

**THE EFFECTS OF PARTICIPATING IN ACTIVITIES ON THE ACADEMIC
SUCCESS OF HISPANIC STUDENTS**

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of participation in high school activities, the amount and type of activities participated in (extracurricular or cocurricular), and gender on Hispanic students' GPA and graduation status. The research design for this study was quantitative in nature. The sample was limited to 558 Hispanic students attending Emporia High School from the cohort classes of 2008-2009 to 2011-2012.

Hispanic students were specifically identified for the purpose of this study. As part of this quantitative study, data was collected to examine the participation rates of Hispanic students over four graduating cohort classes. A variety of sources was used to gather all the data necessary for the purpose of this study. Data from the Kansas State Department of Education Dropout Graduation Summary Report was used to determine graduation status, ethnicity, state student identifier, and gender for the sample. Kansas High School Activities Association eligibility rosters for each of the four years were used to cross-reference student participants. The eight research questions concerning Hispanic GPA and graduation status were analyzed using one- and two-factor ANOVAs, chi-square tests of equal percentages, chi-square tests of independence, and loglinear analyses.

Results from the hypothesis testing indicated that students who participated in activities had higher GPAs, and the likelihood of graduating from high school for both males and females increased. More specifically, the findings revealed those students who participated in activities overall, or participated in extracurricular or cocurricular activities, had higher GPAs; and those students who participated in activities overall, or

participated in extracurricular or cocurricular activities, were more likely to graduate from high school.

Based on the findings, the researcher recommended a similar study be conducted with a qualitative focus to identify the reasons for participation status among Hispanic students. This would also allow the researcher to examine other determining factors such as relationships with school personnel, school aspiration, attendance, discipline, and sense of belonging. Another recommendation for future research is to expand the sample size, include other Kansas high schools with similar demographics. This research could encourage school districts across the country to focus on the students, specifically the Hispanic population, participating.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the person in my life who has taught me the true meaning of strength and perseverance. My daughter, Avery, was born with a seizure disorder and autism. She is currently seven years old and does not yet have the ability to communicate for herself. It is an honor and a privilege to be her voice until she finds her own. This dissertation is symbolic of my advocacy for her and all children who struggle to be heard and understood. Love, Dad.

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Chapter One

Introduction

Schools across the nation have experienced an increase in minority populations. With increased minority populations in schools comes greater responsibility to ensure the success of these students. As of 2011, one in every three people in America was identified as a member of a minority group (United States Census Bureau, 2012). Hispanics are the most populous minority group in the nation totaling 16.7% of the total population (United States Census Bureau, 2012). The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (2011) projected by the year 2025 Hispanic youth ages 14-17 would increase 85.6% in total population. Hispanic youth ages 14-17 totaled 2.9 million of the 18.9 million total population in 2011 and are projected to total 5.4 million in 2025 (NCES, 2011). A 10.8% decrease was projected for white youth ages 14-17 over the same time span to account for 9.3 million of the 18.9 million total population in 2025 (NCES, 2011). The significant increase of the Hispanic student population makes an investigation of their academic success and graduation status a relevant issue in the educational landscape of high schools in America.

This study examined whether participation in an activity affects a Hispanic student's GPA and graduation status at the high school level. For the purpose of this study, activities were defined as any extracurricular or cocurricular activity recognized by the Kansas State High School Activities Association (KSHSAA). Of all ethnic groups, Hispanic students are the most likely to drop out and not graduate from high school (Chapman, Laird, & KewalRamani, 2011). Creating a sense of community for minority

students through activity participation may be what schools need to help students experience success (Davalos, Chavez, & Guardiola, 1999).

Background

In order to ensure the success of Hispanic students in schools, educators must investigate how to make the educational setting more relevant to young Hispanic minds. According to Mendez (1984), the single most common trait among students who, after high school, considered their high school careers a success was involvement in activities while in school. Relevance can be established by encouraging participation as part of the school setting, thus motivating a student to maintain grades to continue participating in the desired activity. Student involvement may be the vehicle to provide the necessary motivation for students to achieve higher academic success. School activities provide students with a plethora of opportunities to learn and refine the skills necessary to positively affect students' current academic careers and become successful citizens after graduation (Klesse, 2004).

Administrators across the country have sought ways to maintain high levels of academic success among students without having to cut activity programs during difficult budgetary times. The inclusion of activities in schools across America has shown to have a remarkable impact on student academic success (Stanfort, 1985). The current study considered the vast research conducted by theorists over the past century centered on the history of activities in schools and the effect activities have on student's academic success.

High school can be a time in a student's life when memories are made and life lessons are learned. Those memories and lessons can be molded through involvement in

activities and are critical to adolescent development (Gholson, 1985; Haensly, Lupkowski, & Edlind, 1985). During the high school years, parents, administrators, and teachers encourage students to engage in a balanced program of study that, for many students, includes participation in extracurricular activities. Rugg (1936) identified two strands of curriculum: core classes of math, reading, and science; and extra-curriculum, which were the extracurricular activities offered by the schools. Similarly, Haensly et al. (1985) referred to extracurricular activities as the “third curriculum,” with the first curriculum being the required taught curriculum and the second curriculum being elective offerings (p. 112). Stanford (1985) referred to extracurricular activities as the other half of education.

Extracurricular activities supply students with an academic safety net in the classroom. Students achieve higher cumulative GPAs when participating in after-school activities (Holloway, 1999). In fact, participating students develop attitudes, skills, and knowledge to be successful academically (Otto, 1982), and have higher academic aspirations toward school (Holland & Andre, 1987). The benefits of student activities are endless, but the primary goal of all activities is to boost student achievement in the classroom. Many studies argue there are no positive effects proven to help a student’s academic success and even negative results towards academic performance are likely (Lueptow & Kayser, 1973; Melnick & Sabo, 1992; Melnick, Vanfossen, & Sabo, 1988; Sabo, Melnick, & Vanfossen, 1993). Researchers attributed negative effects on student success because of less time to work on homework and leisure activities (Gholson, 1985). Activity participation can affect students differently based on their individual ethnicity and gender (Melnick & Sabo, 1992).

A student's gender can influence their academic achievement when activity involvement is available. Female students were allowed to participate in activities equally to their male counterparts in 1972 after the Higher Education Act (Title IX [P.L. 92-318]) legislation was passed. Prior to Title IX, females were not traditionally encouraged to participate in activities and were not given access to the advantages of participation (Coakley, 1986; Parkerson, 2001; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1977). Feltz and Weiss (1984), when investigating only females who participated in activities, found no increased academic success as opposed to those who did not participate. McCarthy (2000) in a study where male and female participants were analyzed found female participants to have a higher GPA than those of male participants. The gender of Hispanic students who participated in activities was included as a variable in the current study.

School demographics. The current study was conducted in the Emporia School District, a district located in south-central Kansas. The Emporia School District is comprised of seven elementary schools, a middle school, a virtual school, an alternative school, and a high school. Emporia School District's enrollment for the 2012-2013 school year was 4,664. Table 1 displays the district's demographic trends between the 2008-2009 and 2012-2013 school years. District enrollment may have fluctuated due to the closing of two major factories in Emporia in 2010. The Hispanic student population increased from 41.5% to 46.3% of the total enrollment in 2013, whereas the White student population decreased from 46.7% to 44.7% of the total enrollment. Other ethnic groups represented in the table maintained similar numbers over the five-year span.

Table 1

Emporia School District Enrollment (and Percentages of Total) by Race and Ethnicity

	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012	2012-2013
Total	4,607 (100.0)	4,622 (100.0)	4,601(100.0)	4,641 (100.0)	4,664 (100.0)
White	2,149 (46.7)	2,135 (46.2)	2,009 (45.6)	2,080 (44.8)	2,084 (44.7)
Black	153 (3.3)	115 (2.5)	109 (2.4)	123 (2.6)	111 (2.4)
Hispanic	1,910 (41.5)	2,087 (45.2)	2,101 (45.6)	2,128 (45.8)	2,161 (46.3)
Multi	277 (6.0)	124 (2.7)	154 (3.3)	170 (3.6)	172 (3.7)
Indian	17 (0.4)	60 (1.3)	42 (0.1)	31 (0.6)	30 (0.6)
Asian	101 (2.2)	96 (2.1)	96 (0.2)	105 (2.3)	106 (2.3)

Note. Adapted from “Student Demographics: Emporia Public Schools,” by Emporia School District USD 253, 2012. Available at <http://www.usd253.org/home/documents-and-publications/statistics/student-demographics>

The demographics of Emporia High School (EHS) are not unique to other high schools across the state when comparing gender and socioeconomic status (SES) of students. There were 1,174 students enrolled at the high school during 2012-2013, which comprised 25% of the district’s total enrollment. Of the total enrollment at the high school, 52.3% were female and 47.7% were male students. Sixty-eight percent of students at the high school were classified as low-SES and required financial assistance. EHS has approximately 150 Hispanic students each year who should graduate with their class. However, fewer than 81% of the Hispanic students walk across the stage each year to earn a diploma.

Displayed in Table 2 is a comparison of the percentages of White, Hispanic, African American, and Other ethnic groups at EHS, in the Emporia School District, and in the state of Kansas in 2012.

Table 2

School, District, and State Ethnicity Comparison 2011-2012

	Emporia High School	District	Kansas
White	40.7	44.9	67.4
Hispanic	51.1	45.9	17.1
African American	2.7	2.7	7.3
Other	5.6	6.6	8.2

Note. Adapted from “Report Card 2011-2012,” Kansas Department of Education, 2012b. Available at http://online.ksde.org/rcard/district.aspx?org_no=D0253

District and school totals for White students were approximately 25% lower than the state average of 67.4%. The Hispanic total enrollment for the district and high school were approximately 30% higher than the state average of 17.1%. Both African American and Other ethnic groups were slightly lower than the state averages of students enrolled in the district and high school. Nearly 51% of all EHS students were Hispanic, and of the Hispanic student population, approximately 55% were male and 45% female in 2011-2012.

School participation. Emporia Public School District provides a variety of KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular and cocurricular activities in which all students who qualify may participate as identified in Table 3. These extracurricular activities take place primarily before or after school, and students do not receive a grade or fulfill any

graduation requirement for participating. Students have the opportunity to participate in extracurricular and cocurricular activities in the fall, winter, and spring seasons during their four years of high school. Cocurricular activities run concurrent with classes that receive unit weighting through the general curriculum and students can gain credit for those classes if they complete the necessary essential outcomes. Students can participate in no more than two extracurricular activities per season based on school policy.

Table 3

Kansas High School Activities Association Sponsored Activities

Extracurricular		Cocurricular
Baseball	Soccer	Debate
Basketball	Softball	KAY
Bowling	Swim/Dive	Music
Cross Country	Tennis	Piano
Football	Track	Scholars Bowl
Golf	Volleyball	Speech & Drama
Gymnastics	Wrestling	Spirit Activities*
		Student Council

Note. *Spirit Activities include dance and cheer. Adapted from “Kansas High School Activities Association,” n.db. Available at <http://kshsaa.org>

Extracurricular and cocurricular activities are deemed a privilege and students attending EHS participating in those activities must meet the following eligibility requirements: pass seven or more subjects of unit weight, attend school the day of participation in an activity, and maintain appropriate behavior throughout the respective

season (EHS, 2012). Emporia High School's eligibility requirements align with and are more stringent than those outlined by KSHSAA, which maintains a minimum requirement for all students to have passed five new classes of unit weight the semester prior to competing in an activity (KSHSAA, 2012).

Statement of the Problem

High schools across the nation are searching for ways to increase academic success among all students. Research is abundant concerning both the positive and negative impacts activity participation can have on students, but is limited for the Hispanic population. A study conducted by Sabo (1986) examined participation in sports of White, African American, and Hispanic students. Minority students who participated in athletics showed an increase in academic results as opposed to non-athletes. A different study conducted by Melnick and Sabo (1992) contradicted the previous study stating sports participation was unrelated to increased test scores and academic success. Sports participation had an impact on lower dropout rates of some minority students in rural and suburban schools, but not in urban schools (Sabo et al., 1993). Additional research is needed to determine the reasons of higher dropout rates among the Hispanic population, which continue to increase (Davalos et al., 1999).

Many researchers have found a positive relationship between students' extracurricular participation and increased student academic success (Ballantine, 1981; Black, 2002; Brown & Steinberg, 1991; Camp, 1990; Cooper, Valentine, Nye, & Lindsay, 1999; Frith & Clark, 1984; Gerber, 1996; Hanks & Eckland, 1976; Harvancik & Golsan, 1986; Hedgpeth, 1981; Hill, 2010; Marsh, 1992; McBride, 1980; Shaw, 1981; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1977). Other research has found unrelated, even negative, effects of

activity participation on student academic success (Lueptow & Kayser, 1973; Melnick & Sabo, 1992; Melnick et al., 1988; Sabo et al., 1993; Stevenson, 1975). The continual rise of the Hispanic population in the nation increased the need for research of student achievement and participation (Klesse, 2004). No previous research has been conducted on participation of activities and student academic success in the Emporia School District.

Significance of the Study

The Emporia School District has a rich history of providing an array of extracurricular and cocurricular activities to its students. The findings of this study can guide students, parents, teachers, administrators, board members, and other stakeholders the value participation in activities can have on Hispanic students. Research findings of this study could supply other districts in Kansas, and across the nation, evidence of the role activities play in securing academic success for Hispanic students. This study could also provide specific GPA and graduation status evidence of those Hispanic students who are academically successful to assist in the establishment of future graduation requirements as the district approaches 55% Hispanic student population. Finally, the study might provide leaders of the Emporia School District and other educational leaders valuable data when making fiscal choices concerning the development and maintenance of its activities programs.

Purpose Statement

The overall purpose of this study was to examine how participation in activities affected Hispanic students' GPAs and graduation status. More specifically, the purpose of this study was to examine differences in GPA between students who participated in

KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who did not, between students who participated in extracurricular activities and students who participated in cocurricular activities, and whether gender affected these differences. Further, the purpose of this study was to examine the effects of these same variables on whether students graduated from high school.

Delimitations

According to Lunenburg and Irby (2008), “delimitations are self-imposed boundaries set by the researcher on the purpose and scope of the study” (p. 134). The study was limited to one high school, Emporia High School, located in the small community of Emporia, Kansas. The sample was limited to Hispanic students who attended EHS from the 2008-2009 to the 2011-2012 cohort classes. The study included only extracurricular and cocurricular activities sponsored by the KSHSAA. The only measures of student success were GPA and graduation status from high school.

Assumptions

“Assumptions are postulates, premises, and propositions that are accepted as operational for purposes of the research” (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008, p. 135). The current study was based on the assumption that participants in KSHSAA activities met all eligibility requirements set forth by board policies of the Emporia School District. It was assumed all students recorded accurate demographic information during the enrollment process and that all information was entered accurately into the district’s PowerSchool database collection system. PowerSchool is a web-based student information system, which enables educators to make timely decisions that affect student performance. Features of PowerSchool include access to parents, students, and teachers, while

providing information about grades, attendance, and demographic information for each student (Pearson, n.d.). PowerSchool was used only to collect student demographic information and determine graduation status.

Research Questions

The research questions should guide the direction of the study, give it focus, and, according to Lunenburg and Irby (2008), serve as the “directional beam for the study” (p. 126). The following questions were addressed in the study:

- RQ1. To what extent does a difference exist in the mean GPA of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who did not participate?
- RQ2. Is the difference in the GPAs of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who did not participate affected by gender?
- RQ3. To what extent does a difference exist in the mean GPA of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities and those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored cocurricular activities?
- RQ4. Is the difference in the GPAs of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities and those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored cocurricular activities affected by gender?

- RQ5. To what extent are there differences in the GPAs of Hispanic students among the number of KSHSAA-sponsored activities in which a student participated?
- RQ6. To what extent is graduation from high school impacted by a Hispanic student's participation in KSHSAA-sponsored activities? Is there a three-way relationship between graduation status, participation in KSHSAA-sponsored activities, and gender?
- RQ7. To what extent is graduation from high school impacted by a Hispanic student's participation in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular or cocurricular activities? Is there a three-way relationship between graduation status, participation in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular or cocurricular activities, and gender?
- RQ8. To what extent is graduation from high school impacted by the amount of activities in which a Hispanic student participated?

Definition of Terms (Operationalization of Variables)

This section of the study identified and defined key terms that will be used throughout the study.

Academic success. Whitley (1999) conducted a study that compared academic success of participants and non-participants of athletics and used the dependent variables of GPA and graduation status. For the purpose of the current study, a student's academic success is defined as passing grades in high school measured by cumulative GPA and graduating from high school with their cohort class.

Cocurricular activities. Cocurricular activities are an extension of the curriculum and provide parallel roles of learning (Buss, 1998). For example, cocurricular activities are an extension of the classroom and students earned a grade as part of the class. Cocurricular activities sponsored by KSHSAA can be found in Table 3.

Cohort class. Students who graduate in the traditional four years with a high school diploma and then divided by the total number of students who entered their first year of high school is referred to in the four-year cohort class. The five-year cohort class is the same group of students as the four-year cohort, but includes any other students who graduated in their fifth year of high school and would still count toward the graduation status of the entire cohort. Cohort classes are recognized by Kansas Department of Education (KSDE) in four or five year spans. The cohort model was established in the assistance of schools to achieve academic yearly progress (KSDE, 2012a).

Extracurricular activities. Extracurricular activities are not set up in conjunction with the regular academic curriculum (Marano, 2000) and normally take place outside the school day. For example, extracurricular activities include all the athletic sports in which students can participate that are sponsored by KSHSAA (see Table 3).

Extracurricular and cocurricular participants. Any student who participates in one or more extra-or-cocurricular activity as outlined in Table 3.

Extracurricular and cocurricular non-participants. Any student who does not participate in one of the extra-or-cocurricular activities as outlined in Table 3.

Grade point average (GPA). Grade point average is based on a student earning a letter grade for each class taken for unit weight. A total number of grade points is

divided by the total number of credits taken, totaling the average cumulative GPA.

Emporia High School uses a four-point grading system to assign semester grades (A = 4, B = 3, C = 2, D = 1, F = 0) (EHS, 2012).

Graduation status. A student graduating or not graduating from high school within the four-year cohort class defines graduation status for the purpose of this study. A study conducted by Sabo (1986) also used graduation status as a variable to measure the rate of which students either graduated or did not graduate from high school.

Hispanic. A Hispanic person is of Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, South or Central American, or other Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race (National Center for Education Statistics, 2002).

Kansas State High School Activities Association (KSHSAA). KSHSAA (2012) is the organization that oversees interscholastic competition in the state of Kansas at the high school level to contribute to their educational experience. This corporation is organized not-for-profit and shall be operated exclusively for the following educational purposes: (a) administering a program of interscholastic activities, festivals, clinics, and contests among member schools; (b) elevating the standards of good sportsmanship and encouraging the growth of good citizenship, not only for middle/junior and senior high school boys and girls, but also of adults and all others who come into contact with school activities; (c) protecting member schools from exploitation by special-interest groups; (d) encouraging pride in scholastic achievement as a fundamental basis for a well-balanced activity program; and (e) serving the best interests of all member schools by influencing the proper type of legislation or any other desirable means.

Overview of the Methodology

Archival data for this study were collected during the 2012-2013 school year. Hispanic students were specifically identified for the purpose of this study. As part of this quantitative study, data was collected to examine the participation rates of Hispanic students over four graduating cohort classes. Data from the KSDE Dropout Graduation Summary Report (DGSR) was used to determine graduation status, ethnicity, state student identifier (SSID), and gender for the sample. KSHSAA eligibility rosters for each of the four years were used to cross-reference student participants. The eight research questions concerning Hispanic GPA and graduation status were analyzed using one- and two-factor ANOVAs, chi-square tests of equal percentages, chi-square tests of independence, and loglinear analyses.

Organization of the Study

This chapter began with an introduction of the study as an investigation of the impact that participation in extracurricular or cocurricular activities had on student academic success of Hispanic students in the Emporia School District. Chapter one also provided background information about the district, the statement of the problem, and the purpose of the study in conjunction with the significance of the study. Delimitations and assumptions were described in detail to provide the reader clear boundaries of the study. Research questions, definitions of terms, and a brief overview of the methodology were provided. Chapter two reviews the literature specific to the impact participating or not participating in activities has on student academic success. Chapter three describes the methodology used to conduct the study and provides a description of the research design, population and sample, sampling procedure, measurement, data collection procedures,

data analysis and hypothesis testing, and the limitations of the study. Chapter four presents the results of hypothesis testing. Chapter five includes the interpretation of the findings and provides future recommendations and suggestions for the field and for future areas of study.

Chapter Two

Review of Literature

The review of literature for this study presents an overview of the history of extracurricular activities, the impact those activities have on students' educational experience, the benefits of extracurricular and cocurricular activities, the ethnic and gender challenges on participation, and extracurricular activities in Kansas. Hispanics are the most populous minority group in the nation and 33% of all people in America were identified in a minority group (United States Census Bureau, 2012). The need for investigation of Hispanic students' GPA and graduation status has never been more relevant to the educational landscape of high schools in America. The purpose of this literature review was to investigate the large amount of research conducted on the impact participation in activities has on Hispanic students' GPA and graduation status.

Brief History of Athletics and Extracurricular Activities

Preparing students for the needs of our democracy has been the cornerstone of our society since the existence of schools (Department of Interior, 1918; Spring, 2008). Schools are not only responsible for educating students but also for socializing them in the society in which they live. Educational skills learned through participation in activities teach students to work hard, to respect authority, and to overcome adversity, thus preparing them for beyond adolescence (Coleman, 1961). Extracurricular activities have not always had a place in schools across America. Verbal curriculum, which refers to the core content, became a uniform concept across the country; nonverbal activities, such as clubs and sports, were forced upon schools by the youth (Rugg, 1936). Although many educators started to find the importance activity programs could have on a

student's academic development, most did not see the need for activities in the high schools (Rugg, 1936).

The debate regarding what type of activity programs should be offered to students in schools dates back as far as the Civil War (Rugg, 1936). Athletics and activities have been a topic of conversation for over a century in schools across the United States. As early as 1811, athletic sport took shape in schools in the affluent eastern states (Rugg, 1936). Historically, athletics have always been part of the human culture but not considered as part of the educational environment (Burnett, 2000).

Activities were found to have more benefit than only the enjoyment of competition. Dewey (1913) argued to educate the "whole child" students should be encouraged to participate in athletics. Rugg (1936) found that two major strands formed over the first hundred years of the history of schools. The first strand was "the curriculum," also referred to as verbal curriculum, which included the major academic subjects of reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, science, and language. The second strand, the "extra curriculum," referred to extracurricular activities. These activities took on new meaning as the years passed (Rugg, 1936). Students also learned interpersonal and social skills through the extracurricular setting, which was not considered part of the academic setting (Coleman, 1961). School athletics took shape as a result of the games played by children during recess and not from physical training in physical education classes (Tyack & Hansot, 1990).

Gholson (1985) identified four eras in activities and how those eras were defined by the actions of schools across the country: the Rejection Era (1870-1900), the Passive Acceptance Era (1900-1920), the Active Acceptance and Encouragement Era (1920-

1956), and the Fused Blend Era (1956- present). Since the research conducted by Gholson in 1985, no additional eras have been identified.

According to Gholson (1985), during the Rejection Era (1870-1900) educators across the nation denied that activities had any impact on the educational setting. McCurdy (1905) wrote that in many cases during that time competitive sports were being established without the cooperation of the school authorities. At the same time, even though many educators resisted athletics, many high schools by the latter part of the nineteenth century participated in baseball, football, basketball, and track contests (Rugg, 1936). The introduction of those athletic activities, clubs, organizations, and other curricular activities followed in the late 1890s (Rugg, 1936). Athletics were sometimes portrayed as “evil” and injurious to students, as well as a prolific source of student mischief (Tyack & Hansot, 1990).

Not a lot has changed in 100 years with how competitive sports are portrayed. Although most educators during the Rejection Era condemned competitive sports (Gholson, 1985), students craved the participation (Tyack & Hansot, 1990). Also, because fewer jobs required teenage workers, schools were finding ways to retain boys in schools past the early years of high school (Kett, 2003; Spring, 2008). Administrators became cognizant of the increased need to keep students in high school due to the decreased job market during the Industrial Age, thus creating activity opportunity (Kett, 2003). After-school activities across the nation in the early 1900s gave educators a perspective that activities had the capabilities of providing benefits to the students’ learning experiences. At a meeting of the National Education Association (NEA) in 1902, principals from across the country discussed school athletics and concluded that

girls and boys could be engaged by properly regulated school sports (Tyack & Hansot, 1990). Youth development of extracurricular activities and social life shaped the culture of schools in the early twentieth century, as the future of the nation was in question during World War I (Spring, 2008).

The second era, Passive Acceptance Era, began to take shape in the beginning of the twentieth century from 1900-1920 with the passive acceptance of activities that leaders concluded were able to provide learning experiences for students (Gholson, 1985). The consideration for activities in the early years of the twentieth century gradually gained dramatic support through passive acceptance, which Gholson (1985) attributed to two major developments. The first development was the creation in 1918 of college-level courses that trained educators to create student activities. Due to his passion for youth development, Fretwell, a professor at Columbia University, taught some of the first college classes through extracurricular activities and recreational exposure (Gholson, 1985; Spring, 2008). Then, in the mid-1920s, these classes became increasingly popular, attracting educators to enroll in these courses, and it became increasingly apparent that these extracurricular activities had a positive impact on students' learning experiences (Gholson, 1985; Spring, 2008). Also during this time, extracurricular activities became viewed as a cult in public education. It was deemed through the public eye as a special group of individuals privileged to participate in activities (Coleman, 1961). In fact, training was provided to teachers to assist in the development of extracurricular activities in high schools. Colleges expanded their offerings for new teacher training while textbooks and other readings were readily available about activity involvement (Spring, 2008). Educational leaders spent time in

the development of extracurricular activities at the high school level without giving thought to parent involvement and explaining the importance activities could provide to students (Spring, 2008).

The second major development leading to the Passive Acceptance Era came from the Department of the Interior (1918) when the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education created the seven cardinal principles to develop social organization of high schools in the United States. The committee's purpose was to outline the responsibility of the secondary schools in preparing young people to meet the needs of the democracy in the industrial society (Department of Interior, 1918; Spring, 2008). American youth would learn the skills to cooperate as workers in unions and corporations (Spring, 2008). The administrative officers and teachers in secondary schools would incorporate these seven principles into daily practice. One principle specifically addressed activities as "leisure time" (Department of Interior, 1918, p. 15). Based on the findings of the report, the schools would be responsible to create adequate recreational activities for students to enrich their bodies, minds, and spirits. Many organizations, like Boy Scouts of America and the YMCA, surfaced to create avenues for adolescent students to be involved in out-of-school activities (Spring, 2008). For example, by the 1920s, activities across the country attracted crowds in high school gymnasiums each Friday to watch basketball (Kett, 2003). With cocurricular and extracurricular activities defined by whether or not they were an extension of academic coursework (Haensly et al., 1985), the transformation of extracurricular activities in schools across the nation took shape.

The years between 1920 and 1956 represented the third phase, the Active Acceptance and Encouragement Era (Gholson, 1985). Educators in high schools across the country found merit in what extracurricular activities could provide students, and acceptance and encouragement became more common. Theorists argued the purpose of increased extracurricular offerings in high schools was to maintain order in terms of students' behaviors (Spring, 2008). During this era, the term "extracurricular activities" was replaced by "student activities" (Gholson, 1985). Wide acceptance took dominance over educators who had previously thought activities had no real benefit to the students' well-being. Adults agreed on how adolescents should spend their time and created opportunities for students to be involved in extracurricular activities after the school day ended (Coleman, 1961).

The Fused Era provided what was once a clear distinction between "school" and "outside of school" and fused those concepts together from 1956 to the time of the research (Gholson, 1985). Schools across America were experiencing involvement in cocurricular activities as part of the educational experience and could gain academic credit for serving as officers of clubs that may take place outside of school (Gholson, 1985). Cocurricular activities were introduced early in the Fused Era and provided students the opportunity to participate in activities as an extension of the academic setting (Gholson, 1985). At this point, extracurricular activities were often referred to as the "third curriculum," with the first being the required curriculum and the second being electives (Haensly et al., 1985, p. 112). Student involvement in the third-curriculum has been considered critical to adolescent development (Gholson, 1985; Haensly et al., 1985). Similarly, Stanford (1985) referred to extracurricular activities as the other half of

education. “The degree to which the school offers a variety of learning experiences remains a critical issue” in schools (Gholson, 1985, p. 19). This history on the development of activities in schools across America over time has also had a great impact on activities that are offered to students.

Activities in Kansas. As early as May 1920, collaboration among state activity associations established regulation of extracurricular activities across the nation (National Federation of State High School Associations, 2010). The primary purpose of the National Federation of State High School Associations (NFHS) was to organize the state associations and maintain interscholastic programs. Several principles guide all national interscholastic programs. For example, all activities must be an integral part of the secondary education programs and provide opportunities not otherwise included in the curriculum; also, teaching will take place through the activities by learning skills to become better citizens. Individual states, like Kansas, were already organizing statewide activities as early as 1910, prior to the formation of the NFHS (KSHSAA, n.d.a). By the early 1920s, the voluntary group of schools had grown to more than 500 member high schools. The Athletic Association of Kansas formally organized the Kansas State High School Activities Association in 1937 when they adopted many of the governing practices and policies in use. Today, KSHSAA is comprised of over 790 middle and high schools and offers state championship competitions in 10 male and female sports. The association also offers 10 other championships in activities such as debate, music, and scholars bowl (KSHSAA, n.d.a).

The mission of the KSHSAA is to advocate scholastic achievement through well-balanced activity programs governed by principals to develop effective citizenship by

preparing students for life, work, and post-secondary education (KSHSAA, 2012). Students employ citizenship through participating in extracurricular activities, which, in turn, exposes students to the development of teamwork, character, discipline, and sportsmanship (NFHS, 2008). The term “extracurricular” refers to activity programs that are not in conjunction with the curriculum or deemed as inferior to the formal curriculum (Marano, 2000). Particular state statutes refer to activities as extracurricular. KSHSAA adheres to the definition of “activities” outlined in Kansas State Statute 72-133 (2012) as “school activities and contests in the field of athletics, music, forensics, dramatics and any other interschool extracurricular activities by students enrolled in any of the grades from seven (7) to twelve (12)” (para. 1). Other state activity associations view activities as an important part of the general academic curriculum and refer to activities as “cocurricular.” The term “cocurricular” suggests the activities are an extension of the curriculum and provide parallel roles of learning (Buss, 1998). Klesse (2004), author of *Student Activities in Today’s Schools*, defined cocurricular as the “means of reinforcing classroom lessons and the opportunity to apply academic skills to real-world situations” (p. 1). The NFHS (2008) describes cocurricular activities as supporting the academic mission, being educational, and fostering success after life. KSHSAA recognizes both extracurricular and non-athletic activities (KSHSAA, 2012). In Kansas, non-athletic activities may be offered as credit-bearing classes in which a grade is given for the completion of the course and activity. In the early 1970s, the term “activity” changed from extracurricular to cocurricular as activities were deemed as part of the learning program (Mendez, 1984).

Current practices shape the way educators view activities across the nation to distinguish between extracurricular and cocurricular: students volunteer or participate, students help with leadership of the activity, teachers and counselors act as advisors, activities are credit bearing or noncredit bearing, activities take place outside of the school day, or activities serve as personal and social development (Buss, 1998). As mentioned in the history of activities, many people refer to activities as the “third curriculum” (Haensly et al., 1985, p. 112), which is secondary to the general curriculum and elective curriculum. No matter the name or type of the activity, educators either want students to participate or not participate in activities based on the previously outlined benefits or drawbacks.

Participation in activities across the nation has been on a steady climb for decades. The NFHS (2011) reported a 3.5 million increase among male and female high school athletes in the United States over the past 40 years of athletics participation. Of the 51 state associations and 19,000 high schools across the nation, over 7.6 million students participate in activities each year (Howard, 2012). The state of Texas leads the way with over 785,000 athletic participants in 2010-2011, and Kansas ranks 25th in the nation with over 103,000 athletic participants in activities during the same year (NFHS, 2011). The NFHS does not track activities as it does for athletics since states recognize activities differently as outlined previously. For example, Kansas recognizes both athletic and non-athletic activities. In 2010-2011, KSHSAA (2011) reported over 184,000 participants in activities with 103,814 athletic participants and 80,991 non-athletic participants. Of the 103,814 athletes reported, approximately 40,000 athletes participated in the fall in the sports football, volleyball, cross country, golf, tennis,

gymnastics, and soccer, whereas non-athletic participation topped 50,000 in band, orchestra, vocal music, student council, and debate. During the winter season of basketball, wrestling, swim/dive, and bowling, over 25,000 athletes participated and more than 16,000 non-athletes participated in cheer, dance, pep club, and KAY (KSHSAA, 2011). Spring is the final season of KSHSAA-sanctioned activities for the year with over 38,000 athletes who participated in baseball, golf, tennis, soccer, swim/dive, and track and field and more than 13,000 who participated in non-athletic activities such as speech and drama, scholars bowl, and academic contest. It should be noted a student could be counted multiple times depending on the number of activities a student chooses to participate in throughout one year (KSHSAA, 2011).

Lumpkin and Favor (2012) examined academic performance among high school athletes and non-athletes in Kansas in 2008-2009. The current study took similar KSHSAA participation data in 2008-2009 and disaggregated gender, ethnicity, and grade level in school to evaluate achievement. Their findings are pertinent to the current study because the data illustrated the number of Hispanic and other ethnic groups' athletes in Kansas. Of the 139,349 students who were enrolled in Kansas 9-12 high schools, 62,297 were athletes and 48.2% of those athletes were male. White students comprised 74.3% of the total population, of which 48.7% were athletes. More specifically, Hispanic students made up 8.3% of the total students enrolled, but comprised 28.1% of the total number of athletes.

Impact of Activity Involvement on the Social Educational Experience

Being an adolescent can be extraordinarily difficult in today's society. Schools have the responsibility to educate all students academically, but to also instruct and

model appropriate social and civic skills (Zaff, Moore, Papillo, & Williams, 2003).

Involvement in student activities may have a significant impact on more than just academic achievement. Activities may create a connection to school more far-reaching than the traditional academic setting (Zaff et al., 2003). Extracurricular activities can create an environment to challenge students outside of the academic setting to support academic success (Feldman & Matjasko, 2005). Challenges will continue to be placed on schools to provide adolescents with the skills necessary to survive and prosper in society. Those skills and attributes may be learned through involvement in activities.

Theoretical model. Research has been conducted on the theoretical importance that activity involvement has on students. Researchers believe students participating in extracurricular activities experience an increase in positive outcomes such as preparation for adulthood (Pittman & Cahill, 1991). Higher academic engagement and social achievement for students is considered a byproduct of participation (Larson, 2000; Zaff et al., 2003). Researchers also believe participation in activities to be important to reduce negative outcomes such as skipping class, antisocial behavior, and sexual activity (Zaff et al., 2003).

Marsh and Kleitman (2002) identified five theoretical models that define student behavior: Zero-Sum, Developmental, Identification and Commitment, Threshold, and Social Inequality Gap Reduction. The Zero-Sum model, credited to Coleman (1961), addresses the time spent by students on academic, social, or extracurricular activities. The competition of time among these three areas creates an inability for the student to focus on any one task at a high level to challenge their academic pursuits (Marsh, 1992;

Otto & Alwin, 1977). Similar to the Zero-Sum model, Gordon (1957) identified the three sub-systems as academics, participation in activities, and social interactions.

In contrast to the Zero-Sum model is the Development model that encourages “experiences that further the total development of individual students” gained socially or students’ participation in activities to further their individual academic success (Holland & Andre, 1987, p. 438). Educators must plan school programs to include extracurricular activities that stress the development of all students (Holland & Andre, 1987). Marsh and Kleitman (2002) suggested that participation in activities enhances not only a student’s nonacademic goals such as character and perseverance, but also other academic goals such as school belonging and postsecondary aspirations. An alternative perspective to the Developmental model is Finn’s (1989) Identification and Commitment model that claims academic outcomes are maximized if a student “maintains multiple, expanding forms of participation in school-relevant activities” (p. 117). Finn (1989) stated that participation in activities in the right environment would enhance a student’s sense of belonging, thus placing an emphasis on academic success. Likewise, involvement and identification with school could develop a stronger commitment among students as they participate in activities (Marsh, 1992).

The Threshold model, which differs from the other theoretical perspectives, claims that activities have direct benefits to students’ academic success; however, beyond an optimal level, the returns could turn negative (Marsh & Kleitman, 2002). For example, when students are involved in multiple activities it may take away from their academic focus. The Threshold model is a compromise between the Zero-Sum model of participation, which subverts mastery in academics, the Developmental model, which

encourages experiences to develop the entire individual, and the Identification and Commitment model that maximizes results for further activity involvement among students (Marsh & Kleitman, 2002).

The achievement gaps among socioeconomically disadvantaged and advantaged students are becoming more prevalent than ever before in education. Researchers are now using the Social Inequality Gap Reduction model to address achievement among socioeconomically disadvantaged students with the increased involvement in activities (Marsh & Kleitman, 2002). In respect to closing the achievement gap, research shows positive benefits by specifically involving disadvantaged students in extracurricular activities. A similar study conducted found students who attended Catholic schools had increased academic gains than those who attended public schools due to the expectations to participate in activities (Coleman, Hoffer, & Kilgore, 1982). The study also found the gains for low SES students were more significant in Catholic schools than those in public schools (Coleman et al., 1982). Other researchers have conducted studies that combine multiple theoretical approaches.

Broh (2002) identified other theoretical models that showed improved or diminished academic results when extracurricular activity involvement was used as a measurement of student outcomes such as the development model, the leading-crowd hypothesis, and the social capital model. The Development model can have a powerful effect on a student's developmental characteristic (Rehberg, 1969). For example, perseverance can be one of many developmental characteristics gained by sport participation consistent with educational values that align with academic success (Broh, 2002; Finn, 1989). Other researchers believed involvement in sports provided further

maturity, boosted self-esteem, and built character (Rehberg, 1969) that is reflected in additional educational opportunities (Fejgin, 1994; Marsh 1993; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1990).

Many believe that participation on a sports team provides social promotion for the athlete, thus coining the “leading-crowd” hypothesis (Broh, 2002). This suggests that being a sports participant can create a higher peer status for a student-athlete (Broh, 2002; Gordon, 1957) and higher self-esteem and self-concept (Crain, 1996; Grabe, 1981). Students mold their identities as adolescents through their involvement in extracurricular activities (Eccles & Barber, 1999). Social status can play an important role in the achievement in student activities but the status can be gained school-wide (Gordon, 1957). Students can have a greater understanding of the impact participation in a club or activity has on their social status among peers (Gordon, 1957). Crain (1996) and Grabe (1981) also found students’ self-concept and self-esteem would increase with the involvement in extracurricular activities. As students gain popularity through sports, they had the ability to access higher academic groups, which consist of college-bound, academically gifted students, thus increasing their individual academic success (Rehberg, 1969). Furthermore, Lueptow and Kayser (1973) supported the leading-crowd hypothesis (Broh, 2002), stating that star athletes have higher academic success than do non-athletes. Students participating in extracurricular activities are members of peer groups that represent positive relationships among participation and academic success (Eccles & Barber, 1999; Feldman & Matjasko, 2005). Another study identified specific behaviors of a peer group that actually predict friendships based on activity involvement (Fredricks et al., 2002). Students exhibiting healthy behaviors subsequently had higher

academic success by associating among the academically successful and socially active peer groups (Crosnoe, 2002). Whereas, Osterman (2000) found peer status outweighed student friendships in relation to school performance and involvement.

The third model that Broh (2002) utilized is the Social Capital model, which is often defined as what can be gained through social networks (Coleman, 1988; Portes, 1998). The Social Capital model hypothesizes that educators and parents use interaction with students via participation in extracurricular activities to challenge the students academically (Broh, 2002). Extracurricular activities help students in adolescent development by encouraging them to explore themselves, generate social capital, and provide a release outside of the academic setting (Feldman & Matjasko, 2005). Educators use the social capital model among participants in activities to help maintain norms and values of discipline in the school setting (Broh, 2002). Engagement in extracurricular activities provides students with opportunities to reflect and understand individual behavior (Valentine, Cooper, Bettencourt, & DuBois, 2002). Participating in a group gives structure to adolescent development through exposure to norms and values (Eckert, 1989). The Social Capital model can also create an environment that allows familial and extra-familial interactions among parents, students, and teachers (Broh, 2002). Furthermore, adolescents have the opportunity to develop the Social Capital model among peers and adults by involvement in activities (Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1992; McNeal, 1995; Newmann, Wehlage, & Lamborn, 1992; Patrick et al., 1999). Similarly, students have the ability through activities to bond with peers and adults and build a personal trust and commitment better than in the fast-paced academic setting (Feldman & Matjasko, 2005).

The need for student participation and involvement is on the rise. Nearly 80% of a student's day is made up of non-school time spent doing nothing related to the school environment (Zaff et al., 2003). Students not involved in any type of school activities have a tremendous amount of idle time with little focus on academics. A majority of adolescent crime and violence occur during the afterschool hours between 2 p.m. and 8 p.m. (Zaff et al., 2003). Students must have other options that are extensions of the school in which to stay involved. Those activities can have a dramatic effect on a student's sense of self-worth and efficacy (Zaff et al., 2003). Involvement in activities has also shown a positive impact on a student's social, emotional, and cognitive development (Zaff et al., 2003). Environments in which students are involved in activities supervised by caring adults can help increase achievement academically and reduce the violence among youth (Zaff et al., 2003). Studies have also analyzed the reduction of negative behaviors as a result of participation in activities. Involved students are increasingly sexually abstinent, likely to stay in school, and engaged in positive behaviors (Eccles & Barber, 1999; Mahoney & Cairns, 1997).

Sense of belonging. The basic human need of belonging was an important factor for students whose overwhelming need for belonging is so powerful that relationships will be formed even in difficult circumstances (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Finn (1989) defined "belongingness" by two major elements: students' identification with school and their participation in the school setting. Identification is defined as the engagement and involvement students have in the classroom, while participation refers to becoming involved in other activities such as extracurricular activities and governance (Finn, 1989).

School belonging was defined by Goodenow (1993) as “the extent to which students feel personally accepted, respected, included, and supported by others in the school environment” (p. 80). Sense of belonging, or sense of connection to school, has been a familiar phrase for decades as a derivative of participation in school activities. Feelings of belonging to school among students had been shown to be associated with academic engagement (Anderman, 2003; Finn, 1989; Goodenow & Grady, 1993; Hawkins & Weis, 1985; Marsh, 1992), lower dropout rates (Calabrese & Poe, 1990; Mahoney & Cairns, 1997), and higher accountability of risky behavior (Jenkins, 1997; Resnick et al., 1997). Schools have the chance to provide adolescents with a sense of belonging as part of intellectual competence through interaction with non-parental adults (Roeser, Midgley, & Urdan, 1996).

Researchers link a strong sense of school connection to higher academic success, decreased dropout rates, and fewer behavior problems (Calabrese & Poe, 1990; Hendrix, Sederberg, & Miller, 1990; Jenkins, 1997). In addition, the motivation to participate in activities can provide the catalyst to make the connections for increased positive academic success (Finn, 1989). Significant achievement may occur among students when the sense of belonging involves student perception of adults and encouragement (Booker, 2006). Other researchers found positive correlations between increased GPA and a student’s feeling of belonging (Anderman, 2003; Buote, 2000; Solomon, Battistich, Kim, & Watson, 1997) and a more favorable school climate (Hagborg, 1994).

Sense of belonging was directly related to interpersonal relations students had with peers in school (Faircloth & Hamm, 2005; Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Honora, 2003). Based on research conducted by Booker (2006), minority students who value education

developed a poor sense of belonging due to negative interactions with members of the majority group. Many researchers have studied the effect of belonging among African-American students (Goodenow, 1993; Gutman & Midgely, 2000; Kester, 1994; Taylor, 1999) noting that student success was a predictor of the level in which students were engaged (i.e., belonging) in the school setting. Many researchers have also studied the effects on school belonging between ethnic groups. Goodenow and Grady (1993) did not find a significant difference among ethnic groups on the measure of belonging, whereas Finn and Rock (1997) identified a difference between Hispanic and African-American students' school engagement. African-American students were more involved in extracurricular sports while Hispanic students focused more on homework. Furthermore, specific cliques of students established groups that were not considered the dominant crowd to defy the social identity (Fordham & Ogbu, 1986). A student proficient in English was shown to have an increased sense of belonging greater than those students not yet proficient in English (Morrison, Cosden, O'Farrell, & Campos, 2003).

Absence of sense of belonging and social acceptance among peer groups can lead to lower levels of engagement and interest in life activities (Weiss, 1973). However, if students have a strong sense of belonging to school they are more likely to have increased academic success with positive implications to graduate from high school and attend college (Wehlage, 1989). Students experiencing positive acceptance in school, from both teachers and peers, were likely to have a greater sense of belonging and consequently higher academic success (Osterman, 2000). It has also been found that as the sense of belonging decreases among students, so does academic success (Booker, 2006).

Students who feel respected and included by others in the school setting have a stronger sense of belonging (Goodenow, 1993). The Council of Carnegie Adolescent Development (1989) advocated the development of “communities for learning, in which stable, close, mutually respectful relationships with adults and peers are considered fundamental for intellectual development and personal growth” (p. 9). As a result, it is critical among at-risk students to create a sense of belonging and build solid relationships to ensure academic success and prevent dropping out of school (Fine, 1991; Finn, 1989; Wehlage, 1989). Without a solid connection to school, students are more likely to achieve less and have higher dropout rates (Wehlage, 1989). Students showed an increased commitment to achieving goals and engagement in school activities with a developed sense of belonging (Finn, 1989). Unfortunately, few schools are equipped to address school belonging among adolescents, and many times students can feel excluded from part of the whole school because of their individual social skills, ethnic status, or being identified as having an Individual Education Plan (IEP) (Eccles & Midgley, 1989). An IEP is a plan designed by a team of educators, student, and the student’s parent to address the individual learning needs so the student will have the supports necessary to be successful in the educational environment.

Social behavior can be influenced greatly by the higher sense of connection to school (Goodenow, 1993; Hirschi, 1969; Seeman, 1959). The greater sense of connection to school can be increased by the involvement in extracurricular activities (Anderman, 2003; Finn, 1989; Goodenow & Grady, 1993; Hawkins & Weis, 1985; Marsh, 1992). Traditionally, students align their educational goals based on social identities and peer groups to which they belong (Goodenow, 1992). However, Kagan

(1990) stated that students who associate with peer groups that are anti-school or anti-academic in nature have a tendency not to make significant academic progress. Students feeling connected to peer groups will have increased positive behaviors such as working cooperatively and helping peers (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Students who find a sense of connection to school through activity involvement can create a more favorable school climate (Hagborg, 1994).

Students play an integral role in establishment of the culture of belongingness among peers and school by the positive attitudes they have concerning school, peers, and self (Osterman, 2000). It is the job of all educators to model and establish relationships with students to ensure the sense of belongingness for each individual student in and outside of school.

Attribution theory/motivation. Parents want their child to have more opportunities than they experienced. Similarly, parents want their children to aspire to attend college to support their overall success. Parents who want the best for their children need to establish the necessary attributions in behaviors and emotions that will produce success. Heider's (1958) research on people and attribution of different outcomes started the discussion of the Attribution Theory for future researchers like Weiner. Weiner (1974) explained causal attributions for a student's academic outcomes might determine the system of motivation that leads to subsequent achievement opportunities.

The causes of behavior and events in an individual's childhood define the concept of attribution in a person's life, as defined by success or failure, which are perceived in four major ways: ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck (Thomas & Halliwell, 1976;

Weiner et al., 1971). The four variables in Table 4 are defined by two dimensions: locus of control and stability (Rotter, 1966). Each variable in the table has generalized expectations for a person's internal control versus external control of reinforcement based on causal attribution. Weiner (1974) summed it up in terms of locus of control as "self versus the environment" (p. 103). This defines perceived locus of control as it relates to the outcome and attribution over time as perceived by stability an individual has in their environment.

Table 4

Perceived Locus of Control

	Internal	External
Attributions of no control	Ability	Chance/Luck
Attributions of control	Effort	Task Difficulty

Note. Adapted from J. B. Rotter, 1966, p. 9.

Experiences acquired through the participation in activities give students the ability to think critically about what causal attributions affect their ability and effort. In contrast, luck and task difficulty is acquired more quickly with limited experiences. The Attribution Theory specifically explains how an individual's outcome mediates the persistence in academic and athletic achievement, but it does not explain the initiation of those behaviors (Hidi, 2000).

A student's causal attribution of success or failure is perceived as being his or her own control of internal variable factors such as ability and effort. On the other hand, students' feelings of success or failure could be perceived as not under their control and driven externally by fixed factors as task difficulty and luck (McMahan, 1974; Thomas &

Halliwell, 1976; Weiner, 1974). Outcomes confirmed by prior expectancies are normally credited to fixed factors (McMahan, 1974). Highly motivated students take personal responsibility for success due to ability and effort and attribute lack of effort to failure (Roberts, 1975; Weiner, 1974). Highly motivated students expect to do well in future tasks with similar outcomes over which they feel they have control (Eccles, Wigfield, & Schiefele, 1997). Students who are intrinsically motivated attribute low academic success with their individual effort, but failure was because of the lack of ability (Roberts, 1975; Weiner, 1974); thus, the students may have lower future expectations since they have little control over outcomes (Eccles et al., 1997).

The Attribution Theory explains the reasons students' views of motivation can be altered based on engagement in an activity (Thomas & Halliwell, 1976). Students' perceptions and the way they interact with others are affected by many factors: father and mother's education, parents' income, father's occupation, and other family dynamics (Hanks, 1979; Otto & Alwin, 1977). Such factors were found to affect an individual student's perception of the possibilities for future direction and decision-making. Common feelings and attitudes by parents and students toward education had a direct effect on a student's motivation and aspiration to succeed (Snyder, 1972).

Motivation is evaluated and molded by individual students based on the suggestions and options given by their parents, teachers, and other peers with whom they choose to engage (Ryan, 2000). Research has focused primarily on the impact of teachers and parents on students' motivation (Eccles et al., 1997). Motivation is manifested in a student's attitude and academic performance in the school setting. By establishing goals for the involvement in activities, a student can gain a sense of

motivation (Braun, 2006). Parents share similar sentiment on the long-term benefits a student acquires through participation in school activities (Gholson, 1985). Motivation related to student performance is labeled in two categories: intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic activities are directly related to goals established by persons rather than provided externally while extrinsic motivations are not always based on goals but, instead, are based on rewards that distort goals (Hidi, 2000). As students become older, intrinsic motivation decreases and extrinsic motivation increases. Extrinsic rewards such as grades and award systems are too often given for participation in activities in which high motivation already exists, thus, reducing the students' intrinsic motivation (Thomas & Halliwell, 1976).

Comparing the Attribution Theory to students' decision-making concerning academics and athletics requires the reminder that making attributions is a complex process (Eccles et al., 1997). Adults have a difficult time constructing critical perspectives to alter future outcomes. As sports participation across the United States continues to be a concern and studies of this nature continue to be conducted, the Attribution Theory will be an interesting perspective to evaluate. Many educational critics claim schools and parents are turning play into work. Students over time lose their passion and spontaneous interest in learning (Jackson, 1990).

Study of resiliency. No matter the job or task, resiliency is an important trait. Braddock, Royster, Winfield, and Hawkins (1991) defined resiliency as an "individual's positive response to situations of stress and adversity" (p. 113). Educators teach and coach. Coaches are also charged with teaching students how to cope with difficult situations or failure and being resilient to continue to achieve goals. Braddock et al.

(1991) purported that the persistence and determination used by students in the daily athletic grind of practicing and conditioning the body creates a correlating, much deeper academic resiliency. Students will develop resiliency in school by routinely exhibiting positive behavior such as regular attendance, participation in activities, and completing homework (Finn & Rock, 1997).

Educators do not have control over the types of students they receive in school or what abilities the students possess when they arrive. Instead, it is the job of schools to assist students and families to build a positive culture of learning to give students the ability to become resilient through experiences and support. Resiliency can be divided into four mechanisms to help students cope: (a) reduced risk, (b) minimized reactions to adversity, (c) sustained self-esteem and efficacy, and (d) continued opportunities of success (Rutter, 1987). In terms of reduced risk, participating in extracurricular activities has a large amount of risk through competition. For example, after a difficult loss, coaches can use opportunities during practice to teach resilient behaviors for future competitions (Dane, 1990). Individuals and teams can build self-esteem and efficacy through a well-played loss between two quality teams (Braddock et al., 1991). Students participating in activities have the perfect opportunity to practice resilient behaviors and apply that mindset to the academic setting. As students learn the skills of resiliency through extracurricular participation, their motivation can be more focused on academic investments (Braun, 2006). Students who do not participate in activities do not always have the same opportunities to build resiliency.

Participation in athletics also makes students feel a part of the school culture (Burnett, 2000). Winfield (1991) claimed that, through the school culture, students could be supported in building resiliency:

A student's decision to remain in school when he or she sees few job opportunities, receives no support or incentives, and experiences negative peer pressure is an example of an individual's resilience during a critical transition to adulthood. This decision would set the direction for future educational success.
(p. 7)

Participation in activities can provide students with life lessons that they will utilize as adults. Winfield's (1991) example is similar to a sports team vying for the desired goals of winning, building solid teamwork, and instilling discipline and resiliency. However, a study conducted by Finn and Rock (1997) examined data from over 1,800 minority students from low-income homes and found no correlation between students participating in extracurricular activities and increased resilient behaviors.

The Correlation Between Participation in Activities and Academic Success

In the midst of the twenty-first century, American schools are evaluated primarily on student achievement. That success is being measured by state assessments and graduation status. Educators are continually seeking avenues to increase academic success among all students. The single most common trait among successful students after high school was attributed to their involvement in activities while in high school (Mendez, 1984). As a result, educators are turning to research to guide their investigation for student academic success and considering the benefits of student participation in activities.

The impact on achievement is what most administrators across the country want to know when determining whether to keep or cut activity programs to save money. There is extensive research that examines the specific gains provided to students who participate in activities. The results of a study conducted by Eidsmore (1964), which focused on football and basketball athletes, indicated those students who participated had a superior academic performance in their core classes when compared to the average of their classmates. Schafer and Armer (1968) found an increase in GPA among football and basketball participants compared to other nonparticipating peers. Specifically, achievement, measured by GPA, is positively affected when students are in season in an activity (Laughlin, 1978). Otto (1982) stated that participating in activities also provided students with the opportunity to develop attitudes, skills, and knowledge to be successful academically. Participating students perform higher academically and have higher academic aspiration toward school (Holland & Andre, 1987). Silliker and Quirk (1997) conducted a study on the academic performance of athletes during their respective soccer seasons and found both girls and boys demonstrated an increased GPA than they had during the off-season. According to Holloway (1999), extracurricular activities supply all students an “academic safety net,” as students have higher academic success when they participate in after-school activities. A study conducted in a large metropolitan school district identified a significant difference among students’ GPAs between those who participated in activities and those who did not (Hill, 2010).

Activities provide students with a plethora of opportunities to learn and refine the skills necessary to be successful citizens once graduated. Student activities are described as educational-based and meeting the interests of students, conducted during non-school

time, student-driven, and school sponsored (Klesse, 2004). They are also avenues for communication with peers and school, on-going learning experiences, positive attitudes, and school spirit (Klesse, 2004). The benefits of student activities are endless, but the primary goal of all activities is to boost student academic success in the classroom.

Research has shown a positive relationship between students' extracurricular participation and increased academic success (Ballantine, 1981; Black, 2002; Brown & Steinberg, 1991; Camp, 1990; Cooper et al., 1999; Frith & Clark, 1984; Gerber, 1996; Hanks & Eckland, 1976; Harvancik & Golsan, 1986; Hedgpeth, 1981; Hill, 2010; Marsh, 1992; McBride, 1980; Shaw, 1981; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1977). In addition, longitudinal studies have provided more consistent measureable outcomes and prevent selection bias, as do cross-sectional studies (Broh, 2002). Longitudinal studies are readily available which show the positive effects of participation in extracurricular activities on high school-aged students' academic achievement within large samples (Fejgin, 1994; Hanson & Kraus, 1998).

Student participants in extracurricular activities have been shown to have higher GPAs (Eidsmore, 1961; Hill, 2010; Whitley, 1999), lower dropout rates (Mahoney & Cairns, 1997; McNeal, 1995), fewer reported discipline concerns (Black, 2002; Durbin, 1986; Laughlin, 1978; Whitley, 1999), better attendance (Whitley, 1999), and higher rate of college completion (Klesse, 2004; NFHS, 2008). Students' attendance rates significantly improved for athletes' in-season competition versus students not competing (Durbin, 1986; Laughlin, 1978). Similarly, O'Brien and Rollefson (1995) found an increased attendance rate of participants versus nonparticipants among high school seniors attending public schools. A study conducted by McCarthy (2000) examined data

from over 19,000 high school students in Colorado and showed lower absenteeism by participants in extracurricular activities versus those who did not participate.

Research has also shown the positive impact participation in activities has on student discipline in schools. Ramsey (1981) stated “Every child deserves to find a comfortable, rewarding niche in school – some program that provides real challenge and genuine gratification” (p. 207). As a result, a significant way to prevent discipline problems or poor behavior was to provide vast offerings of extracurricular and cocurricular activities in which students could participate (Ramsey, 1981). One study, asking over 4,000 students suspended in the Nashville School District a series of 17 questions, found over 73% of all students questioned had little or no involvement in activities (Binkley, 1972). In a study conducted by Whitley (1999), over 100,000 students’ records from North Carolina were examined and results indicated lower discipline referrals by those students who participated in activities. Furthermore, a reduced rate of delinquency is a byproduct of activity involvement (Holland & Andre, 1987; Landers & Landers, 1978; Mahoney & Cairns, 1997; McBride, 1980; Reiter, 1982). Likewise, organized extracurricular activities are considered the best use of time to produce positive behavioral outcomes for students (Guest & Schneider, 2003). Idle time can turn into risky behavior and the lack of engagement limits personal growth and attitudes (Eccles & Barber, 1999). Eccles and Barber (1999), through their examination of participation in extracurricular activities, found an impact on academic achievement and reduced risky behaviors. Similarly, Schafer and Armer (1968) found that boys who normally had trouble in school showed the most benefit by participating in sports.

Schools continually seek out ways to increase student participation in activities. Participating in cocurricular activities not only supports increased achievement, it can also reduce the risk of dropping out, teen pregnancy, and tobacco, drug, and alcohol substance abuse (Battistich & Horn, 1997; Cooley, Henriksen, Nelson, & Thompson, 1995). In contrast, Brown and Evans (2002) found that a student involved in pro-social activities was less likely to abuse substances whereas students participating in sports proved to have a slight increase in alcohol use. Larson (1994) argued that sports participation could have a reduced effect on students' use of alcohol. Zill, Nord, and Loomis (1995) found students choosing not to participate in any type of school activities were 57% more likely to dropout, 49% more likely to use drugs, 37% more likely to become pregnant, 35% more likely to use tobacco, and 27% more likely to be incarcerated during their lifetime.

Activities also assist in meeting the goals of teaching students to become responsible caring adults, develop character, display good sportsmanship, use critical thinking skills, and develop social skills (Black, 2002; Laughlin, 1978). Additionally, skills that help students grow cognitively, such as leadership, art, music, and psychomotor abilities, are enhanced by participating in cocurricular activities (Haensly et al., 1985). Involvement in activities encourages students to be constructive with their time, committed to school and team, and be a member of a positive and support peer group (Zill et al., 1995). Specifically, students developed a sense of ownership and pride in the school community as a participant in activities (Hedgpeth, 1981). Students must develop positive student characteristics such as confidence and vision for a career to have success after graduation. Colin Powell (1999), former Secretary of State, established the

five America's Promise Fundamental Resources that provide students the opportunities to build confidence, be self-supporting, and become members of society with a purpose. Participating in activities also allows students to work together as a team, excel individually, and experience hard work and commitment to a team (Durbin, 1986; Educational Research Service [ERS], 1999). Activities can help students make sense of academics through hard work and lead to further creative or physical attributes (Klesse, 2004).

Through participation in activities, students can gain elevated peer status (Coleman, 1961; Spady, 1970) and self-esteem (Durbin, 1986; Holland & Andre, 1987), which in turn can raise students' academic aspirations (Hanks & Eckland, 1976; Spady, 1970). Furthermore, student participation in athletics increases motivation towards school and contributes to improved attendance and desire to attend college more than participating in other activities (Davalos et al., 1999). Specifically, participation in athletics has been shown to have a positive effect on students' increased opportunities and desire to graduate from high school (Davalos et al., 1999). Students are influenced in four ways to stay focused on school: (1) athletes receive higher prestige as participants; (2) possible dropouts will be surrounded by college-oriented athletic teammates; (3) students stay in school to simply compete in athletics; and (4) students have a support system of coaches, teachers, and counselors to prevent dropping out (Schafer & Armer, 1968).

The literature review thus far has provided research to support the involvement in activities, which can result in increased academic success, attendance, sense of belonging, and many other positive attributes. Other researchers would agree drawbacks

could be derived from students' participation in activities and the lack of focus on the true purpose of the school's academic environment the students maintain (Mendez, 1984). The National Association of State Boards of Education (NASBE) Commission found that state school boards play an influential role to ensure extracurricular programs do not jeopardize the high academic rigor and standards across the nation (Hill, 2007). The NASBE commission is charged with ensuring the emphasis of schools' return to strong academics, and athletics continue to be part of the whole educational process (Hill, 2007). In order for districts to focus on the true purpose of school, they need to put less emphasis on improving athletic programs (Mendez, 1984).

Other research on activity participation showed that there are no positive or unrelated effects to academic success and that there can even be a negative effect on a student's academic performance (Lueptow & Kayser, 1973; Melnick & Sabo, 1992; Melnick et al., 1988; Sabo et al., 1993). Kniker (1974) found no substantial evidence to support that participation had a positive or negative effect for students. Many theorists believed athletes do not show significant gains in achievement over non-athletes and the difference exists only because the athletes were higher achievers (Lueptow & Kayser, 1973; Stevenson, 1975). Some variance of results and conclusions of studies can be explained by the difference of definitions of activities such as sports. Sports could range from interscholastic sports, activities such as cheer and dance, intramural sports, or even non-sports such as cocurricular activities.

Theorists believed that a direct way to increase academic success for athletes is to require minimum eligibility standards (Durbin, 1986). Athletics is the largest non-academic program found in schools in the current era and state boards historically have

not governed extracurricular activities or its participants (Hill, 2007). Texas was one of the first states to create legislation for “no-pass, no-play” to restrict athletes from competing if they did not maintain a C average or higher (Bee, 1992; Bradley, 1993; Emmons, 1995). Eligibility requirements are established by schools to enhance the focus of the true purpose of attending school for all students and not to penalize them (Ruffin, 1986). Strict eligibility standards can limit student involvement opportunities in activities if they have below a 70% in one class (Emmons, 1995). Schools must tie attendance and academic performance to eligibility to participate in activities (Mendez, 1984). Research has not shown positive results that warrant increased academic success for students when strict eligibility requirements are in place to participate (Emmons, 1995).

Although participating in extracurricular activities has generally no impact on a student’s scholarship to college, it does increase academic success (Schafer & Armer, 1968). In today’s society, adolescents lose focus on their academic success and work towards earning a high-paying athletic scholarship thus missing the true purpose of extracurricular activities (Hill, 2007). Many theorists claimed playing only one sport limits a student’s ability to refine skills, gain confidence, and be exposed to a variety of sports. In fact, the odds of a high school football player reaching the professional level are fewer than eight students in 10,000; a high school basketball player reaching the professional level is much more difficult with fewer than three students in 10,000 obtaining that goal (National Collegiate Athletic Association, 2012).

Ethnicity and Gender Challenges

The landscape of schools in the United States continues to change and become more diverse. With increased diversity come new conversations to address the increasing

needs of academic success of minority students. Challenges have also risen among at-risk students and students of different genders in schools. The school assimilation of minority students was necessary with the increased growth of the Hispanic population in the nation (Klesse, 2004), which totals 52 million people (United States Census Bureau, 2012). Census numbers from 2010 showed a 3.1% increase in Americans of Hispanic origin and made up 16.7 % of the total United States population (United States Census Bureau, 2012). The Hispanic population remains the fastest growing minority group in the nation (United States Census Bureau, 2012). The African American population grew by only 1.6% and made up 43.9 million of the total population in the U.S. (United States Census Bureau, 2012). Asian Americans comprise 18.2 million of the total population based on the 2010 Census and were the second fastest growing minority group behind the Hispanic population (United States Census Bureau, 2012). For the purpose of this literature review, the current research focuses on general minorities and gender findings available due to the lack of research conducted specifically for Hispanic students.

According to Isaacs and Duffus (1995), “minority high school students acknowledge high intellectual capacities but admit to neither personal nor peer motivation for commensurate academic achievement” (p. 1). Students dropping out of school have been a large concern in the American society where attendance is compulsory and education is highly valued (Davalos et al., 1999). Reports from the U.S. Department of Education found that Hispanic Americans are 35% more likely to drop out of high school (Chapman et al., 2011). White Non-Hispanics have only an 8.9% estimated dropout rate while 13.9% of African-Americans are likely to leave school before graduating (Chapman et al., 2011). Research is needed to learn how to deter the

trends of higher dropout rates among the Hispanic American population, which is continuing to increase (Davalos et al., 1999) as retention of Hispanic Americans in today's schools will benefit the entire society.

In an effort to address the increasing achievement gap among minority students, researchers have continued to focus their investigations on identifying factors that increase student performance (Booker, 2006). Isaacs and Duffus (1995) claimed that if minority students belonged to a peer group with a culture of evident support and minority acceptance, students had more of an opportunity to participate. Further effects for minority students being accepted would lead to leadership roles that might not have been available prior (Isaacs & Duffus, 1995). At-risk studies conducted to analyze the effects of extracurricular involvement have also shown positive results for minority students to feel a sense of belonging and acceptance that they would otherwise not experience (Isaacs & Duffus, 1995; Messner, 1989; Moran, Yengo, & Algier, 1994). Activity participation provides acceptance and a sense of community for minority students, which may be difficult to replace in the classroom (Davalos et al., 1999).

Sabo (1986) conducted one of the first studies that examined sports and minority students, including both genders and White, African American, and Hispanic students. Even though females comprised only 37% of the total varsity athletes analyzed in the study, Hispanic females from rural schools and White females from suburban schools saw significant increase in achievement tests, retention rate, popularity, and college success. Another study, conducted by Melnick and Sabo (1992), contradicted their original study by stating sports participation was unrelated to increased test scores or academic success. A negative result from the study showed a minimal increase in a

minority student's mobility in the workforce or in their college success after participating in sports in high school (Melnick & Sabo, 1992). Mobility of minority students was not hindered or impeded by participating in athletics (Sabo et al., 1993). Sabo et al.'s results were significant for students of minority and male and female participants of activities indicating that minority students who participated in athletics showed increased academic results over non-athletes. Eitle and Eitle (2002) examined data from the National Educational Longitudinal Survey and found White males were less likely to be involved in sports than were African American male students. Sports participation had an impact on lowered dropout rates of some minority students in rural and suburban schools, but not in urban schools.

Davalos et al. (1999) specifically examined gender and ethnicity regarding participation in athletics and extracurricular activities. Males were found 1.93 times more likely to participate in athletics than females and 1.7 times more likely to participate in extracurricular activities. The authors also found ethnicity to be a significant predictor of participation with White Non-Hispanics 1.32 times more likely to participate in athletics than Hispanic Americans and 1.34 times more likely to participate in extracurricular activities (Davalos et al., 1999). Davalos et al. continued to identify Hispanic students as more likely to stay in school and have a higher retention rate when participating in extracurricular activities than Hispanic students who did not participate.

Grey (1992) examined new immigrants who assimilated to sports participation in a Kansas community. Immigrants were not normally involved in activities at the same level of Americanized citizens and therefore were judged by others for not being interested in participation. McCarthy (2000) found that regardless of the students' ethnic

backgrounds, students participating in extracurricular activities had higher mean GPAs than those of non-participants. Specifically, students with an Asian/Pacific Islander decent had the greatest difference in GPA among participants and non-participants while Native American students had the least difference in GPA performance (McCarthy, 2000).

Racial tensions and cultural differences can be reduced through participation in team sports (Lapchick, 1996). Although extracurricular participation rates vary among ethnic groups, some minorities are less likely to participate than others; therefore, they do not receive benefits of participation (Gerber, 1996; Parish, 1984). Most studies examining participation in activities are limited to European American students (Cooley et al., 1995; Steinberg, Cider, Kaczmarek, & Lazzavo, 1988). As the diversity and immigration patterns and populations change, schools should continue to enhance minority students' attachment to school by involvement in activities (Davalos et al., 1999; Vernez, Krop, & Rydell, 1999).

The incorporation of athletics in schools is over 100 years old, but gender has only been a major discussion on the landscape of athletics for the past fifty years. Females did not have an opportunity for interaction with the opposite sex in activities such as clubs and organizations offered by the school until the 1950s (Gordon, 1957). Girls spent a majority of their leisure time reading and wanting to be part of a group. As a result, not until much later would researchers see a dramatic rise in female participation in extracurricular activities (Coleman, 1961). Females had limited access to the vast array of extracurricular activities until the early 1970s. Congress passed the Higher Education Act (Title IX) protecting and ensuring all persons had equal opportunity to

participate in schools or activities sponsored by federal assistance (Higher Education Act, 1972). Until Title IX was passed, few public schools in the nation were truly co-educational in academic and activity offerings for all students (Tyack & Hansot, 1990). This law created a set of parameters to allow females to participate in athletics across the nation for the first time in history (Tyack & Hansot, 1990). However, women during the 1970s were considered ill-equipped, even masculine, and undesirable as participants in sports (Messner, 1992).

Schafer and Armer (1968) found that fewer than one out of four high school boys participate in any extracurricular activities. A significant distinction between male and female participation trends exists (Tyack & Hansot, 1990). Males have a much higher rate of participation in extracurricular activities than females, except for cheerleading (Klesse, 2004; McNeal, 1999). Klesse (2004) also found males participate in extracurricular activities 66% of the time and females only participate 46% of the time. The same is true of high SES students who participated 66% of the time whereas lower SES students participated only 56% of the time (McNeal, 1999). Females seek to participate in cocurricular activities more than males (McNeal, 1999). In a study of over 19,000 Colorado high school students, McCarthy (2000) found a higher percentage of females participating in extracurricular activities than males.

Research has shown that there is a significant difference in the number of female participants in athletics as traditionally there is less societal emphasis placed on their participation (Coakley, 1986; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1977). According to Feltz and Weiss (1984), a difference existed academically among female students GPA who participated in extracurricular activities and those who did not participate. Parkerson (2001) found

the benefits female participants identified were the increased level of motivation and awareness of career options.

In terms of students with disabilities, federal statutes such as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) (2004), Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act (1973), and the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) (1990) protect students with disabilities to ensure their access to a quality comprehensive education. IDEA and Section 504 both consider extracurricular activities as part of a comprehensive educational program defined as Free and Appropriate Education (Galanter, 2013). Educators should understand the distinction between a student with a disability and a qualified student with a disability. A student who has a disability, but is qualified to participate in extracurricular activities, must be given reasonable accommodations (Galanter, 2013). One example would be a student being cut from a sport because he or she may not possess the necessary skills for the sport, versus a student being cut from that sport because of his or her disability (Hill, 2007). For a student with a disability to participate and be a qualified student, two questions must be answered: first, are the accommodations reasonable based on the context of the activity, and second, will those accommodations result in an undue financial burden on the district and, therefore, be deemed as excessive (Galanter, 2013). In short, every effort should be made to accommodate and provide equal opportunity to all students regardless their disabilities, ethnic backgrounds, or gender.

Cultural, at-risk, and gender issues are concerns that all schools face in this century and will continue to be addressed in the future. Educators must continue to find ways to meet the needs of all students regardless of their ethnicity, gender, or SES.

Research has not shown a distinct advantage in participation of activities for minority or at-risk students compared to other students, but participation in activities continues to show mix results with both positive and negative being found (Davalos et al., 1999).

Participation in Activities

Sports participation has an integrating function that creates unity, identification, and personal identity and creates a link among participants (Hanson & Kraus, 1998). This link may create a connection among students who share similar aspirations to attend college or work harder in the classroom (Marsh, 1993; Snyder, 1985). Therefore, the involvement in activities may be the network needed to give athletes an advantage as they enter college and advance their careers (Otto & Alwin, 1977). In fact, participation has been identified as the surest determinant of success after high school (Schafer & Armer, 1968), even more influential than GPA and test scores (Durbin, 1986). Buss (1998) offered a number of reasons why students choose not to participate: 76% claimed the activities were not relevant, 47% claimed the activities took time away from homework, 38% would rather work, and 26% had social reservations.

Coladarci and Cobb (1996) stated that the “greatest determinant” of student participation in extracurricular activities is the size of the school the student attended. For example, students who attend small schools with enrollment fewer than 800 students show a dramatic decrease in participation due to the limited number of activities available. A similar way of thinking applies when athletes participate in multiple sports throughout the school year, the greater positive effect that participation has on their GPA compared to the GPA of less active athletes (Schafer & Armer, 1968). The number of activities a student participates in has an effect on student academic success (Marsh,

1992; McNeal, 1995). To introduce participation in activities at an early age is just as important as the participation in multiple activities. Also, students' opportunities to participate in high school cocurricular activities increase dramatically if the students had participated in middle school (Klesse, 2004). Students who participate in athletics have the highest involvement rate of cocurricular activities versus students primarily in academics or fine arts (Klesse, 2004).

Students participate in activities to fulfill individual needs and specific purposes:

(a) personality/social characteristic, (b) athletic participation and achievement, (c) educational aspirations, and (d) extent of activity involvement (Holland & Andre, 1987). Specifically, students personally and socially desire the need to feel a part of something that encourages race relations, instills self-esteem, or provides a positive outlet. Students and parents also realize the positive impact participation can have on academic achievement (Black, 2002; Camp, 1990; Cooper et al., 1999; Gerber, 1996; Hanks & Eckland, 1976; Harvancik & Golsan, 1986; Holland & Andre, 1987; Marsh, 1992).

Summary

This literature review served two major purposes. The first purpose was to present a deep understanding of theory pertaining to extracurricular activities and student achievement. The second purpose was to formulate a direction for which the study focused on the positive relationship participation in activities can have on academic success of Hispanic students. The review presented the history of extracurricular activities and its development overtime. The review also discussed the impact activities have on a student from a theoretical perspective while explaining the research-based benefits and drawbacks. The research was presented to analyze the vast number of

perspectives on how participation in activities affects student academic success and graduation status. The review also focused on the cultural and gender impact on students' participation or nonparticipation in activities. Finally, the review of the literature discussed the specific history and state of the current activities association in Kansas that drives extracurricular involvement. Chapter three presents the methodology used in this study and identifies the population and sample, sampling procedures, measurement, data collection procedures, data analysis and hypothesis testing, and limitations.

Chapter Three

Methods

The purpose of this study was to examine how activities participated in, type and amount of activities participated in, and gender affect Hispanic students' GPA and graduation status from high school. More specifically, the purpose of this study was to examine differences in GPA between students who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who did not participate, between students who participated in extracurricular activities and students who participated in cocurricular activities, and whether gender affected these differences. Further, the purpose of this study was to examine the effects of these same variables on students' graduation status from high school.

Chapter three describes the methodology utilized in this study. This chapter is divided into sections that outline the design of the research, the population, and the sample used for this study. Sampling procedures and measurement are defined. Data analysis and hypothesis testing is presented in depth as it applies to the research questions. The limitations of this study are also discussed.

Research Design

This study was quantitative and non-experimental in nature. The methodology used in this study provided a comprehensible view of the impact participation in an activity had on a Hispanic student's academic success. The dependent variables for this study were the cumulative GPA and graduation status of students in the cohort classes of 2008-2009, 2009-2010, 2010-2011, and 2011-2012. Cumulative GPA was represented numerically as defined in the definitions of terms. The outcomes of the dependent

variables are influenced by the independent variables (Creswell, 2009). The independent variables used in this study were participation status, participation in extracurricular or cocurricular activities, number of activities in which a student participated, and gender.

Population and Sample

The population of this study included all Hispanic students in the twelfth grade at Emporia High School for the cohort classes of 2008-2009, 2009-2010, 2010-2011, and 2011-2012. Emporia had a senior enrollment for those four cohort classes totaling 1,406. The sample for this study included 558 Hispanic students in grade 12 enrolled at Emporia High School from the 2008-2009 to the 2011-2012 school years (see Table 5).

Table 5

Four-Year Cohort Demographic Analysis of Hispanic Seniors

	Senior Enrollment	Hispanic Seniors	Percent of Total	Hispanic Males	Hispanic Females
2008-2009	406	142	35	74	68
2009-2010	362	139	37	72	67
2010-2011	319	139	44	77	62
2011-2012	319	138	43	71	67
Total	1406	558	40	294	264

Note. Adapted from “Dropout Graduation Summary Report,” by Kansas Department of Education, 2012a.

The sample of Hispanic students in this study comprised 40% of the total student population, with a greater number of Hispanic males than Hispanic females.

Sampling Procedures

A purposive sampling method was used in the data collection of this quantitative study due to the experience the researcher had with the group sampled (Lunenburg &

Irby, 2008). The purposive sampling used in this study allowed the researcher, as an employee of the district, to investigate the specialized population of Hispanic students at the high school. The sample consisted of 558 Hispanic seniors from the four cohort classes of 2008-2009 to 2011-2012 at Emporia High School. During the enrollment process, parents selected Hispanic as their student's ethnicity that was stored in PowerSchool.

Measurement

The independent variable of gender was identified for each student during the enrollment process. Students were recognized by their respective gender with "f" for female or "m" for male. The number of activities in which they participated identified the participant's level of involvement. Students represented by a zero were acknowledged as those who did not participate. Another independent variable identified was student participation. Participation in activities was differentiated between participants and non-participants. Students were classified as a "participant" if a student participated in one or more activity, as identified in Table 3, during their high school years. The dependent variables identified for this study were graduation status and GPA. A student's graduation status was identified as graduate or non-graduate. Cumulative GPA was calculated by adding the total number of grade points divided by the total number of credits taken. The average equals the student's cumulative GPA. Emporia High School uses a 4-point grading system to assign semester grades (A = 4, B = 3, C = 2, D = 1, F = 0) (EHS, 2012).

Data Collection Procedures

The data collection is a critical component of any study to provide precise procedures for other researchers to duplicate the study. A request to conduct research was submitted to the Emporia Public Schools prior to conducting research for the current study. The completed form was submitted to the Assistant Superintendent of Curriculum and Instruction for approval. The permission to conduct research was approved on January 11, 2012 (see Appendix A). The researcher also requested approval for the study through Baker University Institutional Review Board (IRB). The researcher was granted approval to conduct research from the IRB committee of Baker University on April 8, 2013 (see Appendix B).

Quantitative data was collected from the DGSR submitted by the Emporia School District each fall to the Kansas Department of Education (KSDE) for the 2008-2009, 2009-2010, 2010-2011, and 2011-2012 cohort classes. The DGSR included each student's name, ID number, gender, ethnicity, and graduation status. Gender and ethnicity were recorded into PowerSchool once the enrollment process was completed. Student participation was obtained from the KSHSAA eligibility report. The data for graduation status was obtained from the DGSR data. Overall GPA upon graduation was collected from PowerSchool, which were fused with the DGSR data. The data was cross-referenced using un-weighted cumulative GPA and eligibility rosters from each activity season and year. The number of activities in which a student participated was gathered from yearly eligibility rosters. The student names were omitted once all data was collected and assigned an ID number for confidentiality purposes. The data was

organized in an Excel document for the convenience of organization and input into IBM® SPSS® Statistics Faculty Pack 21 for Windows for analysis.

Data Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

The level of significance used for the statistical analysis was $\alpha = .05$. The following research questions and corresponding hypotheses and data analyses guided this study:

RQ1. To what extent does a difference exist in the mean GPA of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who did not participate?

H1. There is a difference in the GPAs of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who did not participate.

A two-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test H1 to determine what differences exist in students' GPAs according to participation status in KSHSAA-sponsored activities.

RQ2. Is the difference in the GPAs of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who did not participate affected by gender?

H2. The difference in the GPAs of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who did not participate was affected by gender.

The same two-factor ANOVA that was used to test H1 was used to test H2 to determine if participation status in KSHSAA-sponsored activities had a statistically significant interaction with gender on any differences in students' GPAs.

RQ3. To what extent does a difference exist in the mean GPA of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities and those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored cocurricular activities?

H3. There is a difference in the GPAs of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities and those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored cocurricular activities.

A two-factor ANOVA was used to test H3 to determine what differences existed in students' GPAs according to participation status in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities or in KSHSAA-sponsored cocurricular activities.

RQ4. Is the difference in the GPAs of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities and those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored cocurricular activities affected by gender?

H4. The difference in the GPAs of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular or cocurricular activities was affected by gender.

The same two-factor ANOVA that was used to test H3 was used to test H4 to determine if participation status in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular or cocurricular activities was impacted by gender on any differences in students' GPAs.

RQ5. To what extent are there differences in the GPAs of Hispanic students among the number of KSHSAA-sponsored activities in which a student participated?

H5. There are differences in the GPAs of Hispanic students among the number of KSHSAA-sponsored activities in which the students participated.

A one-factor ANOVA was used to test H5 to determine the extent of the differences between Hispanic students' GPAs among the number of KSHSAA-sponsored activities in which the students participated. A follow up post hoc was conducted to determine which pairs of means were different.

RQ6. To what extent is graduation from high school impacted by a Hispanic student's participation in KSHSAA-sponsored activities? Is there a three-way relationship between graduation status, participation in KSHSAA-sponsored activities, and gender?

H6. Participation status in KSHSAA-sponsored activities impacts a Hispanic student graduating from high school.

H7. There is a three-way relationship between graduation status, participation in KSHSAA-sponsored activities, and gender.

A chi-square test of equal percentages was conducted to test H6. The observed frequencies were compared to those expected by chance. A loglinear analysis was conducted to test H7 to examine the relationship between the variables.

RQ7. To what extent is graduation from high school impacted by a Hispanic student's participation in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular or cocurricular activities? Is there a three-way relationship between graduation status, participation in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular or cocurricular activities, and gender?

H8. Participating in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities impacts a Hispanic student graduating from high school.

H9. Participating in KSHSAA-sponsored cocurricular activities impacts a Hispanic student graduating from high school.

H10. There is a three-way relationship between graduation status, participation in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities, and gender.

H11. There is a three-way relationship between graduation status, participation in KSHSAA-sponsored cocurricular activities, and gender.

Chi-square tests of equal percentages were conducted to address H8 and H9. The observed frequencies were compared to those expected by chance. Loglinear analyses were conducted to test H10 and H11 to examine the relationships between variables.

RQ8. To what extent is graduation from high school impacted by the amount of activities in which a Hispanic student participated?

H12. The amount of activities participated in impacts a Hispanic student graduating from high school.

A chi-square test of independence was conducted to test H12. The observed frequencies were compared to those expected by chance.

Limitations

Lunenburg and Irby (2008) defined limitations of the study as factors that are out of the control of the researcher. A major limitation of this study was that cumulative GPA was only measured once a student had exited high school as a graduate or a non-graduate and not on a yearly or semester basis. Another limitation of this study was that a roster for each activity was generated once the activity began, but it may have included participants who quit. Each coach or sponsor created rosters and the accuracy of those rosters was dependent on the individual. Finally, the potential of inaccurate reporting of ethnicity by parents during the enrollment process was also a limitation of this study.

Summary

Chapter three discussed the specific methodology used for this study that directly addressed the problem statement. The study used a quantitative approach with a sample of four cohort classes of twelfth grade Hispanic students from Emporia High School. This chapter also discussed the sampling procedures and measurement. The final sections of this chapter described the data collection procedures, data analysis and hypothesis testing, and limitations of the study. Chapter four presents the results of the study.

Chapter Four

Results

The purpose of this study was to examine how activities participated in, type and amount of activities participated in, and gender affect Hispanic students' GPA and graduation status from high school. More specifically, the purpose of this study was to examine differences in GPA between students who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who did not participate, between students who participated in extracurricular activities and students who participated in cocurricular activities, and whether gender affected these differences. Further, the purpose of this study was to examine the effects of these same variables on whether students graduated from high school. The previous three chapters provided background information, reviewed pertinent literature, presented the research questions, and described the methodology for this study. The purpose of chapter four is to present the results of the hypothesis testing.

Descriptive Statistics

The sample for this research study consisted of 558 twelfth grade Hispanic students from the cohort classes of 2008-2009, 2009-2010, 2010-2011, and 2011-2012 at Emporia High School. The mean cumulative GPA for the sample was 2.41 and ranged from 0.0 to 4.0 for the 558 students included in the study (see Table 6).

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of Mean GPA

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Male	2.25	.852	294
Female	2.60	.858	264
Participants	2.85	.625	209
Non-participants	2.15	.893	349
Extracurricular Participants	2.83	.621	164
Cocurricular Participants	3.01	.603	97
Overall GPA	2.41	.872	558

The descriptive statistics for graduation status are shown in Table 7. Of the 558 Hispanic students, 74.2% graduated from Emporia High School during their four-year cohort. Graduation requirements were not completed by 144 students.

Table 7
Number of Students by Graduation Status

	Graduated	Did Not Graduate
Male	209	85
Female	205	59
Participants	199	10
Non-participants	215	134
Extracurricular Participants	156	8
Cocurricular Participants	92	5
Total	414	144

Note that there were students who participated in both extracurricular and cocurricular activities, so the total number of students in each column will not add to the grand total of those students who graduated or did not graduate.

Hypothesis Testing

The purpose of this study was to analyze the eight research questions through hypothesis testing. Results of the hypothesis testing are presented below for each hypothesis. The level of significance was set at .05 and was used for all hypothesis tests.

RQ1. To what extent does a difference exist in the mean GPA of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who did not participate?

H1. There is a difference in the GPAs of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who did not participate.

RQ2. Is the difference in the GPAs of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who did not participate affected by gender?

H2. The difference in the GPAs of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who do not participate was affected by gender.

A two-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to test H1 and H2.

The two categorical variables were participation status in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and gender. The results of the analysis for H1 indicated a statistically significant difference in the mean GPA of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who did not participate, $F = 105.414$, $df = 1$, 554 , $p < .001$. The mean GPA for participants ($M = 2.85$) was higher than students who did not participate ($M = 2.15$). This supports H1.

The result of the analysis of H2 was not statistically significant, $F = 1.426$, $df = 1$, 554 , $p = .233$, indicating there was no interaction between gender and participation status on GPA. This does not support H2. See Table 8 for the mean GPA by participation status and gender.

Table 8

Mean GPA by Participation Status and Gender

	Gender	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Nonparticipants	Male	1.94	.857	181
	Female	2.37	.881	168
	Total	2.15	.893	349
Participants	Male	2.73	.579	113
	Female	2.99	.651	96
	Total	2.85	.625	209
Total	Male	2.25	.852	294
	Female	2.60	.858	264
	Total	2.41	.872	558

RQ3. To what extent does a difference exist in the mean GPA of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities and those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored cocurricular activities?

H3. There is a difference in the mean GPA of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities and those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored cocurricular activities.

RQ4. Is the difference in the GPAs of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities and those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored cocurricular activities affected by gender?

H4. The difference in the GPAs of Hispanic students between those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular or cocurricular activities was affected by gender.

A two-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to test H3 and H4. The two categorical variables were participation status in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities or cocurricular activities and gender. The results of the analysis of H3 indicated a statistically significant difference in the mean GPA between Hispanic students who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities and those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored cocurricular activities, $F = 5.975$, $df = 1, 550$, $p = .015$. The mean GPA of Hispanic students who participated in extracurricular activities ($M = 2.83$) was significantly lower than those students who participated in cocurricular activities ($M = 3.01$). This supports H3.

The result of the analysis of H4 was not statistically significant, $F = .672$, $df = 1, 550$, $p = .413$, indicating there was not an interaction between gender and participation in extracurricular or cocurricular activities on GPA. This does not support H4. Table 9 contains the descriptive statistics for H4.

Table 9

Mean GPA by Participation in Extracurricular and Cocurricular Activities and Gender

Extracurricular Participation	Cocurricular Participation	Gender	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	
Nonparticipants	Nonparticipants	Male	1.94	.857	181	
		Female	2.37	.881	168	
		Total	2.15	.893	349	
	Participants	Participants	Male	2.89	.666	15
			Female	2.96	.636	30
			Total	2.94	.639	45
		Total	Male	2.02	.879	196
			Female	2.46	.873	198
			Total	2.24	.903	394
	Participants	Nonparticipants	Male	2.63	.543	75
Female			2.88	.712	37	
Total			2.71	.613	112	
Participants		Participants	Male	2.96	.568	23
			Female	3.17	.563	29
			Total	3.08	.569	52
		Total	Male	2.71	.564	98
			Female	3.01	.662	66
			Total	2.83	.621	164
Total		Nonparticipants	Male	2.15	.837	256
	Female		2.46	.874	205	
	Total		2.29	.867	461	
	Participants	Participants	Male	2.93	.601	38
			Female	3.06	.605	59
			Total	3.01	.603	97
		Total	Male	2.25	.852	294
			Female	2.60	.858	264
			Total	2.41	.872	558

RQ5. To what extent are there differences in the mean GPAs of Hispanic students among the number of KSHSAA-sponsored activities in which a student participated?

H5. There are differences in the mean GPAs of Hispanic students among the number of KSHSAA-sponsored activities in which the students participated.

A one-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to test H5. The categorical variable used was the number of KSHSAA-sponsored activities in which the student participated. The results of the analysis indicated a statistically significant difference in the mean GPA of Hispanic students among the number of KSHSAA-sponsored activities in which they participated, $F = 7.918$, $df = 15, 542$, $p < .001$. See Table 10 for the mean GPA by the number of activities in which students participated. A follow up post hoc was conducted to determine which pairs of means were different. The Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) post hoc was conducted at $\alpha = .05$. Many of the differences were significantly different (see Appendix D). This supports H5.

Table 10

Mean GPA by Number of Activities

Activities	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
0	2.15	.893	349
1	2.64	.650	53
2	2.72	.644	35
3	2.84	.565	27
4	2.84	.567	33
5	2.98	.553	7
6	2.98	.649	12
7	2.78	.685	10
8	3.23	.335	9
9	2.92	.286	4
10	3.45	.309	4
11	3.20	.105	2
12	3.54	.479	7
13	3.03	.858	3
14	3.63	.028	2
16	3.74	-	1

- RQ6. To what extent is graduation from high school impacted by a Hispanic student's participation in KSHSAA-sponsored activities? Is there a three-way relationship between graduation status, participation in KSHSAA-sponsored activities, and gender?
- H6. Participation status in KSHSAA-sponsored activities impacts a Hispanic student graduating from high school.

The results of the chi-square test of equal percentages indicated a statistically significant difference between the observed and expected values, $\chi^2 = 77.126$, $p < .001$. See Table 11 for the observed and expected frequencies. The observed frequency for those students who participated in activities and graduated from high school ($n = 199$) was higher than expected ($n = 155.1$). This supports H6. The odds of a student graduating high school increased approximately 12 times if the student participated in activities.

Table 11

Observed and Expected Frequencies for Hypothesis 6

Graduation Status		Participation Status	
		Participated	Did Not Participate
Graduated	Observed	199	215
	Expected	155.1	258.9
Did Not Graduate	Observed	10	134
	Expected	53.9	90.1

- H7. There is a three-way relationship between graduation status, participation in KSHSAA-sponsored activities, and gender.

A loglinear analysis was conducted to test H7, in which the final model retained all effects. The likelihood ratio of this model was $\chi^2(0) = 0, p = 1$, which indicated that the highest-order interaction (graduation status x participation status x gender) was significant, $\chi^2 = 5.656, p = .017$. This supports H7. The odds of a student graduating high school increased 12 times if the student participated in activities and an additional 1.5 times if the student was female.

To break down the interaction, separate chi-square tests on the participation status and gender variables were performed for those students who graduated and those students who did not graduate. For those students who graduated, there was a marginally statistically significant association between participation status and gender, $\chi^2 = 3.522, p = .061$; this was also true of those students who did not graduate, $\chi^2 = 3.744, p = .053$. Odds ratios indicated that males were approximately 30 times more likely to graduate if they participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities. Females were approximately six times more likely to graduate if they participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities. Therefore, the analysis revealed a difference between those students who graduated high school and those students who did not graduate: students who participated in activities were more likely to graduate, and males and females were more likely to graduate if they participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities.

RQ7. To what extent is graduation from high school impacted by a Hispanic student's participation in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular or cocurricular activities? Is there a three-way relationship between graduation status, participation in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular or cocurricular activities, and gender?

H8. Participating in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities impacts a Hispanic student graduating from high school.

The results of the chi-square test of equal percentages indicated a statistically significant difference between the observed and expected values, $\chi^2 = 133.561$, $p < .001$. See Table 12 for the observed and expected frequencies. Of those students who participated in extracurricular activities, more graduated from high school ($n = 156$) than was expected ($n = 82$). This supports H8. The odds of a student graduating from high school increased approximately 10 times if the student participated in extracurricular activities.

Table 12

Observed and Expected Frequencies for Hypotheses 8 and 9

Graduation Status		Participation Status	
		Extracurricular	Cocurricular
Graduated	Observed	156	92
	Expected	82	48.5
Did Not Graduate	Observed	8	5
	Expected	82	48.5

H9. Participating in KSHSAA-sponsored cocurricular activities impacts a Hispanic student graduating from high school.

The results of the chi-square test of equal percentages indicated a statistically significant difference between the observed and expected values, $\chi^2 = 78.031$, $p < .001$. See Table 12 for the observed and expected frequencies. Of those students who participated in cocurricular activities, more graduated from high school ($n = 92$) than was

expected ($n = 48.5$). This supports H9. The odds of a student graduating from high school increased approximately eight times if the student participated in cocurricular activities.

H10. There is a three-way relationship between graduation status, participation in KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular activities, and gender.

A loglinear analysis was conducted to test H10, in which the final model retained all effects. The likelihood ratio of this model was $\chi^2(0) = 0, p = 1$, which indicated that the highest-order interaction (graduation status x participation in extracurricular activities x gender) was significant, $\chi^2 = 81.200, p < .001$. This supports H10. The odds of a student graduating from high school increased approximately 11 times if the student participated in extracurricular activities, and an additional 1.7 times if the student was female.

To break down this effect, separate chi-square tests on the participation status in extracurricular activities and gender variables were performed for those students who graduated and those students who did not graduate. For those students who graduated, there was a statistically significant association between participation in extracurricular activities and gender, $\chi^2 = 10.861, p = .001$; this was not true of those students who did not graduate, $\chi^2 = 1.623, p = .203$. Odds ratios indicated that males were approximately 23 times more likely to graduate from high school if they participated in extracurricular activities. Females were approximately five times more likely to graduate from high school if they participated in extracurricular activities. Therefore, the analysis revealed a difference between those students who graduated from high school and those students who did not graduate: students who participated in activities were more likely to

graduate, and males and females were more likely to graduate if they participated in extracurricular activities.

H11. There is a three-way relationship between graduation status, participation in KSHSAA-sponsored cocurricular activities, and gender.

A loglinear analysis was conducted to test H11, in which the final model retained all effects. The likelihood ratio of this model was $\chi^2(0) = 0, p = 1$, which indicated that the highest-order interaction (graduation status x participation in cocurricular activities x gender) was significant, $\chi^2 = 49.803, p < .001$. This supports H11. The odds of a student graduating from high school increased approximately eight times if the student participated in cocurricular activities, and an additional 1.3 times if the student was female.

To break down this effect, separate chi-square tests on the participation status in cocurricular activities and gender variables were performed for those students who graduated and those students who did not graduate. For those students who graduated, there was a statistically significant association between participation in cocurricular activities and gender, $\chi^2 = 3.987, p = .046$; this was also true of those students who did not graduate, $\chi^2 = 7.463, p = .006$. Odds ratios indicated that males were approximately 38 times more likely to graduate if they participated in cocurricular activities. Females were approximately four times more likely to graduate if they participated in cocurricular activities. Therefore, the analysis revealed a difference between those students who graduated and those students who do not graduate: students who participated in cocurricular activities were more likely to graduate, and males and females were more likely to graduate if they participated in cocurricular activities.

RQ8. To what extent is graduation from high school impacted by the amount of activities in which a Hispanic student participated?

H12. The amount of activities participated in impacts a Hispanic student graduating from high school.

The results of the chi-square test of independence indicated a statistically significant difference between the observed and expected values, $\chi^2 = 77.996$, $p < .001$. See Table 13 for the observed and expected frequencies. The observed frequencies for those students who participated in 1-5, 6-10, or more than 10 activities and graduated from high school was higher than expected. This supports H12.

Table 13

Observed and Expected Frequencies for Hypothesis 12

Graduation Status		Amount of Activities			
		0	1-5	6-10	More than 10
Graduated	Observed	215	145	39	15
	Expected	258.9	115	28.9	11.1
Did Not Graduate	Observed	134	10	0	0
	Expected	90.1	40	10.1	3.9

Summary

The purpose of chapter four was to present the results of the study. It provided clarification of the descriptive statistics regarding the population and sample. Eight research questions and twelve hypotheses concerning Hispanic students' GPA and graduation status were analyzed using one- and two-factor ANOVAs, chi-square tests of equal percentages, chi-square tests of independence, and loglinear analyses. Results of

the hypothesis testing indicated statistically significant differences in the mean GPA of Hispanic students according to overall participation status and participation in extracurricular and cocurricular activities. A statistically significant interaction was found between gender and participation in extracurricular or cocurricular activities. The chi-square and loglinear analyses indicated that students were more likely to graduate if they participated in activities.

Chapter five provides a summary of the study, which includes an overview of the problem, purpose statement and research questions, review of methodology, and major findings. Next, the findings related to literature are presented. Finally, the conclusion is presented, which includes the implications for action, recommendations for future research, and concluding remarks.

Chapter Five

Interpretation and Recommendations

In an increasingly diverse culture, ensuring the academic success of all students, regardless of ethnicity, presents a unique challenge to educators. This study examined the impact that participation by Hispanic students in activities had on student academic success in the Emporia School District. Chapter five summarizes the study, provides an interpretation of the findings, presents the findings in relation to available research, and includes recommendations and suggestions for the field and for future areas of study.

Study Summary

This study examined whether participation in activities affects a Hispanic student's high school GPA and graduation status. An abundance of research demonstrated a positive impact on students' academic success when participating in activities (Ballantine, 1981; Black, 2002; Brown & Steinberg, 1991; Camp, 1990; Cooper et al., 1999; Frith & Clark, 1984; Gerber, 1996; Hanks & Eckland, 1976; Harvancik & Golsan, 1986; Hedgpeth, 1981; Hill, 2010; Marsh, 1992; McBride, 1980; Shaw, 1981; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1977). Research has also shown positive results for student participation in activities with increased peer status (Spady, 1970), self-esteem (Durbin, 1986), academic aspirations (Hanks & Eckland, 1976), attendance (Whitley, 1999), and desire to graduate high school (Davalos et al., 1999). A plethora of research has reported contradictory results concluding that participation in activities had a negative or no effect on student academic success (Emmons, 1995; Kniker, 1974; Lueptow & Kayser, 1973; Melnick & Sabo, 1992; Melnick et al., 1988; Mendez, 1984; Sabo et al., 1993;

Stevenson, 1975). No previous study has been conducted in the Emporia School District regarding student participation in activities and academic success.

Overview of the problem. Schools across America continue to seek ways to challenge students individually to achieve academic success. Research confirms that of all ethnic groups, Hispanic students are the most likely not to graduate from high school (Chapman et al., 2011). The NCES (2011) projected the Hispanic high school aged population will increase 85.6% by the year 2025. The Hispanic enrollment for EHS is approximately 30% higher than the state average of 17.1% (KSDE, 2012b). EHS total student population is made up of 51% Hispanic students and of those students 55% are male and 45% are female. Eighty-one percent or less of the total Hispanic student population each year earn enough credits to graduate with their cohort class (KSDE, n.d.).

Purpose statement and research questions. The overall purpose of this study was to examine how participation in KSHSAA-sponsored activities affected Hispanic students' GPA and graduation status. The current study examined the amount and type of activities participated in (extracurricular or cocurricular), and affects gender had on Hispanic students' GPA and graduation status.

Review of the methodology. This study is quantitative in nature with dependent variables of GPA and graduation status and independent variables of gender, participation status, and the type and number of activities in which students participated. The current study included Hispanic students in the twelfth grade from the 2008-2009, 2009-2010, 2010-2011, and 2011-2012 cohort classes of EHS. Archival data was collected during the 2012-2013 school year to determine the impact gender, participation status, and the

type and amount of activities participated in had on the student's GPA and graduation status. The eight research questions concerning Hispanic GPA and graduation status were analyzed using one- and two-factor ANOVAs, chi-square tests of equal percentages, chi-square tests of independence, and loglinear analyses.

Major findings. Results from the hypothesis testing indicated that Hispanic students who participated in activities had higher GPAs, and participating in activities increased the likelihood of graduating from high school for both Hispanic males and females. More specifically, the findings revealed that Hispanic students, who participated in activities overall or participated in extracurricular or cocurricular activities, had higher GPAs and were more likely to graduate from high school.

Findings Related to the Literature

For over a century researchers have stated the importance education can play in a student's well-being and preparation for the society in which we live (Department of Interior, 1918). The importance of a well-balanced educational system that provides a quality education with opportunities to participate in activities has also been well established (Dewey, 1913). This section will link findings from the current study conducted on Hispanic student participation in activities to prior research.

Students who participate in activities have a higher GPA than nonparticipants (Brown & Steinberg, 1991; Camp, 1990; Hill, 2010; Marsh, 1992; Sabo, 1986). Specifically, Sabo (1986) found Hispanic athletes had higher academic success than their nonparticipating counterparts did. Other studies (Eitle & Eitle, 2002; Melnick & Sabo, 1992) concluded minority students' involvement in activities had little or no academic impact. Hauser and Lueptow (1978) also failed to document a difference in academic

success between students who participated in activities and those who did not. The findings from the current study found that Hispanic GPAs increased when students participated in activities. The current study analyzed the difference in Hispanic students' GPAs between those who participated in activities and those who did not participate. The results indicating students who participated had a higher GPA than those students who did not participate supported research by (Brown & Steinberg, 1991; Camp, 1990; Hill, 2010; Marsh, 1992; Sabo, 1986).

When gender was included as a variable for participants or nonparticipants in activities, the difference in GPA was not significant (Feltz & Weiss, 1984; Hill, 2010). Furthermore, Feltz and Weiss' (1984) investigation of females who participated in activities showed no increase in academic success as opposed to those who did not participate. The relationship between GPA and participation was not significantly affected by gender (Hill, 2010). A study conducted by McCarthy (2000) found female participants to have a higher GPA than those of male participants. Barden (2002) cited an increased GPA among students who participated in activities was affected by gender. The findings of the current study contradict research by McCarthy (2000) and Barden (2002). The current study supported the research (Feltz & Weiss, 1984; Hill, 2010) that Hispanic students participating in activities had significantly higher mean GPAs than those who did not participate, but when affected by gender there was not a significant change in GPA among participants and nonparticipants.

In the current study, the difference in Hispanic students' GPA among participants in extracurricular activities and participants in cocurricular activities was examined. Laughlin (1978) concluded that students' participation in an activity during a sports

season had a higher GPA than those participating outside the season. A study conducted in Colorado, which involved 19,000 students, found Hispanic students who participated in extracurricular activities to have a higher GPA than those students who participated in cocurricular activities (McCarthy, 2000). Watkins (2004) reported that students participating in cocurricular activities had higher GPAs than those students who participated in extracurricular activities. The current study supported the research (Watkins, 2004) that Hispanic students participating in cocurricular activities had significantly higher mean GPAs than those who participated in extracurricular activities had.

Studies that examined the difference among students' GPAs who participated in extracurricular or cocurricular activities found no relationship between GPA and gender (Feltz & Weiss, 1984; Watkins, 2004). However, research conducted by Silliker and Quirk (1997) contradicted this conclusion and reported that female students earned a higher GPA than those of the male students who participated in activities. The current study found no statistically significant impact between participation status and gender on GPA, which supports Feltz and Weiss (1984) and Watkins (2004).

Prior research has shown that students' GPA increased when activity involvement raised exponentially (Cooper et al., 1999; Feltz & Weiss, 1984). A contrasting study found no relationship between academic achievement and increased activity participation (Fredricks & Eccles, 2006). The findings of the current study supported there were differences in GPA among the number of activities in which a student participated, showing GPA increased as students participated in more activities. This supports findings from Cooper et al. (1999) and Feltz and Weiss (1984).

Research indicated a statistically significant difference in graduation status between those students who participated in activities and those who did not (Mahoney & Cairns, 1997; McNeal, 1995). Both studies concluded that students who did not graduate from high school participated in fewer extracurricular activities during high school. Findings from McNeal (1995) cited students who participated in activities were 1.7 times more likely to graduate. The current study found that Hispanic students who participated in activities were 12 times more likely to graduate from high school than Hispanic students who did not participate in activities. The findings from the current study support research by Mahoney and Cairns (1997) and McNeal (1995).

The current study examined the extent to which participation status and gender affected graduation status of Hispanic students. Whitley (1999) found all male athlete subgroups outperformed their nonathletic counterparts when earning a high school diploma. Furthermore, Mahoney and Cairns (1997) found no significant impact by gender on graduation status and participation. This contradicts Sabo (1986), who found female Hispanic athletes were three times more likely to graduate than nonathletic females. The current study found graduation status was affected by participation status and gender, which contradicts Mahoney and Cairns (1997). Statistically significant relationships were found between participation status, gender, and graduation status, in that male students were 30 times more likely to graduate from high school if participating in activities whereas females were 6 times more likely to graduate from high school.

Research conducted by Davalos et al. (1999) did not find a significant difference in Hispanic students' graduation status according to the type of activities in which

students participated. The findings of the current study contradict research conducted by Davalos et al. (1999) which found no increase in student graduation status. The present study showed a statistically significant relationship between Hispanic students' graduation status and participation in extracurricular activities and participation in cocurricular activities. Students who participated in extracurricular activities were 10 times more likely to graduate from high school than compared to those students who participated in cocurricular activities, who were eight times more likely to graduate from high school.

Mahoney and Cairns (1997) reported no significant impact on graduation status by students' participation in activities and gender. Davalos et al. (1999) cited students' gender and ethnicity were not significant predictors of graduation status. Students who participated in extracurricular activities were 2.21 times more likely to graduate (Davalos et al., 1999). Band, a cocurricular activity, was not found to have a significant impact on a student's graduation status, as did extracurricular activities (Davalos et al., 1999). The findings of the current study supported research conducted by Davalos et al. (1999). Statistically significant relationships were found between participation in extracurricular or cocurricular activities, gender, and graduation status, in that male students were 23 times more likely to graduate from high school if participating in extracurricular activities and 38 times more likely to graduate when participating in cocurricular activities. Female students were five times more likely to graduate from high school if they participated in extracurricular activities and four times more likely to graduate if they participated in cocurricular activities.

Studies have concluded that the higher number of activities a student participated in reflected higher GPAs (Cooper et al., 1999; Feltz & Weiss, 1984), thus increasing the likelihood of graduating from high school. Findings of the current study support research conducted by Cooper et al. (1999) and Feltz and Weiss (1984). The current study found a statistically significant relationship between the number of activities in which students participated and graduation status.

Conclusions

This study was the first of this nature in the Emporia School District. It is also one of the few conducted in the state that focused on Hispanic students' GPAs and graduation status among those who participated in KSHSAA-sponsored activities and those who did not participate. The implications of this study could be used to help educators across the nation examine the academic success and graduation status of Hispanic students.

Implications for action. The findings of this study should encourage students, parents, teachers, administrators, board members, and other stakeholders to value Hispanic students' participation in activities. An awareness of the benefits of participation would provide educators the rationale for encouraging all students to participate. All school staff needs to educate students and parents on the importance of participating in activities. Parents could benefit from the knowledge of the health and academic benefits associated with participation. Schools should design class schedules that allow all students the best opportunity to participate in activities before, during, or after school.

Hispanic youth are the fastest growing minority population in the nation (United States Census Bureau, 2012) and the most likely not to graduate from high school (Chapman et al., 2011). The study will give leaders of the Emporia School District, and other educational leaders in the state, valuable data when making fiscal and systemic choices concerning the development and maintenance of its activities programs. It will also assist the district in making future recommendations or changes to enhance the learning of all students to increase the likelihood that all Hispanic students graduate from high school.

Recommendations for future research. This study allowed the researcher to explore activity participation and academic success of Hispanic students. The following recommendations are made for other researchers interested in conducting a study involving the impact participation status has on Hispanic students' success.

The first recommendation is to replicate the study using a mixed methods design that includes a qualitative focus to identify the reasons for participation of Hispanic students. This would allow the researcher to examine other determining factors such as relationship with adults, school aspiration, attendance, discipline, and sense of belonging.

The second recommendation for future research is to expand the sample size and include other Kansas high schools with similar demographics. The larger sample size may provide more precise data and the ability to make the appropriate pedagogical and systemic changes for districts.

The third recommendation for future research is to use longitudinal data to allow for a larger sample size and extended time to conduct a survey to collect results.

Longitudinal data is accessible through state departments of education or the National Center for Education Statistics.

The final recommendation for future research is to include middle school Hispanic students to identify the reasons for lack of participation or decreased academic success. High school may be too late to begin addressing the problem of Hispanic students not being involved in activities. This would provide opportunity for educators to begin encouraging participation in activities as early as the 6th grade.

Concluding remarks. In today's high stakes educational climate, it will be critical to ensure that all students are prepared for their future upon leaving high school. Creating a learning environment that increases the likelihood that Hispanic students will graduate should be a major focus in schools. A body of research exists that suggests participation in activities has a direct positive impact on the academic success of Hispanic students. This study found similar results. Participation in activities is likely to support increased GPAs and a higher likelihood of graduating for Hispanic students at the high school level. This study will empower other researchers, educators, and districts to find the answers necessary to help all Hispanic students achieve academic success.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Emporia USD 253 Application to do Research

EMPORIA U.S.D. #253
Emporia, Kansas

APPLICATION TO DO RESEARCH

Name Britton Hart Phone 620-794-7571
Address 2828 Timmerman Dr., Emporia, Kansas, 66801

State briefly the purposes of the study and summarize the procedures to be employed:

The purpose of this study is to determine if a difference in Grade Point Average (GPA) exists between Hispanic students who are participants and those who are non-participants in Kansas High School Activities Association (KSHSAA) extracurricular activities. This study will further examine the possible conditions and influences that participation in extracurricular activities may have on GPA. The study will focus on Hispanic seniors who were enrolled at Emporia High School during the 2007-2011. The study will identify if a difference in GPA is present among participants and non-participants in activities. The study will further examine if the students GPA is affected by the independent variables of the number of activities a participant participates in, gender, graduation rate, and ethnicity.

Archival data from the superintendent's report will be used for the past four senior classes at Emporia High School. Information in this report will include student's gender, GPA, SES, and ethnicity. Each student will be assigned a random number and names will not be mentioned in this study. No students or staff will be contacted as part of the study.

School(s) and grade(s) to be involved Emporia High School Senior Students
Number of pupils involved Approximately 100 subjects from each class totally 400 total subjects
If one child only, give name and grade Individual subjects will not be contacted as part of this study

Amount of pupil time involved Subjects will not be asked to volunteer any time in this study

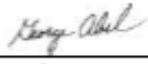
Attach: Specimen of tests or questionnaires to be used.

Endorsement.

I AGREE TO SUBMIT PROMPTLY TO THE EMPORIA UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT A COPY OF ALL DATA AND INFORMATION COLLECTED IN THE SCHOOLS AND A SUMMARY OR EXTRACT OF THE RESULTING ARTICLE, RESEARCH REPORT, THESIS, OR DISSERTATION INDICATING FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS. I further agree to respect the confidential nature of information that will become available and to use it only in a highly professional manner. The data will not be used for purposes other than state above or made available to others except as herein stated without the prior approval of the Emporia Unified School District.



Signature of Applicant

Approved by:  * as per the conditions below
Final Approval Granted on January 11, 2012 (date)

* Approval is granted to access and study individual student information. The reporting of finding must be at the aggregate level only. No individually identifiable student information can be included in any report or release concerning any part of the study.

Form R-1
Policy ME

Appendix B: Baker University IRB Form



Date: 4-1-13

School of education
Graduate department

IRB PROTOCOL NUMBER _____
(irb USE ONLY)


**IRB Request
Proposal for Research**

Submitted to the Baker University Institutional Review Board

I. Research Investigator(s) (Students must list faculty sponsor first)

Department(s) **School of Education Graduate Department**

Name	Signature	
1. Dr. Verneda Edwards	_____	Major Advisor
2. Katie Hole	_____	Research Analyst
3. Dr. Susan Rogers		University Committee Member
4. TBD		External Committee Member

Principal Investigator: Britton Hart 
 Phone: 620-794-7571
 Email: britton.hart@usd253.net
 Mailing address: 2828 Timmerman Dr., Emporia, Kansas 66801

Faculty sponsor: Dr. Verneda Edwards
 Phone: 913-344-1227
 Email: vedwards@bakeru.edu

Expected Category of Review: ___Exempt ___X___Expedited ___Full

**II: Protocol: THE EFFECTS OF PARTICIPATING IN ACTIVITIES ON THE
ACADEMIC SUCCESS OF HISPANIC STUDENTS**

Summary

In a sentence or two, please describe the background and purpose of the research.

The purpose of this study is to determine if a difference in grade point average (GPA) and graduation status exists between Hispanic students in a Midwestern high school who are participants in Kansas High School Activities Association (KSHSAA) extracurricular and/or cocurricular activities or those who do not participate. This study will further examine the possible conditions and influences that participation in extracurricular activities and/or cocurricular activities may have on GPA and graduation. The study will focus on four consecutive cohort classes of senior Hispanic students who were enrolled at Emporia High School in the years 2009-2010, 2010-2011, 2011-2012, and 2012-2013. Emporia High School has experienced a dramatic increase in Hispanic students over the past decade. Due to the increased Hispanic population, the district is investigating methods to address the academic success of all students, particularly Hispanic students. The district hopes the benefit of higher participation could result in increased graduation status for Hispanic student participants. Furthermore, an increased graduation status may also have a positive impact on the level of academic success individual students will have in society.

Briefly describe each condition or manipulation to be included within the study.

The researcher will examine whether participation in KSHSAA activities has had an affect on the GPA and graduation status of Hispanic students. This will be determined by examining data regarding participation over four cohort years. Participation for the purpose of this study will be defined as a student who participates in any KSHSAA-sponsored extracurricular and/or cocurricular activity. The study will identify if a difference in GPAs and graduation status is present among participants in activities. The study will analyze if the students' GPA and graduation status is affected by the independent variables of the number of activities a participant participates in, the type of activity (extracurricular or cocurricular), and gender. Dependent variables reflect the grade point average and graduation status among students based on their participation.

What measures or observations will be taken in the study? If any questionnaire or other instruments are used, provide a brief description and attach a copy.
Will the subjects encounter the risk of psychological, social, physical or legal risk? If so, please describe the nature of the risk and any measures designed to mitigate that risk.

Student data for this study will be archival, and obtained through the district's PowerSchool database. The study will not utilize an instrument. No risk of psychological, social, physical, or legal risk will be encountered by the subjects.

Will any stress to subjects be involved? If so, please describe.

No, there will not be any stress to the subjects of this study.

Will the subjects be deceived or misled in any way? If so, include an outline or script of the debriefing.

No, the subjects in this study will not be misled in anyway.

Will there be a request for information which subjects might consider to be personal or sensitive? If so, please include a description.

Archival data from the Kansas Department of Education (KSDE) Dropout and Graduation Report will be used for four graduating cohort classes at Emporia High School. Information in this report includes each student's name, SSID Number, cohort exit year, gender, and ethnicity. Identifying data will not be known to the researcher. Subjects will not be asked to volunteer any sensitive or personal information for this study.

Will the subjects be presented with materials which might be considered to be offensive, threatening, or degrading? If so, please describe.

The subjects will not be contacted as part of this study.

Approximately how much time will be demanded of each subject?

No time will be demanded of the subjects.

Who will be the subjects in this study? How will they be solicited or contacted? Provide an outline or script of the information which will be provided to subjects prior to their volunteering to participate. Include a copy of any written solicitation as well as an outline of any oral solicitation.

The subjects in the study will be Hispanic students from Emporia High School from four cohort years. Subjects will not be contacted in any way as part of this study, as students' archived data will be used.

What steps will be taken to insure that each subject's participation is voluntary? What if any inducements will be offered to the subjects for their participation?

Archival data will be used for the study and the subjects will not be asked to participate. All subjects will be referred to by the SSID number that is present in the Dropout Graduation Summary Report. No inducements will be offered to subjects of this study.

How will you insure that the subjects give their consent prior to participating? Will a written consent form be used? If so, include the form. If not, explain why not.

Archival data will be used from the Emporia School District. The researcher submitted a request to conduct research in the Emporia School District (see Appendix A).

Will any aspect of the data be made a part of any permanent record that can be identified with the subject? If so, please explain the necessity.

No, data from this study will not be made a part of any permanent record that can be identified with the subjects.

Will the fact that a subject did or did not participate in a specific experiment or study be made part of any permanent record available to a supervisor, teacher or employer? If so, explain.

No, the subjects from this study will not be made a part of any permanent record that can be identified for future purposes.

What steps will be taken to insure the confidentiality of the data? Where will it be stored? How long will it be stored? What will be done with it after the study is completed?

The researcher submitted an application to conduct research to the Emporia School District to obtain student data from the Dropout Graduation Summary Report and GPA data from the PowerSchool information system. Data generated for this study will not be used for any other purposes. No names or other identification will be available to identify the subjects in this study. All data will be stored on a district server during the duration of the study. Aggregate data collected will be shared with Baker University and the Emporia School District once the study is completed. Based on Baker University research guidelines the data collected from this study will be stored on a CD-Rom for at least three years, after which, it will be destroyed.

If there are any risks involved in the study, are there any offsetting benefits that might accrue to either the subjects or society?

There are no risks to the subjects or society as part of conducting the study. Implications of this study may lead to further research that could identify steps to create means for higher participation of Hispanic students in activities. The benefit of higher participation could result in increased graduation status for Hispanic student participants. Furthermore, an increased graduation status may also have a positive impact on the level of academic success individual students will have in society.

Will any data from files or archival data be used? If so, please describe.

Yes, data from the Dropout Graduation Summary Report compiled by KSDE will be used to identify each student's gender, grade in school, ethnicity, and graduation status. The high school registrar, for the purpose of this study, will generate a report from PowerSchool for students' ending year GPA for each of the cohort years included in the study. This will provide the needed data to investigate whether participation in KSHSAA-sponsored activities impacts the GPA and graduation rates of Hispanic students.

Appendix C: Baker University IRB Approval



April 8, 2013

Mr. Britton Hart
2828 Timmerman Dr.
Emporia, KS 66801

Dear Mr. Hart:

The Baker University IRB has reviewed your research project application (E-0175-0402-0408-G) and approved this project under Expedited Review. As described, the project complies with all the requirements and policies established by the University for protection of human subjects in research. Unless renewed, approval lapses one year after approval date.

The Baker University IRB requires that your consent form must include the date of approval and expiration date (one year from today). Please be aware of the following:

1. At designated intervals (usually annually) until the project is completed, a Project Status Report must be returned to the IRB.
2. Any significant change in the research protocol as described should be reviewed by this Committee prior to altering the project.
3. Notify the OIR about any new investigators not named in original application.
4. Any injury to a subject because of the research procedure must be reported to the IRB Chair or representative immediately.
5. When signed consent documents are required, the primary investigator must retain the signed consent documents for at least three years past completion of the research activity. If you use a signed consent form, provide a copy of the consent form to subjects at the time of consent.
6. If this is a funded project, keep a copy of this approval letter with your proposal/grant file.

Please inform Office of Institutional Research (OIR) or myself when this project is terminated. As noted above, you must also provide OIR with an annual status report and receive approval for maintaining your status. If your project receives funding which requests an annual update approval, you must request this from the IRB one month prior to the annual update. Thanks for your cooperation. If you have any questions, please contact me.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Carolyn Doolittle". The signature is written in a cursive, flowing style with some loops and flourishes.

Carolyn Doolittle, EdD
Chair, Baker University IRB

Appendix D: Research Question 5 – Post Hoc Analysis

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	16
0		-.491	-.575	-.688	-.693	-.834	-.833	-.626	-1.077	-.775	-1.297	-1.047	-1.39	-.879	-1.48	-1.59
		.000	.000	.000	.000	.007	.000	.015	.000	.055	.001	.066	.000	.059	.009	.048
1	.491*		-.084	-.197	-.202	-.343	-.342	-.135	-.587*	-.284	-.806	-.556	-.899*	-.388	-.989	-1.10
	.000	.630	.297	.255	.287	.181	.624	.043	.495	.053	.335	.005	.414	.087	.174	
2	.575*	.084		-.114	-.118	-.259	-.258	-.051	-.503	-.200	-.722	-.472	-.815*	-.304	-.905	-1.016
	.000	.630	.580	.542	.434	.335	.858	.094	.637	.088	.417	.014	.528	.121	.211	
3	.688*	.197	.114		-.005	-.146	-.145	.062	-.389	-.086	-.608	-.359	-.702*	-.191	-.791	-.903
	.000	.297	.580	.981	.668	.602	.834	.207	.841	.156	.541	.039	.696	.178	.269	
4	.693*	.202	.118	.005		-.141	-.140	.067	-.384	-.081	-.604	-.354	-.697*	-.186	-.786	-.898
	.000	.255	.542	.981	.672	.604	.817	.202	.848	.155	.544	.037	.700	.178	.270	
5	.834*	.343	.259	.146	.141		.001	.208	-.243	.06	-.463	-.213	-.556	-.045	-.645	-.757
	.007	.287	.434	.668	.672	.998	.598	.547	.905	.357	.74	.194	.935	.315	.377	
6	.833*	.342	.258	.145	.14	-.001		.207	-.244	.059	-.464	-.214	-.557	-.046	-.646	-.758
	0	.181	.335	.602	.604	.998	.546	.489	.899	.316	.727	.144	.929	.291	.363	
7	.626*	.135	.051	-.062	-.067	-.208	-.207		-.451	-.148	-.671	-.421	-.764	-.253	-.853	-.965
	.015	.624	.858	.834	.817	.598	.546	.22	.754	.157	.498	.053	.632	.169	.251	
8	1.077*	.587*	.503	.389	.384	.243	.244	.451		.303	-.219	.03	-.313	.198	-.402	-.514
	0	.043	.094	.207	.202	.547	.489	.22	.529	.648	.961	.438	.71	.521	.543	
9	.775	.284	.2	.086	.081	-.06	-.059	.148	-.303		-.522	-.273	-.616	-.105	-.705	-.816
	.055	.495	.637	.841	.848	.905	.899	.754	.529	.357	.694	.22	.864	.31	.362	
10	1.297*	.806	.722	.608	.604	.463	.464	.671	.219	.522		.25	-.093	.418	-.183	-.294
	.001	.053	.088	.156	.155	.357	.316	.157	.648	.357	.719	.852	.495	.792	.742	
11	1.047	.556	.472	.359	.354	.213	.214	.421	-.03	.273	-.25		-.343	.168	-.433	-.544
	.066	.335	.417	.541	.544	.74	.727	.498	.961	.694	.719	.593	.818	.589	.579	
12	1.390*	.899*	.815*	.702*	.697*	.556	.557	.764	.313	.616	.093	.343		.511	-.089	-.201
	0	.005	.014	.039	.037	.194	.144	.053	.438	.22	.852	.593	.355	.889	.814	
13	.879	.388	.304	.191	.186	.045	.046	.253	-.198	.105	-.418	-.168	-.511		-.601	-.712
	.059	.414	.528	.696	.7	.935	.929	.632	.71	.864	.495	.818	.355	.412	.441	
14	1.480*	.989	.905	.791	.786	.645	.646	.853	.402	.705	.183	.433	.089	.601		-.111
	.009	.087	.121	.178	.178	.315	.291	.169	.521	.31	.792	.589	.889	.412	.909	
16	1.591*	1.1	1.016	.903	.898	.757	.758	.965	.514	.816	.294	.544	.201	.712	.111	
	.048	.174	.211	.269	.27	.377	.363	.251	.543	.362	.742	.579	.814	.441	.909	

Note. The starred mean difference values are statistically significant at $\alpha = .05$. Each mean difference was calculated by subtracting the total amount of activities listed in the first row from the activity amount listed in the first column. For example, the mean difference between zero activities and one activity is -0.491 ($p = .000$).