

**THE IMPACT OF SPORT, URBANICITY, GENDER, AND DEMOGRAPHICS
ON HIGH SCHOOL COACHES' PERCEPTIONS OF NO PASS, NO PLAY
IN EDUCATIONAL SERVICE CENTER, REGION 20, TEXAS**

A Dissertation

by

JENNIFER JOHNSON KENNEDY

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

August 2007

Major Subject: Educational Administration

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Approved by:

Chair of Committee,
Committee Members,

Mario S. Torres
Paul Batista
John Hoyle
Robert Slater

Head of Department,

Jim Scheurich

August 2007

Major Subject: Educational Administration

ABSTRACT

The Impact of Sport, Urbanicity, Gender, and Demographics on
High School Coaches' Perceptions of No Pass, No Play in
Educational Service Center, Region 20, Texas. (August 2007)

Jennifer Johnson Kennedy, B.S. Texas A&M University;

M.S., Texas A&M University

Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. Mario S. Torres

The major purpose of this study was to determine how no pass, no play has impacted the perceptions of academic player eligibility as perceived by high school coaches in Educational Service Center, Region 20, Texas. Variables such as coach characteristics, school characteristics, and community characteristics were researched. In addition, the study examined the influence gender and ethnicity of the coach had on their perceptions of no pass, no play.

The study focused on the perceptions of coaches to no pass, no play relating to (1) student motivation, (2) instructional issues, (3) ethnicity specific variables, (4) student suspension variables. The relationship between poverty status in the district, annual household income, the type of sport, and demographic variables such as the gender, experience level, and ethnicity of the coach were also examined.

Respondents' answers were dependent upon a number of variables. The gender of the coach was a variable that reappeared as significant throughout the study. The

ethnicity of the coach and minority population in the school also showed to be significant variables. Lastly, the type of sport, poverty status in the district, percentage of economically disadvantaged students on the campus, the annual dropout rate, and annual household income were also variables that significantly impacted the study.

Findings of the study included:

1. Female coaches were four times more likely than male coaches to believe that no pass, no play was an effective motivational tool.
2. Female coaches were 87% more likely to feel that allowing students to practice while they are ineligible to participate motivated students to stay in school.
3. As the annual household income in the district increased, so did the likelihood that the coach perceived students to feel threatened by no pass, no play, resulting in increased study time by the students.
4. The type of sport did not have an impact on coaches' perceptions that in order to influence student eligibility, parents and student-athletes challenge failing grades assigned by teachers.
5. As the number of ineligible students increased, the likelihood of an athlete making better grades following suspension decreased.

DEDICATION

This project is dedicated to members of my family who were steadfast in their love, support, and encouragement throughout the duration of the effort. First, to my mother and my father who have always been supportive of my endeavors and who instilled in me a strong work ethic, without which I would not have been able to accomplish this personal goal. My parents have provided so much for me during all my years of higher education, and I am eternally grateful to them for this sacrifice. Second, to my grandmother who has never missed a chance to let me know how proud she is of me. Her incessant encouragement remained with me and has served, through the years, as inspiration and motivation for my aspirations. Third, to my sister, for always being there when I needed her. Next, to my husband Ross, for his never ending encouragement, patience, assistance, and understanding of the many hours I spent on the computer, researching, writing, studying, and attending classes. I will never forget his willingness to help whenever help was needed, listen whenever I was frustrated and stressed, or offer encouragement to let me know I would in fact one day finish my degree.

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I would like to express my sincere appreciation to each of the members of my committee for affording me the educational opportunity of a lifetime.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The team left the dressing room and gathered behind a huge banner that had been painstakingly made by the cheerleaders. It took up almost half the end zone and was fortified by the Pepettes with pieces of rope like in some scene of war from the Middle Ages. It became a curtain. The players congregated behind it in the liquid, fading light, yelling, screaming, pounding each other on the shoulder pads and the helmets, furious to be finally set loose onto the field to revel in the thrilling roar of the crowd. The fans couldn't see the players yet, but they could hear them bellowing behind that banner and they could see their arms and knees and helmets push against it and make it stretch. The buildup was infectious, making one's heart beat faster and faster. Suddenly, like a fantastic present coming unwrapped, the players burst through the sign, ripping it to shreds, little pieces of it floating into the air. They poured out in a steady stream, and the crowd rose to its feet. The stillness was ruptured by a thousand different sounds smashing into each other in wonderful chaos—deep-throated yells, violent exhortations, giddy screams, hoarse whoops. The people in the stands lost all sight of who they were and what they were supposed to be like, all dignity and restraint thrown aside because of these high school boys in front of them, their boys, *their* heroes, upon whom they vested all their vicarious thrills, all their dreams. No connection in all of sports was more intimate than this one, the one between town and high school. (Bissinger, 1990, p. 14)

This quote from Bissinger is present in his book *Friday Night Lights*, a novel about a school and town and their obsession with high school football. In Texas, athletics is not a privilege as many might think; it is a necessity and a right of passage for many students. A unique relationship is present between students and school athletics and students will do just about anything to maintain eligibility and continue the recognition and fame associated with being a part of the school team. It is so much a

This dissertation follows the style of the *Journal of Educational Research*.

priority that in the past academics was treated with secondary importance. In Texas, this is no longer the case as something had to be done to see that students were successful not only on the field of play, but in the classroom as well.

Prior to January 1985, students were required to pass at least three classes a semester to maintain eligibility for extracurricular activities for the following semester (Sabatino, 1994). In 1984, House Bill 72 was passed and included the no pass, no play provision prohibiting students from participating in extracurricular activity if they failed any classes (Texas Education Agency [TEA], 2004). The original no pass, no play provision required that ineligible students remain ineligible for the full six weeks following (Sabatino, 1994). In 1995, Senate Bill I came into effect and reduced the student suspension time from six weeks to three weeks. The Texas Education Code (1995), Chapter 33, statute 33.081 states:

- (c) A student who is enrolled in a school district in this state or who participates in a University Interscholastic League competition shall be suspended from participating in any extracurricular activity sponsored or sanctioned by the school district or the University Interscholastic League after a grade evaluation period in which the student received a grade lower than the equivalent of 70 on a scale of 100 in any academic class other than an identified honors or advanced class. A suspension continues for at least three school weeks and is not removed during the school year until the conditions of Subsection (d) are met. A suspension does not last beyond the end of the

school year. For purposes of this subsection, “grade evaluation period”

means:

- (1) the six-week grade reporting period; or
 - (2) the first six weeks of a semester and each grade reporting period thereafter, in the case of a district with a grade reporting period longer than six weeks.
- (f) A student suspended under this section may practice or rehearse with other students for an extracurricular activity but may not participate in a competition or other public performance (p. 9-10).

Records of students’ lost eligibility, the relationship between students’ participation in extracurricular activities and their academic achievement, the possible effects of the policy with regard to students’ gender and ethnicity, or the size and nature of the school have not been monitored. Davis (1996) contends that research on no pass, no play could have possibly supported the provision or could have spotlighted troublesome consequences as a result of the provision.

Research on No Pass, No Play Perceptions

Mathis (1989) found that although greater than 60% of principals favored the no pass, no play provision, only 16% of coaches favored the provision. Mathis reports that several Texas researchers have found a majority of teachers and students support the statute. Educators in favor of academic standards for eligibility argue that rules which increase academic demands will result in better preparation at the high school level

(Emmons, 1995). Students recognized as high achievers were found in a study by Motsinger (1993) to support the rules of no pass, no play at a higher percentage than other students.

One study conducted in the Austin Independent School District found that the no pass, no play provision did not create the negative impact that was feared by many stakeholders such as administrators, parents, coaches, and teachers. The study found that between the 1984-1985 school year and the 1992-1993 school year, the percentage of students remaining eligible for participation increased six percent from 41% to 47%. During the same time period, student athletes had the highest increase in eligibility rate from 47% to 60%, and students involved in extracurricular activities dropped out at a lower rate each year. In addition, overall enrollment in honors classes increased 11%, while students involved in extracurricular activities increased their enrollment in honors classes by 12% (Sabatino, 1994).

Without question, no pass, no play has had significant impact on each individual involved with extracurricular activities. As noted above, past studies have found more support for no pass, no play from administrators, teachers, and students than from coaches. It is important to examine, if indeed, coaches are less supportive of the provision. In addition, it is important to understand their perceptions of the provision and to what extent individual, school, and community characteristics influence these perceptions.

Statement of the Problem

When students receive outside motivation to do well in their classes, regardless of the root of the motivation, there is a possibility their grades will be positively affected. Coaches must work to keep their athletes eligible. In schools where there are low numbers of students participating, it will substantially impact extracurricular programs if there are high percentages of failures. Ethnicity could be a potential factor as cultural variables could have an impact on a coach's perception of the provision.

In this study, the researcher explored a number of variables that potentially impacted coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play. This study first examined the poverty status of the district, annual household income within the district, the percentage of economically disadvantaged students in the school, and the percentage of students that passed all their TAKS tests in 2005-2006. The study also examined whether or not coaches potentially place more or less stress upon their athletes depending upon the sport in which they coach. Lastly, the study examined if the gender and ethnicity of both the coach and athlete could impact the coaches' perceptions of the provision.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the degree to which no pass, no play impacted the perceptions of academic player eligibility as perceived by high school coaches in Educational Service Center (ESC), Region 20, Texas. This study attempted to determine if the type of sport had any impact on the perceptions coaches had on no

pass, no play. Demographic variables such as the economically disadvantaged population of the school were researched. In addition, the study attempted to ascertain if a relationship existed between the gender and ethnicity of a coach and their perceptions of no pass, no play.

Research Questions

The study explored the following research questions:

1. In selected Texas ESC Region 20 high schools, what perceptions did coaches develop as a result of “no pass, no play?”
 - a. To what extent did the coach’s gender, ethnicity, and experience impact their perceptions of “no pass, no play” in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?
 - b. How much influence did the type of sport play in coaches’ perceptions of “no pass, no play” in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?
2. Did the school minority enrollment, percentage of economically disadvantaged students, annual dropout rate, annual household income, poverty status of the district, and school academic performance have any impact on coaches’ perceptions of no pass, no play in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?
3. In Texas ESC Region 20 high schools, how much influence did no pass, no play have in motivating student athletes to work to maintain a 70 or above in each course, according to the perspective of the respondent coach?

4. How much influence did student outcomes as a result of no pass, no play have on coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play in selected high schools, ESC Region 20, Texas?

Operational Definitions

Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS): The reporting system used by TEA to provide specific yearly data and information on school districts and schools in Texas.

Demographic Variables: Variables studied which consisted of: coaching experience, gender of the coach and/or athlete, ethnicity of the coach and/or athlete, and the economically disadvantaged population of the school, annual household income, and the poverty status in the district.

Educational Service Center, Region 20: Educational Service Center, Region 20 is one of twenty state service centers established by the Texas Legislature in 1967 to provide school districts with professional training and technical assistance that support statewide goals for school improvement. ESC, Region 20, serves a fifteen county area that consists of 51 school districts.

Extracurricular Activity: An activity sponsored by the University Interscholastic League (UIL), the school district boards of trustees, or an organization sanctioned by resolution of the board of trustees.

HB 72: A Texas law passed in 1984 that required all students involved in school sponsored extracurricular classes to pass all classes with a 70 or above in order to be

eligible for participation. Students not meeting this requirement were ineligible for the next six weeks and were prohibited from practicing during this time.

High School Coach: A person listed in the 2005-2006 Clell Wade Coaches' Directory as the head coach of a varsity sport in a high school in ESC, Region 20, Texas.

No Pass, No Play: A law requiring student athletes to pass all their classes in order to be eligible to participate in extracurricular activity. In Texas, if a student fails a class, they can regain eligibility at the three-week period by passing all classes.

Player Eligibility: The academic requirement an athlete must meet in order to be eligible for UIL extracurricular activities in Texas.

School Size: The division a school has been placed in based upon their high school enrollment. In Texas, the UIL (2005) has defined the divisions and their criteria as the following: 5A (1,925 and up), 4A (900-1924), 3A (390-899), 2A (190-389), 1A (189 and below).

Senate Bill I: A Texas law passed in 1995 that altered the provisions in HB 72. Under Senate Bill I, students are still required to pass all classes with a 70 or above to be eligible to participate. However, at the six week period if a student is passing all classes the student regains eligibility. In addition, the student is allowed to practice during the time of suspension.

Stress Level: The level of apprehension or concern of a coach caused by the end of a grading period where students can lose and gain eligibility.

Suspension: The length of time in which a student is ineligible to participate in school or UIL sponsored extracurricular activities after a grading period where the

student received a grade lower than a 70 on a scale of 100 in any academic class other than an identified honors or advanced class.

Texas Education Agency: The governing agency for school districts in Texas. Known as TEA, this agency is responsible for administering and overseeing, among other things, school accountability and performance, school finances, and state education policies.

University Interscholastic League: The governing agency for extracurricular activities in Texas public schools.

Varsity Sports: In ESC, Region 20, Texas, a varsity sport consists of: soccer, football, tennis, cross-country, track, baseball, softball, volleyball, basketball, golf, and swimming, badminton, power lifting, track and field, and wrestling.

Assumptions

1. The respondents surveyed understand the scope of the study, the language of the instrument, were competent in self-reporting, and responded objectively and honestly.
2. Interpretation of the data accurately reflected the intent of the respondent.
3. The methodology proposed and described here offered a logical and appropriate design for this particular research study.
4. The instrument used to collect data captured the coaches' degree of awareness of no pass, no play at their campus.

Limitations

1. The study was limited to the select number of school districts within ESC, Region 20, Texas, and the findings were generalized only to these public schools.
2. Recent no pass, no play research is limited as the topic has not received a great deal of attention in recent years.
3. This study was limited to the information acquired from the literature review and survey instruments.
4. The data used in the study were collected in 2006. The school AEIS variables used is data available from the 2005-2006 school year. The census data used are from the 2000 census. Therefore, some of the reported data may not accurately reflect current populations and statistics.

Significance of the Study

State athletic and activity associations have required students to achieve a minimum grade level to remain eligible (Mathis, 1989). Higher academic standards for participation in extracurricular activities continue to receive attention at the state level (Pipho, 1986). In 1984, House Bill 72 was enacted in Texas and included a no pass, no play provision that prohibited students from participating in extracurricular activities for six weeks if they received a grade of less than 70 in any of their classes (TEA, 2004). The law was changed in 1995, with the enactment of Senate Bill I. This bill reduced the

time of suspension from six weeks to three weeks (TEA, 2004). Opinions of the law have been mixed, as some feel that the no pass, no play penalty can be devastating for students (Mathis, 1989).

A study conducted in Austin Independent School District found that the no pass, no play provision, on balance, appears to have a positive effect (Sabatino, 1994). Eligibility of student athletes increased than in the years before the provision (Sabatino, 1994). This study also found that from 1984-1985 through 1992-1993, students involved in extracurricular activities dropped out at lower rates than their classmates that were not involved in extracurricular activities (Sabatino, 1994). Little research has been conducted on no pass, no play and the positive and negative consequences associated with the provision (Davis, 1996). The present study attempts to add to the existing research of this policy by investigating the influence of individual coach characteristics and school demographics on the perceptions of coaches.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Section I: Introduction

In this section, an introduction to no pass, no play and extracurricular activities is included. In addition, levels of participation and information on the opinions people have of no pass, no play is discussed. This section also explains measures that various states took to implement minimum academic standards for students participating in extracurricular activities. Lastly in this section, the phases of development of extracurricular activities are explained.

Student activities programs provide many benefits and significant learning opportunities for students of all ages and grade levels. They are an integral part of the educational experience as a whole, and should operate in conjunction with other parts of the total curriculum (Joekel, 1985). According to Slater (1988), extracurricular activities involve courses outside the regular or core curriculum. Co-curricular activities, on the other hand, are those that may be associated with the curriculum such as band or other fine arts programs. A 1984 Gallup poll on the public's attitude toward public schools found that 80% of the public believed that extracurricular activities were important to a young person's education (Gallup, 1985). Marano (1985; p.1) states, "Student activities have become a part of the regular school program because of their close relationship to

academics and also because of their value in supplementing academics with leadership skills training.” It is assumed that involvement in extracurricular activities exposes students to peers and opportunities that they otherwise would not encounter (Davalos et al., 1999).

Level of Participation

Larson and Verma (1999) found that in the United States, children and adolescents spend more than half of their waking hours involved in leisure activities. A student’s ability, socio-economic status, and college plans are hypothesized to be predictors of and are generally positively associated with participation in high school extracurricular activities (Spady, 1970). In schools across the country, large numbers of students are participating in extracurricular activities. In a study that examined the impact of high school extracurricular activities on learning, McNamara (1985) found that nearly 51% of the students in the study participated in athletics. According to the National Educational Longitudinal Study (as cited in Zill et al., 1995), approximately 60% of high school sophomores and 70% of high school seniors participate in at least one extracurricular activity. It is reported by Mahoney et al. (2002), that 75% of 14-year-olds participate in structured extracurricular activities. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (as cited in Feldman & Matjasko, 2005), 43% of all high school seniors participate in athletics. Moreover, 70% of the adolescents interviewed in the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health reported

participating in at least one school-based extracurricular activity (Feldman & Matjasko, 2005).

Change in Posture Toward Extracurricular Activities

A change in emphasis in American schools over the past two decades has occurred, making schools more academic (McNeal, 1999). Specifically, states have taken drastic measures to academically require more of student athletes. Regardless of the state, policy makers have found opposition and a great deal of debate with regard to increasing academic standards for participation in high school athletic programs. Many educators advocate that students participating in extracurricular activities should be required to have academic standards, including a minimum grade point average of a 2.0 (Jones, 1986). Some educators believe that by having higher expectations, student-athletes will improve their GPAs in order to remain eligible for athletics. Jones states that others contend that establishing a 2.0 GPA for athletic participation will mean that some students will not be able to participate in athletics and consequently this will have negative results on their academic pursuits. In a 1984 Gallup poll, 90% of those surveyed believed that students who participate should be required to maintain a minimum grade point average (Gallup, 1985). The imposition of a minimum grade point average is basically applying the Premack Principle which states that one should use more-favored activities to reinforce less-favored activities (Tauber, 1988). In this case, Tauber lists participation in an extracurricular activity, the more favored activity, as a

method to reinforce the studying it can take to earn required grades, the less favored activity.

Durbin (1986) reported that in 1979 the National Federation's membership endorsed a recommended academic standard, which requires students to do passing work in full credit subjects in order to be eligible for participation. Additionally, Durbin states that The National Federation's recommended standard stems from their belief that athletic participation in high school is a valuable educational experience in itself, and is very important to the student's development.

States' Efforts at Establishing Minimum Academic Standards

Across the nation, there is a great deal of variation from state to state with regard to minimum standards for athletics and other extracurricular activities. In West Virginia, the first state to enact such legislation, students were required to carry a C average to be eligible to participate (Harper, 1986). In addition, Harper reported in Virginia, students were required to pass four out of five classes to be eligible. Lastly, in Alaska, Harper found that students must maintain a 1.5 average with no Fs in order to participate.

In 1983, Texas Governor Mark White appointed businessman Ross Perot to head up a commission to study public education reform in Texas. The goal of the commission was to find ways to improve the quality of Texas schools. Perot found that "The typical high school senior was spending 15 minutes a night per subject on homework and 20 hours a week on extracurriculars. . ." (Newsweek, as cited in Tauber, 1988). One of the most controversial of the commission's recommendations enacted into law by the state

legislature was a rule prohibiting any student with a grade below 70 in any course from taking part in extracurricular activities for the following six-week grading period (Flygare, 1985). Coaches, educators, and parents vehemently opposed the law, but nevertheless it passed and is still in effect today. Flygare reported that the law, known in Texas as “no pass, no play”, went into effect in January 1985. Of the policy’s opponents, some characterized it as draconian and sought legal action (Davis, 1996). In *Spring Branch Independent School District v. Stamos*, the constitutional issues of due process and equal protection under the Texas Constitution were addressed (Splitt, 1986). It was concluded that extracurricular activities do not enjoy equal protection as a fundamental right. The judge stated, “A student’s right to participate does not rise to the same level as the right to free speech and free exercise of religion” (Gluckman, 1985, p. 13). Moreover, the court ruled that the no pass, no play law classifies students according to their level of academic achievement and does not create a suspect class (Splitt, 1986). Additionally, the court found the rule to be rationally related to the legitimate state interest of providing quality education (*Spring Branch v. Stamos*, S.W. 2d, as cited in Gluckman, 1985). In 1995, the Texas Legislature revised the no pass, no play law to include a shorter suspension period and to allow students to practice during the suspension period. The Texas Education Code (1995) Statute 33.081, Subchapter D, Extracurricular Activities states:

- (c) A student who is enrolled in a school district in this state or who participates in a University Interscholastic League competition shall be suspended from participation in any extracurricular activity sponsored or sanctioned by the

school district or the University Interscholastic League after a grade evaluation period in which the student received a grade lower than the equivalent of 70 on a scale of 100 in any academic class other than an identified honors or advanced class. A suspension continues for at least three school weeks and is not removed during the school year until the conditions of Subsection (d) are met. A suspension does not last beyond the end of a school year. For purposes of this subsection, “grade evaluation period” means:

- (1) the six-week grade reporting period; or
- (2) the first six weeks of a semester and each grade reporting period thereafter, in the case of a district with a grade reporting period longer than six weeks.

(d) Until the suspension is removed under this subsection or the school year ends, a school district shall review the grades of a student suspended under Subsection (c) at the end of each three-week period following the date on which the suspension began. At the time of a review, the suspension is removed if the student’s grade in each class, other than an identified honors or advanced class, is equal to or greater than the equivalent of 70 on a scale of 100. The principal and each of the student’s teachers shall make the determination concerning the student’s grades.

(e) Suspension of a student with a disability that significantly interferes with the student’s ability to meet regular academic standards must be based on the

student's failure to meet the requirements of the student's individualized education program. The determination of whether a disability significantly interferes with a student's ability to meet regular academic standards must be made by the student's admission, review, and dismissal committee. For purposes of this subsection, "student with a disability" means a student who is eligible for a district's special education program under Section 29.003(b).

- (f) A student suspended under this section may practice or rehearse with other students for an extracurricular activity but may not participate in a competition or other public performance. (p. 9-10)

When the revision was enacted, coaches and athletes of school athletic teams expressed satisfaction with the rule (Davis, 1996). In a study conducted prior to the 1995 changes, Sandefur and Hinely (1991) surveyed teachers and principals and revealed that only 20% of teachers and 14 % principals felt threatened by the pressures brought about in their classes and schools due to no pass, no play rule in interscholastic activities.

Recently, educators and parents in Desoto ISD in Texas, are considering a rule that would prohibit students who fail classes from attending extracurricular events as spectators. Those in favor of the policy feel that if approved, the proposal would motivate students to be more diligent in their studies.

Similar to Texas, other states and districts are grappling with eligibility requirements. The Los Angeles Board of Education addressed several issues with regard to extracurricular activities and eligibility requirements. When implementing minimum

requirements, there is an assumption that all students are able to attain at least a 2.0 average. Those students unable to do this are excluded from participation, and they believe it is unreasonable to expect every student to function at a 2.0 (Frith & Clark, 1984). Moreover, Frith and Clark revealed that the Los Angeles Board of Education feels that students, rather than the educational process, are held responsible for their academic failure and exclusion from activities. Stances on the efficacy of such policies vary. For instance, Harper (1986) questions the implementation of minimum standards asking if the long term effects of minimum standards for athletes will be negative or positive and asking if a minimum grade requirement will lead to grade inflation. Ruffin (1986) feels that the purpose of eligibility requirements is not to penalize students wanting to participate, but to make sure these students understand the primary purpose of attending school, which is to learn and achieve academically.

Those in favor of minimum academic requirements feel that the rigor in academic programs has increased substantially (Smith & Murphy, 1987). Harold Tressel, principal of West High School in Salt Lake City, responded to their no pass, no play policy by saying, "It's forced the coaches to really care about their members academically" (Smith & Murphy, 1987, p. 163). Smith and Murphy's (1987) study found that stricter eligibility rules resulted in increased rigor of academic programs and subsequently more students took honors classes. Van Matre et al. (2000) found that teachers held higher expectancies for students participating in extracurricular activities than for students who did not participate. Joekel (1985) argues that if a student is academically failing, then the student should be spending time on their studies.

Additionally, Joekel states that students that fail to meet the eligibility requirement will be motivated to raise his or her grades in order to participate. Winne and Walsh (1985) found that once students became familiar with a no pass, no play policy, the ineligibility rate decreased. In addition, fewer students became ineligible once a no pass, no play policy has been in effect for a while (Slater, 1988). Evidence produced by Soltz (1986) indicates that students participating in interscholastic athletics maintain significantly higher grades on average than those not involved in competitive sports. Soltz also found that 23% of possible failures were given during a semester in which the student was participating on a team, while 35% of the failures were given during the off-season.

In 1994, a teacher and coach at Milby High School in the Houston Independent School District stated, “At the end of the last grading period, we had more than 1,700 students make at least one grade below 70. This represents 55% of our student body. Something is not working when we are telling 1,700 students they cannot be in athletics, band, clubs, etc.” (Honea, 1994, p. B4). Opponents to minimum academic requirements question how grades and grade point averages can be measured when students have various levels of ability (Joekel, 1985). Moreover, Joekel states that opponents feel that because grades are arbitrary, implementation of minimum eligibility requirements may cause grade inflation and put more pressure on teachers. Frith and Clark (1984) found that some students will be discouraged from taking courses that are challenging to them for fear of losing eligibility. In addition, Frith and Clark state that some students may decide to drop out of school when the opportunity for participation in an extracurricular activity is taken away. At the annual meeting of the American Vocational Association in

December 1989, Frederick McClure, legislative assistant to the president of the United States, stated that the Texas no pass, no play rule not only prevents students who do not pass from participating in student activities, but it even prohibits many students who do pass from participating (Camp, 1990). Inequities may also be present in honors classes as students may fail courses and not be eligible to participate (Ostro, 1984).

Several alternatives have been proposed that can alter or all together eliminate minimum grade requirements. Brown (1988) proposes limiting the class time that students miss for extracurricular activities and/or limiting the amount of practice time required for these activities. Tutorial programs for athletes are suggested as these can assist students in going the extra mile (Ruffin, 1986). A mandatory study hall for all athletes is another method in which educators can emphasize to students that academics and athletics go hand in hand (Jones, 1986). While waiting for practice, athletes can be provided with supervised study or homework assistance (Ricken, 1995). Additionally, implementing weekly grade checks and reducing the length of ineligibility periods is proposed (Brown, 1988). Having a committee comprised of a teacher, the parents of the student, and the principal is another proposed alternative. This committee would monitor the student's performance and determine whether or not they are able to participate in activities (Heron, 1988). However, this plan is quite subjective and would require a great deal of time from all involved stakeholders.

Phases of Development of Extracurricular Activities

Prior to 1900, students were discouraged to participate in extracurricular activities because the primary purpose of school was considered to be solely academic (Gholson, 1985). The history of student activities can be broken in to four separate phases. During phase one, from 1870-1900, educational leaders did not believe that any benefits could be gained from school programs considered extracurricular (Gholson, 1985). Phase two, between 1900-1920, was an era where educational leaders concluded that student clubs and organizations were able to provide learning experiences for students.

During phase two, Gholson reports that the Commission to study the Reorganization of Secondary Schools issued its report identifying the Seven Cardinal Principles, one of these being a suggestion that schools should prepare students for wise use of leisure time. Additionally, Gholson found in 1918 the first college-level course in student activities was offered at Columbia University. The third phase saw the development of parent organizations and increased interest in extracurricular activities. Lastly, Gholson reveals that the fourth phase represents a time where stakeholders including students, teachers, parents, and the school community work together to benefit student activities. As a result of the progress that has been made, students have been provided more opportunities to participate in student activities than ever before.

Section II: Extracurricular Participation Rates

Nationwide participation rates for extracurricular activities, and more specifically for athletics, show that a large number of students in the United States are participating each year. Participation rates for interscholastic extracurricular activities are higher than rates of participation in community-based activities (Wendall, as cited in Lisella & Serwatka, 1996). Additionally, sports activities draw the largest rates of participation (U.S. Department of Education, as cited in Lisella & Serwatka, 1996). Forty-three percent of high school seniors participate in athletics (National Center for Educational Statistics, as cited in Feldman & Matjasko, 2005). The National Center for Educational Statistics (1994) found that 30.4% of 10th and 12th graders participated in team sports in 1992 and 20.3% of 10th and 12th graders participated in individual sports in 1992.

In 1992, The National Center for Educational Statistics studied public school seniors and their reporting of the availability of extracurricular activities, by affluence of school. They found that 99.8% of students in public schools and less affluent schools reported the availability of extracurricular activities. In more affluent schools, 99.9% of students reported the availability of extracurricular activities. More specifically, 98.7% of students reported the availability of team and individual sports in all public schools. 98.6% of students in less affluent schools reported availability of activities and 99.1% of students in more affluent schools reported availability of activities (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1995).

Videon (2002) found in a nationwide study of high schools, that students with a traditional family structure are more likely to participate in activities than those with a family structure that is no longer in tact. Videon also found that students from the South region of the United States show the highest participation rates, followed by the Midwest region, the Northeast region, and the West region.

Section III: General Benefits of Participation in Extracurricular Activities

In Section III, the benefits of participation in extracurricular activities are explained. Academic, socialization, and attendance benefits are discussed. In addition, the impact of extracurricular activities on dropout rates, drug and alcohol usage, male students, female students, student discipline, at-risk students, disadvantaged students, and minority students are each listed.

General Benefits of Participation in Extracurricular Activities

There is a sizeable body of research that demonstrates that participation in athletics is associated with an array of positive educational outcomes (Videon, 2002). Extracurricular activities are believed to instill in students the basic norms and values of the larger society (Serow, 1979) These various activities provide opportunities for advancing adolescent interpersonal competence, inspiring challenging life goals, and promoting educational success (Mahoney et al., 2003). Moreover, student activity programs provide students the opportunity to develop required leadership and communication skills (Marano, 1985). Many corporate recruiters may specifically target

students who supplement their academic achievement with involvement as leaders of organizations and/or athletics, believing that they bring a more attractive profile than those with only exceptional academic performance. Participation in extracurricular activities contributes to learning and it has been found that the most common characteristic of successful people is that they were involved in student activities in school (Mendez, 1984).

In a study by McNamara (1985), it was found that almost one-third of the students in the study stated that meeting and interacting with a variety of people was a benefit of extracurricular activities. Twenty-six percent of students in the same study believed that extracurricular activities provided a learning experience for them. The students that participated in this study found many benefits from participation in extracurricular activities. McNamara (1985; p. 34) lists the following statement that illustrates students' perceptions of the benefits of participating in extracurricular activities: "The extracurricular activities actually taught me more things I need for life than curricular studies have. Academics gave me the basics, extracurricular provided the rest, mainly the experience." Another student in the study stated, "I have learned responsibility, communication, and have enhanced my leadership qualities with participation in extracurricular activities. It has helped me develop emotionally and mentally in a more rounded way. I have also received many fond memories that I will carry with me the rest of my life" (McNamara, 1985, p.34). As a result of this research study, several implications for practice were found. First, students who participate in extracurricular activities can acquire skills and characteristics necessary for developing

maturity and independence. Second, participation provides a sense of belonging. Next, students of high and low academic ability experience success, which is important for a healthy self-image. Participation provides an important balance between work and play. Lastly, students not involved in extracurricular activities are less likely to be earning higher grades (McNamara, 1985).

Academic Benefits of Participation in Extracurricular Activities

Students that participate in extracurricular activities perform better academically than students that do not participate (Broh, 2002; Brown & Steinberg, as cited in Van Matre et al., 2000; Camp, 1990; Coleman, as cited in Otto & Alwin, 1977; Cooper et al., 1999; Hendrixx et al., as cited in Brown & Evans, 2002; Kleese & D'Onofrio, 2000; Melnick et al., 1992; Schafer & Armer, 1968).

More specifically, studies have shown that students that participate in extracurricular activities are more likely to have higher grade point averages than those students that do not participate (Marsh & Kleitman, 2002; National Federation of State High School Associations [NFSHSA], as cited in Stevens & Peltier, 1994; Schafer & Armer, 1968; Soltz, 1986; Sweet, as cited in Camp, 1990). Soltz (1986) found that student athletes' had an average GPA of 2.67 compared to 2.12 for non-participants. In another study, female participants in season were found to have a GPA of 87.7 compared to 87.5 during the off-season. Male participants had a GPA of 84.7 in season and 83.8 out of season (Holloway, 2000). Marsh (1992) suggested that participation in extracurricular activities may increase a student's investment in school, which may

promote better academic attitudes. In addition, Holland and Andre, 1987, found that participation in activity increases educational aspirations and attainment. Zirkel and Gluckman (1993) found in a study that 87% of seniors and 91% of juniors who participated in fall athletics had a GPA of C or above. Sixty-Eight percent of the seniors and 64% of the juniors who did not participate had a GPA of C or above. Moreover, participants are more likely than non-participants to aspire to higher education (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1995).

Impact of Extracurricular Activities on Attendance

A nation wide study found that students who participate in high school athletics are more likely to have better attendance records (Videon, 2002; Durbin, 1986; NFSHSA, as cited in Stevens & Peltier, 1994). A plausible argument for this finding could be that extracurricular participation could be the effect of better-performing and better-attending students, rather than the cause of these student characteristics (Stevens & Peltier, 1994). In a study by the National Center for Educational Statistics (1995), it was found that during the first semester of their senior year, participants reported better attendance than their non-participating counterparts. Half of the participants had no unexcused absences from school and half had never skipped class. Of the non-participants in the study, one-third were found to not have any unexcused absences and two-fifths were found to have never skipped a class. Students involved in extracurricular activity must meet academic requirements to be eligible to participate and by attending school regularly they are more likely to do this. In addition, participating

students have coaches and sponsors that motivate them and monitor factors such as attendance.

Impact of Extracurricular Activities on Dropout Rates

Through research findings, it is suggested that participation in extracurricular activities may increase students' sense of engagement or attachment to their school, thereby decreasing the likelihood of school failure and dropping out (Davalos et al., 1999; Doss, 1986; Durbin, 1986; Finn, 1993; Jable, 1986; Mahoney, 2000; Mahoney & Cairns, 1997; McNeal, 1995; Zill et al., 1995;). Zill et al. (1995) found that participation in one to four hours of extracurricular activities per week was related to a reduced likelihood of dropping out. More specifically, McNeal (1995) found that sports participation was related to a lower probability of school dropout. He found that athletic participation reduces the probability of school dropout by 40%. In Schafer and Armer's study (1968), the drop-out rate for non-athletes was four times higher than for athletes. Additionally, at-risk boys and girls have lower dropout rates when they participate in at least one extracurricular activity (Mahoney, 2000; Mahoney & Cairns, 1997). The National Federation of State High School Associations (NFSHSA, as cited in Stevens & Peltier, 1994) reports that of students that drop out of school, 94% are those that did not join some sort of extracurricular school activity. Moreover, in a study commissioned by the Department of Health and Human Services (Zill et al., 1995), concerning after-school activity, it was found that students who did not participate in after-school activities were 57% more likely to drop out by their senior year. McNeal (1995) showed

that different kinds of activities have varying abilities to control school dropout rates. His study concluded that students who participate in athletics, fine-arts activities, and academic organizations were an estimated 1.7, 1.2, and 1.15 times, respectively, less likely to drop out than those who did not participate.

Several studies have found that extracurricular activities increase retention rates for minority students. Davalos et al. (1999) studied the effects of extracurricular activity on ethnic identification and found that extracurricular activities, with the exclusion of band, were found to have a significant effect on retention rates in school for Mexican Americans. In a separate study, lower dropout rates were found among African American male and Hispanic female varsity athletes from rural school districts and suburban Hispanic boys than among non-participants from the same rural districts Melnick et al. (1992).

One study indicates that dropouts reported having much lower self-esteem than those that remain in school (Ekstrom et al., as cited in Gerber, 1996). As a result of the findings that support the theory that there is a link between self-esteem and participation in extracurricular activity, there is reason to expect a link between participation in extracurricular activity and staying in school (Gerber, 1996). Gerber stated that participation in extracurricular activities provides a vital link to school that may prevent many students from withdrawing, first emotionally, then physically, from school.

Impact of Extracurricular Activities on Drug and Alcohol Usage

Participation in extracurricular activity may provide protection against experimentation with activities such as the use of drugs, alcohol, cigarettes, marijuana, depressants, hallucinogens, and stimulants (Battistich & Horn, as cited in Brown & Evans, 2002; Caldwell & Darling, 1999; Cooley et al., 1995; Harrison & Narayan, 2003; Jable, 1986; Zill et al., 1995). A 1997 study by the Alberta Schools Athletic Association found that students involved in athletics were less likely to smoke or use drugs (Scholfield, 2000). Specifically, Zill et al. (1995) found that compared with students who reported spending one to four hours a week in extracurricular activities, students who reported spending no time in extracurricular activities were 49% more likely to have used drugs and 35% more likely to have smoked cigarettes. The effect of activity participation on drug prevention was found to be even stronger when adolescents spent five to 19 hours per week in extracurricular activities (Zill et al., 1995).

In their research, Harrison and Narayan (2003) found that 30.3% of students in their study that did not participate in extracurricular activities had used cigarettes in the past 30 days as compared to 18% of those that participated in sports. In the same study, 32.5% of non-participants admitted to using marijuana in the past 12 months as compared to 23.4% of sports participants. A separate study (Cooley et al., 1995) found that non-participants used alcohol, marijuana, stimulants, depressants, inhalants, hallucinogens, and cocaine at higher rates than extracurricular participants.

One study found that greater involvement in extracurricular activities was associated with less involvement in problem alcohol use and a lower likelihood of

becoming a problem drinker in subsequent years (Simantov et al., as cited in Harrison & Narayan, 2003). This information provides some insight as to the long-term benefits of extracurricular activity.

Impact of Extracurricular Activities on Male Students

Of all extracurricular activities, males participate in athletics more than any other activity. In 1972, 58% of male seniors participated in athletics. This number rose to 64% in 1980 (Lindsay, 1982). Boys' early participation in extracurricular activities is strongly associated with their educational aspirations (Mahoney et al., 2003). Compared to non-participants, boys participating in extracurricular activities were significantly less likely to use or intend to use alcohol (Eischens et al., 2004).

Research shows that male athletes receive a great deal of benefits as compared to their nonparticipating counterparts. In a study on the effect of varsity sport participation on students, male athletes reported themselves being popular at a higher rate than non-participants (Sabo, 1986). Additionally, male athletes were found to have higher grades and score in the top quartile range than their nonparticipating counterparts. Many more non-participants were reported as dropping out of school by their senior year. Lastly, Sabo found that more male participants were found to be enrolled in a four-year college and/or working towards a bachelor's degree. A number of factors could be attributed to these statistics, however it is apparent that males participating in athletics strive to perform academically as well as athletically.

Impact of Extracurricular Activities on Female Students

In 1972, 32% of women seniors participated in athletics. This percentage rose to 41% in 1980 (Lindsay, 1982). In recent years, sports opportunities for girls have expanded and gender stereotypes have loosened. As a result, benefits of participation in sports for girls may be stronger than ever (Videon, 2002). In case studies of nine high-achieving female high school students, it was reported that these girls identified extracurricular activities as being influential to their success (Reis & Diaz, 1999 as cited in Feldman & Matjasko, 2005). It has been found that girls show more consistent extracurricular participation and reap more benefits from athletics than do boys (Hanson and Kraus, as cited in Videon, 2002; Mahoney et al., 2003). It is presumed that increasing girls' participation in sports would trigger a positive effect and allow their successes to continue from the classroom in to their later careers (Coakley, as cited in Videon, 2002; Lever, as cited in Videon, 2002). Additionally, female high school athletes were found to have higher GPAs during a season of participation than out of the season of participation (Holloway, 2000). Specifically, sports participation was found to lead to better math and science achievement scores among girls (Hanson & Kraus, 1998, as cited in Feldman & Matjasko, 2005). Moreover, for girls, sport participation was found to be associated with enhanced self-esteem (Tracy & Erkut, 2002).

Sabo (1986) found the benefits for girls to be very similar to that for boys. Female athletes were found to have higher grades and test performance than their nonparticipating counterparts. They were less likely to drop out of school. Additionally, there are many self-esteem and social benefits for girls. When asked to list an activity

that makes them feel good about themselves, girls from a range of backgrounds listed athletics (Erkut et al., as cited in Tracy & Erkut, 2002). In a separate study, a physically active group of high school girls reported a significantly more positive self-image and better coping characteristics than their less active peers (Covey & Feltz, 1991, as cited in Tracy & Erkut, 2002). Lastly, they were more likely to attend a four-year college and earn a bachelor's degree than nonparticipating students (Sabo, 1986).

Impact of Extracurricular Activities on Socialization

Americans believe that sport is a training ground for life and that interscholastic athletic programs are believed by the general public to serve important positive socialization functions (Melnick et al., 1992). A number of studies have shown that extracurricular activity involvement may decrease antisocial behavior and related outcomes (Mahoney & Stattin, 2000). Jacobs and Chase (as cited in Holland and Andre, 1995) found that 69% of the students in their study believe that participation in school activities contributes to status and acceptance. Participants in McNamara's (1985) study most frequently mentioned benefits that reflected personal growth and development and focused on social skills. One participant in this study stated, "I feel extracurricular activities are an essential part of education, teaching the student all the aspects of learning and communicating with others. They have helped me learn independence and my feelings of confidence have improved" (McNamara, 1985, p. 34). In a separate study, Haensly et al. (as cited in Powell and Lee, 2004) studied the role of extracurricular activities and their impact on personal and social development.

According to the participants in this research, the benefits of participation in extracurricular activity included meeting other people, making school more enjoyable, and developing leadership abilities. Students perceived to be high achieving added that activities broadened their interests and helped them develop self-confidence.

Dworkin et al. (2003) believe that extracurricular activities are different from other portions of adolescents' lives at school because they provide opportunities for identity work and allowing youth to learn emotional competencies and develop new social skills. Dworkin et al. (2003) also believe that activity participation allows youth to form new connections with peers and acquire social capital. Brown and Evans (2002) found that participation in extracurricular activities helps to facilitate peer groups, positive school-related experiences, and a sense of belonging.

Advocates that support athletics in schools, believe that participation in group sports exposes students to academically oriented peers thus fostering socialization experiences that have a positive effect on the student's educational aspirations (Spady, 1970). Other cognitive factors that are affected by participation are self-esteem, self-confidence, social cooperation, and leadership skills (Kleese & D'Onofrio, 2000). For students with marginal or low social and academic competence, participating in activity provides them with opportunities to form relationships with more competent peers that might otherwise not be available (Mahoney & Stattin, 2000).

Additional studies report other social benefits of participation. First of all, researchers found that participation in athletics may teach interpersonal skills that are readily transferable and marketable outside of athletics (Eccles et al., 2003; Otto &

Alwin, 1977). Next, athletics may introduce participants to interpersonal networks and contacts that are helpful in establishing a career (Otto & Alwin, 1977). Additionally, opportunities are also provided for students to contribute to their community (Eccles et al., 2003). Moreover, Eccles also found that students are given opportunities to develop personal pride, trustworthiness, and honesty. Other researchers have found that athletics also contribute to the development of a competitive spirit, assist in the ability to cooperate, and teach sportsmanship and courage (Nolan, as cited in Landers & Landers, 1978). Lastly, students are given opportunities to experience and deal with challenges (Eccles et al., 2003).

Impact of Extracurricular Activities on Minority Students

As diversity increases and population trends reinforce achievement and retention disparities among ethnic groups, schools need to be more concerned about enhancing school achievement among minority students (Davalos et al., 1999). As communities and schools become increasingly diverse, extracurricular activities that involve students from different ethnic backgrounds become extremely important (Brown & Evans, 2002).

Melnick et al. (1992) found that minority students participating in athletics did not dropout of school because they enjoyed sport and the friendships and popularity that sport fostered. In this study, it was also found that sports participation resulted in the lower likelihood of several student groups dropping out, including rural Black boys, suburban Hispanic boys, and rural Hispanic girls. Sabo (1986) found that African American male athletes were over four and a half times less likely to drop out than their

nonparticipating counterparts. In addition, Hispanic female athletes were three times less likely to dropout than non-participants.

In a study on extracurricular activities and academic achievement, Gerber (1996) found that for African American eighth grade students, participation in extracurricular activity was found to be positively related to academic achievement. In 1984, Hispanic athletes were nearly five times more likely than their nonparticipating counterparts to attend four year colleges (Sabo, 1986). Additionally, Sabo found that Hispanic females were more likely to score well on achievement tests than their nonparticipating peers. Lastly, female Hispanics were most likely to reap benefits from participating in athletics.

Minorities participating in athletics were found to report high grades at a higher level than their nonparticipating peers (Sabo, 1986). Sabo also found that minorities participating in athletics were found to score in the top quartile range at a higher level than their nonparticipating peers. Additionally, sports participation has also been found to have positive effects on self-esteem for African American students (Tracy & Erkut, 2002). Throughout the years, the data has become quite telling. Minority student extracurricular participant's benefit in a variety of ways as a result of participation on activities and their participation should continue to be encouraged.

Impact of Extracurricular Activities on Discipline and Delinquency

According to Zill et al. (1995), participation in extracurricular activities decreases an adolescent's chances of engaging in delinquency. A study by Landers and Landers (1978) revealed that participation in athletic activities was significantly related

to lower incidence of delinquent acts and risky behaviors. During the high school years, extracurricular participation is linked to decreased criminal offending for youth (Mahoney, 2000; Mahoney & Cairns, 1997). Kleese and D'Onofrio (2000) believe that if an adolescent spends a large percentage of their time in beneficial activities, this will reduce the possibility for mischief. Zill et al., (1995) found that students that do not participate in extracurricular activity are 27% more likely to have been arrested.

Extracurricular activities are also found to be a variable in reduced rates of school discipline issues. One study involving a small, longitudinal sample found that extracurricular activities are associated with less school misconduct among at-risk adolescents. In a separate study, it was found that an adolescent's sense of connection has been found to be associated with a decreased likelihood of school misbehavior and delinquency (Jenkins, as cited in Brown & Evans, 2002). Students who participate in sports have been found to have fewer discipline referrals (Videon, 2002). Likewise, Whitley (as cited in Marsh & Kleitman, 2002), revealed athletes have fewer discipline referrals than non-athletes. In addition, students involved in athletics have significantly lower odds for vandalism (Harrison & Narayan, 2003).

Impact of Extracurricular Activities on Disadvantaged and At-Risk Students

Guest and Schneider (2003) revealed that at the school level, participants in sports are more likely to be seen as good students at schools with low academic expectations and at schools in poor communities. A study by Mahoney and Cairns (1997) found that participation in extracurricular activities provides low performing and

at-risk students an opportunity to create a positive and voluntary connection to their school. They believe that involvement in extracurricular activities may support the at-risk student by maintaining, enhancing, and strengthening the student-school connection (Mahoney & Cairns, 1997). The results of a study by Broh (2002) suggest that extracurricular activity could be an avenue for generating social capital among disadvantaged students and their parents. In addition, the schools may assist in their achievement. Mahoney and Cairns also found that for at-risk students, dropout rates were much lower for students that participated in extracurricular activities.

Other Benefits of Participation in Extracurricular Activities

In addition to the benefits listed above, students participating in extracurricular activities reap other benefits from their participation. First of all, females that participate in athletics have a reduced frequency of sexual behavior (Sabo et al., 1993). Specifically, they found that female athletic participants reported fewer sexual experiences, fewer partners, later onset of first sexual intercourse, higher rates of contraceptive use, and lower rates of pregnancy.

Additional benefits of activity involve an increased amount of student support. First, Zirkel and Gluckman (1993) interviewed students and found that the support of a coach or sponsor helps to motivate students academically. They also found that the peer support of fellow students wanting to succeed in extracurricular activities helps foster support for academic success.

Section IV: Gender and Extracurricular Participation

The purpose of Section IV is to explain gender and extracurricular participation. In addition, Section IV discusses the differences in the motivational behaviors of male and female coaches and experienced and inexperienced educators.

Gender and Extracurricular Participation

With regard to extracurricular participation, gender is a variable of great interest. Differences and similarities among male and female athletic programs, participation rates, and benefits have long been topics of interest and with the increased popularity of athletics, they will continue to be topics of interest.

The National Center for Educational Statistics (1994) conducted a research study on the extracurricular participation rates of 10th and 12th graders. The researchers found that in 1992, 41.2% of males and 19.7% of females in the study participated in interscholastic team sports. Additionally, the study revealed that 26.8% of males and 13.9% of females participated in individual team sports. McNeal (1998) found in a sample size of 14,181 student-athletes, that 66% of males participated in athletics and 46% of females participated in athletics. Videon (2002) also found higher participation rates for males compared to that of females. Marsh and Kleitman (2002) revealed conflicting reports and found that females participated in a larger number of extracurricular activities but spent less time in them than males. Lastly, Videon revealed that 56.1% of males in this study reported participating in sports and 43.9% of females reported participating in sports.

Overall, girls have been found to participate in more extracurricular activities than boys, but boys are more likely to participate in athletics (Davalos et al., 1999; Eccles & Barber, 1999; Mahoney & Cairns, 1997; Mahoney et al., 2003; McNeal 1998). Mahoney et al. (2003), suggest that girls show more consistent participation than boys. However, this study also suggests that boys' participation was more strongly associated with their educational aspirations (Mahoney et al., 2003). Prior grades is the strongest predictor of participation in high school for both boys and girls (Hanks & Eckland, 1976).

Differences in Motivational Strategies of Male and Female Coaches

Motivation refers to a process governing individual choices among different forms of voluntary activities. It involves determination by an individual to pursue a designated goal. Motivation is a complex combination of perceptions, aspirations, and environmental interactions. In addition, motivation also includes the persistence of behavior (Campbell et al., 1970). Vroom (1964) includes the concepts of drive, need, incentive, reward, reinforcement, goal setting, balance, and expectancy in a definition. These concepts are necessary to activate, energize, direct, sustain, and stop behavior (Steers & Porter, 1979). Motivation is internal and therefore individuals cannot directly determine the amount of motivation another individual will have with regard to a specific task or goal. However, individuals can manipulate and organize conditions in such a way that they increase the probably of motivation emerging from within another individual (Petri, 1979). Thompson (1996) feels that to motivate, conditions must be

created that enhance an individual's desire and willingness to focus energy on achieving excellence. In the athletic arena, a study revealed that the type of feedback athletes perceived their coaches to give had a significant impact on the athletes' intrinsic motivation (Black & Weiss, as cited in Amorose and Horn, 2000). Additionally, Amorose and Horn (2000) found that coaches that exhibited low levels of autocratic behavior and provided high levels of positive feedback, had athletes with higher levels of intrinsic motivation.

Eble and McKeachie (1985) found that female teachers gained satisfaction in being helpful, a sense of making a difference, opportunities for learning, and interaction with students. McClelland (1975) found that women are more contextual than analytic and they are more interested in people than in things. For women, motivation and empowerment are achieved through an interest, attunement, and responsiveness to others or a subjective inner experience at both a cognitive and affective level (Miller, 1991). Chelladurai et al. (1999) found that female teacher and coach respondents were willing to forego the status and ease of motivation available in coaching in favor of the significance and identity of the job in teaching. In other words, women placed greater importance on other job factors besides status or ease of motivation.

According to Lauber and Wimer (2004), the literature suggests that male teachers provide less feedback to students, and this feedback is generally corrective or to clarify information that was not clearly understood. In addition, they found that men are more confident and more strict when dealing with their students. Male teachers have also been found to lecture more.

Molstad and Whitaker (1987) found that there are still many programs where females coach a girl's or women's team, but there is currently an increasing number of teams coached by men. It has been suggested that the sport environment varies for the female athlete depending on whether they are coached by a male or female (Whitaker & Molstad, 1985). Williams and Parkhouse (1985) found a pro-male sex bias when athletes evaluated statements about hypothetical coaches. Variables included the coach's knowledge, the coach's ability to motivate, the desirability of playing for the coach, and the predicted success of the coach and team. Molstad and Whitaker (1987) found fewer gender differences than expected in a study looking at the perceptions players had regarding coaching qualities of male and female coaches. In addition, they found that the coach's qualities were more important than the coach's gender. In a separate study, female athletes were found to exhibit higher preferences for democratic coaching style than do their male peers (Amorose & Horn, 2000).

Relatively few researchers have focused on the coaching behaviors of male and female coaches. In addition, little research was found that identifies optimal coaching behaviors and factors that influence the effectiveness of particular behaviors (Kenow & Williams, 1999). However, there are a few studies that have focused on this topic. Millard (1996) reported that male and female coaches significantly differed in the amounts of instruction, general encouragement, and control keeping behaviors exhibited. Thus, male coaches were more likely to engage in technical instruction, while the female coaches were more likely to give general encouragement. Additionally, male coaches engaged more often in control keeping behaviors. Men perceived greater variety and

control in coaching, while women perceived greater variety and control in teaching (Chelladurai et al., 1999). This finding could be attributed to the idea that men might have focused on the control they have over team membership, while women might have thought of coaching as highly constrained or influenced by external pressures or agents. Both genders reported a greater sense of motivation in coaching than in teaching. Hasbrook et al. (1990) found that women, when compared to their male counterparts, had better professional training and greater experience in the delivery and assessment of sport. One study showed that females had lower motivation and game strategy efficacy than males (Marback et al., 2005). Barber (1998) found that females perceive themselves as stronger teachers compared to males. Marback et al. (2005) reported that females perceive themselves as more effective when it comes to instilling mutual respect and good sportpersonship. When choosing whether they preferred coaching or teaching, men, compared to women, expressed a greater preference for coaching (Chu, 1984).

Barber (1998) reported differences in the sources of coaching competence information where females placed a greater importance than males on improvement of athletes and improvement of coaching skills. Most female coaches have fewer years of experience than male coaches and there are fewer female coaches in competitive sport compared to males. These differences have an effect on the confidence levels of female and male coaches (Coakley, 2001). The confidence coaches have in their abilities is an important contributor to coaching involvement and coaching motivation (Weiss &

Stevens, 1993). Barber (1998) believes that efficacious and competent coaches are more likely to put forth greater effort while coaching.

Differences in Motivational Behaviors of Experienced and Inexperience Educators

There is little research concerning the influence of teaching expertise on students' motivation to learn. However, it has been found that teachers with more experience are likely to have a more positive influence on their students' motivation (Berliner, 1991). Experienced teachers have a malleable conception of student intelligence while novices view student intelligence as a fixed trait (Ghaith & Yaghi, 1997). Dweck (1999) found that this malleable conception of student intelligence has been positively associated with higher levels of persistence in the face of failure, more adaptive motivational orientations, increased levels of student intrinsic motivation, and higher overall student performance.

Section V: Ethnicity and Extracurricular Participation

Extracurricular participation and more specifically, athletics provide many opportunities for success that minority students might otherwise not be exposed. McNeal (1998) found in a sample size of 14,181 that ethnic minorities participate in athletics at nearly identical rates as Caucasians. However, Clotfelter (2002) found opposite figures. His study revealed that White students have higher participation rates than nonwhite students. Gerber (1996) addressed the possibility that potential racial differences exist between African American and Caucasian students. Participation in

sports seems to have a greater attraction and retention for minority students (Brown & Evans, 2002). A study by the National Center for Educational Statistics revealed that 30.8% of Caucasian, 32.3% of African American, and 25.8% of Hispanic 12th graders in their 1992 study participated in team sports (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1994). Additionally, the National Center for Educational Statistics revealed that 20.9% of Caucasians, 21.2% of African American, and 14.9% Hispanics participated in individual sports.

With regard to participation, minority students who participated in school extracurricular activities were found to be more involved with other school affairs than minority students that did not participate (Sabo, 1986). Gerber (1996) revealed that activity participation is linked to increased test scores for African American students in the areas of reading, math, and science. Lastly, Tracy and Erkut (2002) linked a positive effect of sports participation on self-esteem and school attachment in African American adolescents.

Section VI: Socioeconomic Factors Related to Participation

A student's socioeconomic status (SES) can impact their exposure to extracurricular activities. Both high and low SES students reap benefits from participation. Participation can also provide various benefits throughout childhood and adolescence. McNeal (1998) found that 66% of higher SES students participate in athletics as compared to 56% of students from lower SES. Other studies have also found that higher-status pupils participate in extracurricular activities more frequently than do

students from lower SES (Clotfelter, 2002; Marsh & Kleitman, 2002; Serow, 1979). Participation rates for lower SES students were much higher in small schools than in large schools (Lindsay, 1982). Moreover, McNeal (1998) concluded through his research that athletics is one arena where higher SES students have priority access and that students of lower SES are underrepresented. Holland and Andre (1987) suggest that educational attainment among male students is related to SES. For example, extracurricular activities are thought to be a venue through which parents of higher SES teach their children social and cultural skills (Hanks & Eckland, 1976). In addition, students from two parent homes have benefits as both parents may be better able to provide the financial time and investments to promote higher rates of sport participation (McNeal, 1999).

Benefits have been reported to be significantly greater for students from lower SES backgrounds (Marsh & Kleitman, 2002). Lower class boys who participate in extracurricular activities have been found to be more involved in school life and reap more benefits from participation (Marsh, 1992; Willems, 1967). Lower SES boys who participate in athletics are more likely to have higher educational aspirations than lower SES boys who do not participate (Spady, 1970). Moreover, lower SES students may benefit from being associated with higher SES peers. A large percentage of athletes subscribe to the norms of the school and to higher educational attainment. As a result of exposure to these students, lower SES students may incorporate these values of educational success (Davalos et al., 1999). Lastly, McNeal (1999) found that students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds have better attitudes toward school.

There are many key implications that can be derived from research on SES and extracurricular activity. First of all, with recent budget cuts in many of our schools, extracurricular activities could be effected. In this case, activities could be eliminated allowing fewer opportunities for participation among low SES student groups. In addition, if schools implement participation in activities on a pay-to-play basis, fewer students from low socioeconomic backgrounds will have opportunities to participate (McNeal, 1998).

Guest and Schneider (2003) revealed other differences in lower and higher SES groups. In lower SES communities, they found that participation in athletics is seen as a path to financial gain, where in higher SES communities the benefits are more health and aesthetic related (Guest & Scheider, 2003). They also found that both lower and higher SES students received benefits from participation, a finding consistent with previous research. However, Guest and Schneider (2003) revealed that for students in upper-class schools, participation could be seen as detrimental to the portfolio of a good student, as athletics can be seen as a lack of seriousness.

Section VII: Impact of School Size on Extracurricular Participation

A number of studies have been conducted on school size and student extracurricular participation. As a result of increased economic resources and numbers of students, larger schools provide more extracurricular opportunities than that of smaller schools. However, in smaller schools, students have been found to take advantage of their abilities to participate in the extracurricular activities that are offered.

The effects of school size were independent of rural or urban location (Holland & Andre, 1987; Lindsay, 1982). Students from small and large schools report benefits from participation. Regardless of their school size, participants reported activities are satisfying due to the social interaction, learning, and the opportunity to participate in new experiences (Holland & Andre, 1987).

Barker's theory of behavior settings helps to explain the question of whether the amount of student participation in the school's extracurricular program is related to school size. This theory predicts a strong negative relationship between school size and the amount of student participation in the school's extracurricular activities (Barker & Gump, 1964). The behavior setting theory states that as the population of an institution increases, the number of behavior settings increases. As the size of the institution increases, the number of persons within the institution increases at a higher rate than the number of jobs needed. As a result of the surplus, the individual is no longer essential to the organization (Barker & Gump, 1964). Conversely, in smaller towns, where there is a greater need to fill positions and persons are in short supply, the individual is more important to the successful operation of the behavioral settings (Barker & Gump, 1964).

With regard to students in schools, this theory would predict that participation in small schools would be greater than in larger schools because a greater need exists for participants (Schoggen & Schoggen, 1988). Wicker (1969) supported this theory by stating that activities in large schools are overmanned, while activities in smaller schools are undermanned. As a result, students in overmanned settings are less likely to be participants compared to students in undermanned settings (Wicker, 1969). More often,

overmanned settings are large schools, therefore they have fewer participants (Wicker, 1969).

Previous research has found that students in larger schools participate in extracurricular activities at lower rates than students in smaller schools (Baird, 1969; Barker & Gump, 1964; Berk & Goebel, 1987; Coladarci & Cobb, 1996; Grabe, 1981; Kleinert, 1969; Lindsay, 1982; Phelps et al. 1998; Rogers, 1987; Schoggen & Schoggen, 1988; Serow, 1979). Additionally, students attending schools that are larger tend to have more problematic climates, thus resulting in fewer students participating in extracurricular activities (McNeal, 1999). Wicker (1969) found that large and small school juniors entered almost as many extracurricular activities, however the large school student participated in activities that were much more homogeneous than that of his small school counterpart.

The dominant assumption has been that the larger the school, the more economical, specialized, comprehensive, and effective it must be (Lindsay, 1982).

Large-school juniors reported gaining satisfaction from participating in sports through enjoyment, being part of a large crowd, and learning about their school (Holland & Andre, 1987). Additionally, high participating students from larger high schools, whose participation was a result of personal motivation, showed higher rates of participation in activities after high school when compared to their small-school counterparts (Berk & Goebel, 1987).

It has been suggested, that a small school provides the benefit of an environment in which extracurricular activities become a learning experience rather than just an

opportunity for talented students (Beckner, 1979). Halsall (1973) concluded the following:

The pressures which small schools are shown to exert more successfully than the large ones help to contribute to a sense of competence, since whether weak, strong, inept, skillful, young or experienced, each pupil is really important.

Many activities cannot continue without his participation, and the increased sense of responsibility which this situation generates is likely to produce greater and earlier maturity, as well as greater capacity for leadership. (p. 95)

Holland and Andre (1987) revealed that small-school juniors felt they gained satisfactions from developing competence, being challenged, acquiring moral and cultural values, and learning teamwork through group interactions. Small school students were found to hold responsible positions in their schools more than twice the frequency of large school students (Schoggen & Schoggen, 1988; Wicker, 1969). Baird (1969) found that small schools had higher rates of accomplishment in four of six nonacademic areas studied. Smaller schools have more students that participate in multiple activities per given year than did larger schools (Kleinert, 1969). Moreover, Kleinert (1969) found 50 of 100 participants in small schools and 13 of 100 in larger schools. Marginal students in smaller schools reported a sense of obligation that was similar in magnitude to their regular schoolmates (Willems, 1967). Willems found that this effect was not found in large schools.

Section VIII: Sport Participation Choice

Students choose to participate in extracurricular activities for a number of reasons. A number of variables come in to play when choosing and deciding activities in which to participate. For example, opportunity, sport availability, socioeconomic status, size of school, peer groups, ability, and leisure time available can all be taken in to consideration when choosing a sport. Pavalko (1971), in his book on the sociology of occupations and professions, explains possible motivations for participation. Some sociologists feel that people began participating in particular sports by accident, while others believe that rational motivations determine which sports are chosen. Pavalko found that possible sociocultural factors used in the determination of occupations are: social class, rural-urban residence, race, and sex. These factors can also be carried over to the sporting arena and be used to explain sport participation.

Some choice patterns can be misleading. The fact that a large number of Olympic swimmers or golfers are Caucasian implies nothing about the potential skills of nonwhites in the population. The same argument can also be used in explaining why a large number of NBA basketball players are African-American. This is simply an example of what Cloward (1959) believes is differential opportunity. Sport participation, is more a function of access than of attitudinal predisposition (Woodman, 1977).

Woodman (1977) took a model of occupational choice and adapted it to fit a model for sport choice. Several biological conditions were taken in to account and were

responsible for explaining a portion of sport choice. Personality development, including education, socialization, aggression, and competitiveness were all present. These traits lead to sociopsychological attributes such as knowledge of sport, athletic ability, exposure to sport, amount of leisure time, and social class relationships. Other variables such as social structure and physical conditions were considered. Cultural values and norms, demographic characteristics, the social stratification system, and climate and resources are presented. These variables are perceived to lead to historical changes such as consumer demand, game development, and sport availability. Social organization is an important component in the sport choice process. In this component, Woodman listed economic resources available, complexity of the sport organization, institutionalization of sport, and government. Each of these variables contributes to entry to sport participation. Although complex, the model can be taken apart to analyze each variable. If each component is considered separately, it is easy to see how students can miss out on opportunities to participate in sports. In addition, it is somewhat difficult to believe that sport participation numbers are so high among adolescents and that many adolescents participate in multiple activities. The model, although adapted, does an excellent job of justifying the sport participation process.

Summary

After reviewing the literature, it is clearly evident that no pass, no play is a legislative topic that has received a great deal of attention over the last twenty years. More and more states have adopted similar legislation and there is an increasing need for

schools to hold students involved in extracurricular activities accountable for their academics. Although states have admirable intentions with these types of policies, the research shows that there are possible unintended consequences of the legislation. In light of this, it is imperative to understand coaches' feelings of no pass, no play and attempt to ascertain how they perceive no pass, no play. In addition, it is important to determine how no pass, no play impacts an athletic program. Policy makers in Texas can use this information when making legislative decisions that will impact athletics and academics in our schools.

In view of the literature, the purpose of this study was to determine the degree to which no pass, no play impacted high school coaches' perceptions of academic player eligibility in Educational Service Center, Region 20, Texas. Variables such as annual household income of each school district and poverty level of each school district were researched. Moreover, the academic school variables such as TAKS data and student high school dropout rate were reviewed. Demographic variables such as the economically disadvantaged population of the school were researched. Lastly, the study attempted to ascertain if a relationship exists between personal and professional characteristics of the coach and their perceptions of no pass, no play.

The following research questions were explored in this study:

1. In selected Texas ESC Region 20 high schools, what perceptions did coaches develop as a result of "no pass, no play?"

- a. To what extent did the coach's gender, ethnicity, and experience impact their perceptions of "no pass, no play" in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?
 - b. How much influence did the type of sport play in coaches' perceptions of "no pass, no play" in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?
2. Did the school minority enrollment, percentage of economically disadvantaged students, annual dropout rate, annual household income, poverty status of the district, and school academic performance have any impact on coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?
3. In Texas ESC Region 20 high schools, how much influence did no pass, no play have in motivating student athletes to work to maintain a 70 or above in each course?
4. How much influence did student outcomes as a result of no pass, no play have on coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play in selected high schools, ESC Region 20, Texas?

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to determine the degree to which no pass, no play impacts the perceptions of academic player eligibility as perceived by high school coaches in Educational Service Center, Region 20, Texas. Demographic variables such as the economically disadvantaged population of the school were researched. In addition, the study attempted to ascertain if a relationship exists between personal and professional characteristics of the coach and their perceptions of no pass, no play.

The study explored the following research questions:

1. In selected Texas ESC Region 20 high schools, what perceptions did coaches develop as a result of “no pass, no play?”
 - a. To what extent did the coach’s gender, ethnicity, and experience impact their perceptions of “no pass, no play” in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?
 - b. How much influence did the type of sport play in coaches’ perceptions of “no pass, no play” in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?
2. Did the school minority enrollment, percentage of economically disadvantaged students, annual dropout rate, annual household income, poverty status of the district, and school academic performance have any

impact on coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?

3. In Texas ESC Region 20 high schools, how much influence did no pass, no play have in motivating student athletes to work to maintain a 70 or above in each course, according to the perspective of the respondent coach?
4. How much influence did student outcomes as a result of no pass, no play have on coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play in selected high schools, ESC Region 20, Texas?

Chapter III conveys the research methods employed to complete this study. The chapter is arranged by the following sections: population, instrumentation, procedures, variables present in the study, and data analysis.

Population

The survey population consisted of high school coaches from 51 Texas public school districts selected within ESC, Region 20, Texas. It must be noted that charter and private schools in the ESC, Region 20, Texas were not considered for the purposes of this research study. With the omission of the charter and private schools, there remain 64 public high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas as listed in the Academic Excellence Indicator System. Region 20 falls in the South Central area of Texas and includes the city of San Antonio. Additionally, Region 20 spans fifteen counties. Responses from coaches of the listed 64 public high schools in the ESC, Region 20, Texas comprised the population. There were a total of 850 coaches in the population. The head coach from

each varsity team was surveyed. In the event that a head coach held the same position for more than one sport, they were surveyed for each sport coached. Of coaches that fell under this category, 17 completed the survey. In the event that a head coach is responsible for boys and girls within the same sport, the coach was only surveyed once and they were able to indicate the gender of the sport on the survey.

This population was purposive as all high school varsity coaches in Region 20 were surveyed. Purposive sampling was chosen for this research study as each coach selected for this study met the specific characteristics chosen (Patton, 1990). Region 20 was selected because of the diversity of schools along various demographic strata. The region as a whole has a 63.1% economically disadvantaged population. In addition, there is a great deal of diversity in school sizes within the region. Table 1 shows the number of schools in Region 20 within each size classification.

Table 1.—Number of Schools in Texas, ESC Region 20 Within Each Size Classification

School Size	Number of Schools in Region 20
1A	10
2A	6
3A	13
4A	18
5A	17

(National Interscholastic Athletic Administrators Association, 2005)

In addition, there are rural and urban schools as well as small and large sized schools. Table 2 shows the population ranges for the fifteen counties in Region 20:

Table 2.—Population Ranges for the Fifteen Counties in Texas, ESC Region 20

Population Range	Number of Counties in Region 20 Within this Population Range
< 5,000	2
5,000-10,000	2
10,001-20,000	3
20,001-30,000	2
30,001-40,000	1
40,001-50,000	3
50,000+	2*

*This population range includes Bexar County, which has 1,518,370 and includes the metropolitan city of San Antonio

(U.S. Census Bureau, 2005)

Instrumentation

Coaches received surveys consisting of identical questions in all portions except the demographic information. An existing instrument was utilized for this study (Appendix A). Permission was granted to use the instrument for this study from the researcher that created the instrument (Appendix B). The following describes how the researcher established validity and reliability for the instrument:

The researcher developed a questionnaire following the guidelines recommended in *Surveys in Social Research* (de Vaus, 1986). Face validity was checked using procedures set forth by Gall et al. (1996). For content validity, a panel of six professionals, in educator assessment, accelerated instructions and special populations at TEA during the spring and summer of 1998 reviewed the instrument. The panel provided the research with input on both structure and content of the instrument. (Tillman, 1999)

The instrument was organized in two sections. The first section consists of five questions and asked the coaches to self-identify for potential categorization into three groups: (a) years of experience, (b) gender, (c) ethnicity. The format of this section is primarily check marks with some short answers questions. The second section is a 17 question section developed to generate information concerning coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play. Responses in the second section of the questionnaire were made on a four-point Likert scale ranging from one to four (i.e., 1=strongly disagree with the statement, 2=disagree with the statement, 3=agree with the statement, 4=strongly agree with the statement).

A sample of ten professionals in ESC Region Six, who were current or former varsity head coaches, completed the questionnaire for reliability and clarity. These professionals were given the survey and asked to complete it. In addition, they were asked to note any questions which were not clearly written or understood and report these to the researcher. No issues were reported. As a result, the survey instrument used in the pilot study was the same instrument used to survey the research population. All ten questionnaires in the pilot were completed and returned.

Procedures

The research process began in January of 2006. The participating coaches in public school districts within in ESC, Region 20, Texas were identified using the 2005-2006 National Interscholastic Athletic Administrator Association Clell Wade Coaches' Directory. Prior to sending the instrument via mail, the researcher mailed a courtesy

letter informing the participant of the survey they were to receive, giving the participant information on the study, and making them aware of the importance of the study. An initial mail-out via mail was sent out in January 2006 to all 850 coaches participating in the study. The initial mail-out consisted of an information sheet, the survey instrument, and a self-addressed stamped envelope. The information sheet generated by the researcher assured respondents of confidentiality, briefly explaining the purpose of the research study, and provided directions for completing the instrument. Consent to participate in this research study was assumed by the return of the completed survey instrument. For tracking purposes, the instruments were coded. To ensure confidentiality, surveys were kept and stored under lock and key for the duration of the study.

The mail-out yielded 266 responses. Of the responses, 264 were returned by mail and two were returned by email. The total response rate for the study was 31.3%.

During the months of October, November, and December of 2006, data were compiled. The data were analyzed in February of 2007.

Variables in the Study

The dependent variable in this study was the coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play. The independent variables presented in the study were grouped into three separate clusters: (a) school and community characteristics, (b) coach characteristics, and (c) characteristics of athletes. Variables presented in the school and community characteristics cluster included family poverty status, annual household income, and

percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play as reported by the coach. Coach characteristics included: gender of the coach, ethnicity of the coach, number of years as a coach, and the sport coached. The final cluster was characteristics of school where the athletes were students, and it consisted of: percentage of economically disadvantaged students, percentage of students passing their TAKS tests in the 05-06 school year, dropout rate, and the percentage of students from the following ethnicities: Asian/Pacific Islander, African-American, Hispanic, and White.

Nominal variables in this study were recoded in SPSS for the final data analyses. The gender of coach variable was recoded with a zero for male coaches and a one for female coaches. The ethnicity of coach variable was recoded with a zero for White coaches and a one for minority coaches. Minority coaches were coaches that listed African-American, Asian, Hispanic, and Native American in the demographic portion of the survey. The variable, type of sport, was recoded with a one for baseball, basketball, and football. A zero was used to recode if a sport was not listed as well as to recode for the sports badminton, cross country, golf, powerlifting, soccer, softball, swimming, tennis, track and field, volleyball, and wrestling. The sports included in the data analyses were listed by respondent coaches in the demographic portion of the survey. As stated previously, baseball, basketball, and football were grouped together because in this study, they were considered high profile sports.

The dependent variable, coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play, was also recoded. This variable was recoded based upon responses from the items on the survey. Those items listing "strongly disagree with the statement" or "disagree with the

statement” were recoded with a zero. Those items listing “strongly agree with the statement” or “agree with the statement” were recoded with a one. Tables 3 and 4 list the independent and dependent variables included in the study.

Data Analysis

The results of the study have been reported using appropriate quantitative techniques according to Gall et al. (1996). The data collected with the instrument were analyzed using SPSS version 13. Multiple displays such as charts and tables have been used to present findings.

This study employed a statistical method commonly used with discrete data in binary form. This method of analysis, Multiple Logistic Regression, is based on a logarithmic conversion of the OLS regression model which converts binary dependent variables into non-linear s-shaped models. The purpose of this conversion is to more accurately predict probabilities for all instances (Agresti, 1990; Powers & Xie, 2000). In the form logit, probabilities are transformed into odds using the following model:

$$\text{Logit}(p) = \alpha + \beta x$$

where

α = intercept

βx = slope; change in units in logit at every unit change of x

Table 3.—Independent Variables Used in the Study in Order to Determine Their Impact on Coaches’ Perceptions of No Pass, No Play

Variable	Thematic Cluster	Level of Measurement	Definition
Annual Household income	School and Community Characteristics	Interval	This includes the income of the householder and all other individuals 15 years old and over in the household, whether they are related to the householder or not (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2000).
Poverty Status of Families	School and Community Characteristics	Interval	The poverty status of families and unrelated individuals in 1999 was determined using 48 thresholds (income cutoffs). To determine a person’s poverty status, one compares the person’s total family income with the poverty threshold appropriate for that person’s family size and composition. If the total income of that person’s family is less than the threshold appropriate for that family, then the person is considered poor, together with every member of his or her family. If a person is not living with anyone related by birth, marriage, or adoption, then the person’s own income is compared with his or her poverty threshold (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2000).
Percentage of Students Impacted by No Pass, No Play	Athlete Characteristics	Interval	Each respondent was asked to report the percentage of their students that lose eligibility as a result of no pass, no play. This variable is reported directly on the questionnaire by the coach respondent.
Gender of Coach	Coach Characteristics	Nominal 0:Male 1:Female	The respondent reported on the questionnaire if they are male or female.

Table 3.—Continued

Variable	Thematic Cluster	Level of Measurement	Definition
Ethnicity of Coach	Coach Characteristics	Nominal 0:White 1:Minority	The respondent reported on the questionnaire their ethnicity from the following choices: African-American, Asian/Pacific Islander, Hispanic, Native-American, or White. Some questionnaires were returned with other written in by the respondent. As a result, we added this choice for purposes of data analysis.
Numbers of Years as Coach	Coach Characteristics	Interval	The respondent reported on the questionnaire how many years they have served as a head coach.
Type of Sport**	Coach Characteristics	Nominal 0:Badminton 0:Cross Country 0:Golf 0:Powerlifting 0:Soccer 0:Softball 0:Swimming 0:Tennis 0:Track and Field 0:Volleyball 0:Wrestling 0:Not listed 1:Baseball 1:Basketball 1:Football	The respondent reported on the questionnaire which sport(s) they are serving as the head coach.

Table 3.—Continued

Variable	Thematic Cluster	Level of Measurement	Definition
Percentage of Economically Disadvantaged students	Athlete Characteristics	Interval	The percent of economically disadvantaged students is calculated as the sum of the students coded as eligible for free or reduced-price lunch or eligible for other public assistance, divided by the total number of students (TEA, 2006).
Percentage of Students Passing all TAKS tests in the 05-06 school year	Athlete Characteristics	Interval	This value shows the percent of students who passed every test they took. For example, a group of 100 students tested in reading and mathematics at the 3rd grade might have the following results: 90 students passed reading and 80 students passed mathematics. However, only 75 of those students passed BOTH reading and mathematics. For this reason, while the percent passing reading would be 90%, and the percent passing mathematics would be 80%, the percent passing All Tests Taken would be only 75%, not an average of 80% and 90%. All Tests Taken is always equal to or less than the percent of students who passed any of the individual subject areas. The more tests taken and considered for this measure, the more likely the All Tests Taken value will be lower than any of the individual subject areas (TEA, 2006).

Table 3.—Continued

Variable	Thematic Cluster	Level of Measurement	Definition
Dropout Rate	School and Community Characteristics	Interval	<p><i>Annual Dropout Rate (Gr 7-12)</i>. This includes grades 7 through 12. This is the rate used in determining a campus or charter operator accountability rating under alternative education accountability (AEA) procedures. It is calculated as follows:</p> $\frac{\text{number of students in grades 7-12 designated as official official dropouts}}{\text{divided by}} \frac{\text{number of students in grades 7-12 who were in attendance at any time during the school year}}{\text{Annual dropout rates for grades 7 through 12 are shown for 2004-05 (TEA, 2006).}}$
Ethnic Distribution	School and Community Characteristics	Interval	<p>Students are reported as White, African American, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and Native American. In the <i>Profile</i> section, both counts and percentages of the total number of students in each of these categories are shown (TEA, 2006).</p>

**This variable was coded as a binary variable. Baseball, basketball, and football were coded as a 1 and the other sports as a 0. The sports coded as a 1 were considered high profile sports, and were therefore coded accordingly.

Table 4.—Dependent Variable Used in the Study

Variable	Level of Measurement	Definition
Coaches' Perceptions of No Pass, No Play	Nominal 0: Strongly disagree with the statement 0: Disagree with the statement 1: Agree with the statement 1: Strongly agree with the statement	How a varsity coach reported their feelings and beliefs towards no pass, no play

For this study, multiple logistic regression procedures were used to investigate the effects of multiple independent variables and their interactions with the coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play.

Main effects.

$$\text{Logit}(p) = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3, \dots + \beta_k X_k$$

Main Effects and one interaction (example).

$$\text{Logit}(p) = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_1 X_2, \dots + \beta_k X_k$$

In order to determine the individual contribution of predictors, this study used the Wald statistic. This statistic uses the chi-square distribution, and tells whether the *b*-coefficient is significantly different from zero (Field, 2005). According to Field (2005), if the coefficient is significantly different from zero, it can be assumed that the predictor is making a significant contribution to the prediction of the outcome (*Y*). The Wald statistic is calculated using the following formula:

$$b/SE_b$$

Field (2005) warns that the Wald statistic should be used cautiously because when the regression coefficient (b) is large, the standard error may become inflated, resulting in the Wald statistic becoming inflated.

The $\text{Exp } B$ is considered by Field (2005) to be the most crucial value to the interpretation of logistic regression. It is an indicator of the change in odds resulting from a unit change in the predictor. It is found by using the following formula:

$$\Delta \text{ odds} = \frac{\text{odds after a unit change in the predictor}}{\text{original odds}}$$

The proportionate change in odds is $\text{exp } b$, so $\text{exp } b$ is interpreted in terms of the change in odds. If the value is greater than 1, then the $\text{exp } b$ indicates that as the predictor increases, the odds of the outcome occurring increase. On the other hand, a value less than 1 indicates that as the predictor increases, the odds of the outcome occurring decrease (Field, 2005).

The analysis of problem I was conducted in block format. All independent and dependent variables were classified into three separate variable blocks (Hull & Nie, 1981). The blocks were: (a) school and community characteristics, (b) coach characteristics, and (c) characteristics of athletes. Employing the backward Likelihood Ratio stepwise logistic regression procedure (Agresti, 2002), each block was investigated in succession to locate the most explanatory variables ($p < .05$) within each subset. The backward Likelihood Ratio stepwise logistic regression procedure was chosen because this method runs a lower risk of making a Type II error (Field, 2005). All significant predictors identified in each subset were added to the predictor set in the subsequent stepwise analysis for each block until an acceptable model had been reached.

Goodness-of-fit methods (i.e., Hosmer and Lemeshow test) were used to determine a prudent model using the values on the log-likelihood statistic.

In situations where grounded theory is moderately sparse, the Likelihood Ratio stepwise procedure presents a method to building models for descriptive purposes (Agresti & Finlay, 1986). Such methods have their constraints however. According to Agresti (2002), variables found to be significant in the stepwise process could result from chance rather than actual descriptive influence. Also, in relation to the block format, variables assigned to blocks are not capable of intermingling with variables from other blocks during the reduction process. In spite of these limitations, the heuristic traits of this study offer the basis for later hypothetical testing.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of this study was to determine the degree to which no pass, no play impacts the perceptions of academic player eligibility as perceived by high school coaches in Educational Service Center, Region 20, Texas. This study attempted to determine if the type of sport, socioeconomic variables, academic variables pertaining to the student, and community variables had any impact on the perceptions coaches had on no pass, no play. In addition, this study attempted to examine the impact of the individual characteristics of the coach on the coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play.

This chapter will present and analyze data which were collected per the questionnaire described in Chapter III. To review, section one of the questionnaire requested demographic information from each participant. Section two was developed to gather data pertaining to the relationship between selected variables related to no pass, no play as perceived by high school coaches in Education Service Center, Region 20, Texas. The following research questions were posed:

1. In selected Texas ESC Region 20 high schools, what perceptions did coaches develop as a result of “no pass, no play?”
 - a. To what extent did the coach's gender, ethnicity, and experience impact their perceptions of “no pass, no play” in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?

- b. How much influence did the type of sport play in coaches' perceptions of "no pass, no play" in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?
2. Did the school minority enrollment, percentage of economically disadvantaged students, annual dropout rate, annual household income, poverty status of the district, and school academic performance have any impact on coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?
3. In Texas ESC Region 20 high schools, how much influence did no pass, no play have in motivating student athletes to work to maintain a 70 average or above in each course?
4. How much influence did student outcomes as a result of no pass, no play have on coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play in selected high schools, ESC Region 20, Texas?

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistical analysis were first conducted to achieve the following objectives: (a) to identify potentially influential observations; (b) to identify errors that may have occurred in the data entry process; (c) to access for data normality; and (d) to provide a snapshot of the experience, gender, and ethnicity of the coaches selected for this study. Of the 263 responses reported, 68.8% were male participants and 30.8% were female participants. One participant did not respond to the demographic question on gender of coach. Three percent of the coach participants were African-American,

24.3 % were Hispanic, 70% were White, and .4% were listed as other. Five participants did not respond to the demographic question on ethnicity of coach. The average coaching experience of the participants in this study was 15.9 years with the maximum being 44 years and the minimum being one year. Table 5 presents additional descriptive statistics found.

The survey instrument asked coaches to list the sport(s) in which they were the varsity coach. Table 6 represents the percentage each sport was reported.

Question Analysis

Each of the sixteen questions was placed in a thematic cluster based upon the four research questions, the independent and dependent variables, and the questionnaire items used in the study. The four clusters being used for this portion of the analysis are: student motivation, instructional issues, suspension variables, and ethnicity specific variables (Table 6).

Table 5.—Descriptive Statistics Found in the Statistical Analyses of Data

	Annual Household Income of District	Poverty Status in District	Campus Passed All TAKS Tests	Percentage of Economically Disadvantaged Students by Campus	Percentage of White Students by Campus	Percentage of Minority Students by Campus	Annual Dropout Rate 04-05 by Campus
N	261	259	261	261	261	261	261
Minimum	\$19,917	2%	23%	5.5	.30	21.70	0
Maximum	\$62,346	34%	85%	100	79.30	99.70	5
Mean	\$34,900	14.15%	56.48%	51.27	34.83	65.17	1.22
Std. Deviation	9938.69	7.79%	17.67%	17.67	25.86	74.14	1.06

Table 6.—Frequency and Percentage of Survey Responses by Sport

Sport	Frequency Reported	Percent
Badminton	1	.4
Baseball	12	4.6
Basketball	44	16.7
Cross Country	24	9.1
Football	27	10.3
Golf	21	8.0
Powerlifting	1	.4
Soccer	19	7.2
Softball	20	7.6
Swimming	8	3.0
Tennis	16	6.1
Track and Field	30	11.4
Volleyball	30	11.4
Wrestling	2	.8
Sport not Listed on Survey	8	3.0
Total	263	100.0

Student Motivation

Data Analysis for Survey Question 6: Overall, no pass, no play is an effective tool at motivating student athletes to reach their potential in sports and academics.

This question was constructed to measure coaches' perception of no pass, no play as a whole, in terms of it serving as an extrinsic motivating stimulus for students to remain eligible or regain academic eligibility. This question was designed to summarize the entire survey. Additionally, the question serves as an introduction to the remainder of the survey, as it is a generic question concerning no pass, no play.

For this question, three variables were found to significantly explain coaches' responses. The gender of the coach ($p=.005$), the experience of the coach ($p=.048$), and the number of students impacted by no pass, no play ($p=.044$) were all found to be

significant. The Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test was not found to be significant with a value of .678, confirming these variables fit the model. The Nagelkerke R Square confirmed that 14% of the variance was explained by the variables in Table 7.

Table 7.—Summary of Blockwise Analysis for Variables Predicting Coaches' Responses to Question 6: Overall, No Pass, No Play is an Effective Tool at Motivating Student Athletes to Reach Their Potential in Sports and Academics

Variable	B	S.E.	Wald	d.f.	Sig.	Exp β
Gender	1.553	.553	7.879**	1	.005**	4.728
Experience	-.035	.018	3.905*	1	.048*	.966
Percentage of Students Impacted by No Pass, No Play	-0.19	.009	4.052*	1	.044*	.981

Note: Coding of gender variable: 0=male, 1=female

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$ (significance for the Wald statistic was found using the chi-square distribution).

The Wald statistic showed that the *b*-coefficient (1.553) for gender was significantly different from zero, thus proving that the coaches' gender made a significant contribution to their perceptions regarding how much no pass, no play motivates student athletes to reach their potential in athletics and academics. Referring to the Exp β of 4.728, it suggests then that female coaches are four times more likely than male coaches to feel that no pass, no play is a motivational tool used to help students reach their potential in athletics and academics. The Wald statistics showed that *b*-coefficients for experience (-.035) and percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play (-0.19) were also significantly different from zero, proving they made a significant contribution to the coaches' perceptions. The Exp β statistics for experience

and percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play were below one at .966 and .981, respectively, therefore confirming a negative relationship. These statistics show that in this data, as the experience for coaches' increased, the odds of the coach believing that no pass, no play motivates students to be successful decreased. Additionally, as the percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play increased, the odds of the coach believing that no pass, no play motivates students to be successful decreased.

In summary, for this step the following three variables were found to be significant: gender, experience, and students impacted. Therefore, it can be concluded that the gender of the coach, experience of the coach, and number of students impacted by no pass, no play each influenced whether or not coaches disagreed or agreed with no pass, no play being influential in motivating student athletes.

Data Analysis for Survey Question 8: Allowing students to practice while they are ineligible to participate motivates students to stay in school.

Student dropout and retention rates were the main focus in question eight. When students are not able to participate because of academic ineligibility, dropping out of school might be a consideration. Prior to the changes in no pass, no play through Senate Bill 1, students were not allowed participation in any way during periods of academic ineligibility. However, through changes in the bill, students can practice during these periods. The purpose of the question was to gauge the feelings of coaches on whether they think the ability to practice provides a motivation for students to stay in school.

For question eight, significance was found for four variables: poverty status of the district ($p=.010$), gender ($p=.137$), percentage of students impacted by no pass, no

play ($p=.002$), and minority students per campus ($p=.023$). The Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test was not significant (.683), thus confirming these variables fit the model. The Nagelkerke R Square was .120, and thus showed that 12% of the variance could be explained by the variables in Table 8.

Table 8.—Summary of Blockwise Analysis for Variables Predicting Coaches' Responses to Question 8: Allowing Students to Practice While They are Ineligible to Participate Motivates Students to Stay in School

Variable	β	S.E.	Wald	d.f.	Sig.	Exp β
Poverty Status in District	-.101	.039	6.660**	1	.010**	.904
Gender	.625	.421	2.207	1	.138	1.868
Percentage of Students Impacted by No Pass, No Play	-.029	.009	9.273**	1	.002**	.972
Minority Student Population per Campus	.028	.012	5.160*	1	.023*	1.028

Note: Coding of gender variable: 0=male, 1=female

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$ (significance for the Wald statistic was found using the chi-square distribution).

The Wald statistics for three of the four variables showed the b -coefficients were significantly different from zero, thus proving that all variables had a significant contribution to coaches' perceptions and their beliefs concerning practice during ineligibility periods. These variables were: poverty status in the district (-.101), percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play (-.029), and minority student population per campus (.028). The gender variable (.625) was not found to be significant using the Wald statistic. The Exp β statistic for the gender variable suggested that females were 87% more likely to feel that allowing students to practice while they are ineligible to participate motivated students to stay in school. The Exp β statistic for

the minority student population variable was 1.028, confirming that as the minority population increased, the coaches were more likely to have positive beliefs concerning practice during ineligibility periods. The poverty status and percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play variables were both below one at .904 and .972, respectively. These statistics showed that with these data, as these variables increased, the likelihood of a coach having positive beliefs concerning practice during ineligibility periods decreased.

To summarize, the three variables found to be significant in this step were: poverty status in the district, percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play, and the minority student population per campus. In this step, gender was not found to be significant. These statistics allow us to conclude that poverty status in the district, the percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play, and the minority student population per campus each influenced coaches' feelings on whether or not no pass, no play motivates students to stay in school.

Data Analysis for Survey Question 12: Students participating in extracurricular activities say the threat of suspension causes them to study more often than they would if they were not participating in extracurricular activities.

While a sport is in season, some students may hypothetically, work more diligently than they otherwise would to maintain passing grades. This question was constructed to examine if coaches felt that the fear of losing eligibility serves as motivator for students to study during a season in which they are participating.

For this question, two variables were found to significantly explain coaches' responses. The gender of the coach ($p=.026$) and the experience of the coach ($p=.046$) were found to be significant. However, two variables in this step were not significant. Percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play ($p=.055$) approached significance and annual household income ($.200$) was not significant. The Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test was not found to be significant with a level of $.779$, confirming that these variables fit the model. The Nagelkerke R Square confirmed that 11% of the variance was explained by the variables in Table 9.

Table 9.—Summary of Blockwise Analysis for Variables Predicting Coaches' Responses to Question 12: Students Participating in Extracurricular Activities Say the Threat of Suspension Causes Them to Study More Often than They Would if They were not Participating in Extracurricular Activities

Variable	β	S.E.	Wald	d.f.	Sig.	Exp β
Annual Household Income	.000	.000	1.642	1	.200	1.000
Gender	1.062	.477	4.956*	1	.026*	2.893
Experience	-.035	.018	3.971*	1	.046*	.965
Percentage of Students Impacted by No Pass, No Play	-.019	.010	3.695	1	.055	.981

Note: Coding of gender variable: 0=male, 1=female

* $p<.05$ (significance for the Wald statistic was found using the chi-square distribution).

The Wald statistic showed the b -coefficients for gender (1.062) and experience (-.035) were significantly different from zero, thus proving that the coaches' gender and experience each made a significant contribution to the perceptions they had regarding whether or not students study more as a result of the threat from being suspended from participation. The Wald statistics for annual household income (1.642) and percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play (3.695) were not significant, therefore

confirming a negative relationship. Referring to the Exp β of 1.000 for the household income variable, it was suggested that as the annual household income increased, so does the likelihood that the coach perceived students to feel threatened by no pass, no play, resulting in increased study time by the students. Gender also had a significant Exp β (2.89). This statistic showed that female coaches were almost three times more likely than male coaches to believe that students feel threatened by suspension from participation, thus increasing their study time. The Exp β statistics for experience and percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play were below one at .965 and .981, respectively, therefore confirming a negative relationship. These statistics show that in this data, as the experience for coaches' increased, the odds of the coach believing that students feel threatened by no pass, no play decreased. Additionally, as the percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play increased, the odds of the coach believing that students feel threatened by no pass, no play decreased.

In summary, for this step both the gender and experience of coach variables were found to be significant and the annual household income and percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play variables were found to not be significant. Based on these data, it can be concluded that the coaches' gender and years of experience each influenced whether or not coaches find their students study more as a result of the threat of suspension from participation in athletics.

Data Analysis for Survey Question 14: The grade of 70 required to participate in extracurricular activities should be raised to promote improved student academic performance.

In most grading scales, a grade of a 70 is considered passing, but does not necessarily mean that students are putting forth maximum effort. This question was created to attempt to ascertain whether coaches felt that the grade minimum for participation in extracurricular activities should be raised to increase academic rigor.

For this question, only one variable, gender, was included in this step and was found to be highly significant at a level of .004. The Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test was not calculated because there was only one predictor and the predictor was a categorical dichotomy variable. The Nagelkerke R Square confirmed that only 6% of the variance was explained by the variables in Table 10.

Table 10.—Summary of Blockwise Analysis for Variables Predicting Coaches' Responses to Question 14: The Grade of 70 Required to Participate in Extracurricular Activities Should be Raised to Promote Improved Student Academic Performance

Variable	B	S.E.	Wald	d.f.	Sig.	Exp β
Gender	1.091	.375	8.47*	1	.004*	2.976

Note: Coding of gender variable: 0=male, 1=female

* $p < .01$ (significance for the Wald statistic was found using the chi-square distribution).

The Wald statistic showed the *b*-coefficient for gender (1.091) was significantly different from zero, thus proving that the coaches' gender made a significant contribution to the perceptions they had regarding whether or not the minimum grade of 70, required to participate in extracurricular activities, should be raised to promote improved student academic performance. The Exp β statistic (2.976), confirmed that female coaches are almost three times more likely to agree that the minimum grade of 70 should be increased to promote improved student academic performance.

To summarize, in this step, gender was found to be a significant variable. From this data, we can conclude the coaches' gender influenced their perceptions concerning an increased minimum grade requirement for participation in extracurricular activities.

Instructional Issues

Data Analysis for Survey Question 16: No pass, no play is effective because it allows students the opportunity to demonstrate mastery of concepts not previously understood.

When students do not receive a passing grade for a class and become ineligible to participate in extracurricular activities, the expectation should be that they are given additional opportunities to learn or relearn the material with which they were unsuccessful. This question was constructed to ascertain whether or not coaches think that as a result of suspension due to no pass, no play, students are given additional opportunities to learn material.

For this question, both variables were found to significantly explain coaches' responses. The annual dropout rate ($p=.001$) and the district poverty status ($p=.000$) were both found to be highly significant. The Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test was not found to be significant with a level of .843, confirming that these variables fit the model. The Nagelkerke R Square confirmed that only 11% of the variance was explained by the variables in Table 11.

Table 11.—Summary of Blockwise Analysis for Variables Predicting Coaches' Responses to Question 16: No Pass, No Play is Effective Because it Allows Students the Opportunity to Demonstrate Mastery of Concepts not Previously Understood

Variable	B	S.E.	Wald	d.f.	Sig.	Exp β
Annual Dropout Rate	-.636	.186	11.736*	1	.001*	.530
Poverty Status in District	.079	.021	13.676*	1	.000*	1.083

Note: * $p < .01$ (significance for the Wald statistic was found using the chi-square distribution).

For question 16, the Wald statistic showed that the b -coefficient for annual dropout rate (-.636) was significantly different from zero, thus confirming that the dropout rate made significant contributions to coaches' beliefs that no pass, no play impacted student opportunities to learn or relearn academic concepts. Additionally, the Wald statistic for the district poverty status (13.676) was also very significant, proving that this variable also made significant contributions to coaches' beliefs that no pass, no play impacted student opportunities to learn or relearn academic concepts. For the annual dropout rate, the Exp. β (.530) showed a negative relationship in that as the annual dropout rate increased, the coaches' belief that no pass, no play impacted student opportunities to master concepts not previously understood decreased. However, the Exp β for poverty status (1.083) confirmed that as the poverty status increased, the coaches' belief that no pass, no play impacted student opportunities to master concepts not previously understood increased.

Both the annual dropout rate and poverty status variables were found to be significant for question 16. The interaction was run between the two variables because of the possibility of correlation between the two. However, statistical significance was not found. After analyzing these data, it can be concluded that a relationship existed

between annual dropout rate and poverty status and the coaches' belief that no pass, no play impacted student opportunities to master concepts not previously understood.

Data Analysis for Survey Question 17: Teachers are cooperative and supportive of the process of students regaining and/or maintaining eligibility.

This question was written to examine whether coaches believe teachers are willing to help monitor students involved in extracurricular activities. Additionally, the question was posed to assess if coaches feel that teachers are helpful with the process of periodic grade checks, motivating students involved in extracurricular activities, and keeping coaches apprised of changes in the grades of student athletes.

For question 17, the only variable included in this step was the minority coach variable and it was found to be significant ($p=.028$). The Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test was not calculated because there was only one predictor and the predictor was a categorical dichotomy variable. The Nagelkerke R Square confirmed that only 3% of the variance was explained by the variables in Table 12.

Table 12.—Summary of Blockwise Analysis for Variables Predicting Coaches' Responses to Question 17: Teachers are Cooperative and Supportive of the Process of Students Regaining and/or Maintaining Eligibility

Variable	β	S.E.	Wald	d.f.	Sig.	Exp β
Minority Coach	-.673	.307	4.806*	1	.028*	.510

Note: Coding of minority coach variable: 0=white, 1=minority

* $p<.05$ (significance for the Wald statistic was found using the chi-square distribution).

The Wald statistic showed that the b -coefficient (-.673) for minority coach status was significantly different from zero, thus proving that the minority coaches'

perceptions of whether or not teachers were cooperative and supportive of the process of students regaining or maintaining eligibility was significant. Referring to the Exp β of .510, it is below one, therefore confirming a negative relationship. For this data, as the likelihood of a coach being classified as a minority increased, the coach was less likely to feel that teachers were cooperative and supportive of the process of students regaining or maintaining eligibility.

In summary, for this step only the minority coach variable was found to be significant. Therefore, it can be concluded that the minority status of the coach impacted if they viewed teachers as cooperative and supportive of eligibility issues that are present because of no pass, no play.

Data Analysis for Survey Question 21: In order to influence student eligibility, parents and student-athletes challenge failing grades assigned by teachers.

This question was constructed to examine coaches' feel that parents attempted to influence teachers to change grades so their children would be eligible for participation. It was intended for coaches to report if parents questioned grades once they were final or if they questioned grades during the six weeks to ensure their child was not in danger of losing eligibility.

For question 21, the only variable included in this step was the type of sport variable, and it approached significance, however it was not significant (.052). The Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test was not calculated because there was only one predictor and the predictor is a categorical dichotomy variable. The Nagelkerke R

Square confirmed that only 2% of the variance was explained by the variables in

Table 13.

Table 13.—Summary of Blockwise Analysis for Variables Predicting Coaches' Responses to Question 21: In Order to Influence Student Eligibility, Parents and Student-Athletes Challenge Failing Grades Assigned by Teachers

Variable	β	S.E.	Wald	d.f.	Sig.	Exp β
Type of Sport	-.546	.281	3.784	1	.052	.579

Coding for the Sport variable: 1: Baseball, Basketball, and Football; 0: Badminton, Cross Country, Golf, Power lifting, Soccer, Softball, Swimming, Tennis, Track and Field, Volleyball, Wrestling, and Sport not Listed.

As these data set show, the variable approached significance, however it was greater than .05. It can be concluded that the type of sport does not have an impact on coaches' perceptions that in order to influence student eligibility, parents and student-athletes challenge failing grades assigned by teachers.

Suspension Variables

Data Analysis for Survey Question 7: No Pass, No Play is not a concern because of student participation numbers in my program.

This question was constructed to assess if coaches' had different perceptions of no pass, no play because of low or high numbers in their athletic programs. Hypothetically, for coaches with high numbers of athletes in relation to the number of athletes needed for a team, they may not feel as though no pass, no play poses a threat to their program. They will have plenty of athletes to select from in the event that an athlete becomes ineligible. On the other side of the argument, coaches with low

numbers of athletes in relation to the number of athletes needed for a team might struggle as a result of an athlete becoming ineligible. In some cases these schools may barely have enough students to field a team or may have to combine or cut teams as a result of losing students to academic ineligibility. In either case, coaches could potentially lose numbers as a result of no pass, no play. The purpose of the question was targeted at finding their feelings on this, while considering their program numbers.

For question seven, no variables were found to be significant. The Hosmer and Lemeshow Test was not significant at a level of .446, thus confirming that the variables fit the model. In addition, the Nagelkerke Square showed that the variables in Table 14 only accounted for 2% of the explained variance. Thus, it could be concluded that neither coach characteristics, school and community characteristics, nor student factors influenced how coaches perceived the policy as far as its' impact on membership numbers.

Table 14.—Summary of Blockwise Analysis for Variables Predicting Coaches' Responses to Question 7: No Pass, No Play is not a Concern Because of Student Participation Numbers in My Program

Variable	β	S.E.	Wald	d.f.	Sig.	Exp β
Percentage of Economically Disadvantaged Students per Campus	-.011	.007	2.155	1	.142	.989
Minority Coach	.705	.422	2.788	1	.095	2.025

Note: Coding of minority coach variable: 0=white, 1=minority

As this data set shows, both variables are $>.05$, and are therefore not significant. Thus, it can be concluded that participation numbers do not impact coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play.

Data Analysis for Survey Question 9: Students suspended from participation in extracurricular activities are often cited for disciplinary infractions.

Question nine was written to determine whether or not students were more likely to have discipline issues during their suspension. As the literature suggests, student athletes will have fewer disciplinary issues when they are participating in a sport (Landers and Landers, 1978). This question sought to examine whether or not coaches detected more discipline problems from their academically ineligible students, during this ineligibility period.

For question nine, both variables included in this step were found to be significant: annual household income ($p=.018$) and annual dropout rate ($p=.043$). The Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test was not significant at .750, confirming that these variables fit the model. The Nagelkerke R Square showed that only 3% of variance could be explained by the variables in Table 15.

Table 15.—Summary of Blockwise Analysis for Variables Predicting Coaches' Responses to Question 9: Students Suspended from Participation in Extracurricular Activities are Often Cited for Disciplinary Infractions

Variable	β	S.E.	Wald	d.f.	Sig.	Exp β
Annual Household Income	.000	.000	5.619*	1	.018*	1.00
Annual Dropout Rate	-.289	.142	4.115*	1	.043*	.749

* $p<.05$ (significance for the Wald statistic was found using the chi-square distribution).

The Wald statistics for both variables showed that the b -coefficients for the annual household income (.000) and annual dropout rate (-.289) were significantly different from zero, thus proving that both variables made a significant contribution to

coaches' reporting if their ineligible athletes had more disciplinary infractions during the suspension period. Referring to the Exp β statistic (Exp $\beta=1.00$) for the annual household income variable, it showed that as annual household income increased, the likelihood of an athlete receiving a disciplinary infraction during their suspension period also increased. The Exp β statistic for the annual dropout rate variable was .749, confirming that as the annual dropout rate increased, athletes were less likely to receive disciplinary infractions during their suspension periods.

For question nine, the annual household income and the annual dropout rate variables were both significant. It can be concluded that annual household income and annual dropout rate influenced whether or not ineligible students have more disciplinary infractions during their suspension period.

Data Analysis for Survey Question 11: Students usually make better grades following periods of suspension from participation in extracurricular activities.

When students regain their eligibility after periods of suspension, many times they will have an increase in motivation and will work to maintain their eligibility. The goal of this question was to examine whether or not coaches found that students made better grades after regaining their eligibility.

For question 11, the percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play ($p=.014$) and the gender of the coach ($p=.021$) were both found to be significant. The Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test was found not to be significant at a level of .075, proving that the two variables fit the model. The Nagelkerke R Square statistic showed that only 6% of the variance could be explained by the variables in Table 16.

Table 16.—Summary of Blockwise Analysis for Variables Predicting Coaches' Responses to Question 11: Students Usually Make Better Grades Following Periods of Suspension from Participation in Extracurricular Activities

Variable	β	S.E.	Wald	d.f.	Sig.	Exp β
Percentage of Students Impacted by No Pass, No Play	-.021	.008	6.054*	1	.014*	.979
Gender	.730	.316	5.333*	1	.021*	2.075

Note: Coding of gender variable: 0=male, 1=female

* $p < .05$ (significance for the Wald statistic was found using the chi-square distribution).

The Wald statistics for both variables showed that the b -coefficients for percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play (-.021) and gender (.730) were significantly different from zero, thus proving that both variables had a significant contribution to coaches' reporting if their athletes make better grades following periods of suspension from extracurricular activities. The Exp β statistic (Exp β =.979) for the variable, percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play, showed that as the number of ineligible students increased, the likelihood of an athlete making better grades following suspension decreased. The Exp β statistic for the gender variable was 2.075, confirming that female coaches were twice as likely as male coaches to report that their athletes made better grades following periods of suspension.

To summarize, both the percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play and the gender variables were found to be significant. Thus, it can be concluded that the number of students that lose eligibility due to no pass, no play and the gender of the coach influenced coaches' findings of whether or not they find athletes to make better grades following periods of suspension.

Ethnicity Specific Variables

Data Analysis for Survey Question 18: African-American students at my school are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities due to no pass, no play.

This question was asked to attempt to assess if coaches found that African-American students lose eligibility at a higher rate than other ethnic groups.

For question 18, the only variable included in this step was the minority coach variable and it was not significant ($p=.131$). The Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test was not calculated because there was only one predictor and the predictor was a categorical dichotomy variable. The Nagelkerke R Square confirmed that only 1% of the variance was explained by the variables in Table 17.

Table 17.—Summary of Blockwise Analysis for Variables Predicting Coaches' Responses to Question 18: African-American Students at My School are More Likely to be Suspended from Participating in Extracurricular Activities Due to No Pass, No Play

Variable	β	S.E.	Wald	d.f.	Sig.	Exp β
Minority Coach	.480	.317	2.283	1	.131	1.615

Note: Coding of minority coach variable: 0=white, 1=minority

As the data set shows, the variable for minority coach was more than .05, and was not significant. Therefore, it can be concluded that the minority status of the coach did not impact if they reported that more African-American students were more likely to lose eligibility from extracurricular activities.

Data Analysis for Survey Question 19: Hispanic students at my school are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities due to no pass, no play.

This question was asked to evaluate whether coaches found that Hispanic students lose eligibility at a higher rate than other ethnic groups.

For question 19, the only variable included in this step was the gender of coach variable and it was significant ($p=.034$). The Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test was not calculated because there is only one predictor and the predictor is a categorical dichotomy variable. The Nagelkerke R Square confirmed that only 2% of the variance was explained by the variables in Table 18.

Table 18.—Summary of Blockwise Analysis for Variables Predicting Coaches' Responses to Question 19: Hispanic Students at My School are More Likely to be Suspended from Participating in Extracurricular Activities Due to No Pass, No Play

Variable	β	S.E.	Wald	d.f.	Sig.	Exp β
Gender	-.591	.279	4.496*	1	.034*	.554

Note: Coding of gender variable: 0=male, 1=female

* $p<.05$ (significance for the Wald statistic was found using the chi-square distribution).

The Wald statistic showed that the b -coefficient (-.591) for gender was significantly different from zero, thus proving that the coaches' gender made a significant impact on their perception that Hispanic students were more likely to be suspended from participation in extracurricular activities. Referring to the Exp β of .554, it is below one, therefore confirming a negative relationship. For this data, female

coaches are more likely to believe that Hispanic students stand a greater chance of being suspended from participation.

To summarize, the data for this step showed the coaches' gender as a significant variable. Therefore, it can be concluded that the gender of the coach impacted their perceptions of the likelihood that Hispanic students are more likely to lose eligibility from extracurricular activities.

Data Analysis for Survey Question 20: White students at my school are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities due to no pass, no play.

This question was asked to attempt to ascertain if coaches found that White students lose eligibility at a higher rate than other ethnic groups.

For this question, three variables were found to significantly explain coaches' responses. The minority coach variable ($p=.002$), the type of sport variable ($p=.011$), and the per campus minority variables ($p=.002$) were all found to be highly significant. The Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test was found to be significant with a level of .024, confirming that these variables fit the model poorly. The Nagelkerke R Square confirmed that 16% of the variance was explained by the variables in Table 19.

Table 19.—Summary of Blockwise Analysis for Variables Predicting Coaches' Responses to Question 21: White Students at My School are More Likely to be Suspended from Participating in Extracurricular Activities Due to No Pass, No Play

Variable	B	S.E.	Wald	d.f.	Sig.	Exp β
Minority Coach	1.902	.600	10.043**	1	.002**	6.697
Type of Sport	1.239	.487	6.481*	1	.011*	3.454
Minority Student Population per Campus	-.034	.011	9.689**	1	.002**	.966

Note: Coding of minority coach variable: 0=white, 1=minority

Coding for the Sport variable: 1: Baseball, Basketball, and Football; 0: Badminton, Cross Country, Golf, Power lifting, Soccer, Softball, Swimming, Tennis, Track and Field, Volleyball, Wrestling, and Sport not Listed.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$ (significance for the Wald statistic was found using the chi-square distribution).

The Wald statistic showed that the *b*-coefficients for minority coach (1.902), type of sport (1.239) and minority student population per campus (-.034) were significantly different from zero, thus proving that the coaches' minority status, the type of sport, and the minority student population per campus each made a significant contribution to whether or not coaches perceived White students to be suspended from participation more than other ethnic student groups. Referring to the Exp β of 6.697 for the minority coach variable, it was suggested that if a coach was a minority, they were six times more likely to have perceived that White students were suspended from play more than other ethnic student groups. The type of sport also had a significant Exp β (3.454). This statistic showed that the type of sports in this study had a positive impact on the likelihood those coaches' perceived White students to be suspended more than those students in other ethnic groups. The more likely a sport was baseball, basketball, or football, the more likely this relationship was found. The Exp β statistic for the campus

minority student population was below one at .966, therefore confirming a negative relationship. In this data, the higher the minority student population of a campus, the less likely coaches perceived White students to be suspended from participation more than students from other ethnic groups.

To summarize, coach minority status, type of sport, and per campus minority population were all significant variables in step one of this data set. It can be concluded that each of these variables impacted coaches' beliefs of whether or not White students are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities due to no pass, no play.

Summary of Findings

A number of variables were found to reoccur within thematic clusters. Within other clusters, variables did not reappear. For the variables to reappear in this step, significance was found in each variable during the first round of steps. When these variables reappeared within or between groups, it demonstrated that they significantly impacted the study. Additionally, some variables were more or less influential within various groups.

Within the student motivation cluster, gender appeared in four questions and in this step, was found to be significant for three of the four questions. Experience of the coach appeared in two questions and for this step, and significance was found for both. The last reoccurring variable in this cluster was the percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play and it appeared in three questions for this step, and was found to be

significant for two of the three steps. For the thematic cluster, ethnicity specific variables, the minority coach variable occurred in two questions in this round and significance was found for one of the two in this step.

The additional two clusters used in this study were the instructional issue variables and the suspension variables. Reoccurring variables were not found in either of these clusters.

Variables were also found to recur between the various clusters. The gender of the coach variable was found in the student motivation, ethnicity specific, and suspension clusters. Percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play was found in the suspension and student motivation clusters. The variable poverty status within the district was found in the student motivation and instructional issues clusters. The minority student population variable was found in both the student motivation and the ethnicity specific variables clusters. For the annual household income variable, it was found in the student motivation and suspension clusters. The annual dropout rate variable was included in both the instructional issues and suspension clusters. In the instructional issues, ethnicity, and suspension clusters was the variable, minority coach. Lastly, the coach variable was found in the instructional issues and ethnicity specific clusters. This information is organized in Table 20.

Table 20.—Reoccurring Independent Variables Organized by Thematic Cluster

	Gender of Coach	Percentage of Students Impacted by No Pass, No Play	Poverty Status within District	Minority Student Population of Campus	Annual Household Income	Annual Dropout Rate of Campus	Minority Coach	Type of Sport
Student Motivation	X	X	X	X	X			
Ethnicity Specific	X			X			X	X
Suspension	X	X			X	X	X	
Instructional			X			X	X	X

In a number of questions, the findings were found to be very convincing with regard to the significance found. In question six, gender was a significant variable at a level of .005. Question eighteen had two highly significant variables: poverty status within district ($p=.010$) and the percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play ($p=.002$). Gender appeared again as a highly significant variable in question fourteen with a level of .004. In question sixteen, annual dropout rate ($p=.001$) and district poverty status ($p=.000$) were found to be very significant. Lastly, the minority coach and minority student population per campus variables were found to be significant in question twenty-one with a level of .002.

A number of variables made a great deal of impact in this study and this can be seen through the interactions within and between groups. Additionally, many of the variables were found to be very significant, thus proving their importance to the study.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The major purpose of this study was to determine the degree to which no pass, no play impacted the perceptions of academic player eligibility by high school coaches in Educational Service Center, Region 20, Texas.

This chapter is divided in to four basic sections. The first section provides a summary of the study. The second section provides a discussion of the findings, and outcomes, and an extension of data analysis and literature review. In the third section, a conclusion of the study is provided along with implications for practice. The fourth section outlines recommendations and implications for educational leaders and policy-makers as they review and refine educational reform efforts.

Introduction

The literature suggests proponents and opponents of no pass, no play continue to debate whether or not it should be used to prohibit those students making grades below 70 from participating in extracurricular activities (Brown, 1988). Current research indicates that proponents of no pass, no play have an array of reasons for supporting the provision. Emmons (1995) found that educators in favor of academic standards for eligibility argue that rules which increase academic demands will result in better preparation at the high school level. Other proponents argue the many benefits of

participation in extracurricular activities. Marsh (1992) suggested that participation in extracurricular activities may increase a student's investment in school, which may promote better academic attitudes. Holland and Andre (1987) found that participation in activity increases educational aspirations and attainment. Several studies have found that students who participate in high school athletics are more likely to have better attendance records (Durbin, 1986; NFSHSA, as cited in Stevens & Peltier, 1994; Videon, 2002). Zill et al., (1995) found that participation in one to four hours of extracurricular activities per week was related to a reduced likelihood of dropping out.

Opponents however express concerns over the efficacy of such provisions. Frith and Clark (1984) believe that when implementing minimum requirements, there is an assumption that all students are able to attain at least a 2.0 average. Those students unable to do this are excluded from participation, and they believe it is unreasonable to expect every student to maintain a 2.0. Additionally, Harper (1986) questions the implementation of minimum standards asking if the long term effects of minimum standards for athletes will be negative or positive. Harper also questions if a minimum grade requirement will possibly lead to grade inflation. Inequities may also be present in honors classes as students may fail courses and not be eligible to participate (Ostro, 1984).

Discussion

The participants for this study were full-time employees of school districts in Education Service Center Region 20, Texas. They held positions as head coaches of

male and female varsity sports from the 15 county regions in South Central Texas. Two hundred and sixty-three participants responded to the questionnaire.

Research Question #1

In selected Texas ESC Region 20 high schools, what perceptions did coaches develop as a result of “no pass, no play?”

- a. To what extent did the coach’s gender, ethnicity, and experience impact their perceptions of “no pass, no play” in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?

The literature indicates that relatively few researchers have focused on the coaching behaviors of male and female coaches. No literature was found on the ethnicity of coaches and how this impacts behavior as this was an exploratory variable. In addition, little research was found that identifies optimal coaching behaviors and factors that influence the effectiveness of particular behaviors (Kenow & Williams, 1999). However, the existing research shows that male coaches were more likely to engage in technical instruction, while female coaches were more likely to give general encouragement (Chelladurai et al., 1999). Additionally, male coaches engaged more often in control keeping behaviors (Chelladurai et al., 1999). Men perceived greater variety and control in coaching, while women perceived greater variety and control in teaching (Chelladurai et al., 1999). This finding is consistent with the findings in this study as the gender of the coach was a significant variable for a number of questions in the study. In this study, female coaches were more likely to believe that no pass, no play

was a motivational tool for student athletes. The literature stated that male coaches engaged more often in control keeping behaviors (Millard, 1996). Monitoring grades and student eligibility can be considered a control keeping behavior as coaches have control over various measures used to make sure student-athletes remain eligible. The literature is not consistent with the findings in this study; however researchers should consider this variable for future studies.

Male coaches are also thought to be more confident than female coaches and the research shows that confidence is an important contributor to coaching involvement and coaching motivation (Weiss & Stevens, 1993). Barber (1998) believes that efficacious and competent coaches are more likely to put forth greater effort while coaching. Therefore, it can be concluded that male coaches put forth a greater effort while coaching as they are seen as more confident. Throughout this study, female coaches consistently perceived no pass, no play as an effective motivational technique. They believed the provision was effective at a higher rate than male coaches and felt it was necessary to help student-athletes. Their belief in no pass, no play shows a commitment to the provision and a commitment to keeping athletes eligible. Again, monitoring student grades and eligibility requires a great deal of time and effort on the part of a coach and a female coach's willingness to make this commitment demonstrates a greater than normal motivation to keeping athletes eligible. Thus, can be concluded that the existing literature and findings in this study are inconsistent.

There was little research found on teaching and coaching experience and students' motivation to learn. One finding that was reported is that teachers with more

experience were likely to have a more positive influence on students motivation (Berliner, 1991). According to findings from this study, as the experience of the coach increased, their beliefs that no pass, no play was an effective motivator decreased. This finding is not unexpected as more experienced coaches have had previous opportunities to find effective ways to motivate students. It is possible that coaches with more experience are able to use their expertise to motivate student-athletes, and therefore student-athletes do not need no pass, no play to motivate them. The literature is not consistent with the findings in this study; however researchers should consider this variable for future studies.

In selected Texas ESC Region 20 high schools, what perceptions did coaches develop as a result of “no pass, no play?”

b. How much influence did the type of sport play in coaches’ perceptions of “no pass, no play” in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?

Pavalko (1971) found social class and race are sociocultural factors used in the determinations of occupations. This finding can be transferred to the athletic arena as athletes with a higher social class may have more opportunities for sport than those in a lower social class. Woodman (1977) believes that sport participation is more a function of access than of attitudinal predisposition. In Region 20, the type of sport approached significance as an exploratory variable when the question focused on whether parents attempt to influence eligibility with no pass, no play. If sociocultural factors influence the sport that athletes choose, this finding is quite telling. It can be assumed that the parents of students from higher social classes are going to be more involved in their

students' lives and might attempt to persuade the grades of their child in order to make sure the child is eligible.

The type of sport variable also played an important role when the question targeted if White students are suspended from participation more often. In this study, the more likely the sport was basketball, football, or baseball, the more likely the coach perceived White students to be impacted by no pass, no play. Clotfelter (2002) found that White students have higher participation rates than nonwhite students. Additionally, race was one of the sociocultural factors used to determine occupations in Pavalko's (1971) study and race is also a significant factor in the present study. It can be concluded in Region 20 that race influences the access students have to sports and that White students are more likely to be impacted by no pass, no play. In schools where Clotfelter's finding is true, it is logical that White students are impacted at a higher rate than their nonwhite counterparts. However, in schools where this finding is not true and White students are still impacted at a higher rate, these coaches need to analyze their programs and determine why their White student athletes are having difficulties remaining eligible.

Research Question #2

Did the school minority enrollment, percentage of economically disadvantaged students, annual dropout rate, annual household income, poverty status of the district, and school academic performance have any impact on

coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play in selected high schools in ESC, Region 20, Texas?

The perceptions of varsity coaches in this study compares favorably with the results of a study by McNeal (1995), which addresses the high school dropout issue and extracurricular participation. He found that athletic participation reduces the probability of school dropout by 40%. In Schafer and Armer's (1968) study, the drop-out rate for non-athletes was four times higher than for athletes. Frith and Clark (1984) state that some students may decide to drop out of school when the opportunity for participation in extracurricular activity is taken away. Varsity coaches in Region 20 revealed that the coach's gender, poverty status in the district, percentage of students impacted by no pass, no play, and minority student population per campus all positively influenced their perceptions on whether allowing students to practice while they are ineligible to participate motivates students to stay in school. By allowing students to practice, students are allowed to continue their participation. This is important as the research shows that students involved in extracurricular activities are less likely to dropout (McNeal, 1995). Additionally, at-risk boys and girls have lower dropout rates when they participate in at least one extracurricular activity (Mahoney, 2000; Mahoney & Cairns, 1997). An at-risk student population in a school can include any of the listed significant variables including students impacted by no pass, no play, minority students, and students impacted by poverty. Thus, the research provides evidence of the importance of extracurricular activity for at-risk students.

A study by Landers and Landers (1978) revealed that participation in athletic activities was significantly related to lower incidence of delinquent acts and risky behaviors. Zill et al. (1995) found that students that do not participate in extracurricular activity are 27% more likely to have been arrested. Coaches in Region 20 reported that annual household income and annual dropout rate influenced their perceptions of whether students were cited for disciplinary infractions more often during periods of suspension. These findings are consistent with the research that shows that when students are involved, they are less likely to have discipline problems. In addition, as the annual household income increased, the number of disciplinary infractions increased. Also, as the dropout rate increased, the number of disciplinary infractions decreased.

Brown and Evans (2002) found that participation in sports seems to have a greater attraction and retention for minority students. Sabo (1986) reported that minority students who participated in extracurricular activities were found to be more involved with other school affairs than minority students that do not participate. Region 20 coaches reported that the minority student population per campus was a significant variable when it related to motivating students to stay in school. Coaches believed that as the minority student population increased, no pass, no play becomes an increasingly important variable in motivating students to stay in school. Melnick et al. (1992) found that minority students participating in athletics did not dropout because they enjoyed sport and the friendships and popularity that sport fostered. The more involved minority students are in school activities, the more likely they will stay in school. This is a very positive finding for minority students. As they begin building relationships with other

students and find an association, minority student-athletes have an association and affiliation to their school and they take pride in their participation and their school. In addition, minorities participating in athletics were also found to report higher grades at a higher level than their nonparticipating peers (Sabo, 1986). These students are using athletics as a motivating factor to do well academically. They are succeeding and this finding is quite telling for schools across the country. The bottom line is that we must get students involved in school activities. Regardless of the student, the benefits speak for themselves.

Student SES impacts student participation in activities. One study found that lower SES boys who participate in athletics are more likely to have higher educational aspirations than lower SES boys who do not participate (Spady, 1970). McNeal (1998) found that 66% of higher SES students participate in athletics as compared to 56% of students from lower SES. In Region 20, the percentage of economically disadvantaged students significantly impacted coaches' responses concerning participation numbers. As the percentage of economically disadvantaged students increased, coaches were more likely to feel that no pass, no play was a concern because of their participation numbers. This finding is consistent with the literature that states that lower SES students participate at lower rates than higher SES students (McNeal, 1998). If the research is consistent, coaches in schools with higher numbers of low SES students will have fewer participants and will be threatened by any type of provision that could negatively impact participation numbers.

Research Question #3

In Texas ESC Region 20 high schools, how much influence did no pass, no play have in motivating student athletes to work to maintain a 70 average or above in each course?

Joekel (1985) states that students that fail to meet the eligibility requirement will be motivated to raise his or her grades in order to participate. Moreover, many educators advocate that students participating in extracurricular activities should be required to have academic standards including a minimum grade point average of 2.0 (Jones, 1986). In Region 20, coaches reported that the gender of coach, experience of coach, and the percentage of students impacted, each positively influenced the coaches' perceptions regarding the motivation of athletes. The findings were consistent with the literature that students will be motivated to increase their grades if they become ineligible (Jones, 1986).

It was argued that if a student is academically failing, then the student should be spending time on their studies (Joekel, 1985). Annual dropout rate and district poverty status were variables that influenced coaches' perceptions that no pass, no play gives students an opportunity to demonstrate a mastery of concepts not previously understood. Students that are allowed additional opportunities to master concepts may receive these opportunities when they fail. They then spend additional time on their studies in order to master the concepts. Therefore, the findings in Region 20 are consistent with the literature.

Research Question #4

How much influence did student outcomes as a result of no pass, no play have on coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play in selected high schools, ESC Region 20, Texas?

Soltz (1986) found that student athletes' had an average GPA of 2.67 compared to 2.12 for non-participants. In another study female participants were found to have a GPA of 87.7 compared to 87.5 during the off-season. Male participants had a GPA of 84.7 in season and 83.8 out of season (Holloway, 2000). In Region 20, gender and experience of coach and percentage of students impacted each influenced coaches' perceptions of whether they believe that students study more as a result of the threat of suspension from participation. As students increase their study time, they will increase their GPA's. Additionally, they may have more periods of study hall or tutorials during their season of participation. It can be concluded that coaches in Region 20 believe that students study more as a result of no pass, no play and as a result student-athletes are more likely to have higher GPA's during periods of participation.

Parents of student-athletes may feel it necessary to challenge grades by teachers in order to ensure that their child is eligible to participate in extracurricular activities. Joekel (1985) states that opponents feel that because grades are arbitrary, implementation of minimum eligibility requirements may cause grade inflation and put more pressure on teachers. Teachers have also been found to hold higher expectations for students participating in extracurricular activities (Van Matre et al., 2000). The coaches in Region 20 reported that the variable type of sport, influenced their

perceptions of no pass, no play with regard to whether parents challenge failing grades. When parents challenge failing grades, they are putting additional pressure on teachers and possibly asking them to inflate grades to ensure their child remains eligible. From the data in this study, it can be concluded that the findings in Region 20 are consistent with those found in previous research.

Conclusions

The data in this study illustrated head varsity coaches perceptions' of no pass, no play regarding specific variables in school districts in Education Service Center, Region 20. The research showed that coaches expressed satisfaction with the provision. This is consistent with a prior study by Davis (1996).

In this study, the main goal was to examine coaches' perceptions of no pass, no play. Overall, the ethnicity specific and gender specific variables seemed to be most influential. Many implications for practice can be taken from the results in this study. Policy makers, athletic directors, coaches, administrators, and teachers should consider these findings as they work with student athletes and athletics programs.

It was hypothesized that the type of sport would have a great deal of impact on the coaches' perceptions. More specifically, sports with more affluent participants would not have athletes impacted by no pass, no play as these student-athletes are stereotyped as good students. For the most part, it is believed in our society that these students have family support structures conducive to success in school. In addition, these students are thought to be expected to attend college and in order to do this, they

must be academically prepared. The type of sport variable was overall not influential in this study. In addition, coaches did not seem to find this variable influential to their perceptions of no pass, no play.

Educational leaders and stakeholders should be aware that coaches do not necessarily base their views of no pass, no play on the type of sport or socioeconomic status of their athletes. This is a positive finding and it shows that coaches view all student-athletes as equals and work with each athlete to ensure they remain academically eligible each six weeks.

Experience of the coach was a variable that was expected to be very significant. Since 1985, drastic changes have been made in junior high and high school athletics in Texas. First there was the implementation of no pass, no play in 1985 and then the changes in no pass, no play through Senate Bill I in 1995. Veteran coaches might be more defiant or intolerant of the policy as a result of years and years of experience and the changes that come with it.

It was expected that the coaches in this study would have varying levels of years of experience, in addition to varying experiences working with no pass, no play. Coaches that were coaching prior to 1985 were expected to have different views than those coaches that were coaching between 1985 and 1995, and since 1995. This was not the case in this study as the experience variable showed little or no significance. It can be concluded from this finding that regardless of experience, coaches have no feelings either way with respect to no pass, no play. Coaches know and understand the implications of no pass, no play and understand the importance of this policy and how it

relates to student athletes and their athletic programs. In addition, athletic directors and administrators should continue to monitor coaches and their management and implementation of no pass, no play. Novice coaches will more than likely be familiar with the policy as they abided by it as junior high and high school athletes, particularly if they attended schools in Texas. However, they will not be familiar with some of the specifics or with how to work with teachers to help assist their athletes with eligibility. Additionally, they may not be familiar with how to check eligibility status for their athletes. Although the experience of the coach was not a significant factor in this study, a coaches' experience is invaluable to providing help and advice to athletes, novice coaches, and in some instances more experienced coaches.

The minority coach variable provided some surprising and interesting findings in this study. These coaches were from all ethnic groups, other than White, listed on the survey. This variable was included as an exploratory variable mostly to see if these coaches had issues with no pass, no play, and if they felt it was difficult to motivate students to remain eligible. It was believed that minority coaches would be coaching minority students. These coaches may feel that they can have a more positive impact on minority students than White students and therefore they work in campuses with high percentages of minority students. Additionally, they may also be more culturally responsive to minority students. This variable, although not a highly significant one overall for the study, showed that minority coaches feel that their participation numbers are negatively impacted by no pass, no play. This finding is quite telling as the research shows that minority students are less likely than White students to participate in

extracurricular activities. If a minority coach is in fact coaching minority students, and the participation rates are consistent with those found in the literature, then these coaches will already be struggling with participation numbers in a program. If then, other factors such as poverty, single parent homes, low educational status, and annual household income which are sometimes found in highly minority communities are included, these coaches will likely face enduring challenges in maintaining an adequate pool of eligible athletes. When minimum academic requirements compound the problem further, it is no surprise that minority coaches feel somewhat victimized by no pass, no play. These coaches have many other obstacles. However, they must make a special effort to help their students with academics and stress the importance of education.

In addition, the findings suggest that African American and White students were more likely to be impacted by no pass, no play. This is an interesting finding in light of the other findings that minority students overall or Hispanic students were more likely to be impacted, a finding deserving further investigation. Perhaps future studies should isolate majority, minority schools to assess effect. Deserving another look is why Hispanic students were omitted from this finding. Overall, it must be considered why Hispanic students are not participating at the rates of White and African American students. School stakeholders should take these findings and compare their program numbers to see if they see similar results. It is possible in some schools that more must be done with these White and African American students to help them remain eligible.

The minority student population and poverty status in the district are variables that in many instances affect the same students. The goal of using these as independent

variables was to examine how much impact each of them had on student academics. The finding is a positive one for those coaches in schools with high poverty rates or high percentages of minority students. The coaches in this study reported that no pass, no play is an effective motivational tool for helping these students with instruction or with motivating them to stay in school. This is a very positive finding and one that coaches must use to recruit players to their programs. This finding is consistent with the literature as it shows the positive effects of participation in athletics. More specifically, it is consistent with the literature on students from low SES backgrounds and minority students. Coaches, teachers, athletic directors, and administrators should actively recruit students not involved in athletics. They should talk to other student athletes about getting their friends and peers involved in athletics. Student athletes reap benefits that other students may not, however many students are ignorant to these benefits.

The gender of the coach was a variable that was perhaps the most significant variable in this study. The findings were somewhat expected as female coaches were more likely than males to feel that no pass, no play was a motivational tool and that more academic rigor should be associated with it. This is an interesting variable and one that deserves more attention.

It would be interesting for future researchers to attempt to ascertain if coaches feel differently when they coach male athletes as opposed to female athletes. This finding provides for a number of questions and it needs a good deal of explanation and could have several different pieces included in the puzzle. Coaches, athletic directors, and administrators should use these findings to have similar discussions with their

coaches. They could determine if on their campuses the findings are similar and work to use these findings to help their student athletes.

It was expected that coaches in this study would report that students make better grades after periods of suspension, and this was not the result. The no pass, no play provision is designed to help students in their academic pursuits. Further research should consider if male athletes seem to be motivated more by extrinsic variables, while females are academically motivated by nature. It is important for educational leaders and decision makers to determine how and why students are losing eligibility and why they are not working to make better grades after being suspended. By understanding this, it will hopefully help coaches keep their athletes eligible.

The demographic variables of the coach in this study were the most influential. Thus, it can be concluded that the coaches' background and experiences have a great deal to do with their perceptions of no pass, no play. Other variables included in this study, although important, did not provide as much or as telling of information as did these variables. It is important information for administrators and athletic directors to consider as they hire potential coaches. They want to make sure to hire coaches that realize the impact no pass, no play has on athletics and athletes. They want to make sure to hire coaches that are willing to work with athletes to help them maintain eligibility.

Winning is not the most important thing to consider when hiring coaches in this era. They must be willing to abide by laws and rules and be advocates for no pass, no play. The research on the positives of no pass, no play speaks for itself and coaches that are reluctant to advocate for the provision should be required to look at this research. It

is then that they will see what a positive no pass, no play truly is and what an asset it has been to Texas junior high and high school athletics.

Recommendations Based on the Study

The following recommendations are presented for consideration based on the findings in the study:

1. Since the data indicate that female coaches were four times more likely than male coaches to feel that no pass, no play is a motivational tool used to help students reach their potential in athletics and academics, administrators, athletic directors, and coaches should attempt to determine causes for why female coaches have this belief.
2. Since the data reveal that as the number of ineligible students increased, the likelihood of an athlete making better grades following suspension decreased, coaches and teachers should implement strategies to monitor students coming off suspension periods. Teachers and coaches must work together to assist these students and help them be successful so they can maintain their eligibility.
3. The data show that as the poverty status of the district increased, the likelihood of a coach believing that allowing students to practice while they are ineligible to participate motivates them to stay in school, decreased. It is recommended for administrators to talk to coaches and determine the reasons

for this feeling in order to help prevent ineligible students from dropping out. Specifically, these target students in districts with a high poverty status.

4. Despite the fact that only 3% of the variance could be explained by the data, these data revealed that as the likelihood of a coach being classified as a minority increased, the coach was less likely to feel that teachers were cooperative and supportive of the process of regaining and maintaining eligibility. Since these feelings were indicated, teachers, coaches, and administrators should attempt to determine the causes of these feelings and find solutions for teachers and coaches to work collaboratively to ensure the success of student-athletes.

Recommendations for Further Study

The following are recommendations for further research in this area:

1. Conduct a study to specifically determine the impact of no pass, no play on male and female student athletes.
2. Conduct additional research on how the gender of the coach impacts their perceptions of no pass, no play.
3. Expand this study to include all 20 regional education service centers in Texas. The focus of this study should be the regional differences and similarities.
4. Conduct qualitative research by interviewing a sample of coaches from Educational Service Center, Region 20, Texas to gain additional insight on

their perceptions of no pass, no play. Present this research in a mixed models study, combining the new data with the data found in this study.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FROM A PREVIOUS RESEARCH STUDY

Administrators, teachers, and athletic directors have a perception of the impact “no pass, no play” is having within the school. This survey addresses your perception of the effect of Senate Bill I on academic variables related to “no pass, no play” in schools within Educational Service Center Region XIII.

Your answers will remain confidential and will be reviewed only by the researcher.

SECTION I

Please complete the demographic information below:

1. Gender: Male _____ Female _____
2. Ethnicity: African-American _____ Hispanic _____ Asian _____
White _____ Native-American _____
3. Number of years serving as an educator: _____
4. Number of years in this school district: _____.
5. Number of years in your current position: _____.
6. Your current position in this school:
 - a. _____ Principal
 - b. _____ Teacher
 - c. _____ Athletic Director
 - d. _____ Assistant Principal
7. The school in which I am assigned is considered to be:
 - a. _____ Rural
 - b. _____ Small Independent Town
 - c. _____ Suburban
 - d. _____ Urban
8. Student enrollment at the school to which I am assigned is approximately: _____
9. I am in charge of extracurricular activities in my role as:
 - a. _____ Athletic Director/Coach
 - b. _____ Band Director
 - c. _____ Principal/Assistant Principal
 - d. _____ Teacher sponsor of UIL/non-UIL activity

10. The percent of students adversely affected by the previous no pass, no play law was. _____
11. The percent of students adversely affected by the current “no pass, no play” law is _____.

SECTION II

In this section please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each statement by circling one of the following:

1=Strongly disagree with the statement

2=Disagree with the statement

3=No opinion

4=Agree with the statement

5=Strongly agree with statement

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 12. | The dropout rate at the school to which I am assigned has declined in the last two years. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. | On my campus, there were no dropouts reported in the last two years for students who participated in UIL extracurricular activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. | Students suspended from participating in athletic events are more likely to drop out than other students suspended from non-athletic activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. | Dropping out is a problem on my campus for students who do not participate in extracurricular activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. | Reduction of the suspension period from six weeks to three weeks motivated some students. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. | The changes in the no pass, no play rule, from the six-week suspension period to three weeks, produced noticeable positive difference in student behavior. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. | Allowing students to practice and rehearse while they are ineligible to participate motivate students to stay in school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. | Students suspended from participation in extracurricular activities are often cited for disciplinary infractions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 20. | The dropout rate on my campus has remained approximately the same over the last five years. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. | Students suspended from participation in extracurricular activities typically make better grades during the suspension period. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. | Students usually make better grades following periods of suspension from participation in extracurricular activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. | Students participating in extracurricular activities say the threat of suspension causes them to study more than they would if they were not participating in extracurricular activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. | Minority students participating in extracurricular activities are suspended from participation more than other students in similar activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. | The grade of 70 required to participate in extracurricular activities should be raised to promote improved student academic performance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. | Student suspensions due to no pass, no play decreased on my campus in the last two years. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. | Changes to no pass, no play due to Senate Bill I produced an observable positive effect on student academic achievement at my school. Specify one effect: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | | |
| 28. | Students participating in extracurricular activities who earn a grade less than 70 on a scale of 100 should be suspended from participating for a period of: | | | | | |
| | six weeks | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | one grade reporting period (regardless of the number of weeks) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | three weeks | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | less than three weeks | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. | Shorter suspension periods are better for students because students may have additional opportunities to compete after regaining eligibility. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 30. | Longer suspension periods are preferred because they allow students the opportunity to demonstrate mastery of concepts not previously understood and who master higher achievement levels. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. | Ineligible students tend to give up on school work when the suspension period is so long that additional opportunities to compete are lost. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. | Allowing ineligible students to practice and rehearse with the team or group helps reduce negative behavior at school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. | Since the three-week suspension has been in effect, fewer students are ineligible for competitive extracurricular teams. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 34. | Since the three-week suspension has been in effect, teachers are required to do more paperwork by tracking progress of students trying to regain eligibility. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 35. | Since the three-week suspension has been in effect, observable differences are evident in the following at my school: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | student academic performance | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | student dropout rate | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | enrollment in advance/honors courses | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | number of students failing courses | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | referrals to alternative programs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | increased student participation in extracurricular activities | | | | | |
| 36. | Students identified as “at-risk” at my school are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities than other students. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 37. | Male students at my school are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities due to “no pass, no play.” | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 38. | African-American students at my school are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities due to “no pass, no play.” | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

39. Hispanic students at my school are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities due to “no pass, no play.” 1 2 3 4 5
40. White students at my school are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities due to “no pass, no play.” 1 2 3 4 5
41. Students who fail courses ask their teachers to change their grade in order to remain or regain eligibility. 1 2 3 4 5
42. Teacher-sponsors of clubs or other extracurricular activities track progress of students involved to ensure that they remain eligible. 1 2 3 4 5
43. Some parents of students who participate in extracurricular activities challenge failing grades assigned by teachers to influence the student’s eligibility. 1 2 3 4 5
44. Are your perceptions of the impact of Senate Bill I on no pass, no play based on empirical data? 1 2 3 4 5
a. _____yes b. _____no

APPENDIX B

**LETTER TO DR. TILLMAN REQUESTING TO USE
EXISTING SURVEY INSTRUMENT**

Jennifer Johnson
309 Chimney Hill
College Station, TX 77840

September 2, 2005

Walter Tillman
8803 Westbluff
Austin, TX 78759

Dear Dr. Tillman:

I am doctoral student in Educational Administration at Texas A&M University and I am in the initial stages of my dissertation research. I will be conducting research on the perceptions of teachers and coaches to No Pass, No Play legislation. I would like to request permission to use the survey instrument which you created for your dissertation research. This is a very thorough instrument which encompasses the variables I am interested in researching. I appreciate any expertise and assistance you are able to provide.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Jennifer Johnson

APPENDIX C

**PERMISSION LETTER FROM DR. TILLMAN
TO USE SURVEY INSTRUMENT**

September 13, 2005

Jennifer Johnson
309 Chimney Hill
College Station, TX 77840

Dear Ms. Johnson:

Thank you for your letter requesting permission to use the survey instrument that I developed to gather data for my study. I am pleased to share it with you.

Please consider this correspondence as authorization to use my survey in conducting your research. I hope your response rate is sufficient after your first dissemination.

If you have questions or need additional information, don't hesitate to let me know. My email is walter.tillman@tea.state.tx.us.

Good luck! Tell Dr. Stark hello and that I will call him soon.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Walter H. Tillman", with a long horizontal flourish extending to the right.

Walter H. Tillman, Ph.D.
Deputy Associate Commissioner
Texas Education Agency
1701 North Congress Ave.
Austin, TX 78701

APPENDIX D

RESEARCHER'S PRE-MAILOUT TRANSMITTAL LETTER

Jennifer Johnson
309 Chimney Hill
College Station, TX 77840

November 7, 2005

Dear Coach:

I am a doctoral student in the Educational Administration and Human Resources Department at Texas A&M University. I am beginning my dissertation research and need your input in order to make the research a success. Through the use of a survey questionnaire, I will be researching varsity head coaches' perceptions of "No Pass, No Play." As a former coach, I understand the impact this legislation has had on athletics and would like to see how other coaches feel about it.

Why should you take the time to complete the survey? First of all, this research can be used to help the Texas High School Coaches Association and the Texas Girls Coaches Association by providing them with feedback from the coaches themselves concerning "No Pass, No Play." You can use this as an opportunity to speak out and let others know how you feel about the legislation and how it has impacted your athletic programs.

You will soon be receiving the survey instrument. I know you are extremely busy, but I am asking you to take about 5 minutes and complete the 22 question survey instrument. Again, this research will hopefully provide valuable information to help coaches assist their student athletes in their athletic and academic endeavors. If you would like to see the results of the study, please send me an email at **jjohnson_100@neo.tamu.edu** and I will be glad to share the results with you at the completion of the study. I would like to thank you for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Jennifer Johnson

APPENDIX E

RESEARCHER'S MAILOUT INFORMATION SHEET

INFORMATION SHEET

The Impact of Sport, Urbanicity, Gender, and Demographics on the Perception of “No Pass, No Play” by High School Coaches in Educational Service Center, Region 20, Texas

You have been asked to participate in a research study on the perceptions varsity head coaches have concerning “no pass, no play.” This study will be used for completing the doctoral dissertation of the researcher at Texas A&M University, College Station. You were selected to be a possible participant because you are a varsity head coach in Educational Service Center, Region 20, Texas. A total of 835 people have been asked to participate in the study. The purpose of this study is to investigate coaches’ perceptions of the “no pass, no play” legislation and to determine if variables such as school size and coach’s experience impact their perceptions.

The 22 question survey will take 5 minutes to complete. Do not write your name or give any identifying data on the survey. There is no risk in participating and you will receive no compensation for your participation. You may refuse to answer any questions or quit at any time without penalty. The information gained from this research study will be beneficial to coaches in assisting them in their efforts with student-athletes.

This study is confidential. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely and only I and my doctoral committee chair, Dr. Mario Torres, will have access to the records. You can contact Jennifer Johnson at (832) 722-4468, jjohnson_100@neo.tamu.edu or Dr. Mario Torres at (979) 458-3016, mstorres@tamu.edu if you have any questions.

This research study has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board-Human Subjects in Research, Texas A&M University. For research-related problems or questions regarding subjects’ rights, you can contact the Institutional Review Board through Ms. Angela Raines, Director of Research Compliance, Office of the Vice President for Research at (979) 458-4067, araines@vprmail.tamu.edu.

Responding to this survey, you acknowledge that you understand the following: your participation is voluntary; you can elect to withdraw at any time; the survey will be used for student research; and the researcher has your consent to publish materials obtained from the research.

If you agree with the above information sheet, please complete the attached survey and mail it to Jennifer Johnson in the attached self-addressed stamped envelope.

APPENDIX F

QUESTIONNAIRE

Coaches each have their own perceptions of the impact of “no pass, no play” within public schools. This survey addresses your perception of the effect of Senate Bill I on academic variables related to “no pass, no play” in schools within Educational Service Center, Region 20.

Your answers will remain confidential and will be reviewed only by the researcher.

SECTION I

Please complete the demographic information below:

1. Gender: Male_____ Female_____
2. Ethnicity: African-American_____ Hispanic_____ Asian_____

 White_____ Native-American_____
3. Number of years serving as a coach: _____
4. Sport(s) in which are you are the varsity head coach: _____.
5. What is the approximate percentage of students in your program adversely affected by “no pass, no play?” _____.

SECTION II

In this section please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each statement by choosing one of the following:

1=Strongly disagree with the statement

2=Disagree with the statement

3=Agree with the statement

4=Strongly agree with the statement

- | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6. | Overall, “no pass, no play” is an effective tool at motivating student athletes to reach their potential in sports and academics. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. | “No pass, no play” is not a concern because of student participation numbers in my program. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

- | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|
| 8. | Allowing students to practice while they are ineligible to participate. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9. | Students suspended from participation in extracurricular activities are often cited for disciplinary infractions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10. | Students suspended from participation in extracurricular activities typically make better grades during the suspension period. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. | Students usually make better grades following periods of suspension from participation in extracurricular activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. | Students participating in extracurricular activities say the threat of suspension causes them to study more often than they would if they were not participating in extracurricular activities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. | Minority students participating in extracurricular activities are suspended from participation more often than other students in similar activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. | The grade of 70 required to participate in extracurricular activities should be raised to promote improved student academic performance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. | “No pass, no play” should be more punitive, i.e., the suspension period should be more lengthy. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. | “No pass, no play” is effective because it allows students the opportunity to demonstrate mastery of concepts not previously understood. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17. | Teachers are cooperative and supportive of the process of students regaining and/or maintaining eligibility. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18. | African-American students at my school are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities due to “no pass, no play.” | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19. | Hispanic students at my school are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities due to “no pass, no play.” | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

- | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|
| 20. | White students at my school are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities due to “no pass, no play.” | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 21. | In order to influence student eligibility, parents and student-athletes challenge failing grades assigned by teachers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22. | On my campus, the tracking methods used to determine eligible and ineligible students each grading period are efficient and effective. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

APPENDIX G

QUESTIONNAIRE IN THEMATIC CLUSTERS

Student Motivation

- | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6. | Overall, “no pass, no play” is an effective tool at motivating student athletes to reach their potential in sports and academics. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. | Allowing students to practice while they are ineligible to participate motivates students to stay in school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. | Students participating in extracurricular activities say the threat of suspension causes them to study more often than they would if they were not participating in extracurricular activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. | The grade of 70 required to participate in extracurricular activities should be raised to promote improved student academic performance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. | “No pass, no play” should be more punitive, i.e., the suspension period should be more lengthy. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Instructional Issues

- | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|
| 16. | “No pass, no play” is effective because it allows students the opportunity to demonstrate mastery of concepts not previously understood. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17. | Teachers are cooperative and supportive of the process of students regaining and/or maintaining eligibility. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 21. | In order to influence student eligibility, parents and student-athletes challenge failing grades assigned by teachers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Suspension Variables

- | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|
| 9. | Students suspended from participation in extracurricular activities are often cited for disciplinary infractions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10. | Students suspended from participation in extracurricular activities typically make better grades during the suspension period. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. | Students usually make better grades following periods of suspension from participation in extracurricular activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. | “No pass, no play” is not a concern because of student participation numbers in my program. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22. | On my campus, the tracking methods used to determine eligible and ineligible students each grading period are efficient and effective. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Ethnicity Specific Variables

- | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|
| 13. | Minority students participating in extracurricular activities are suspended from participation more often than other students in similar activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18. | African-American students at my school are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities due to “no pass, no play.” | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19. | Hispanic students at my school are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities due to “no pass, no play.” | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. | White students at my school are more likely to be suspended from participating in extracurricular activities due to “no pass, no play.” | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Demographic Specific Questions

1. Gender: Male _____ Female _____
2. Ethnicity: African-American _____ Hispanic _____ Asian _____
White _____ Native-American _____
3. Number of years serving as a coach: _____
4. Sport(s) in which are you are the varsity head coach: _____.
5. What is the approximate percentage of students in your program adversely affected by “no pass, no play?” _____

VITA

JENNIFER JOHNSON KENNEDY
Memorial Parkway Junior High
Katy Independent School District,
21203 Highland Knolls
Katy, Texas 77450
jjohnson_100@hotmail.com

EDUCATION

Ph.D., Educational Administration, Texas A&M University, August 2007

M.S., Kinesiology, Texas A&M University, May 2002

B.S., Kinesiology, Texas A&M University, May 1998

EMPLOYMENT

Assistant Principal, Memorial Parkway Junior High, Katy Independent School District, July 2006-present

Interim Principal, Somerville Elementary School, Somerville Independent School District, January 2006-June 2006

Assistant Principal, Somerville Junior High School/Somerville High School, Somerville Independent School District, July 2005-January 2006

Teacher/Coach, Sam Rayburn Middle School, Bryan Independent School District, August 2002-July 2005

Graduate Assistant/Intern, 12th Man Foundation, August 2001-June 2002

Graduate Assistant, Texas A&M Department of Health and Kinesiology, August 2000-August 2001

Teacher/Coach, Northbrook High School, Spring Branch Independent School District, August 1998-June 2000