and Major Papers

2002

Participation in extracurricular activities and the sense of belonging, self-esteem, and risk of dropping out among grade eleven students.

John Leandro. Cuzzocrea
University of Windsor

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholar.uwindsor.ca/etd>

Recommended Citation

Cuzzocrea, John Leandro., "Participation in extracurricular activities and the sense of belonging, self-esteem, and risk of dropping out among grade eleven students." (2002). *Electronic Theses and Dissertations*. 3013.

<https://scholar.uwindsor.ca/etd/3013>

This online database contains the full-text of PhD dissertations and Masters' theses of University of Windsor students from 1954 forward. These documents are made available for personal study and research purposes only, in accordance with the Canadian Copyright Act and the Creative Commons license—CC BY-NC-ND (Attribution, Non-Commercial, No Derivative Works). Under this license, works must always be attributed to the copyright holder (original author), cannot be used for any commercial purposes, and may not be altered. Any other use would require the permission of the copyright holder. Students may inquire about withdrawing their dissertation and/or thesis from this database. For additional inquiries, please contact the repository administrator via email (scholarship@uwindsor.ca) or by telephone at 519-253-3000ext. 3208.

INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps.

**ProQuest Information and Learning
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346 USA
800-521-0600**

UMI[®]

**PARTICIPATION IN EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES AND THE SENSE OF
BELONGING, SELF-ESTEEM, AND RISK OF DROPPING OUT AMONG
GRADE ELEVEN STUDENTS**

by

John L. Cuzzocrea

A Thesis

**Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research
through the Faculty of Education
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Master of Education at the
University of Windsor**

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

2002



**National Library
of Canada**

**Acquisitions and
Bibliographic Services**

**385 Wellington Street
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada**

**Bibliothèque nationale
du Canada**

**Acquisitions et
services bibliographiques**

**385, rue Wellington
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada**

Your file Votre référence

Our file Notre référence

The author has granted a non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of this thesis in microform, paper or electronic formats.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in this thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's permission.

L'auteur a accordé une licence non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de cette thèse sous la forme de microfiche/film, de reproduction sur papier ou sur format électronique.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège cette thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

0-612-75782-X

Canada

ABSTRACT

This study examined participation in extracurricular activities as a predictor of sense of belonging, level of self-esteem, and risk of dropout among grade eleven students. Section A of the Student Questionnaire was developed by Pascarella (1982) and was used to measure the level of involvement in each of the extracurricular categories outlined in the research: (a) athletics, (b) intramural athletics, (c) high school publications, (d) department clubs, (e) social clubs, (f) religious organizations, (g) student government, and (h) music and drama. Section B was developed by using questions from both the San Diego Community College Campus Climate Student Survey (1994) and the Compton Community College Campus Climate Survey (1994) as a measure of student sense of belonging. Section C was designed by Cassidy and Broks (1978) and was used as a measure of student self-esteem. Section D examined risk of student dropout and was designed using predictors outlined in the review of literature.

The sample consisted of 240 grade eleven secondary school students from three urban Ontario secondary schools. Participation in extracurricular activities was found to have its most significant impact on sense of belonging. Of the activities outlined in the study, only participation in high school publications and social clubs were not found to be a predictor on belonging. A statistically significant effect was also found with respect to self-esteem, however it only applied to athletics, high school publications, and social clubs. The research was unable to provide support for participation in extracurricular activities as a deterrent to dropout.

A subsection of the study focused on the predictors of risk of dropout that were grouped according to following categories: (a) gender, (b) ethnicity, (c) parent's level of

education, (d) parental encouragement, (e) financial status, (f) academic achievement, (g) grade retention and course failure, (h) absenteeism, (i) disciplinary history, (j) student attitude toward school, and (k) student stress. The research provided evidence that the following categories were predictors of dropout: (a) mother's level of education, (b) academic level of the student, (c) course failure, (d) student attitude toward school, (e) family pressure, and (f) peer pressure.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This project became my life over the last year and has been both a rewarding learning experience and source of personal growth. The past year has provided me with numerous challenges that I know I would not have had the strength to overcome without the assistance of a number of important people in my life.

First and foremost, I would like to take this opportunity to thank Dr. Linda McKay who served as my Faculty advisor and provided guidance and support throughout the entire process. I truly appreciate the time and energy she has devoted to my project, for I do not believe it could have been completed without her expertise. Her wisdom and experience made an overwhelming task seem possible. She warned me that there would be hurdles and then helped me to overcome them time and time again.

I would like to extend my gratitude to Dr. Doreen Shantz who willingly took on the role of second reader and has been a constant source of support since I entered the program. I would also like to thank Dr. James Weese for his role as outside reader.

To the principals, teachers, parents and especially the students who devoted their time to the research because they believed it to be a worthwhile endeavor. Their time and dedication to the completion of this study is what made it possible.

To my wife Melissa, I extend my love and gratitude for helping me throughout this process. I have always told her that she is the smartest person that I know and making her proud has been a source of inspiration in pursuing this goal. In addition to being my best friend, she has been the one constant in my life that I can always come to for support. She has been a motivating force and the reason for pursuing this degree. I am forever grateful to have her in my life.

Finally, I would like to thank my parents Leo and Angela Cuzzocrea who have

always encouraged me to further my education. I know that by completing the Master of Education program, that I have made them proud. They have been there to assist me throughout my life, and even into adulthood they have been a source of guidance and support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	viii
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	
A. General Statement of the Problem	1
B. Definition of Terms	2
C. Research Question and Hypotheses	3
D. Significance of the Study	4
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	
A. Introduction	7
B. Participation in Extracurricular Activities	7
C. Sense of Belonging to the School	17
D. Level of Self-Esteem	24
E. Risk of Student Dropout	38
F. Conclusion	63
III. DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	
A. Subjects	64
B. Instrumentation	67
C. Design and Procedures	69
D. Limitations of the Design	73
IV. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS	
A. Data Analysis	76
B. Involvement in Extracurricular Activities and Sense of Belonging	76
C. Involvement in Extracurricular Activities and Self-Esteem	86
D. Involvement in Extracurricular Activities and Risk of Dropout	94
E. Predictors of Risk of Dropout	102
V. DISCUSSION	
A. Discussion	127
B. Recommendations	134

VI. APPENDIXES	
A. University of Windsor Research Ethics Board Approval	138
B. Parent/Guardian Consent Form	139
C. Student Questionnaire	142
D. Letter of Permission to the Superintendent of Education	155
E. Letter of Permission to the Secondary School Principals	157
F. Letter to Teachers (i.e. Consent Form)	159
G. Letter to Teachers (i.e. Student Questionnaires)	160

REFERENCES	161
-------------------------	-----

VITA AUCTORIS	181
----------------------------	-----

LIST OF TABLES

A. Subjects Selected for the Sample	66
B. Extracurricular Activities and Sense of Belonging	
1. Participation in Extracurricular Athletics as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging	78
2. Participation in Extracurricular Intramural Athletics as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging	79
3. Participation in Extracurricular Department Clubs as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging	79
4. Participation in Extracurricular Student Government as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging	80
5. Participation in Extracurricular Religious Organizations as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging	81
6. Participation in Extracurricular Music and Drama as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging	81
7. Level of Participation in Extracurricular Athletics as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging	83
8. Level of Participation in Extracurricular Intramural Athletics as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging	84
9. Participation in Extracurricular Social Clubs as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging	84
10. Participation in Extracurricular High School Publications as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging	85
C. Extracurricular Activities and Self Esteem	
1. Participation in Extracurricular Social Clubs as a Predictor of Self Esteem	87
2. Level of Participation in Extracurricular Social Clubs as a Predictor of Self Esteem	88
3. Participation in Extracurricular Athletics as a Predictor of Self Esteem	89
4. Participation in Extracurricular High School Publications as a Predictor of Self Esteem	89
5. Level of Participation in Extracurricular Athletics as a Predictor of Self Esteem	90
6. Participation in Extracurricular Intramural Athletics as a Predictor of Self Esteem	91
7. Participation in Extracurricular Department Clubs as a Predictor of Self Esteem	92
8. Participation in Extracurricular Religious Organizations as a Predictor of Self Esteem	92
9. Participation in Extracurricular Student Government as a Predictor of Self Esteem	93
10. Participation in Extracurricular Music and Drama as a Predictor of Self Esteem	93

D. Extracurricular Activities and Risk of Dropout

1. Participation in Extracurricular Intramural Athletics as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	95
2. Participation in Extracurricular Athletics as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	96
3. Participation in Extracurricular Department Clubs as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	97
4. Participation in Extracurricular High School Publications as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	98
5. Participation in Extracurricular Social Clubs as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	99
6. Participation in Extracurricular Religious Organizations as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	99
7. Participation in Extracurricular Student Government as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	101
8. Participation in Extracurricular Music and Drama as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	101

E. Predictors of Risk of Dropout

1. Gender as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	103
2. Ethnicity as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	104
3. Mother's Level of Education as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	106
4. Father's Level of Education as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	107
5. Parental Encouragement to Graduate as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	108
6. Parental Encouragement to Pursue a Post-Secondary Education as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	109
7. Financial Status as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	110
8. Part-time Employment as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	111
9. School Average as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	113
10. Academic Level as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	114
11. Perceived Level of Academic Difficulty as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	115
12. Grade Retention as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	116
13. Course Failure as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	117
14. Absenteeism as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	119
15. Reasons for Extensive Absenteeism	119
16. School Suspension as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	121
17. Multiple School Suspensions as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	122
18. Student Attitude Toward School as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	123
19. Types of Student Stress	124
20. Family Pressures as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	125
21. Peer Pressures as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout	125

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. General Statement of the Problem

For many Canadians, high school is a time for establishing friendships and contemplating career paths. It is also a period in one's life, which is filled with anxiety, self-doubt, competition, and pressure to conform. This is a difficult period of transition for teenagers who are expected to assume greater levels of responsibility and deal with the pressures associated with trying to fit in with the rest of the students. It is understandable that some students fail to develop a sense of belonging in such a large institution and eventually suffer from low levels of self-esteem. These students may begin to question the value of a high school education and are often defined as being at risk for dropping out of school and failing to graduate.

There are a number of predictors which have been studied to help educators and counselors identify students who are at risk for dropping out. These include socio-economic status, family structure, ethnic background, and parenting techniques (Janosz, LeBlanc, Boulerice, & Tremblay, 1997). Another predictor is the level of involvement in school activities. Extracurricular activities may include athletics, intramural athletics, high school publications, department clubs, social clubs, religious organizations, student government, and music and drama. Aside from their role in developing a positive school climate, extracurricular activities hold personal importance in the lives of many students. These activities may provide a niche for students having a difficult time finding their place in the school. They promote interpersonal relationships and perhaps most importantly, they may provide a sense of belonging to the school and help many at risk

students develop a positive level of self-esteem.

The acquisition of a high school diploma is becoming a necessity in our society and in many businesses it has become a basic requirement for employment. When students do not graduate, the implications extend beyond the individual and impact society at large. Failure to obtain a high school diploma may limit future job opportunities, level of income, and self-esteem. Society pays a significant price through higher levels of unemployment, crime, and dependence on welfare. This research will attempt to establish a relationship between participation in extracurricular activities and sense of belonging, level of self-esteem, and risk of dropout.

B. Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, these terms will be defined as the following:

At Risk: Individuals enrolled in a secondary institution, who exhibit the behaviours or characteristics of students, which may withdraw from school before earning their Ontario Secondary School Diploma.

Extracurricular Activities: Student organizations that provide educational and social opportunities for members and may provide services to other students. These activities include: athletics, intramural athletics, high school publications, department clubs, social clubs, religious organizations, student government, and music and drama.

Grade Span: The number of grades offered within a school (i.e., Ontario Secondary School would offer grades nine to O.A.C.)

School Climate: The prevailing mood within the school among teachers, students, and administrators. It is related to the level of pride that people associate with the school.

Secondary School: Institutional setting developed to educate students ranging from grade nine to O.A.C.

Self-Esteem: An individual's perception of himself or herself, which positively or negatively impacts their psychological development and well being.

Senior Level: Secondary School students currently registered in grade eleven to O.A.C.

Sense of Belonging: An individual's perceived membership within the school community that is impacted by the relationships forged with teachers, peers, and the school environment.

Student Attrition: The decrease in student enrollment at the secondary level due to voluntary withdrawal from school before satisfying the requirements for an Ontario Secondary School Diploma.

Student Dropouts: Secondary level students that have voluntarily withdrawn from school, before completing the requirements for an Ontario Secondary School Diploma. This term includes students who decide to return to school at a later time to complete their diploma.

Student Retention: To keep students enrolled in the school until they complete the requirements for an Ontario Secondary School Diploma.

C. Research Question and Hypothesis

Many researchers have focused on the relationship between extracurricular participation and students at risk of dropping out. However, prior research has not examined the different types of extracurricular activities offered within a typical high school and the impact of each on sense of belonging, self-esteem and risk of dropout. For this reason, a research question is posed to determine if there is a relationship between the

variables discussed. For the purpose of this study, the following research question and three hypotheses were examined. The hypotheses will be stated in the null.

Research Question. Is participation in extracurricular activities a predictor for sense of belonging, self-esteem, and risk of dropping out among grade eleven students?

Hypothesis 1. There will be no statistically significant difference between participation in extracurricular activities and sense of belonging among grade eleven students.

Hypothesis 2. There will be no statistically significant difference between participation in extracurricular activities and the level of self-esteem among grade eleven students.

Hypothesis 3. There will be no statistically significant difference between participation in extracurricular activities and the risk of dropout among grade eleven students.

D. Significance of the Study

This study dealt with an important aspect of our educational system and generated information pertaining to the rate of student dropouts in the province of Ontario. This study provided information about the students who are at risk of dropping out of school and it focused on the sense of belonging and the level of self-esteem students derive through their participation in extracurricular activities. Student attrition is an important issue because of its impact on both the individual and the rest of society. Higher rates of student dropouts have been linked to higher rates of unemployment, crime, and dependency on welfare. It is in society's best interest to learn more about student dropouts and methods available for dealing with the issue.

The findings of this particular study are beneficial to other educational researchers examining the problem of student attrition. This is an area of educational research that has been studied in depth, however few researchers have looked at the importance of extracurricular activities in keeping students from dropping out of school and assisting them to develop greater self-esteem and sense of belonging. This research has provided a foundation for other researchers interested in establishing a relationship between these variables.

This study is useful to school administrators who determine whether extracurricular activities are a necessary function of schools. Some of the elite private schools in the province already recognize the importance of extracurricular activities and make student participation in these school activities a requirement. Extracurricular activities are costly and as the provincial government continues to demand efficiency and accountability with regard to spending, school board administrators may need to be convinced of the value of a full range of school activities. This study is beneficial to teachers as well. Some Ontario teachers have responded to increased workloads imposed by the Ontario Government by refusing to volunteer their time with extracurricular activities. Teacher support is critical if these activities are to continue to be offered in Ontario schools. Educators need to become aware of the implications of not volunteering their time to support these activities.

The most important group to benefit from this research is the students. Through additional research, educators will have a better understanding of the relationship between the variables outlined in this study. They may be able to develop feasible solutions for the problems of student attrition, low self-esteem, and lack of belonging

among students. It is important that educational researchers work to develop a solution to this problem because of the impact which student attrition has on both the individual and the rest of society.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Introduction:

This review of literature was organized thematically and focused on each of the four variables examined in this research which included: (a) participation in extracurricular activities, (b) sense of belonging, (c) self-esteem, and (d) risk of student dropout. The section pertaining to risk of dropout highlighted a number of predictors that were used in the design of the student questionnaire.

B. Participation in Extracurricular Activities:

According to Karlin and Berger (1971), the implementation of extracurricular activities added another dimension to the school environment which built relationships between teachers and students, developed the talents of these students, allowed students to be recognized for their achievements, and developed feelings of self-worth. It has been argued that extracurricular participation is associated with the formation and resolution of a student's identity (Barber, Eccles, & Stone, 2001). Through the implementation of student activities, school climate was greatly improved. Schools became a place of enjoyment and helped alleviate the problems associated with student behaviour and anti-social feelings. Extracurricular activities provided teenagers with effective use of their leisure time which precluded anti-social behaviour. It allowed them to meet teenagers with similar interests, and contributed to their physical and mental well-being.

Barber et al. (2001) argued that extracurricular participation is associated with higher academic achievement, educational attainment, occupational status, level of

income (Barber & Eccles, 1997; Otto, 1975, 1976) reduced levels of student dropout, and criminal activity among high-risk youth (Mahoney & Cairns, 1997). Modugno (1991) stated that music offered in schools might help at risk students develop a higher level of self-esteem and assist them in building stronger relationships with other students. According to Blum and Jones (1993), most high-risk students were not involved in extracurricular school activities. It was essential that students at the secondary level became active participants in school activities and was one of the most effective ways of involving students in the school. Extracurricular participation allowed students to find educational activities meaningful. It served to connect students to their school based learning experiences and allowed them to develop a sense of belonging to their school (Marchesi, 1998).

Barber et al. (2001) categorized the different types of extracurricular activities generally offered within a high school setting and examined the advantages and disadvantages of participating in each. The categories included prosocial activities (e.g. volunteer or community service), team sports (e.g. basketball, football, etc.), performing arts (e.g. school band, drama, dance, etc.), and school involvement (e.g. student government, cheerleading, etc.). There were many positive aspects related to participation in extracurricular activities. It was found that participation in prosocial activities led to lower substance abuse and higher self-esteem. Students who participated in team sports were found to have better educational and occupational outcomes and a more active social life. Students involved in performing arts were found to have more years of schooling and a higher percentage of college graduation. Those participating in school involvement activities were found to have completed more years of school.

Raymore, Barber, Eccles, and Godbey (1999) argued that the advantages of extracurricular participation extended well beyond high school and that these students were likely to continue the pattern of active involvement into their young adulthood. This idea suggested that participation in high school activities would have a positive and lasting effect; thereby shaping the course of their adult lives as well.

According to Barber et al. (2001) along with the positive aspects of extracurricular participation, a number of negative aspects were also uncovered in their study. It was found that participation in the performing arts led to higher rates of alcohol consumption, suicide attempts, and psychological visits. Students who participated in team sports were found to have much higher rates of alcohol abuse than the general school population. Although it was argued that society needs to re-examine the issue of teenage drinking from a different perspective. It was suggested that if the students are well adjusted and drinking solely in social settings, then the focus should be on teaching students to drink wisely.

It has been found that participation in extracurricular activities plays a large role in determining the peer group of high school students, which has a significant impact on the positive or negative development of the student. Barber et al. (2001) argued “the peer crowd prototype associated with one’s activity is potentially a powerful influence on the content of one’s emerging personal identity” (p.431). High school students who are actively involved in extracurricular activities were found to associate with students who are more academic achievement oriented and refrain from using drugs or skipping school (Eccles & Barber, 1999).

Although the benefits of extracurricular participation have been well documented,

research has proven that the size of the school impacts the rate of involvement for students (Barker & Gump, 1964; Grabe, 1981; Holland & Andre, 1987. Schoggen & Schoggen, 1988) and that students in a smaller size school were more likely to participate in comparison to students enrolled in much larger schools (Campbell, 1964; Lindsay, 1982). Only the exceptional athletes were able to play on school teams due to the level of competition present in a larger school. The level of competition would be similar for any extracurricular activity whether it be the school band, student government, or the school play. Many students wanting to participate would be denied that opportunity and the benefits derived from participating.

Many researchers have worked to highlight the benefits of having teenagers participate in extracurricular activities by citing the educational and social advantages. Krauss (1993) discussed methods for increasing the level of student participation in extracurricular activities. These suggestions were formulated for the elementary school level, yet the concepts discussed for increasing student involvement could be utilized to assist teenagers to become more active in their school communities. It was suggested that schools initiate a student orientation program to help new students familiarize themselves with the different types of extracurricular activities offered at the school. It was also suggested that schools devise a "Join a Club Week" early on in the school year, to help inform students of the different types of clubs available and to provide information to help them decide the type of club that would interest them. Effective communication through the use of questionnaires and surveys was found to be the most important element of a well-developed activities program. Schools were encouraged to discover what types of activities students wanted to have offered within their schools.

Research on the topic of extracurricular athletics and its effect on the academic performance of students have traditionally been mixed. Some have argued that qualities such as hard work, determination, and commitment, which are necessary for success in athletics are naturally carried over into the classroom in the form of a desire for better grades (Rehberg, 1969). Eidsmore (1963) was a proponent of this theory arguing that “the demand of the coaches for heads up alertness with clear, quick thinking on the athletic field and playing floor has definite transfer value to the classroom” (as cited in Rehberg, 1969, p.69). Barber and Eccles (1998) argued that there were a number of advantages to school athletics:

Participants must practice, learn to negotiate rules and resolve disputes, compete, recover from defeat, earn a sense of self-worth, and win gracefully on the playing field. In addition, sports participation may increase athletes’ social (and perhaps economic) capital through supportive relationships with adults, such as coaches and school counselors who act as advisors and advocates for college admission and scholarships. These skills and social networks likely extend to school and the workplace and endow athletes with an educational and occupational advantage, regardless of their social identity.

(as cited in Barber et al., 2001, p.449)

Others have viewed extracurricular athletics as frivolous and have argued that they divert energy from the academic pursuits of students. Time spent in practicing their athletic skills could be better spent studying or completing homework. This cohort of researchers believed that the ability to catch a ball does very little to prepare students for life after high school, and instead that time and energy should be devoted to honing their academic

skills.

Santomier (1983) stated that organized sports might lead to increased levels of psychological stress for the participating athletes. It was found that there are a number of psychological and physical demands placed on an athlete, which he/she may have a difficult time coping with. High school athletics have traditionally been an important aspect of North American culture and the high expectations placed upon participating athletes may have harmful psychological effects on those who do not meet these expectations. According to Santomier (1983), participation in competitive sports might lead to increased levels of stress if it is "(1) disrupting or endangering one's important goals and values, (2) creating uncertainty about one's physical survival, (3) threatening the maintenance of one's identity, or (4) affecting the ability to control one's environment" (p.58). It was found that participation in athletics could be particularly stressful if the athlete places considerable importance on achieving success in sports or invests solely in an athletic identity as opposed to a more rounded self-concept. Santomier (1983) argued that injury or failure to succeed would place a tremendous amount of stress upon an individual who views himself or herself solely as an athlete.

Coleman (1961) hypothesized that high school athletics divert energy away from academic responsibilities and development. There were serious flaws in his theory in that when he compared the grade point averages of male high school athletes and male non-athletes and found that the athletes had a higher grade point average than the students who did not participate in athletics. A subsequent study by Eidsmore (1963) reported similar results, with a significantly higher grade point average for the athletes who participated in the study (as cited in Rehberg, 1969). A related study by Rehberg and

Schafer (1968) found that 62 percent of the high school athletes included in the study stated that they would enroll in a four-year college program, in comparison to only 5 percent of high school non-athletes questioned (as cited in Rehberg, 1969).

There have been a number of theories presented which worked to explain why high school athletes have repeatedly been found to have higher grade point averages than their non-athlete counterparts. According to Rehberg (1969), there were five intervening variables, which may be used to account for these findings. The first sought to explain these findings through an investigation of how high school athletics play a role in the social hierarchy of schools and how that may be related to academic achievement. The term "leading crowd" was used to describe the most popular students within the school. It was found that students belonging to the leading crowd were predominately of middle-class origin, they were college bound, and they had a higher grade point average than the rest of the student body. According to Coleman (1961), success in high school athletics allowed athletes to gain membership into the leading crowd. He attributed that it was the membership in the achievement-oriented leading crowd, which positively influenced the athletes to have higher educational aspirations.

The concept of a consistent self was another variable by Rehberg (1969), which stated that student athletes might experience pressure to excel in school, because of their success in sports. It was found that students who excelled in both athletics and academics were often the most popular students and this served as a motivational factor for high school athletes. The academic expectations of family, friends, and teachers increased in response to their achievements in athletics.

A third variable discussed by Eidsmore (1963) stated that "the emphasis in sports

on such achievement factors as hard work, persistence, self-improvement, preparation today for competition tomorrow, etc., carries over into other endeavors” (as cited in Rehberg, 1969, p.77). The skills athletes developed through practice on the playing field were being applied to their education and helped to develop academic success as well. It was argued that the skills necessary to excel in athletics were similar to those necessary for excelling in the classroom.

Self-esteem has also been used to explain the correlation between the academic success and athletic participation. A fourth intervening variable discussed how participation in athletics fostered a higher level of self-esteem, which lead to more ambitious academic goals. According to Rehberg (1969),

The more positive the adolescent’s self-esteem, the more likely would he be to set high academic and career standards for himself. The extent that the self-esteem of an adolescent is a function of the internalized appraisals of significant others, and to the extent that competence in sports elicits positive appraisals from significant others, to that extent participation in sports may well serve to enhance the self-esteem of the participant adolescent and therefore raise his scholastic performance and educational expectations.

(p.78)

Rehberg’s theory failed to mention that not all athletes derive positive self-esteem from their involvement in sports. Few athletes rise to the top of their leagues and many are never given an opportunity to play. This may lead to a decreased level of self-esteem for many student athletes, and less ambitious academic goals.

A fifth intervening variable stemmed from the idea that athletes receive greater

guidance and encouragement than other students. This was believed to directly affect their level of success in terms of academics. According to Rehberg (1969), the athlete:

Is the recipient of scholastic and career counseling and encouragement superior in quantity and quality to that received by many of his nonathletic counterparts. To the extent that the educational pursuits of grades and expectations are enhanced by such counseling and encouragement, and to the extent that the athlete is superior in this respect to nonathletes, this variable may account for a portion of the positive association between educational pursuits and participation in interscholastic athletics

(p.79)

Athletes were found to be among the most visible and popular students within a school community and were encouraged to succeed because they positively contributed to the reputation and climate of the school. Their popularity made it easier to identify their academic deficiencies and provide them with the tools for success, than it would have been for a student who had few friends and was uninvolved in the school.

Research conducted by Holland and Andre (1994) examined the role of participation in extracurricular athletics and the social status of high school students. It had some interesting findings regarding the differences between male and female student athletes. Female athletes have been branching out into non-traditional sports over the last few years. High school sports such as basketball, wrestling, and hockey are a few examples of traditionally male oriented sports, which have witnessed an increase in female participation. Research has shown that although the opportunities for girls to participate in non-traditional sports has increased, societal norms continue to work

against female athletes and force them to conform to traditionally female oriented sports such as gymnastics or swimming.

There have been a number of studies, which have focused on the role conflict of female athletes by observing the importance that male and female students attach to athletic participation. It was found in each of the studies that when asked how they would like to be remembered during their high school careers, male students predominately wished to be remembered as an athletic star. The other options available to the participants included most popular student, and brilliant star. When posed the same question, it was found that female students ranked the option of athletic star last among the available choices (Coleman, 1961; Feltz, 1978; Williams & White, 1983; Kane, 1988).

Based on the findings above, Kane (1988) wished to analyze the social status of female students who participated in extracurricular athletics. A distinction was made between traditional female oriented sports (sex-appropriate) and non-traditional or masculine sports (sex-inappropriate). According to Metheny (1977), sex-appropriate sports for females included tennis, golf, and volleyball, whereas sex-inappropriate sports included baseball, and basketball. Kane (1988) compared the social status of females in traditional sports and females in non-traditional sports. The social status of the female athletes was measured by asking fellow male students which of the female athletes they would most like to date. Other female students were asked which of the female athletes they would most like to have as a friend. It was discovered that female students who participated in more traditional sports gained higher social status from both the male and female students surveyed.

A similar study conducted by Holland and Andre (1994) supported the findings of Kane (1988). It was found that the vast majority of male and female students surveyed ranked females who participated in sex-appropriate sports higher in terms of social status. The research was extended to males and it was also found that males competing in sex-appropriate sports were ranked much higher in terms of social status. It was further observed that females participating in sex-appropriate sports enjoyed a higher level of self-esteem than those who did not participate or participated in sex-inappropriate sports. This observation may be explained in part by Blinde and Taub (1992) who argued that women who excel in non-traditional female sports are often labeled as lesbians, because it is a male dominated society and they threaten this social hierarchy on a subconscious level. Holland and Andre (1994) stated that males competing in sex-appropriate sports were believed to epitomize masculinity and were desirable as dating partners and friends, while females participating in sex-inappropriate sports were regarded as less controllable from an androcentric viewpoint and thereby less desirable. Although the number of females participating in non-traditional sports has increased over the last few years, society has been slow to accept these changing roles and continues to frown upon their participation in non-traditional sports.

C. Sense of Belonging to the School:

Hagerty, Lynch-Sauer, Patusky, Bouwsema, and Collier (1992) defined sense of Belonging as "the experience of personal involvement in a system or environment so that persons feel themselves to be an integral part of that system or environment" (as cited in Hagerty, Williams, Coyne, & Early, 1996, p.235). Maslow (1954) was concerned with the factors affecting human motivation, yet his work on the hierarchy of needs may be

applied to educational literature. According to Maslow (1954), belonging is a basic human need and must be satisfied. Maslow (1962) further discussed that unless an adolescents need for belonging has been met, the child would not be able satisfy other needs and their sense of security would depend on their perceived acceptance within a group. Baumeister and Leary (1995) also described sense of belonging as a basic human need and argued that if this need were not satisfied it would eventually result in psychopathology. According to Edwards (1995) school is an adolescent's concept of society and when they do not have a place in their school, they do not have a place in society causing many students to feel lost and abandoned.

Measuring the sense of belonging students have to their school has been an important aspect of educational research, in the sense that it has been linked to the problems of students at-risk, which include loneliness, depression, membership in gang or cult activity, and violence. Youngs (1992) believed that having a sense of belonging is an important element of building positive self-esteem. Goodenow (1991) discussed the impact that sense of belonging had on the academic success of students, citing evidence that sense of belonging in the classroom was related to higher levels of student effort, increased academic expectations by students, higher level of interest in schoolwork, and better grades. According to Bronfenbrenner (1986), adolescents who lacked a sense of belonging were in jeopardy of compromising their psychosocial development. Students who were able to establish a sense of belonging within their school environment were found to be content and at peace with themselves (Renard & Sokol, 1987).

The need for belonging among adolescents may be evidenced by the clothes they wear. In an attempt to cope with the physical, social, and psychological changes in their

lives, many adolescents were found to resort to clothing as a means of controlling their environment and gaining greater acceptance from their peers. Kernaleguen (1980) argued,

Faced with the many changes and necessary adjustments, adolescents are highly sensitive to criticism, hence seek approval and acceptance and tend to conform to what they know will be accepted. Since they think in concrete terms rather than abstract ones, they embrace clothing as a means of demonstrating their conformity to peers and their rebellion against adult values.

(p.38)

Clothes are a reflection of the importance of belonging during adolescence and teenagers seek acceptance from their peers based on their style of dress.

Goodenow (1992) stated that when applied to adolescents, sense of belonging may have important consequences with regard to academic success and student retention. Sense of belonging for students was defined as their perception of the extent to which they felt they were accepted, respected, and supported by others in the school community. Weiner (1990) argued that there is a significant relationship between student motivation and sense of belonging, stating, "school motivation cannot be divorced from the social fabric in which it is embedded" (p.621). A perceived sense of belonging has been found to be important to all students in varying degrees. For the student at-risk, it has been proven to be pivotal to their academic success and survival. Finn (1989) believed,

Policies that exclude the youngster from extracurricular participation, detentions that don't involve school-related work, and suspensions all make it more difficult for the individual to maintain regular contact with the school environment. For a

student in this situation, dropping out may seem to be a very small step.

(p.131).

Wehlage, Rutter, Smith, Lesko, and Fernandez (1989) argued that students must regard school as a worthwhile investment of their time and feel as though they are valued members of the school community if they are to devote the energy required to succeed.

Alienation is the result of students who have not been able to find their place in society and have not achieved a sense of belonging within their school. Byrnes and Yamamoto (1983) characterized alienated students as those not sought out by other students or they are disliked and thereby feel rejected. It has been found to impact both the individual and society through increased levels of violence and delinquency. Lloyd (1985) suggested that adolescents that feel alienated may succumb to depression, cynicism, delinquency, and substance abuse, and may seek membership in deviant subcultures. Williams (1981) argued that alienation may lead to negative classroom behaviour which include neglect of duty, disinterest in school, lack of involvement and initiative, and poor behaviour. Newmann (1981) stated that alienation was an underlying factor in violence, vandalism, and poor academic achievement. Research has proven that students who have dropped out of school have felt alienated from their school community (Edwards, 1995). Researchers have provided evidence that poor school performance and student dropout is associated with a lack of belonging among students with respect to their school, other students, and with the teachers (Byrk & Thum, 1989; Fine, 1991; Finn, 1989; LeCompte & Dworkin, 1991; Natriello, McDill, & Pallas, 1990; Wehlage et al., 1989). Research has shown that students who feel alienated by their peers eventually lose interest in school and develop into students at-risk.

According to Bronfenbrenner (1986) institutions such as school and family, which are crucial to the development of an adolescent, have been eroding over the years and have allowed the factors affecting alienation to grow in strength. With the collapse of these institutions, an increasing number of youth have turned to gangs or cults to provide them with their need for acceptance and belonging. Studies that have focused on the level of violence and gang culture within schools have highlighted evidence that nurturing a sense of belonging among alienated students may help to curb aggressive and sometimes violent behaviour. Hirschi (1969) developed the social control theory, which worked to increase the bond between students and their school. Elements of the theory have been incorporated into experimental programs to combat the level of violence in some schools. Schools have been encouraged to develop experiential programs and place less emphasis on competition in order to combat this trend (Johnson & Johnson, 1984).

With the erosion of the family unit and the home, schools have had to compensate for this void and have had the challenge of becoming a more nurturing environment for these students. According to Hood (1992) "with the varied living arrangements, life styles, and dysfunctional homes in our society, the role of the school expands to meet the needs of young adolescents" (p.22). In response to societal changes, it was discussed that a mentoring program could be incorporated to assist schools in becoming more responsive to the needs of their students. In this program, mentors were assigned a group of students with whom they would meet regularly and develop a relationship. It was found that as the program grew, the school developed a more spirited climate and benefits of the program began to include improved academic scores and fewer discipline problems (Hood, 1992).

The concept that schools must do more to provide a nurturing environment in the place of the home was reflected in the work of Edwards (1995). The onus was not on restructuring the school, rather it was stated that classroom teachers must take on this additional responsibility in order to respond to the needs of their students. Kester (1994) supported the concept that student-teacher relationships are an essential aspect of building a strong school community and that many of the problems faced by the public school system could be traced to the relationships teachers have with their students, rather than the method they use to teach. Edwards (1995) argued that teachers must play a significant role in assisting students who have been alienated by their peers. It was stated that in order for teachers to be successful in assisting students with their needs, schools must first provide an atmosphere, which helps teachers achieve a greater sense of belonging. Edwards (1995) stated "teachers who feel a sense of belonging are more apt to model characteristics consistent with belonging and, in turn act in concert with the counselor to promote personal, social, and academic growth" (p.197). It was believed that if the teachers enjoyed their place of work, then those feelings would eventually be reflected in the attitudes of their students. It was suggested that schools should initiate activities to promote greater interaction among the teaching staff.

Albert (1991) outlined a framework to assist classroom teachers in promoting a greater sense of belonging among their students. The idea was to help students connect with each other and with the teacher. It was suggested that teachers incorporate group work into their lessons to allow students to interact with one another and learn more about their classmates. The concept was that students would hopefully find that they may have similar interests and that they may have things in common. Students would thereby

be less likely to ignore or isolate certain members of their class. Once students have developed a greater bond with one another, the teacher must then focus on making each student feel more capable in the classroom. It was stated that the classroom teacher might have to modify assignments in order to allow each student to experience success. The teacher then had the task of ensuring that each student feel as though they are an important part of the classroom community by greeting each student personally or having a brief informal conversation during the course of each day.

School structure has been found to have an impact on the sense of belonging of students by creating an environment that is large and impersonal. Newmann (1981) stressed that schools need to be restructured in order to prevent students from feeling alienated and thereby promote greater participation in the learning process. High schools have traditionally been organized according to departments and students generally have different teachers for each period of their school day. Arhar and Kromrey (1993) argued that this system of organization has inhibited students from establishing a bond with their teachers and other students. Goodman (1992) stated that teachers and students who maintain formal and superficial relationships create a society of strangers within the school. According to McPartland (1992), although it was found that departmentalized schools did have a negative effect on the teacher-student relationships, it was also discovered that many students actually benefited academically from the system of organization. Further examination found that this was only the case in high socioeconomic schools.

It was suggested that schools organize themselves into interdisciplinary teams to allow students to establish deeper relationships with their teachers and classmates

(Alexander & George, 1981; Arhar, 1992; Epstein & Mac Iver, 1990; George & Oldaker, 1986; Johnston & Markle, 1986; Merenbloom, 1986). Arhar and Kromrey (1993) outlined the organizational structure for the interdisciplinary teams, stating that each team should consist of groups of four teachers and approximately one hundred students for a period of at least one year. Arhar and Kromrey (1993) argued that a sense of belonging is easier to achieve when schools have smaller organizational arrangements, which allow students and teachers to build a stronger bond and enhance the student's confidence to participate in both classroom and school activities, thus helping them to establish a greater connectedness to the school. Interdisciplinary teaming was found to have its greatest impact on teacher-student relationships in low socioeconomic schools, but it did not impact all schools.

D. Level of Self-Esteem:

Verkuyten (1988) argued that there is a difference between self-esteem and self-image in that "self-image refers to the knowledge a person has of him/herself, and as such is the cognitive side of the self-concept....Thus, a person can describe himself as a boy, a pupil, good at sports, black, and 16 years of age" (p.866). Groves and Hines (1989) defined self-esteem, as "the evaluation one makes of oneself, is a dimension of self-concept which positively or negatively affects personal growth, social interactions, and the academic success of students" (as cited in Williams & McCollester, 1990, p.1). Verkuyten (1988) stated that self-esteem is influenced by factors other than the judgment of others. Rosenberg (1979) argued that people evaluate their self-worth by comparing themselves to others. According to Sarokan (1986) the "self-esteem of students is a very complex construct that may be affected by many factors or combinations of factors"

(p.3). Self-esteem has become an important issue in educational research because of its impact on the personal and academic success of the students. This idea has been reflected in the fact that many assessment programs now include the improvement of student self-esteem as a goal to be measured and improved upon (Sarokon, 1986).

Research has shown that the level of self-esteem among adolescents is impacted greatly by the relationships forged within a social context. A major factor in the development of positive student self-esteem is the relationship between parents and their children. Walker and Green (1986) have concluded, "The relationship with one's parents is posited as particularly important to self-esteem. Indeed, several empirical investigations indicated that parental support, encouragement, and affection are positively related to the child's self-esteem" (p.315). Although adolescence has generally been viewed as a period whereby individuals seek greater autonomy from their parents and family, research has shown that the relationships between adolescents and their parents are a significant predictor of self-esteem from early to late adolescence (Walker & Greene, 1986). It was found that although adolescents became less dependent upon their parents as they grew older, the impact that these relationships had on their self-esteem did not diminish.

Another factor in the development of student self-esteem is the peer relationships students forge during their adolescent years. According to Walker and Greene (1986) research has proven that the quality of the relationships which students had with their peers was a significant predictor of their level of self-esteem and that social relationships were important to the development of positive self-esteem in adolescence. Research has shown that although peer relationships were significant during adolescence, they were

only found to be a factor in the level of female self-esteem. O'Donnell (1976) supported these findings and reported that peer relationships were only a significant predictor of self-esteem in the case of adolescent girls. A number of ideas have been postulated to help explain why peer relationships were significant in the case of females and not males. Burke and Weir (1978) believed that this was explained by the fact that girls are closer to a larger number of friends than boys during adolescence. Another theory stated that the interpersonal skills of girls mature more rapidly than boys and they are able to develop a meaningful relationship with their peers (Douvan & Gold, 1966). It was reported that a significant predictor of self-esteem in adolescent males was their personal evaluation of school performance, rather than issues concerning popularity or peer relationships (Walker & Greene, 1986).

Many recent studies regarding self-esteem have focused on the relationship between school achievements and the self-concept of elementary and secondary school students. It was found that self-esteem was a predictor of academic achievement (Schnee, 1972; Unsworth, 1990) and that there is a significant relationship between the self concept and academic achievement (Purkey, 1970). Sarokan (1986) argued, "one of the most significant by-products of improved student self-esteem seems to be improved academic achievement" (p.1). Frerichs (1971) in his study of inner-city elementary children concluded that although there was no connection between I.Q. levels and self-esteem, there was evidence of a relationship between teacher assigned marks and self-esteem. Jones and Grieneeks (1970) supported these findings and argued that self-concept of ability was a better predictor of achievement than scholastic aptitude.

According to Jones (1973) children who reported high levels of self-esteem were more likely to attribute their success to their own ability, in relation to children of low self-esteem who were more likely to attribute their failure to lack of ability. Fielstein, Klein Fischer, Hanan, Koburger, Schneider, & Leitenberg (1985) stated that,

Children of low self-esteem are, indeed, more cognitively predisposed to dismiss the personal relevance of success, while at the same time they are more likely to blame their failures on personal inadequacies, they are trapped in a vicious self-fulfilling cycle; actual success would not alter their self-view very much, whereas actual failure would strongly reinforce it.

(p.382)

Other researchers have attempted to reproduce these findings, but they have had only partial success. In a study by Piers (1977), it was found that the high self-esteem children were more likely than the low self-esteem children to attribute success on an Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire to their own ability, but there was no difference between children in both groups who did poorly on the questionnaire.

Research conducted by Felker and Thomas (1971) partially supported the findings of Jones (1973) in that children with low self-esteem were more likely to attribute failure to their own personal attributes, yet this was only the case in the male subjects used in the study. Fielstein et al. (1985) attempted to support the idea that high and low self-esteem children differ in how they attribute both success and failure. The study was extended beyond academic assessment, as was the case in each of the other studies mentioned. The researchers included social and athletic situations to assess whether there were differences between the high and low self-esteem children. It was found that low self-

esteem children were more likely to attribute their success to factors such as good luck, rather than ability. This group was also more likely to attribute their failure on lack of ability. The opposite was found when focusing on the high self-esteem children, which took credit for their success and blamed bad luck or lack of effort on their failures.

Faunce (1984) was concerned with the role that social status played in the development of student self-esteem. The basic premise of the study was that a student's social status within a high school was less important than being reminded of that status by one's peers. Self-investment is a term, which described the value an individual places on an activity such as athletics, or academics. Some students were found to place greater value on how they perform on the basketball court, while others were more concerned with their performance on a math test. If academics were of high value to an individual, then a student who performed poorly in school would receive negative evaluation by comparing their marks to others in their school, which would impact the level of self-esteem of that student. Research by Brookover, Erickson, and Joiner (1967) demonstrated that the relationship between the perceived judgment of others and self-esteem became increasingly important as students advanced into the senior level grades. Frequent negative evaluation was found to increase the need for self-esteem and Faunce (1984) argued,

There are undoubtedly people who suffer persistent deprivation of self-esteem needs that are generated by an inability to meet the performance expectations of the people with whom they associate. The second, and probably more common outcome is a withdrawal of self-investment, a type of coping response to which we are likely to resort when all else fails

(p.5)

Research by Faunce (1984) proved that low status students coped with the negative evaluation by withdrawing their self-investment in this activity. When asked how they would feel if they were rated as a low status student by their classmates, only 13% of the low status students responded that they would suffer a loss of self-esteem. The high status students were found to suffer the greatest amount with respect to a loss of self-esteem, especially if the negative evaluations were recurring and involved people with the person most often associates.

One branch of research in the area of self-esteem focused on the role of ethnicity among students and how it affected their self-concept. Grobe, Knecht, and Burns (1978) reported that research in the field has been mixed. Although numerous studies have associated higher levels of self-concept among students of Anglo descent as opposed to other minority groups, more recent studies have proven that there were no significant differences between students of different ethnic origins. It was found that some of the studies discussed in their review of literature did not account for variables such as age, gender, socioeconomic status, and achievement, which could have impacted the results.

According to Verkuyten (1988) it would be understandable for immigrants to have reduced self-confidence and lower sense of self-esteem, due to the negative reaction they receive in society. Gordon (1969) argued that,

A member of a disparaged and discriminated against social category is likely to internalize the meanings appended to the cultural stereotypes and to the social realities of the way he is treated, and thus come to conceive of himself in cognitive and evaluative terms very similar to the discrediting accorded to his

group by the society's majority

(p.39)

Although it would be reasonable to assume that immigrant children would suffer from low self-esteem, research has consistently proven that this was not the case. Wylie (1979) argued that research in the United States has shown that black adolescents did not suffer from low self-esteem as was previously believed. Burns (1982) and Verkuyten (1986) have reported similar findings in England and the Netherlands respectively.

Rosenberg (1979) developed a number of theories to help explain the findings outlined above: (1) It was argued that immigrants may not be fully aware of how society judges them, because they may have limited contact with others in society (2) Even if immigrants were aware of how they were viewed in society, it is unknown whether they would agree with the judgments made about them (3) It is unknown whether immigrants would internalize these judgments or assume that they did not apply to them (4) Do immigrants attach any value to these judgments, or do they solely concern themselves with how others within their own ethnic group view them. Based on the theories outlined above, Verkuyten (1988) wanted to find out if the self-esteem of adolescent immigrants was derived from the perceptions of others within society, or from members of their own ethnic group (e.g. family members). It was found that adolescent immigrants did focus more on the perceived judgments of family members as opposed to others in society, whereas the self-esteem of native Dutch adolescents surveyed was most heavily correlated to the perceived judgments of peers and teachers. In the case of the adolescent immigrants, it was stated, "human beings are not passive when receiving judgments from outside. They observe and interpret selectively and choose (to a certain degree) those

whose judgment they consider important” (Verkuyten, 1988, p.869). It was noted that although the perceived judgments peers and teachers were not statistically significant, they still need to be viewed as important in the development of the self-esteem of ethnic minority adolescents.

In a study conducted by Grobe et al. (1978) the effects of age, gender, socioeconomic status, and achievement variables were accounted for by having equal representation of gender, ethnicity, and grade levels among the subjects selected for the study. Each of the subjects selected, possessed limited reading ability and came from low socioeconomic backgrounds. The research indicated that self-esteem was fairly stable with respect to ethnicity (African American, Mexican American, and Anglo) and grade level. Hodgkins and Stakenas (1969) concluded that self-esteem differences among African-American and Caucasian adolescents disappeared when differences in socioeconomic status were controlled. It was suggested that self-esteem does not differ among ethnic groups and that low socioeconomic status is the stronger predictor of negative self-esteem. There was a statistically significant difference reported among male and female respondents. These findings were similar to those found by DeBlaisie and Healy (1970) which reported that the mean self-esteem of low achieving, low socioeconomic status males was significantly higher than that for similar females. Although the study failed to provide evidence of a relationship between ethnicity and self-esteem, it was suggested that gender was a more important variable in determining levels of self-esteem among secondary school students, which supported the need for a greater level of research in this field.

Studies that have focused on the psychological effects of sports participation have shown that male athletes derived positive short-term and long-term effects with regard to their level of self-esteem (Pascarella & Smart, 1991; Spreitzer, 1994; Vilhjamsson & Thorlindsson, 1992). Although few studies have focused on the effect that physical involvement has on the self-esteem of female athletes (Lirgg, 1992), some researchers have argued that athletic activities provide for social networks, the concept of teamwork, and character development for men and women alike (Schultz & Fish, 1998; Weiss & Bredemeire, 1983). Researchers have discovered that athletic involvement can result in higher levels of self-esteem among both adolescent males and females (Rao & Overman, 1986; Taylor, 1995; Wilkins, Boland, & Albinson, 1991), but it was noted that participation in sports has been proven to be a weak predictor of global self-esteem (Jackson & Marsh, 1986; Marsh & Jackson, 1986; Spreitzer, 1994).

Jaffee and Manzer (1992) reported that participation in athletic activity among young women decreased once they reached their adolescence. Fitness Canada and the Fitness and Amateur Sport Canada Women's Programme (1988) reported that feminine stereotypes and lack of encouragement explained why participation in athletics began to decrease among young girls by the age of six (as cited in Jaffee & Manzer, 1992). These findings coincided with evidence of a decline in the level of self-esteem among adolescent girls. Although it had also been found that adolescent males experienced a decline in the level of self-esteem, the decline observed among females was more severe. Research conducted by the Youth Sports Institute of Michigan in affiliation with the Athletic Footwear Association (1991) argued that both boys and girls listed improved self-confidence and self-esteem as potential benefits to physical activity (as cited in

Jaffee & Manzer, 1992). In a study conducted by Holland and Andre (1994), it was found that both male and female athletes benefited from higher levels of self-esteem than students who did not participate in extracurricular athletics. These findings were consistent regardless of whether the students participated in sex-appropriate or sex-inappropriate sports. These studies highlighted the concern that decreased participation in extracurricular athletics would eventually be reflected in the emotional well being and self-esteem of adolescent girls.

In the first phase of the study directed by Jaffee and Manzer (1992) pre-adolescent females aged 9-12 were organized in different focus groups. Each of the subjects was required to complete a questionnaire, which dealt with the level of physical activity and self-esteem of the subjects. The girls were also engaged in a discussion period within their focus group. The discussions were taped and the information was included in the study. It was concluded that all of the girls who participated in the study exercised regularly, contradicting other studies, which reported a decrease in physical activity as girls advanced through their adolescence. The study also revealed that higher levels of self-esteem were found among the girls who devoted more time to physical activity. The relationship between self-esteem and physical activity was described as strong for this age group.

In the second phase of the study conducted by Jaffee and Ricker (1993) adolescent females aged 12-17 was the focus of this research to prove whether the findings from the first phase of the study related to the older age group. The questionnaire and focus group format of the first phase of the study was repeated for the older cohort with only minor modifications being documented. The evidence showed

that 80 percent described themselves as physically active, as compared to 100 percent of the girls from the first phase of the study. These figures were still found to be much higher than those reported in other studies. The level of self-esteem of the girls who participated in the study was also found to be higher than figures reported in other studies. Although much higher, these figures did reflect the trend found in other research in that the level of self-esteem decreased as the girls advanced through high school. As with the younger girls, the second phase of the study proved that a relationship did exist between participation in extracurricular athletics and self-esteem. This evidence was supported by discussions with the older girls within their focus groups.

Richman and Shaffer (2000) were concerned with the relationship between the level of self-esteem of college-aged females and prior participation in high school athletics. They discovered that the impact of athletic involvement in high school on the self-esteem of college-aged females was not significant. Although athletic involvement was often found to have a positive impact on the girl's perceptions of physical competence, it could also have a negative impact if the girls realized that they were not physically competent. Athletic competition has traditionally been the domain of males, and females who participate in sports have been open to criticism and labeled as unfeminine. Athletic participation for females has not been encouraged or reinforced for females to the extent that it is for males (Desertrain & Weiss, 1988; Goldberg & Chandler, 1991; Jackson & Marsh, 1986). Changes in legislation in the United States have forced schools to provide men and women with an equal opportunity to participate in sports (Zeisner, 1991). The benefits of female participation in athletic competition are

minimized by the fact that girls have to deal with the additional burden of being labeled as unfeminine.

Research has been mixed as to whether extracurricular activities had a positive effect on self-esteem. Pangrazi (1982) stated that physical activities offer students an environment to assist them in developing a positive self-concept. Morgan (1981) hypothesized that students, who exhibited a high level of self-esteem, would have a higher rate of participation in extracurricular activities, yet it was found that high self-esteem students showed no greater involvement in extracurricular activities than students of low self-esteem. This was contradictory to research by Rosenberg (1965) and Yarworth and Gauthier (1978) which argued that self-esteem was a predictor of participation in extracurricular activities and that students which showed positive self-esteem were the most likely to participate in extracurricular activities. Research conducted by Snyder and Kivlin (1975) found that athletes had a more positive self-image than non-athletes. Kalliopuska (1987) focused on athletics in her study and found that there was an "evident influence on mental health and self-image. Sports and exercise affect one's self-concept, self-esteem and self-appraisal" (p.4). In a later study, Kalliopuska (1989) determined that the benefits of participating in ballet included significantly higher self-esteem and self-regard than normal school students of the same age. Sander (1981) argued that with regard to self-esteem, it was unimportant whether students achieved success in athletic competition and that positive coaching styles had a more profound impact on student self-esteem than the success that the student experienced in competition. Hines and Groves (1989) supported these findings and

reported that the coach's assessment of a young athlete's ability has an impact on the self-esteem of that individual.

The National Youth Sports Coaches Association (1985) reported that there were approximately 25 million children in the United States participating in youth sport leagues (as cited in Hines & Groves, 1989). Researchers have been concerned about the level of competition in these youth leagues and how it impacted upon the self-esteem of adolescent children (Bird & Cripe, 1986; Iso-Ahola, 1986). In a study conducted by Gill, Gross, and Huddleston (1983) it was discovered that the main reasons for participating in sports were to have fun, become physically fit, improve skills, and learn new skills. According to Sapp and Haubenstricker (1978), stress reduction and achievement were also reasons for students to become involved in sports, with achievement being more important in males surveyed than the females. This was evidenced in the studies by both Coopersmith (1967) and Read (1968) stating that males who experienced success in athletics tended to enjoy higher levels of self-esteem, than those who usually experienced losing.

Some researchers focused on the role of drama in developing a positive self-esteem in students. Regan (1983) reported that participation in drama as an extracurricular activity promoted the self-esteem of students. According to Mazzarella (1978), the self-esteem of students surveyed improved after participating in the production of their school play. Williams and McCollester (1990) hypothesized that participation in an extracurricular drama club would produce a positive change in students. The subjects used in this study were elementary level students and they met several times during the year to practice. The members were made to wear uniforms,

recite a drama club creed, and participate in guided projects. The results of the study proved that there was a relationship between participation in the drama club and the self-esteem of the students. The drama club was found to be an effective method of developing a greater level of self-esteem among elementary level children. Brandt (1990) supported these findings and suggested that involvement in this sort of activity was key to the development of a healthy self-esteem. These findings were contradictory to the results of a study conducted by Conard and Asher (2000). Their study involved elementary level students and it was found that creative drama had no effect on self-esteem.

The relationship between the level of self-esteem and an extracurricular arts program was the focus of a study by Linder (1981). Coopersmith (1967) had conducted a similar study and reported a high level of self-esteem for the students enrolled in the arts program. The Linder (1981) study included both elementary and high school students and ranged from grade 7 to 12. It was found that although the tenth grade achieved the highest increase in self-esteem, there were no statistically significant increases in self-esteem across grades or between sexes. Poll (1979) reported similar findings in a study involving elementary students. It was found that students enrolled in an extracurricular dance program at their school experienced an enhanced level of self-esteem.

Sarokon (1986) argued that student self-esteem is an important issue for educational researchers and that school administrators have a role to play within each school to help deal with those suffering from low self-esteem. It was stated that each school must take the necessary steps to ensure the facilitation of proper channels of communication within the school. It was also suggested that administrators encourage

students to become involved in the extracurricular activities offered within the school, especially participation in drama and music productions. School administrators were further advised to monitor the coaching staff to eliminate any negative coaching styles and nurture more positive player-coach relationships. Student achievements needed to be recognized and school administrators needed to make a concerted effort to use all available resources to recognize any student accomplishments. Zerges (1977) further argued that teacher training was also needed to help educators deal with students in positive ways (as cited in Sarokon, 1986).

E. Risk of Student Dropout:

LeCompte (1987) focused on the history and evolution of public education in North America in order to help explain the growing problem of student dropouts plaguing school systems in Canada and the United States. Publicly funded education developed with the birth of the Industrial Revolution, as industrialists realized the need for basic literacy skills among the members of their workforce. Schools served an important purpose in that they kept children off the street and prevented them from competing with adults for jobs in the industrial sector. It was argued that as attendance became mandatory and the labour market began to evolve, educational attainment slowly became associated with employment. The decade of the 1950s was witness to a segregated system of schooling in that the emergence of automobiles and highways allowed middle-income families to move to the suburbs. Any students who were unmotivated to learn or disruptive in class usually dropped out of school and could easily be absorbed into the labour market. Women were persuaded to remain at home and raise the children as the

men supported their families financially. This provided a stable family unit for children raised during this era.

Societal changes over the last half of the Twentieth Century have been reflected in the changes to public education. Research has shown that the majority of mothers now work outside of the home to assist with the financial needs of their families. According to LeCompte (1987), an increasing number of women entering the workforce have meant that “dropout prevention programs whose success is predicated upon increased parental involvement must face the reality that parents have less time available for their children” (p.243). It was found that many students work part-time and attend school, thereby having less time bond with classmates and participate in extracurricular activities. Schools were no longer central to the lives of the students and their capacity to maintain students until graduation has diminished. The size of schools has also been affected as population pressures have forced schools to continually increase the number of students they enroll. Tinto (1975) and Hess (1986) argued that the dropout rates are higher in larger schools and they believed that this was due increased alienation and fewer opportunities to participate in extracurricular activities. LeCompte (1987) argued that schools have been unsuccessful in decreasing the rate of student dropout because they have been slow to adapt to the changes which have taken place in society over the last few decades. Schools have been attempting to correct current issues such as student attrition with the mindset of how schools operated decades ago.

There have been numerous studies centered on students who have dropped out of school before they earned their diploma. Some studies pertaining to student retention have highlighted the problems associated with student dropouts and have found

that it had an impact on both the individual and the rest of society. Students who decided to drop out of school faced many challenges, which were not present in the first half of the Twentieth Century. LeCompte (1987) reported

Prior to the 1950s, this was not a serious problem; in general, employment at least at some level required cognitive skill levels no higher than those acquired in eight or nine years of schooling. Military service, the agricultural sector, and a labor-intensive economy could absorb those who did not finish high school.

(p.232)

As Elliott and Voss (1974) and Marchesi (1998) argued, technological changes reduced the number of jobs available to individuals who decided to dropout of school before they earned their high school diploma. This began to occur as unskilled jobs were eliminated and other jobs began to require a high school diploma. Bachman, O'Malley, and Johnston (1978) emphasized that individuals that failed to graduate were twice as likely, as those who earned a high school diploma, to be unemployed. Access to high-income jobs was facilitated by level of education and when an individual's educational attainment was limited, this led to occupations associated with low-status and low economic income.

A high school diploma became a minimum requirement for many jobs as society progressed through the twentieth century. Many jobs now required a post-secondary education and those individuals who decided to leave school before attaining their high school diploma did not possess the skills necessary to compete. Steinmiller and Steinmiller (1991) argued,

A high school diploma is often an entry level requirement for many employment

opportunities. Graduation is a stepping stone for many advanced educational opportunities such as community or junior college, four-year colleges and universities, as well as technical or vocational schools. Most job advancement is tied to educational minimums. A person might land a manual labor job without a high school degree, but will be hindered in advancement beyond that low level job. Usually this is often at a wage which is barely livable.

(p.1)

In the United States, one out of every four students has failed to master the basic skills for becoming a productive citizen (Hodge, 1991). Studies have shown that there are numerous factors to account for the high number of students across North America who leave school early. Many of these cases could have been prevented and these individuals could have been spared the economic and societal problems that accompany school dropouts through programs aimed at retaining at-risk students.

It was noted that there was a relationship between dropout rates and delinquency. Some students that dropped out of school became frustrated with the limited opportunities available to them to improve their economic position. Some of these individuals turned to delinquent means of achieving this goal (Elliott & Voss, 1974). It has resulted in higher rates of alcoholism, dependence on welfare, conflict with the law, imprisonment, and suicide (Neufeld & Stevens, 1992). In a study that looked at the impact of student attrition on the general well being of communities, Alspaugh (1998) argued that there was a relationship between the two variables with respect to unemployment, family income, and crime rates. According to Steinmiller and Steinmiller (1991), students who failed to graduate were "at risk of not being able to thrive as

productive citizens. Persons who do not finish high school are heavily represented in our prisons and our welfare roles" (p.1). When examining the percentage of dropouts within a community, it was found that there was a significant increase in the rate of unemployment when the number of student dropouts increased. When the percentage of student dropouts was correlated with family income, the research showed that the higher the level of education, the greater the level of income. Similar results were discovered when the relationship between student dropouts and crime rates were examined. As the percentage of dropouts in the community increased, there was a significant increase in the number of serious crimes committed. The evidence illustrated that student attrition had a significant influence on the quality of life within a community.

As outlined above, the societal problems associated with student dropouts were significant and demanded further study. Researchers have worked to establish factors, which have been used to identify students at risk of dropping out. A major problem for these researchers was that no standard definition for at risk students existed (Hodge, 1991). According to LeCompte and Goebel (1987),

Districts may count as dropouts students who transfer to another district; who join the military; go to prison; or enter business, trade, or vocational institutes; or who are sufficiently talented to skip their junior year and enter college. Most districts categorize as dropouts students who leave school before graduation but who successfully pass a high school equivalency examination. Still another category consists of involuntary dropouts, or students who have been suspended or expelled from school for disciplinary reasons. To the extent that these students are counted as dropouts, the percentage of early school-leavers is inflated.

(p.252)

LeCompte and Goebel (1987) stated that it is difficult trying to determine the scope of the problem because the dropout population depends largely upon on how they are defined. A standard definition has never been established and definitions have therefore varied across school systems.

Levin (1985), identified at-risk students as individuals who are “educationally disadvantaged, who lack the home and community support and resources necessary to benefit from conventional and traditional instruction” (as cited in Hodge, 1991, p.5). Levin (1985) believed that both family background and academic achievement played a role in whether students decided to remain in school (as cited in Hodge, 1991). Bishopp (1987), defined them as:

Gray students generally get lost in the system, even though they leave a trail a mile wide: poor grades, poor attendance, poor self-image, poor attitude. They don't get involved with school activities, and they have few friends, In general, they just don't belong. At best, they're unmotivated or underachieving; at worst, they create serious discipline problems. As soon as they can, they drop out of school.

(p.116)

Bishopp (1987) focused on social factors in describing students at-risk and highlighted the fact that these students had a negative self-concept and lacked a sense of belonging to their school community. McCormick (1989), was more specific in his definition which included key variables such as: (a) academic performance in reading and mathematics on or more years below grade level, as indicated by standardized test scores; (b) parental

responsibilities; (c) individual and/or family problems such as drugs or alcohol abuse; (d) traumatic experiences such as separation, divorce, or unemployment of parents; (e) emotional disturbances or physical illness; and (f) low economic status. A universal definition was needed to identify students at-risk and take proactive measures to ensure that they complete their high school education. A standard definition has proved difficult because of the multitude of factors, which have been associated with school dropouts.

Watson (1975) reported that the problems associated with student attrition were magnified by the fact that in the Province of Ontario, approximately 8.1% of students dropped out of school during the academic year 1974-75, which represented approximately 48,000 students. Of those students that dropped out of school, 39.2% had a C average or higher making it possible for them to have graduated. The majority of dropouts spoke English fluently, had Canadian born parents and lived at home with their parents. In terms of the level of education of their parents, it was found that 64.8% of the fathers and 58.7% of the mothers had a grade ten level of education or lower. It was also found that a majority of the students came from very poor households where 63.2% had an annual income below the median level. Family size was also measured and it was found that the average number of siblings was 4.3 among the school dropouts, compared to 3.6 for the rest of the province. When asked why they decided to drop out of school, 39.4% answered that they left so that they could start working and earning money.

Researchers have attempted to profile students, who were at risk of leaving school early in an attempt to help both educators and administrators target students who embodied these characteristics. This was done in the hope of intervening before students

decided to withdraw from school. Beekman (1988) surveyed students who had dropped out of school and found that the main reasons for their decision to leave school early included a lack of interest in school, a need to earn money, pregnancy, and marriage. According to Neufeld (1992), students who were at risk included a wide range of backgrounds and personal characteristics. These students came from socially and economically deprived backgrounds, many had difficulty with academics, and some required special education services. Beer and Beer (1992) stated that there are wide range of factors that may identify a student at risk, including disciplinary problems, victims of physical or sexual abuse, health problems, substance abuse, high absenteeism, grade retention, and pregnancy. According to Levin (1990), the dropouts were usually male, belonged to a certain minority group, came from a large family, and their parents were found to have had a low level of education and income. These students had poor academic achievement and most were enrolled in non-academic courses. It was common for them to be retained at least one grade. The majority were described as having low educational aspirations.

Some researchers focused specifically on the rate of student dropout among ethnic minority groups. These studies proved that the problem of student retention is especially severe among some ethnic groups such as African Canadians/Americans and Hispanics. In a survey conducted by the National Commission on Secondary Education for Hispanics (1984), it was found that dropout rates among hispanic students reached as high as 80 percent in some American cities (as cited in Phelan, 1986). Although the dropout rates for African Americans and Caucasians has been decreasing over the last few decades, the rate of dropout for Hispanic students continued to be a major concern

(Montecel, Supik, & Cardenas, 1994). Catterall (1986) reported that dropout rates among Hispanics exceeded 25 percent and approximately 20 percent for Black students in comparison to White students whose dropout rate was approximately 14 percent. These findings were related to research, which attempted to associate low economic status with dropout rates. Hahn (1987) confirmed this statement by reporting that at-risk students do come disadvantaged backgrounds. Many of the ethnic minority groups studied occupied low economic status in society. What remained to be seen was whether cultural norms affected student retention, namely whether ethnicity actually served as a predictor for student dropout. Pallas (1984) argued that Blacks and Hispanics were found to drop out less frequently than Whites when socioeconomic factors were controlled. This research proved that ethnicity was not necessarily a predictor of whether students were at-risk for dropping out. Many Black and Hispanic students belonged to poor households, which proved to be a more powerful predictor of student dropouts.

Research has shown that ethnicity may have been an important factor in determining whether students are at-risk of dropping out with respect to English proficiency. In a survey conducted by Steinberg, Blinde, and Chan (1984) it was discussed that 18 percent of students with a non-English speaking background and nearly 40 percent of students whose primary language is not English eventually dropped out. Students who were unable to speak English would have been at an obvious disadvantage both academically and socially. Even the most conscientious student would have experienced frustration in dealing with the academic demands of an English speaking school. Socially, these students would have experienced difficulty trying to establish

peer relationships with fellow students who came from a different ethnic background and spoke a different language.

Inner-city schools have been prone to a number of problems, which include substance abuse, domestic violence, poverty etc., due to the socioeconomic background of their students. A popular misconception has been to associate the problem of student dropouts exclusively with inner-city schools. Research has proven that although inner-city schools were forced to deal with this problem, suburban and rural institutions have also had to share in the burden of trying to prevent students from dropping out of school. Hodges (1993) argued that teachers in "rural areas know that there are students here, too, who are at risk of dropping out, of failing, of falling into drug and alcohol abuse. Add to that limited time and resources of faculty and staff, and rural schools are faced with the at-risk student problem just as urban areas are" (p.3). Hodges (1993) wanted to dispel the myth that at-risk students were found solely in inner-city regions by citing evidence that 40 percent of the at-risk population live in urban areas, while 60 percent are found in both rural and suburban regions across the United States. Hodges (1993) argued that rural areas were often plagued with high rates of student dropouts because parents in rural settings often have to drive long distances to and from work, leaving children unsupervised during the evening. Many students in rural settings belonged to low income families as rural areas provided a lower cost of living. While inner city and suburban schools experienced similar challenges, rural schools were forced to deal with these problems with fewer counselors and social services.

Wylie and Hunter (1994) and Janosz et al., (1997) argued that at risk students could be identified according to their academic ability, personal characteristics, and

social characteristics. Students at risk proved to have lower I.Q. scores, a lower grade average, high absenteeism, and discipline problems with respect to their academic ability. In terms of their personal characteristics, they were found to be older than their peers, members of ethnic minorities, and they were predominantly male. With respect to their social characteristics, they came from a low socioeconomic background, had peers that were at risk of dropping out, and were uninterested in participating in school activities.

Some researchers wanted to determine whether family or school factors were best in predicting which students were at risk. Previous studies aimed at determining which predictors were most powerful in targeting at risk students differed in their results. Some researchers have found that family supervision and support had an effect on school achievement and problem behaviour, which in turn were the best predictors of school dropouts (Astone & McLanahan, 1991; Fagon & Pabon, 1990; McCombs & Forehand, 1989; Rumberger, 1983; Rumberger, Ghatak, Poulos, Ritter, & Dornbush, 1990; Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989). Eckstrom, Goertz, Pollack, and Rock (1986), reported that:

Dropouts in the High School and Beyond sample claim to spend less time at home discussing their experiences with their parents and that parents of dropouts spend less time monitoring their children's activities both in and out of school.

These studies also suggest that independent of social class, coming from a one-parent household is associated with premature school leaving, and that kids from large families drop out more often. Such findings suggest that the intensity of family interest and involvement in schooling is important for school achievement,

commitment, and completion, and that actual supportive circumstances within families may be better predictors of school outcomes than SES alone.

(as cited in Catterall, 1986, p.16)

The research proved that parents needed to serve as educational role models for their children. In a study by Rumberger (1983), he observed that even the inclusion of books and other educational materials around a home led to a higher degree of school completion. Further research found that socioeconomic status proved to be the best predictor (Astone & McLanahan, 1991; Bachman, Green, & Wirtanen, 1971; Cairns, Cairns, & Neckerman, 1989; Elliot & Voss, 1974; Fagon & Pabon, 1990; Rumberger, 1983; Steinberg et al., 1984). According to Combs and Cooley (1968), it was “found that more than half of both male and female dropouts ranked in the lowest socioeconomic quartile. In this survey fewer than a fourth of male dropouts and a fifth of female dropouts hailed from the upper half of the SES distribution” (as cited in Catterall, 1986, p.14). Eckstrom et al. (1986), observed that “dropout rates between the sophomore and senior years in the recent High School and Beyond survey were more than 25 percent for low SES youngsters, about 13 percent for those in the middle, and less than 8 percent for high SES subjects” (as cited in Catterall, 1986, p.15). Upon examination of each of the predictors, it was found that family background proved to be a powerful predictor of school dropout and the statistics provided in the various studies illustrated a relationship between the two variables.

Despite the findings outlined above, the study by Janosz et al. (1997) concluded that school factors proved to be slightly more effective in predicting student dropout than family factors. Cook and Alexander (1980) determined that socioeconomic status is the

strongest factor affecting student retention in lower grade levels. Academic performance becomes a better predictor at higher grade levels. Of the predictors studied, grade retention, school grades, commitment to school, socioeconomic status, and parent's level of education were the best predictors of school dropout.

According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (1986), "twenty five percent of those scoring in the lowest composite score quartile left school between their sophomore and senior year. Dropout rates improved to 15.3 percent, 8.6 percent, and 3.7 percent for students in successively higher test performance quartiles" (as cited in Catterall, 1985, p.17). Bachman et al. (1971) reported that approximately half of the subjects studied with a D average eventually dropped out of school, whereas only 2 percent of students holding an A average did not complete their high school education. The National Center for Education Statistics (1985) had similar findings in their report which outlined that 42.5 percent of students sampled holding a D average eventually dropped out, in comparison to only 2.9 percent of students holding an A average. These findings proved that there was a strong relationship between school grades and school completion (as cited in Catterall, 1985). Steinberg et al. (1984), argued that aptitude or I.Q. have been proven in many research studies to be a significant indicator of student retention which further emphasized the importance of academic performance.

Determining the importance of school dropout predictors was an important aspect of research in this field, because it was necessary to design prevention programs. The study suggested that secondary schools would be able to target at risk students by preparing a questionnaire, which focused on grade retention, school achievement, and school commitment.

Grade retention is a factor that appeared in numerous studies that focused on the problem of student dropouts. Grissom and Shepard (1989) proved that retention is a factor affecting student dropouts in both high and low socio-economic groups. Students required to repeat a primary grade level, were found to be at risk of dropping out of school later on in their educational careers. Bachman et al. (1971) reported that over 50 percent of the students studied in their Youth in Transition Survey were retained at least one time before the tenth grade. Grade retention has been proven to be harmful to the self-esteem of students and worse yet it has been proven to be a predictor of future student dropout.

Researchers have made efforts to determine the factors responsible for the population of at risk students enrolled in schools across North America. Theories have been devised to assist researchers in understanding the underlying factors of this dilemma and assist them in developing effective treatment programs to bring the problem under control. Sagor (1990) outlined the main theories espoused by educational researchers that include (a) clinical pathology, (b) developmental deficits, and (c) imperfections in school structure. The programs implemented to treat these students thereby depended on the theory embraced by each school district.

Alternative programs, which were designed to pull students out of their normal classroom and placed them in smaller class settings to assist these children with their deficiencies, were found to be even more damaging to students than grade retention. According to Baenen and Hopkins (1989) it was found that students fared better in a familiar environment, rather than being separated from their classmates for remediation to avoid being retained. Phelan (1986) argued that students placed in "remedial

instruction tracks are more likely to encounter low teacher expectations of academic success. Moreover, such tracks provide opportunities for peer friendships with negative school norms to emerge among similarly placed students” (p.5). The research explained how alternative programs with good intentions proved to be more of a detriment to students already at risk of dropping out than a benefit. These programs did not provide for positive peer role models and separated students from their peers and regular school environment. Students who lacked the necessary skills to be promoted to the next grade level benefited from remediation efforts within their normal classroom environment. Hill (1989) argued that educators must deal with “the situation when at-risk behaviours are first seen...(and that) we are waiting too long to provide help to students, or we see the futility of trying to seek help because the only alternative is a pull out remediation program like special education” (p.6). Alternative programs designed to deal with this problem have been unsuccessful, which has left educators with the task of having to identify these students from an early age and provide them with the necessary skills in order to be promoted to the next level.

Blum and Jones (1993) argued that there has been research, which proved that some student dropouts were motivated to learn and had strong relationships with their teachers and fellow students. Their motivation for dropping out of school was derived from being bored within a highly structured learning environment. They preferred to learn during the evening because they had trouble functioning in the morning. It was found that nearly half of the school dropouts in Ontario had grades of B or higher and it was estimated that nearly 40% of those students would have passed all of their courses necessary to graduate (Levin, 1990).

According to Wylie and Hunter (1994), the underlying reasons as to why students chose to drop out of school centered on pressure and boredom. The students studied divulged information about how family, sexual pressures, and peer pressures were major factors in their decision to leave. Uncertainty with respect to future employment also provided these students with external pressures. It was found that school only added to their stress and was not viewed as a solution. In terms of boredom, the students examined felt that the school curriculum was irrelevant to their lives. They could not understand the purpose of having to learn the seemingly irrelevant information. Many students were found to believe that school was unnecessary and that they could have been earning money instead of having to attend classes. These students needed to associate a high school diploma with improved economic potential. This did not always occur.

Although there has not been much research to support a relationship between work outside of school and school completion, research has shown that at-risk students placed greater value on part-time jobs than school. While a high percentage of both at-risk and stable students were found to hold part-time jobs, the at-risk students often devoted more time to their work and were more committed to their job. Eckstrom et al. (1986) stated:

More than 40 percent of High School and Beyond sophomores reported holding jobs outside of school, eventual dropouts and finishers alike. Dropouts reported working more hours and earning slightly more per hour than finishers. Two thirds of the dropouts reported finding their work more enjoyable than school, whereas just over half of the graduates reported this. Nearly a fourth of eventual dropouts

indicated their jobs to be more important than school in comparison to a tenth of the graduates.

(as cited in Catterall, 1986, p.20)

Some at-risk students were found to have additional responsibilities around the home, which included caring for younger siblings in relief of their parents. It was found that these students did not have the time to devote to their education, which eventually suffered. Steinberg, Greenberger, Garduque, and McAuliffe (1982) believed that “when excessive amounts of time are spent working (beyond 15 hours per week), attendance, time spent doing homework, participation in extracurricular activities, and academic performance all suffer” (as cited in Catterall, 1986, p.21). Although it has been proven that work outside of school was not a predictor of school dropout, students at-risk devoted more time to their jobs, which impacted their academic performance and social integration at school. Both academic performance and social integration have been identified as predictors of school dropout in numerous studies. Catterall (1986) argued that students, who devoted too much time to their work, left no time for academic pursuits or extracurricular activities.

As stated earlier, research by Wylie and Hunter (1994) discussed how at-risk students viewed school to be irrelevant in their lives. Part-time employment provided them with tangible benefits in the form of money and many at-risk students placed work as a higher priority in their lives than school. Hodge (1991) argued that at-risk students would benefit from a program, which incorporated both employment and educational opportunities concurrently in an attempt to retain these students. The Ontario curriculum has provided for the needs of these individuals by initiating Co-op Programs where

students gained valuable work experience in a field they were interested in, and earned money while they were still in school. The Ontario Youth Apprenticeship Program allowed students to learn a skilled trade, earn hours toward the apprenticeship process, and earn money while working toward their high school diploma. The Summer Training and Educational Program discussed by Sipe (1988) was found to improve student retention by providing students with an opportunity to earn money during the summer. At-risk students chosen for the program received instruction in both basic academic skills and job related training skills. These programs provided students with an opportunity to earn money while they continue their high school education. Schools became relevant to the lives of at-risk students who normally expressed little interest in their education.

Instead of profiling individuals and attempting to target at risk students, Alspaugh (1998) focused on the schools themselves and how they were structured as a factor in student dropouts. There were four school characteristics highlighted in the study. They included school size, high school grade span, units of high school credit, and extracurricular activities. A relationship was found between the size of a school's population and the number of students who dropped out. As the school's population increased, so did the number of students that dropped out. Larger schools had higher dropout rates than smaller schools. This was attributed to the deterioration in school climate as they became larger. In terms of the grade span, schools that were structured to support grades ten to twelve experienced higher rates of student attrition. It was believed that older students had a more difficult time making the transition from an elementary school to a secondary institution. Units of high school credits were also mentioned in the study. Some schools have tried to increase student retention by offering a greater variety

of courses. As schools expanded their course offerings, the student body became more fractured and isolated. This negatively impacted the morale of the school. With respect to the effect of extracurricular activities on student dropouts, the research showed that schools that devoted a greater percentage of their budget to school related activities, experienced higher student retention.

The Government of Ontario funded a study, which focused on the problem of student dropouts in the Province. The study sought to assist Ontario high schools to stem the flow of students who decided to leave school early. The study gathered its data from six school boards from across the Province, which included approximately 95 schools in total. It was found that the annual dropout rates had risen to 15.3 percent in the academic year 1986/87 among the seven site schools used in the study. An increase of nearly five percent based on figures taken from the 1983/84 academic year (Lawton, Leithwood, Batcher, Donaldson, and Stewart, 1988). This study found that school culture was the main reason for student dropout among the site schools used in the study.

Lawton et al. (1998), found that school culture was a key ingredient in determining whether at-risk students eventually decided to dropout of school. School culture was influenced in large part by the teachers and administrators within each school and was therefore difficult to change, because it would involve changing the beliefs of school staff. The researchers found that institutions who wished to improve the culture of their school needed to examine their policies with respect to course scheduling, attendance monitoring, school order, punishments, course planning, transition to work, and streaming.

One area of school culture, which had a negative influence on the students, was the system of streaming children into different levels based on academic ability. It was found that schools,

Value a certain type of student to the exclusion, almost of others. This student is characterized by good academic and social skills, a positive and cooperative disposition. The problem in schools is to deliver a high level of service to the favoured students while minimizing the cost of and disruption created by the less-favoured.

(Lawton et al., 1988, p.10).

Streaming impacted other important areas of school culture, which included course planning, school order, punishments, and transition to work. It was found that in a streamed system, advanced level students were treated differently than general or basic level children with respect to academic standards, teaching styles and expectations, and student behaviour. General and basic level courses were viewed as being inferior to the advanced level courses and these courses focused more on controlling student behaviour than academics and curriculum. Schools who wished to improve the level of student retention needed to accommodate students at different levels of academic ability, maintain effective attendance records, devote less time to discipline and instead focus more energy on academic objectives, avoid suspending students as a means of punishment, and prepare students for direct entry into the workforce (Lawton et al., 1988). Schools, which incorporated these initiatives, were found to have a greater level of success in retaining students until graduation, by helping students to recognize that school is a worthwhile endeavor and that are valued by teachers and administrators.

Wehlage, Rutter, and Turnbaugh (1987), argued that schools must offer vocational programs within the high school setting in order to meet the need of at-risk students. Their program involved the following components: (a) administration and organization, which referred to administrators keeping class size small so that students could closely interact with their peers and teachers; (b) teacher culture, which referred to instructors dealing with each student as a whole person, with any problems that students might be experiencing in his or her home, community, or peer group; (c) student culture, which referred to students learning responsible behaviour through interaction with responsible adults, also to their learning the meaning and value of rules and expectations; (d) curriculum, which referred to designing activities that differed from those ordinarily found in high school, in that they provide for the constant feedback required by students who lack basic skills; and (e) experiential learning, which referred to at-risk students interaction socially with significant adults who exemplify the traits of responsibility and perseverance inherent in the work ethic. This program also focused on altering school culture as a means of improving student retention. Greater responsibility is again placed on teachers to adapt to the needs of at-risk students by adjusting the curriculum to fit their needs and being more receptive to their problems.

Bishopp (1987), implemented a successful program aimed at student retention which combined team teaching, flexible scheduling, cooperative activities, counseling, and a curriculum that involved guest speakers, field trips, social activities, and mini-courses designed to assist students with reading, writing, and mathematics. This program emphasized changes in school culture by adapting the curriculum. This program was unique in that it offered remedial assistance to students experiencing difficulty in basic

skills. The program provided a classroom environment, which offered experiential learning, as opposed to the rigidity of a normal school setting. Bishopp (1987), reported that students earned higher grades, displayed a more positive attitude toward both themselves and school, and expressed more of an interest in school related activities, including extracurricular activities.

Beacham (1988) decided to survey students' perceptions of how to improve schools since they had a vested interest in the system of education. It was found that students who eventually dropped out of school expressed a desire to change school policies, evaluation procedures, relations between staff and students, and guidance services. These findings were reflected in a number of other studies. Bryk and Thum (1989) found that high schools whose teachers showed interest in their students and emphasized academics had lower absenteeism and dropout rates. Bennett (1988) stated,

Schools that are good give students a respect and an interest in learning, habits, and motivation necessary for success and achievement. Few students drop out of these schools. These good schools, moreover, offer counseling and educational intervention to meet students' personal and academic needs

(as cited in Hodge, 1991, p.9).

Each of the above studies surveyed students to observe their perceptions on how schools could better adapt to the needs of its students. The research proved that teacher-student relations are important not only for motivating students to learn, but also to prevent them from dropping out of school before graduating.

Researchers have attempted to provide insight into how schools could provide a more supportive environment for students. According to Praport (1993), group

counseling proved to be an effective method of dealing with the problem of student attrition. The program included identification of at risk students at the elementary level. Once these students reached high school, they were placed in small groups that mixed potential dropouts with more stable students. This allowed at risk students to realize that other students had problems adjusting to school culture. The group would be used to provide support for those who thought about dropping out. This method of intervention provided students with an educational experience that ensured some degree of success. Wylie and Hunter (1994) argued that intervention strategies aimed at student retention needed to provide remedial assistance for students, small and structured groups, trusting relationships with their teachers, and counseling to help them cope with the difficulties they faced. Schools also needed to follow up on students who had already dropped out of school to encourage them to return.

According to Tomczyk (1995), some schools have improved their student retention through the creation of a special task force designed to deal with students who were at risk. At risk students were required to complete a questionnaire providing the school with a profile of each student. The main purpose of the task force was to make school more relevant to the student's life by providing career counseling for students at an early age. The program provided students with an opportunity to complete an internship in an area in which they would like to pursue a future career.

Marchesi (1998) believed that educational ideologies had an impact on student retention and discussed three main types of ideologies, including liberal, egalitarian, and pluralist. The liberal approach viewed education as a product to be sold to parents. Parents then chose the schools that had the greatest academic records. In this system, the

schools then selected students with the greatest possibilities for success. This particular ideology hurt students who were at risk because they were characterized as poor academic achievers. The egalitarian ideology believed that equal opportunities should be available for all students. The pluralist approach was similar to the egalitarian ideology, yet it incorporated the ideas of school autonomy, creativity within the schools, parent participation, and evaluation of schools. Based on the available research that attempted to profile at risk students, it appeared that the pluralist ideology was the best approach when dealing with the problem of student attrition. There was no data to support that view.

According to Neufeld, Chapman, and Handy (1992), school-based dropout prevention models were needed to deal with the problem of student retention. These models involved staff members that met to discuss the issue of school dropouts. Their role included determining the extent of the problem within the school, developing procedures to target students at risk, developing a plan to involve parents in their children's education, addressing the issue of student absenteeism, developing programs to help students maintain a positive self-concept, and attempting to remediate any academic difficulties on the part of the students. These were suggestions that schools could have incorporated to assist them in dealing with the issue of student retention.

Conrath (1986) outlined a list of guidelines that schools could incorporate to help students to remain in school. The researcher stated that the school must be willing to allocate sufficient funds in order to lower the student-teacher ratio and provide teachers with specially trained instructors to assist with the implementation of the new program. Schools must then target the students that are believed to be at risk and establish goals

and teaching strategies to assist these students with their unique needs. Once the goals have been outlined and the purpose of the program has been clearly established, schools must then ensure that the top teachers within the school are assigned to this task and they must be given full autonomy if the program is to succeed. It was stated that these teachers must be allowed time to plan and coordinate their efforts and devise hands-on teaching strategies to motivate these students to learn and develop higher levels of confidence, self-esteem, and responsibility in the process.

Based on a review of literature, Hodge found the following methods to be effective in dealing with at-risk secondary school students:

- (a) providing various kinds of programs that improve students' skills in reading, writing, and math, (b) creating an environment conducive to students' sense of belonging to their schools and with them sharing in the schools' decision-and policy-making procedures, (c) identifying students who do not participate in school activities and encouraging their involvement; (d) making counseling services, particular peer-counseling available and accessible, (e) maintaining small classes in which students participate in cooperative sharing activities with other students and instructors, (f) offering opportunities in and out of school for students to socially interact with responsible adult role models such as teacher, community leader, and other parents, and finally (g) providing alternative programs and settings outside the regular academic environment.

(1991, p.16)

Hodge (1991) believed that educators must work to improve the academic success of at-risk students by providing programs to assist students in upgrading their basic academic

skills. Social integration was believed to be another important factor in improving student retention, by encouraging students to become more involved in their school.

Although a number of theories and programs have been devised to deal with the problem of student attrition over the years, none have managed to reduce the flow students who decide to leave school early. LeCompte (1987) argued that dropout programs themselves have suffered from high rates of student attrition because they have not been able to provide the academic and psychological support necessary to assist these students. It was found that many programs did not allow students the time necessary to resolve many of the problems hampering their academic success. Students found that the benefits of the programs often did not balance the time and effort necessary to participate and that the training and opportunities they offered were viewed as inferior and not worth their involvement.

F. Conclusion

Societal changes have forced schools to provide a more nurturing environment for their students over the last few decades and researchers have looked upon extracurricular programs as a mechanism in assisting students at-risk. Prior research has sought to determine the benefits of offering a full range of extracurricular activities with regard to sense of belonging, self-esteem, and risk of dropout. Researchers have recognized the importance of establishing whether a relationship between these variables exists, because they in turn have an effect on the social and psychological development of adolescents.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

Population and Sample

The study targeted senior level secondary students who had not yet earned the required number of courses necessary for an Ontario Secondary School Diploma. A convenient random sample of grade eleven students was therefore selected to participate in the research. Three urban high schools were selected from a Southwestern Ontario Separate School Board and all grade eleven students from each of the schools were invited to participate. For the purpose of this research, these schools will be referred to as School A, B, and C respectively.

In order to avoid repetition the study was conducted during the first school period and it included all grade eleven courses offered at each school during that period in the school day. Therefore, these figures do not take into account the grade eleven students from each school that are not enrolled in a grade eleven course during the first period of the school day. As a result, there were a considerable number of students who were not able to participate because they were enrolled in a higher or lower grade level course during period one.

The convenient random sample of students included both males and females from each academic level as students from university, college, and workplace courses were involved in the research. Moreover, there were students representing different socioeconomic backgrounds as indicated by their responses to the questionnaire.

The students targeted were under the age of eighteen and therefore required the consent of their parent/guardian in order to be allowed to participate. The study involved

the potential to include 689 grade eleven students registered in three different high schools. School A had 253 students, School B had 178 students, and School C had 258 students. There were a total of 240 students that returned their consent forms and were able to participate in the research. The majority of the respondents were from School A with a total of 156 students, School B had 27 students, and School C had 57 students. The majority of the respondents were female with a total of 132 girls participating in the research, compared to 106 boys. The gender of two of the participants is unknown since it was not defined on the questionnaire. In addition, the majority of the participants categorized themselves as university level students, while workplace level students accounted for the lowest number of participants. University level courses are directed toward advanced academic students focused on attending a post-secondary institution. In contrast, Workplace level courses are directed toward students looking to enter the workforce after graduation. A total of 180 students responded that they were mostly enrolled in University level courses, 54 students indicated that they were enrolled in mostly College level courses, and only 5 students stated that they were enrolled in mostly Workplace level courses. One of the participants failed to respond to that question and therefore cannot be categorized according to academic level.

Table A
Subjects Selected for the Sample

Number of Students Participating in the Study

School	Number of Students Registered	Number of Participants	Percent of Participants
School A	253	156	61.7
School B	178	27	15.2
School C	258	57	22.1
Total	689	240	34.8

Gender of the Student Sample

	Number of Students	Percentage of Students
Males	106	44.2
Females	132	55.0
Unknown	2	.8

Academic Level of the Student Sample

Academic Level	Number of Students	Percentage of Students
University Level	180	75.0
College Level	54	22.5
Workplace Level	5	2.1

B. Instrumentation

The instrument used in the study was organized into four sections which reflected the variables being related. The first section dealt with extracurricular involvement and required students to indicate which extracurricular activities they have participated in during the course of the school year. Students who had participated in one or more of the categories outlined were required to indicate their level of involvement by stating the number of hours spent on average each week in those particular activities. The next section measured the sense of belonging students had to their school and required students to respond along a continuum which ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The level of self-esteem was then measured by again having students answer along a continuum which ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Risk of student dropout was the final variable measured and students were required to respond to twenty-five questions designed to help determine whether students were at-risk of dropping out of school.

For the purpose of measuring extracurricular involvement, the student involvement questionnaire was adapted and utilized. The instrument originated from a study conducted by Pascarella (1982), which focused on college dropouts and their level of involvement in social, academic, and extracurricular activities. The instrument was altered to reflect the purpose of this research, which focused on secondary level students. The questionnaire was reduced to include only items that measured extracurricular involvement. Question 1 categorized the different types of extracurricular activities under eight headings which included: (a) Athletics, (b) Athletics – Intramural, (c) High School Publications, (d) Department Clubs, (e) Social Clubs, (f) Religious Organizations, (g) Student Government, and (h) Music and Drama. Two of the categories such as

Fraternity Membership and Residence Activities were removed from the survey because they did not apply to the high school community.

The section measuring sense of belonging was adapted from two separate surveys focusing on the sense of belonging college level students derived from their school. Questions were taken from both the Compton Community College Campus Climate Survey (1994) and the San Diego Community College Campus Climate Student Survey (1994). Students were required to respond to a list of twenty questions designed to determine whether participants had developed a sense of belonging to their high school. Questions 2 through 21 were modified to reflect a high school population and a Likert Scale was incorporated to gauge the spectrum of student responses from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

The instrument used to measure the level of self-esteem was the North York Self Concept Inventory and it originated from a study by Cassidy and Broks (1978). The survey was composed of a 25-item questionnaire designed to measure self-esteem in secondary level students. Questions 22 through 42 were taken directly from the North York Self Concept Inventory, however some questions were excluded because they did not apply directly to the variable being measured. A Likert Scale was incorporated to once again gauge the spectrum of student responses from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

The final section measured the risk of student dropout and was developed by incorporating predictors of student dropout as outlined in the review of literature. Questions 43 and 44 attempted to provide a profile of the respondents by determining their gender and ethnicity respectively. Family background was the focus of questions 45

through 51, which sought to determine the following indicators: (a) level of education of the parents, (b) parental support for continuing their education, (c) family size, and (d) income level. Questions 52 through 65 measured school related factors including: (a) academic average, (b) academic level, (c) grade retention, (d) absenteeism, (e) disciplinary history, and (f) school related stress. Questions 66 sought to determine the importance which the students placed on graduating from high school and Question 67 had the student indicate whether they will be returning to school next year in order to graduate.

C. Design and Procedures

A causal comparative design was used for the purpose of this study to determine the difference between the selected variables. The variables studied in this research were sense of belonging, self-esteem, and risk of dropping out. Causal comparative analysis seeks past causes for present conditions and this study sought to determine whether involvement in extracurricular activities was a possible cause for the three variables outlined. The study sought to explore possible cause and effect among the variables discussed.

In order to proceed with the research, permission was initially sought from the Graduate Committee of the Faculty of Education at the University of Windsor. The Graduate Committee required information, which included a brief outline of the proposed study, potential implications, educational relevance, procedures, timeline, and background of the candidate. Upon approval from the Graduate Committee, the proposed research was then submitted to the University of Windsor Research Ethics Board and

approval was received (see Appendix A). The Research Ethics Board outlined a list of standard procedures for the researcher to adhere to while conducting research in conjunction with the University of Windsor. A standard consent form was provided by the Research Ethics Board to be used in the study (see Appendix B). Subsequently, a letter was forwarded to the Superintendent of Education of a Catholic District School Board (see Appendix D) located in Southwestern Ontario. Once permission had been granted at the school board level, a letter of permission was directed to each of the secondary school Principals (see Appendix E) operating within the school board. While most of the Principals were open to allowing the research to be conducted within their school, only three Principals were willing to allow for the study to be conducted on a large scale, involving all grade eleven students enrolled in their institution. However, any grade eleven students registered in a higher or lower grade level course during period one would not be able to participate. As a result, the proposed research would be conducted in three urban high schools and the researcher contacted each of the Principals by telephone to discuss the background and procedures of the study and to respond to any questions or concerns they may have had regarding the research. In addition, a date for conducting the study was established during this phone conversation.

Once both the school board and the individual school Principals had granted permission, information regarding the number of period one grade eleven classes, the number of students enrolled in each class, and the names of each of the teachers assigned to teach those classes was obtained from the secretarial staff at each of the schools. An envelope was placed in each teacher's mailbox located at the school that contained the consent forms to be distributed to the students and a letter (see Appendix F) outlining the

teacher's responsibilities in executing the study. Teachers were also provided with a student-tracking sheet to help them maintain a record of the student's who had returned their forms. The consent forms provided a detailed synopsis of the research and outlined the rights of the participants to allow both the students and their parents to read and familiarize themselves with the proposed research. The students were informed that the consent forms would have to be signed and returned to their period one teacher by March 22, 2002 or they would not be allowed to participate in the study. Each teacher was asked to place the completed consent forms in a sealed envelope, which was provided to them and to submit the package to the main office by the end of that school day. In addition, teachers were asked to write their name on the front of the envelope in order for the researcher to provide an accurate number of questionnaires to each classroom on the day of the study. The researcher made a visit to each of the schools in order to gather the completed consent forms.

Prior to the execution of the study, the instrument (see Appendix C) was modified to more accurately reflect the nature of the research. A sample of grade eleven students from School A were asked to participate in a pre-test to assist the researcher in determining the length of time necessary to complete the questionnaire and to determine if there were any errors or modifications which needed to be made. The pre-test subjects were surveyed immediately following the completion of the questionnaire and were asked if there was any confusion with any of the questions. Changes were made to the questionnaire based upon the recommendations of the pre-test subjects and their questionnaires were shredded immediately following their participation in the study.

Once the consent forms had been collected, the researcher provided each teacher

with an envelope containing questionnaires and a list of names of the students participating in the study. In addition, a letter was attached to each envelope (see Appendix G) explaining the procedures to be followed by the classroom teacher in this phase of the study. Due to scheduling conflicts between the three schools, it was decided to conduct the study on separate dates. As a result, the study was conducted in School A on Monday, March 25, in School B on Tuesday, April 2, and in School C on Wednesday, April 3.

The students selected for the study were asked to complete the questionnaire during class time. It was determined during the pre-test that students would require approximately 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire, however teachers were instructed to provide students with additional time to complete the questionnaire if necessary. The students were informed of their right to withdraw their participation at any time before or during the study, however once the questionnaires were submitted to the classroom teacher, they would be used in the research. Those who did choose to participate were asked to respond to all of questions and were told not to place their name or other pertinent information on the questionnaire. Once they completed the survey, the students were required to submit their questionnaire to the classroom teacher.

Once all of the questionnaires had been submitted, teachers were instructed to seal the envelopes and return them to the main office by the end of that school day. Students, who missed the March 22 deadline to have their consent forms signed and returned, were allowed to submit their form on the day of the study. Any completed consent forms returned on the day of the study were to be placed in the sealed envelope along with the questionnaires. The researcher visited each school to collect the sealed envelopes.

Upon receiving the sealed envelopes and removing the completed anonymous questionnaires, the researcher placed an identification number on each of the questionnaires. The researcher then entered the data onto scantron sheets and it was scanned through a computer. Statistical procedures were used to analyze and evaluate the information in order to determine any if there was any evidence of a relationship between the level of participation in extracurricular activities and the level of self-esteem, sense of belonging, and the rate of drop-out among senior secondary students.

D. Limitations of the Design

There were limitations to the design of this study that must be noted. The sample size used in the study was 240 senior secondary level students from three different high schools located in Southwestern Ontario. The data retrieved from this study may not be reflective of students from across Canada or even the Province of Ontario. Each of the high schools that participated in the study belonged to a catholic school board, which may not be representative of the majority of the students in the Province who are enrolled in the public school system. The effect of participation in extracurricular activities could only be determined with respect to sense of belonging and self-esteem. The research was unable to provide support for participation in extracurricular activities as a deterrent to dropout.

In conducting the research, a convenient random sample was utilized which may have threatened the validity of the research. Subjects were selected from one school board and the researcher was able to obtain permission from only three of the nine high schools within that particular board. A convenient random sample was used from the

three high schools, which allowed for a large-scale study to be conducted at each of the schools. All of the grade eleven students enrolled in each of the schools were targeted, instead of focusing on a small group of students from each of the high schools within the school board. The study did not provide a random sample of students from across the School Board; instead only three urban high schools were chosen to participate. The research did not account for students enrolled in rural high schools, nor did it account for students registered in the public school board system, which may have weakened the generalizability of the study.

Another possible threat may be that the teachers that proctored the questionnaire may have influenced the student's responses. Teachers may not have provided students with additional time to complete the questionnaire because it may have conflicted with their scheduled lesson plan. They may have also assisted in answering questions and thereby would have impacted the results. The survey was completely confidential and the questionnaires were to remain anonymous, however, there is a concern that the classroom teachers and school principals may have screened the responses before they were sealed to ensure that the information revealed in the study did not negatively impact the reputation of the school.

The students responding to the questionnaire may have also threatened the validity of the study. Some students may not have taken the questionnaire seriously, while others may not have been motivated to devote the time necessary to answer the questions accurately. Although a pre-test had been completed to ensure that the students understood the questions posed, there is a concern that some students still may have had difficulty answering some of the questions. In addition, due to the fact that the subjects

were under the age of eighteen and required a parent's consent before being allowed to participate in the study, some teenagers were not responsible enough to have the consent form signed and returned to their teacher. This resulted in an over-representation of well-functioning, high academic achieving students and a lower rate of participation among at-risk students. This likely impacted the results of the study and would not have provided an accurate insight into the relationship between the variables being studied.

The instrument is another area of concern in that it was adapted from other questionnaires, which have been used in previous studies. Each of these studies focused on college level students and their level of social involvement in the school and risk of dropping out. The instrument had to be changed to reflect the variables in this particular study and be applied to a high school population.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

A. Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) statistical model. The following statistical tests were used in the analysis of the data:

1. Oneway ANOVA and Scheffe Post Hoc Tests
2. t-test
3. Pearson Chi-Square
4. Fisher's Exact Test Chi-Square for 2x2 tables

The tests were performed as a reflection of the research question and hypotheses. For descriptive purposes, the arithmetic mean and standard deviation were reported. A significance level of $p < .05$ was selected for this study, however since much of the data is qualitative a significance level of $p < .1$ was also reported when necessary. The findings of the study have been organized according to the following sections:

- a. involvement in extracurricular activities and sense of belonging;
- b. involvement in extracurricular activities and self-esteem;
- c. involvement in extracurricular activities and risk of dropout; and
- d. predictors of risk of dropout

B. Involvement in Extracurricular Activities and Sense of Belonging

The first section of the survey examined the different types of extracurricular activities normally offered within a typical secondary school. The extracurricular activities were grouped into the following categories: (a) athletics, (b) intramural athletics, (c) high school publications, (d) department clubs, (e) social clubs, (f)

religious organizations, (g) student government, and (h) music and drama. For the purpose of this study, the different categories of extracurricular activities were compared to sense of belonging. The level of participation in each of the extracurricular activities was further analyzed to determine if greater levels of participation had an effect on the variable. T-tests were used to determine if involvement in each of the activities had an effect on sense of belonging. An analysis of the mean scores was then used to determine the direction of the effect on the variable. Based on the questions posed in Section B of the Student Questionnaire (see Appendix C), a low mean score indicated that students had a high sense of belonging to their school. When examining the level of participation for each of the extracurricular activities, it was found that only athletics, intramural athletics, and social clubs had a sufficient number of participants necessary to determine if the level of participation was a predictor of sense of belonging and an ANOVA statistical test was performed to determine if the amount of participation in athletics, intramural athletics, and social clubs had an impact on sense of belonging. A Scheffé Post Hoc test was also performed to determine the level of participation at which a significant effect on the variable took place.

It was found that student involvement in extracurricular athletics, intramural athletics, department clubs, and student government was a predictor of student sense of belonging at the $p < .05$ level: athletics at an alpha level of $p = .002$ (see Table B1), intramural athletics at an alpha level of $p = .035$ (see Table B2), department clubs at an alpha level of $p = .001$ (see Table B3), and student government at an alpha level of $p = .006$ (see Table B4). These findings determined that students who were involved in

one hour or more of these types of activities per week benefited from a higher sense of belonging. An analysis of the mean scores revealed that sense of belonging increased with one or more hours of participation in each of the extracurricular activities outlined: athletics; 0 hours = 2.6363 and 1 or more hours = 2.4018 (see Table B1), intramural athletics; 0 hours = 2.5322 and 1 or more hours = 2.3806 (see Table B2), department clubs; 0 hours = 2.5271 and 1 or more hours = 2.2411 (see Table B3), and student government; 0 hours = 2.4973 and 1 or more hours = 2.0857 (see Table B4).

Table B1

Participation in Extracurricular Athletics as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging

Group Statistics

Athletic Involvement	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Belonging 0hrs	73	2.6363	.55729
1+hrs	167	2.4018	.51987

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Belonging					
Equal Variances Assumed	1.031	.311	3.145	238	.002
Equal Variances Not Assumed			3.060	129.093	.003

Table B2**Participation in Extracurricular Intramural Athletics as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging****Group Statistics**

Intramural Athletic Involvement	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Belonging 0hrs	146	2.5322	.55729
1+hrs	93	2.3806	.50734

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Belonging					
Equal Variances Assumed	.934	.335	2.121	237	.035
Equal Variances Not Assumed			2.166	209.316	.031

Table B3**Participation in Extracurricular Department Clubs as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging****Group Statistics**

Department Clubs	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Belonging 0hrs	194	2.5271	.51989
1+hrs	45	2.2411	.58127

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Belonging					
Equal Variances Assumed	1.559	.213	3.250	237	.001
Equal Variances Not Assumed			3.031	61.363	.004

Table B4**Participation in Extracurricular Student Government as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging****Group Statistics**

Student Government	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Belonging 0hrs	223	2.4973	.53513
1+hrs	14	2.0857	.56617

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Belonging					
Equal Variances Assumed	.162	.687	2.782	235	.006
Equal Variances Not Assumed			2.647	14.496	.019

The research found that participation in extracurricular religious organizations and music and drama also had an impact on sense of belonging. These findings were not as strong as those outlined above, in that it was discovered that student involvement in these types of activities had an effect on belonging at the $p < .1$ level: religious organizations at an alpha level of $p = .058$ (see Table B5) and music and drama at an alpha level of $p = .065$ (see Table B6). These findings indicated that one hour or more of participation in religious organizations or music and drama per week had an effect on belonging. An analysis of the mean scores revealed that students that had indicated they participated in one or more hours of religious organizational activities per week had a higher sense of belonging; 0 hours = 2.5083 and 1 or more hours = 2.3440 (see Table B5). The findings were similar with regard to student involvement in music and drama; 0 hours = 2.4936 and 1 or more hours = 2.2705 (see Table B6).

Table B5**Participation in Extracurricular Religious Organizations as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging****Group Statistics**

Religious Organizations	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Belonging 0hrs	187	2.5083	.54123
1+hrs	50	2.3440	.54141

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Belonging					
Equal Variances Assumed	.165	.685	1.906	235	.058
Equal Variances Not Assumed			1.906	77.231	.060

Table B6**Participation in Extracurricular Music and Drama as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging****Group Statistics**

Music and Drama	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Belonging 0hrs	218	2.4936	.53910
1+hrs	22	2.2705	.53266

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Belonging					
Equal Variances Assumed	.003	.953	1.852	238	.065
Equal Variances Not Assumed			1.870	25.540	.073

There were a significant number of respondents that had indicated some level of involvement in extracurricular athletics, intramural athletics, and social clubs, that allowed for further analysis based on the level of participation and how it affected sense of belonging scores. An ANOVA test showed that amount of participation in extracurricular athletics was a predictor of sense of belonging at the $p < .05$ level at an alpha level of $p = .001$ (see Table B7). A Scheffe Post Hoc was performed to determine between which levels of participation that the effect was significant. A statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level at an alpha level of $p = .006$ (see Table B7) was found between students with no involvement in school athletics and those who devoted ten or more hours per week to this activity. A statistically significant difference at the $p < .1$ level at an alpha level of $p = .095$ (see Table B7) was also found between students who reported 1-2 hours in athletics per week and those who devoted 10 or more hours.

The level of participation in extracurricular intramural athletics was also found to have an effect on belonging. The findings were not as significant as those outlined above. An ANOVA test determined that the amount of participation in intramural athletics had an effect on belonging at the $p < .1$ level at an alpha level of $p = .065$ (see Table B8). There were fewer respondents that had indicated some level of involvement in intramural athletics as opposed to other forms of athletic activity, and the respondents with 3 or more hours of participation per week were grouped together. A statistically significant difference at the $p < .1$ level at an alpha level of $p = .080$ (see Table B8) was observed between students with no involvement and those with 3 or more hours of participation per week.

Although there were a sufficient number of students to perform an analysis based on the level of participation in social clubs, an ANOVA test was not performed. A t-test had already determined that participation in social clubs had no effect on sense of belonging at either the $p < .1$ or $p < .05$ levels at an alpha level of $p = .129$ (see Table B9).

Table B7

Level of Participation in Extracurricular Athletics as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging

Group Statistics

Athletic Involvement	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Belonging 0hrs	73	2.6363	.55729
1-2hrs	49	2.5469	.50728
3-5hrs	39	2.3538	.51483
6-9hrs	46	2.4239	.49797
10+hrs	33	2.2121	.52886
Total	240	2.4731	.54126

Oneway Anova

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Belonging	5.125	4	1.281	4.640	.001
Between Groups	64.894	235	.276		
Within Groups	70.019	239			
Total					

Scheffe Post Hoc Tests

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Esteem	0hrs	1-2hrs	.0894	.09705	.932
		3-5hrs	.2825	.10423	.123
		6-9hrs	.2124	.09892	.333
		10+hrs	.4242	.11023	.006
1-2hrs	0hrs	3-5hrs	-.0894	.09705	.932
		6-9hrs	.1931	.11277	.570
		10+hrs	.1230	.10788	.861
			.3348	.11834	.095
3-5hrs	0hrs	1-2hrs	-.2825	.10423	.123
		6-9hrs	-.1931	.11277	.570
		10+hrs	-.0701	.11438	.984
			.1417	.12429	.861
6-9hrs	0hrs	1-2hrs	-.2124	.09892	.333
		3-5hrs	-.1230	.10788	.861
		10+hrs	.0701	.11438	.984
			.2118	.11988	.539
10+hrs	0hrs	1-2hrs	-.4242	.11023	.006
		3-5hrs	-.3348	.11834	.095
		6-9hrs	-.1417	.12429	.861
			-.2118	.11988	.539

Table B8

Level of Participation in Extracurricular Intramural Athletics as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging

Group Statistics

Athletic Intramural Involvement	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Belonging 0hrs	146	2.5322	.55729
1-2hrs	52	2.4308	.48620
3+hrs	41	2.3171	.53217
Total	239	2.4732	.54240

Oneway Anova

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Belonging Between Groups	1.601	2	.801	2.761	.065
Within Groups	68.418	236	.290		
Total	70.019	238			

Scheffe Post Hoc Tests

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Esteem	0hrs	1-2hrs	.1014	.08695	.507
		3+hrs	.2151	.09517	.080
	1-2hrs	0hrs	-.1014	.08695	.507
		3+hrs	.1137	.11245	.600
	3+hrs	0hrs	-.2151	.09517	.080
		1-2hrs	-.1137	.11245	.600

Table B9

Participation in Extracurricular Social Clubs as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging

Group Statistics

Social Clubs	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Belonging 0hrs	194	2.4979	.54302
1+hrs	44	2.3602	.53696

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Belonging					
Equal Variances Assumed	.210	.647	1.522	236	.129
Equal Variances Not Assumed			1.533	64.488	.130

It was determined that student participation in high school publication activities did not have a statistically significant effect on student sense of belonging at either the $p < .1$ or $p < .05$ levels ($p = .234$) (see Table B10). This meant that one or more hours of participation in extracurricular high school publication activities did not have an effect on belonging.

Table B10**Participation in Extracurricular High School Publications as a Predictor of Sense of Belonging****Group Statistics**

High School Publications	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Belonging 0hrs	207	2.4568	.53055
1+hrs	32	2.5797	.61209

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Belonging					
Equal Variances Assumed	1.103	.295	-1.194	237	.234
Equal Variances Not Assumed			-1.075	38.541	.289

C. Involvement in Extracurricular Activities and Self-Esteem

The different categories of extracurricular activities were compared to self-esteem and the level of participation in each of the extracurricular activities was further analyzed. T-tests were used to determine if involvement in each of the activities had an effect on self-esteem. An analysis of the mean scores was then used to determine the direction of the effect on the variable. A high mean score on section C of the Student Questionnaire (see Appendix C) indicated a high level of self-esteem. It was found that only athletics, intramural athletics, and social clubs had a sufficient number of participants necessary to determine if the level of participation had a statistically significant effect on self-esteem. An ANOVA statistical test was performed to determine if the amount of participation in athletics, intramural athletics, and social clubs had an effect on self-esteem. A Scheffe Post Hoc test was also performed to determine the level of participation at which a significant effect on the variable took place.

Of the extracurricular activities outlined in the research, only student participation in social clubs was found to have a statistically significant effect at the $p < .05$ level at an alpha level of $p = .026$ (see Table C1). Students with one hour or more of involvement in social clubs were found to have a higher mean score with regard to self-esteem, than those with no involvement; 0 hours = 3.7634 and 1 or more hours = 3.9686 (see Table C1).

There were a sufficient number of students to perform an analysis based on the level of participation in social clubs, and an ANOVA test was performed to determine if the amount of participation in extracurricular social clubs had an effect on self-

esteem. The test proved that the amount of participation in extracurricular social clubs had a statistically significant effect on self-esteem at the $p < .1$ level at an alpha level of $p = .087$ (see Table C2). A Scheffe Hoc Post test was then used to determine the level of participation at which a statistically significant effect took place. The respondents were grouped into three categories, which included no involvement, 1-2 hours of involvement, and 3 or more hours of involvement. It was found that a statistically significant difference at the $p < .1$ level at an alpha level of $p = .093$ took place between one to two hours of involvement and no involvement (see Table C2). There was no evidence of a statistically significant difference at either the $p < .05$ and $p < .1$ levels at an alpha level of $p = .854$ between three or more hours of involvement and no involvement (see Table C2).

Table C1

Participation in Extracurricular Social Clubs as a Predictor of Self Esteem

Group Statistics

Social Club		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Esteem	0hrs	194	3.7634	.64062
	1+hrs	44	3.9686	.51451

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Esteem					
Equal Variances Assumed	5.031	.026	-1.984	236	.048
Equal Variances Not Assumed			-2.276	76.449	.026

Table C2**Level of Participation in Extracurricular Social Clubs as a Predictor of Self Esteem****Group Statistics**

Social Clubs		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Esteem	0hrs	194	3.7634	.64062
	1-2hrs	27	4.0423	.45528
	3+hrs	17	3.8515	.59235
	Total	238	3.8013	.62338

Oneway Anova

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Esteem					
Between Groups	1.890	2	.945	2.462	.087
Within Groups	90.209	235	.384		
Total	92.100	237			

Scheffe Post Hoc Tests

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Esteem	0hrs	1-2hrs	-.2790	.12726	.093
		3+hrs	-.0882	.15671	.854
	1-2hrs	0hrs	.2790	.12726	.093
		3+hrs	.1908	.19183	.610
	3+hrs	0hrs	.0882	.15671	.854
		1-2hrs	-.1908	.19183	.610

Involvement in extracurricular athletics and high school publications was also found to have an effect on student self-esteem. A t-test revealed that participation in both extracurricular athletics and high school publications had a statistically significant effect on student self-esteem. These findings were only significant at the $p < .1$ level: athletics at an alpha level of $p = .059$ (see Table C3) and high school publications at an alpha level of $p = .083$ (see Table C4). An analysis of the mean scores indicated that students who participated in one or more hours of these types of activities per week had a higher level of self-esteem: athletics; 0 hours = 3.6862 and 1

or more hours = 3.8506 (see Table C3) and high school publications 0 hours = 3.8286 and 1 or more hours = 3.6235 (see Table C4).

Table C3

Participation in Extracurricular Athletics as a Predictor of Self Esteem

Group Statistics

Athletic Involvement		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Esteem	0hrs	73	3.6862	.67590
	1+hrs	167	3.8506	.59036

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Esteem					
Equal Variances Assumed	2.012	.157	-1.897	238	.059
Equal Variances Not Assumed			-1.799	122.137	.074

Table C4

Participation in Extracurricular High School Publications as a Predictor of Self Esteem

Group Statistics

High School Publications		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Esteem	0hrs	207	3.8286	.61405
	1+hrs	32	3.6235	.65408

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Esteem					
Equal Variances Assumed	1.102	.295	1.743	237	.083
Equal Variances Not Assumed			1.664	39.911	.104

There were a sufficient number of students that indicated they had participated in extracurricular athletics to conduct further analysis based on the level of participation. It was found that the amount of participation in extracurricular athletics did not have a statistically significant effect on student self-esteem at either the $p < .05$ or $p < .1$ levels at an alpha level of $p = .237$ (see Table C5).

Table C5

Level of Participation in Extracurricular Athletics as a Predictor of Self Esteem

Group Statistics

Athletic Involvement	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Esteem 0hrs	73	3.6862	.67590
1-2hrs	49	3.8154	.67158
3-5hrs	39	3.8852	.58635
6-9hrs	46	3.7785	.53830
10+hrs	33	3.9625	.54029
Total	240	3.8006	.62083

Oneway Anova

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Esteem					
Between Groups	2.132	4	.533	1.392	.237
Within Groups	89.987	235	.383		
Total	92.119	239			

Scheffe Post Hoc Tests

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Esteem	0hrs	1-2hrs	-.1291	.11428	.865
		3-5hrs	-.1990	.12274	.622
		6-9hrs	-.0922	.11649	.960
		10+hrs	-.2762	.12980	.342
	1-2hrs	0hrs	.1291	.11428	.865
		3-5hrs	-.0699	.13279	.991
		6-9hrs	.0369	.12704	.999
		10+hrs	-.1471	.13935	.892
	3-5hrs	0hrs	.1990	.12274	.622
		1-2hrs	.0699	.13279	.991
		6-9hrs	.1068	.13470	.960
		10+hrs	-.0773	.14636	.991
	6-9hrs	0hrs	.0922	.11649	.960
		1-2hrs	-.0369	.12704	.999
		3-5hrs	-.1068	.13470	.960
		10+hrs	-.1840	.14117	.791
	10+hrs	0hrs	.2762	.12980	.342
		1-2hrs	.1471	.13935	.892
		3-5hrs	.0773	.14636	.991
		6-9hrs	.1840	.14117	.791

The research was not able to provide evidence of an effect on self-esteem with regard to participation in the following extracurricular activities: intramural athletics, department clubs, religious organizations, student government, and music and drama. A t-test revealed that participation in these types of extracurricular activities did not have a statistically significant effect on student self-esteem at either the $p < .05$ or $p < .1$ levels: intramural athletics; at an alpha level of $p = .890$ (see Table C6), department clubs; at an alpha level of $p = .129$ (see Table C7), religious organizations; at an alpha level of $p = .846$ (see Table C8), student government; at an alpha level of $p = .143$ (see Table C9), and music and drama; at an alpha level of $p = .917$ (see Table C10).

Table C6

Participation in Extracurricular Intramural Athletics as a Predictor of Self Esteem

Group Statistics

Intramural Athletic Involvement		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Esteem	0hrs	146	3.8056	.62526
	1+hrs	93	3.7942	.62037

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Esteem					
Equal Variances Assumed	.066	.798	.138	237	.890
Equal Variances Not Assumed			.139	197.195	.890

Table C7**Participation in Extracurricular Department Clubs as a Predictor of Self Esteem****Group Statistics**

Department Clubs	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Esteem 0hrs	194	3.7717	.62359
1+hrs	45	3.9280	.60597

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Esteem					
Equal Variances Assumed	.002	.964	-1.523	237	.129
Equal Variances Not Assumed			-1.550	67.345	.126

Table C8**Participation in Extracurricular Religious Organizations as a Predictor of Self Esteem****Group Statistics**

Religious Organizations	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Esteem 0hrs	187	3.8070	.61916
1+hrs	50	3.7876	.64902

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Esteem					
Equal Variances Assumed	.690	.407	.194	235	.846
Equal Variances Not Assumed			.189	74.585	.850

Table C9**Participation in Extracurricular Student Government as a Predictor of Self Esteem****Group Statistics**

Student Government		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Esteem	0hrs	223	3.7828	.62575
	1+hrs	14	4.0340	.52545

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Esteem					
Equal Variances Assumed	.737	.391	-1.469	235	.143
Equal Variances Not Assumed			-1.714	15.411	.107

Table C10**Participation in Extracurricular Music and Drama as a Predictor of Self Esteem****Group Statistics**

Music and Drama		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Esteem	0hrs	218	3.7993	.63040
	1+hrs	22	3.8139	.52902

Independent Samples Test:

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Esteem					
Equal Variances Assumed	.465	.496	-.105	238	.917
Equal Variances Not Assumed			-.121	27.396	.905

D. Involvement in Extracurricular Activities and Risk of Dropout

For the purpose of this study, the different categories of extracurricular activities were compared to risk of dropout. Neither t-tests nor ANOVA tests could be used in the analysis of this data. As a result, the effect of the different types of extracurricular activities on risk of dropout could not be determined. Crosstabulations and Fisher's Exact Test (Chi-Square for 2x2 tables) were used. The results that these tests produced were not as strong as the t-test and ANOVA performed in the examination of sense of belonging and self-esteem. Although most of the tests failed to provide a statistically significant result, further analysis of the data provided an opportunity for discussion and further inquiry.

Significance was established between participation in extracurricular intramural activities and risk of dropout. The Fisher's Exact Test provided evidence of statistical significance between the two variables at the $p < .05$ level at an alpha level of $p = .024$ (see Table D1). Analysis of the Crosstabulation was used to determine the nature of this relationship. It was revealed that of the students who indicated that they had no involvement in extracurricular intramural athletics, 6.3% were found to be at risk of dropping out of school, compared to 15.2% of those who were involved in intramural athletics (see Table D1). The data indicated that those who participated in extracurricular intramural athletics were at greater risk of dropout than those with no involvement.

Table D1**Participation in Extracurricular Intramural Athletics as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout****Crosstabulation**

Intramural Athletics				Total
		Will return	At risk	
0hrs	Count % 0hrs % of Total	133 93.7% 56.8%	9 6.3% 3.8%	142 100.0% 60.7%
1+hrs	Count % 1+hrs % of Total	78 84.8% 33.3%	14 15.2% 6.0%	92 100.0% 39.3%
Total	Count % of students % of Total	211 90.2% 90.2%	23 9.8% 9.8%	234 100.0% 100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	234	.041	.024

Student participation in the following extracurricular activities were not found to be a predictor of dropout at either the $p < .05$ or $p < .1$ levels: athletics; at an alpha level of $p = .556$ (see Table D2) and department clubs; at an alpha level of $p = .536$ (see Table D3). A crosstabulation of the data revealed that a greater percentage of students with no involvement in these types of activities were at risk of dropping out of school, compared to those with one or more hour of involvement. These findings applied to both extracurricular athletics (see Table D2) and department clubs (see Table D3).

Table D2**Participation in Extracurricular Athletics as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout****Crosstabulation**

Athletics				Total
		Will return	At risk	
0hrs	Count % 0hrs % of Total	63 90.0% 26.8%	7 10.0% 3.0%	70 100.0% 29.8%
1+hrs	Count % 1+hrs % of Total	149 90.3% 63.4%	16 9.7% 6.8%	165 100.0% 70.2%
Total	Count % of students % of Total	212 90.2% 90.2%	23 9.8% 9.8%	235 100.0% 100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	235	.1000	.556

Table D3**Participation in Extracurricular Department Clubs as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout****Crosstabulation**

Department Clubs				Total
		Will return	At risk	
0hrs	Count	170	19	189
	% 0hrs	89.9%	10.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	72.6%	8.1%	80.8%
1+hrs	Count	41	4	45
	% 1+hrs	91.1%	8.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	17.5%	1.7%	19.2%
Total	Count	211	23	234
	% of students	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	234	1.000	.536

The study failed to produce evidence of statistical significance between risk of dropout and the following types of extracurricular activities: high school publications, social clubs, and religious organizations. Significance could not be established at either the $p < .1$ or $p < .05$ levels: high school publications; at an alpha level of $p = .387$ (see Table D4), social clubs; at an alpha level of $p = .446$ (see Table D5), and religious organizations; at an alpha level of $p = .560$ (see Table D6). Further analysis of the data provided evidence that a greater percentage of students involved in one hour or more of these types of extracurricular activities were actually at greater risk of dropping out of school, compared to those with no involvement. These findings applied to student

participation in high school publications (see Table D4), social clubs (see Table D5), and religious organizations (see Table D6).

Table D4

Participation in Extracurricular High School Publications as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

High School Publications				Total
		Will return	At risk	
0hrs	Count % 0hrs % of Total	183 90.6% 78.2%	19 9.4% 8.1%	202 100.0% 86.3%
1+hrs	Count % 1+hrs % of Total	28 87.5% 12.0%	4 12.5% 1.7%	32 100.0% 13.7%
Total	Count % of students % of Total	211 90.2% 90.2%	23 9.8% 9.8%	234 100.0% 100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	234	.531	.387

Table D5**Participation in Extracurricular Social Clubs as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout****Crosstabulation**

Social Clubs		Will return		Total
		At risk		
0hrs	Count	171	18	189
	% 0hrs	90.5%	9.5%	100.0%
	% of Total	73.4%	7.7%	81.1%
1+hrs	Count	39	5	44
	% 1+hrs	88.6%	11.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	16.7%	2.1%	18.9%
Total	Count	210	23	233
	% of students	90.1%	9.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.1%	9.9%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	233	.779	.446

Table D6**Participation in Extracurricular Religious Organizations as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout****Crosstabulation**

Religious Organizations		Will return		Total
		At risk		
0hrs	Count	165	18	183
	% 0hrs	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	71.1%	7.8%	78.9%
1+hrs	Count	44	5	49
	% 1+hrs	89.8%	10.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	19.0%	2.2%	21.1%
Total	Count	209	23	232
	% of students	90.1%	9.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.1%	9.9%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	232	1.000	.560

With regard to participation in student government, statistical significance relationship could not be established between this variable and risk of dropout at either the $p < .1$ or $p < .05$ levels at an alpha level of $p = .222$ (see Table D7). It must be noted that of the students involved in one or more hour of extracurricular student government, none were found to be at risk of dropping out of school.

Similar results were found with regard to student involvement in music and drama. Significance was found at the $p < .1$ level at an alpha level of $p = .093$ (see Table D8). This relationship cannot be reported due to the fact that this is not a valid test since 25% of the cells have a count that is less than the minimum expected count. It was found that of the students that had indicated they participated in one or more hours of music and drama, none were found to be at risk of dropping out of school.

Table D7

Participation in Extracurricular Student Government as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

Student Government				Total
		Will return	At risk	
0hrs	Count % 0hrs % of Total	195 89.4% 84.1%	23 10.6% 9.9%	218 100.0% 94.0%
1+hrs	Count % 1+hrs % of Total	14 100.0% 6.0%	0	14 100.0% 6.0%
Total	Count % of students % of Total	209 90.1% 90.1%	23 9.9% 9.9%	232 100.0% 100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	232	.372	.222

Table D8

Participation in Extracurricular Music and Drama as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

Music and Drama				Total
		Will return	At risk	
0hrs	Count % 0hrs % of Total	190 89.2% 80.9%	23 10.8% 9.8%	213 100.0% 90.6%
1+hrs	Count % 1+hrs % of Total	22 100.0% 9.4%	0	22 100.0% 9.4%
Total	Count % of students % of Total	212 90.2% 90.2%	23 9.8% 9.8%	235 100.0% 100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	235	.141	.093

E. Predictors of Risk of Dropout

The literature review outlined a number of predictors on risk of dropout that were measured in this study. The predictors were grouped according to the following categories: (a) gender, (b) ethnicity, (c) parent's level of education, (d) parental encouragement, (e) financial status, (f) academic achievement, (g) grade retention and course failure, (h) absenteeism, (i) disciplinary history, (j) student attitude, and (k) student stress. Question 68 was used to determine if students were at risk of dropping out of school by having students state whether they would be returning to school next year to graduate. A Fisher's Exact test and Pearson Chi-Square test were used to determine if the variables outlined were found to be predictors of risk of dropout. Crosstabulations were also used in the analysis of the data.

Gender

Question 43 of the survey had students state their gender and it was reported that of the students who participated in the study, 106 were male, 132 were female, and 2 were not determined (see Table A). A Fisher's Exact Test was applied to determine if gender was a predictor of risk of dropout. Significance could not be established between the two variables at either the $p < .05$ or $p < .1$ levels at an alpha level of $p = .491$ (see Table E1). A crosstabulation of the data revealed that of the students found to be

at risk of dropping out of school, 10.4% were male and 9.4% were female. Although a greater percentage of males were found to be at risk, the statistical analysis proved that the difference was nominal.

Table E1
Gender as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

Gender				Total
		Will return	At risk	
Male	Count	95	11	106
	% Male	89.6%	10.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	40.8%	4.7%	45.5%
Female	Count	115	12	127
	% Female	90.6%	9.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	49.4%	5.2%	54.5%
Total	Count	210	23	233
	% of students	90.1%	9.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.1%	9.9%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	233	.829	.491

Ethnicity

The questionnaire had students categorize themselves according to the different ethnic groups outlined in Question 44. Students were instructed to check one or more of the groups that included: (a) European, (b) Native Canadian, (c) Black, (d) Asian, (e) Hispanic, (f) Southeast Asian, or (g) Arabic. Since there were not a significant

number of students in categories b through g, the researcher grouped the sample into two categories: Caucasian and Non-Caucasian. A Fisher's Exact test was performed based on these groupings, and statistical significance was observed at the $p < .1$ level at an alpha level of $p = .087$ (see Table E2), which indicated that ethnicity is a predictor of risk of dropout. The test is not valid and the result cannot be reported due to the fact that 25% of the cells had a count less than the minimum expected count. A further analysis using a crosstabulation of the data found that of the students who were at risk of dropout, 7.1% were Caucasian, compared to 15.2% that were Non-Caucasian.

Table E2

Ethnicity as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

Ethnicity		Will return	At risk	Total
Caucasian	Count	143	11	154
	% Caucasian	92.9%	7.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	71.5%	5.5%	77.0%
Non-Caucasian	Count	39	7	46
	% Non-Caucasian	84.8%	15.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	19.5%	3.5%	23.0%
Total	Count	182	18	200
	% of students	91.0%	9.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	91.0%	9.0%	100%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	200	.137	.087

Parent's Level of Education

The questionnaire had students provide the level of education of both their mother and father. Questions 45 and 46 were divided according to the following categories which included: (a) up to grade 6, (b) grades 7-10, (c) grades 11-12, (d) 1-4 years of University, and (e) 4 or more years of University. The researcher grouped the responses and categorized them under two headings: Secondary Education and Post-Secondary Education. The mother's level of education was found to be a predictor of risk of dropout. A Fisher's Exact test reported a significant result at the $p < .05$ level at an alpha level of $p = .048$ (see Table E3). A crosstabulation of the data revealed that 13.8% of the mothers who have up to a secondary education had children at risk of dropping out of school, compared to 6.4% of mothers who have one or more years of university education (see Table E3).

Significance could not be established between the father's level of education and risk of dropout. A Fisher's Exact test found that the father's level of education ($p = .380$) was not a predictor of risk of dropout (see Table E4). A crosstabulation of the data revealed that of the students at risk of dropping out of school, 8.8% indicated that their father had an education up to high school graduation, compared to 10.9% that indicated their father had one or more years of university education.

Table E3

Mother's Level of Education as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

Mother's Educational Level				Total
		Will return	At risk	
High School or Less	Count	94	15	109
	% High School or Less	86.2%	13.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	40.2%	6.4%	46.6%
University or more	Count	117	8	125
	% University or more	93.6%	6.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	50.0%	3.4%	53.4%
Total	Count	211	23	234
	% of students	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	234	.078	.048

Table E4**Father's Level of Education as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout****Crosstabulation**

Father's Educational Level				Total
		Will return	At risk	
High School or Less	Count	103	10	113
	% High School or Less	91.2%	8.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	44.4%	4.3%	48.7%
University or more	Count	106	13	119
	% University or more	89.1%	10.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	45.7%	5.6%	51.3%
Total	Count	209	23	232
	% of students	90.1%	9.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.1%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	232	.664	.380

Parental Encouragement

Question 48 had students indicate if their parents had ever encouraged them to graduate from high school. In determining whether parental encouragement to graduate from high school was a predictor of risk of dropout, a Fisher's Exact test was used. The test found that parental encouragement to graduate from high school ($p=.902$) was not a predictor of risk of dropout (see Table E5). The results of the test could not be reported since it was not a valid test result, due to the fact that 50% of the cells had a count less than the minimum expected count. A further analysis of the data

was done using a crosstabulation, which revealed that only one student indicated that their parents had never encouraged them to graduate from high school, yet this student was not found to be at risk (see Table E5).

Question 49 had students indicate if their parents had ever encouraged them to pursue a post-secondary education. In determining whether parental encouragement to pursue a post-secondary education was a predictor of risk of dropout, a Fisher’s Exact test was used. Significance was found at the $p < .05$ level at an alpha level of $p = .049$ (see Table E6). This is not a valid test since 50% of the cells had a count less than the minimum expected count. A further analysis of the data was achieved using a crosstabulation, which revealed that there were only four students that had no parental encouragement and two of the four students were found to be at risk (see Table E6).

Table E5

Parental Encouragement to Graduate as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

Parental Encouragement		Will return	At risk	Total
Encouraged	Count % Encouraged % of Total	211 90.2% 89.8%	23 9.8% 9.8%	234 100.0% 99.6%
Not Encouraged	Count % Not Encouraged % of Total	1 100.0% .4%	0	1 100.0% .4%
Total	Count % of students % of Total	212 90.2% 90.2%	23 9.8% 9.8%	235 100.0% 100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	235	1.000	.902

Table E6**Parental Encouragement to Pursue a Post-Secondary Education as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout****Crosstabulation**

Parental Encouragement				Total
		Will return	At risk	
Encouraged	Count	209	21	230
	% Encouraged	90.9%	9.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	89.3%	9.0%	98.3%
Not Encouraged	Count	2	2	4
	% Not Encouraged	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	.9%	.9%	1.7%
Total	Count	211	23	234
	% of students	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	234	.049	.049

Financial Status

Financial status of the family was not found to be a predictor of risk of dropout.

Question 50 required that students describe their family's financial status as either above average, average, or below average. A Pearson Chi-Square test established that

financial status ($p=.226$) was not a predictor of risk of dropout (see Table E7). A crosstabulation revealed that 22.2% of the students that reported a below average income were at risk of dropping out of school, in comparison to 7.9% of students that reported an average income, and 13.1% of students that reported an above average income (see Table E7).

Question 51 had the participants state whether they have a part-time job to assist the family financially. A Fisher's Exact test did not provide evidence of part-time employment as a predictor of risk of dropout at either the $p<.1$ or $p<.05$ levels at an alpha level of $p=.107$ (see Table E8). A crosstabulation revealed that of the students working part-time, 2.9% were at risk of dropping out of school. compared to 11.1% of those who did not work part-time (see Table E8).

Table E7

Financial Status as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

Financial Status		Risk of Dropout		Total
		Will return	At risk	
Above Average	Count	53	8	61
	% Yes	86.9%	13.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	22.6%	3.4%	26.1%
Average	Count	151	13	164
	% No	92.1%	7.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	64.5%	5.6%	70.1%
Below Average	Count	7	2	9
	% No	77.8%	22.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	3.0%	.9%	3.8%
Total	Count	211	23	234
	% of students	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	df	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square N of Valid Cases	2.972 234	2	.226

Table E8**Part-time Employment as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout****Crosstabulation**

Part-time Employment		Will return	At risk	Total
		Yes	34 97.1% 14.6%	1 2.9% .4%
No	176 88.9% 75.5%	22 11.1% 9.4%	198 100.0% 85.0%	
Total	Count % of students % of Total	210 90.1% 90.1%	23 9.9% 9.9%	233 100.0% 100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	233	.216	.107

Academic Achievement

Question 52 had students indicate their overall average in school last year according to the following ranges: (a) below 50%, (b) 50%-59%, (c) 60%-69%, (d) 70%-79%, and (e) 80%-100%. The responses were grouped into two categories: less than 60% and greater than 60%. A Fisher's Exact test was used to determine if school average was a predictor of risk of dropout and a significant result could not be established between the two variables at either the $p < .1$ or $p < .05$ levels at an alpha level of $p = .100$ (see Table E9). A crosstabulation of the data revealed that of the students that indicated they had an average less than 60%, 25% were at risk of dropping out of school, compared to 9% whose average was greater than 60% (see Table E10).

Question 53 had students describe the academic level they were mostly enrolled in according to the following categories: university, college, or workplace. There were a total of 176 students enrolled in university level courses, 53 students enrolled in college level courses, and 5 in workplace level courses. The respondents were grouped into two categories: university and college/workplace. Significance was established between the two variables at the $p < .05$ level at an alpha level of $p = .031$ (see Table E10). A crosstabulation found that of the students enrolled in academic level courses, 7.4% were at risk of dropping out of school, compared to 17.2% of those enrolled in college/workplace level courses (see Table E10). Students enrolled in college/workplace level courses were found to be a greater risk of dropping out of school.

Question 54 had students describe the level of difficulty of the courses taught at their school according to the following categories: (a) easy, (b) somewhat easy, (c) average, (d) somewhat difficult, and (e) difficult. The respondents were grouped into three categories: (a) easy, (b) average, and (c) difficult. A Pearson Chi-Square was used to determine if perceived level of academic difficulty was a predictor of risk of dropout. Significance could not be established at either the $p < .1$ or $p < .05$ levels at an alpha level of $p = .850$ (see Table E11). A crosstabulation revealed that the percentage of students at risk of dropping out of school increased as the perceived level of academic difficulty increased. It was found that of the students at risk of dropping out of school, 8.1% indicated their courses were easy, 9.2% indicated their courses were average, and 11% indicated their courses were difficult (see Table E11).

Table E9

School Average as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

School Average		Dropout Risk		Total
		Will return	At risk	
69% or less	Count % lower than 69% % of Total	64 90.1% 27.2%	7 9.9% 3.0%	71 100.0% 30.2%
70% or greater	Count % greater than 70% % of Total	148 90.2% 63.0%	16 9.8% 6.8%	164 100.0% 69.8%
Total	Count % of students % of Total	212 90.2% 90.2%	23 9.8% 100.0%	235 100.0% 100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	235	1.000	.575

Table E10**Academic Level as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout****Crosstabulation**

Academic Level				Total
		Will return	At risk	
University Level	Count	163	13	176
	% in University Level	92.6%	7.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	69.7%	5.6%	75.2%
College/Workplace	Count	48	10	58
	% College/Workplace Level	82.8%	17.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	20.5%	4.3%	24.8%
Total	Count	211	23	234
	% students	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	234	.040	.031

Table E11**Perceived Level of Academic Difficulty as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout****Crosstabulation**

Perceived Level of Academic Difficulty		Will return	At risk	Total
		Easy	Count 91.9% % in University Level 14.5% % of Total	34 91.9% 14.5%
Average	Count 90.8% % College/Workplace Level 37.9% % of Total	89 90.8% 37.9%	9 9.2% 3.8%	98 100.0% 41.7%
Difficult	Count 89.0% % students 37.9% % of Total	89 89.0% 37.9%	11 11.0% 4.7%	100 100.0% 42.6%
Total	Count 90.2% % students 90.2% % of Total	212 90.2% 90.2%	23 9.8% 9.8%	235 100.0% 100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square N of Valid Cases	.325 234	2	.850

Grade Retention and Course Failure

In determining whether grade retention was a predictor of risk of dropout, a Fisher's Exact test was used to analyze the data. It was found that grade retention ($p=.407$) was not a predictor of risk of dropout (see Table E12). The results of the test cannot be reported since it is not a valid test due to the fact that 50% of the cells had a count that was less than the minimum expected count. It must be noted that a crosstabulation of the data indicated that 20.0% of the students who had failed a grade

in elementary school and had to repeat the year, were found to be at risk of dropping out of school. This is in comparison to 9.6% of those who have never failed a grade in elementary school (see Table E12).

With regard to course failure ($p=.032$), it was found to be a predictor of risk of dropout (see Table E13). A crosstabulation found that of the students who had failed a course in high school, 16.4% were at risk of dropout, compared to 7.2% of students who had never failed a course (see Table E13).

Table E12
Grade Retention as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

Grade Retention				Total
		Will return	At risk	
Yes	Count	4	1	5
	% Failed	80.0%	20.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	1.7%	.4%	2.1%
No	Count	207	22	229
	% Not Failed	90.4%	9.6%	100.0%
	% of Total	88.5%	9.4%	97.9%
Total	Count	211	23	234
	% students	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	234	.407	.407

Table E13
Course Failure as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

Course Failure		Will return	At risk	Total
Yes	Count	56	11	67
	% Failed	83.6%	16.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	23.9%	4.7%	28.6%
No	Count	155	12	167
	% Not Failed	92.8%	7.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	66.2%	5.1%	71.4%
Total	Count	211	23	234
	% students	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.2%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	234	.049	.032

Absenteeism

Question 58 had students indicate the number of days they had been absent from school this year. The question had students respond according to a range: (a) 0-2 days, (b) 3-6 days, (c) 7-10 days, (d) 11-15 days, and (e) 16 or more days. In order to produce a valid test result, the ranges were grouped into two categories: (a) 0-6 days or (b) 7 or more days. A Fisher's Exact test was used to determine if absenteeism was a predictor of risk of dropout. Significance was not established at either the $p < .1$ or $p < .05$ levels at an alpha level of $p = .226$ (see Table E14). Although a crosstabulation did reveal that 13.5% of the students who had missed seven or more days of school

were at risk of dropping out, compared to 8.8% of those who had six or fewer (see Table E14).

Students who had been absent from school for five or more days were required to provide the reason for their absence. Question 59 had student check one or more of the following categories: (a) illness, (b) vacation, (c) personal issues, and (d) did not feel like coming attending school. Although “illness” was found to be the most common reason cited among the subjects, “did not feel like attending school” had been given as a reason by many of the students (see Table E15). A Fisher’s Exact test was used to determine if students who were absent because they did not feel like attending school was a predictor of risk of dropout. Significance was established at the $p < .1$ level at an alpha level of $p = .094$ (see Table E15). The results of the test cannot be reported since it is not valid, due to the fact that 25% of the cells have a count that is less than the minimum expected count. It must be noted that the crosstabulation revealed that of the students who had indicated they did not feel like attending school as a reason for their absence, 15.4% were found to be at risk. This is compared to 6.7% of students who did not provide that reason for their absences.

Table E14

Absenteeism as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

Absenteeism				Total
		Will return	At risk	
0-6 Days	Count	166	16	182
	% 0-6 Days	91.2%	8.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	70.9%	6.8%	77.8%
7 or more Days	Count	45	7	52
	% 7 or more Days	86.5%	13.5%	100.0%
	% of Total	19.2%	3.0%	22.2%
Total	Count	211	23	234
	% students	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	234	.303	.226

Table E15

Reasons for Extensive Absenteeism

Reasons for Absenteeism	# of students
Illness	101
Vacation	27
Personal Issues	29
Did not feel like attending school	39

Crosstabulation

Did not feel like attending school				Total
		Will return	At risk	
Yes	Count	33	6	39
	% Yes	84.6%	15.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	20.8%	3.8%	24.5%
No	Count	112	8	120
	% No	93.3%	6.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	70.4%	5.0%	75.5%
Total	Count	145	14	159
	% students	91.2%	8.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	91.2%	8.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	159	.109	.094

Disciplinary History

Questions 61 and 63 examined whether disciplinary problems were predictors of risk of dropout. Question 61 had students discuss if they had ever been suspended from school. A Fisher's Exact test was used and statistical significance could not be established at either the $p < .1$ or $p < .05$ levels at an alpha level of $p = .379$ (see Table E16). The results of the test cannot be reported since it is not valid, due to the fact that 25% of the cells had a count that was less than the minimum expected count. A crosstabulation of the data did provide evidence that 10.7% of the students who have been suspended were at risk of dropping out of school, compared to 8.4% of students who had not been suspended.

Multiple school suspensions ($p=.066$) were found to be a predictor of risk of dropout (see Table E16). The test result cannot be reported since it is not valid, due to the fact that 25% of the cells had a count that was less than the minimum expected count. A crosstabulation of data did reveal that 21.7% of the students who had been suspended for a period of more than one day were at risk of dropping out, compared to 8.8% of students who had not been suspended for one or more days (see Table E16).

Table E16

School Suspension as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

Suspension				Total
		Will return	At risk	
Yes	Count	45	6	51
	% Suspended	88.2%	11.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	19.1%	2.6%	21.7%
No	Count	167	17	184
	% Not Suspended	90.8%	9.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	71.1%	7.25%	78.3%
Total	Count	212	23	235
	% students	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	235	.598	.379

Table E17
Multiple Suspensions as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

Multiple Suspensions		Will return	At risk	Total
Yes	Count	18	5	23
	% Suspended	78.3%	21.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	7.9%	2.2%	10.1%
No	Count	186	18	204
	% Not Suspended	91.2%	8.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	81.9%	7.9%	89.9%
Total	Count	204	23	227
	% students	89.9%	10.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	89.9%	10.1%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	2227	.066	.066

Student Attitude Toward School

Question 64 of the questionnaire measured student attitude toward school by having them describe it as either (a) interesting, (b) somewhat interesting, (c) somewhat boring, or (d) boring. In order to produce a valid test result, the respondents were grouped into two categories: interesting and boring. A Fisher's Exact test was used to determine if student attitude was a predictor of risk of dropout. A statistically significant relationship was established at the $p < .05$ level at an alpha level of $p = .028$ (see Table E17). An analysis of the crosstabulation found that of the student who indicated that school was interesting, 6.9% were at risk of dropping out. In

comparison, 16% of the students who indicated that school was boring were at risk of dropping out (see Table E17).

Table E18
Student Attitude Toward School as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout

Crosstabulation

Student Attitude		Will return	At risk	Total
Interesting	Count	149	11	160
	% Interested	93.1%	6.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	63.4%	4.7%	68.1%
Boring	Count	63	12	75
	% Bored	84.0%	16.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	26.8%	5.1%	31.9%
Total	Count	212	23	235
	% students	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	235	.035	.028

Student Stress

Question 65 had students indicate what types of pressures or stress they experienced at school. There were four categories that included: (a) family pressures, (b) sexual pressures, (c) peer pressures, and (d) academic pressures (see Table E19). A statistical analysis of each type of student stress was conducted to determine if the different types of student stress were predictors of risk of dropout.

It was found that a statistically significant relationship could be established for both family and peer pressures. Statistically significance could be established for family pressures at the $p < .1$ level at an alpha level of $p = .060$ (see Table E20) and peer pressures at the $p < .05$ level at an alpha level of $p = .020$ (see Table E21). An analysis of the crosstabulation found that of the students who were at risk of dropping out, 16.1% cited having family pressures, compared to 7.9% of those who did not indicate having family pressures (see Table E20). Similarly, it was found that of the students who were at risk of dropping out, 18.9% cited having peer pressures, compared to 7.5% who did not indicate having peer pressures (see Table E21).

Table E19

Types of Student Stress

Types of Pressures/Stress	# of students
Family Pressures	62
Sexual Pressures	22
Peer Pressures	53
Academic Pressures	196

Table E20**Family Pressures as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout****Crosstabulation**

Family Pressures				Total
		Will return	At risk	
Yes	Count	52	10	62
	% Yes	83.9%	16.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	22.9%	4.4%	27.3%
No	Count	152	13	165
	% No	92.1%	7.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	67.0%	5.7%	72.7%
Total	Count	204	23	227
	% students	89.9%	10.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	89.9%	10.1%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	227	.084	.060

Table E21**Peer Pressures as a Predictor of Risk of Dropout****Crosstabulation**

Peer Pressures				Total
		Will return	At risk	
Yes	Count	43	10	53
	% Interested	81.1%	18.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	18.9%	4.4%	23.3%
No	Count	161	13	174
	% Bored	92.5%	7.5%	100.0%
	% of Total	70.9%	5.7%	76.7%
Total	Count	204	23	227
	% students	89.9%	10.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	89.9%	10.1%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Fisher's Exact Test N of Valid Cases	227	.034	.020

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

A. Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine whether participation in extracurricular activities was a predictor of sense of belonging, self-esteem, and risk of dropout among grade eleven secondary students. The study examined the different types of extracurricular activities normally offered within a typical Ontario high school. The extracurricular activities were grouped according to the following categories: (a) athletics, (b) intramural athletics, (c) high school publications, (d) department clubs, (e) social clubs, (f) religious organizations, (g) student government, and (h) music and drama. Students were required to indicate their level of involvement in each of the categories outlined.

Of the extracurricular categories outlined in the research, athletics was found to have the highest level of student participation with a total of 167 students reporting some level of involvement. All categories of school athletics no matter if they were gender oriented such as football, or individual sports such as tennis were included in this grouping. The research examined the effect of participation in athletics on belonging and it was found that student involvement had a statistically significant effect ($p < .05$) on belonging. The study indicated that students who were members of a school athletic team or individual sport benefited from higher levels of belonging to their school. A statistical analysis based on the level of participation in extracurricular athletics was possible due to a high level of involvement. A statistically significant difference was cited between students

with no involvement and those with ten or more hours of involvement ($p < .05$) indicating that as the level of involvement increased, students were found to have a greater sense of belonging. It may be that athletics provide some students with an identity in their school as the star athlete, which allows them to feel like a valued part of their school community. Not all participants enjoy the accolades that come with being a top athlete. For some students, athletics provide a sense of team camaraderie and belonging within a group. It may also serve as an avenue for establishing peer relationships and recognizing shared interests with other students.

Similar findings were uncovered with respect to participation in extracurricular athletics and its effect on self-esteem. Participation in school athletics was found to have a statistically significant effect on student self-esteem ($p < .1$). A statistically significant effect on self-esteem could not be established when examining the amount of participation. Although it must be noted that self-esteem scores were found to increase as the level of involvement increased. These findings indicate that student involvement in extracurricular athletics do have a positive effect on self-esteem, which may be attributed to a number of factors. Students may derive positive self-esteem from their achievements on the athletic field, or the treatment they receive from teachers and peers stemming from their accomplishments. Even students who occupy the role of reserve players may derive a positive self-concept from being a part of the team and sharing in their successes. The research revealed that extracurricular athletics was not a predictor of risk of dropout.

Additional research in this field may wish to examine the effect of participation in different types of athletic teams and individual competitions. This research grouped all forms of school athletics, assuming that participation in the school football team would have the same effect on the three variables examined as involvement in badminton. Some sports are more popular within the school community and demand higher status for their athletes. It is unreasonable to assume that involvement in a high profile sport such as football or basketball, would have the same effect as sports such as curling or golf where athletes are not as easily recognized for their talents within the school community. It must also be noted that participation in gender-oriented athletics may have affected the results of this research. Male students who compete in female oriented sports such as gymnastics may not benefit from their involvement to the extent that another male student on the basketball team would. It may be found that students who do not experience success on the athletic field may actually derive negative self-esteem from their participation in school sports. More research is needed to develop a better understanding of the impact of involvement in extracurricular athletics.

With regard to intramural athletics, it was also found to have a statistically significant effect on sense of belonging ($p < .05$). Students who had indicated that they had some level of involvement in intramural athletics were found to have a greater sense of belonging to their school. In contrast to extracurricular athletics however, it was not found to have an effect on self-esteem. These findings may be related to the nature of intramural athletics in that they are different from interschool sports leagues in which participation is reserved for the top athletes

within the school. Intramural athletics are devised with the intention of providing students who are not as athletically inclined an opportunity to participate in sports. Intramural athletics are not as focused on competition as they are on student enjoyment. It is understandable that students would derive a greater sense of belonging from their involvement in intramural activities in that it provides a forum for students to meet with a broader range of individuals within the school community and promotes a positive school climate. It is not meant to be a competitive league and students would not likely develop a greater level of self-esteem based on their involvement. Membership is open to any student who wishes to be involved and it is therefore not an accomplishment to be a participant.

A statistically significant relationship was established between participation in extracurricular intramural athletics and risk of dropout. It was found that risk of dropout actually increased when students participated in extracurricular intramural activities.

Involvement in high school publications was described in the research as participation in activities such as school newspaper or yearbook committee. Involvement in high school publications did not have an effect on sense of belonging, nor was it found to be a predictor of risk of student dropout. Participation in extracurricular high school publications was found to have a statistically significant effect on student self-esteem ($p < .1$). An analysis based on the level of participation was not possible because there were not enough students who had indicated they were involved in this activity. These findings may be

explained by the fact that students involved in this type of school activity attach a sense of pride to the work they generate and thus promote a greater level of self-esteem. Although the efforts of these students may go unnoticed by the general school population, students would likely receive positive feedback from their teachers.

Social clubs may include participation in activities such as environmental clubs or radio clubs. They are informal organizations, which are based on a common interest among students and teachers. The research provided evidence of social club involvement having a statistically significant effect on self-esteem ($p < .05$). It was not found to have an effect on sense of belonging. Participation in social clubs was not found to a predictor of risk of dropout. Although it was not found to have an effect on sense of belonging, the study did reveal that belonging did increase with involvement in social clubs. With regard to self-esteem, it may be that social clubs such as the environmental club often work to promote projects such as tree planting initiatives, from which students may derive a higher level of self-esteem because they are a part of something positive.

Involvement in department clubs, religious organizations, student government, and music and drama produced similar findings. Participation in each was found to have a statistically significant effect on sense of belonging. Participation in department clubs and student government was found to have a stronger effect on belonging ($p < .05$) than participation in religious organizations and music and drama ($p < .1$). None of these extracurricular activities were found to have a statistically significant effect on self-esteem. These extracurricular

activities were not found to be predictors of risk of dropout. An analysis based on the level of participation was not possible due to a limited number of students who had indicated involvement in these activities. These findings may be explained by the fact that involvement in these types of extracurricular activities allows students to meet others with similar interests and help them to forge stronger peer relationships and thus stronger ties to their school. It may be that students involved in these types of activities are active members of their school community and thus contribute to the well being of their school.

It was found that participation in extracurricular activities had a significant effect on student sense of belonging. Each extracurricular category outlined in the research was found to have an effect on sense of belonging, with the exception of high school publications and social clubs. Extracurricular activities provide students with an opportunity to become active members in their school community. Through their participation in these activities, students believe they are contributing to the well being of their school and are valued members of their school community.

Extracurricular activities were also found to have an effect on student self-esteem, however it was not as great as the effect evidenced on belonging. Extracurricular athletics, high school publications, and social clubs were each found to have an effect on student self-esteem. Self-esteem has been defined as a student's perception of himself or herself, which would not generally be affected by simply participating in extracurricular activities. Extracurricular activities do provide an opportunity for students to excel and therefore derive positive self-

esteem. It may assist in explaining the findings from this study regarding how participation in extracurricular activities was found to have a positive effect on self-esteem.

An interesting result from the study was that participation in extracurricular activities was not found to be a predictor of risk of dropout. None of the extracurricular activities outlined in the research were found to have an effect on the issue of student dropout, with the exception of participation in intramural athletics. It was actually found that students who were involved in intramural athletics were at greater risk of dropping out of school. Further research in this area is required in order to develop a better understanding of the relationship between the two variables.

A subsection of the study examined the predictors of risk of dropout based on the literature review and sought to determine if each of the categories outlined could be established as a predictors of risk of dropout. The predictors were grouped according to the following categories: (a) gender, (b) ethnicity, (c) parent's level of education, (d) parental encouragement, (e) financial status, (f) academic achievement, (g) grade retention and course failure, (h) absenteeism, (i) disciplinary history, (j) student attitude toward school, and (k) student stress.

Prior studies have established each of these variables as predictors of dropout. This particular study was only able to provide evidence of statistical significance with respect to the following categories: (a) mother's level of education, (b) academic level of the student, (c) course failure, (d) student attitude toward school, (e) family pressure, and (g) peer pressure. There were indications

that some of the other categories outlined in the research could be established as predictors, however in many cases the test was not valid because 25% of the cells or greater had a count that was less than the minimum expected count. Examples of predictors that could not be determined because of an invalid test result included: (a) ethnicity, (b) parental encouragement to pursue a post-secondary education, (c) students who had a high rate of absenteeism because they did not feel like attending school, and (d) multiple school suspensions.

B. Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are proposed:

1. The study should be replicated to include the entire population of grade eleven students across the city of Windsor, Ontario representing both the Catholic School Board and the Public School Board in order to obtain a broader and more representative sample of students.
2. The study should be replicated in another city to allow for an appropriate comparison between samples and a more accurate analysis of the data.
3. In many cases, a relationship could not be established between the variables studied due to an invalid test result. Perhaps a larger sample size is needed to produce a valid test result and a relationship may therefore be established between some of the variables examined in the research.
4. A greater effort should be made to obtain the participation of students enrolled in both college and workplace level courses in order to obtain a more representative sample of students

5. A follow-up of the study would be necessary in order to determine if the students who were believed to be at risk of dropping out of school actually withdrew before graduation. In addition, a follow-up would be needed to determine if any of the students that had indicated they would definitely return to school next year, later decided not to return.
6. The categories of extracurricular activities outlined in the study need to be more specific to provide an accurate analysis of the relationship of each to the dependent variables examined in the research. An example would be extracurricular athletics, which could be divided according to individual sports to provide a more accurate examination of the data.
7. Although participation in extracurricular activities was not found to be a predictor of risk of dropout, it was found to have an effect on sense of belonging and self-esteem. School administrators and teachers must recognize the importance of offering a broad range of extracurricular activities in their schools and devote the time and resources needed to offer a full range of extracurricular activities.
8. School administrators and teachers must encourage students to become involved in the extracurricular activities offered within the school
9. Schools should survey students to determine the types of activities that students would like to have offered at their school in order to increase the level of involvement.

10. **Guidance counselors should visit feeder schools to inform future students of the different opportunities available to them to participate once they arrive in high school.**
11. **Schools should send newsletters home to parents to inform them of the different types of extracurricular activities offered within the school in an effort to get parents to encourage their children to participate.**
12. **Academic factors were found to be an important predictor of risk of dropout. As a result, students enrolled in college or workplace level courses, and those who have failed courses need remediation and learning support to develop the intellectual skills needed to succeed in school.**
13. **Students who indicated that they were bored in school were found to be at risk of dropping out. Students must be engaged in the learning process to improve their attitude toward school. Teachers must use a variety of teaching strategies in the classroom to satisfy the different learning styles of their students and maintain their level of interest.**
14. **Guidance counselors and teachers must identify students in the school who are struggling with family and peer pressures. These students must be provided with the guidance and counseling needed to deal with these pressures**
15. **Schools should survey their students for the purpose of identifying those at risk of dropping out of school and provide these students with the support needed to remain in school**

16. Schools must follow-up on students who have dropped out to identify the reasons for their withdrawal and convince them to return and complete their education.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

University of Windsor Research Ethics Board Approval



February 25, 2002

Mr. John L. Cuzzocrea
 Faculty of Education
 University of Windsor
 Windsor, ON N9B 3P4

Dear Mr. Cuzzocrea,

Subject: The relationship between the level of participation in extracurricular activities and sense of belonging, level of self-esteem, and risk of dropping out among senior students

This letter is in response to your application for ethics review at the University of Windsor. The University of Windsor Research Ethics Board (REB) has reviewed the above noted study. I am pleased to inform you that the proposal has been cleared by the Board for a period of one year.

You are reminded to:

- Submit an annual report
- To notify the REB when the project is complete
- For modifications to project, submit a Request to Revise
- For adverse events or unexpected events, please contact the Office of Research Services without delay

Forms for submission/notification to the REB are available at the Office of Research Services' Web Site.

We wish you every success in your research.

Maureen H. Muldoon, Ph.D.

Maureen H. Muldoon, Ph.D.
 Chair
 University Research Ethics Board

cc: Dr. L. McKay
 Dr. D. Shantz
 M. Mekis, Ethics Coordinator

APPENDIX B

Parent/Guardian Consent Form



Consent to Participate in Research

Participation in extracurricular activities and the sense of belonging, self-esteem, and risk of dropping out among grade eleven students.

Your are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Dr. L. McKay, Dr. D. Shantz, and John L. Cuzzocrea, from the Faculty of Education at the University of Windsor. The results of this research study will be used in completing a thesis to fulfill the research component of the Master of Education program at the University of Windsor.

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Dr. L. McKay at 253-3000 ext.3819 or J. Cuzzocrea at 966-2504.

Purpose of the Study:

This study will hopefully provide information about the students who are at-risk of dropping out of school and it may provide further insight into the sense of belonging and the level of self-esteem resulting from participation in extracurricular activities.

Procedures:

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:

Students would be required to complete a ten-page questionnaire, which should take approximately 20 minutes. The questionnaire will be completed during class time and under the supervision of the classroom teacher.

Once completed, the teacher will collect the questionnaires and place them in a sealed envelope to be returned to the researcher by mail.

Students will not be contacted for follow-up sessions or subsequent related studies.

Results of the study will be made available to any students or parents/guardians. For information on the results of the study, you may contact Dr. L. McKay at 253-3000 ext.3819 or J. Cuzzocrea at 966-2504.

Potential Risks and Discomforts:

There are no foreseeable risks, discomforts, or inconveniences associated with the study

Potential Benefits to Subjects and/or to Society:

Students at risk of dropping out may benefit from the study as further research may lead to a better understanding of their needs. Researchers may be able to develop feasible solutions for the problem. It may be for some students that participation in extracurricular activities will provide them with a sense of belonging to their school and a higher level of self-esteem.

The study may prove to be beneficial to other researchers examining the problem of student dropouts. More research is needed on the importance of extracurricular activities in keeping students from dropping out of school. Society as a whole may eventually benefit from this research as student dropouts have been linked to higher rates of unemployment, crime, and dependency on welfare.

Payment for Participation:

The subjects will not receive payment for their participation in this study

Confidentiality:

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. The subjects will remain anonymous and will be advised not to place their names on the questionnaires. If a student does place their name on the questionnaire, then that instrument will not be used in the study and the questionnaire will be shredded immediately. The teacher will collect all questionnaires and place them in a sealed envelope. The envelope will be returned anonymously through the mail. At no time during the entire process, will the researcher meet with the subjects used in the study.

All questionnaires will be kept in a locked filing cabinet until the data can be collected and analyzed. Once that process has been completed, the questionnaires will be shredded immediately.

Participation and Withdrawal:

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may exercise the option of removing your data from the study. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances are which warrant doing so.

Rights of Research Subjects:

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. This study has been reviewed and received ethics clearance through the University of Windsor Research Ethics board. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact:

Research Ethics Co-ordinator
University of Windsor
Windsor, Ontario
N9B 3P4

Telephone: 519-253-3000, #3916
E-mail: www.ethics@uwindsor.ca

Signature of Research Subject/Legal Representative:

I understand the information provided for the study "Participation in extracurricular activities and the sense of belonging, self-esteem and risk of dropping out among grade eleven students" as described herein. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I agree to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of Subject

Signature of Student Assent

Date

Name of Parent/Guardian

Signature of Parent/Guardian

Date

APPENDIX C

Instrument Used in the Research

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTIONS: Please answer the following questions. Your responses are confidential and anonymous. Please do not leave questions unanswered. Thank you!

Section A: Level of Participation in Extracurricular Activities

1. Please circle the average number of hours per week, which you spent participating in each of the extracurricular activities listed below. (Based on previous year of high school completed).

- a. **Athletics**
(football, baseball, swimming, etc.)

0 hours per week	1-2 hours per week	3-5 hours per week	6-9 hours per week	10 or more hours per week
---------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	------------------------------

- b. **Athletics – Intramural**
(floor hockey, 3 on 3 basketball, etc.)

0 hours per week	1-2 hours per week	3-5 hours per week	6-9 hours per week	10 or more hours per week
---------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	------------------------------

- c. **High School Publications**
(yearbook, school newspaper, etc.)

0 hours per week	1-2 hours per week	3-5 hours per week	6-9 hours per week	10 or more hours per week
---------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	------------------------------

d. Department Clubs
(business club, Italian club, etc.)

0 hours per week	1-2 hours per week	3-5 hours per week	6-9 hours per week	10 or more hours per week
---------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	------------------------------

e. Social Clubs
(radio club, dance club, etc.)

0 hours per week	1-2 hours per week	3-5 hours per week	6-9 hours per week	10 or more hours per week
---------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	------------------------------

f. Religious Organizations
(campus ministry, prayer group, etc.)

0 hours per week	1-2 hours per week	3-5 hours per week	6-9 hours per week	10 or more hours per week
---------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	------------------------------

g. Student Government

0 hours per week	1-2 hours per week	3-5 hours per week	6-9 hours per week	10 or more hours per week
---------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	------------------------------

h. Music and Drama

0 hours per week	1-2 hours per week	3-5 hours per week	6-9 hours per week	10 or more hours per week
---------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	------------------------------

(Pascarella, 1982)

Section B: Sense of Belonging

Please circle a number (1 – 5) to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2) Most days I am excited about going to school	1	2	3	4	5
3) I have many friends at this school	1	2	3	4	5
4) School staff treat all the students fairly and equally	1	2	3	4	5
5) I feel comfortable at this school and have a sense of belonging	1	2	3	4	5
6) Teachers, counselors, and administrators have been helpful and supportive in the pursuit of my educational goals	1	2	3	4	5
7) If I have a problem in class or with school, there is someone on campus I trust to get help from	1	2	3	4	5
8) I do not feel excluded from campus activities because of my racial/ethnic background	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
9) Students are given the respect and responsibility of adults	1	2	3	4	5
10) Instructors respect student points of view that are different from their own	1	2	3	4	5
11) If I were starting over, I would enroll at this school	1	2	3	4	5
12) I am an important part of this school	1	2	3	4	5
13) If I have a family, financial, or other personal problem, there is someone on campus I trust to seek help from	1	2	3	4	5
14) Many of my closest friends attend this school	1	2	3	4	5
15) I have not been treated rudely by other students at school	1	2	3	4	5
16) I have not been treated rudely by school staff	1	2	3	4	5
17) People at this school respect and are supportive of each other	1	2	3	4	5
18) It is an enjoyable experience to be a student at this school	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
19) The school staff are caring and helpful	1	2	3	4	5
20) Students are made to feel welcomed at this school	1	2	3	4	5
21) Administrators are easy to talk to	1	2	3	4	5

(San Diego Community College District, CA, Research and Planning, 1994; Compton Community College, CA, 1994)

Section C: Level of Self-Esteem

Please circle a number (1 – 5) to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
22) I am not popular with kids my own age	1	2	3	4	5
23) I am lonely very often	1	2	3	4	5
24) Other kids think I am a bad student	1	2	3	4	5
25) Most people are better liked than I am	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26) I often get discouraged in school	1	2	3	4	5
27) I have very few friends in school	1	2	3	4	5
28) I have little self control	1	2	3	4	5
29) My teachers make me feel I am not good enough	1	2	3	4	5
30) School work is fairly difficult for me	1	2	3	4	5
31) I often wish I had more friends	1	2	3	4	5
32) I wish I were a different person	1	2	3	4	5
33) Teachers expect too much from me	1	2	3	4	5
34) I forget most of what I learn	1	2	3	4	5
35) I do not seem to fit in at this school	1	2	3	4	5
36) Other students seem happier than I am	1	2	3	4	5
37) No one really cares much about what happens to me	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
38) I am not satisfied with myself	1	2	3	4	5
39) I am usually shy and self-conscious in social situations	1	2	3	4	5
40) I have difficulty accepting criticism	1	2	3	4	5
41) Sometimes I think I am no good at all	1	2	3	4	5
42) There are lots of things about myself I would change if I could	1	2	3	4	5

(Cassidy & Broks, 1978)

Section D: Risk of Student Dropout

43. Are you male or female? (Please check one)

Male	<input type="checkbox"/>
Female	<input type="checkbox"/>

44. Which ethnic group(s) would you associate yourself with? (Please check one or more)

European (Caucasian)	
Native Canadian	
Black	
Asian	
Hispanic	
Southeast Asian	
Arabic	

Other (Please Specify): _____

45. What was the highest-grade level completed by your father? (Please circle one)

Up to Grade 6	Grade 7 - 10	Grade 11 - 12	1 - 4 Years of University	4 Years or more of University
---------------	--------------	---------------	---------------------------	-------------------------------

46. What was the highest-grade level completed by your mother? (Please circle one)

Up to Grade 6	Grade 7 - 10	Grade 11 - 12	1 - 4 Years of University	4 Years or more of University
---------------	--------------	---------------	---------------------------	-------------------------------

47. Have your parents ever encouraged you to graduate from high school? (Please check one)

Yes	
No	

48. Have your parents ever encouraged you to pursue a post-secondary education?
(Please check one)

Yes	
No	

49. How many siblings do you have? (Please include step-brothers and step-sisters)

50. How would you describe your family's financial status? (Please check one)

Above average income	
Average income	
Below average income	

51. Do you work part-time in order to assist your family financially? (Please check one)

Yes	
No	

52. What was your overall average in school last year? (Please circle one)

Below 50%	50% - 59%	60% - 69%	70% - 79%	80% - 100%
-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------	------------

53. Are you enrolled in mostly University, College, or Workplace level courses?
(Please check one)

University	<input type="checkbox"/>
College	<input type="checkbox"/>
Workplace	<input type="checkbox"/>

-
54. How would you describe the courses at your school?

Easy	<input type="checkbox"/>
Somewhat Easy	<input type="checkbox"/>
Average	<input type="checkbox"/>
Somewhat Difficult	<input type="checkbox"/>
Difficult	<input type="checkbox"/>

-
55. Have you ever failed a grade in elementary school and had to repeat the year?
(Please check one)

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>

-
56. Have you ever failed a course in high school? (Please check one)

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>

-
57. If you answered yes to question 57, how many courses have you failed in your high school career?

58. How many days have you been absent from school so far this year (Does not include school related activities)? (Please check one)

0 - 2 Days	3 - 6 Days	7 - 10 Days	11 - 15 Days	16 or more Days
------------	------------	-------------	--------------	-----------------

59. If you have been absent from school for 5 or more days so far this year, then please provide a reason for your absence? (Please check one or more)

Illness	
Vacation	
Personal Issues	
Did not feel like attending school	
Other	

60. Have you ever been suspended from school? (Please check one)

Yes	
No	

61. If yes, how many times since you have been attending school?

62. Have you ever been suspended for a period of more than one day? (Please check one)

Yes	
No	

63. How would you describe your attitude toward school? (Please check one)

Interesting	
Somewhat Interesting	
Somewhat Boring	
Boring	

64. Do you consider school to be a stressful experience? (Please check one)

Yes	
Sometimes	
No	

65. If yes, what type(s) of pressures or stress do you experience (Please check one or more)

Family Pressures	
Sexual Pressures	
Peer Pressures	
Academic Pressures	

Other (Please Specify): _____

66. How important is it for you to graduate from high school? (Please check one)

a. Extremely important	
b. Very important	
c. Somewhat important	
d. Not at all important	

67. Will you return to school next September in order to graduate? (Please check one)

a. Definitely will return	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Probably will return	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Not sure	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Probably will not return	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. Definitely will not return	<input type="checkbox"/>

APPENDIX D

Letter of Permission to the Superintendent of Education



John Cuzzocrea
 XXXX XXXXXX
 Windsor, ON
 XXX XXX

November 15, 2001

Mx. XXXXX XXXXXXXXX
 Superintendent of Curriculum
 XXXX XXXXX Catholic District School Board
 XXXX XXXXXX
 XXXXXX, ON
 XXX XXX

Dear Mx. XXXXXXXXX,

As a graduate student at the University of Windsor working toward a Master of Education degree, it is necessary to fulfill the research component of my program. My proposed research study will look at participation in extracurricular activities and sense of belonging, level of self-esteem, and risk of dropping out among grade eleven students.

Approval to proceed has been granted by the Graduate Committee and the Ethics Committee at the University of Windsor. Your permission to contact Principals at schools within your Board of Education would be greatly appreciated. The information for this research study will be obtained using a questionnaire to be completed by secondary students at the Grade Eleven level. In order to participate in the study, the students will not be completing their requirements for graduation by the end of the current academic year. The study has been categorized as minimal risk and

the anonymity of the students is assured. Copies of the research proposal and questionnaire are enclosed for your review.

Participation in this study will be completely voluntary. Those individuals who decide to participate will have the option of withdrawing at any time before or during the study without any repercussions. There are no known risks associated with the research. The results of the study will be made available upon request.

Should you have any questions or concerns with respect to the intended research, please contact either my advisor Dr. L. McKay at (519) 253-3000 Ext. 3819 or myself at (519) 966-2504. Thank you for considering my request.

Sincerely,

John Cuzzocrea

APPENDIX E

Letter of Permission to the Secondary School Principals



John Cuzzocrea
 XXXX XXXXX
 Windsor, ON
 XXX XXX

February 15, 2002

Mx. X. XXXXXXX
 Principal
 XXXXXXX High School
 XXXX XXXXX
 XXXXXXX, ON
 XXX XXX

Dear Mx. XXXXXXX:

As a graduate student at the University of Windsor working toward a Masters of Education degree, it is necessary to fulfill the research component of my program. The proposed study will attempt to determine if participation in extracurricular activities is a predictor of sense of belonging, self-esteem, and risk of dropping out among grade eleven students. Approval to proceed with this research has already been obtained from the University of Windsor Research Ethics Board and from Mx. XXXXXXX, Director of Education at the XXXXXXX School Board. Your agreement to participate in this study would be greatly appreciated.

The information for this research study will be obtained using a questionnaire to be completed by secondary students at the Grade Eleven level. In order to participate in the study, the students will not be completing their requirements for graduation by the end of the current academic year. The study has been categorized as minimal risk and

the anonymity of the students is assured. A copy of the questionnaire has been enclosed for your review.

Anonymity of all the respondents will be ensured. All participants will have the option to withdraw from the study at any time before or during the process without any repercussions. There are no known risks associated with the research. Results of the research will be made available upon request.

Should you have any questions or concerns with respect to the intended research, please contact either my advisor Dr. L. McKay at (519) 253-3000 Ext. 3819 or myself at (519) 966-2504. Thank you for considering my request.

Sincerely,

John Cuzzocrea

APPENDIX F

Letter to Teachers (i.e. Consent Forms)



Dear Teacher,

Your grade eleven class has been chosen to participate in a research study examining extracurricular participation and sense of belonging, self-esteem, and risk of dropping out among grade eleven students. Approval to proceed with this research has already been obtained from Dr. Muldoon of the Ethics Committee at the University of Windsor, Mx. XXXX XXXXXX, Superintendent of the XXXX XXXX Catholic District School Board, and Mx. XXX XXXX, Principal of XXXXX High School.

Students participating in the study will complete a questionnaire, which should require no longer than 20 minutes of one class period. Please remind the students that they will have the option to withdraw from the study at any time before or during the process without any repercussions. However, once the questionnaires have been submitted, it will not be possible to remove their questionnaire from the study because there is no information to identify each individual. The study has been categorized as minimal risk research and the anonymity of the participants will be ensured. Results of the research will be made available upon request.

Please distribute the consent forms to each grade eleven student in your class and encourage the students to have their forms signed by their parent/guardian by Friday, March 22. It is necessary for the students to have the consent form signed or they will not be allowed to participate in the study. You will receive further notice once the exact date for the study has scheduled.

I thank you in advance for your cooperation and participation in this study. If you have any questions or concerns, please contact Dr. Linda McKay at 253-4232 ext.3819 (lmckay@uwindsor.ca) or John Cuzzocrea at 966-2504 (jcuzzocrea@cogeco.ca).

Sincerely,

John Cuzzocrea

APPENDIX G

Letter to Teacher (i.e. Student Questionnaires)



Dear Teacher,

I have supplied a list of the students from your period one class who have returned their consent forms and will be participating in the study. Please distribute a questionnaire to each of these students at the beginning of class on Monday, March 25. The majority of students participating will require approximately 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire, however if a student requires additional time, then I ask that you allow them the time necessary to complete all of the questions.

Please remind the students not to place their name on the questionnaire in that it is to remain anonymous. In addition, students are to be reminded that they have the right to withdraw their participation at any time before or during the study, however once the questionnaires have been submitted they will be used as part of the research.

Once all of the questionnaires have been submitted, please seal the envelope and return it to the main office by the end of the school day. I thank you in advance for your participation and cooperation in this matter and I welcome any inquiries regarding the results of the research. Please feel free to contact Dr. L. McKay at 253-3000 ext.3819 or John Cuzzocrea at 966-2504.

Sincerely,

John Cuzzocrea

REFERENCES

- Albert, L. (1991). *Cooperative discipline*. Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.
- Alexander, W.M., & George, P.S. (1981). *The exemplary middle school*. Chicago: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Alspaugh, J.W. (1998). The relationship of school and community characteristics to high school drop-out rates. *The Clearing House*, 71(3), 184-188.
- Arhar, J.M., & Kromrey, J.D. (1993). *Interdisciplinary teaming in the middle level school: Creating a sense of belonging for at-risk middle level students*. Atlanta, GA: A paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED364456)
- Astone, N.M., & McLanahan, S.S. (1991). Family structure, parental practices and high school completion. *American Sociological Review*, 56, 309-320.
- Bachman, J.G., Green, S., & Wirtanen, I.D. (1971). *Dropping out: Problem or symptom?* Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research.
- Bachman, J., O'Malley, P., & Johnston, J. (1978). Adolescence to adulthood: Change and stability in the lives of young men. *Youth in transition (Vol. 6)*. Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research, Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.
- Baenen, N.R., & Hopkins, P. (1989). *Secondary retention alternative—Austin ISD*. San Francisco, CA: Paper presented at annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association.

- Barber, B.L., & Eccles, J.S. (1997). *Student council, volunteering, basketball, or marching band: What kind of extracurricular involvement matters?* Washington, DC: Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research on Child Development.
- Barber, B. L., Eccles, J. S., & Stone, M. R. (2001). Whatever happened to the jock, the brain, and the princess? Young adult pathways linked to adolescent activity involvement and social identity. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 16*(5), 429-455.
- Barker, R.G., & Gump, P.V. (1964). *Big school, small school: High school size and students behavior*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Baumeister, R.F., & Leary, M.R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychology Bulletin, 117*, 497-529.
- Beacham, H. (1988). Dropout prevention: A study to develop innovative approaches. *Florida Vocational Journal, 3*(5), 14-15.
- Beekman, N. (1988). *The dropouts perspective on leaving school*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED291015)
- Beer, J., & Beer, J. (1992). Depression, self-esteem, suicide ideation, and gpas of high school students at risk. *Psychological Reports, 71*(3), 899-902.
- Bird, A.M., & Cripe, B.K. (1986). *Psychology and sport behavior*. St. Louis, MO: Times Mirror/Mosby.
- Bishopp, T. (1987). An alternative learning experience for a special kind of student. *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 71*(497), 116-118.

- Blinde, E.M., & Taub, D.E. (1992). Women athletes as falsely accused deviants: Managing the lesbian stigma. *Sociological Quarterly, 33*, 521-533.
- Blum, D.J., & Jones, A.L. (1993). Academic growth group and mentoring program for potential dropouts. *The School Counselor, 40*(5), 207-217.
- Brandt, R. (1990). On liberal education for tomorrow's world: A conversation with Douglas Heath. *Educational Leadership, 47*, 37-40.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1986). Alienation and the four winds of childhood. *Phi Delta Kappan, 67*(6), 430-436.
- Brookover, W.B., Erickson, E.L., & Joiner, L.M. (1967). *Self-concept of ability and school achievement, III: Final report on cooperative research project no.2831*. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University.
- Bryk, A., & Thum, Y.M. (1989). The Effects of High School Organization on Dropping Out: An Exploratory Investigation. CPRE Research Report Series (Report No. EA020754). New Brunswick, N.Y. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED304755)
- Burke, R.J., & Weir, T. (1978). Sex differences in adolescent life stress, social support, and well-being. *Journal of Psychology, 102*, 49-62.
- Burns, R. (1982). *Self-concept development and education*. London: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
- Byrnes, D., & Yamamoto, K. (1983). Invisible children: A descriptive study of social isolates. *Journal of Research and Development in Education, 16*, 15-25.
- Cairns, R.B., Cairns, B.D., & Neckerman, H.J. (1989). Early school dropout: Configurations and determinants. *Child Development, 60*, 1437-1452.

- Campbell, W.J. (1964). Some effects of high school consolidation. In R.G. Barker & P.V. Gump (Eds.), *Big school, small school: High school size and student behavior* (pp.139-153). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Cassidy, P., & Broks, G. (1978). *North york self concept inventory: Secondary school norms*. Willowdale, ON: North York Board of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED226024)
- Catterall, J.S. (1986). *A process model of dropping out of school: Implications for research and policy in an era of raised academic standards*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED281137)
- Coleman, J.S. (1961). *The adolescent society*. New York: Free Press.
- Compton Community College, CA. (1994). *Compton Community College Campus Climate Survey*. Compton, CA: Compton Community College. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 375871)
- Conard, F., & Asher, J. W. (2000). Self-concept and self-esteem through Drama: A meta-analysis. *Youth Theatre Journal*, 14, 78-84.
- Conrath, J. (1986). Ten rules for reducing your dropout rate. *The Executive Educator*, 8(7), 24-25.
- Cook, M.A., & Alexander, K.L. (1980). Design and Substance in Educational Research: Adolescent Attainments, A Case in Point. *Sociology of Education*, 53(4), 187-202.
- Coopersmith, S. (1967). *The Antecedents of Self-Esteem*. San Francisco, CA: W.H. Freeman.

- DeBlaisie, R.R., & Healy, G.W. (1970). *Self-concept: A comparison of Spanish-american, negro, and anglo adolescents across ethnic, sex, and socioeconomic variables*. Las Cruces, NM: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools.
- Desertrain, G.S., & Weiss, M.R. (1988). Being female and athletic: A cause for conflict? *Sex Roles, 18*, 567-582.
- Douvan, E., & Gold, M. (1966). Model patterns in american adolescence. In Hoffman, L.W., & Hoffman, M.L. (eds.), *Review of Child Development Research (Vol. 2)*. Sage.
- Eccles, J.S., & Barber, B.L. (1999). Student council, volunteering, basketball, or marching band: What kind of extracurricular involvement matters? *Journal of Adolescent Research, 14*, 10-43.
- Edwards, D. (1995). The school counselor's role in helping teachers and students belong. *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 29*(3), 191-197.
- Elliot, D.S., & Voss, H.L. (1974). *Delinquency and dropout*. Toronto: D.C. Heath and Company.
- Epstein, J.L., & MacIver, D.J. (1990). *Education in the middle grades: National practices and trends*. Columbus, OH: National Middle School Association.
- Fagon, J., & Pabon, E. (1990). Contributions of delinquency and substance use to school dropout among inner-city youth. *Youth Society, 21*, 306-354.
- Faunce, W. A. (1984). School achievement, social status, and self-esteem. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 47*(1), 3-14.

- Felker, D.W., & Thomas, S.B. (1971). Self-initiated verbal reinforcement and positive self-concept. *Child Development, 42*, 1285-1287.
- Feltz, D. (1978). Athletics in the social status system of female adolescents. *Review of Sport and Leisure, 3*, 98-108.
- Fielstein, E., & Klein, M. S., & Fischer, M., & Hanan, C., & Koburger, P., & Schneider, M. J., et al. (1985). Self-esteem and causal attributions for success and failure in children. *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 9*(4), 381-398.
- Fine, M. (1991). *Framing dropouts: Notes on the politics of an urban public high school*. Albany: SUNY Press.
- Finn, J. (1989). Withdrawing from school. *Review of Educational Research, 59*, 117-142.
- Frerichs, A.H. (1971). Relationship of self-esteem of the disadvantaged to school success. *Journal of Negro Education, 117-120*.
- George, P., & Oldaker, L. (1986). *Evidence for the middle school*. Columbus, OH: National Middle School Association.
- Gill, D., Gross, J., & Huddleston, S. (1983). Participation motivation in youth sports. *International Journal of Sports Psychology, 14*, 1-14.
- Goldberg, A., & Chandler, T. (1991). Sport participation among adolescent girls: role conflict or multiple roles? *Sex Roles, 25*, 213-224.
- Goodenow, C. (1991). *The sense of belonging and its relationship to academic motivation among pre- and early adolescent students*. Chicago, IL: Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the American Educational Research Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED335151)

- Goodenow, C. (1992). *School motivation, engagement, and sense of belonging among urban adolescent students*. San Francisco, CA: A paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED349364)
- Goodman, J. (1992). *Elementary schooling for critical democracy*. Albany: SUNY Press.
- Gordon, C. (1969). *Looking ahead: Self conceptions of race and family as determinants of adolescents' orientation to achievement*. Washington, DC: Rose Monograph series, American Sociological Association.
- Grabe, M. (1981). School size and the importance of school activities. *Adolescence*, 61, 21-31.
- Grissom, J.B., & Shepard, L.A. (1989). *Structural equation modeling of retention and overage effects of dropping out of school*. San Francisco, CA: Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association.
- Grobe, R.P., Knecht, M.A., & Burns, J.I. (1978). *Self-concept: A comparison of low socioeconomic, low achieving secondary students across ethnic, sex, and age variables*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED159295)
- Hagerty, B.M., Williams, R.A., Coyne, J.C., & Early, M.R. (1996). Sense of belonging and indicators of social and psychological functioning. *Archives of Psychiatric Nursing*, 10(4), 235-244.
- Hahn, A. (1987). Reaching Out to America's Dropouts: What to Do? *Phi Delta Kappan*, 69(4), 256-263.

- Hess, G.A. (1986). *Educational triage in an urban school setting*. Philadelphia, PA: Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Meetings.
- Hill, K.G. (1989). *Grade retention and dropping out of school*. San Francisco, CA: A paper presented at the AERA annual meeting. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED309546)
- Hines, S., & Groves, D. L. (1989). Sports competition and its influence on self-esteem development. *Adolescence*, 24(96), 861-869.
- Hirschi, T. (1969). *Causes of delinquency*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Hodge, E.A. (1991). *Intervention for at-risk students at the secondary level*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.339764)
- Hodges, V.P. (1993). *Teaching at-risk students: A quality program in a small rural high school*. Oklahoma City, OK: National Conference on Creating the Quality School. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED360131)
- Hodgkins, B.J., & Stakenas, R.G. (1969). A study of self-concepts of Negro and white youths in segregated environments. *Journal of Negro Education*, 38, 370-377.
- Holland, A., & Andre, T. (1987). Participation in extracurricular activities in secondary school: What is known, what needs to be known. *Review of Educational Research*, 57, 437-466.
- Holland, A., & Andre, T. (1994). Athletic participation and the social status of adolescent males and females. *Youth and Society*, 25(3), 388-407.
- Hood, M.W. (1992). Mentoring program provides nurturing atmosphere for all adolescents. *Schools in the Middle*, 1(3), 20-22.

- Iso-Ahola, S. (1986). *Psychology of sports: A social psychological approach*. Dubuque, IA: W.C. Brown Co.
- Jackson, S.A., & Marsh, H.W. (1986). Athletic or antisocial? The female sport experience. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 8, 198-211.
- Janosz, M., LeBlanc, M., Boulerice, B., & Tremblay, R.E. (1997). Disentangling the weight of school dropout predictors: A test on two longitudinal samples. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 26(6), 733-762.
- Jaffe, L., & Manzer, R. (1992). Girl's perspective: Physical activity and self-esteem. *Melpomen Journal*, 11(3), 14-23. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED395255)
- Jaffe, L., & Ricker, S. (1993). Physical activity and self-esteem in girls: The teen years. *Melpomene Journal*, 12(3), 19-26. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED395256)
- Johnson, D., & Johnson, R. (1984). *Circles of learning: Cooperation in the classroom*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Johnston, J.H., & Markle, G.C. (1986). What research says to the middle level practitioner. Columbus, OH: National Middle School Association.
- Jones, S.C. (1973). Self and interpersonal evaluations: Esteem theories versus consistency theories. *Psychological Bulletin*, 79, 185-199.
- Jones, J.G., & Grieneeks, L. (1970). Measures of self-perception as predictors of scholastic achievement. *Journal of Educational Research*, 63, 201-203.

- Kalliopuska, M. (1987). *The relation of empathy and self-esteem with active sporting*. Tokyo, Japan: Biennial Meeting of the International Society for the Study of Behavioral Development. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED289871)
- Kalliopuska, M. (1989). *Empathy, self-esteem and creativity among junior ballet dancers*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED311026)
- Kane, M.J. (1988). The female athlete role as a status determinant within the social systems of high school adolescents. *Adolescence*, 23, 253-264.
- Karlin, M.S., & Berger, R. (1971). *The effective student activities program*. New York: Parker Publishing Company Inc.
- Kernaleguen, A. (1980). Clothing: An important symbol for adolescents. *School Guidance Worker*, 35(3), 37-41.
- Kester, V.M. (1994). Factors that affect african-american students' bonding to middle school. *The Elementary School Journal*, 95(1), 63-73.
- Krauss, D. (1993). Building a student activity program. *Schools in the Middle*, 3(1), 17-20.
- Lawton, S.B., Leithwood, K.A., Batcher, E., Donaldson, E.L., & Stewart, R. (1988). *Student retention and transition in ontario high schools*. Toronto, ON: Ontario Department of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED309554)
- LeCompte, M.D. (1987). The cultural context of dropping out: Why remedial programs fail to solve the problems. *Education and Urban Society*, 19(3), 232-249.

- LeCompte, M.D., & Dworkin, A.G. (1991). *Giving up on school: Student dropouts and teacher burnouts*. Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.
- LeCompte, M.D., & Goebel, S.D. (1987). Can bad data produce good program planning? An analysis of record-keeping on school dropouts. *Education and Urban Society*, 19(3), 250-268.
- Levin, B. (1990). Dropouts. *The Canadian School Executive*, 10(4), 15-17.
- Linder, F. (1981). *The adoption of a self-esteem inventory to assess the impact of an arts based program on middle and high school children*. Philadelphia, PA: Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Eastern Educational Research Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED216258)
- Lindsay, P. (1982). The effect of high school size on student participation satisfaction, and attendance. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 4(1), 57-65.
- Lirgg, C. D. (1992). Girls and women, sport, and self-confidence. *Quest*, 44(22), 158-178.
- Lloyd, M. (1985). *Adolescence*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Mahoney, J.L., & Cairns, R.B. (1997). Do extracurricular activities protect against early school dropout? *Developmental Psychology*, 33, 241-253.
- Marchesi, A. (1998). Meeting the needs of students at risk. *Education Canada*, 38(2), 22-30.
- Marsh, H.W., & Jackson, S.A. (1986). Multidimensional self-concepts, masculinity, and femininity as a function of women's involvement in athletics. *Sex Roles*, 15, 391-415.

- Maslow, A. (1954). *Motivation and personality*. New York: Harper.
- Maslow, A. (1962). *Toward a psychology of being*. Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand.
- Mazzarella, J.A. (1978). *Improving self-image of students*. (ERIC Document
Reproduction Service No.ED163561).
- McCombs, A., & Forehand, R. (1989). Adolescent school performance following
parental divorce: Are there family factors that can enhance success? *Adolescence*,
24, 871-880.
- McCormick, K. (1989). *An equal chance: Educating at-risk children to succeed*.
Alexandria, VA: National School Boards Association. (ERIC Document
Reproduction Service No.ED307359).
- McPartland, J.M. (1992). *How departmentalized staffing and interdisciplinary teaming
combine for effects on middle grades students*. San Francisco, CA: Paper
presented at the American Educational Research Association annual conference.
- Merenbloom, E.Y. (1986). *The team process in the middle school: A handbook for
teachers (2nd Ed.)*. Columbus, OH: National Middle School Association.
- Metheny, E. (1977). *Connotations of movement in sport and dance*. Dubuque, IA:
William C. Brown.
- Modugno, A.D. (1991). The lost student found. *Music Educators Journal*, 78(3),
50-54.
- Montecel, M.R., Supik, J.D., & Cardenas, J.A. (1994). *Improving student performance:
Study indentifies better approach*. Intercultural Development Research
Association Newsletter, 21(9), 2-5.

- Morgan, G.J. (1981). *The Rosenberg self-esteem scale as a predictor of the extra-curricular activities of summer college freshmen.* (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED291751)
- Natriello, G., McDill, E.L., & Pallas, A.M. (1990). *Schooling disadvantaged children: Racing against catastrophe.* New York: Teachers College Press.
- Neufeld, R.G. (1992). *Stay in school: Community/School partnerships.* Kingston, ON: The Canadian Council for Exceptional Children.
- Neufeld, R.G., & Stevens, A. (1992). *Stay in school: A summary of research on school dropouts and implication for special education.* Kingston, ON: The Canadian Council for Exceptional Children.
- Neufeld, R.G., Chapman, D., & Handy, L. (1992). *Stay in school: Local planning process and model goals and objectives.* Kingston, ON: The Canadian Council for Exceptional Children.
- Newmann, F. (1981). Reducing student alienation in the high schools: Implications of theory. *Harvard Educational Review, 51*, 546-564.
- O'Donnell, W.J. (1976). Adolescent self-esteem related to feelings toward parents and friends. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 5*, 179-185.
- Otto, L.B. (1975). Extracurricular activities in the educational attainment process. *Rural Sociology, 40*, 162-176.
- Otto, L.B. (1976). Extracurricular activities and aspirations in the status attainment process. *Rural Sociology, 41*, 217-233.
- Pallas, A. (1984). On Educational Testing: Intelligence, Performance Standards, Test Anxiety, and Latent Traits. *Contemporary Sociology, 13(5)*, 606.

- Pangrazi, R. (1982). Physical education, self-concept, and achievement. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance*, 53(9), 16-18.
- Pascarella, E.T. (1982). Validation of a theoretical model of college dropouts. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED221130)
- Pascarella, E.T., & Smart, J.C. (1991). Impact of intercollegiate athletic participation for African-american and caucasian men: Some further evidence. *Journal of College Student Development*, 32, 123-130.
- Phelan, W.T. (1986). *A longitudinal investigation of school dropouts: A working paper*. Rockland, ME: A paper presented at the annual meeting of the New England Educational Research Organization. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED305756)
- Piers, E.V. (1977). Children's self-esteem, level of esteem certainty, and responsibility for success and failure. *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 130, 295-304.
- Poll, T. (1979). Dance, self esteem, and motor acquisition. *Journal of Physical Education and Recreation*, 50(1), 64-65.
- Praport, H. (1993). Reducing high school attrition: Group counseling can help. *The School Counselor*, 40(5), 309-311.
- Purkey, W.W. (1970). *Self concept and school achievement*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Rao, V.P., & Overman, S.J. (1986). Psychological well-being and body-image: A comparison of black women athletes and nonathletes. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 9, 79-91.

- Raymore, L.A., Barber, B.L., Eccles, J.S., & Godbey, G.C. (1999). Leisure behavior pattern stability during the transition from adolescence to young adulthood. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 28*, 79-103.
- Read, D. (1968). *The influence of competitive and non-competitive programs of physical education on body image and self-concept*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Regan, F.S. (1983). A Preliminary Investigation of Current Practices in American Youth Theatres. *Children's Theatre Review, 32*(3), 13-15.
- Rehberg, R. A. (1969). Behavioral and attitudinal consequences of high school interscholastics sports: A speculative consideration. *Adolescence, 4*(13), 69-88.
- Renard, S., & Sokol, K. (1987). *Creative drama: Enhancing self-concepts and learning*. Minneapolis, MN: Educational Media Corporation.
- Richman, E. L., & Shaffer, D. R. (2000). If you let me play sports: How might sport participation influence the self-esteem of adolescent females? *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 24*(2), 189-199.
- Rosenberg, M.(1965). *Society and the adolescent self image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Rosenberg, M. (1979). *Conceiving the self*. New York: Basic Books.
- Rumberger, R.W. (1983). Dropping out of high school: The influence of race, sex, and family background. *American Educational Research Journal, 20*, 199-220.

- Rumberger, R.W., Ghatak, R., Poulos, G., Ritter, P., & Dornbush, S.M. (1990). Family structure on dropout behavior in one California high school. *Sociology of Education, 63*, 283-299.
- Sagor, R. (1990). Theory driven assessment for at-risk prevention programs. *The High School Journal, 74*(1), 64-72.
- San Diego Community College District, CA, Research and Planning. (1994). Campus Climate Student Survey. San Diego, CA: San Diego Community College District (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED377934)
- Sander, R. (1981). The relationship of coaching styles to self-concepts of high school athletes. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 41*(7-A), 2999.
- Santomier, J. (1983). The sport-stress connection. *Theory into Practice, 22*(1), 57-63.
- Sapp, M., & Haubenstricker, J. (1978). *Motivation for joining and reasons for not continuing in youth sports programs in michigan*. Kansas City, MO: Paper presented at the American Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation National Convention.
- Sarokon, S.C. (1986). Student self-esteem: A goal administrators can help to achieve. *National Association of Secondary School Principals, 70*(487), 1-5.
- Schnee, R.G. (1972). *Relationship between self-esteem, achievement, and I.Q. measurements of elementary and secondary students*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED152845)
- Schoggen, P., & Schoggen, M. (1988). Student voluntary participation and high school size. *Journal of Educational Research, 81*, 288-293.

- Schultz, J., & Fish, M. (1998, September 20). Women in sports: Historic gains, but also more pains. *The Atlanta Journal-Constitution*, pp.A1, A17.
- Sipe, C.L. (1988). *Summer Training and Education Program (STEP): Report on the 1987 Experience*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED300479).
- Snyder, E.E., & Kivlin, J.E. (1975). Women Athletes and Aspects of Psychological Well-Being and Body Image. *Research Quarterly*, 46(2); 191-199.
- Spreitzer, E. (1994). Does participation in interscholastic athletics affect adult development? A longitudinal analysis of an 18-24 age cohort. *Youth and Society*, 25, 368-387.
- Steinberg, L., Blinde, L., & Chan, K. (1984). Dropping out among language minority youth. *Review of Educational Research*, 54, 113-132.
- Steinberg, L., Elmen, J.D., & Mounts, N.S. (1989). Authoritative parenting, psychosocial maturity, and academic success among adolescents. *Child Development*, 60, 1424-1436.
- Steinmiller, G.G., & Steinmiller, R. (1991). *Keeping our students in school: An alternative approach for at-risk students*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED342555)
- Taylor, D. (1995). A comparison of college athletic participants and nonparticipants on self-esteem. *Journal of College Student Development*, 36, 444-451.
- Tinto, V. (1975). Dropout from higher education: A theoretical synthesis of recent research. *Review of Education Research*, 45(1), 89-126.
- Tomczyk, K. (1995). Building a better safety net. *The American School Board Journal*, 182(8), 41-42.

- Unsworth, J. M. (1990). Art and the drop-out student. *School Arts, 90*(4), 14-15.
- Verkuyten, M. (1986). Impact of ethnic and sex differences on global self-esteem among adolescents in the Netherlands. *Psychological Reports, 59*, 446.
- Verkuyten, M. (1988). General self-esteem of adolescents from ethnic minorities in the Netherlands and the reflected appraisal process. *Adolescence, 23*(92), 863-871.
- Vilhjansson, R., & Thorlindsson, T. (1992). The integrative and psychological effects of sport participation: A study of adolescents. *The Sociological Quarterly, 33*, 637-647.
- Walker, L. S., & Greene, J. W. (1986). The social context of adolescent self-esteem. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 15*(4), 315-322.
- Watson, C. (1975). *Focus on dropouts*. Toronto, ON: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.
- Wehlage, G.G., Rutter, R.A., Smith, G.A., Lesko, N., & Fernandez, R.R. (1989). *Reducing the risk: Schools as communities of support*. Philadelphia: Falmer Press.
- Wehlage, G.G., Rutter, R.A., & Turnbaugh, R.C. (1987). A Program Model for At-Risk High School Students. *Educational Leadership, 44*(6), 70-73.
- Weiner, B. (1990). History of Motivational Research in Education. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*(4), 616-622.
- Weiss, M., & Bredemeier, B.J. (1983). Developmental sport psychology: A theoretical perspective for studying children in sport. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 5*, 216-230.

- Wilkins, J.A., Boland, F.J., & Albinson, J. (1991). A comparison of male and female university athletes and nonathletes on eating disorder indices: Are athletes protected? *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 14, 129-143.
- Williams, J. (1981). *An exploratory look at alienation in elementary school children*. Kent, OH: Paper presented at Midwestern Regional Conference on qualitative Research in Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED215767)
- Williams, W., & McColleston, M. (1990). *The relationship between participation in an extra-curricular drama club and the self-esteem of at-risk elementary students*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED352149)
- Williams, J.M., & White, K.A. (1983). Adolescent status systems for males and females the three age levels. *Adolescence*, 70, 381-389.
- Wylie, R.C. (1979). *The self-concept (Vol. 2)*. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.
- Wylie, V.L., & Hunter, W.A. (1994). The dropout problem: Can schools meet the challenge? *National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 78(565), 74-80.
- Yarworth, J.S., & Gauthier, W.J. (1978). Relationship of Student Self-concept and Selected Personal Variables to Participation in School Activities. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 70(3), 335-44.
- Youngs, B. (1992). *The six vital ingredients of self-esteem: How to develop them in your students: A comprehensive guide for educators, K-12*. Rolling Hills Estates, CA: B.L. Winch and Associates/Jalmar Press. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED347444)

Zeisner, R.E. (1991). The sport club phenomenon: Predictions for growth. In R.L.

Boucher, & W.J. Weese (Eds.), *Management of recreational sports in higher education* (pp. 59-73). Brown and Benchmark.

VITA AUCTORIS

NAME: John L. Cuzzocrea

PLACE OF BIRTH: Windsor, Ontario

YEAR OF BIRTH: 1974

EDUCATION: Holy Names Secondary School, Windsor, Ontario
1989-1993

University of Windsor, Windsor, Ontario
1993-1997 Bachelor of Arts

University of Windsor, Windsor, Ontario
1997-1998 Bachelor of Education

University of Windsor, Windsor, Ontario
2000-2002 Master of Education