

**EFFECTS OF INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETIC INVOLVEMENT
ON THE PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT OF BLACK
MALE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS**

by

Otha Myers

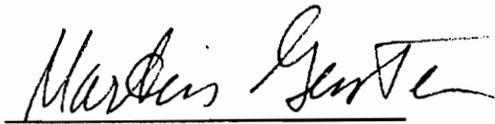
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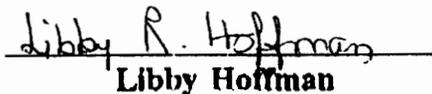
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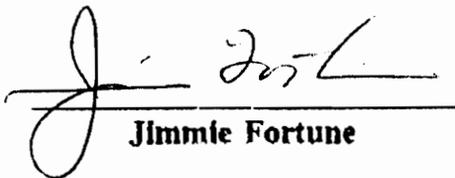
Martin Gerstein, Chairman



Libby Hoffman



Richard Paritzky



Jimmie Fortune



Brenda Fawcett

December, 1995

Blacksburg, Virginia

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Committee Chairman: Dr. Martin Gerstein
Education

(ABSTRACT)

The purpose of this study was to compare the dimensions of personal development of black male high school student athletes with black male high school student nonathletes to determine the relationship between participation in interscholastic athletics and the degree of students' personal development. The study drew upon the recent literature in the sociology of sports to ascertain the impact of sports participation on personal development. Specific questions directed toward the problem sought to uncover characteristics that discriminate between black male high school student athletes and black male high school student nonathletes in levels of confidence, sexual identity, and conceptions about body and appearance.

The Erwin Identity Scale, a portion of the Iowa Student Development Inventories, and a demographic questionnaire were used to measure personal development. These instruments gathered information from both black male students who had been members of athletic teams as well as those who had never participated.

Scores were tabulated on the three subscales of the EIS and the demographic variables. Results of the study indicated that there was a significant difference between black male athletes and black male nonathletes when considering the three subscales jointly, with athletes scoring significantly lower on two of the three subscales. More specifically, there was a significant difference between groups on the subscales confidence and sexual identity, with athletes showing lesser development. An analysis of the significance of the relationship between the groups and five demographic variables indicated that athlete status had a significant relationship with age only. Additional findings indicated that confidence can be explained by athlete status; that sexual identity can be explained by athlete status and GPA; and that conceptions about body and appearance can be explained by GPA.

Student services personnel must recognize these differences and develop programs to meet the developmental and special needs of black male high school students, especially the black male high school athlete.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In recent years, concerns about the attainment of educational quality and the effectiveness of schools for all students have fostered more intense study of student achievement and other outcomes of schooling. Generally, these concerns have led to improving educational outcomes. Improved educational outcomes have resulted in increased economic development, to gains in the international marketplace, to reductions in poverty and unemployment, and to an improved standard of living and quality of life (Joint Center for Political and Economic Studies, 1992; Massey, 1990; National Black Child Development Institute, 1990).

In spite of such efforts, many school districts continue to report that minority students in general, and black adolescent males in particular, account for a disproportionate number of school retentions, suspensions, expulsions, and dropouts (Clark, 1992; Dryfoos, 1990; Gibbs, 1988; Irvine, 1991; Kozol, 1991; Resnick, Burt, Newmark, & Reilly, 1992). Moreover, the negative indicators regarding black adolescent males' high unemployment statistics, high homicide rates, and overwhelmingly disproportionate representation in the criminal justice system have become so alarming that many people view the majority of these young men's futures as hopeless and unsalvageable (Garibaldi, 1992; Mauer, 1990; Staples, 1991).

It is no secret that many black adolescents view school as irrelevant, rather than as the path to a more productive life. While black adolescent males are exposed

to opportunities as well as confronted by difficulties in the school setting, in many instances, traditional education seldom meet their needs nor is it sensitive to their situation (Clark, 1991; Reglin, 1992). Several studies have shown that most black male students begin their elementary school studies with high levels of enthusiasm; many lose their early enthusiasm over time and respond less and less to academic demands (Braddock, Royster, Winfield, & Hawkins, 1991; Garibaldi, Jones, & Brooks, 1988; Simmons & Grady, 1990). Academic resignation seems to set in after these students' initial difficulties go unnoticed or unheeded by school personnel, to the point that eventually students no longer hold enough attachment to academic goals to make educational plans or effect academic success strategies (Wilson-Sadberry, Winfield, & Royster, 1991).

Given what we know about the effects of education on employment status, earnings, and delinquency, young black men continue to face a crisis. In 1991, 45.9% of black children were poor compared with 16.1% of white children (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992). During the same year, the population of young black males between 10 and 15 years old who were two or more years behind their expected grade level because of retentions, and at risk of becoming high school dropouts, reached 57% (Resnick, Burt, Newmark, & Reilly, 1992). Such grade retentions often precede dropping out, which correlates highly with the employment and earnings difficulties associated with other social problems. Similarly, in 1991, more than 75% of black males between 25 and 34 years old who were in prison, on parole, or on probation were high school dropouts (Freeman, 1992). Several studies focusing on major

metropolitan areas showed that 30 to 60% of young adult black males were involved in the criminal justice system (Fry and Schiraldi, 1992; Miller, 1992; Reuter, MacCoun & Murphy, 1990). While reasons advanced for this phenomenon are many, the full development of black male resources in the United States is, in part, a responsibility of the public education system (Clark, 1991; Flagg, 1987; McNatt, 1984; Winfield, 1991).

The plight of the black male represents a challenge of national proportion. The high rates of dropout and unemployment not only reflect the current depressed plight of the black male, but also impose formidable obstacles to future advancement.

Statement of the Problem

This study investigates whether interscholastic athletic involvement has an effect on the personal development of black male high school students. The problem, which serves as the focus for this study, deals with the establishment of the relationship between involvement in interscholastic athletics and the level of personal development of black male high school student athletes in comparison with black male high school nonathlete students. This investigation should help to determine if involvement in athletics promotes the development of autonomy, purpose, self-efficacy, and mature interpersonal relationships. The results should help to improve the career maturity and realistic career expectations of black male students.

Although the research literature offers a myriad of studies on the impact of athletic participation on academic pursuits, research has been particularly lacking in regard to the effect of athletic involvement on personal development. Educators have

long recognized that personal development, as well as academic achievement, should be a product of formal education (Astin, 1984; Baxtor–Magolda, 1992; Cooper, Healy, & Simpson, 1994; Kuh, Schuh, Whitt, Andreas, Lyons, Strange, Krehbiel, & MacKay, 1991; Morrisey, 1991; Pace, 1984). Aspects of individual growth include (a) moral and ethical development, (b) competence in interpersonal relationships, (c) formulation of life plans, and (d) participation in extracurricular activities. (Astin, 1984; Erwin, Scott, & Menard, 1991; Kilgannon & Erwin, 1992; Kuh, et al., 1991; Niles, Sowa, & Laden, 1994).

Rutter (1987) distinguishes four types of mechanisms that help individuals to mediate adverse circumstances or demonstrate resilient behaviors. Included are mechanisms that (a) reduce the impact of risks, (b) reduce the likelihood of negative chain reactions associated with adversity, (c) establish and maintain self–esteem and self–efficacy, and (d) create new opportunities for success. Athletic involvement is ideally suited to each of these four tasks in a variety of ways.

In athletic participation, the major risks involved are competitive losses. However, the structure of athletic competition generally guarantees several chances to "place" before losses take on a permanent status. Examples include preseason games and scrimmages and even early season losses. This structure reduces the impact of the risk of competing, so that students are able, between risks, to regroup, reorganize, and practice in order to make a better showing in the next competition (Dane, 1990).

Winning in athletic competition is commonly thought to enhance self–esteem and self–efficacy among students, but even losses may convey a sense of

accomplishment (Braddock, Royster, Winfield, & Hawkins, 1991). These researchers contend that a game, well played, tends to generate respect between teams and players and the wider student population, which not only reduces the impact of loss, but also contributes to the self-esteem and self-efficacy of players. Athletics are clearly important to the many youngsters who devote considerable time, energy, and other resources to its pursuit. Athletic involvement has even been conceptualized as an investment and is, unlike many other adolescent activities, usually a function of a student's own decision rather than the decision of parents and teachers (Nettles, 1989).

Additionally, athletics create important opportunities for students to excel and to fit into the school community in a meaningful way (Coleman, 1990; Dane, 1990; Wilson, 1990). These kinds of opportunities are especially important for black males, who may lack legitimate opportunities to invest their skills and efforts outside the school setting (Braddock, Royster, Winfield, Hawkins, 1991; Nettles, 1989; Segrave & Hastad, 1984). Finally, athletic involvement may be the primary sphere of investment that provides young black males with social rewards both in the wider social environment and among the youths' peers. This intersection of peer and societal endorsement is of considerable importance to young men and may help to provide additional opportunities for future legitimate pursuits in both educational and economic arenas (Clark, 1992; Coleman, 1990; Wilson, 1990).

These studies indicate a real need for young black males to be adequately informed about issues of identity formation, conflicting values and choices, interpersonal relations, and educational/career planning. High school counselors can

play a key role in helping to meet this need. Counselors encounter black students in a variety of capacities. Some of these include (a) counseling for personal and educational problems, (b) helping the students to develop effective study skills, (c) providing guidance concerning academic and graduation requirements, (d) supplying information about college entrance exams, and (e) assisting in the career decision-making process (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Goldberg, 1991; Hilliard, 1985; Parmer, 1994; Warfield & Marion, 1985). Counselors need to understand and become informed about the personal and societal factors which may promote or inhibit the black male student's psychosocial development and become familiar with the post-high school environments he may encounter. More importantly, school counselors are expected to meet the challenges presented by this special population by identifying some of the developmental problems black high school students face and by exploring the implications of these problems for programmatic interventions (Clark, 1992; Goldberg, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1992).

Background of the Problem

Theorists and researchers have suggested that major aspects of human development occur in stages and are influenced by both heredity and environment (Chickering, 1969; Erikson, 1968; Havighurst, 1972; Kohlberg, 1966; Marcia, 1966). As an individual progresses through various life stages, he or she must master a series of developmental tasks. Mastery of these tasks at one stage influences success with

mastery in subsequent stages. Conversely, failure to master developmental tasks at one stage can negatively influence success in later stages (Havighurst, 1972).

Adolescence is the developmental transition stage between childhood and adulthood. This period marks a sudden increase in body size and strength as well as a change in many physiological functions. It also marks major personality changes designed to attain a sense of identity and independence. According to Havighurst (1972), during each stage of human development, there are special tasks in each domain (physical, social, emotional, and cognitive) for a child to master. He further contends that there are eight significant developmental tasks that must be accomplished during adolescence. They are (a) accepting one's physique and using the body effectively, (b) achieving emotional independence from parents and other adults, (c) achieving a masculine or feminine social role, (d) achieving new and more mature relations with peers of both sexes, (e) desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior, (f) acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behavior, (g) preparing for an economic career, and (h) preparing for marriage and family life.

Erikson (1968) has theorized five stages of "psychosocial" development with a crisis to be resolved during each of these stages. "Crisis" indicates the normal stresses that occur as the individual attempts to resolve the conflict between self needs and the continuing demands of the environment. Resolution of a crisis depends upon a favorable ratio of success to failure and is necessary for healthy development. Failure to resolve a crisis arising during an earlier stage results in the individual's readdressing that crisis during subsequent stages until successful resolution is achieved. Each

developmental phase is created by the convergence of a particular growth phase and certain tasks. Development follows a chronological sequence, and at certain times of life particular facets of the person emerge as key concerns which must be addressed. According to Erikson (1968), the central life crises are (a) birth to 18 months (basic trust versus basic mistrust), (b) 18 months to 3 years (autonomy versus shame and doubt), (c) 3 to 6 years (initiative versus guilt), (d) 6 years through puberty (industry versus inferiority), and (e) adolescence (identity versus role confusion). The work of Erikson (1968) not only helps to elaborate upon some of the developmental tasks of Havighurst, but also contributes to greater understanding of the psychosocial cycles of development in children.

For Erikson (1968), the quintessential task of adolescence is the formation of identity versus role confusion. Identity denotes certain comprehensive gains derived from pre-adult experiences which prepare the youth for the tasks of adulthood. Identity emerges as a configuration gradually established through successive synthesis and re-synthesis of psychosocial components, involving the articulation of personal capacities, values, significant identifications with others, and fantasies about plans, ideals, expectations, and opportunities. It is the formation and integration of this configuration which Erikson views as the source of psychosocial crisis and strain during late adolescence. During this period, the youth is exposed to a "combination of experiences which demand his simultaneous commitment to physical intimacy, to decisive occupational choice, to energetic competition, and to psychosocial self-definition" (Erikson, 1950, p. 123).

There is little evidence that black adolescents are any less affected by the stress and strain of the period than are other youths. On the contrary, there is evidence that minority group status and associated disadvantages generate additional experiences and identity conflicts specific to black adolescents (Hauser, 1992; Murray & Fairchild, 1989). As a consequence, black and white youths may be observed to differ with respect to the nature and types of problems they confront and in the pattern and pace of identity formation (Clark, 1991; Spencer, Swanson, & Cunningham, 1991).

Chickering (1969) has postulated seven vectors or dimensions of development rather than the developmental tasks or developmental stages used by other theorists. The seven vectors along which development occurs in young adulthood are as follows: (a) achieving competency, (b) managing emotions, (c) developing autonomy, (d) establishing identity, (e) freeing of interpersonal relationships, (f) developing purpose, and (g) developing integrity. Chickering's theory, which focuses on middle to late adolescence, is an elaboration of Erikson's (1968) stages of identity and intimacy. Using Erikson's work as a base, Chickering operationalized the concept of identity in order for that concept to be better understood and researched empirically. Chickering has attempted to focus on the particular developmental concerns of students that are relevant to the social situation in which they find themselves during their years in college. He has attempted to construct a more detailed framework of the developmental changes occurring in young adulthood and has presented his construct in a form which draws upon and gives coherence to the wealth of empirical data on student change.

Several researchers have tried to operationalize Erikson's concept of ego identity (Erwin, 1983). The approach of James Marcia (1980) has been one of the most widely used. Marcia proposed four styles of coping with the identity resolution process: (a) identity achievement, (b) moratorium, (c) foreclosure, and (d) identity diffusion. He built on Erikson's proposition that the definition of identity was the most important goal of adolescence. Marcia saw ego identity as consisting of two psychosocial tasks. The first is the experience of a "crisis" or turning point characterized by the potential to go either forward or backward in one's development. Competing alternatives also had to be present. He did not view a crisis as a physical or psychological emergency, but as a challenge; the nature of the response to the challenge determines the direction of development. The second task is "commitment," or making choices about occupation, religious or spiritual direction, and political and sexual values.

Kohlberg's (1966) theory of moral development proposes that individuals are continuously moving through stages of moral reasoning from childhood through adulthood. Moral development is assumed to take place through the interaction of the child's natural maturational tendencies and environmental experiences. Through his studies, Kohlberg found that most adolescents operate at a conventional level of moral reasoning in which the individual strives to conform and maintain social order. He contends that as students grow, they attempt to shift from conventional to principled ways of thinking where individuals strive to define moral values apart from the authority of groups or other individuals.

For black males, successfully completing the tasks associated with adolescent development has often been problematic due to a complex set of interacting historical and social factors that often inhibit success (Lee, 1992; Murray & Fairchild, 1989). Racism and socioeconomic disadvantage often converge to impact negatively on the adolescent development of black males, who have been confronted with extreme environmental stress during the crucial late early to middle years of life (Hilliard, 1985; Lee, 1992; Murray & Fairchild, 1989; Myers & King, 1980). For example, a significant number of black males, particularly in urban areas, are born into home and community environments characterized by traditions of poverty, crime, unemployment, inequitable educational opportunities, and a perceived sense of social and cultural alienation (Cordes, 1985; Gibbs, 1988; Lee, 1993). Young males raised in such environments may experience difficulty in mastering the developmental tasks that characterize the childhood and adolescent years.

Successful completion of these developmental tasks can be further hampered by school experiences often distinguished by ineffective teaching strategies and educators' predetermined negative views of black males and their learning potential (Clark, 1991; Lee, 1994; Wilson-Sadberry, Winfield, & Royster, 1991; Winfield, 1991). Rather than developing a sense of industry that comes with mastering reading, writing, and computing skills in elementary school, many young black male students experience frustration with the teaching-learning process, thus laying the groundwork for future academic and social failure (Lee, 1994; Wheelock, 1992).

It is not unusual, then, for black males to reach adolescence with a basic mistrust of their environment, doubts about their abilities, and confusion about their place in the world (Mincey, 1994; National Black Child Development Institute, 1990; White & Parham, 1990). This makes developing an identity during the adolescent years extremely problematic. Compounding this problem, in many cases, is the process of identity formation with minimal or no positive adult male role modeling. The developmental passage to adulthood thus becomes a confusing experience for many black male youths because the evolution of gender-appropriate roles and behaviors for black men has often been stifled by historical and social powerlessness (Hilliard, 1985; Lee, 1994; Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1991).

According to Lee (1992), the sum total of the impediments to adolescent development can often be seen in negative and self-destructive values, attitudes, and behaviors among young black males. These, in turn, have resulted in academic underachievement, unemployment, delinquency, substance abuse, homicide, and incarceration in disproportionate numbers of black male youth (Congress of the United States, 1991; Cordes 1985; Hill, 1992; Kunjufu, 1991; White & Parham, 1990).

Numerous conceptual frameworks have been applied to the complex variables representing the status of the black male in American society. Examination of socio-economic, family, and societal variables have been the basis for previous research (Ferguson, 1992; Fry & Schiraldi, 1992; Irvine, 1991; Lee, 1992; Rowe, 1991; Staples, 1991). Longitudinal studies have provided insight into the social, economic, and psychological aspects of the problem, but little research is available to account for the

effect of sports involvement on personal development. Establishment of this effect is the basis upon which this investigation is founded. The data collected form the basis for suggestions on how educators might take action to increase black male students' likelihood of persistence in education and the job market. This investigation also contributes data to assist school counselors in providing these students with appropriate educational plans.

Assumptions

Three major assumptions are made in relation to the study. The first is that the black male respondents who were surveyed provided accurate and truthful responses to the items on the student questionnaire. The second is that participation in athletics, a school variable, has an effect on the personal development of black male participants. The third is that assessing athletic involvement is an appropriate method of clarifying student outcomes.

Scope and Delimitations

1. This study is delimited in that it focused on black male high school students in the suburban Northern Virginia area.
2. This study examined athletic involvement, a school variable, to determine its effect on personal development. School variables, student variables, and family variables are factors which are most commonly held to be predictive of educational attainment.

3. This study focused on attitudes and behaviors related to and resulting from interscholastic athletic participation or non-participation and the personal development of black male high school students. The data collected were used to compare the two groups.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions refer to terms as they are used in this study:

1. Athletes refer to those individuals who voluntarily choose to participate in competitive athletic sports.

2. Black male includes males who have origins in any of the black racial groups in Africa. The term is used interchangeably with African-American male.

This study excludes persons of Hispanic origin.

3. Interscholastic athletics refers to an athletic endeavor in which contestants compete against each other, and in which a school team or individual representing his school attempts to win the competition by defeating an opponent representing a different school (McElroy, 1980).

4. Non-athletes refer to individuals who did not participate in competitive athletic sports.

Study Objectives

The objectives of this study are to document the relationship between dimensions of personal development, as defined by Erwin (1983), and athletic

participation between (a) confidence and participation in high school interscholastic athletics, (b) sexual identity and participation in high school interscholastic athletics, and (c) conceptions about body and appearance and participation in high school interscholastic athletics.

Research Questions

The following questions provided direction for this study:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference in the level of confidence for black male high school student athletes and black male high school student nonathletes?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference in sexual identity for black male high school student athletes and black male high school student nonathletes?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference in conceptions about body appearance for black male high school student athletes and black male high school student nonathletes?
4. What demographic characteristics describe black male high school student athletes versus black male high school student nonathletes?

Hypotheses

The first three research questions formed the basis for the following null hypotheses. The .05 significance level was used to determine the significance of each hypothesis.

1. There is no statistically significant difference in confidence for black male high school student athletes and black male high school student nonathletes.
2. There is no statistically significant difference in sexual identity for black male high school student athletes and black male high school student nonathletes.
3. There is no statistically significant difference in conceptions about body appearance for black male high school student athletes and black male high school student nonathletes.

Significance of the Study

Black male adolescents have become participants in competitive high school athletics in increasing numbers. Some factors contributing to this are: (a) the tendency for the black American family and community to reward athletic achievement among their youth more than any other activity, (b) the number of collegiate athletic scholarships from NCAA Division I colleges and universities available to black high school athletes, and (c) the elimination of many of the barriers restricting black Americans from professional sports careers. Add to these factors the idolization by the mass media of various black professional sports figures, and it is understandable that increasing numbers of black adolescent males are attracted to competitive interscholastic athletics.

Black Americans today face deteriorating conditions in sharp contrast to other American groups. Problems of the black male youth are so severe that society tends to ignore them. The most fundamental and devastating problem confronting the black

male in the 1990's and the decades to come is that of employment. Blacks, and most particularly, black males are among the nation's most unemployed and underemployed groups. This tremendous waste of human potential and the economic, social, educational, and psychological consequences associated with underemployment may have a devastating impact on the future of the United States (Wilson-Sadberry, Winfield, & Royster, 1991; Winfield, 1991). Changes in drug patterns and criminal justice policies have further exacerbated the effects of poor job prospects on young black males. The introduction into the mid-1980s' urban drug markets of crack cocaine has caused the incarceration rates to rise steadily (McFate, 1989). According to Mauer (1991), the typical prisoner drawn into the system through these problems is a young, poorly educated, minority male.

Drug abuse and drug-related crimes are also taking their toll on younger black males. Between 1980 and 1990, black juvenile arrest rates for drug abuse rose by 158.6% (National Center for Health Statistics, 1992). Besides arrests for drug abuse, arrests of black juveniles for crimes associated with drug selling also have grown rapidly (Resnick, Burt, Newmark, & Reilly, 1992).

Within these complex problems lie some of the most sensitive issues facing our society: (a) rising illiteracy, (b) school violence, (c) funding for private and public schools, and (d) allocation of resources (Ferguson, 1992; Irvine, 1991; Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1991). Researchers estimate that if present trends continue, school dropouts will cost American taxpayers many billions of dollars in lost local, state, and federal tax revenues (Hood, Craig, & Ferguson, 1992;

Melnick, 1992). Uneducated adolescents become unskilled or semi-skilled workers who cannot contribute fully in education, science, business, and industry. According to Synder (1987), they more often become heads of households where the cycles of their own lives are repeated.

Solving these problems may no longer be a matter of conscience or choice. By the early twenty-first century, black youth will constitute about one-fifth of the labor force, so the nation's productivity and economic stability will depend on their ability and employability (Gibbs, 1988). Moreover, the solvency of the social security system for support of an aging population in the mid twenty-first century will depend heavily on the contributions of a youthful nonwhite population which is gainfully employed. Consequently, unless society invests in preventive policies and programs to address these issues, it will allocate far more of its resources to maintain punitive programs and will be forced to experience more community violence.

Although the number of black Americans participating in professional sports has grown enormously in the past two decades, unrealistic athletic aspirations usually hurt the black male's future chances of success. While research has shown athletes to be at higher risk for experiencing developmental crisis and psychological distress than is the general student population (Edwards, 1983; Hood, Craig, & Ferguson, 1992; Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989; Ryan, 1989), current data on the effects of this growth is needed. Numerous studies have focused on the trends, but research is lacking on factors related to the personal development and career attainment of the black male population. While there is need to address the impact of educational and

economic trends, there is an even greater need to look at personal development and the black male in the context of elementary and secondary schooling. It is at these levels that much of the foundation is laid for educational achievement and where the seeds for future success must be planted. Adding information to the existing body of literature in this area provides the counseling profession direction for innovative intervention strategies in the future.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter II reviews research relevant to this study. The review examines three areas. First, a review of literature pertaining to personal development is presented. Next, a review of literature related to educational attainment is provided; the following categories are subsumed under this heading: (a) theories to account for limited black achievement, and (b) educational attainment and the black male. Finally, a review of literature on interscholastic athletics and educational achievement is provided.

Literature Pertaining to Personal Development

Participation in athletics has been seen as a testing ground for the development of abilities and skills which must be nurtured in the individual. As Kleiber (1983) has indicated, the very nature of sports is a "structured test of strength, courage, endurance, and self control" (p. 87). The negotiator of these struggles creates experiences which are believed to enhance an individual's personal development. Astin (1984) has concluded, from evaluating many studies, that students who participate in almost any type of extracurricular activity are less likely to drop out of school and are more likely to be satisfied with their educational experience than are those who do not participate.

Although some studies have found that athletic involvement has a positive effect on student development, others have suggested that involvement in athletics

actually has a deleterious effect on student growth. Chu (1989) reported that participation in athletics limits development because it promotes traditional values, advocates authoritarian leadership and invokes a willingness to be product oriented. Chu indicated that athletic participation does not promote autonomy, choice, and self-determination. Developmentally, role conflict, identity foreclosure, and prolonged emotional dependence on others have been cited as limiting effects caused by athletic participation (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Kleiber, 1983; Nelson, 1983; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988).

Several researchers have identified specific positive outcomes as a result of participation in extracurricular activities. Some of these studies have found that involvement in formal extracurricular activities was associated with greater maturity gains and the enhancement of career decision-making skills (Kuh, et al., 1991; Morrisey, 1991). These studies concluded that maturity increased because committed involvement in organized activities includes work and planning and mutuality and sharing with others; it also requires balancing ambivalent and contrary emotions and dealing with authority figures realistically instead of having simplistic images of authority figures as either good or bad. Other studies have shown that students who are involved in extracurricular activities report (a) more positive educational and social experiences overall, (b) increased intellectual and leadership development, (c) greater maturity gains, (d) enhancement of career decision-making skills, (e) success in academic and career goals, and (f) a greater likelihood of graduating (Astin, 1993; Baxtor-Magolda, 1992; Williams & Winston, 1985).

Studies examining postcollege success of those involved in student activities indicate that involvement during college is positively related to success after college. These studies suggest that this relationship may be true because participation reflects sustained, self-initiated, and self-directed activities (Cooper, Healy, & Simpson, 1994; Kuh, et. al., 1991; Niles, Sowa, & Laden, 1994).

Gundersheim (1982) investigated the relationship between athletic participation and self-actualization of male athletes and nonathletes and found no significant differences. In this study, Gundersheim administered the Shostrom Personal Orientation Inventory (POI), which is based on the works of Maslow and Rogers, to random samples of athletes and nonathletes. Gundersheim also used the POI to investigate self-actualization in male athletes and nonathletes. Subjects were categorized as team athletes or, if they jogged, exercised, swam, or participated in other casual sports, as recreational athletes. Others were classified as nonathletes if they listed neither team nor recreational activities. Findings indicated that male athletes, both team and recreational, were more self-actualized than were nonathletes.

Petitpas and Champagne (1988) contend that whether athletic participation is beneficial depends upon the attained level of life cycle tasks. They found that if the developmental stage of the individual is characterized by the task of building a sense of industry, which is common throughout high school, then athletic participation, accompanied by the rewards for hard work, reinforces the development of a sense of industry. However, in later adolescence the principal developmental task is the establishment of a personal identity. Petitpas and Champagne indicate that the quest

for identity requires two activities: (a) active exploration of alternative life plans, and (b) commitment to a set lifestyle. Decisions are made concerning these activities that are consistent with an individual's personal needs, values, interests and skills. Petitpas and Champagne concluded that participation in athletics fosters conformity and the acceptance of social values; consequently, athletic participation prohibits the exploratory behaviors necessary for the development of an identity based upon mature values and initiatives.

The literature in personal development theory indicates that one important aspect of development involves interpersonal values. Petitpas and Champagne theorized that there are four self systems and five developmental growth dimensions; maturity occurs as the individual progresses along the growth dimension in each of the self systems. Two of the four self-systems include values and interpersonal relationships, and one of the growth dimensions is defined as becoming allocentric, or other-centered. Two aspects of maturity, then, involve becoming more allocentric in value and in interpersonal relationships.

The developmental vectors theory of Chickering (1969) also involves interpersonal values. Among his seven vectors are two of particular importance in this area: freeing interpersonal relationships and developing integrity. Chickering contends that as students develop interpersonal relationships, they become more accepting of others and empathic, and their relationships are characterized by openness, autonomy, and trust. He concludes that developing integrity involves defining a set of values that guide one's actions; the student first recognizes the

relevance of values and finally seeks to attain congruence between values and actions.

Sowa and Gressard (1983) surveyed 75 students, randomly selected from varsity athletic teams and from all nonathletes at a major southern university, to test the effects of athletic participation along Chickering's developmental vectors.

Significant differences were found on only three of the nine subscales, with athletes showing less development on these.

Blann (1985) investigated the relationship of students' sex, class, and competitive level of participation in intercollegiate athletics and the ability to formulate mature educational and career plans. He found that underclass (freshman and sophomore) male athletes do not formulate mature educational and career plans as well as nonathletes do, but upper-class male groups are not significantly different. He also found that athletes at a higher level of competition (Division I) are less mature about educational and career plans than are athletes in Division III.

Several studies have focused on career-related stages of development.

Kennedy and Dimick (1987) investigated the maturity of career attitudes and realistic career expectations in a group of male, intercollegiate, scholarship athletes in football and basketball at a midwestern university of 18,000 students. The athletes and a randomly selected comparison group of nonathletes were administered the attitude scale of the Career Maturity Inventory (CMI). This scale is designed to identify the individual's disposition and attitude toward career decision making. Kennedy and Dimick (1987) found that athletes score significantly lower than nonathletes do. Furthermore, 39% of white players and 65% of black athletes indicated that they

expected to play professional sports. Because only an estimated 2% of college athletes actually make it to the professional ranks, this certainly represents an unrealistic expectation. The researchers suggested that these findings indicate a need for universities to remediate for these developmental deficiencies by providing programs to enhance career attitudinal maturity.

The President's Commission of the National Collegiate Athletic Association attempted to address the question of the proper role of athletics in American higher education in 1988 by sponsoring a study of student-athletes at Division I colleges and universities throughout the country. The American Institute on Research (AIR) (1988) was contracted to conduct the study to identify the effects of participation in intercollegiate athletics on student athletes.

In examining personal development, the AIR assessed psychological and emotional well-being of college students. The Institute found that student athletes were more likely to have been subjected to physical and mental abuse. In the category of personal development, AIR also investigated four separate areas: (a) leadership, (b) sociability, (c) assertiveness, and (d) rewards and recognition from others. Even though participation in sports is believed to develop leadership, AIR found that students involved in other extracurricular activities found it easier to assume leadership responsibilities than those not involved. Student athletes also found it more difficult to effect personal growth through social interaction. A significantly lower percentage of student athletes felt that they were establishing lifelong friendships, that they were liked by others just for being themselves, and that they could talk about personal

problems. Student athletes were also considerably less assertive in relating to their peers than were nonathletes and students who were involved in extracurricular activities. Only with regard to reward and recognition from others did student athletes indicate greater opportunity for personal growth. This was particularly true concerning travel to new places and earning praise and recognition for their abilities (AIR, 1988).

Research by Phillips and Schafer (1971) focused on the social adjustment of boys involved in high school sports. This study, which involved 461 high school males, found that athletes demonstrate higher levels of social adjustment than do boys who are classified as either nonathletes or marginal athletes.

Several recent studies have shown that students who are involved in extracurricular activities, including athletics, report more positive educational and social experiences overall, increased intellectual and leadership development, and success in academic and career goals (Astin, 1993; Cooper, Healy, & Simpson, 1994; Kuh, et al., 1991; Whitt, 1991). These studies support the importance of extracurricular involvement on cognitive development, educational aspiration, persistence, education attainment, occupational choice and attainment, and interpersonal and social self-concept. Although not all of these outcomes are consistently shown in all studies, there is strong evidence to support the effects of involvement.

The Student Developmental Task Inventory was used in another study to compare students involved in extracurricular activities with those not involved (Fitch, 1991). This researcher found that students who were active in organized activities

scored significantly higher than did nonparticipants on scales measuring interdependence, appropriate educational plans, mature career plans, and mature life-style plans. No differences were found on scales measuring emotional autonomy, instrumental autonomy, intimate relationships with the opposite sex, or tolerance.

Many college student development theorists have suggested that participation in extracurricular activities serves to enhance the total development of college students (Niles, Sowa, & Laden, 1994). Research that describes the impact of out-of-class experiences on student development has been available for more than two decades. One study, which summarized the vast array of studies on college students' development, concluded that extracurricular influences are linked to (a) satisfaction with college, retention, and graduation; (b) development of leadership skills; (c) mature interpersonal relationships; (d) altruistic values; and (e) adult success (Kuh, et al., 1991). This study concluded that it is critically important to continue to examine and assess the relationship between student involvement and student development because student affairs professionals are being challenged to demonstrate the validity of the services and experiences offered to students outside of the classroom. In a similar study, Erwin, Scott, and Menard (1991) found that student affairs professionals are taking a more active role in examining the impact of their programs and services on student development. This new thrust in assessment is seen as the desire to document the positive impact of programs and to identify areas for improvement.

Although little research has been published that investigates the psychosocial development of black students in the context of Chickering's theory, two studies

(Itzkowitz & Petrie, 1986; Jordan-Cox, 1987) have explored the development of black students using the Student Development Task Inventory, second edition (SDTI-2; Winston, Miller, & Prince, 1979). In a related study, Wright (1987) identified a number of important developmental issues for students who are members of racial or ethnic groups, including establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships and developing healthy gender roles and sexual identity. Wright's research is considered to be important to the development of autonomy and self-identity for students who are members of racial or ethnic groups.

According to Nottingham, Rosen, & Parks (1992), several researchers have also focused on black college students' adjustment and achievement from a multivariate perspective. For instance, Allen (1988), Fleming (1984), and Nettles (1989) have revealed that nonintellectual, psychosocial, and contextual factors (self-concept, ethnic ideology, relationships with faculty, feelings and experiences of racism and discrimination, and feelings of social isolation) are some of the strongest predictors of negative outcomes for black students.

Literature Related to Educational Attainment

Factors which determine educational attainment have been a source of study for a number of years. Numerous studies have shown that socioeconomic status, gender, race, sociopsychological factors, and academic achievement all influence the educational process (Bowles & Levin, 1968; Conklin & Daily, 1981; Duda, 1992; Melnick, 1992; Sewell, 1971). Coleman (1961) suggested that athletic achievement

was clearly the most effective and highly valued means of gaining status among student peers.

Research on inequality of educational attainment produced a theory which holds that working-class students have lower aspirations because they know that they cannot go to college (Jencks, Smith, Acland, Bane, Cohn, Gintis, Heyns, & Michelson, 1972). The study looked at the influence of socioeconomic background, cognitive ability, and race. Jencks, et al. (1972), found that test scores are one factor in educational attainment and economics is another, but concluded that much is left unexplained. He attributed much of the unexplained to luck, personality, and proper connections.

Spady (1970) found that male seniors who participate in more than one extracurricular activity have higher educational aspirations than those participating in just one extracurricular activity. Otto and Alvin's (1977) 15-year panel study of male athletes concluded that it is "significant other influence" (SOI) that has the strongest direct influence on academic attainment.

Landers, Feltz, Obermeier, and Brouse (1978) also found that the higher educational attainment of males in athletics and other extracurricular groups is due to the fact that they have high peer group status or receive influence from significant others in a manner which promotes higher educational aspirations. These studies suggest that the positive consequences resulting from sports involvement is maintained by close personal relationships. While research by Conklin and Dailey (1981) found a positive association between parental encouragement and students' educational

aspirations and attainment, the relationship between parental educational support and educational activity points to a need to reconsider other intervening variables between background and outcome variables across the high school years.

A replication of Coleman's work during the mid-1970's revealed that athletic achievement continued to be the most effective and highly valued means of achieving status among high school students (Eitzen, 1975). The Blau-Duncan model was the basis for this line of research (Blau & Duncan, 1967) and it showed the influence of family background and son's education on subsequent occupational attainment. The basic finding from this study was that education is more influential than first job in determining later occupational status.

The Blau-Duncan model did not include sociopsychological factors which were considered to have intervened between social origins and occupational attainment. However, researchers later expanded the basic Blau-Duncan model to include sociopsychological variables (Sewell, Haller, & Ohlendorf, 1970; Sewell, Haller, & Portes, 1969). This refinement has subsequently been referred to in the literature as the Wisconsin model, and has provided a conceptual basis for current status attainment theory. The inclusion of significant other influences, such as characteristics of social origins and achievement, was the major contribution of this line of research. According to Picou (1978), the Wisconsin model thus expanded upon the influence of family background and son's education in determining later occupation status to include the encouragement of one by significant others (parents, teachers, and peers).

During the 1970's, researchers began focusing empirical inquiries on race variations in the status attainment process and documented that significant differences between these groups exist (Hout & Morgan, 1975; Kerckhoff & Campbell, 1977; Porter, 1974; Porter & Wilson, 1976). Porter found that black–white differences in educational attainment are a result of different systems of mobility for blacks and whites. Porter and Wilson suggested that socioeconomic status, mental ability, and academic performance are stronger predictors for whites, while mediating effects of self–esteem and educational aspirations are more important for blacks. Porter and Wilson further suggested that for whites, academic grades appear to carry individuals along toward predictable levels of achievement. The researchers found that educational attainment for whites is a more patterned and predictable process, and for blacks, attainment is more problematic since institutionally conferred grades carry far less significant implications.

Kerckhoff and Campbell (1977) found that the most important contributor to the explanation of black ambition is fatalism. However, two other studies (Edwards, 1976; Wilson & Walter, 1987) concluded that a strong sense of personal efficacy is strongly associated with higher educational attainment for black youth.

An investigation by Carter and Picou (1975) of black–white differences in status attainment found that lower social origins are less of a handicap for blacks and that black males suffer the disadvantage of an inability to use available resources to obtain later status benefits. Carter and Picou concluded that blacks are operating under a stratification system defined as "institutional racism" in which society, at each

stage of the life cycle, gives them a smaller reward than it gives whites for equivalent investments or attainments. The researchers further concluded that the white stratification system appears to be more rigid in that rewards given to whites at one stage of the life cycle are more heavily dependent on earlier attainments.

Carter and Picou (1975) summarized the status attainment research and concluded that the existence of different mobility systems for blacks and whites is caused by the inability of status attainment models to predict and explain the achievement process for blacks.

Although a number of studies has shown that athletic participation is positively related to educational aspirations, occupation, and income, this relationship was verified for only white males (Rehberg & Schafer, 1968; Spreitzer & Pugh, 1973; and Otto & Alvin, 1977). More specifically, the above studies were unable to evaluate the significance of athletics for mobility goals and career patterns of black male athletes. While no relationships were found between athletic and academic achievement for black males, athletic achievement did have a significant direct effect on educational aspiration for this group.

Theories to Account for Limited Black Achievement

Explanations for the patterns of limited academic achievement that characterize black youth emphasize (a) educational inequality or genetic inferiority, and (b) cultural deprivation.

The educational inequality or genetic inferiority explanation was initially advanced by Jones (1922). This theory suggests that differences between blacks and whites were to be expected and result from the consequences of nature. Emoungu (1979) suggests that Jones' early writings implied that "literacy education reserved for whites was dysfunctional for blacks, given their social position in American society and their level of sociocultural evolution" (p. 45).

Another controversial explanation for differences between blacks and whites was advanced by Jensen (1969). However, this theory has been criticized for its erroneous mathematics, faulty methodology, distortion of research results, and failure to seek alternative explanations (Hirsch, 1981; Ogbu, 1987). Specifically, there are no studies which indicate that genes controlling conceptual learning and abstract thinking are found in higher proportion among whites than among blacks. In a review of studies on intelligence tests, Neisser (1986) notes that relative difficulty of items for all groups being tested was affected by wording, item length, degree of visualization required, and factual contents—but not by the amount of abstract thinking involved.

The cultural deprivation explanation, which provided the philosophical foundation for the federal compensatory education programs in the 1960's, states that children from economically and/or culturally improvised backgrounds lag behind in their linguistic, cognitive, and social development, and thus, do poorly in school. Data on student achievement and school resources collected by Coleman (1961) and his associates led him to the conclusion that minority achievement is most closely

associated with family background and socioeconomic status rather than school variables.

Researchers on effective schools (Edmonds & Frederickson, 1979; Jones & Spady, 1984) have challenged Coleman's view of school as a passive conduit of poverty and suggest that Coleman neglected some important practices affecting school achievement.

The cultural deprivation explanation further suggests that differences between blacks and whites in educational achievement can be "viewed as symptomatic of some inherent deficiencies or abnormality among blacks" (Emoungu, 1979, p. 47).

Emoungu concluded that while culturally deprived children are deficient in cognitive and linguistic skills, their value orientation is also antithetical to that of the schools. The implication of this line of thought suggests that the elimination of such deficiencies in blacks is the key to improving their educational achievement.

Critics of the cultural deprivation theory (Valentine, 1971) suggested that such an explanation itself was culturally biased. Gaston (1986) noted that the deficient explanation of school failure is particularly reprehensible due to its ethnocentrism's being cloaked in the legitimacy of social science. Other researchers have found that cultural differences do not automatically lead to conflict or school failures.

Research by Obgu (1987) on the Punjabi Sikhs in California schools indicates that those students managed to perform as well as their majority group classmates, and to maintain their cultural identity. Similarly, research by Suarez-Orozco (1987) on Central American students found a strong belief in education was the key to a better

future for themselves and their families. The findings of Ogbu (1987), Suarez–Orozco (1987), and Fordham and Ogbu (1986), support the theory which suggests that differences in school performance among minority groups are not due to cultural differences, but to the ability of certain groups to develop a strategy of accommodation without assimilation.

Research by Ogbu (1987) offers a more adequate and complete explanation for the poor performance of black students in school. In his view, the way education is perceived and responded to depends upon the economic niche of a particular group, its historical experience or anticipation in using education for personal or economic gain, and its evolved values and cultural frame of reference. He contends that each group has its particular "folk theory" of success or status mobility. He defines status mobility as a socially approved strategy for getting ahead within a given population or a society. The findings of this research further suggest that when members of a group believe that one must do well in school in order to achieve social mobility, they will select strategies and model their behaviors on those that promote school success. If, however, children and parents do not perceive education as a necessary part of their status mobility system, their achievement motivation and behavior will reflect that view of educational irrelevance for them.

According to Fordham and Ogbu (1986), the high rate of low academic performance of urban, inner–city black youth is viewed as an adaptation to a variety of limited social and economic opportunities available in adult life. These authors suggest that many black Americans discourage their peers, perhaps unconsciously,

from emulating white academic striving and achievement. The authors also contend that development of these modes of adaptation are not deviant or pathological because they reflect the social and economic realities of the cultural group. It is the ultimate outcome of this mode of adaptation which leads to the development of a status mobility system.

One outcome of a status mobility system is the development of an oppositional cultural frame of reference. The manifestation of this phenomenon is that many blacks regard certain forms of behavior or events, symbols, and meanings as not appropriate for them because those behaviors, events, symbols, and meanings are characteristic of white Americans. Some members of the black community accept this oppositional cultural frame of reference only marginally while others reject it altogether.

In earlier research, Ogbu (1974) found that the limited occupational opportunities or job ceiling imposed upon black and Hispanic adults in Stockton, California, were observed by the adolescents and apparently affected their own educational and occupational aspirations. His research also found that the schools, through counselor and teacher expectations and instructional content and methods, limited the occupational opportunities available to students and perpetuated the low expectations–low performance cycle. This would suggest that opportunities available in adult society strongly affect the qualities which schools transmit to their students and the qualities the students strive to possess.

Between 1985 and 1990, Ogbu expanded his status mobility theory to account for differences between "caste like," involuntary minorities, forcibly brought to a country, and freely immigrating minorities. Initially, the caste minority experiences primary differences in style and culture with the dominant group. These are differences which exist prior to contact between the two groups. The inferior political, economic, and ritual roles of the caste are later defined and rationalized by the majority. Secondary cultural differences of style are then developed by the caste minority as a way of coping with exploitation and domination. These secondary differences, according to Ogbu (1987), are due to "cultural inversion" or the tendency of an involuntary minority to perceive certain forms of behavior, events, and symbols as belonging to the dominant minority. Members of the caste minority reject the behaviors of the white majority and develop their own oppositional forms of behavior.

Ogbu (1987) contends that the caste minorities have problems crossing cultural boundaries of their treatment by the schools because of the way the minorities respond to teaching and learning due to their oppositional frame of reference. He maintains that blacks, lacking a cultural frame of reference that encourages school success, experience persistent mismatch in cognitive styles, communication styles, and interactional etiquettes. Even when blacks accept education as a part of their status mobility system, Ogbu found that students divert their efforts into nonacademic activities and fail to match aspirations with appropriate school behaviors.

In a similar vein, Murray and Jackson (1982) present another explanation of academic underachievement for blacks that is termed conditional failure model. These

researchers suggest that teachers' expectations are often negative in regard to the academic abilities of black students. This occurs because teacher expectations of the behaviors of black students are often filtered through negative group stereotypes which mitigate expectations regarding future academic performance. Comparatively lower achievement for blacks may be less a reflection of family background or intellectual abilities than a result of conditioning or reinforcements black students receive from their teachers. If teachers regard the abilities of blacks negatively, it is likely that good performances will generally not be attributed to ability, while poor performance will.

While most of the above theories which account for the gap between black and white school performance have been rejected as adequate explanations, the work of Fordham and Ogbu (1986) addresses important issues which are directly relevant to this present study.

Educational Attainment and the Black Male

The inability of status attainment models to predict and explain the achievement process for black males is well documented. Although interpretation of findings differ among researchers, a common theme which runs through most of the research literature is the existence of different mobility systems for blacks and whites (Carter & Picou, 1975).

The research literature suggests that blacks tend to achieve less academically than whites do, and black males tend to achieve less academically than black females

do. This trend has led to various hypotheses about the self-definitions or self-identity of black males in our society. In general, there are four major taxonomies (themes) which apply to the self-identity of blacks.

One theme posits that a major problem in the black community is the lack of a cultural base or cultural identity. This theme maintains that blacks possess a popular culture rather than a national culture. According to Karenga (1980), popular culture is defined as the "societal perceptions and stereotypes of your group," whereas national culture is more of a self-definition. Karenga suggests that popular culture is "social thought and practice defined and limited by its unconsciousness, fluidity and reactiveness" (p. 18). National culture, by contrast, is the self-conscious, collective thought and practice through which a people creates itself, celebrates itself, and introduces itself to history and humanity.

A second theme which attempts to describe the self-identity of blacks comes from the cultural pathology view, which asserts that much of black American culture fosters a value orientation and lifestyle that produces a myriad of social problems and personality conflicts (Thomas, 1973). Staples (1991) asserts that the cultural image of the black male is typically one of several types: (a) the sexual superstud, (b) the athlete, or (c) the rapacious criminal. Similarly, Marable (1986) suggests that the essential tragedy of being black and male is the inability of black men to define themselves apart from the stereotypes which the larger society imposes on them. Marable contends that through various institutional means, these stereotypes are perpetuated and permeate our entire culture. This researcher further contends that the

historical cultural image of the black male is conditioned by basic beliefs that black men were only a step above the animals, possessing awesome physical powers, but lacking in intellectual ability. Marable concludes that these beliefs have not only informed the larger cultural image of the black male but have also had a longstanding influence on how the black male develops a definition of self.

Since 1954 and the advent of wide-scale desegregation, the integration movement has become a third conceptual influence in black American life. Racial equality was the presumed social expectation. The social reality, however, was quite another matter, as systematic victimization took place. According to Thomas (1971), while this process made the person feel that he is solely responsible for his actions, it was used to deny self-reliance, thus fostering over-dependence in matters such as sense of personal control and social power.

With the rise of Afrocentrism, systematic attention was given to blackness as a personality construct used to explain the self-identity of blacks. In this theme, the emphasis was on developing the mind set for self-reliant intervention in the quest for increased control by black Americans over their affairs. Thomas contends that blackness was conceived as an adaptive process that facilitates environmental mastery, promotes self-esteem, allows for growth motivation and achievement, combats the neurotic compromise of apathy and passive aggression, and incorporates Afrocentrism as the organizing drive for completion as a human.

Thomas (1971) concluded through his research that blackness has a political psychology foundation in cultural nationalism that is expressed through Afrocentrism,

where images, symbols, lifestyles, and manners are constructive to personal growth and collective development. He also theorized that the concept of blackness goes beyond physical characteristics and the simplistic notion that one is born black and is shaped by this culture. In its most elementary expression, blackness is viewed as a positive attitude that determines the self-actualizing relatedness of a person to the society in which he lives.

Interscholastic Athletics and Educational Achievement

The significance of sports in American society has been the topic of considerable debate among scholars and educators for many years (Anderson, 1990; Coleman, 1961; Chandler & Goldberg, 1990; Eckert, 1989; Hood, Craig, & Ferguson, 1992; McElroy, 1980; Otto & Alwin, 1977; Reith, 1989; Rutter, 1987; Schafer & Armer, 1968; Spreitzer & Pugh, 1973). Not only does this debate satisfy the needs of an increasing health-conscious generation, but it serves the purpose of supporting or rejecting perceptions about sports participation.

In the past, many observers supported the position that athletics in our high schools was overemphasized and that the overall effect of athletics was insignificant. The criticism and myth about high school athletes being "dumb athletes" have perpetuated and been expounded upon in countless reports and articles (Reith, 1989).

Criticism exists even today. In response to demands for budget cuts, public schools are questioning the value of costly athletic programs. One of the chief criticisms among observers today is that the sports madness which has swept the

country has become a source of growing concern. Society's emphasis on athletics is seen as being in conflict with such manifest functions of the school as promoting academic excellence, transmitting knowledge, and fostering the psychosocial development of the adolescent (Chandler & Goldberg, 1990; Figler, 1987–88; Goldberg, 1991; Lapchick, 1987–88; Nelson, 1983; Snyder, 1990).

According to Wilderson and Dodder (1979), sports are an institution of considerable importance and reflect society's values, belief systems, and needs as well as being a prescription for acceptable behavior patterns. This suggests that people become involved in sports because their involvement contributes to a more positive relationship between the individual and society.

A number of researchers, including Cole (1965) and Nolan (1954–55), have argued that sports reinforce such cultural values as (a) self-reliance, (b) self-sacrifice, (c) emotional maturity, (d) effective citizenry, (e) mental health, (f) academic success, (g) manliness, (h) the competitive spirit, (i) respect for authority, (j) democratic ideals, and (k) moral and religious values.

On the other hand, researchers such as Reed (1972) and Meggyesy (1970) contend that sports serve primarily to reinforce (a) mindless conformity, (b) dehumanization, (c) the conflict between the purpose of participation and winning, (d) authoritarianism, (e) conditional self-worth, (f) elitism, and (g) immaturity. Other researchers such as DeFleur and D'Antonio (1971) and Cozens and Strumpf (1978) view the role of sports in society as primarily that of a change agent. It promotes interaction between all levels and kinds of people, and is a channel for upward

mobility based on performance. Since the early 1950's, sports have emerged as one of the most pervasive social institutions in modern society. In that respect, it requires attention not only to its place in society but also to how it affects the achievement and success of its participants.

In a study involving 10 midwestern high schools, Coleman (1961) criticized athletics in the following manner:

Athletics creates a diversion of resources. The allocation of resources, personnel, and facilities to interscholastic sports in high school creates a drain away from the school's mission. (p. 26)

In a questionnaire sent to parents of high school students, Coleman asked the following: "Would you want your son or daughter to be a brilliant student, athletic star, or most popular?" Brilliant student was chosen by more than 75% of the parents of boys, and more than 50% of the parents of girls. This suggested that parents value scholarship far more than athletics (Coleman, 1961).

Coleman's research yielded the following two assumptions: (a) an athlete's participation in sports tends to keep his academic achievement down, and (b) athletics recruits many of the brightest male students and keeps them from giving the energy and time to their studies.

Research by Schafer and Armer (1968) found a positive relationship between sports participation and academic pursuits. Although the study's sample of 585 was small in comparison to more recent studies, their conclusions have been replicated (Rehberg, 1969). Schafer and Armer (1968) found that athletes' grades were higher

than grades of nonathletes. These results provide one of the earliest rebuttals to critics of interscholastic athletics.

Rehberg's (1969) research also found athletic participation to be conducive to higher scholastic performance. He concluded that a portion of the positive association between educational pursuits and athletic participation can be attributed to the experimental consequences of participation rather than to the antecedent selection factors as reported in earlier studies. In a similar vein, Cooper (1969), using standardized group measures of intelligence oriented toward verbal skills, found that there was generally no intellectual difference between athletes and nonathletes. Cooper noted, however, that motivational factors seemed to be the critical difference, and that athletes scored consistently higher than did nonathletes on achievement type verbal skill tasks.

The findings of Schafer and Armer (1968) concluded that sports are an avenue to higher education for those boys not otherwise highly predisposed to attending college. However, in a study by Spady (1970), sports participation was found to have a negative relationship with academic pursuits if sports was the only source of status being considered. Spady summarized his findings on sports participation in the following manner:

The student role in the high school peer group is a definite source of his success goals, particularly when his attitudinal, financial, intellectual, and academic resources are low. Participation in certain extracurricular activities (especially sports) is strongly associated with having high status perceptions. This feeling of being recognized and important in the peer group in teens stimulates a desire for further status and recognition after high school. But when peer recognition is the

exclusive source for success aspirations, the fulfillment of these aspirations is much more problematic. (p. 700)

Phillips and Shafer (1971) summarized their evidence on differences between high school athletes and nonathletes by saying, "We have convincing evidence that American interscholastic athletes achieve educational goals more than do comparable non-athletes" (p. 331).

Research by Buhrmann (1972) analyzed the consequences of interscholastic sports participation for high school males over the period of 1959–1965. Buhrmann found that sports acted as a positive means for boys of lower socioeconomic status to gain social recognition and acceptance. He concluded that the result of this increase in status gain was an increase in academic aspirations and higher achievement.

Spreitzer and Pugh's (1973) research suggested that the positive relationship between athletic participation and educational expectations was not eliminated when controlling for parental academic encouragement, student grade point average, perceived peer status, measured intelligence, and school value climate. This research also revealed that the percentage of athletes who had plans for attending college exceeded the percentage of nonathletes with similar plans by large margins in all instances (Spreitzer & Pugh, 1973).

The research findings of Picou and Curry (1974) provide additional support for the moderate positive effect of interscholastic sports on academic achievement. Their research not only supports the findings of Buhrmann (1972) but also adds the dimension of rural residence as a significant variable. The study also showed that

"non-disposed" athletes with a lower socioeconomic status and little parental encouragement to attend college have higher educational goals than do boys with similar characteristics who were not involved in school sports.

Hanks (1979) assessed the effect that extracurricular activities have in the educational attainment process. His research collected data from students in their sophomore year instead of results taken typically from the senior year. He concluded that extracurricular activities serve in the educational process as positive forces. However, he found that sports contributes the least to the normative relationship with roles that emerge from attainment.

The results of these studies suggest that participation in high school sports intervenes as a positive vehicle for boys who otherwise may not be encouraged to hold high-level educational aspirations. These analyses further suggest that if males have the support of family, peers, and some type of status source other than sports in school, the impact of school sports activity is reduced in importance as a primary source of status (Braddock, 1991).

An investigation by Otto (1977) of the effects of participation in activities on educational attainment found that participation in extracurricular activities plays a major role in educational attainment. Otto concluded that "participation in extracurricular activities provides socialization for attitudes and skills that have later life payoffs" (p. 112).

An investigation by Landers, Feltz, Oberneier, and Brouse (1978) found that achievement is enhanced when combined with extracurricular activities. The researchers stated that:

It appears that athletics, as a form of extracurricular participation, only provide a form for developing attitudes and skills from which status goals evolve and upon which future success is grounded when they are combined with other extracurricular activities. (p. 480)

Landers, Feltz, Oberneier, and Brouse (1978) concluded that the higher educational attainment of males in athletics and other extracurricular groups is due to the fact that they have high peer-group status or receive influence from significant others in a manner which promotes higher educational aspirations.

An investigation by Picou (1978) of athletic achievement and academic aspiration tested two hypotheses: (a) that youth internalize values, norms, and behaviors in the athletic role which enhance academic performance in the student role; and (b) that athletes, more than nonathletes, receive interpersonal encouragement from significant others to attend college. The implication of this investigation suggests that high school athletic participation fosters socialization experiences through increased contact with family members, school personnel, and achievement-oriented peers. All of these exert a positive effect on the adolescents' educational ambition.

On the basis of these findings, Picou (1978) concluded that the influence of interscholastic athletic achievement on educational aspiration is relatively modest when compared to the effects of other variables in the model.

Research by Hanks (1979) found a positive and significant relationship between the involvement in interscholastic sports and "actual college-going behavior" among black and white males and females. His research further noted that there is cultural support for the high value accorded to sports participation in the black subculture.

Research by Snyder and Spreitzer (1979) found a positive relationship between sports participation and academic pursuits for females in high school. These researchers concluded that the value-climate of the school is very important while the student remains in the school context. The values and the results of the values 5 years later showed the effects of maturation. The findings suggest that the influence on positive intellectual achievement increases and the values placed on the sports participation decreases as participation becomes unsupported.

McElroy (1980) found that culturally different youth tend to benefit from the value climate associated with sports. Culturally different youth are described by McElroy as those "students for whom traditional opportunity for developing educational motivations had been restricted" (p. 115). While McElroy argues in favor of incorporating more social psychological factors in the analysis of the impact of sports participation, she concludes that sports participation is not a positive force for educational aspirations.

Braddock's (1981) investigation of the relationship between athletic participation and educational attainment extended previous studies by examining the differences between black and white male adolescents. He concluded that among both groups there is a positive significant association of athletic participation with

(a) school grades earned, (b) academic self-esteem, (c) educational plans, (d) college enrollment, and (e) college attainment.

In a study by Jacobs and Chase (1989), the data revealed a significant relationship between participation of high school students in athletics and students' perception of a successful high school experience. This study concluded that participation in high school athletics is a very important part of students' high school education, that it makes school more fun, and that it helps students feel better about themselves.

The Women's Sports Foundation Report, Minorities in Sports (1989) erased what had been a common assumption about all athletes, male and female, at all levels. This study found that all groups of minority athletes at the high school level equaled or bettered their nonathlete counterparts in reported grades and achievement scores. The study provides the first comprehensive picture of the effects of high school varsity sports participation by gender, race, and area density (i.e. urban, suburban, or rural).

This present study examines the personal development of black male high school student athletes and nonathletes. Several models of development have been used to examine student development and athletic participation: Loevinger's stages of ego development (Blann, 1985), Heath's levels of competence (Roper & McKenzie, 1988), Perry's stages of development (Petitpas & Champagne, 1988) and Chickering's (1969) vectors along which development occurs. Chickering's vector of identity development will be used in this study for the foundation of comparison between the groups. He believes that identity is dependent on the three preceding vectors of

competence, emotions, and autonomy and is a stimulant for effecting change in the three subsequent vectors of interpersonal relationships, development of purpose, and integrity. The vector of identity development has been selected for analysis because success during the years of adolescence to adulthood is dependent upon progress in this area of personal development. The Erwin Identity Scale (EIS), an objectively scored instrument purported to measure Chickering's (Erwin, 1983) conceptualization of identity will be used to collect data. The EIS has three subscales that are hypothesized to be the basic constructs of identity. They are: (a) confidence, (b) sexual identity, and (c) conceptions about body and appearance.

The substantive literature review does not resolve the question of whether athletic participation inhibits or enhances personal development. The research design of this study is presented in Chapter III.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Chapter III presents a description of the sample, the method of data collection, research design, the research instrument, and method of data analysis. The study investigated whether the personal development of black male high school student athletes is different from that of black male high school student nonathletes.

For this study, it was necessary to select population samples of high school black male athletes and nonathletes, define a specific time period, and design a reliable data record form to collect information.

Population and Sampling

The population for this study was drawn from three public high schools (grades 9–12) in suburban Northern Virginia. Each school was purposely selected to participate because of the similarities of the communities surrounding them. The percent of black students enrolled at each school is above the average for the region. The student body at the three selected schools reflect diverse populations, with an average of about 66% of students white, 16% black, 7% Hispanic, and 11% Asian.

The three schools have had average enrollments of 1,506 to 1,921 students over the last 5 years. To meet the broad range of student needs, each school offers a comprehensive curriculum that stresses academic courses but includes a range of electives in fine arts, vocational, and technical fields. All black male senior students attending these three schools (n = 173) were mailed a student questionnaire. The

mediating variable "athletic participation" was identified in the questionnaire by a question asking whether or not the respondent had participated in interscholastic athletics or had been a member of a sports team in high school. A total of 104 of the students (60% of 173) returned usable instruments. The subjects selected for analysis were divided into two groups:

1. All black male senior students who had participated in interscholastic athletics or had been a member of a sports team during their high school career (n = 56).

2. All black male senior students who had not participated in interscholastic athletics nor had been a member of a sports team during their high school career (n = 48).

Data Collection

The data collection strategy for this study was through the use of a mail questionnaire sent to each subject's home address. This strategy was selected because parental consent is required prior to collecting data from school-aged students, and some school officials were reluctant to approve the use of school time for students to complete research questionnaires. Therefore, a parent letter of explanation and consent was mailed along with the demographic questionnaire and Erwin Identity Scale (EIS). The data used for analysis were obtained from these two instruments.

The Office of Research and Program Evaluation was sent a packet of information outlining the proposed research. Following a review of the packet by

school district officials and site administrators, permission to collect data was granted. Several meetings were held with school administrators to explain the purpose of the study and the use of the data. A current list of address labels of the sample population was also obtained. Confidentiality of individual data was stressed. Upon acceptance and approval by all necessary parties, the demographic questionnaire (Appendix A), Erwin Identity Scale (Appendix B), parent explanation and consent form (Appendix C), and a postage-paid return envelope were mailed to each subject.

According to Fowler (1988), the procedures that a researcher decides to use have a major influence on the percentage of a sample that actually provides information (i.e., the response rate) and the extent to which nonrespondents introduce bias into sample data; therefore, three steps were taken to achieve high response rates and to avoid biased estimates. The first step was to design an attractive, easy to read questionnaire. Linsky (1975) contends that almost anything that makes a mail questionnaire look more professional, more personalized, or more attractive will have some positive effect on response rates. Dillman (1978) and Kalton (1983) suggest that the task should be clear, questions should be attractively spaced, and the response task itself should be easy.

The second step taken to reduce nonresponse was to involve the service of a counselor at each school who worked closely with minority students' issues. These counselors met with the researcher to go over the purpose of the study and to review the instruments. They were also instructed on all necessary directions for student completion of the questionnaire (i.e., completion of all items, providing accurate

information and honest responses). Each counselor did follow up with the sample population. This included meeting with nonrespondents and encouraging them to complete and return their questionnaire.

The third step taken to reduce nonresponse was to make repeated contact with nonrespondents. Ten days after the initial mailing, all nonrespondents were mailed a reminder card, emphasizing the importance of the study and of a high rate of response. Approximately 10 days after the postcard was mailed, the remaining nonrespondents were mailed a letter again emphasizing the importance of a high rate of return and including another questionnaire for those who had thrown away the first one. Because the response rate was still not satisfactory, nonrespondents were then called on the telephone. To follow up nonrespondents, a simple identifying number was written on the back in the upper left corner of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire and scale were designed to take the students approximately 15–20 minutes to complete. Data from the questionnaire and EIS were coded and recorded on Data Summary Sheets. A summary of the overall findings is available for review by all participants, parents, and school district officials.

Instrumentation

Six inventories designed to assess personal development were developed at the University of Iowa and are known as the Iowa Student Development Inventories (Hood, 1986). One of the six inventories, the Erwin Identity Scale (EIS), was used in this study. A series of demographic questions to determine the characteristics of the

sample population were also used. These questions addressed athlete status (athletic participation or nonparticipation), age, type of program (general or advanced studies), grade–point–average (GPA), and parents' education level.

The EIS is a 59–item instrument designed to elaborate and refine the basic concepts of identity posed by Chickering (1969) and Erikson (1959). Establishing identity is considered to be the core developmental vector in Chickering's schema. The EIS contains three subscales that are hypothesized to be the basic constructs of identity. Each subject received a score on each of the three subscales: (a) confidence subscale (CS), (b) sexual identity subscale (SI), and (c) conceptions about body and appearance subscale (BA).

The first subscale to be examined was confidence. According to Erwin (1982), it is an assuredness in one's self and in one's capabilities. He believes that confidence includes a conscious self–reliance while recognizing the necessary dependence on outside sources. This recognition is an awareness of and faith in one's own capabilities, yet a realization that there are limits to these processes. Erwin further contends that the confidence subscale measures a person's understanding of his or her limitations. Self–confident individuals are likely to feel comfortable about expressing beliefs, making decisions, and behaving competently, even though action may not be taken in these areas. A sample item on this subscale is, "I am as sure of myself as most other people seem to be sure of themselves." The confidence subscale is comprised of 24 items and has a reliability coefficient of .81.

The second of Erwin's subscales to be assessed was sexual identity. This subscale attempts to measure the clarification, understanding, and acceptance of one's sexual feelings. According to Chickering (1969), a person with a high degree of sexual identity is likely to recognize his or her sexual feelings as natural and normal. Chickering considers sexual identity not only a positive acceptance of one's sexual feelings but also a control of one's sexual feelings. Chickering suggests that a person's sexual feelings are not typically overwhelming and do not interfere in interactions with other people. Moreover, Chickering views sexual feelings as a normal part of close love relationships. A sample item on the sexual identity subscale is, "I believe that I understand the sexual functions of men and women." The sexual identity subscale is comprised of 19 items and has a reliability coefficient of .75.

The final subscale to be examined was conceptions about body and appearance. This subscale attempts to measure self-perception of one's acceptance of his or her body and appearance. For Chickering, conceptions about body and appearance is an issue of presentation of the self. What do I think of my body? How do I conceive of myself and my appearance? He contends that an increasing acceptance of one's body, particularly in relation to other people, is a necessary component of the conception. In addition, one's appearance and dress are considered resolved issues representing a varied balancing of personal preferences, the desires of others, and situational expectations. A sample item is, "I would not change my style of clothes just because my boss indicated that I should dress more like him or her." This subscale is comprised of 16 items and has a reliability coefficient of .79.

The five possible responses to each item on the EIS are "very true of me", "somewhat true of me", "not sure or neutral", "somewhat untrue of me", and "not at all true of me." These responses are scored from one to five, depending on the directionality of the item. By rewording several items at random, the directionality of an item is changed to offset any response patterns. Items weighted with a plus (+) sign are worded so that a response of "very true of me" receives five points, "somewhat true of me" four points, "not sure or neutral" three points, "somewhat untrue of me" two points, and "not at all true of me" one point. Items weighted with a minus (-) sign are reversed and worded so that a response of "very true of me" receives one point, "somewhat true of me" two points, "not sure or neutral" three points, "somewhat untrue of me" four points, "not at all true of me" five points. Items 2-4, 6-14, 16, 19-23, 28-31, 33-36, 38, 40, 41, 43-45, 47-49, 51-59 are scored in reverse. The possible range of scores for each subscale is 24-120 on confidence, 19-95 on sexual identity, and 16-80 on conceptions about body and appearance. An overall high score indicates that the student demonstrates a high level of identity, and a low score indicates a low level of identity (Erwin, 1982).

Reliability

The original form of the EIS was administered by researchers to 15 high school juniors and seniors, 32 college freshmen, 29 college seniors, and 15 graduate students in the late spring of 1977. The high school students were from a high school in the state of Iowa, and the college and graduate students were enrolled at the

University of Iowa. Reliability estimates using Cronbach's coefficient of internal consistency were calculated. Cronbach's alpha coefficient indicates the degree to which the items within each subscale measure a common characteristic. Erwin reported that the coefficients were .65 for the conceptions about body and appearance subscale, .75 for the confidence subscale, and .76 for the sexual identity subscale. These coefficients were determined to be satisfactory for the initial form of the instrument.

The revised EIS was administered to a random sample of 169 students attending summer orientation at the University of Iowa. Items which correlated less than .20 with the respective subscale total score were deleted. Other items were also deleted or reworded in order to eliminate sexual, cultural, and handicap bias. Reliability coefficients were calculated again using Cronbach's alpha. The reliability of the hypothesized subscales showed improvement with item revision. The coefficients were .79 for the conceptions about body and appearance subscales, .81 for the confidence subscale, and .75 for the sexual identity subscale (Erwin, 1983).

Validity

The construct validity of a test is the extent to which the instrument measures a theoretical construct or trait. It requires the gradual accumulation of information from a variety of sources, including correlations with other tests and identification of events that influence a subject's performance on the instrument. To help establish construct validity, the EIS in conjunction with the Lack of Anxiety and Personal Integration

scales from the Omnibus Personality Inventory (Erwin & Delworth, 1980) were administered to (a) 15 high school juniors and seniors, (b) 32 college freshmen, (c) 29 college seniors, and (d) 15 graduate students. The results showed a moderate degree of relationship between the Erwin Identity Scale measures and Lack of Anxiety and Personal Integration. The interscale correlations between the subscales of the Erwin Identity Scale and the scales of the Omnibus Personality Inventory ranged from .41 to .81.

In a study to empirically determine the relationship between scores of the EIS and the Identity Achievement Scale, Erwin and Schmidt (1982) found that the two instruments measure similar yet different conceptualizations of identity. The correlation coefficients were moderate, suggesting some similarity of identity achievement with the confidence subscale ($r = .46$) and the sexual identity subscale ($r = .29$). However, the relationship between identity achievement and conceptions about body and appearance ($r = .18$) was also positive, but low.

Erwin (1983) examined the relationship between identity and the college plans of high school students. One hundred sixty-three students from all four grades were asked to complete the EIS and to respond "yes," "no," or "uncertain" to the question about their future college plans. Students planning to go to college had higher confidence scores on the average ($x = 58.9$) than students who were uncertain ($x = 53.1$) of attending college after high school. Although not statistically significant, students who decided not to go to college had a mean ($x = 57.9$) greater than students who were uncertain ($x = 53.1$). Students who had decided to attend ($x = 58.9$) or not

attend college ($x = 57.9$) scored higher on the average than students who had not decided about post-secondary education on the conceptions about body and appearance subscale. These results tend to indicate that students who were not planning to attend college do not possess any lesser sense of identity than students who were not planning to attend.

In another study (Erwin, 1982), the EIS was administered to 169 college freshmen and 169 high school students to examine changes in identity over a period of time. College freshmen took the EIS during summer orientation. Half of that same sample were retested midway through the fall semester, while the other half were retested midway through the spring semester. Findings in this study substantiated and built upon the findings in the earlier study. Generally, the college freshmen scored higher than the high school students on all three subscales. Within the high school sample, seniors scored higher than freshmen and sophomores on the subscale of sexual identity. Overall, the EIS appears to be sensitive to changes in awareness and acceptance of one's self as educational level increases. Identity scores also tend to increase at differing rates from high school freshmen to college freshmen.

Within the college freshmen sample, the EIS was found to measure gains and losses in identity during the freshmen year. Confidence scores were higher after one-half semester but not after one and one-half semesters of the freshmen year. Scores on conceptions about body and appearance declined for both sexes during students' first half-semester in college. While it is generally conceded that students undergo a

major psychological reorientation during the college experience, these results help define when and what changes take place.

In this same study, Erwin (1982) found that men appear to have a higher degree of identity. When college freshmen were grouped with high school students, men scored higher on confidence and on conceptions about body and appearance. The same difference was found for each retest group on the conceptions about body and appearance subscale.

The findings in this study lend support to the cultural belief that women do not receive the same reinforcement as men for self-development.

A study by Hood, Riahhinejad, and White (1986) approached construct validity from another direction. They tried to identify events that might influence a subject's performance on the EIS. Students were asked to respond to a questionnaire that compiled information about (a) housing, (b) extracurricular activities, (c) social life, and (d) commitment.

No relationships were found between campus living arrangements and scores on any of the three subscales. No differences on the Ego Identity subscales were found among students from urban or rural backgrounds, and none were found among students with varying amounts of work experience.

Students who had been active in campus organizations obtained a significantly higher mean on the confidence subscale than those students who had not been active. Those students active in recreational activities had significantly higher scores as seniors on all three subscales.

Erwin and Kelly (1985) furthered validity research with a longitudinal study (i.e., freshmen year and senior year of college) that examined the relationship between the EIS and the environmental measures of academics, career, intimacy, and extra-curricular participation. "Academics" was designed to measure students' level of satisfaction with their academic performance over the previous 3 years; "career" indicates students' certainty of commitment to a particular vocational choice; "intimacy" indicates the level of commitment a student has in friendships and dating, as well as the influence that these relationships have on personal decisions; "extracurricular activities" indicates degree of participation in such activities as social clubs, student government, athletics, or religious activities. The multiple correlation of the environmental variables and freshmen's confidence with seniors' confidence was .55. The relationship of academics and career with seniors' level of confidence was .36. Intimacy and extracurricular participation had no statistical significance and contributed very little to the model. This study delineated several components of the school environment that students reported as important in formulating conceptions about themselves.

Table 3.1 reports the normative data in the form of raw score means for the three subscales of the EIS for high school and college students. The early work on the Erwin Identity Scale progressed in two phases.

Table 3.1

Erwin Identity Scale*

	<u>Confidence</u>	<u>Sexual Identity</u>	<u>Conceptions about Body and Appearance</u>
Reliability	.89	.79	.80
Scale Means			
Overall	87.7	65.4	56.2
Females	87.2	65.6	55.2
Males	88.5	65.2	57.1
Freshman	84.2	63.2	54.4
Sophomores	87.3	65.4	56.1
Juniors	91.8	66.9	58.3
Seniors	92.1	68.1	57.1

*Normative Information (n = 2514)

In the first phase, the high school and graduate students were not random samples, but were studied to broaden the range of the educational levels of the students sampled. The second phase in the construction of the EIS involved revision of the original form and readministration to additional samples of students. Items which correlated less than .20 with the respective subscale total score were deleted. Other items were also deleted or reworded on the basis of feedback in order to eliminate sexual, cultural, and handicap bias.

Scores on the EIS were tested for mean differences across groups of men and women, and freshmen and seniors. No statistical differences among the means of the four groups were found. Mean scores of the sexes were also compared on all three subscales of the EIS to determine if there were any sex-related differences. The results revealed that men had significantly higher scores on the confidence subscale in their freshmen year. In the fourth year followup, men scored significantly higher on the confidence subscale as well as on the conceptions about body and appearance subscale. Students of both sexes showed substantial gains on all subscales over the 4-year period with the smallest change occurring among the females on the conceptions about body and appearance subscale.

Table 3.2 reports the descriptive statistics in raw score means and standard deviations for the EIS in a study completed at a parochial high school ($n = 171$). The internal consistency coefficients were somewhat lower for the high school students.

Table 3.2

Normative Data in the Form of Raw Score Means and Standard Deviations for a
Parochial High School* for the Three Subscales of the Erwin Identity Scale

EIS Subscale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Internal about Consistency Coefficient
Confidence	57.5	9.2	.71
Sexual Identity	72.8	9.8	.70
Conceptions about Body and Appearance	52.6	9.5	.74

*Parochial High School (n = 2514)

Data Analysis

In the present study, raw scores on the EIS were tabulated for each respondent. Means and standard deviations were calculated for each of the groups on the various measures. Utilizing Number Cruncher Statistical System (NCSS) (Hintz, 1987), analysis of variance (ANOVA), chi-square analysis, and multiple regression procedures were employed to determine if participation in athletics alone or in conjunction with certain demographic factors has a significant effect on black male high school students' development as measured. Comparisons were made to determine if there are differences in development between the athletes and nonathletes as measured by the mean scores.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the dimensions of personal development of black male high school student athletes and black male high school student nonathletes. ANOVAS were completed to determine differences between group means of athletes and nonathletes on confidence (CS), sexual identity (SI), and conceptions about body and appearance (BA) analyzed individually. Chi-square tests were completed to evaluate the significant relationships between the two groups and five demographic variables. Finally, stepwise multiple regression analyses were performed to determine which of the independent variables would explain the three dependent variables.

It is important to emphasize that the research in this study was conducted in a purposely selected location with a defined population. Any discussion or interpretation

of the conclusions from this study should be limited to similar populations. The results of the analysis of data are discussed in chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The primary purpose of this study was to determine whether participation in interscholastic athletics has an effect on the personal development of black male high school students. In order to investigate whether there is a difference in the level of personal development between black male athletes and nonathletes, the Erwin Identity Scale (EIS) accompanied by six demographic questions were administered to a sampling of 56 athletes and 48 nonathletes. The EIS contains 59 questions, and is comprised of three subscales, including confidence (CS), sexual identity (SI) and conceptions about body and appearance (BA). Each question was answered on a five-point Likert scale and scores were tabulated for each respondent on each subscale. Higher scores indicated greater development. The demographic questions addressed (a) athlete status (athletic participation vs. nonparticipation), (b) age, (c) type of diploma (general vs. advanced studies), (d) GPA, and (e) parents' education level. The methods employed to test the hypotheses included (a) univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA), (b) chi-square analysis, and (c) multiple regression.

Results

Univariate ANOVAS were conducted on each of the subscales for the two groups to determine if there was a significant difference between groups on the individual measures of development. The ANOVAS provided a direct response to each individual question.

Univariate ANOVAS were completed on each subscale analyzed individually. Each research question was addressed with relevant ANOVA results following.

Research Question 1: Is there a statistically significant difference in level of confidence for black male high school student athletes and black male high school student nonathletes?

A univariate ANOVA was completed to determine if there was a significant difference in the confidence level of black male student athletes versus black male student nonathletes. The results indicated a significant difference between the athletes and nonathletes ($F(1, 102) = 15.81, p = .0001$). Table 4.1 includes the ANOVA Table and Table 4.2 a breakdown of means and standard deviations for the two groups.

Research Question 2: Is there a statistically significant difference in sexual identity for black male high school student athletes and black male high school student nonathletes?

Results of the ANOVA yielded a significant difference between athletes and nonathletes for sexual identity ($F(1, 102) = 13.83, p = .0003$). The data for the analysis are presented in Table 4.3 and the means and standard deviations in Table 4.2.

Table 4.1

Differences Between Black Male High School Student Athletes and
Black Male High School Student Nonathletes on Level of Confidence

Variable Source	Df	Sum Squares	Mean Squares	F-Ratio	Prob
Group	1	2353.122	2353.122	15.81	.0001*
Subjects	103	15179.9	148.8227		
Total	104	17533.04			

*Note. $p < .05$.

Table 4.2

Means and Standard Deviations for Black Male High School Student Athletes and Black Male High School Student Nonathletes on Confidence, Sexual Identity, and Conceptions about Body Appearance

Subscale	Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Confidence (CS)	Athlete	56	88.5	14.23
	Nonathlete	48	98.04	9.28
	Total	104	93.28	
Sexual Identity (SI)	Athlete	56	64.00	9.63
	Nonathlete	48	71.73	11.57
	Total	104	67.87	
Conceptions about Body & Appearance (BA)	Athlete	56	58.50	9.55
	Nonathlete	48	60.20	7.29
	Total	104	59.35	

Table 4.3

Differences Between Black Male High School Student Athletes versus
Black Male High School Student Nonathletes on Sexual Identity

Variable Source	Df	Sum Squares	Mean Squares	F-Ratio	Prob.
Group	1	1544.05	1544.05	13.83	.0003*
Subjects	103	11385.48	111.6223		
Total	104	12929.53			

*Note. $p < .05$.

Research Question 3: Is there a statistically significant difference in conceptions about body and appearance for black male high school student athletes and black male high school student nonathletes?

Results of the ANOVA indicated no significant difference between athletes and nonathletes for conceptions about body and appearance ($F(1, 102) = 1.02, p = .31$) (See Table 4.2 for the means and standard deviations).

Research Question 4: What demographic characteristics describe black male high school student athletes versus black male high school student nonathletes?

Five of the demographic variables were studied in relation to the athletes and nonathletes. Chi-square tests were completed to evaluate the significance of the relationship between (a) athlete status, (b) age, (c) type of diploma, (d) GPA, (e) father's education level, and (f) mother's education level.

Results of the first χ^2 analysis indicate a significant relationship between athlete status and age, ($\chi^2(3) = 15.70, p = .0013$). The youngest (aged 16) and the oldest (aged 20) students were in the athlete group. The nonathlete group was comprised solely of students aged 17 and 18. On the whole, a greater proportion of the younger seniors (aged 16 and 17) were athletes, as opposed to nonathletes (67.9% vs 39.6%, respectively). Table 4.4 includes the percent of athletes and nonathletes for the five categories.

Table 4.4

Means and Standard Deviations for Black Male High School Student Athletes and Black Male High School Student Nonathletes on Confidence, Sexual Identity, and Conceptions about Body Appearance

Age	Athlete		Nonathlete	
	Number	%	Number	%
16	8	14.3	0	0
17	30	53.6	19	39.6
18	16	28.6	29	60.4
19	0	0	0	0
20	2	3.6	0	0
Total	56	100	48	100

*Note. Significant relationship between variables ($\chi^2 (3) = 15.7, p = .0013$).

A second chi-square test was completed to evaluate the significance of the relationship between the type of diploma and athlete status. Results, however, indicated no significance ($\chi^2 (3) = 1.12, p = .57$). It may be noted that a large proportion of the students in both groups were enrolled in the advanced studies program (67.9% of the athletes and 62.5% of the nonathletes). Table 4.5 displays the frequency breakdown of black male student athletes and black male student nonathletes enrolled in the general vs the advanced studies program.

Results of a chi-square test used to evaluate the significance of the relationship between the GPA and athlete status indicated that there was no significant relationship ($\chi^2 (3) 4.23, p = .24$). While the overall relationship between GPA vs athlete status was not significant; however, a higher proportion of nonathletes (52.1%) vs athletes (35.7%) had an "A" or "B" average (see Table 4.6).

Another chi-square test was used to evaluate the significance of the relationship between fathers' education level and athlete status. The data indicated that while no significant relationship existed ($\chi^2 (3) = 2.82, p = .42$), a lower percent of athletes' fathers (14.3%) versus nonathletes' fathers (22.9%) had less than a high school diploma. On the other hand, a similar percentage of athletes' and nonathletes' fathers received some vocational or college training (60.7% and 62.5%, respectively) (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.5

Comparison of Type of Diploma for Black Male High School Student Athletes versus
Black Male High School Student Nonathletes

Type of Diploma	Athlete		Nonathlete	
	Number	%	Number	%
Regular	18	32.1	18	37.5
Advanced Studies	38	67.9	30	62.5
Total	56	100	48	100

*Note. No significant relationship between variables ($\chi^2(3) = 1.12, p = .57$).

Table 4.6

Comparison of GPA for Black Male High School Student Athletes versus
Black Male High School Student Nonathletes

GPA	Athlete		Nonathlete	
	Number	%	Number	%
A Average	1	1.8	0	0
B Average	19	33.9	25	52.1
C Average	30	53.6	20	41.7
D Average	6	10.7	3	6.3
Total	56	100	48	100

*Note. No significant relationship between variables ($\chi^2 (3) = 4.23, p = .24$).

Table 4.7

Comparison of Father's Education Level for Black Male High School Student Athletes
versus Black Male High School Student Nonathletes

Father's Education	Athlete		Nonathlete	
	Number	%	Number	%
Less than H.S.	8	14.3	11	22.9
H.S. Graduate	14	25.0	7	14.6
Voc. or Some College	15	26.8	11	22.9
College Graduate	19	33.9	19	39.6
Total	56	100	48	100

*Note. No significant relationship between variables ($\chi^2 (3) = 2.82, p = .42$).

A final chi-square test was used to evaluate the significance of the relationship between the education level of mothers and athlete status. Once again, data indicated that there was no significant relationship between the education level for mothers of the two groups ($\chi^2 (3) = 3.28, p = .35$). A similar proportion of mothers in both groups completed vocational or college training (62.5% for athletes and 64.6% for nonathletes), percentages also similar to the education level of the fathers (see Table 4.8).

Although the research questions have been answered, additional analyses were completed to take a closer look at the relationship between the demographic variables and the subscales.

Stepwise multiple regression analyses were performed to determine which of the independent variables (athlete status, age, type of diploma, GPA, father's education level, and mother's education level) would explain the dependent variables (confidence, sexual identity, and conceptions about body and appearance). Each dependent variable was assessed individually. Tables D.1–D.45 in Appendix D include a breakdown of the means and standard deviations for each subscale and independent variable.

Data indicated that there was a positive relationship between athlete status and level of confidence ($p = .0001$), with nonathletes expressing greater confidence. Results also showed that athlete status explained 13.4% of the variance in confidence (see Table 4.9 for the ANOVA Report).

Table 4.8

Comparison of Mother's Education Level for Black Male High School Student
Athlete versus Black Male High School Student Nonathletes

Mother's Education	Athlete		Nonathlete	
	Number	%	Number	%
Less than H.S.	5	8.9	6	12.5
H.S. Graduate	16	28.6	11	22.9
Voc. or Some College	17	30.4	9	18.8
College Graduate	18	32.1	22	45.8
Total	56	100	48	100

*Note. No significant relationship between variables ($\chi^2 (3) = 2.82, p = .42$).

Table 4.9

Analysis of Variance Report A (Confidence)

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F-Ratio	Prob. Level
Constant	1	897636.9	897636.9		
Model	1	2353.122	2353.122	15.81	0.000*
Error	102	15179.92	148.8227		
Total	103	17533.04	170.2237		

*Note. $p = .000$.

Results of a stepwise multiple regression analysis on sexual identity found that SI can be explained by both athlete status ($p = .0013$) and GPA ($p = .0034$). Data indicated a positive relationship between athlete status and sexual identity and a negative relationship between GPA and sexual identity. Nonathletes with higher grades showed better sexual identity. Athlete status explained 12% of the variance in sexual identity and GPA explained 10% (see Table 4.10 for the ANOVA Report).

The stepwise multiple regression analysis on conceptions about body and appearance indicated that BA is explained by GPA ($p = .0047$). The data revealed that there was a positive relationship between grades and conceptions about body and appearance. Students with lower grades showed lower conceptions about body and appearance and students with higher grades showed higher conceptions. Only 8% of the variance in BA was explained by GPA (see Table 4.11 for the ANOVA Report).

In order to determine further information between the independent and dependent variables for athletes and nonathletes analyzed separately, additional stepwise regression analyses were completed. The five independent variables were regressed on each individual dependent measure. Results are delineated on Tables 4.12–4.15.

Table 4.10

Analysis of Variance Report B (Sexual Identity)

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F-Ratio	Prob. Level
Constant	1	474795.5	474795.5		
Model	2	2474.85	1237.425	11.95	0.000*
Error	101	10454.68	103.5117		
Total	103	12929.53	125.5294		

*Note. $p = .000$.

Table 4.11

Analysis of Variance Report C (Conceptions about Body and Appearance)

Source	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F-Ratio	Prob. Level
Constant	1	365572.7	365572.7		
Model	2	575.5128	575.5128	8.37	0.005*
Error	102	7013.834	68.76307		
Total	103	7589.346	73.68298		

*Note. $p = .005$.

Table 4.12

Stepwise Regression Report on Athletes: Five Independent
Variables Regressed on Confidence (CS)

Athletes						
In	Variables	S-Est	R2-Add	R2-Xs	T-Value	Prob.
Yes	Type of Diploma	0.34	0.118	0.000	2.7	0.0101*
No	GPA		0.028	0.189	1.3	0.1949
No	Age		0.001	0.008	0.2	0.80074
No	Father's Education		0.002	0.003	0.3	0.7417
No	Mother's Education		0.000	0.004	0.1	0.9516

*Note. $p = .0101$.

Table 4.13

Stepwise Regression Report on Nonathletes: Five Independent
Variables Regressed on Confidence (CS)

Nonathletes						
In	Variables	S-Est	R2-Add	R2-Xs	T-Value	Prob.
Yes	Type of Diploma	-0.29	0.077	0.068	-2.0	0.0512*
Yes	Mother's Education	0.32	0.097	0.068	2.3	0.0292*
No	GPA		0.000	0.301	0.1	0.9470
No	Age		0.003	0.334	0.4	0.6848
No	Father's Education		0.019	0.380	1.0	0.3190

*Note. $p = .0512$ and $p = .0292$.

Table 4.14

Stepwise Regression Report on Athletes: Five Independent
Variables Regressed on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA)

Athletes						
In	Variables	S-Est	R2-Add	R2-Xs	T-Value	Prob.
Yes	Type of Diploma	0.28	0.080	0.000	2.1	0.0366*
No	GPA		0.008	0.189	0.7	0.4926
No	Age		0.003	0.008	0.4	0.6935
No	Father's Education		0.001	0.003	0.2	0.8036
No	Mother's Education		0.016	0.004	0.9	0.3487

*Note. $p = .0366$.

Table 4.15

Stepwise Regression Report on Nonathletes: Five Independent
Variables Regressed on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA)

Nonathletes						
In	Variables	S-Est	R2-Add	R2-Xs	T-Value	Prob.
Yes	Mother's Education	0.39	0.154	0.000	2.9	0.0058*
No	GPA		0.053	0.107	1.7	0.0884
No	Age		0.006	0.317	0.6	0.5824
No	Type of Diploma		0.015	0.068	0.9	0.3797
No	Father's Education		0.035	0.331	1.4	0.1705

*Note. $p = .0058$.

Data indicated that athletes in advanced studies programs had higher confidence than athletes in the general diploma program. On the other hand, nonathletes in the general diploma program and nonathletes with mothers who had more education also had higher confidence (see Tables 4.12 and 4.13). For BA, data indicated that athletes in the advanced studies diploma program had better conceptions about body and appearance than athletes in the general diploma program. Other analyses showed that nonathletes with mothers having more education indicated better conceptions about body and appearance than nonathletes with mothers having less education (see Tables 4.14 and 4.15). Data further indicated that athletes with lower grades had lower SI and athletes with higher grades had higher SI (see Table 4.16). There was no relationship between SI and the dependent variables for nonathletes.

Table 4.17 shows a descriptive analysis the five independent variables. This chapter analyzed the four research questions in Chapter I through univariate analysis of variance, chi-square analysis, and multiple regression. The interpretations and discussion of these findings are presented in Chapter V.

Table 4.16

Stepwise Regression Report on Athletes: Five Independent
Variables Regressed on Sexual Identity (SI)

Athletes						
In	Variables	S-Est	R2-Add	R2-Xs	T-Value	Prob.
Yes	GPA	-0.29	0.084	0.000	-2.2	0.0323*
No	Age		0.034	0.033	1.4	0.1655
No	Type of Diploma		0.011	0.189	0.8	0.4281
No	Father's Education		0.000	0.001	0.1	0.8974
No	Mother's Education		0.000	0.004	0.1	0.9214

*Note. $p = .0323$.

Table 4.17

Descriptive Analysis Results: Demographic Characteristics

	Athletes (N = 56)		Nonathletes (N = 48)	
	Number	%	Number	%
Age				
16	8	14.3	0	0
17	30	53.6	19	39.6
18	16	28.6	29	60.4
19	0	0	0	0
20	2	3.6	0	0
Diploma				
Regular	18	32.1	18	37.5
Advanced Studies	38	67.9	30	62.5
GPA				
A	1	1.8	0	0
B	19	33.9	25	52.1
C	30	53.6	20	41.7
D	6	10.7	3	6.3
Father's Education				
Less than H.S.	8	14.3	11	22.9
H.S. Graduate	14	25.0	7	14.6
Voc. or Some College	15	26.8	11	22.9
College Graduate	19	33.9	19	39.6
Mother's Education				
Less than H.S.	5	8.9	6	12.5
H.S. Graduate	16	28.6	11	22.9
Voc. or Some College	17	30.4	9	18.8
College Graduate	18	32.1	22	45.8

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of Chapter V was to summarize and discuss the findings of this study. The study was designed to investigate whether there is a difference in the level of personal development between black male high school athletes and black male high school nonathletes when considering the following six demographic variables: (a) athlete status (athletic participation and nonparticipation), (b) age, (c) type of diploma, (d) GPA, (e) father's education level, and (f) mother's education level.

In order to obtain the desired information, 104 black male seniors who attended three high schools in Northern Virginia were surveyed. Two instruments were incorporated into the survey, a demographic questionnaire and the Erwin Identity Scale (EIS). The research design allowed for comparisons among the demographic variables, the subscales of the EIS, and athlete status. The analyses and findings were guided by the following research questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference in level of confidence for black male high school student athletes and black male high school student nonathletes?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference in sexual identity for black male high school student athletes and black male high school student nonathletes?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference in conceptions about body and appearance for black male high school student athletes and black male high school student nonathletes?

4. What demographic characteristics describe black male high school student athletes versus black male high school student nonathletes?

Findings

Results of this study indicate that the level of personal development for black male high school student nonathletes was significantly higher than that for black male high school student athletes when the measures were considered jointly. Although there were differences on the subscales for the groups, only for the subscales confidence and sexual identity was there a significant difference. Black male athletes scored significantly lower on these two subscales than the nonathletes. An individual's level of confidence includes a conscious self-reliance while recognizing the necessary dependence on outside sources. Athletes demonstrated less understanding of their limitations and showed less confidence in expressing beliefs, making decisions, and behaving competently.

Chickering (1969) contends that an individual's sexual identity also attempts to measure the clarification, understanding, and acceptance of his sexual feelings. Athletes again demonstrated less recognition of their sexual feelings as natural and normal than nonathletes. These findings, however, contradict two recent studies which found that all groups of minority athletes, including black males, at the high school level equaled or bettered their nonathlete counterparts in academic and psychosocial development (Jacobs & Chase, 1989; The Women's Sports Foundation Report: Minorities in Sports, 1989).

Analyses were completed to evaluate the significance of the relationship between athlete status (athletic participants and nonparticipants) and five demographic variables (age, type of diploma, GPA, fathers' education level, and mothers' education level). The analysis that focused on the significance of the relationship between athlete status and age indicated that athlete status had a significant relationship with age. Surprisingly, results showed that a greater proportion of the younger seniors were athletes as opposed to nonathletes. It is interesting to note that the nonathlete group, however, was comprised solely of students aged 17 and 18.

The analysis that focused on the significance of the relationship between athlete status and type of diploma indicated no significance. However, the results revealed that a large portion of the students in both groups were enrolled in the advanced studies program.

The analysis that focused on the significance of the relationship between athlete status and GPA indicated that there was no significant relationship. However, a higher proportion of nonathletes than athletes reported having an "A" or "B" average. This finding also contradicts a number of earlier studies that found a positive significant association of athletic participation with school grades earned (Braddock, 1981; Hanks, 1979; Landers, Feltz, Oberneier, & Brouse, 1978; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1979).

The analysis that focused on the significance of the relationship between athlete status and fathers' education level indicated that while no significant relationship existed, a lower percent of athletes' fathers had less than a high school diploma.

In regard to the analysis that focused on the significance of the relationship between mothers' education level and athlete status, the results indicated no significant relationship. It is interesting to note that a similar proportion of mothers in both groups completed vocational or some college training, percentages also similar to the education level of the fathers.

Independent analyses were performed to determine which of the independent variables (athlete status, age, type of diploma, GPA, fathers' education level, and mothers' education level) explained the dependent variables (confidence, sexual identity, and conceptions about body and appearance). Results indicated that there was a significant relationship between several of the independent and dependent variables.

The first analysis indicated that confidence can be explained by athlete status. Nonathletes were found to express greater confidence than athletes. A second analysis indicated that sexual identity can be explained by athlete status and GPA. Athlete status and sexual identity had a positive relationship while GPA and sexual identity had a negative relationship. The data also indicated that nonathletes with higher grades showed better sexual identity.

A third analysis performed to determine which of the independent variables explained the dependent variables indicated that conceptions about body and appearance can be explained by grades. For Chickering (1969), conceptions about body and appearance is an issue of presentation of the self. What do I think of my body? How do I conceive of myself and my appearance? He further contends that an

increasing acceptance of one's body, particularly in relation to other people, is a necessary component. Grades and conceptions about body and appearance were found to have a negative relationship. This indicates that students with lower grades showed lower conceptions about body and appearance.

Additional analyses were completed to determine further information between the independent and dependent variables. For athletes, confidence was explained by type of diploma. This indicates that athletes in the advanced studies program had higher confidence. Sexual identity was also explained by GPA for athletes. This indicates that athletes with lower grades had lower sexual identity and athletes with higher grades had higher sexual identity. Conceptions about body and appearance were explained by type of diploma for athletes. This indicates that athletes in the advanced studies program had better conceptions about body and appearance.

For nonathletes, confidence was explained by type of diploma and mothers' education level. This indicates that nonathletes in the general diploma program and nonathletes with mothers with more education had higher confidence. Conceptions about body and appearance were also explained by mothers' education level for nonathletes. This indicates that nonathletes with mothers having more education have better conceptions about body and appearance. Overall, athletes versus nonathletes is the best factor in explaining confidence, sexual identity, and conceptions about body and appearance. Finally, if you take athletes versus nonathletes, GPA, and education of parents, you have the best predictors of confidence, sexual identity, and conceptions about body and appearance.

Discussion

Athletic participation has been hypothesized to promote personal growth in social skills among high school and college students. The attention accorded student athletes for their athletic accomplishments also influences personal development. On the one hand, athletic involvement has been linked to the development of (a) leadership skills, (b) emotional maturity, (c) academic success, (d) feelings of self-reliance, (e) the ability to set and implement goals, and (f) the competitive spirit (Astin, 1993; Baxtor-Magolda, 1992; Cole, 1965; Rehberg, 1969; Schafer & Armer, 1968; Williams & Winston, 1985). The associated notion of social awareness may also include greater tolerance of persons with different beliefs, and a desire to promote racial understanding. On the other hand, prolonged emotional dependence on others, identity foreclosure, role conflict, and unrealistic career expectations have been cited as limiting effects caused by athletic participation (Anderson, 1990; Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Chu, 1989; Eckert, 1989; Figler, 1987-88; Goldberg & Chandler, 1989; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988; Snyder, 1990).

In summary, there is not an abundant amount of specific research available on the relationship between personal development and athletic participation for black male high school students. However, the results of this study indicate that the level of personal development for black male high school student nonathletes was significantly higher than that of black male high school student athletes. This would suggest that school personnel should be aware of these results when advising black male high school students.

Recommendations for Future Research

1. A study with a larger sample size should be conducted and should include additional variables.
2. Further research should be conducted using case studies of black male students to provide additional information about the impact of interscholastic athletics on this population.
3. Further research should be conducted to determine the differences between particular sports.
4. Caution is encouraged in generalizing the results of this study to other black male populations due to the fact that the sample used in this study was from an affluent or atypical area.

Recommendations for Counseling

The black male student brings to the school experience a set of positive behaviors and success expectations fostered both in the home and the black American community. However, the cultural insensitivities inherent in the educational system tend not to validate the experience of these students' home and community life. Consequently, black parents are often excluded from serious consideration in the education of their children (Lee, 1992).

Student services personnel should play an active role in addressing the disparity between the black community and the educational system. The school counselor can serve as an important link between the home and the community. For instance, the

counselor can function to make the system more responsive to the black community, while at the same time, increasing the level of effective participation by parents and the community in the educational process.

Counseling practice with black students must also take into account the history, values, and beliefs of the African-American culture as well as the sociopsychological characteristics of the individual student (Atkinson, 1987). The counselor must accept that the experience of black students is unique. Their personality development is strongly influenced by the dynamics of today's society, which often cause them feelings of discomfort. Therefore, in working with the black male student, the counselor must also concentrate on self-identity building as it relates to the real world.

In addition to understanding the social, cultural, and developmental factors that affect black male high school students, counselors should also be aware that certain techniques and theoretical approaches tend to be more effective with this population. Vontress (1971) contends that particular attention should be paid to (a) counselor attitude, (b) structuring, (c) language transference, (d) countertransference, (e) self-disclosure, (f) personalism, (g) attending behavior, and (h) resistance. Other techniques of equal importance include (a) group counseling, (b) information giving, (c) consultation, (d) follow-up, (e) referral, (f) reassurance, (g) modeling, (h) confrontation, and (i) role playing. Specific counseling recommendations are drawn from both the Literature Review and Data Analysis.

Recommendations from the Data Analysis

1. School personnel should be careful and avoid recommending athletic participation as a means of promoting the black male high school student's psychosocial development.

2. Counselors should function to facilitate an awareness among his or her educational colleagues of the systemic factors that impinge upon the development of black students. This function could provide individual and group consultations with coworkers to identify alienating factors in their attitudes and behaviors.

Recommendations from the Literature Review

1. Counselors should serve as a liaison between the black community and the school to facilitate the development and incorporation of family and community resources into the educational process.

2. Counselors should be aware that black male students should be provided information about the benefits of joining other extracurricular activities in the school setting.

3. Counselors should facilitate career planning workshops to explain to parents the important stages of career development, particular career exploration and tentative job choice which characterizes adolescence. Improving these social and life planning skills may improve affective factors of personal development.

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APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX A

Dear Student:

This is a request for assistance. The attached questionnaire will be used in an independent research effort only. No names or schemes are associated with them; consequently, the information will be strictly confidential. It is important that you respond to each question and answer as honestly as you can.

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation in completing this questionnaire.

Otha L. Myers
Graduate Student
Virginia Tech

Demographic Questionnaire:

1. Age _____
2. What type of diploma are you working toward?
 General Diploma (21-Credit Diploma)
 Advanced Studies Diploma (23-Credit Diploma)
3. Which of the following describes your grades so far in high school?
 Mostly A's Mostly B's Mostly C's Mostly D's
4. What was the highest level of education of your father (stepfather or male guardian)?
 Less than high school High school graduate
 Vocational school or some college College graduate, or beyond
5. What was the highest level of education of your mother (stepmother or female guardian)?
 Less than high school High school graduate
 Vocational school or some college College graduate, or beyond
6. Have you participated in interscholastic athletics or been a member of a sports team in high school?
 Yes No

APPENDIX B

THE ERWIN IDENTITY SCALE

APPENDIX B

INSTRUCTIONS

Each of the following statements reflect personal feelings held by people in our society. We are interested in how much you agree with each statement. Because these statements reflect personal feelings and attitudes, there are no right and wrong answers. The best response to each of the following statements is your personal opinion. We have tried to cover many points of view. You may find yourself agreeing with some of the statements and disagreeing with others. You can be sure that many others feel the same as you do. Respond to the statements in order and do not leave out any responses.

For each statement ask yourself: How True Is This Of Me?

On the line before each statement, mark a letter from A to E which best describe how true the statement is of you.

A	B	C	D	E
Very True of Me	Somewhat True of Me	Not Sure or Neutral	Somewhat Untrue of Me	Not at All True of Me

- ___ 1. I am sure of myself as most other people seem to be sure of themselves.
- ___ 2. I have found one of the easiest ways to make friends with others is to be the kind of person they would like me to be.
- ___ 3. It seems like when I trust someone to whom I am attracted I get hurt.
- ___ 4. I do not have as strong control over my feelings as I would like.
- ___ 5. It does not bother me that I am not as attractive as other people.
- ___ 6. I rarely express my feelings to a friend for fear I will get hurt.
- ___ 7. When I look in the mirror at myself, I am satisfied with the physical image I see.
- ___ 8. I usually do not have the assurance that what I am doing is the best thing.

- ___ 9. I believe that people should follow an established dress code in order to be accepted in a work environment.
- ___10. I sometimes regret my behavior in informal social situations (e.g., parties).
- ___11. My feelings often interfere with my interactions with other people.
- ___12. It usually takes so much effort to make decisions I wish somebody else would make decisions for me.
- ___13. I have many doubts about what I am going to do with my life.
- ___14. I feel uncomfortable when I am seen with someone who dresses out of style.
- ___15. If I really let go of my feelings, I probably would not do anything that I would later regret.
- ___16. When I compare myself to people whom I think are extremely good looking, I feel inferior.
- ___17. In most situations, I would not hesitate to express my beliefs to those with opposite beliefs.
- ___18. Most of the time I am comfortable with my feelings.
- ___19. I believe there is only one right person for me with whom I could establish a close love relationship.
- ___20. A person should adapt his or her appearance to the group that happens to be with him or her at that time.
- ___21. I envy those people who know where they are going in life.
- ___22. If I did not wear the basic style of dress that other people wear, I would feel left out and excluded.
- ___23. If I shared my true feelings with a close friend (male or female), s/he would probably think less of me.
- ___24. No matter how sad I feel, I usually think things will get better.
- ___25. Each day presents new challenges that I cannot wait to confront.

- ___26. I feel confident that I have chosen or will choose the best occupational field for me.
- ___27. I am capable of understanding most ideas I read about.
- ___28. When I am hurt by someone I care for, I find it hard to trust others for quite a long time.
- ___29. I often feel inferior when I compare myself to other people.
- ___30. I often have uneasy thoughts about the way I appear to other people.
- ___31. I believe there are only a few people (1 or 2) in the world I could be happy with in a close love relationship.
- ___32. I do not mind appearing different in dress from other people because that is me.
- ___33. No matter how hard I try, I do not feel prepared to enter the working world.
- ___34. Even though it may be contrary to my normal wishes, I usually dress to fit the situation or wishes of others.
- ___35. My confidence is really shaken when I see so many capable people with abilities as good or better than mine.
- ___36. If I seem to be not dressed appropriately for a particular situation, I usually become very anxious and feel out of place.
- ___37. When I am a stranger in a group, I often introduce myself to others.
- ___38. When other people discuss how important it is to be handsome or pretty, I feel badly and wish I were more attractive.
- ___39. I would not change my style of clothes just because my boss indicated that I should dress more like him or her.
- ___40. When I am in a crowd, I feel uncomfortable about the way I look.
- ___41. It is uncomfortable for me to speak out in groups for fear my statement may be incorrect.
- ___42. I realize that most of my feelings and desires are natural and normal.

- ___43. My relationship with people of the opposite sex usually have lasted as long as I would like.
- ___44. There are certain feelings I have that I do not understand.
- ___45. My feelings often overwhelm me when I try to establish close friendships.
- ___46. I would not pattern my appearance after the dress style expected by my peer group.
- ___47. If a boss or teacher criticizes my work, it is usually because they do not understand me.
- ___48. I frequently have doubts that I can have a successful and happy close love relationship.
- ___49. I usually do not smile because I am uncomfortable with the way my smile looks.
- ___50. When I fall in love, I am reasonably sure of my feelings.
- ___51. I still have difficulty making decisions for myself.
- ___52. To satisfy my needs I have to be aggressive or clever.
- ___53. I feel some guilt when I realize how strong my feelings are.
- ___54. I do not understand myself very well.
- ___55. I do not know myself well enough to make a firm occupational choice.
- ___56. It is difficult for me to answer questions like these about myself.
- ___57. I have trouble making decisions when other people disagree with me.
- ___58. Even when I have most of the facts I often postpone making decisions.
- ___59. Other people know what is better for my life than I do.

APPENDIX C

PARENT EXPLANATION AND CONSENT FORM

APPENDIX C

PARENT EXPLANATION AND CONSENT FORM

Dear Parent:

Your son has been selected to participate in a study that will investigate the effects of athletic participation on the personal development of high school students. The study will involve both student athletes and nonathletes. We hope to learn whether or not participation in athletics improves students' self-image and confidence. One benefit of your son participating is that we can reasonably expect the study to identify positive and/or negative effects athletic participation has on the decisions and choices high school students make about their future.

If you approve of your son participating, he will need to complete the enclosed short demographic questionnaire and Erwin Identity Scale. It should take approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete both instruments.

Return this form along with the completed questionnaire and Erwin Identity Scale in the self addressed envelop. If you have any questions now or later, call Otha Myers at _____.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Otha L. Myers
Graduate Student Virginia Tech

_____ Parent Signature

APPENDIX D

A BREAKDOWN OF MEANS FOR EACH SUBSCALE
(CONFIDENCE, SEXUAL IDENTITY, AND CONCEPTIONS
ABOUT BODY AND APPEARANCE)
AND INDEPENDENT VARIABLES
(ATHLETE STATUS, AGE, GPA, TYPE OF DIPLOMA,
FATHER'S EDUCATION LEVEL, AND MOTHER'S EDUCATION LEVEL)

Table D.1. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes
on Confidence (CS) and Age

Age	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
16	8	93	11.63	74	108
17	49	92.63	13.997	58	118
18	45	93.87	12.31	61	114
20	2	77.5	.71	77	78

Table D.2. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes
on Sexual Identity (SI) and Age

Age	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
16	8	69.125	6.64	60	78
17	49	66.96	11.92	44	105
18	45	68.29	11.30	38	87
20	2	60	1.41	59	61

Table D.3. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes
on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and Age

Age	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
16	8	56.5	5.85	47	66
17	49	60.31	9.84	41	81
18	45	59.18	7.27	48	76
20	2	48	2.83	46	50

Table D.4. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes
on Confidence (CS) and GPA

GPA	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
A	1	102		102	102
B	44	96.18	12.34	60	118
C	50	90.38	13.05	58	114
D	9	89.89	14.50	63	109

Table D.5. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes
on Sexual Identity (SI) and GPA

GPA	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
A	1	51		51	51
B	44	71.95	12.77	38	105
C	50	65.22	8.36	49	81
D	9	61	9.39	44	74

Table D.6. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes
on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and GPA

GPA	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
A	1	74		74	74
B	44	61.34	9.38	43	81
C	50	58.18	7.59	41	74
D	9	53.78	5.52	46	62

Table D.7. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes
on Confidence (CS) and Type of Diploma

Type of Diploma	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
	1	94		94	94
General	36	90.92	14.32	58	113
Advanced Studies	67	93.96	12.39	60	118

Table D.8. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes
on Sexual Identity (SI) and Type of Diploma

Type of Diploma	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
	1	44		44	44
General	36	65.75	9.44	49	87
Advanced Studies	67	68.896	11.69	38	105

Table D.9. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes
on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and Type of Diploma

Type of Diploma	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
	1	54		54	54
General	36	56.44	7.685	46	76
Advanced Studies	67	60.896	8.73	41	81

Table D.10. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes
on Confidence (CS) and Father's Education Level

Father's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	19	95.68	10.61	76	109
H.S. Graduate	21	91.19	12.197	63	108
Voc. or Some College	26	89.77	12.7	60	111
College Graduate	38	94.61	14.64	58	118

Table D.11. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes
on Sexual Identity (SI) and Father's Education Level

Father's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	19	69.37	10.96	53	84
H.S. Graduate	21	67.14	8.72	54	86
Voc. or Some College	26	67.19	11.14	44	87
College Graduate	38	67.16	12.81	38	105

Table D.12. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes

on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and Father's Education Level

Father's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	19	58.95	7.41	46	74
H.S. Graduate	21	61.95	8.65	41	74
Voc. or Some College	26	54.27	7.69	43	78
College Graduate	38	61.42	8.46	46	81

Table D.13. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes
on Confidence (CS) and Mother's Education Level

Mother's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	11	94	11.77	76	109
H.S. Graduate	27	91.44	11.696	60	111
Voc. or Some College	26	89.19	15.03	58	108
College Graduate	40	96	12.54	64	118

Table D.14. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes
on Sexual Identity (SI) and Mother's Education Level

Mother's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	11	67.55	10.08	54	81
H.S. Graduate	27	66.78	9.84	53	87
Voc. or Some College	26	66.69	13.42	38	86
College Graduate	40	68.68	11.10	51	105

Table D.15. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes and Nonathletes

on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and Mother's Education Level

Mother's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	11	58.91	7.38	51	74
H.S. Graduate	27	55.74	8.003	43	74
Voc. or Some College	26	59.15	9.44	41	78
College Graduate	40	61.88	8.07	46	81

Table D.16. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes
on Confidence (CS) and Age

Athletes					
Age	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
16	8	93	11.63	74	108
17	30	88.13	14.96	58	112
18	16	88.31	14.80	61	108
20	2	77.5	.71	77	78

Table D.17. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes
on Sexual Identity (SI) and Age

Athletes					
Age	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
16	8	69.13	6.64	60	78
17	30	64.27	10.84	44	86
18	16	61.44	8.29	49	80
20	2	60	1.41	59	61

Table D.18. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes
on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and Age

Athletes					
Age	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
16	8	56.5	5.86	47	66
17	30	58.77	11.06	41	81
18	16	60.31	7.78	48	74
20	2	48	2.83	46	50

Table D.19. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes
on Confidence (CS) and Age

Nonathletes					
Age	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
17	19	99.74	8.64	84	118
18	29	96.93	9.66	78	114

Table D.20. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes
on Sexual Identity (SI) and Age

Nonathletes					
Age	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
17	19	71.21	12.59	54	105
18	29	72.07	11.06	38	87

Table D.21. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes
on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and Age

Nonathletes					
Age	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
17	19	62.74	7.12	51	76
18	29	58.55	7.04	49	76

Table D.22. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes
on Confidence (CS) and GPA

Athletes					
GPA	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
A	1	102		102	102
B	19	93.84	13.89	60	112
C	30	85.43	13.79	58	106
D	6	84.67	14.47	63	102

Table D.23. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes

on Sexual Identity (SI) and GPA

Athletes					
GPA	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
A	1	51		51	51
B	19	68.74	10.77	54	86
C	30	62.73	7.97	49	81
D	6	57.5	7.34	44	66

Table D.24. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes
on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and GPA

Athletes					
GPA	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
A	1	74		74	74
B	19	60	11.18	43	81
C	30	57.97	8.52	41	74
D	6	53.83	6.82	46	62

Table D.25. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes
on Confidence (CS) and GPA

Nonathletes					
GPA	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
B	25	97.96	10.97	78	118
C	20	97.8	7.25	85	114
D	3	100.33	8.50	92	109

Table D.26. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes
on Sexual Identity (SI) and GPA

Nonathletes					
GPA	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
B	25	74.4	13.81	38	105
C	20	68.95	7.68	54	80
D	3	68	10.39	56	74

Table D.27. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes
on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and GPA

Nonathletes					
GPA	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
B	25	62.36	7.84	51	76
C	20	58.5	6.13	49	71
D	3	53.67	2.31	51	55

Table D.28. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes
on Confidence (CS) and Type of Diploma

Athletes					
Type of Diploma	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
	1	94		94	94
General	18	81.38889	13.00289	58	102
Advanced Studies	37	91.81081	13.85608	60	112

Table D.29. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes
on Sexual Identity (SI) and Type of Diploma

Athletes					
Type of Diploma	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
	1	44		44	44
General	18	61.44444	7.500763	49	81
Advanced Studies	37	65.78378	9.868961	51	86

Table D.30. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes

on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and Type of Diploma

Athletes					
Type of Diploma	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
	1	54		54	54
General	18	54.72222	7.887485	46	74
Advanced Studies	37	60.45946	9.912379	41	81

Table D.31. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes
on Confidence (CS) and Type of Diploma

Nonathletes					
Type of Diploma	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
General	18	100.4444	7.815687	85	113
Advanced Studies	30	96.6	9.901585	78	118

Table D.32. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes
on Sexual Identity (SI) and Type of Diploma

Nonathletes					
Type of Diploma	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
General	18	70.05556	9.377522	54	87
Advanced Studies	30	72.73333	12.74669	38	105

Table D.33. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes
on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and Type of Diploma

Nonathletes					
Type of Diploma	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
General	18	58.16667	7.286168	49	76
Advanced Studies	30	61.43333	7.137484	51	76

Table D.34. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes
on Confidence (CS) and Mother's Education Level

Athletes					
Mother's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	5	93	12.82576	76	105
H.S. Graduate	16	89.125	13.83655	60	106
Voc. or Some College	17	83.94118	15.12643	58	108
College Graduate	18	91	14.07543	64	112

Table D.35. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes
on Sexual Identity (SI) and Mother's Education Level

Athletes					
Mother's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	5	68.2	12.33694	54	81
H.S. Graduate	16	63.0625	8.410064	53	84
Voc. or Some College	17	62.05882	10.5147	44	86
College Graduate	18	65.5	9.24344	51	82

Table D.36. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes

on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and Mother's Education Level

Athletes					
Mother's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	5	61.4	8.933085	51	74
H.S. Graduate	16	56.375	9.58384	43	74
Voc. or Some College	17	56.76471	10.4315	41	78
College Graduate	18	61.22222	8.66742	46	81

Table D.37. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes
on Confidence (CS) and Mother's Education Level

Nonathletes					
Mother's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	6	94.83334	11.99027	78	109
H.S. Graduate	11	94.81818	6.882124	85	111
Voc. or Some College	9	99.11112	8.894443	80	108
College Graduate	22	100.0909	9.620955	84	118

Table D.38. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes
on Sexual Identity (SI) and Mother's Education Level

Nonathletes					
Mother's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	6	67	8.988882	56	75
H.S. Graduate	11	72.18182	9.568889	54	87
Voc. or Some College	9	75.44444	14.47507	38	84
College Graduate	22	71.27273	12.00469	54	105

Table D.39. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes

on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and Mother's Education Level

Nonathletes					
Mother's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	6	56.83333	5.810909	51	67
H.S. Graduate	11	54.81818	5.211875	49	68
Voc. or Some College	9	63.66667	5.074446	57	72
College Graduate	22	62.40909	7.719235	51	76

Table D.40. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes
on Confidence (CS) and Father's Education Level

Athletes					
Father's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	8	92.25	11.53566	76	105
H.S. Graduate	14	88.42857	13.63657	63	108
Voc. or Some College	15	86.06667	14.81055	60	106
College Graduate	19	88.89474	15.82507	58	112

Table D.41. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes
on Sexual Identity (SI) and Father's Education Level

Athletes					
Mother's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	8	64.25	11.06797	53	81
H.S. Graduate	14	64.35714	8.148687	54	86
Voc. or Some College	15	63.53333	11.05743	44	84
College Graduate	19	64	9.60324	51	82

Table D.42. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Athletes
on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and Father's Education Level

Athletes					
Father's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	8	57.875	8.838835	46	74
H.S. Graduate	14	61.21429	10.00906	41	74
Voc. or Some College	15	53.86667	9.264885	43	78
College Graduate	19	60.42105	9.022445	46	81

Table D.43. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes
on Confidence (CS) and Father's Education Level

Nonathletes					
Father's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	11	98.18182	9.662486	78	109
H.S. Graduate	7	96.71429	6.290583	90	108
Voc. or Some College	11	94.81818	6.882124	85	111
College Graduate	19	100.3158	11.00027	80	118

Table D.44. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes
on Sexual Identity (SI) and Father's Education Level

Nonathletes					
Father's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	11	73.09091	9.710351	56	84
H.S. Graduate	7	72.71429	7.432233	65	83
Voc. or Some College	11	72.18182	9.568889	54	87
College Graduate	19	70.31579	14.96311	38	105

Table D.45. Descriptive Statistics

Means and Standard Deviations for Nonathletes

on Conceptions about Body and Appearance (BA) and Father's Education Level

Nonathletes					
Father's Education	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Less than H.S.	11	59.72727	6.52826	51	72
H.S. Graduate	7	63.42857	5.318431	57	69
Voc. or Some College	11	54.81818	5.211875	49	68
College Graduate	19	62.42105	7.974374	51	76

VITA

Otha L. Myers, son of Christopher and Harriett Myers, was born December 27, 1943, in Pittsylvania County, Virginia. He received his Bachelor of Science degree in Social Science from Saint Paul's College in Lawrenceville, Virginia in 1966. While teaching social studies in the Alexandria City Public Schools, he earned the degree of Master of Arts in Education at The George Washington University in 1971. He later served as counselor and guidance director in Alexandria before transferring to Fairfax County Public Schools in 1990, where he continued in the role as guidance director. He began his doctoral studies at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University in 1988 as a part-time student. He completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree in 1995 from Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

Otha L. Myers