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An Investigation Of Scholar-baller And Non Scholar-baller Division I Football Student-athletes' Academic, Athletic, Intrinsic Motivation And Athletic Identity

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AN INVESTIGATION OF SCHOLAR-BALLER AND NON SCHOLAR-BALLER DIVISION I FOOTBALL STUDENT-ATHLETES' ACADEMIC, ATHLETIC, INTRINSIC MOTIVATION AND ATHLETIC IDENTITY

by

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ABSTRACT

As less than 3 % of student-athletes go on to play sport professionally, it is important that they are prepared for careers outside of athletics (Susanj & Stewart, 2005). Many football student-athletes have low grade point averages and graduation rates. Universities incorporate academic motivational programs to help combat low academic performance. One unique program, Scholar-Baller, utilizes popular culture within its curriculum to bridge the gap between academics and athletics. This dissertation examined the differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic) and athletic identity using expectancy-value theory and self-affirmation theory as its framework. In addition, the effect of race/ethnicity (African-American, White American and Other race/ethnicity) and Scholar-Baller participation on Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic) and athletic identity was examined.

Expectancy-value theory defines motivation as both the expectation of the student's belief about the final outcome of a task, and the values the student gives to the task. A student either has a positive, negative, or neutral expectation of the completed task's outcome (Williams, Anderson & Winett, 2005; Xiang, McBRide & Bruene, 2006). This framework allows for exploration of student athletes' academic expectations and values. Self-affirmation theory explains that when students focus on important identities and values, they can become less defensive towards threatening information. Therefore, when receiving negative academic feedback, student-athletes using self-affirmation techniques may be more confident, open-minded and receptive towards the threatening information. Three instruments were used to collect data. The Student-athletes' Motivation toward Sports and Academics Questionnaire

(SAMSAQ) was used to assess academic and athletic motivation, while the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) was used to assess intrinsic motivation towards academics. Lastly, the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS) was used to investigate athletic identity.

Four universities (two Scholar-Baller and two Non Scholar-Baller) were chosen for their similar academic and athletic performance. Using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences: Graduate Pack 16 for Windows, a Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) and Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) were run to determine if significant differences exist between the Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes' academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation and athletic identity. These tests revealed that Scholar-Baller football student-athletes had significantly lower academic and athletic motivation than Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes. Having low academic expectations and little value for academics is consistent with student-athlete subculture. However, these findings were in contrast to what was expected.

In addition, Scholar-Baller football student-athletes had significantly higher athletic identity than Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes .This finding is also consistent with the literature on student-athletes. As student-athletes must be motivated athletically to perform at intercollegiate sports, it is not surprising to find high athletic identity among the Scholar-Baller football student-athletes. In fact, studies have suggested that high athletic identity correlates with high academic performance (Harrison, Stone, Shapiro, Yee, Boyd & Rullan, 2009; Sellers, Chavous & Brown, 2001). One Scholar-Baller university in this study reported higher grade point averages since the inception of the Scholar-Baller program (2.37 in Fall 2004 to 2.68 in Spring 2006). Scholar-Baller curriculum utilizes self-affirmation exercises to affirm student-

athletes athletically and influence more acceptance of academic criticism. Scholar-Baller football student-athletes are more affirmed in their athletic role which may lead to academic success.

This dissertation also investigated differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes' academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation and athletic identity in relation to race/ethnicity. Three groups, comprised of African-American, White American and Other race/ethnicity, were used to compare Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes. No significant differences were found. However, it was noted that Scholar-Baller African-American football student-athletes had higher academic, athletic and intrinsic motivation than Scholar-Baller White American football student-athletes. This finding is surprising given the previous research indicating African-American student-athletes' low academic motivation.

As this dissertation investigated only differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar football student-athletes' motivation and identity, further research needs to be done to further explicate these differences. Also, athletic identity should be further investigated among football student-athletes to determine its role in academic performance. Furthermore, given this study's findings of higher academic and athletic motivation among African-American Scholar-Baller football student-athletes, and its contrast to previous research, further studies should be performed to further explicate these differences among race/ethnicity. Qualitative research involving in-depth interviews and longitudinal studies investigating motivation and athletic identity over time should be performed.

To Gabe:

I hope that you find there is no such thing as too much school. I hope that you will always

have the passion to keep on learning and growing!

It was such a pleasure to work with Dr. Kay Allen. Thank you, Dr. Allen for your belief in me. Your thoughts contributed greatly to the planning and the implementation, and helped me to understand the theoretical framework which formed the backbone of the "current study."

To a true "Scholar-Baller," Dr. Harrison, I want to say thank you from the bottom of my heart. Your passion and commitment helped me get this study done and provided me with further ideas and areas that I would like to pursue. I hope that I too can become a Scholar-Baller and help others to do the same!

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

He's at the 40, the 30, the 20….he could go all the way…Touchdown!!! The loud and

boisterous crowd decked out in their team's colors leaps to its feet! Popcorn and beer vendors

stop their quick ascension of the stadium's stairs and watch. Small children wave their foam

fingers, while cheers and chants can be heard outside the stadium. This could be a typical

Saturday fall afternoon in any college town. Men's NCAA football is one of the most popular

spectator sports in the United States. Even in tough financial times, spectators still flock to

games. Over 49 million fans attended games at the 628 NCAA universities in 2008 (Johnson,

2009). In the 2008 Division I Football Bowl Subdivision, records for overall attendance and per

game attendance were broken (Johnson, 2009). Across universities today, football has become

known as the "front porch of the university" (Suggs, 2002). For many universities, it is a race to

build the biggest stadiums and most luxurious skyboxes, while recruiting top athletes to earn

record revenue at games. Today's revenue from football ticket sales per game averages over

$11.8 million (Watterson, 2000). A football student-athlete's performance on the field can be

worth millions, not just in gate receipts, but in college applications as well. Some high school

seniors base their college selections on winning athletic programs (Suggs, Lederman & Selingo,

2003). To gain more attention, many university athletic programs vie for television time. In

2001, the NCAA signed a $1 billion contract with CBS TV to televise football and other sports

games through 2008 (Berry, 2001). Other large amounts of money go towards coaching staff.

Some college coaches make over a million dollars a year (Knight Foundation, 2001). The Knight

Foundation, a group formed in 1989 to fight collegiate athletic scandals, questions whether there

"is any other department at a university where so much money is spent and justified, primarily

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by reference to the non-academic performance of its students, staff or instructors" (Knight Foundation, 2001, p.20).

The focus on college sports today is on glamour and athleticism, not education (Harrison & Boyd, 2007; Willis, 2005). Very few Academic All-Conference and National scholar-athletes are known to the public. The term student in student-athlete seems to be invisible (Berry, 2001). A giant chasm between academics and athletics has been created. This chasm, also known as "The Great Divide," is all the more serious, when it is taken into account that over 400,000 student-athletes will enter the workforce unprepared (Berry, 2001).

This tug of war between academics and athletics has existed at the university level throughout football history (Thelin, 2002). A scandal at the University of Michigan was discovered in 1893 when seven football players were not even enrolled as students (Sigelman, 1995). Recently, over two dozen football student-athletes were suspended from competition, including championship games, due to an academic cheating scandal at Florida State University (Associated Press, 2008). Other recent headlines include:

"Alabama State University Charged with 668 NCAA Violations: Somehow, That is Not a Typo" *(NCAA, 2008).*

"Former Coach Indicted on Fraud Charges for Providing Phony Academic Credits to Basketball Players" *(Pettaway-Willis, 2005).*
"....For the first time in its history, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) has banned teams from postseason play for their athletes' poor academic performance." *(Insider Higher Ed, 2009).*

Under the table payoffs, players skipping classes or taking classes unrelated to a college degree, recruiting violations and even crime sprees, are occurring regularly among football players at the nation's universities (Knight Foundation, 2001). Coaches, athletic directors and even presidents of universities have recruited academically ineligible players (Sigelman, 1995; Splitt, 2008). Recent statistics show that more than half of the universities playing at the NCAA's top competitive level have been censured, sanctioned or put on probation by the NCAA due to academic violations (Knight Foundation, 2001).

According to the Chronicle of Higher Education survey entitled, "Public Opinion on Higher Education," more than two thirds of the respondents reported that four year colleges place too much emphasis on athletics (Suggs, 2001; 2002; Suggs, Lederman, Selingo, 2003). Although student-athletes in general, are graduating at increasingly higher rates and proportionately are more likely to graduate than their non-athlete peers, graduation rates for revenue sports, especially football, still remain low (Brand, 2008; Lapchick, 2006; Suggs, 2003a). Overall, football student-athletes have some of the worst grade point averages (GPA) and graduation rates of all student-athletes (NCAA, 2009). One survey reported that almost 25 percent of Division I universities had graduation rates under 30 percent for its football student-athletes (Knight Foundation, 2001).

Contributing to the low GPA and graduation rates of revenue student-athletes is the lack of preparedness many student-athletes have for a competitive college (Lapchick, 2006; Lucas & Lavaglia, 2002). According to Pettaway-Willis (2005), revenue student-athletes enter four year colleges with poor high school records, low test scores and have a larger ratio of vocational to academic subjects in high school. Not surprisingly, football student-athletes have the lowest level of academic performance at university level (Beamon & Bell, 2006; Furr & Elling, 2002;

Gaston-Gayles, 2004; Lapchick, 2000; NCAA, 2009; Pascarella, Trucenmiller, Nora, Terenzini, Edison & Hagedorn, 1999; Suggs, 2003). Poor academic performance may be related to football student-athletes' low level of motivation in the classroom (Gaston-Gayles, 2005; Pascarella & Smart, 1991).

Other researchers have suggested that athletic identity, in addition to motivation, may play a role in academic performance as well (Adler & Adler, 1985; Brewer, Van Raalte & Linder, 1993; Clow, 2000; Murphy, 1996). These researchers believe that higher athletic identity relates to low academic motivation. However, Sellers, Chavous & Brown (2001) and Harrison, Stone, Shapiro, Yee, Boyd & Rullen (2009) suggest that there may be a positive correlation between athletic identity and academic motivation. In any case, intercollegiate athletic culture, with its intense time commitment, can influence the student-athletes' athletic role.

Another factor that can influence student-athletes' academic performance is race/ethnicity. A disparity between African-American and White American student-athletes' academic performance exists. For example, statistics have shown that African-American football student-athletes graduate at the rate of 50%, while White American football student-athletes graduate at the rate of 64% (NCAA, 2007). The graduation rate for all African-American male students is only 37 %, in comparison to 61% for all White American male students (NCAA, 2007). This issue may play an important role in college football athletics because over half of all Division I football student-athletes are African-American (Brand, 2007).

In summary, football student-athletes have low academic performance and motivation (Gaston-Gayles, 2005; NCAA, 2009; Suggs, 2003). As motivation plays a key factor in academic performance (Sellers, 1992; Gaston-Gayles, 2004; Reyes, 1997; Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Kingston, Horrock & Hanton, 2006; Hood, 2002; Pascarella,

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Truckenmiller, Nora, Terenzini, Edison & Haggedorn, 1999), and identity may play a role in motivation (Person & Lenoir, 1997; Adler & Adler, 1991; Harrison, Harrison & Moore, 2002; Ridpath, 2002; Pendergrass, Hansen, Neuman & Nutter, 2003; Killeya, 2001; Simons, Bosworth, Fujita & Jensen, 2007; Stephen & Brewer, 2007; Bowen & Levin, 2003), it is important that further research involving these non-cognitive factors be performed to further investigate their roles in student-athlete academic performance (Sedlacek, 2004). Many universities across the nation have initiated retention programs for student-athletes to help combat the low academic performance. However, a research study of thirty-five Division I schools, found that these academic assistance programs, as they currently existed, did little or nothing to improve the GPAs or graduation rates of student-athletes (Bell, 2005). This may be in part to the current retention programs' lack of cultural intervention necessary to increase student-athletes' academic performance (Berry, 2001; Clow, 2000; Gaston-Gayles, 2005). According to a 2007 study, there is a gap in effectiveness for African-Americans and female student-athletes (Smith, Allen & Danley, 2007). From the literature, a current need exists to further investigate not only student-athletes' motivation and identity, but the role retention programs may play in increasing student-athletes' motivation and identity. The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) is one organization that supports continuing research in the area of student-athlete academic performance and retention programs.

NCAA

The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) is an organization that was brought about during the early 1900's to curb abuses involving student-athletes. It is comprised

of approximately 800 colleges, universities and conferences (Berry, 2001). Members from these universities and colleges collectively introduce and vote on rules called bylaws. In 1973, the association's membership divided itself into three legislative and competitive divisions (Divisions I, II, III). In 1978, Division I members created subdivisions I-A and I-AA, which in 2008, in regards to football, changed to the Football Bowl subdivision and the Football Championship subdivision, respectively.

Even though the NCAA began monitoring the number of football's postseason games and academic infractions right after World War II, problems persisted regarding graduation rates, academic achievement and ineligible players. Over the last twenty years, the NCAA, and its universities and colleges, began to initiate new reforms. Reforms, which were developed under immense research, occurred in three subsequent phases: initial academic eligibility standards; progress toward degree standards; and coaches and institutions being held accountable for the academic performance of their student-athletes (Harrison & Boyd, 2007).The NCAA initiated Proposition 48 in 1987 and Proposition 42 in 1989 to prevent academic ineligibility. Proposition 48 declared any athlete with a high school GPA under 2.0 and an SAT score lower than 700 ineligible to play their freshmen year. Taking it further, Proposition 42 took away any athletic aid from an ineligible athlete. More recent reforms made by the NCAA, in an effort to increase academic achievement and graduation rates, have been developed (Hamilton, 2005). The Academic Progress Rate (APR) developed by the NCAA in 2001 (initiated in 2006), has linked the number of athletic scholarships a school can offer to the graduation rates of its athletes (Powell & Taylor, 1999). To calculate the APR, every student-athlete is tracked by eligibility and retention. Those who do well in the classroom (earn a 2.0 GPA or above) and stay in school earn two points. Those who pass but do not return to school earn one point. If a student-athlete

fails academically and leaves school, his or her team loses two points. If a student-athlete returns

to school later and graduates, the school earns one bonus point. The team's APR is calculated by

dividing the total points earned in a year by the total points possible.

According to Lipka (2006) and NCAA (2008), this type of yearly assessment gives more

accurate data on academic performance than the six year graduation rate calculation. Schools that

fall below a threshold graduation rate will be punished by having fewer scholarships to offer to

the following year's entering class (Gee, 2005). Each university's APR score represents

individual student-athletes' academic progress and a composite team measurement. If a team's

APR falls below the 925 benchmark, the team could be sanctioned. An APR of 925 is roughly

equal to a 60 % graduation success rate. Initially, the APR, according to the NCAA Division I

Board of Directors' Directive,

"intended to reward teams that demonstrate commitment to student-athletes in their
progress toward a degree; penalizing those who do not; encourage successful academic
performance of all student-athletes on all sports teams; reward institutions that achieve
significant academic success; and penalize those that have a history of academic
underachievement" (Meyer, 2005, p. 16).

Another mandate established by the NCAA in 2002, requires athletes to complete 40 %

of their degree by the third year. By their fourth and fifth years, athletes must complete 60% and

80% respectively. This mandate puts more pressure on the student-athlete to declare their major

early. It also may encourage them to pursue less academically challenging programs to avoid

poor academic performance (Suggs, 2001; 2002; 2003a; 2003b).

Retention Programs

Retention programs are one way universities can combat the problem of poor academic

performance (Astin, 1993; Nutter, 2003). Early research in higher education focused on the

characteristics of those students who did not persist (Astin, 1977). These studies found that the level and quality of students' interactions with peers, as well as faculty and staff, affected their retention rate. In response, retention programs began in the 1970's to assist college students with academic engagement (Nutt, 2003). Retention program participants reported increases in academic performance (Person & LeNoir, 1997). The following are some examples of several retention programs that have been developed.

In 1995, North Carolina State introduced First Year College, a program that allows students to pursue a general course of study, in which classes can be transferred into their major program. First Year College was developed because of students' retention problems after freshman year. Research at North Carolina State found that many of these students left because "they never felt a part of the institution or engaged" (Reyes, 1997, p. 38). Incorporating strong academic advising, seminars on the university's intellectual, cultural and social offerings, and essential classroom skills for academic success are the cornerstones of this program (Reyes, 1997).

Another example involves University of Michigan's Comprehensive Studies Program, which was developed initially for African-American students, but soon became a support system for all. It includes a "bridge" program, which provides additional courses as well as an orientation in university life (Reyes, 1997). At University of South Carolina, a program called University 101 offers courses to help students with the basics, as well as encourage community building experiences. San Francisco State University offers a program similar to University of Michigan's "bridge" program. It is affectionately referred to as "academic boot camp." The

program, offered in the summer, prepares students for the rigors of university academics and life (Reyes, 1997).

The same components used to help general university students' retention rates were used to develop retention programs for student-athletes. A program designed to increase motivation on and off the field was implemented at Kansas State University from 1992-2000. Football team members participated in motivational seminars to improve both academic and athletic achievement. Prior to 1992, KSU had the worst athletic performance in the NCAA, with the most losses in NCAA history. During the eight years that the seminars were held, KSU went from having the worst record to having the "winningest" record among all NCAA teams (Parish & Baker, 2007a). Confidence levels, self esteem, goal setting, attitude measures, keeping and making commitments and measures of social and emotional growth all increased after the program (Parish & Baker, 2006). Another Division I university using a similar retention course found similar results (Curry & Maniar, 2003). It reported student-athletes' improvement in leadership, confidence, peaking under pressure and coping with performance adversity (Curry & Maniar, 2003).

Well-known retention programs for athletes include Challenging Athletes' Minds for Personal Success Program (CHAMPS/Life Skills) and National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletics (N4A). Both strive to enrich student-athlete's lives. CHAMPS, which began its program implementation in the mid 1990's, utilizes five components to help student-athletes succeed athletically and academically. Within CHAMPS, there is a commitment to academic excellence, athletic excellence, personal development, career development and community service. These commitments ensure that a student-athlete receives the appropriate

services and facilities to achieve both academically and athletically. CHAMPS also provides networking opportunities to allow student-athletes to prepare for life after intercollegiate sports (CHAMPS, 2008). CHAMPS is implemented by universities who have the freedom to decide how the program is run, if the program administrators are full or part-time, and which parts of CHAMPS they use. N4A is a diverse, educational service and professional non-profit organization that began in 1975, with the sole purpose of helping student-athletes graduate. Its members are academic support and student services personnel. By offering advisement to student-athletes and also serving as a liaison between the athletic and academic communities, N4A helps the student-athletes excel both academically and athletically (N4A, 2008).

Both, universities and the NCAA, see the importance and benefit of academic assistance programs to help increase academic motivation. Universities are spending large amounts of money on retention programs for their student-athletes (Reyes, 1997). However, as mentioned earlier, research is suggesting that many academic assistance programs do little or nothing to improve the GPAs or graduation rates of student-athletes (Bell, 2005). Researchers have reported that current retention programs lack the cultural intervention necessary to increase student-athletes' academic performance (Berry, 2001; Clow, 2000; Gaston-Gayles, 2005).

One retention program that utilizes popular culture in its curriculum is Scholar- Baller[TM]. The meaning of Scholar-Baller, defined by Harrison & Boyd (2007) is someone who succeeds academically, socially and athletically. Scholar-Baller has been adopted in 55 universities across the nation (Harrison & Boyd, 2007). This program's goal is to reinforce student-athletes' beliefs that they can achieve in both academics and athletics, helping student-athletes with the conflicting identity issues that arise during their university years.

The Scholar-Baller program is based on Tinto's theory, which states that students enter college with certain background characteristics (family background, education) that can affect their tendency to graduate (Tinto, 1975). Tinto's theory also explains that college students' persistence and success is related to their social and academic integration (Guiffrida, 2006). Scholar-Baller is unique to other programs in that it utilizes sport, education, and entertainment, three large factors involved in athletic culture. Scholar-Baller incorporates diversity into its curriculum, a difference that sets it apart from other retention programs. Rather than just teaching tolerance, it recognizes and appreciates diversity. Scholar-Baller strives to increase the self-respect and confidence in each athlete, creating a merger between academic, social and athletic responsibilities (Harrison & Boyd, 2007; Comeaux & Harrison, 2007). It has been stated that if an academic program embraces cultural diversity, it will have a greater impact on minority students' persistence and hopefully lead to increased motivation in academics (Hall, 2003; Harrison, 2007; Harrison, Reese & Comeaux, 2006; Hood, 2002). Academic motivational programs using cultural diversity could be an effective way to engage student-athletes academically, helping those who struggle the most (Berry, 2001; Edwards, 1995; Edwards, 2000; Lomax, 2000). Scholar-Baller universities have reported increases in academic achievement, specifically student-athletes' GPA (Scholar-Baller.org, 2009).

Summary

In summary, Division I university athletics has been described as the launching pad for professional sports. The NCAA has instituted guidelines to help curb the overemphasis of athletics at universities. However, many student-athletes are still struggling academically and

wonder if they are a student or an athlete. As Men's Division I football consistently has low academic performance, academic motivational programs have been implemented (NCAA, 2009). It has been suggested that programs which address cultural diversity and issues in athletic culture will have a stronger impact (Comeaux & Harrison, 2007; Hall, 2003; Harrision & Boyd; 2006; Hood, 2002), especially in Division I football, as approximately half of all teams are African-American.

Purpose of the Study

This study examined the differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic) and athletic identity using expectancy-value theory and self-affirmation theory as its framework .The effect of race/ethnicity (African-Americans, White Americans and Other race/ethnicity) and Scholar-Baller participation (Scholar-Baller, Non Scholar-Baller) on Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation) and athletic identity were also investigated.

Theoretical Framework

Two theories were chosen as the theoretical framework for this study on motivation and identity, Expectancy-value theory and Self-affirmation theory. Expectancy-value theory explains that an individual's perception about a given task is based upon the value that he or she associates with the completion of the task. This theory asserts that an individual will work harder, or become more motivated to pursue something in which he will be rewarded for his efforts (Williams, Anderson & Winett, 2005; Xiang, McBride & Bruene, 2006; Gaston, 2002;

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Wigfield, Eccles & Tonks, 2004; Clow, 2000). Expectancy-value theory was used to develop the instrument used in this study investigating academic and athletic motivation. Previous research on motivation and college athletics also provided support for the use of expectancy-value theory as a theoretical framework (Adler & Adler, 1985; 1991; Clow, 2000; Gaston, 2002; Pettaway-Willis, 2005).

Self-affirmation theory, another theoretical framework used in this study, posits that individuals strive to maintain their self-integrity or identity (Steele & Aronson, 1995; Steele, 1988). If a person perceives a threat to their self-worth, he/she most likely will engage in methods to preserve his/her integrity. These self-affirmations require the individual to reflect on other positive aspects of his/her life, which in turn, reduce the defensive response to a threat. This theory helps explain the current investigation of athletic identity. If a student-athlete is struggling academically, he or she can use athletic affirmation to reduce negative response to the threat and improve academic performance. Scholar-Baller's curriculum involves self-affirmation theory, lending support to its use as a theoretical framework for this study.

Research Questions

Two research questions guide this study:

1. How do Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes differ on motivation (academic, athletic, and intrinsic) and athletic identity?

2. What is the effect of race/ethnicity and Scholar-Baller participation (Scholar-Baller, Non Scholar-Baller) on motivation (academic, athletic, and intrinsic) and athletic identity for Division I football student-athletes?

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Definitions of Terms

1. Academic Motivation Score: Academic motivation is a continuous dependent
   variable, and relates to the student-athletes' desire to achieve academically. This
   variable will be measured using the results from the sixteen questions on academic
   motivation from the Student-Athlete Motivation toward Sports and Academics
   Questionnaire (SAMSAQ). The average of these sixteen questions will provide the
   academic motivation score for each participant.

2. Athletic Motivation Score: Athletic motivation is a continuous dependent variable
   that relates to the student-athletes' desire to achieve athletically. Eight items on the
   SAMSAQ survey relate to athletic motivation and their average will provide the
   athletic motivation score for each participant.

3. Athletic Identity: Athletic identity is a continuous dependent variable that relates to
   the student-athletes' identity as an athlete. Seven items on the Athletic Identity
   Measurement Scale (AIMS) relate to athletic identity and their summation will
   provide the athletic identity score for each participant.

4. Intrinsic Motivation: Intrinsic motivation is a continuous dependent variable that
   relates to the student athlete's internal drive to achieve academically. Four questions
   on the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) relate to intrinsic
   motivation and their average will provide the intrinsic motivation towards academics
   score.

5. Race/Ethnicity: Race/ethnicity is the classification of the student-athlete as either
   White American, African-American, Native-American, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific

Islander or Other minority. On the demographic portion of the SAMSAQ, participants will be asked to provide this information. Race/ethnicity is also an independent variable in this study.

6. Rank: This variable represents the number of years an athlete has participated in his sport. It is scored on a five-point scale: Red shirt (sitting out for the first year); First year, Second year, Third year and Four years or more. Rank does not pertain to the academic classification of the athlete. On the demographic portion of the SAMSAQ, participants will be asked to provide this information.

7. Scholarship Status: Scholarship status denotes whether or not a student-athlete received an athletic scholarship. Scholarship status includes full scholarship, partial scholarship and no scholarship. On the demographic portion of the SAMSAQ, participants will be asked to provide this information.

8. Scholar-Baller: With extensive research on motivation and achievement, this academic retention program was designed for student-athletes to improve both academic and athletic performance. It focuses on bridging the gap between education and sports. Using Tinto's interactionist model, Scholar-Baller uses a balance of sports, culture and education to develop a positive self-identity. It has three principles: identity, competition with passion, and character. Scholar-Baller exemplifies the true meaning of self-respect, perseverance, industry, vision, success and humility in its Scholar-Baller Paradigm. It recognizes and rewards the academic successes of its participants.

9. <u>Scholar-Baller participant</u>: This relates to the student-athlete's participation in the Scholar-Baller program. Two Division I universities participating in this study are enrolled in the Scholar-Baller curriculum.

10. <u>Identity</u>: How a student-athlete recognizes himself as part of the academic and athletic community is referred to his identity. Based on his identity, he determines his level of commitment and dedication to the task at hand. Example: A student-athlete who identifies as a student, recognizes himself as part of his graduating class and is committed and dedicated to the required work.

11. <u>Expectancy-Value Theory</u>: Defines motivation as expectation of the student-athlete about the final outcome of his performance in a class or a game and the value he assigns to it.

12. <u>Non-cognitive variables</u>: Factors that affect academic success, such as self concept, personality variables, motivation, self-efficacy, identity, culture, values and goal setting.

13. <u>Motivation</u>: The intensity, effort and direction that directs and sustains a student-athlete to persevere and commit to academic and athletic achievement.

14. <u>Culture</u>: The perception of how a student-athlete sees himself in relation to the campus community. Every group has its culture. For example, athletic teams and academic programs have a unique culture, as well as ethnic and racial groups. Culture defines a student-athlete's values and beliefs and how he competes in academics and athletics. It also helps to define how he would be apt to react to different situations, team members, coaches, professors and other students.

15. <u>Academic Progress Rate:</u> (APR): In 2003, the NCAA defined a new ruling that keeps track of all university athletic programs' academic accountability. Each university's APR score is computed by dividing the total points earned (two points per student-athlete who meets academic-eligibility standards) by the total possible points (two points per student-athlete) that a university can earn.

16. <u>Self-Affirmation Theory</u>: Asserts that individuals strive to maintain their self-integrity or identity. If a student-athlete is struggling academically, he can use athletic affirmation to reduce the response to the threat and improve academic performance.

17. <u>Tinto's Theory</u>: Explains that students enter college with certain background characteristics (family background, education) that can affect their tendency to graduate. Tinto's theory also explains that college students' persistence and success is related to their social and academic integration (Guiffrida, 2006).

Significance of the Study

Understanding differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic and intrinsic) and athletic identity may help educators and athletic administrators design effective retention programs. The results of this study will contribute to the body of literature on student-athletes and motivation, identity and retention programs and may provide educators, athletic administrators and coaches, information on how a student athletes' race/ethnicity may affect motivation (academic, athletic, and intrinsic) and athletic identity.

Organization of the Study

Chapter One presents a Statement of the Problem and the Purpose of the study. The theoretical framework is outlined and Definition of Terms is provided. Lastly, significance of the study is explained. Chapter Two presents a review of the literature surrounding this study, specifically motivation, identity and Scholar-Baller retention programs. Chapter Three presents methods, sample, instruments, and procedures used in collecting and analyzing the data. Chapter Four presents the analysis and results of the data. Chapter Five presents the summary and conclusions from the data analysis.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Certainly anyone who has watched March Madness or other National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) tournaments has seen the commercials in which university athletes are recognized for their pursuit of careers as doctors, lawyers, and scientists. "There are 400,000 student-athletes and just about every one of them will go pro in something other than sports" (NCAA, 2009). It is necessary for a student-athlete to do well academically, as less than 3% of student-athletes go on to play professionally after college (Susanj & Stewart, 2005). However, the academic achievement levels of Division I college student-athletes, specifically those in revenue producing sports, is lower than non-student-athletes at Division I universities (Adelman, 1990; Gaston, 2003; Lucas, 2002; Pascarella, Truckenmiller, Nora, Terenzini Edison & Hagedorn 1999; Simons, Van Rheenen & Covington, 2000; Suggs, 2003). Division I football student-athletes are among the worst academically performing athletic teams, even accounting for poor academic preparation. (Lapchick, 2006; Maloney & McCormick, 1993; Suggs, 2003a). Research suggests that not only cognitive variables, such as GPA, impact student-athletes' academic performance, but non-cognitive variables, such as motivation and identity, play an important role as well.

The following review of the literature includes sections on: non-cognitive variables, expectancy-value theory, motivational attributes, motivation, academic achievement, self-affirmation theory, identity, athletic subculture, African-American culture, retention programs, and Scholar-Baller.

Non-cognitive Research

Previous research on student athletes has investigated cognitive factors, such as GPA, standardized test scores, and parents' level of education and how they affect academic achievement. However, there has been little research on non-cognitive factors, such as motivation, and student-athletes' academic performance in Division I revenue producing sports (Gaston, 2003; Ransdell, 2001). When measuring retention and graduation for non-traditional students, such as student-athletes, non-cognitive variables should be considered (Gaston, 2003; Sedlacek, 2004). Motivational and personality variables are some non-cognitive factors found useful with diverse groups. Gaston found that non-cognitive variables, such as self-concept, community service involvement and long-term goal-setting, were linked to academic achievement (Gaston, 2002). Other specific factors that influence academic achievement include interest in school, willingness to study, amount and quality of time spent organizing and preparing for classes and competence in handling test situations (Ransdell, 2001).

One study of non-cognitive variables using the 1978, Reformulated Attributional Model (RAM) developed by Seligman, Abramson, Semmel & Von Baeyer, showed reliability in predicting academic achievement (Hale, 1993). The RAM measures the explanatory style for past successes and failures of student-athletes as a predictor of academic success using the Attributional Style Questionnaire (ASQ). Explanatory style in this study was defined as the attributes given by individuals to explain past successes and failures (Hale, 1993). This study showed no correlation of academic achievement to high school GPA, further reinforcing the need to study other variables that may impact academic performance (Hale, 1993). Another study used motivation and persistence behaviors among minority and non-minority students to predict

academic achievement (Allen, 1999). This study found that for non-minority groups, persistence is most influenced by class rank, but this is not necessarily true for minority groups (Allen, 1999).

Expectancy-Value Theoretical Framework

Before beginning discussion on motivation and identity, a proper lens in which to view the review of literature and this study is necessary. This study's theoretical framework involves expectancy-value theory. Fishbein (1963) developed this theory to explain and predict individuals' attitudes toward objects and actions. In this theory, individuals first develop a belief about an action or object. Second, individuals allocate a value to each characteristic that a belief is based on. Lastly, an individual creates an expectation about an action or object based on the beliefs and values he has assigned (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). These assessments help individuals develop attitudes towards objects or actions. Williams, Anderson & Winett (2005) further relate expectancy-value theory to students and motivation. They state that both the expectation of the student's belief about the final outcome of a task and the values the student gives to the task formulate the student's motivation towards that task. An individual either has a positive, negative or neutral expectation of the completed task's outcome (Gaston, 2002; Williams, Anderson & Winett, 2005; Xiang, McBride, & Bruene, 2006). The values that a student assigns to the task determine the persistency and expenditure of time and effort put into a task. Importance, interest and usefulness are all different types of values students assign to academic tasks, according to expectancy-value theory (Wigfield & Eccles, 2004).

According to Clow (2000), values are made up of four different categories: attainment or importance value, intrinsic interest value, extrinsic utility value and perceived cost value. These values are the backbone of the underlying foundation for motivation (Clow, 2000; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Attainment value, or importance value, describes the importance of executing a task successfully. Intrinsic interest value takes into account an individual's fondness towards a task, while extrinsic value is how the task relates to an individual's goals. The cost value entails the effort and sacrifice an individual must engage to perform the task. All of these categories make up the value of a certain task that is to be performed. An individual will weigh these categories, and based upon the expectancy (perceived competence), will engage or disengage in a certain task. Taken together, this theoretical model lays the foundation for investigating athletic and academic motivation.

Underlying expectancy-value theory is Bandura's self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977). These theories hypothesize that individuals complete tasks in which they feel they will be successful and use these outcomes as a basis for deciding whether to pursue or not pursue certain tasks. A student-athlete's belief that he/she can successfully execute an athletic skill may differ from his beliefs that he can successfully complete an academic assignment (Gaston, 2002). Goals are the other part of self-efficacy theory. A student-athlete determines his/her value of a goal and his perceived value determines the effort that he will put into it (Wigfield, Tonks, & Eccles, 2004). A student-athlete who works hard to graduate, values the reward that comes with that goal, a college diploma (Gaston, 2002). Expectances for success predict an individual's achievement outcomes, performance, persistence, and choice of tasks to pursue.

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Weiner's attribution theory is another theory related to expectancy-value theory. Weiner's theory examines causes of success or failure. Individuals who value a goal choose to strive for success or avoid failure to achieve it (Weiner, 1980). If a student-athlete is motivated to strive for success, he attributes success to ability and effort. If he fails, he attributes failure to not putting forth enough effort or not working hard enough. Along those lines, if an individual who is motivated to avoid failure achieves his goal, he attributes his success to luck or chance. If he fails, he attributes it to lack of ability. Hale (1993) found that student-athletes who explain bad events in terms of external, unstable and specific causes, are more likely to achieve academically than student-athletes who explain bad events in terms of internal, unstable and specific causes.

In summary, expectancy-value theory incorporates two elements of motivation, expectancy and value (Clow, 2000). Expectancy is an individual's belief of the outcome of his effort, while value represents the persistency and expenditure of time and effort put into a task. Attribution and self-efficacy theory play a role in expectancy-value theory. These theories hypothesize that individuals complete tasks in which they feel they will be successful and use these outcomes as a basis for deciding whether to pursue or not pursue certain tasks (Bandura, 1989; 1977; Bandura, Barbarelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996). For this study, expectancy- value theory acts as a framework from which to interpret the data on the motivational instruments.

Motivation

Motivation plays an important role in academic achievement (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Gaston-Gayles, 2004; Ironsmith, Marva, Harju, Eppler, 2003; Kingston, Horrock & Hanton, 2006; Hood, 2002; Pascarella, Truckenmiller, Nora, Terenzini, Edison & Haggedorn, 1999;

Reyes, 1997; Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Sellers, 1992). Motivation theory, as defined by Eccles (2002), is the association between beliefs, values and goal setting with action. Beliefs refer to how an individual believes they will do on a task, which is generally based on how one perceives their own competence and efficacy. Values refer to incentives or reasons for doing a task. Finally, goal setting is the willingness to apply effort and energy towards an objective (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Eccles, 2004; Hollembeak & Ambrose 2005). Deci & Ryan (2000) report that individuals initiate and persist in activities because they expect, or believe, that they can succeed. If the task is seen as a step to a goal that is important, motivation levels are increased (Eccles, 2004). Many theorists believe that personal autonomy, the freedom to choose, is a contributing factor in motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dember, Galinsky & Warm, 1992; Iyengar & Lepper, 1999; Taylor, 1983). If individuals have a choice, it is perceived that they are in control, and enjoyment of the tasks they select is increased (Iyengar & Lepper, 1999). Deci and Ryan (2000) describe choice in their theory of self-determination (SDT). This theory, an integral part of motivational theory, is defined as a process that takes an individual through the pursuit of goals, which meet the innate psychological needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000). SDT assumes that innate psychological needs play a part in goal setting and the motivation to achieve these goals (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

A study by Vallerand, Fortier and Guay (1997), examined self determination, or autonomy support, from teachers, parents and administrators and its affect on motivation. They found that high school dropouts reported far less involvement in the decision-making process at school and had lower perceptions of school competence compared to persistent students. According to Alderman (2004), motivational inequality, defined as differences between

motivational levels of students in our schools, is increasing. In other words, students who have optimum motivation for intellectual development are at an advantage, while those that do not, are at a disadvantage. Having optimum motivation maintains intrinsic interest, goal setting, and self monitoring (Alderman, 2004).

Two different types of motivation have long been accepted by researchers. One of these, intrinsic motivation, is performing an activity that is exciting to the participant or done for its own satisfaction, rather than for some external consequence (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Intrinsically motivated behaviors fulfill a basic need to be competent and self-determined (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Internal factors also affect intrinsic motivation. Vallerand, Fortier & Guay (1998) found supportive conditions have a strong positive effect on intrinsic motivation. In a study of student-athletes, it was shown that an autonomy-supportive social context enhanced intrinsic motivation (Spray, Wang, Biddle & Chatzisarantis, 2006). Informational praise increases intrinsic motivation, while positive controlling praise decreases it (Ryan & Deci, 1987). Bogler & Somech (2002) state that the enjoyment of a task increases both intrinsic motivation and the desire to expand knowledge. Ego-involvement is associated with low intrinsic motivation, because ego-involved individuals are focused on themselves and not on the task (Ryan & Deci, 1987). Ego-involved students find it important to outperform others, and they define their personal competence in a subject or task as a result of demonstrating superior ability with minimal effort (Rysta & Vestal, 2004).

Extrinsic motivation, the other type of motivation, is defined as performing an activity to gain a separable consequence (Gaston-Gayles, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000b;). A student who performs a task to gain knowledge that will be valuable to a career, or to earn a good grade in a

course, is extrinsically motivated (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). A student who performs well on a test to avoid punishment is also externally motivated. However, according to Ryan & Deci (2000a), there is a great difference between these two types of external motivation. The extrinsic motivation to avoid a negative consequence is externally regulated, while the extrinsic motivation to earn a good grade or to gain knowledge is internally regulated by the student (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Caldwell, 1997). There are four types of external motivation identified in the literature Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Spray, Wang, Biddle & Chatzisarantis, 2006; Vallerand, Fortier and Guay, 1997; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). They are external regulation, when the source of control is completely outside the individual; interjected regulation, when the individual partially internalizes the external pressure; identified regulation, when the individual chooses to do a task and values its importance; and integrated, when the individual has fully assimilated the task into his/her wants or needs.

Eisenberger & Armeli (1997), Eisenberger & Cameron (1996) and Ryan & Deci (2000b) believe that the majority of student learning does not come from intrinsic motivation; therefore educators must rely on transferring the value of learning. Accordingly, successful students must learn to self-regulate and control their own learning behavior. The authors explain internalization of learning as a continuum that can be seen from unwilling learners to passive acceptance of learning and finally actively committed students (Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Hollembeak & Amorose, 2005). Scholarships for student-athletes in revenue producing sports are a form of extrinsic motivation. Kingston, Horrocks & Hanton (2006) studied scholarship athletes and non-scholarship athletes to determine if an athletic scholarship has any effect on motivation. These researchers found that scholarship athletes are less self-determined and less motivated in their

academic tasks than non-scholarship athletes. Scholarships, according to Kingston, Horrock & Hanton, seem controlling and antagonistic to student-athletes. To combat lower academic determination, Gaston (2003) recommends that student-athletes, particularly those in revenue producing sports, have access to academic support programs, including tutoring, study skills and other services. Research suggests that institutions house academic support services in a separate academic affairs unit rather than in the athletic department in order to improve academic performance (Hamilton, 2004).

Although it has been found that motivation plays a role in academic performance (Adler & Adler, 1985, 1991; Astin, 1984; Gaston, 2002; Miller & Kerr, 2002; Pettaway-Willis, 2005), research involving college student-athletes' academic and athletic motivation has found that high motivation in one area does not directly correspond with another area. For example, Gaston-Gayles (2005) found in her research of student-athletes, that academic motivation, rather than athletic motivation, plays a more important role in a student-athlete's academic performance. A student-athlete may have high athletic motivation but also have high academic motivation as well. Furthermore, a study by Ryska & Vestal (2004) found that sport motivated student-athletes had carry over into the academic realm. The student-athletes with higher athletic motivation spent a greater amount of time and energy on academic preparation utilizing information processing, time management, personal effort, task persistence, self testing and skill improvement (Ryska & Vestal, 2004). Discipline gained from collegiate athletic competitions' mental and physical challenges can be transferred to the academic realm (Astin, 1984; Eccles, 2004; Hollembeak & Ambrose, 2005; Ryan, 1987; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Wempe 2001). Student-

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athletes generally thrive in a competitive environment, as competitiveness serves as an attribute that internally and externally generates a reward system (Harrison, 2000).

In contrast, some research has reported a negative relationship between academic and athletic motivation (Adler & Adler, 1985; Lally & Kerr, 2005; Lucas, 2002; Pettaway-Willis, 2005). Research by Lucas (2002) did not concur with the previous findings. His research found that students with high athletic motivation had low motivation for academic tasks. Adler & Adler (1985) found that a demanding athletic schedule led to increased athletic motivation and lower academic motivation for male basketball student-athletes. Miller & Kerr (2005) and Pettaway-Willis (2005) reported similar findings in their research. Whatever the case, it is certain that athletic motivation is higher than academic motivation for some student-athletes.

In summary, many studies have linked motivation to students' academic and athletic performance. A student-athlete chooses to apply effort in both athletic and academic tasks, based upon his/her values, beliefs and goals. If a student-athlete values a college degree or successfully passing a class, then he will be more willing to put forth the effort (Adler & Adler, 1985, 1991; Astin, 1984; Gaston (2002); Miller & Kerr, 2002; Pettaway-Willis, 2005). The greater the value and expectancy of the outcome, the more effort a student-athlete will put forth towards a task (Clow, 2000; Gaston, 2002; Pettaway-Willis, 2005). Discipline gained from collegiate athletic competitions' mental and physical challenges can be transferred to the academic realm (Astin, 1984; Ryan, 1989; Wempe 2001). After achieving success, the student-athlete will expect future success in academic pursuits, increasing motivation (Gaston). Additionally, if a student-athlete sets forth a goal to graduate and sees others completing similar goals, he/she is more likely to persist. Student-athletes need to feel control over academic and athletic outcomes. If they feel

that academic success is not just luck, they will persist in their academic endeavors. Finally, academic support programs are necessary to help student-athletes in the academic realm (Gaston, 2003).

Motivational Attributes

When designing programs to increase academic motivation among college students, it is important to consider the personal and motivational attributes of academically successful students in a college environment. At California State University, Valentia (1994) researched minority students in their final semester of their baccalaureate degree. The personal attributes identified include "scholarly inquisitiveness, persistency, responsibility, concentration and attractiveness" (Valentia, p. 227). The four most frequently identified motivational attributes of the successful students in the sample minority group studied are:

> "(1) interest in getting a better job and earning a higher income, (2)inclination toward scholarly studies in general, (3) interest in pursuing studies in a major area of field of specialization, (4) desire to affiliate with university students and faculty, and (5) opportunities to participate in athletics or competitive sports" (Valentia, 1994, p. 227).

Other studies have addressed the personality attributes of student athletes that affect motivation and academic achievement. In a study of personality using the Myers-Briggs inventory, 70% of student-athletes in team sports were extroverted and more competitive than other athletes or non-athletes (Reiter, Liput & Nirmal, 2007). Reiss, Wiltz & Sherman, (2001) found that student-athletes involved in team sports were more social than other athletes or non-athletes. Studies have also reported that football student-athletes, who are highly competitive and have high levels of stress and anxiety, are associated with low GPAs (Petrie & Russell, 1995).

Showing understanding and support for students who have higher levels of stress increases their motivation and success (Schrodt, Wheeless & Ptacek, 2000).

It is also important to consider culture and learning style differences of all student-athletes participating in collegiate sports if academic motivation is to be achieved. Researchers Iyengar and Lepper (1999) at Stanford University studied intrinsic motivation as it relates to cultural differences. Individual choice and self determination, psychologists believe, increase a person's sense of personal control, and enhance feelings of intrinsic motivation. The authors conducted several studies comparing motivation in Western and non-Western cultures. In Western cultures, intrinsic motivation cannot exist if choice and self determination are not present (Iyengar and Lepper, 1999). In contrast, individuals of non-Western cultures strive to be interdependent and have a sense of belonging. These studies show that cultural differences have a strong effect on the factors encouraging intrinsic motivation which, when considered, may increase academic achievement (Iyengar & Lepper, 1999).

Academic Achievement

Achievement can be defined in several ways. For some, achievement is an accomplishment (Phye, 1997), while for others it is a progression towards a goal (Good, 1973). Snyder used graduation rates to define academic achievement for university student-athletes. Peters (2000) defined academic achievement as both grade point average and meeting the academic requirements (Peters, 2000). Most studies reflect lower levels of academic achievement for student-athletes, especially during their semester of competition (Smith &

Herman, 1993). A large four year study which ended in 1999, investigated male students participating in revenue producing sports. When tested at the end of their freshman year of college, student-athletes in revenue producing sports had significantly lower reading comprehension scores, and mathematic achievement scores than male non-athletes or males participating in non-revenue sports (Pascarella, Trunkenmiller, Nora, Terenzini, Edison & Hagedorn, 1999). A possible conclusion is that participation in revenue-producing sports, such as football, places student-athletes in a sub-culture that does not value academic or intellectual achievement (Pascarella, Trunkenmiller, Nora, Terenzini, Edison & Hagedorn; Simons & Van Rheenen, 2000). The athletic dream of playing professionally has been cultivated in the university athletic culture, becoming a major liability for student-athletes (Parmer, 1994; Martin & Harris III, 2006). Tinto's theory might explain how this leads to a lack of commitment to academic pursuits. Simply put, part of Tinto's theory pertains to the integration of college students within the academic community. Student levels of commitment are continually shaped by their integration into the academic and social systems of the college. A greater level of integration into college life results in a greater commitment to graduate (Guiffreda, 2006).

In contrast to the previous studies discussed, Wempe (2001) who compared academic achievement of student-athletes during competition and non-competition semesters, found that student-athletes experienced better academic achievement during their semester of competition than their semester of non-competition. Steinberg, Singer & Murphey (2000) found that student athletes who have the highest levels of intrinsic motivation and higher levels of achievement when they strive for more than one goal. Student-athletes who have high academic performance

are academically motivated and have good study habits, good communication with professors, and good preparation for class (Willis, 2005).

A one of a kind important National Longitudinal Study of the High School class of 1972, conducted by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) presents educational data for an entire generation of high school graduates (*NCES*, 1990). It was the first longitudinal study of its kind and it found conflicting data with most studies involving student-athletes and graduation rates. Although student-athletes studied in this statistical research were more likely to come from the lowest quartile of the socio-economic scale, have the poorest high school record, have the highest ratio of vocational to academic credits, and the lowest test scores of any of the six groups studied, they graduated from college at only a slightly lower rate than other groups of students (Adelman, 1990). How was this possible? Adelman found the coursework taken by football student-athletes questionable. According to the data from the study, 24% of varsity football players majored in physical education activities, recreation, or related fields. Twenty six percent of their credits were earned in remedial or vocational classes and sports classes. Additionally, 15% of credits for the varsity football players were earned in introductory classes in the humanities and social sciences (Adelman). "Jock majors" have been around since the middle of the 20th century. They include: physical education and business administration in the 1950's, communication in the 1970's, and sports management and kinesiology in the 1980's and beyond, (Bowen & Levin, 2003; Suggs, 2000b).

Self-Affirmation – Theoretical Framework

For this study, self-affirmation theory comprises the other part of the theoretical framework. In our society, individuals are faced with threats to their integrity everyday (Cohen, 2006). These threats can involve many different standards of integrity, such as intelligence, control over important outcomes, being a good member of a group, or anything important to an individual (Leary & Baumeister, 2000). By focusing on different important identities and values, it has been shown that individuals can become less defensive towards threatening information. This different psychological approach involves self-affirmation theory. Self-affirmation theory was developed by Claude Steele in 1988 to explain the premise that individuals strive to maintain their self integrity. When negative feedback occurs, according to Steele (1988), individuals are motivated to protect their self-worth. They may use cognitive strategies to distort the threat and make it less threatening, or they may respond defensively (Cohen, 2006; Steele & Aronson, 1995). This defensiveness protects the self integrity by boosting self worth (Sherman & Cohen, 2006; Steele & Liu, 1983). This defensive behavior is so strong that some individuals may engage in it unconsciously. Individuals' egos are so tied to their beliefs and needs, that they feel they are responsible for positive outcomes rather than negative outcomes (Greenwald, 1980; Taylor, 1983). They interpret the past and present in a way that is congruent to these needs (Cohen, 2006). However, by engaging in defensive behaviors or distorting the information, the person is not able to learn from the potentially important information.

Depending on the type of response to threatening information, both, self integrity may be maintained and behavior change can occur. By providing an individual an outsider's view, he/she may feel less threatened by the negative information. Making individuals aware of other

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important values they hold unrelated to the threat, negates the connection to their self worth (Cohen, 2006; Crocker, Niiya & Mischkowski, 2008). Self affirming in one area reduces the need to defend in another area (Armitage, Harris, Hepton & Napper, 2008).When self-affirmed, an individual can become more confident, open minded and receptive (Cohen, 2006).

A self-affirming exercise includes completing a scale or writing exercise on an important personal value (Cohen, 2006). A person needs to affirm values that are meaningful to them (Tesser, 2000). Therefore, if a student-athlete completes a writing exercise about what his athletic scholarship means to him, he may protect his/her self integrity and feel more positive towards other critical areas in his life, such as academic performance. Studies have suggested that by participating in self-affirming activities, student-athletes are more engaged in their learning (Kumashiro & Sedikides, 2005; Steele, 1988). They respond more positively to negative academic feedback.

Another interesting study regarding self-affirmation suggests that engaging in value affirming exercises can possibly influence feelings of caring for other people or things (Crocker, Niiya & Mischkowski, 2008). Whether self image is boosted by these exercises, or a person is reminded of other people or things beyond themselves, self-affirmation exercises seem to have a positive effect. Koole, Smeets, Van Kippenberg & Dijksterhuis (1999) state that self-affirmation promotes trivialization of a blocked goal. By increasing the salience of a personal value, it becomes easier for the person to compare the importance of the blocked goal and the personal value. After comparison, the blocked goal is seen to have less significance and therefore the person finds it easier to address the goal blockage (Koole Smeets, Van Kippenberg & Dijksterhuis, 1999).

Student-athletes are one group that faces goal blockage, as well as negative stereotypes in the classroom (Harrison, 2007). According to Crocker, Diiya, Mischowski & Konstanz, (2008), the academic domain may be especially threatening to student-athletes. This stressful environment can cause student-athletes to create goal blockage (Koole, Smeets, Van Kippenberg & Dijkesterhuis,1999). However, through self-affirmation exercises, the student-athlete can feel better about him or herself, and be more willing to accept criticism. He/she may become more open minded and not relate the academic criticism to negative stereotyping such as racism or "dumb jock" (Cohen, 2006; Crocker, Diiya, Mischowski & Konstanz, 2008). Self-affirmation acts as a framework for which a student-athlete can overcome negative stereotypes and increase academic performance (Cohen, 2006). By protecting self integrity, a student-athlete will be able to accept threatening experiences and information and sustain optimism and effort, which will allow for a positive change to occur (Cohen, 2006).

In summary, according to Steele (1988), people are motivated to protect their self-worth. When confronted with threatening information, people respond defensively (Cohen, 2006). As in the case of student-athletes, when they are rewarded and praised for their success on the court and on the field, but criticized for their classroom performance, they become defensive. This type of response leads to ego protection and any worthwhile information to be gained from the situation is lost. To combat this type of negative reaction, many researchers have found that completing a self-affirmation exercise helps students cope. A study performed by Cohen & Garcia (2005) found that when students performed writing exercises involving important values to them, their academic achievement significantly increased. This was especially true for minority students. This type of self-affirmation led students to trust their academic faculty and

feel that their feedback was fair. By focusing on other self-affirming attributes not related to the threat, students may protect their self-esteem, become more open and increase academic achievement (Sherman & Cohen, 2002; 2006; Steele, 1988). Self-affirmation theory is an integral part of this study, as it was used to develop the Scholar-Baller curriculum. As athletic identity is being investigated, self-affirmation theory provides a framework from which to interpret student-athletes' data.

Identity

Identity theory, how individuals make sense of themselves and where they fit in the world, was conceived in the 1950's by Erik Erikson, a noted developmental psychologist. His theory used developmental stages of life to determine how an individual sees himself and understands who he is, which changes and is clarified throughout life (Adams, 1996; Schwartz, 2005). Erikson saw identity as the development of self: ego, personal and social. The problem with more current identity research, referred to as Identity Status theory, is that it does not take into consideration group or social identity (gender, ethnic and national identity), which are deeply ingrained into the sense of self. As societies have become more global, an individual's social identity is of utmost consideration (Schwartz, 2005). Much of the current social science research uses the general population of university students, as they are readily available for university professors (Schwartz, 2005). According to the Office of Institutional Research at University of Massachusetts, Amherst, the population of U.S. citizens enrolled as undergraduate university students in Fall 2008, was 80.6% White American, non-Hispanic. As mentioned earlier, Division I football teams include roughly 50% African-American student-athletes. This

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lack of research on minorities unfortunately leaves a large part of the non-White American population under-represented in identity research.

Athletic Identity

Student-athletes have two identities in the university setting, academic and athletic (Adler & Adler, 1991; Comeaux & Harrison, 2007; Person & LeNoir, 1997; Ridpath, 2002). Research has reported that student-athletes have poor identity development (Lally & Kerr, 2005; Murphy, 1996). Murphy (1996) found an inverse relationship between career maturity and athletic identity among Division I male and female student-athletes. Conversely, Brown and Hartley (1998) and Martens and Cox (2000) found that student-athletes' investment in the student role was more important in determining career maturity, than their investment in the athletic role. Student-athletes can have high athletic identity and this does not necessarily decrease the importance of the student role (Brown, Glastetter-Fender & Shelton, 2000; Gaston-Gayles, 2005; Harrison, Stone & Lawrence, 2008). However, identity foreclosure, the degree to which an individual commits early and solely to one role without consideration to others (in this case, athletics), does play a negative role in academic self-efficacy (Adler & Adler, 1985; Brown, Glastetter-Fender & Shelton, 2000; Lally & Kerr, 2005). Research suggests when a student-athlete becomes completely engulfed in his or her athletic role, his/her academic performance may be affected (Adler & Adler, 1985; 1991; Brewer, Van Rallete & Linder, 1993; Brown & Hartley, 1998; Lally & Kerr, 2005; Murphy, 1996).

When beginning their debut into college life, student-athletes may think handling the academics with athletics will be easy, with no expectation of failure (Clow, 2000). Many

student-athletes are not exposed to the routine academic experiences, such as looking over course descriptions, scheduling classes or general education requirements (Adler & Adler, 1991). Frequently, they are registered into their classes by secretaries or assistant coaches. For some student-athletes, having someone take care of their academic registration and check up on their progress throughout the semester emphasizes the need to focus time and effort on their athletic role. It also leads to a false sense of security that someone else is responsible for their academic progress.

In addition, because some student-athletes are not proactive in their course selection, they end up studying a subject in which they have no interest. At times their courses include a number of other student-athletes, and their initial instructors are "friends of the program" (Adler & Adler, 1985). Due to time constraints, many student-athletes are forced to enroll in recreation majors, avoiding courses requiring afternoon labs or discussion groups (Adler & Adler, 1991; Bowen). According to a survey from 10,000 student athletes across the U.S., about 20 % feel that their athletic participation prohibited them from studying their field of choice (Wolverton, 2006; 2007; Suggs, 2000).These student-athletes reported that their emphasis during college was athletics. It comes as no surprise then that these former football student-athletes were the least likely of all groups to report that their higher education was relevant to their work (Briggs, 1996; Suggs, 2002). College students need to be exploring and establishing their identity, not focusing purely on athletic goals (Comeaux & Harrison, 2007; Pendergrass, Hansen, Neuman & Nutter, 2003). Many researchers in the field of higher education and sport are concerned with the role intercollegiate athletics play in decreasing student-athletes' exploratory behavior for possible careers (Brown, Glastetter-Fender & Shelton, 2000).

Exhaustive physical training, demands by their coaches, and lack of time for study are obstacles to academic success (Ridpath, 2002). Student-athletes suffering from mental, physical and emotional exhaustion find that their motivation to study decreases as their need for rest increases (Person & LeNoir, 1997; Comeaux & Harrison, 2007). Some student-athletes feel that athletics take precedence over academics because they spend less time in class and preparing for class than non athletes (Adler & Adler, 1991; Wolverton, 2006). Student-athletes devote more time to their sports (over 40 hours a week), than the time spent in classes and studying for classes combined (Comeaux & Harrison, 2007; Person & LeNoir, 1997; Wilson, 1992). Commitments to boosters (dinners and socializing), helping new recruits around campus, in addition to road trips and competition are not optional. Student-athletes have to continually focus on the athletic realm and in one student-athlete's opinion "it's like academics and athletics are two jobs" (Adler & Adler, 1991, p. 149).

"At night when you're in your room and you're supposed to be studyin' you' re thinking about the last game, or the next game, or what's happened in practice, or what's gonna happen in practice…many times I'm in class and I'm thinking about who I gotta guard, you know, what play we're gonna run, or tryin', you know, to remember the film. I may go through the whole class day reamin' about a game. And then I go out and I haven't learned anything." (Adler & Adler, 1991, p. 149).

Several other factors emphasize student-athletes' athletic identity. A student-athlete contributes to his or her identity by physical characteristics such as height or body type. "Students just assume (you're an athlete). They come up to you and they're like, 'What position do you play?' Without even asking if I play football or not and without any football clothing on." (Watanabe, 2005, p. 45). Academic attitudes by other students can exacerbate the student-athletes' disillusionment in the academic realm. As the classes are much more difficult than high school and non-student-athletes seem to take their grades much more seriously, student-athletes

feel less capable of competing in this area (Downey, 2005). According to Shulman & Bowen (2001), non athletes feel less at ease with student-athletes on college campuses. Non-athletes may ascribe a non academic identity to the student athlete, stripping him of his academic confidence and perseverance (Schulman & Bowen, 2001; Watanabe, 2005). Professors may do the same. When a student-athlete walks into a room, the professor may be predisposed to think student athletes are not serious students (Bowen & Levin, 2003; Simons, Bosworth, Fujita, Jensen, 2007; Potuto & O'Hanlon, 2006; Shulman & Bowen, 2001). Student-athletes believe some professors stereotype them as "dumb jocks." (Adler & Adler, 1991; Martin & Harris III, 2006). Faculty become frustrated with what they see as student-athletes' lack of preparedness for class (Simons et al.; Stephans & Brewer, 2007). Little career exploration and communication with faculty can affect student-athletes' academic motivation (Brown & Hartley; Martens & Cox, 2000). Negative perceptions and treatment devalue some student-athletes' self perceptions (Simons, Bosworth, Fujita & Jensen).

Lastly, the media-heightened and pervasive appeal for athletic performance often dominates the student-athlete's ego (Harrison, 1981). With the many intrinsic benefits of collegiate sports, and the competitive environment, student-athletes are athletically motivated (Sandstedt, Cox, Martens, Ward, Webber & Ivey, 2004; Ryska, 2002; Schulman & Bowen, 2001). Student-athletes generally thrive in a competitive environment, as competitiveness serves as an attribute that internally and externally generates a reward system (Harrison, 1981). Internally, a student-athlete reinforces his or her athletic role by pursuing his childhood dream; externally, by press coverage, fans, and scholarships (Adler & Adler, 1985).

The athletic role's aggrandizement transforms the other roles and identities into lesser ones. By reinforcing one's identity an individual neglects the others, thus developing an engulfed self revolving around one central identity (Adler & Adler, 1991). Other identities are organized around this central one (Clow, 2000). This representation of the engulfed self is an example of our specialized society today. In contrast to the Renaissance man, today's man tends to reflect trends of increased focus on a single set of skills (Adler & Adler, 1985). In order to succeed, employees must specialize, focus and become masters of a narrow area. We are returning to an age of institutionalization, specialization and rationalization; one in which athletes live in a highly institutionalized structure (Adler & Alder, 1985). A student-athletes' whole socialization, rejection of the old reality and acceptance of the new, common within highly controlled social environments, works to transform his/her identity (Adler & Adler, 1985; 1991). This uniqueness, the intensity and all encompassing relationships with their teammates and coaches, encourages their reliance on each other. Within this group, they feel understood and their athletic identity is strengthened.

Athletic Sub-culture

Culture is an important component to any motivational program (Durodoye & Hildreth, 1995; Hood, 2002). Culture is a group's preferred way of perceiving, judging, and organizing ideas, situations and events in everyday life (Durodoye & Hildreth, 1995). Culture also incorporates different styles of communication. Learning communities share a communication style and a community's knowledge is built around a central theme (Comeaux & Harrison, 2007). An ethnographic four-year study was the first of its kind studying a Division I basketball

team in the mid-south-central portion of the country. The team was nationally ranked, and considered to be one of the more successful programs (Adler & Adler, 1985). The study was conducted using a participant-observation sociological methodology. Adler found that freshmen entered the program with idealistic goals and optimistic academic aspirations of planning to graduate in engineering, business, or other majors (Adler & Adler, 1985). However, as student-athletes experienced the celebrity and social isolation from the academic realm of the college, they become disillusioned and disinterested in academics.

According to Adler & Adler (1985), the student-athletes are indoctrinated into athletic sub-culture where peers discourage them from exerting effort in academics. As one player said,

"When most of the other guys are making D's and F's, if I work hard and get a B on a test, if I go back to the dorm and they all see I got a B, then they goin' snap on [make fun of] me. So most of the guys, they don't try. They all act like it's a big joke" (Adler & Adler, 1985, p. 246).

Participating in college athletics tends to segregate student- athletes into a culture that devalues the merits of education (Pascarella, Truckenmiller, Nora, Terenzini, Edison & Hagedorn, 1999). As student-athletes are housed together, eat together, train together and attend classes together, a strong bond develops. Those who do not conform to the standards of the athletic subculture are not accepted. Therefore, to fit into the "athletic society," one must eschew academic achievement for athletic achievement. According to Schulman & Levin (2003), when the norms of a subculture that does not value academic achievement is coupled with extraordinary time commitments in athletics, lower academic performance is often observed. Student-athletes spend twice as much time as non athletes pursuing their activity. This amounts

to 40 percent of a student-athlete's time being spent with members of his team, surpassing the time spent together by fraternity members (Bowen & Levin, 2003).

This considerable amount of time spent with team members can affect beliefs and attitudes towards education. Another study investigating intercollegiate football student-athletes found that although there are significant differences in most background characteristics between football student-athletes and other intercollegiate athletes, there is no difference in their degree aspiration at the start of their first year of college (Briggs, 1996). However, four years later football student-athletes have much lower degree attainment and degree aspirations than other intercollegiate athletes (Briggs, 1996). Many institutions attribute this to peer group influence. One student-athlete describes the narrow-minded focus of his peers: "In an athletic dorm where you've got all athletes, what are they going to be talking about? It won't be Reagonomics, believe me. It'll definitely be Sports Illustrated" (Adler & Adler, 1985, p. 118). Being segregated into student-athlete only dorms further narrows their career aspirations, as it reinforces a myopic focus on athletics (Sellers & Kuperminc, 1997). Consistent with Adler & Adler's role engulfment theory, the athletic role is made more salient to student-athletes (Briggs, 1996). Spending more time with athletic endeavors (boosters, coach's family and teammates), role commitment to academics is weak (Briggs, 1996; Wolverton, 2006; 2007).

Research suggests that student-athletes need to develop strong social support systems, as it helps to develop positive self concepts (Curry, Snyder, Cook, Ruby & Rehm, 1997; Curry, Rehm & Bernuth, 1997). In order to help student-athletes academically, it is necessary to focus on the student-athletes' experiences in the academic realm. Positive experiences in the classroom may increase academic performance and help buffer against athletic subculture's negative

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perceptions towards academics (Harrison, 2000; DeSousa & Kuh, 1996; Furr & Elling, 2002; Harrison, Moore & Evans, 2006; Sellers & Damas).

African-American Culture

As the majority of student-athletes are minorities, cultural differences should be considered as well when studying motivational factors (Harrison, Moore & Evans, 2006). Before 1950, few football teams were integrated. Most Southern colleges refused to play with or against African-American players, declaring that Jim Crow laws did not permit it. Early African-American football student-athletes included William Henry Lewis at Rutgers, Fritz Pollard and Paul Robeson at Brown, and Gideon Smith at Michigan State. Now, around the country, African-American football student-athletes are in the majority (Sylvester, 1997; Lapchick, 2005).

In the African-American culture, learning styles are influenced by family and other prominent institutions of the culture (Harrison, Moore & Evans, 2006). They reflect affective domain, a communal nature, relational cognitive style, expressive creativity, oral expression and particular modes of nonverbal communication. Beattie (1980) and Markus & Kitayama (1991) claim that African-Americans are extremely sensitive to interdependence and society. They feel they are extensions of one another.

As African-American culture sees sports achievement as a way to advance in America's social status, they encourage their youth to pursue these avenues (Kimball & Freysinger, 2003; Sellers & Kuperminc, 1997; Harrison, 2006). According to Rudman (1995), this is a function of social orientation and what has been called a "culture of poverty" (Berry, 2001, p. 55). African-American males find that sports allow them to express their authority, as many African-

American households are run by the female (Yopyk & Prentice, 2005). These households lack a male role model for African-American youth, and compounding this problem is a lack of press coverage for the many African-American professionals in fields other than sports (Berry, 2001). Arthur Ashe comments that African-Americans' most widely recognized role models are athletes and entertainers and since sports receive extensive media coverage, the African-American professional athlete is highly visible (Berry, 2001). When African-American youths think of famous African-Americans, it is the athletes that are salient. As a result, sports are perceived as one area that an African-American can achieve upward social mobility. There are 1,200 African-American professional athletes in the United States. However, much lesser known, there are 12 times more African-American lawyers, 2 ½ times more African-American dentists, and 15 times more African-American doctors (Berry, 2001).

Many of the NCAA reforms, meant to increase student-athletes' graduation rates, have negatively affected African-Americans. From 1984 to 1986, the first two years of Proposition 48, 84 % of academically ineligible football student-athletes were African-American. Edwards (2000) reports that if Proposition 48 had been in use in 1981, 69 % of African-American student-athletes would have been ineligible to play in sports as freshmen. According to Sellers, Chavous & Brown (2001), after Proposition 48, African-American males were six times more likely to be excluded from play in their freshman year than White American student-athletes. This is a big issue, as more than 50% of football student-athletes are African-American.

Racism is another issue that affects African-American's student-athletes' experiences (Lynn & Parker, 2006; Martin & Harris III, 2006). Due to the disproportionately large number of African-American student-athletes to African-American students, there is a tendency to view

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African-Americans as only an athlete, not a student. This type of racism, coupled with the fact that African-American student-athletes feel they have little control over their lives, contributes to their diminished self-efficacy (Martin & Harris III, 2006). They can feel like an outsider (Adler & Adler, 1991). "When I came here and there's 16,000 people and 1000, 1500 of those are African-American. I mean yeah, it's different because sometimes you feel like you don't have anybody to talk to about certain issues…" (Kimball & Freysinger, 2003, p. 133).

While African-Americans and student-athletes are both considered non-traditional students, African-American males in Division I revenue sports are considered special needs students by some researchers (Hyatt, 2003; Person & LeNoir, 1997; Sedlacek, 2004; Sedlacek & Gaston, 1992). These athletes face a wide range of unique circumstances that include racism and discrimination, cultural differences, poor self-concept, lack of academic preparation and demands on time, facing dual roles and obligations that traditional students do not face (Hyatt, 2003; Sedlacek, 2004). The African-American student-athlete's potential to graduate is further compromised by the fact that few staff, faculty, and other students on campus look like them. Lacking appropriate role models and struggling with excessive time demands, today's African-American student-athletes are in need of academic motivational programs that speak to them. Programs that value behavioral theories and cultural awareness may help enable the African-American student-athlete to achieve academically (Berry; Powell & Taylor, 1999).

A study performed in 1997, involved 2,395 African-American males enrolled in rigorous mathematics, science and engineering majors. The findings suggested that the earlier students enrolled in a retention program, the more likely they would graduate (Person & LeNoir, 1997). Most of the participants (71%) attended a summer program, 45% of the participants were first

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generation college students and almost all participants, regardless of family income, received

financial aid. Most of the 'persisters,' those who stayed in the program, set high goals for

achievement, and two thirds joined study groups. All participants were surveyed and invited to

join focus groups with faculty members and other university personnel involved in student

services. Participants were urged to use all student support services, including tutoring, peer

counseling and advising programs. Thirty-one percent of the participants in the program were

student-athletes. The retention rate of African-American student-athletes was 48%. Sixty-eight

percent of the student-athletes reported satisfaction with the college experience and the faculty.

More than a third of the student-athletes took part in research activities and internships. In

examining the results and considering the difficult majors these students had, the program was

highly successful for African-American males, both athletes and non athletes. Instead of

beginning their college experience with athletics, student-athletes were involved in the academic

community and therefore better prepared for the academic year (Person & LeNoir, 1997).

Although this program shows promise, previous research on retention programs has revealed

little success with improved GPA's or graduation rates of student-athletes (Bell, 2005; Clow,

2000). The lack of educational value and popular culture as a means of transmitting these

messages may be why there has been little improvement.

Scholar-Baller

One such retention program that does utilize popular culture to address the issues of

student-athletes' motivation and identity, is Scholar-Baller. Scholar-Baller is a partner program

with the National Consortium Academics and Sport in the DeVos Sport Business Program. This

program was developed in response to the lack of motivation and academic failure of numerous student-athletes over the years. Taking the NCAA Academic Reform Movement and empirical data from methodological studies into account, Scholar-Baller infuses student athletes' desires, connections, technologies, and artifacts into the Scholar-Baller Paradigm (Harrison & Boyd, 2007; Harrison, 2007). Using a culturally relevant curriculum, it connects success in the classroom with success on the field. Hence, the name Scholar-Baller, which stands for an individual who succeeds academically and athletically. Unique to this motivational program, is the use of contemporaneous rewards for academic achievement (Harrison & Boyd, 2007). Within this paradigm, Scholar-Baller "bridges the gap between education and sport, utilizing student-athletes' passion for entertainment and athletics" (Scholar-Baller, 2002).

Using self-affirmation theory and Tinto's model of attrition as its framework, Scholar-Baller focuses on developing a positive self-identity (Harrison, 2007). Scholar-Baller uses affirmation exercises to help student-athletes increase academic achievement. The curriculum also incorporates Tinto's theory by integrating student-athletes into academic life. Tinto believes that college students' persistence and success is related to their social and academic integration (Guiffrida, 2006; Tinto, 1975). Scholar-Baller addresses the conflict of the student-athlete identity issue with its Scholar-Baller Identity Model. This model includes precollege characteristics, environmental variables and outcome variables. These characteristics have been shown through research to relate to persistence and academic achievement (Harrison & Boyd, 2007). Family background, educational experiences and individual characteristics all play a part in a student-athlete's academic success (Astin, 1984; Harrison & Boyd, 2007; Lang, Dunham & Alpert, 1988). These individual traits combined with the student-athletes' motivation towards a

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degree, influence their academic and social integration within the university and persistence towards graduation (Harrison& Boyd, 2007; Mangold, Bean & Adams, 2003). The Scholar-Baller curriculum integrates: sport, culture and education. A reciprocal functional relationship between all domains allows a balanced approach. This balance helps the student-athlete achieve a positive self-identity (Settles, Sellers, & Damas, 2002). According to Dr. Myles Brand, NCAA President, this program "is a well-conceived, successful way to recognize and reward academic achievement by student-athletes. It speaks to contemporary student-athletes in their language and in their context" (Scholar-Baller, 2006).

Scholar-Baller embraces a prevalent cultural force in our society today, that of hip hop culture. Entertainment, video games, film, fashion and hip-hop music pervade youth culture (Lang, 2000; Harrison & Boyd, 2007; Harrison, 2000; West, 2004). While attending a football game, standing in line at a movie theatre, or shopping in a video game store, one can see how integral entertainment and hip hop is to our youth. It is believed that Scholar-Baller's use of popular culture allows for easier transmission of the importance of education.

Scholar-Baller's curriculum consists of six core values (Vision, Industry, Respect, Perseverance, Success, Humility), and it is further broken down into six principles: Identity; The Competitive Spirit; The Scholar-Baller Paradigm; Purpose/Vision/Mission/Goals; Decision-Making System/ and Compete and Live the Scholar-Baller way (Vision, Industry, Self-Respect, Perseverance, Success, and Humility). Utilizing team competition, each principle incorporates lessons to transfer knowledge of identity. Competition is used because student-athletes are competitive (Podlog, 2002). Virtually all student-athletes in Podlog's study reported how competitive they were and how important it was to them to be competitive. Another study by

Reiter, Liput & Nirmal, (2007) found that 70% of student-athletes in team sports were extroverted and more competitive than other athletes or non-athletes.

Principle One of Scholar-Baller deals with identity (Harrison & Boyd, 2007). The goal of the identity principle is to educate student-athletes about the "scholar" in student-athlete and stereotype threat processes (Harrison & Boyd, 2007). Student-athletes engage in self exploration centered around two themes: social identity and values clarification. Through these lessons the student-athlete can develop a stronger self identity and become a well-rounded person.

Principle Two introduces competition with passion and character (Harrison & Boyd, 2007). This principle identifies that competition takes place in the classroom, as well as the sports world. Students learn the reasons why education is important. Statistics about student-athletes who actually become professionals in their sport are shared with income differences between college graduates and non-college graduates (Sellers, 2001). Principle two explains NCAA rules regarding competition and academic progress and why they are important in both academics and sports.

Principle Three involves "The Scholar-Baller Paradigm" (Harrison & Boyd, 2007). It exemplifies the true meaning of self-respect, perseverance, industry, vision, success and humility. This principle is shared with the student-athletes in a culture and language that is familiar to them. According to Harrison & Boyd, critical teaching of popular culture is one way to make connections that are relevant to all students. Through role modeling, student-athletes develop a self identity that is beyond the athletic field (Harrison, Harrison & Moore, 2002). Contemporary examples such as the late Pat Tillman (former professional football player and

American hero) and Dhani Jones are discussed, along with past Scholar-Ballers such as Paul Robeson.

In the fourth principle of Scholar-Baller, there are four concepts introduced: vision, purpose, mission, and goal-setting. These concepts help student-athletes identify ways to become successful in school, athletic and business environments (Harrison & Boyd, 2007). The lessons outline ways to define and set realistic short term and long term goals.

The Fifth principle deals with a student-athlete's ability to make life decisions. This principle emphasizes goal development and careful analysis when making decisions (Harrison & Boyd, 2007). Contemporary examples from sport, entertainment and education are used to help student-athletes see good and bad choices. Dialogues, vignettes and scenarios help student-athletes see how their decisions affect their life on and off the field. Football and basketball players on a highly competitive team often report more physical and mental abuse than those enrolled in less competitive sports programs. This problem is compounded when research has shown that student-athletes report difficulty choosing leadership roles, learning from their mistakes, discussing their personal problems, and articulating their thoughts (Dudley, Johnson & Johnson, 1997). Student-athletes in Scholar-Baller learn coping skills, which include the transitioning out of sport (Berry, 2001). If these skills are not learned, student-athletes struggle when making the switch from athletics to the job market. According to Berry, student-athletes that lack supportive relationships and coping skills experience greater difficulty with this transition.

The Sixth principle is "Compete, Live the Scholar-Baller way" (Harrison & Boyd, 2007). By following the Scholar-Baller way, athletes, administrators, coaches, teachers and counselors

are involved in a cultural change. Student-athletes work with faculty who help identify tips for

success in the classroom, including time management, test taking and study skills, and the

importance of interactions with professors. Research has shown that student-athletes' academic

performance in college increases when it has a dedicated and supportive faculty and staff (Taylor

& Olswang 1997; Harrison, Harrison & Moore, 2002).

Scholar-Baller lessons are generally taught by coaches and administration staff during

summer practices and during season meetings throughout the academic year. Each student-

athlete is placed on an academic team and the curriculum focuses on weekly lesson plans.

Achieving a 3.0 GPA will allow a student-athlete to become an official Scholar-Baller. By

achieving this status, a Scholar-Baller is rewarded with a patch to wear on their team uniform

and different motivational gear.

Intertwining sports, entertainment and education in today's college sports may help to

increase emphasis on education. This emphasis on education is important to student-athletes

early on in their college career (Bailey & Littleton,1991; Berry 2001). Unfortunately, many

college and professional athletes realize the importance of education too late (Clow, 2000). Tony

Dorsett, a 10 year veteran in the NFL and a Heisman Trophy winner, states that if he had to do

over again, he would have applied himself a

"little more academically. I have friends who are pro-athletes who can't even write a
check or they have to have their wives balance the checkbook. That's sad. I know guys who've
gone through the education system and still can't read. You better get a quality education while
you can because when it is all over that's what you will have to depend on" (Berry, 2001, p. 40).

Some former student-athletes express frustration at their university for setting them up for

failure by emphasizing athletics over academics. Eighty percent of the respondents in one study

stated that coaches and administrators placed enormous emphasis on sports and gave little

emphasis towards academics (Berry, 2001). In turn, this affected many student-athletes' chances of obtaining a good job. Although a few football student-athletes achieve a high level of career success in their sport, most of these individuals tend to be working in lower status occupations after athletic retirement (Briggs, 1996). According to the study, many former student-athletes felt they would have to get more education to become successful.

Currently 55 universities and 105 community colleges participate in Scholar-Baller. The program appears to be achieving positive outcomes in student retention and academic achievement. Two Division I universities where the program has been instituted and studied, have reported positive outcomes. One Division I Scholar-Baller basketball team reported that from the Fall 2005 semester to the Fall 2006 semester, average team GPA increased from a 2.5 to a 3.1. A Division I Scholar-Baller football team reportedly increased their GPA from a 2.37 average GPA in the Fall semester 2004 to a 2.68 in the Spring semester 2006. Prior to Scholar-Baller, this football team had one student-athlete with a 4.0 GPA in Fall semester, 2004 (Harrison & Comeaux, 2006). In Spring 2006, this football team had five students with a 4.0 GPA. Finally, another reported example of Scholar-Baller success includes an 80% retention rate for a Division I university's football team, when compared to the average national retention rate at 71% (Harrison & Comeaux, 2006).

Summary of Literature Review

Across many college campuses today, there is a great divide between athletics and academics. Many Division I football student-athletes are struggling with their identity. Are they a student or an athlete? In addition, Division I football student-athletes have the lowest academic

performance of all student-athletes. The chancellor of Vanderbilt University addressed the crisis

of academic achievement by college athletes in the following way:

"The truth is that, for far too long, we …have paid lip service to the education we owe our athletes. Colleges and universities have recruited, trained, and exploited a seemingly endless procession of students for their athletic ability, casting them off when their eligibility ends. Too often, we have looked the other way when an athlete begins to fail academically. Perhaps we've been too eager for more "wins"--and the publicity and financial benefits that often follow…we are faced with highly visible proof that we are not fulfilling even our most basic responsibilities to our athletes" (Wyatt, 1999, p. A56).

With the increased concern regarding football student-athletes' academic performance,

colleges and universities have been investigating ways to improve performance in the classroom

(Berry, 2001; Gaston-Gayles, 2004; Sperber, 1990; Simons & Van Rheenen, 2000; Thelin,

2002). This review of the literature produced several important factors involved in Division I

student-athlete's academic performance. Of these different factors, motivation and identity were

determined to be significant. A study by Simmons, Van Rheenen, and Covington, in 1999 found

that many athletes lacked motivation in the classroom, and were classified as either failure

avoiders or failure acceptors (Gaston-Gayles 2005). Although a few studies have suggested that

participating in a collegiate sport can have a positive impact on academic achievement (Astin,

1984; Riche, 2003; Ryan, 1989) many studies reflect negative relationships between athletic

participation and performance in the classroom (Gaston, 2002; Young & Sowa, 1992; Miller &

Kerr, 2002). According to a study by Ervin, Saunders, Gillis, and Hogrebe (1985), student-

athletes participating in men's football performed poorly academically and were more

athletically motivated. Other researchers found similar findings and reiterated the need for

motivational programs and academic support for student-athletes (Bailey & Littleton, 1991;

Bowen, 2002; Hood, Craig & Ferguson, 1992; Kennedy & Dimick,, 1987; Pascarella & Smart,

1991; Suggs, 2003).

From the research, it was also found that Division I student-athletes, especially those in high revenue sports experience role or identity conflict (Adler & Adler, 1991). Some studies suggest that high athletic identity can lead to lower academic performance, while others found no correlation (Yopyk & Prentice, 2005). Current research has shown that the two roles, student and athlete, can be combined and the student-athlete can be successful in both academics and athletics (Gaston-Gayles, 2003; Harrison, 2007). Motivational programs that provide support and examples of student-athletes who have achieved academically can help alleviate the struggle between academics and athletics. Also, research suggested that race/ethnicity play an important role in students' motivation and identity (Allen, 1999; Hall, 2003; Harrison, 2007; Harrison, Reese & Comeaux, 2006: Hood, 2002). Addressing African-American culture and athletic subculture are important factors that can affect football student-athletes' motivation in academics, as over 50% of Division I football players are African-American (Brand, 2007).

Throughout the literature review, academic motivational programs were found to be important tools that universities are using in their struggle to improve football student-athlete's academic performance. According to research on athletic identity and motivation, these motivational programs need to address how high athletic motivation on the playing fields can transfer to academic motivation in the classroom (Harrison, Reese & Comeaux, 2006). Scholar-Baller, one such motivational program found in the literature, is unique in that it infuses culture, sport and education into its curriculum, in an attempt to transfer high sport motivation to high academic motivation.

As the research suggested that motivation and identity play integral roles in academic performance, two prominent theoretical models were used to understand these factors,

Expectancy-value theory and Self-affirmation theory. From the literature, expectancy-value

theory emerged as a key theory in motivation. When a student-athlete expects to do well on a

task, they will put forth more effort to achieve success. Similarly, if a student-athlete values a

certain outcome, he will engage wholeheartedly in the task. Values, such as intrinsic extrinsic

importance and perceived cost, make up the backbone of the underlying foundation for

motivation. An individual will weigh the different categories and based upon the expectancy of

success will engage or disengage in a task.

Self-affirmation theory, another theory used as part of this study's framework, recognizes

that individuals are less defensive to threatening information when they are self affirmed. By

participating in writing activities and scales, individuals can affirm an important personal value

or identity unrelated to the threat and become more open minded. This theory helps put into

focus the identity issues that student-athletes struggle within the university environment (most

notably "dumb jock" stereotypes). By supplying the student-athlete with an alternate role that

he/she values, the student-athlete can experience less stress in a hostile academic environment

and perhaps improve academic performance.

This chapter outlined the review of the literature surrounding this study, specifically

motivation, identity and retention programs, such as Scholar-Baller. Chapter Three presents the

methods, sample, instruments and procedures of this study.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

As less than 3 % of student-athletes go on to play sport professionally, it is important that they are prepared for careers outside of athletics. However, not all student-athletes are succeeding inside the classroom. Football student-athletes have some of the lowest grade point averages and graduation rates of all student-athletes. Many universities incorporate academic motivational programs to help student-athletes improve low academic performance. One unique program, Scholar-Baller, utilizes popular culture within its curriculum to bridge the gap between academics and athletics. Through the literature review, the researcher found that no research has been done on Scholar-Baller and Division I football student-athletes' academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation and athletic identity. As the literature reported that over half of all Division I football student-athletes are African-American, it also became apparent that race/ethnicity was another factor to consider. Therefore, for this study, the researcher examined the differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes' academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation and athletic identity, along with investigating possible differences between race/ethnicities. After reviewing theories relevant to motivation and identity, as well as available research on Scholar-Baller, the researcher chose self-affirmation theory and expectancy-value theory as this study's framework.

Theoretical Framework

As social and psychological factors, as well as values, all play a role in motivation, the researcher selected expectancy- value theory as a framework for the motivational investigation (Hyatt, 2003; Wigfield, Tonks & Eccles, 2004; Clow 2000). This theory is helpful when

understanding student-athletes' academic and athletic conflicts and choices (Clow, 2000).

Expectancy-value theory takes into account the expectations that a student-athlete has for the outcome of a situation. For example, if a student-athlete believes that practicing for a test will result in a better grade, he may be willing to put forth more effort. Similarly, if a student-athlete believes that practicing for an athletic competition will result in success on the field, he may also be willing to put forth effort towards this goal. This effort is tied also to the student-athletes' belief and value of the outcome. If it is not important to the student-athlete to perform well academically, then less effort will be put forth towards academic endeavors. In contrast, if a student-athlete believes that college athletic performance is important for future employment and opportunities, he values this, and therefore will put forth more time to pursuing athletic goals.

Self-affirmation theory, another theoretical theory used in this study's framework, was selected for its role in the development of Scholar-Baller. Student-athletes struggle with identity issues during college. Many feel that it is a tug of war between academics and athletics and are unsure if they are a student or an athlete. Self-affirmation theory plays an important role in preparing student-athletes to succeed in identity struggles. If a student-athlete performs badly in the academic arena, self-affirmation theory explains that athletic successes can help buffer and affirm the student-athlete to accept this negative information. This theory suggests that student-athletes who perform self-affirming exercises are more ready to accept threatening information (Cohen, 2006). Therefore, if a student-athlete receives a failing grade on a research paper, using self-affirmation, he may be more willing to accept the responsibility of the failing grade and work harder to improve it. By affirming himself in the athletic arena, the struggles of the academic arena are minimized. Additionally, by focusing on positive personal attributes,

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Scholar-Baller student-athletes are exposed to affirming ways that combat negative experiences and lead to more open-mindedness. The student-athlete identifies strong positive characteristics about himself and then in turn relies on these when receiving negative information or threats to self-integrity. Self-affirmation theory provides an important framework in which self-affirming exercises can help to increase academic performance of student-athletes. As half of this study's population utilizes Scholar-Baller curriculum and its self-affirming principles, it is an important theory to use as context for this research.

Purpose of the Study

This study examined the differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic) and athletic identity using expectancy-value theory and self-affirmation theory as its framework .The effect of race/ethnicity (African-Americans, White Americans and Other race/ethnicity) and Scholar-Baller participation (Scholar-Baller, Non Scholar-Baller) on Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation) and athletic identity were also investigated.

Research Questions

Two research questions guided this study:

1. How do Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes differ on motivation (academic, athletic, and intrinsic) and athletic identity?

2. What is the effect of race/ethnicity and Scholar-Baller participation (Scholar-Baller, Non Scholar-Baller) on motivation (academic, athletic, and intrinsic) and athletic identity for Division I football student-athletes?

Research Design

The current study uses a cross-sectional, ex-post facto research design with university use of Scholar-Baller curriculum (Scholar-Baller, Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes) as the independent variable and motivation (intrinsic, athletic and academic) and athletic identity as the dependent variables. Two important factors were considered when designing this study, time and geographic representation. As student-athletes' time is limited, it was decided to survey them one time. In order to gain a larger geographic representative sample, it was also considered to choose a cross-sectional sample from three geographic regions across the U.S. The effect of racial/ethnic background as an independent variable was also examined, owing to the well-documented differential academic performance and completion rates between African-American and White American student-athletes (Lapchick, 2009).

Instrumentation

As this study was investigating academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation and academic identity of college football student-athletes, three instruments were used: The Student-athlete's Motivation toward Sports and Academics Questionnaire (SAMSAQ) survey was used to assess academic and athletic motivation (Gaston-Gayles, 2003) while the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) Part I survey (Pintrich, 1991) was used to assess intrinsic motivation. Athletic identity was measured using the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale

(AIMS) survey (Brer, Van Raalte & Linder, 1993). Permission was obtained from the authors of the three surveys. These instruments have been widely used in research investigating college students, as well as the student-athlete population (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993; Gaston-Gayles, 2005; Pintrich, 1991; Simons, Van Rheenen, Covington, 2000). These instruments were chosen specifically because they represent self-reports of constructs the study intended to measure. In addition, they have the added benefit of being quickly and easily administered. These instruments will be discussed in further detail below.

Student-Athlete's Motivation toward Sports and Academics Questionnaire (SAMSAQ)

The SAMSAQ (Student-athlete's Motivation toward Sports and Academics Questionnaire) measures student-athletes' motivation (Gaston-Gayles, 2003). This instrument contains three subscales measuring athletic, academic, and career athletic motivation with well-established psychometric properties (Cronbach's = .86, .79, .84, respectively). Participants indicate their level of agreement with each statement measured on a six-point Likert scale, ranging from *very strongly agree (6)* to *very strongly disagree (1).*

The SAMSAQ instrument includes 30 total items. This study chose to use only the 16 items from the academic motivation subscale (e.g., "I am confident that I can achieve a high grade point average this year") and the 8 items measuring athletic motivation (e.g., "It is worth the effort to be an exceptional athlete in my sport"). The career athletic motivation subscale was not used, as it did not represent the constructs of interest. Student-athletes' overall academic and athletic motivation scores were obtained by computing the mean item value for each of these two subscales. Higher mean values indicate higher athletic and academic motivation.

Within the SAMSAQ survey there are 6 demographic questions, however, the researcher omitted one. "What is your gender" was omitted from the demographic section as it was not necessary for the researcher's study because all student-athlete participants were male.

Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS)

The second instrument used in this study is the AIMS (Athletic Identity Measurement Scale) developed by Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder in 1993. This instrument has been used most frequently to assess athletic identity in athlete populations. Research has provided general support for the psychometric integrity of the AIMS. Evidence for the test-retest reliability ($\underline{r}$ = .89 over a two-week period) and internal consistency (alphas = .81 to .93) of the AIMS has been obtained (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993). With regard to validity, AIMS scores have been found to increase with level of sport involvement (i.e., non athlete, recreational athlete, competitive athlete), perceived importance of sports competence, and other construct s conceptually related to athletic identity (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993). AIMS items are rated on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from *very strongly agree* (7) to *very strongly disagree (*1).

The AIMS consists of a seven item scale designed to reflect the strength and exclusivity of identification with the athlete role. The AIMS, designed to encompass social (e.g., "Most of my friends are athletes,"), cognitive (e.g., "I have many goals related to sport,"), and affective (e.g., "I feel bad about myself when I do poorly in sport") elements of athletic identity, taps thoughts and feelings central to the daily experience of student-athletes. The items are summed for an overall athletic identity score. Higher athletic identity scores represent higher athletic identity. The AIMS instrument provides norms for comparison of survey results.

Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)

To assess student-athletes' intrinsic motivation for academics, the researcher utilized a third instrument, (Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire) Part I. The MSLQ Part I has well-established psychometric properties (Cronbach's alpha = .91) and contains 31 questions (Pintrich, 1991). Participants indicate their level of agreement with each statement measured on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from *Very true of me* (7) to *Not at all true of me* (1).

From the 31 questions on academic motivation involving test anxiety, self-efficacy, control of learning beliefs, task value, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation of MSLQ Part I, only the 4 items pertaining to intrinsic motivation were used (e.g., "In my classes, I prefer course material that really challenges me so I can learn new things; "The most satisfying thing for me in my courses is trying to understand the content as thoroughly as possible"). The MSLQ scales of motivation and learning strategies can be used singly to fit the needs of the researcher. For this survey, the words, "academics" or "my classes" were substituted for the word, "course." A composite score was obtained by averaging each of the four item values. Higher MSLQ values reflect higher rates of self-reported intrinsic motivation.

Population

Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes at four different universities were chosen for this study. There were two Scholar-Baller universities (School A and School B) and two Non Scholar-Baller universities (School C and School D). Data regarding these schools is reported in Table 1.

University A, a public Midwestern university, was founded in the mid 1800's. As seen in Table 3.1, University A has an undergraduate enrollment of approximately 20,000 students, and it has a student faculty ratio of 19 to 1. This university's student population is 90% White American, 5% African-American, 1% Native American, 2% Hispanic, and 2% Asian/Pacific Islander. The football team is part of the Missouri Valley Conference, and the demographics of the football team were obtained from the athletic department office. Out of the 111 football student-athletes, 69 are White American (62%), 36 are African-American (32%), 4 are Hispanic (4%), 1 reported as Unknown (.1%) and 1 reported as Other (.1%). The team's average grade point average (GPA) is 2.34 and their graduation success rate (GSR) is 79%. The GSR measures graduation rates at Division I institutions and includes students transferring into the institutions. The NCAA allows institutions to subtract student-athletes from the GSR who leave their institutions prior to graduation as long as they would have been academically eligible to compete, had they remained (NCAA, 2009). University A has participated in the Scholar-Baller curriculum for three years.

University B, a public university located on the West Coast, has an undergraduate enrollment of approximately 50,000 students, and it has a student faculty ratio of 22 to 1. The student population is 68% White American, 4% African-American 2% Native American, 13% Hispanic, and5% Asian/Pacific Islander, and 8% reported as race/ethnicity/ethnicity unknown. The athletic conference for University B is the PAC-10, and the football team demographics were obtained from the athletic department office. Out of the 122 football student-athletes, 44 are White American (36%), 62 are African-American (51%), 4 are Hispanic (3%), 1 reported race/ethnicity as Unknown (.1%), and 1 reported as Other (.1%). The team's average GPA is

2.34 and their GSR is 79%. University B's football team participated in post season play in the 2007-2008 season (Bowl game). University B has participated in the Scholar-Baller curriculum for seven years.

Non Scholar-Baller Universities

University C is a private, liberal arts university located in the South and has roughly 4400 undergraduates. Student to faculty ratio is 10 to 1. Its general undergraduate student population demographics include 85.4% White American, 6.5 % African-American, 0.4% American Indian, 2.1% Hispanic, 4.1% Asian/ Pacific Islander, and 1.5% race/ethnicity Unknown. This university participates in the ACC Conference. According to the athletic office, the football team has 88 players and its racial breakdown includes 41 White American (47%), 44 African-American (50%), 1 Native American (1%), 1 Hispanic (1%), and 1 reported as Other (1%). The average GPA for the football team is 2.39. The football student-athletes' GSR is 83 %. University C's football team participated in post-season play during the 2007-2008 season (Bowl game).

University D, a public university located in the Midwest, enrolls approximately 20,000 students. Its student to faculty ratio is 17 to 1. This university's general student population demographics include 70% White American, 16% African-American, 1% Native American, 4% Hispanic, 3% Asian/ Pacific Islander, 6 % Unknown. University D competes in the Missouri Valley Football Conference and has 96 football student-athletes. Its racial background includes 51 White American (53%), 44 African-American (46%), and 1 Hispanic (1%). The average GPA for the football team is 2.58. The football student-athlete GSR is 59 %.

Procedures

Several initial challenges the researcher considered before planning the study included selecting the population. Finding compatible Division I universities with similar academic and athletic performance that are willing to participate in a study is difficult. Therefore, the researcher focused on finding four universities with similar athletic schedules and similar academic curriculum. Initially, four universities (two Scholar-Baller and two Non Scholar-Baller) were chosen.

The researcher intended to choose two universities in which the Scholar-Baller curriculum was administered similarly. It was also necessary to locate four universities with compatible academic curriculum and athletic schedules. Of the initial four universities chosen, two (Non Scholar-Baller) universities declined to participate. Although two more Non Scholar-Baller universities with similar athletic schedules were found, one participating university (University C) was private. Its academic curriculum may have varied somewhat from the Scholar-Baller public university (University B), to which it was being compared. However, both University B and C had similar post season athletic schedules (both attended Bowl games) in 2007. Scholar-Baller (University A) and Non Scholar-Baller (University D) had similar academic curriculum and athletic schedules. Universities A and D were also chosen based upon their proximity to one another geographically.

As student-athletes' schedules are packed and coaches' priorities revolve around athletics, the researcher also considered survey instruments that would not take extensive time to complete. Three surveys addressing academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation and athletic identity were chosen for their validity and brevity. The four participating universities were advised to distribute the surveys during team meetings when everyone would be present and when the

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informed consent and purpose of the study could be disseminated. All football student-athletes were surveyed including (freshmen, sophomores, juniors, seniors and red shirts).

Copies of each survey, along with informed consents were sent to the four different participating university athletic directors and directors of academic support services. Surveys were distributed and collected by athletic directors and directors of academic support during team meetings for both Non Scholar-Baller universities (C and D) and individual office meetings for both Scholar-Baller universities' (A and B). During these meetings, students were encouraged to complete the survey but were reminded that participation was voluntary.

Each student-athlete received a packet including a consent form, and copies of all three surveys, including the five demographic questions. Participants were instructed not to place their name or any identifiable information on the survey. The consent forms and the surveys were coded with a matching number. Each participant was identified with this code, ensuring anonymity. The participants placed one signed copy of the consent form, along with the surveys into their packet and placed it in a box. The informed consents and the surveys were returned via mail. Schools were informed that surveys should be returned by May 2008. Correspondence via emails and telephone calls were sent to remind universities of the deadlines. The goal of this study was to have at least a 50% response rate.

Sample

Of the 400 surveys that were mailed to the different participating universities, 227 were returned for a 57% response rate. Table 2 presents demographic data for each of the football teams in the study. In January, 2008, University A, a Scholar-Baller university, returned 53 surveys (47.8% response rate) from the 111 football student-athletes the athletic department

reported. Of those 53 student-athletes, 34 were White American, 15 were African-American, 2 were Hispanic and 2 reported Other. University A's surveys were from 19 freshmen, 15 sophomores, 11 juniors and 8 seniors.

In October, 2008, University B, another Scholar-Baller university, returned 18 surveys (14.8% response rate) from the 122 football student-athletes the athletic department reported. Of these 18 student-athletes, 4 were White American, 9 were African-American, 1 was Hispanic, 2 were Asian/Pacific Islanders and 2 reported Other. University B's surveys were returned by 7 freshmen, 3 sophomores, 3 juniors, and 5 seniors.

In July, 2008, University C, a Non Scholar-Baller university, returned 84 surveys (95.5% response rate) from the 88 football student-athletes reported by the athletic department. Of these 84 student-athletes, 44 were White American, 41 were African-American, 2 were Native American and 5 reported Other. University C's surveys were returned by 13 freshman, 21 sophomores, 19 juniors, and 31 seniors.

In August, 2008, University D, a non-Scholar-Baller university, returned 74 surveys (77.1% response rate) from the 96 football student-athletes reported by the athletic department. Of these 74 student-athletes, 38 were White American, 30 were African-American, 2 were Hispanic, 1 was Asian/Pacific Islanders and 3 reported Other. Twenty-three of these student-athletes were freshmen, 22 were sophomores, 15 were juniors, and 14 were seniors.

Data Analysis

Before running analyses in SPSS, missing data was identified. Five cases for the intrinsic motivation subscale (2 Scholar-Baller, 3 Non Scholar-Baller) and three cases for the athletic identity subscale (1 Scholar-Baller, 2 Non Scholar-Baller) were eliminated due to incomplete

data. All individual analyses reflect only cases with completed data for that respective measure(s).

All data collected from the three instruments (SAMSAQ, MSLQ, AIMS) were sorted and reviewed in SPSS. Demographic information (i.e., race, year in school), means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis were recorded. Kline's (1988) acceptable limits of skewness (less than three) and kurtosis (less than four) was used for this study. Kline (1998) states that absolute values of skewness indices greater than three, seem to be extremely skewed and kurtosis indices greater than ten may be a problem. By observing these limits, a more exploratory analysis was conducted investigating the differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes' academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation and athletic identity. Race/ethnicity was classified as African-American, White American, or Other. Other signified all student-athletes who did not identify with African-American or White American. The criterion for significance was set at an alpha level of .05, in keeping with conventional practices.

As four dependent variables were being investigated, (academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation and athletic identity), a Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was run in SPSS. MANOVA is a more powerful procedure than analyzing dependent variables separately, allowing for less possibility of Type 1 error. This statistical procedure tested for differences between group means on motivation (academic, athletic and intrinsic) and total sums for athletic identity. Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller student-athletes' academic, athletic and intrinsic motivation means and total athletic identity sums were compared. Individual follow-up ANOVAS with protected LSD post-hocs, to guard against Type 1 error, were also conducted on each dependent variable to further explicate significant MANOVA main effects.

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A second MANOVA, with individual follow-up ANOVAS, was performed to investigate the effect of race/ethnicity and Scholar-Baller participation (independent variables) on Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller football student athletes' academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation and athletic identity (dependent variables).

Assumptions

For this study, it was assumed that the two Scholar-Baller Division I universities and the two Non Scholar-Baller Division I universities were similar in academic and athletic nature. It was also assumed that the Scholar-Baller program had been administered similarly to both football teams. Lastly, assumptions were made that the surveys were administered similarly at all institutions and that all student-athletes answered the survey questions honestly.

Limitations

The first limitation for this study is that the participants selected were not a randomized sample. They were selected purposively because of their participation in an NCAA Division I college football program and because of their participation or non-participation in the Scholar-Baller program. The lack of randomization limits the study's findings to student-athletes and universities with similar athletic, academic and ethnic demographics. Even with the emphasis on choosing similar universities for this study, there were differences that would affect the outcomes. Different coaching styles and its influence on academics is hard to avoid, as well as the fact that this was a small sample of football student-athletes from four NCAA Division I universities. As there are more than 800 Division I universities, it will not be possible to

generalize across large populations. Moreover, there were differences between the amounts of time the two Scholar-Baller universities participated in the Scholar-Baller program. One had been with the Scholar-Baller program for seven years, while the other initiated the program three years ago. These differences in the amount of time in the Scholar-Baller curriculum could play a factor in academic motivation. Also, the role that private university versus public university status plays was unknown and in this study one participating Non Scholar-Baller university was a private, liberal arts university.

This study involved the non-directional analysis and design, which only provided information for one point in time. Student-athletes' motivation varies during their college career and even from day to day, depending on what experiences occur on that day, or that week for that matter. Also, the fact that all information was student reported left up to question the accuracy and veracity of the information provided. This study precludes any causal attributions or inferences and did not investigate differences in academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation and athletic identity among female student-athletes. It only included a narrow range of motivational factors. Furthermore, this study investigated freshman, sophomores, juniors and seniors. Literature has reported that first year male student-athletes have lower academic motivation than junior or senior student-athletes (Howard-Hamilton & Sina, 2000; Kissinger & Miller, 2009; Miller & Kerr, 2002; Pascarella, Truckenmiller, Nora, Terenzini, Edison & Hagedorn, 1999) and perhaps this population should be researched separately when investigating student-athletes academic motivation.

Finally, in this study's investigation of race/ethnicity, motivation and identity, three groups were analyzed: African-American, White American and Other race/ethnicity. As Other

race/ethnicity was quite small and diverse, this could have affected the overall significance between the groups.

Summary

Two instruments, the Student-athlete Motivation Scale and Questionnaire (SAMSAQ) and the Motivated Strategies to Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) were researched and found to be valid scales to measure athletic, academic and intrinsic motivation for the study. A third instrument, the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS) was selected to investigate athletic identity and was found to be a valid scale as well.

As the research suggested that motivation and identity play integral roles in academic performance, two prominent theoretical models were used to understand these factors, Expectancy-value theory and Self-affirmation theory. From the literature, expectancy-value theory emerged as a key theory in motivation. When a student-athlete expects to do well on a task, he will put forth more effort to achieve success. Similarly, if a student-athlete values a certain outcome, he/she will engage wholeheartedly in the task. Values, such as intrinsic extrinsic importance and perceived cost, make up the backbone of the underlying foundation for motivation. An individual will weigh the different categories and based upon the expectancy of success will engage or disengage in a task.

Self-affirmation theory recognizes that individuals are less defensive to threatening information when they are self affirmed. This theory helps put into focus the identity issues that student-athletes struggle within the university environment (most notably "dumb jock" stereotypes). By supplying the student-athlete with an alternate role that he values, the student-

athlete can experience less stress in a hostile academic environment and perhaps improve academic performance.

In keeping with the rationale and research discussed above, this study was designed to determine if there were any significant differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic) and athletic identity. The effect of race/ethnicity (African-Americans, White Americans and Other race/ethnicity) and Scholar-Baller participation (Scholar-Baller, Non Scholar-Baller) on Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation) and athletic identity were also investigated. This chapter described the methodology and procedures used to conduct this study. Data analysis and results are included in chapter 4. Chapter 5 will continue with conclusions and discussions.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results from the data analysis of the surveys. Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic) and athletic identity was analyzed using data from the Student-athletes' Motivation toward Sports and Academics Questionnaire (SAMSAQ), the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ), and the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS). Also, race/ethnicity (African-American, White American, and Other race/ethnicity) and Scholar-Baller participation (Scholar-Baller, Non Scholar-Baller) was investigated to determine if there were any significant differences on motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic) and athletic identity. SPSS was used to perform the tests. Discussion of these findings will follow in Chapter five.

Descriptive Statistics

The Scholar-Baller data was examined first for skewness and kurtosis z- scores to confirm distributional normality and homogeneity of variances across the dependent variables. All variables were within acceptable limits of skewness (less than three) and kurtosis (less than four) (Kline, 1998). Three of the Scholar-Baller dependent variables were negatively skewed [academic motivation (-1.32), intrinsic motivation (-0.81), and athletic identity (-2.51)] meaning the distribution of the scores for the Scholar-Baller football student-athletes was to the right of the mean. Athletic motivation (0.11) was positively skewed meaning the academic motivational scores tended to fall to the left of the mean score. Examining kurtosis, it can be noted that Scholar-Ballers' academic (1.19), intrinsic motivation (0.68) and athletic identity (0.18) had

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positive kurtosis values, meaning the majority had scores concentrated at or near the peak of the curve. Scholar-Ballers' athletic motivation (-2.11) had a negative kurtosis value, meaning the athletic motivation scores were outside the peak.

Tests run investigating the skewness and kurtosis z- scores of the Non Scholar-Baller dependent variables revealed that three of the dependent variables were negatively skewed [athletic motivation (-1.61), intrinsic motivation (-1.25) and athletic identity (-5.89), meaning the majority had scores to the right of the mean. (See Table 3) In the case of athletic identity, this significantly negative skewness is anticipated, as it is expected that football student-athletes would identify strongly with being an athlete. Academic motivation (0.53) was positively skewed, meaning that the academic motivational scores tended to fall to the left of the mean score. Examining the Non Scholar-Baller dependent variables and kurtosis, it was noted that all the scores were positive [(academic motivation (7.32), athletic motivation (1.18), intrinsic motivation (1.79) and athletic identity (5.58)], meaning that Non Scholar-Ballers had scores concentrated at or near the peak of the curve. The significantly higher kurtosis z-score for athletic identity is expected for football student-athletes.

Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Descriptive Data

Using complete data (omitting incomplete surveys), descriptive results for both Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes was examined. (See Table 4) Overall Scholar-Ballers had lower academic (*N*=71, *M*=3.85, *SD*=.335), athletic (*N*=71, *M*=4.62, *SD*=.425), and intrinsic motivation (*N*=69, *M*=4.39, *SD*=1.12) than Non Scholar-Ballers' academic (*N*=158, *M*=4.01, *SD*=.341), athletic (*N*=158, *M*=4.75, *SD*=.436) and intrinsic

motivation (*N*= 155, *M*= 4.62, *SD*=.996). However, Scholar-Ballers had higher athletic identity (*N*=70, *M*=41.76, *SD*=5.33) than Non Scholar-Ballers (*N*=156, *M*=39.13, *SD*=6.60).

Research Question One Analysis

1. How do Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes differ on motivation (academic, athletic, and intrinsic) and athletic identity?

A one – way MANOVA was conducted to examine the effect of Division I football student-athletes' participation in Scholar-Baller curriculum on various types of motivation (academic, athletic and intrinsic) and athletic identity. The results revealed a significant main effect for Scholar-Baller participation (Wilks λ = .901, $F(4,217)$ = 5.972, $p < .001$). (See Table 5). The observed effect size of this relationship was $\eta 2$= .10.

Individual between-groups ANOVAs with LSD post hocs were conducted separately for each dependent measure to further explicate the overall findings. Significant main effects were observed for three dependent variables (academic motivation, athletic motivation and athletic identity). (See Table 7). Contrary to what was expected, Scholar-Ballers reported significantly lower ($F (1,227) = 11.26$, $p < .001$, $\eta 2$= .047) academic motivation (M= 3.85, SD = .334) than Non Scholar-Ballers (M= 4.01, SD = .341). However, Scholar-Ballers had significantly lower (*F* $(1,227) = 4.08$, $p < .05$, $\eta 2$= .018) athletic motivation (*M*= 4.75, *SD* = .44) than Non Scholar-Ballers (*M* = 4.62, *SD* = .43). Surprisingly, although Scholar-Ballers had lower athletic motivation, they scored significantly higher (*F* $(1,224) = 8.54$, $p < .01$, $\eta 2$= .04) on athletic identity (*M*= 41.76, *SD* = 5.33) than Non Scholar-Ballers (*M*= 39.13, *SD* = 6.60). No significant difference (*F* $(1,222) = 2.37$, $p > .05$, $\eta 2$= .011) was found on intrinsic motivation as Scholar-

Ballers' intrinsic motivation (*M*= 4.39, *SD*=1.12) and Non Scholar-Ballers' intrinsic motivation (*M*=4.62, *SD*=.995) was similar. Collectively, Scholar-Ballers report lower academic, athletic, and intrinsic motivation than Non Scholar-Ballers. These differences range from small to moderate in size.

Research Question Two Analysis

2. What is the effect of race/ethnicity and Scholar-Baller participation (Scholar-Baller, Non Scholar-Baller) on motivation (academic, athletic, and intrinsic) and athletic identity for Division I football student-athletes?

A second MANOVA was conducted to examine the effect of race/ethnicity and Division I football student-athletes' participation in Scholar-Baller curriculum on motivation (academic, athletic and intrinsic) and athletic identity. The results are presented in Table 6. The results of the omnibus MANOVA revealed marginally significant differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic and intrinsic) and athletic identity (Wilks λ = .957, *F* (4,213) = 2.394, *p* = .052, η^2 = .043). The differences in significance levels for Scholar-Baller participation between the first MANOVA (including only Scholar-Baller) and this current MANOVA (including both Scholar-Baller and race/ethnicity) are likely due to the loss of four within-group degrees of freedom in the latter analysis.

For race/ethnicity, no significant differences were observed (Wilks λ = .943, *F* (8,426) = 1.581, *p* = .128, η^2 = .029). Individual between-groups ANOVAs with LSD post hocs were not necessary due to the non-significant findings.

For the interaction between Scholar-Baller participation and race/ethnicity, the results of the overall MANOVA revealed no significant effect (Wilks λ = .966, F (8,426) = .929, p = .492, η^2 = .017) as well. Therefore, individual follow-up ANOVAS were not conducted given the non-significant findings.

Descriptive data for the results is presented in Table 8. Even though the results were not significant, a description of the different race/ethnicities and their motivation and athletic identity scores is provided. Results from the SAMSAQ survey reported that the Other race/ethnicity Non Scholar-Ballers (M = 4.12, SD= .337) scored highest overall on academic motivation. Their score was higher than White American (M=3.77, SD=.314) and African-American Scholar-Ballers (M = 3.91, SD= .349) as well as higher than the Other race/ethnicity (M = 4.00, SD= .372), White American (M=4.02, SD=.338) and African-American Non Scholar-Ballers' (M=3.98, SD=.358) academic motivation.

Similarly, Other race/ethnicity Scholar-Ballers (M = 4.86, SD= 4.86) scored highest overall on athletic motivation. Their score was higher than African-American (M=4.70 SD=.456), and White American Scholar-Ballers (M=4.49, SD=.371), as well as higher than the Other race/ethnicity (M = 4.75, SD= .481), African-American (M= 4.76, SD= .397) and White American Non Scholar-Ballers' (M= 4.73, SD=.473) athletic motivation score.

On the MSLQ, African-American Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Ballers (M= 4.75, SD= 1.07; M= 4.79, SD= .986 respectively) scored higher than White American (M= 4.18, SD=1.22; M= 4.54, SD=1.00 respectively), and Other race/ethnicity Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Ballers (M = 4.39, SD= .614; M = 4.35, SD= .938 respectively) when investigating intrinsic motivation.

Lastly, when observing scores on athletic identity, White American Scholar-Ballers (M=42.13, SD=4.99) scored higher than African-American (M=41.27, SD=6.03), and Other race/ethnicity Scholar-Ballers (M = 42.00, SD= 5.40). However, within the Non Scholar-Baller group, Other race/ethnicity (M = 40.92, SD= 4.59) scored higher than White American (M=38.78, SD=5.96) and African-American Non Scholar-Ballers (M = 39.22 SD= 7.77) on athletic identity. It must be noted, however, that all of these differences between race/ethnicity were not significant.

Summary

Chapter four displays the current data analysis for this research study. Tables have been included in the Appendix section to further clarify the findings. Chapter five will discuss the summary, results, limitations of the study, and include recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

The current study examined the differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic) and athletic identity using expectancy-value theory and self-affirmation theory as its framework. The effect of race/ethnicity (African-Americans and White-Americans) and Scholar-Baller participation (Scholar-Baller, Non Scholar-Baller) on Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation) and athletic identity were also investigated. As only a small percentage of student-athletes go on to play professionally, it is necessary for them to succeed academically. The literature review included discussion about the role motivation and identity play in academic achievement. The NCAA and numerous universities are looking into academic motivational programs to facilitate student-athletes' appropriate academic development. Scholar-Baller, the treatment for this study and a relatively new program that infuses sport, education, and entertainment, is one such program. Four Division I football teams participated in this study. Two teams used the Scholar-Baller curriculum while the other two teams did not. The Student-Athlete Motivational Scale and Questionnaire (SAMSAQ), Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS) were used to analyze academic, athletic intrinsic motivation as well as athletic identity.

Expectancy-value theory, which addresses student-athletes' values and expectations (Wigfield & Eccles, 2004; Wigfield, Tonks & Eccles, 2004;Williams, Anderson & Winette, 2005; Xiang, McBride Bruene, 2006; Gaston, 2002) comprised part of the theoretical framework of this study to interpret motivation. Self-affirmation theory, the process by which individuals

protect their identity and self- integrity, comprised the other part of the theoretical framework for the current study to interpret identity.

Throughout the current study, it was found that there were significant differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes. These differences will be discussed in relation to the research questions in the study.

Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Motivation and Identity

Research Question One:

How do Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes differ on motivation (academic, athletic, and intrinsic) and athletic identity?

Academic Motivation and Choice

It was discovered that Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes' (Scholar-Ballers) motivation differed significantly from Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes (Non Scholar-Ballers). Scholar-Ballers had significantly lower academic motivation (3.81) than Non Scholar-Ballers (4.01). As athletic subculture generally does not encourage academic achievement, and many student-athletes, particularly revenue producing student-athletes, do not value education, student -athletes' low academic motivation come as no surprise (Adler & Adler, 1991; Downey, 2005; Gaston-Gayles, 2005; Pascarella & Smart, 1991; Pettaway-Willis, 2005; Sowa & Gressard, 1983). However, it is surprising that Scholar-Ballers would have lower academic motivation than Non Scholar-Ballers. The purpose of Scholar-Baller curriculum is to increase academic motivation, academic performance and value of education. Research has suggested that involvement in a retention program may increase student-athletes'

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academic motivation (Berry, 2001; Hamilton, 2004; Martin & Harris, 2006). Therefore, it would have been expected that Scholar-Ballers would have higher expectation to perform well on academic tasks, and in turn be more academically motivated. Many factors may have influenced the Scholar-Ballers and Non Scholar-Ballers motivational scores, however expectancy-value theory and motivational theory was used to explain these results. One overarching concept that may help explain the current study's findings was choice.

Choice is a contributing factor in motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2000; Dember, Galinsky & Warm, 1992; Downey, 2005; Iyengar & Lepper, 1999; Taylor, 1983). Having a choice can lead to competence in an individual's task, influencing achievement-related behavior and motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Conversely, a lack of choice can make an individual feel as if he has no control. A lack of control can have a detrimental effect on an individual's motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Iyengar & Lepper, 1999). If individuals lack control over a task, their enjoyment of the task is decreased (Iyengar & Lepper, 1999).

As all Scholar-Ballers must participate in the Scholar-Baller curriculum, it is possible that they did not feel as if they had a choice in their participation. Not having this choice may have led the Scholar-Ballers to feel less control over their academic situation, causing lower self-confidence and motivation in the academic arena. Motivation cannot exist if choice and self-determination are not present (Iyengar & Lepper, 1999). It is therefore possible that the Scholar-Ballers feel forced to participate in an academic motivational program, and therefore have less motivation in academics.

This type of experience where student-athletes feel little control over their academics is commonly reported in the literature. It has been reported that in some cases, student-athletes are not exposed to the routine academic experiences, such as looking over course descriptions,

scheduling classes or general education requirements (Adler & Adler, 1991). It is not out of the ordinary for student-athletes to be registered by secretaries or assistant coaches into classes taught by "friends of the program" (Adler & Adler, 1985). In addition, student-athletes' academic performance is constantly monitored by athletic departments. These actions may lead student-athletes to feel less concerned with academics. Vallerand, Fortier & Guay (1997) found that students who report far less involvement in the decision-making process at school have lower school competence and motivation. Having a lesser role in academics can affect a part in student-athletes' perceived control in this area. If they do not feel they have a choice in classes or majors, they may lose academic motivation. This perceived lack of control can have serious repercussions later in a student-athletes' career. At least 20% of student-athletes have stated that their athletic participation prohibited them from studying their field of choice (Wolverton, 2006). In another study, 80% of student-athletes stated that coaches and administrators placed too much emphasis on sports and gave little emphasis on academics (Berry, 2001). In the Scholar-Baller's case, having a mandatory retention program may not only have a negative effect on their academic motivation, but also give the student-athlete a false sense of security that someone else is responsible for their academic performance. If Scholar-Ballers believe that the Scholar-Baller curriculum is just another way for the athletic department to help take care of them academically, they may focus more prominently on their athletic role.

Another contributing factor to Scholar-Ballers' lower academic motivation, may be their parents' motivations and desires. Parents play an integral part in their children's choices, which can affect their academic performance and career paths (Adler & Adler, 1985; Curtis, 2006; Harrison, Harrison & Moore, 2002; Susanj & Stewart, 2004). If a parent believes that their child is ordinary in academics, but extraordinary on the field, he may push them athletically. A

television documentary from 2004, entitled "Sports Kids' Mom and Dads," showed interactions between young athletes and their parents. The documentary reflected parents' effect on children's sport participation and life choices. Within the program, it was noted that parents' choices and desires motivated their children to participate in sport. Many parents believed their children would receive college scholarships and play professionally. They seemed to live vicariously through their children. If Scholar-Baller parents pushed their children solely in athletics, Scholar-Baller student-athletes may be less inclined to choose an academic career or value academics. Scholar-Ballers may be motivated to pursue professional sport, forgoing academic careers, in an attempt to please their parents' goals for them. In this case, the Scholar-Ballers would perhaps be less academically motivated. Their parents may be influencing them to pursue athletics because of the lure of the financial rewards (college scholarships, lucrative professional contracts).

However, the rewards, such as college athletic scholarships may lower academic motivation. College scholarships, an extrinsic motivator can detract from academics (Adler & Adler, 1991; Deci, Koester & Ryan, 1999; Fortier, Vallerand, Briere & Provencher, 1995; Kingston, Horrocks & Hanton, 2006). Other rewards in the athletic domain that also can detract from academic motivation include adoration from fans and coaches. Winning games and media and press representation can give student-athletes immediate gratification, while academic rewards (grades, diploma) can be viewed as more delayed gratification. Scholar-Ballers may be experiencing successful athletic careers, enjoying immediate rewards and consequently may choose to excel in sport rather than academics.

Further limiting student-athletes' choice to excel academically may be athletic subculture. When students attend college, they leave behind their teachers, friends and parental

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support (Downey, 2005; Medalie, 1981). This crossover to a new environment can lead to adoption of new patterns of interaction with members of the new group. Athletic subculture's members (coaches, players, administrators) can become like a family for the student-athlete. Student-athletes are housed together, eat together, train together and attend class together, so it is no surprise that a strong bond develops. Student-athletes who become a full fledged member of the athletic subculture (which research has suggested devalues academics), expect to do well athletically, but lack strong expectations in academics (Adler & Adler, 1991; Pascarella & Smart, 1991). Their peers discourage them from exerting effort in academics (Adler & Adler, 1985; Pascarella, Truckenmiller, Nora, Terenzini, Edison & hagedorn, 1999). To fit into athletic society, one must eschew academic achievement for athletic achievement (Pascarella et al, 1999). As Schulman & Levin (2003) report, when the norms of a subculture that does not value academic achievement is coupled with extraordinary time commitments in athletics, lower academic performance is often observed. The commitment to academics is weak (Briggs, 1996; Wolveron, 2006; 2007). Scholar-Ballers may have committed themselves to the athletic subculture, choosing to shun academics. Although they are reminded of the importance of academics, they may not yet developing stronger values for education. Perhaps Scholar-Ballers are less integrated into the university environment. Although Scholar-Baller curriculum reinforces student-athletes university integration, it could be possible that Scholar-Ballers are more segregated from the academic environment (housing, dining and course selection). This segregation may have a negative effect on academic motivation, as well as result in lower academic confidence.

Extensive athletic schedules can affect student-athletes' academic performance and self confidence in academics (Adler & Adler, 1985; Brown, Glastetter-Fender & Shelton, 2000;

Clow, 2000; Lally & Kerr, 2005). Exhaustive physical training, demands by their coaches and lack of time for study, are obstacles to student-athletes' academic success (Ridpath, 2002).With emphasis put on athletic demands, student-athletes may begin to feel that athletics are their primary focus in college. Booster club events, community service or even team meetings can differ university to university. Student-athletes may suffer from mental, physical and emotional exhaustion and find that their motivation to study decreases as their need for rest increases (Person & LeNoir, 1997). It may be the case that Scholar-Ballers have more athletic time commitments than Non Scholar-Ballers. These student-athletes in this case may choose to rest instead of prepare for classes, which may result in lower academic performance.

Moreover, if these students perceive their low academic performance as a factor of internal, stable causes, such as lower intelligence, they may experience lower academic motivation (Hale, 1993; Weiner, 1980). If the Scholar-Baller believes that academic performance is related to luck or chance, he will have less academic confidence and be less likely to achieve academically. Lower academic confidence may also prohibit Scholar-Ballers from overcoming stereotype threat in the classroom (Adler & Adler, 1985; Martin, Harrison, Stone & Lawrence, 2009). Stereotype threat (racism, "dumb jock") has been reported to negatively affect student-athletes' academic performance (Crocker, Diiya, Mischowski & Konstanz, 2008; Harrison, 2007), and even create goal blockage (Koole, Smeets, Van Kippenberg & Dijkesterhuis, 1999). Goal blockage involving academics would prevent student-athletes from performing to the best of their ability. Scholar-Ballers may be experiencing higher incidence of threat in their classrooms than Non Scholar-Ballers, and this may affect overall academic motivation.

Lastly, Scholar-Ballers may be more ego involved students. Ego involvement is associated with low motivation as ego involved individuals choose to focus on themselves and

not the task (Ryan & Deci, 1987). Scholar-Baller curriculum involves splitting the student-athletes into teams to compete against one another academically. Consequently, if Scholar-Ballers are more ego-involved students, they may be choosing to focus on outperforming others and not on the specific task at hand.

The aforementioned factors including choice and parents' motivations may have played a part in Scholar-Ballers' low academic motivation. Previous studies using expectancy-value theory as a means to interpret Division I student-athletes academic motivation have found that student-athletes do not value academics (Bowen, 2003; Clow, 2000; Gaston-Gayles, 2002; Suggs, 2003). Bowen (2003) and Suggs (2003) both stated that revenue producing student-athletes have lower academic motivation than non revenue producing student-athletes. Clow (2000) discovered that many student-athletes value academics only as a backup plan in case they are not able to play professionally after college. From the current study, Scholar-Ballers and Non Scholar-Ballers value academics but perhaps their expectations differ in relation to their choices. The current study seems to validate the use of expectancy-value theory as a means of interpreting student-athletes' academic motivation. It provides a good lens in which to interpret academic motivation, taking both expectations and values into account. It is important to include students' values towards academics because it provides more depth into student's academic motivation rather than just the skills necessary to succeed academically.

In summary of this study's academic motivation findings, perhaps Scholar-Ballers' lower academic motivation score does not tell the whole story. Since the inception of Scholar-Baller at both universities, grade point averages and graduation rates have increased (Scholar-Baller University A Pre-Scholar-Baller team GPA = 2.36, post 4 years Scholar-Baller = 2.63), suggesting that academic motivation has increased as well. Additional factors outside the scope

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of this study, such as university culture (private vs. public), class rank, scholarships, coaching culture and time in the Scholar-Baller program may also be at play. These factors will be further discussed in recommendations for future research.

Athletic Motivation and Choice

In the current study, the Scholar-Ballers scored significantly lower on athletic motivation (4.62) than Non Scholar-Ballers (4.75). This was surprising as they also had lower academic motivation. College student-athletes typically have high athletic motivation (Gaston-Gayles, 2005). Therefore, it would have been expected that with lower academic motivation, the Scholar-Ballers would have had higher athletic motivation. However, it may be that Scholar-Ballers do not choose to expend as much time and effort in athletic endeavors as Non Scholar-Ballers. It could be interpreted that Scholar-Ballers have less confidence in their athletic ability or value athletics less than Non Scholar-Ballers. However, choice may have had an effect on Scholar-Ballers' expectancies and values towards athletics.

Perhaps Scholar-Ballers did not feel like they had a choice in their athletic participation. Scholar-Baller parents, living vicariously through their children's athletic performances, may have played a role in Scholar-Ballers lower athletic motivation. Scholar-Ballers may participate in college athletics because of their parents' wants and desires, not theirs. This lack of personal choice could possibly have a negative effect on athletic motivation.

Another reason for why Scholar-Ballers may have lower athletic motivation could be their experiences in high school athletics. If Scholar-Ballers were the superstars of their high school teams, and were recognized as the top in their high school sport, they may feel they do not have to put in as much effort to excel. They may arrive on college campus feeling that they are

already the best and therefore do not need to work hard or be motivated to achieve positive results. Possibly, the Scholar-Ballers are more ego-involved individuals, preferring only to outperform other athletes, but not motivated on an athletic task. The Scholar-Ballers may not choose to work hard improving their abilities.

It is also possible that the Scholar-Baller curriculum is helping student-athletes develop choices outside of athletics. Scholar-Baller curriculum introduces many principles that aim to help student-athletes succeed in future careers. Lessons regarding the salary differences between college and non college graduates may help to reinforce the importance of education, while goal-setting and vision, another part of Scholar-Baller curriculum strives to help student-athletes become well-rounded and encourages integration within the university. Integration into the university environment can play an important part of college student's academic motivation, increasing persistence and success (Guiffrida, 2006; Tinto, 1975). However, the current study reported conflicting results as Scholar-Ballers had lower academic motivation.

In summary, expectancy-value theory provided a favorable lens in which to interpret student-athletes' athletic motivation. This framework allowed for consideration of both expectancies and values of student-athletes' athletic motivation, providing a richer description of the results. Student-athletes generally have high expectations and hold high values towards athletics (Adler & Adler, 1985; Clow, 2000; Harrison, 2007). Therefore, it was not surprising that both Scholar-Ballers and Non Scholar-Ballers had higher athletic motivation scores than academic motivation scores. Almost half of all revenue producing student-athletes expect a career in sport after graduating from college (Gaston-Gayles, 2005; Upthegrove, Roscigno & Charles, 1999). However, Scholar-Ballers' lower athletic motivation score could have been influenced by their parents' desires for them to succeed athletically. If the Scholar-Ballers were

participating in college athletics to please their parents, they may be less athletically motivated.

In the literature, an important factor that influences an individual's motivation involves their own

desire or intrinsic motivation to pursue the goal (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

Intrinsic Motivation and Choice

There was no significant difference between intrinsic academic motivation and Scholar-

Ballers (4.31)and Non Scholar-Ballers (4.62). Interestingly, both groups scored higher on

intrinsic academic motivation than academic motivation overall. This finding of high intrinsic

academic motivation does not concur with previous research on student-athletes and motivation

(Spray, Wang, Biddle & Chatzisarantis, 2006). According to cognitive evaluation theory, which

factors strongly in attempts to understand intrinsic motivation, Scholar-Ballers and Non Scholar-

Ballers must feel some degree of control over their academic environment as well as feel

competent in this area (Amorose & Horn, 2007). The current study's finding may suggest that

with proper support (time management, career development, value of education), revenue

student-athletes may achieve higher levels of academic motivation and achievement.

It was noted in the current study that Scholar-Ballers scored lower (not significantly) on

intrinsic motivation than Non Scholar-Ballers. Individual choice and self-determination,

psychologists believe, increase a person's sense of personal control, and enhance feelings of

intrinsic motivation. As Scholar-Ballers must participate in Scholar-Baller curriculum, this lack

of choice can possibly affect their motivation. Also, some researchers believe extrinsic rewards,

such as those used in Scholar-Baller curriculum, may increase intrinsic motivation (Deci &

Ryan, 1985). Research has stated that for tasks not high in intrinsic interests, a direct relationship

between extrinsic rewards and task satisfaction and persistence exists (Calder & Staw, 1975). As

many revenue producing student-athletes are athletically motivated but struggle academically, exposure to a program that utilizes competition and extrinsic rewards may increase intrinsic motivation. Scholar-Baller curriculum's use of team competition and motivational gear for those that perform well academically may help increase intrinsic academic motivation over time. However, since Scholar-Ballers had slightly lower intrinsic motivation, this finding may weakly support other researchers who have suggested that external rewards can be seen as a controller of one's behavior, undermining intrinsic motivation (Calder & Staw, 1975; Ryan, 1980).

Athletic Identity

Self-affirmation theory was used as a lens to interpret the athletic identity scores of both Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes. Findings from the current study report that Scholar-Ballers have significantly higher athletic identity (41.76) than Non-Scholar-Ballers (39.13). The athletic identity score from the AIMS instrument is interpreted as how much someone identifies with their athletic role (Brewer, 1993). Perhaps Scholar-Ballers are more affirmed in their identity based upon their parents' affirmations and experiences in their athletic performances. Having spent many years pursuing their sport successfully, possibly earning athletic scholarships and recognition, Scholar-Ballers may feel affirmed athletically.

Studies have suggested a positive correlation between athletic identity and academic achievement (Brown, Glastetter-Fender & Shelton, 2000; Brown & Hartley, 1998; Gaston-Gayles, 2005; Sellers & Kuperminc, 1997). A study by Harrison, Stone, Shapiro, Yee, Boyd & Rullan (2009) found that male student-athletes performed significantly better on an academic test after affirming their athletic identity prior to testing. In contrast, some studies in the literature do not concur with high athletic identity and its positive or neutral relationship to academic identity

or performance. Settles, Sellers & Damas (2002) found that athletic and academic identities cannot be perceived as one identity without student-athletes experiencing conflict. It has been suggested that if a student-athlete has a high athletic identity, it detracts from their academic roles (Lally & Kerr, 2005; Yopyk & Prentice, 2005).

Nonetheless, self-affirmation research has suggested that participating in self affirmation exercises and forming stronger identities may help an individual overcome criticism and negative stereotypes (Cohen, 2006; Leary & Baumeister, 2000). Student-athletes are one group that faces negative stereotypes in the classroom (Harrison, 2007; Martin, Harrison, Stone & Lawrence, 2007). Scholar-Baller curriculum incorporates affirmation exercises to help student-athletes combat stereotype threat and accept academic criticism. When an individual affirms one identity, he can become more aware of other important personal values unrelated to the threat (Cohen, 2006; Crocker, Niiya & Mischkowski, 2008; Koole, Smeets, Van Kippenberg & Dijksterhuis, 1999). Increasing salience of a personal value may allow the student-athlete to view poor academic performance as less significant than the personal value, thereby allowing the student-athlete to address the blocked goal, or in this case, poor academic performance (Sellers, Chavous & Brown, 2001). The current study did not address the correlation between stereotype threat, academic performance and athletic identity; therefore it is unknown whether Scholar-Ballers experienced less threat in the classroom because of their higher athletic identity.

It is also unclear as to whether having significantly higher athletic identity detracted from Scholar-Ballers' academic motivation. Scholar-Ballers had significantly lower academic motivation than Non Scholar-Ballers, leading one to suspect that having higher athletic identity negatively affected their academic role. In this case, the current study's findings would support research by Settles, Sellers & Damas (2002) and Yopyk & Prentice (2005) suggesting that

combined student and athlete roles produce conflict that affect academic motivation. However, it is important to note that Scholar-Ballers also had significantly lower athletic motivation than Non Scholar-Ballers, perhaps suggesting, that overall, this group had lower athletic and academic motivation in general. As this study did not investigate academic identity or motivation over time, it is difficult to interpret what role Scholar-Ballers' higher athletic identity played in their academic and athletic motivation.

Through the current study and the previous research, it is possible that by combining both athletic and academic identities, Scholar-Baller curriculum may help student-athletes achieve success in both academic and athletic areas. Scholar-Baller's curriculum may help improve student-athletes' academic achievement by generating a passion for academics within the athletic subculture. Student-athletes have intense bonds and relationships with teammates and coaches and if academics become a priority within the athletic culture, student-athletes will exhibit greater expectations and values towards education (Adler & Adler,1985; 1991).

Self-affirmation theory provided a useful way to interpret Scholar-Ballers and Non Scholar-Ballers athletic identity, as it was also utilized in Scholar-Ballers' curriculum development. Throughout research on self-affirmation theory, positive effects on behavior has been reported through use of affirmation exercises (Armitage, Harris, Hepton & Napper, 2008; Koole, Smeets, Ad van Knippenberg & Ap Dijksterhuis, 1999; Sherman & Cohen; Sherman, Kinias, Major, Kim & Prenovost, 2008). The current study's results report that Scholar-Ballers had significantly higher athletic identity. Further research is necessary to determine relationships between athletic identity and academic motivation and to evaluate whether the current study correlates with previous self-affirmation research.

Race/ethnicity

Research Question Two:

What is the effect of race/ethnicity and Scholar-Baller participation (Scholar-Baller, Non Scholar-Baller) on motivation (academic, athletic, and intrinsic) and athletic identity for Division I football student-athletes?

As African-Americans represent roughly half of all Division I football student-athletes, examining the results amongst the race/ethnicities and student-athletes' motivation and identity is valuable (Brand, 2007). According to this study's findings, there were no significant differences between race/ethnicity (African-American, White American, and Other race/ethnicity) and Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes when investigating motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic) and athletic identity. However, a brief discussion on the current study's outcomes regarding race/ethnicity and Scholar-Baller participation on Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic, and intrinsic) and athletic identity, is presented in the following sections.

Scholar-Baller African-American, White American, Other race/ethnicity

Although not significant, it was noted that African-American Scholar-Ballers reported both higher academic and athletic motivation than White American Scholar-Ballers. African-American Scholar-Ballers' higher athletic motivation concurs with previous research on African-American student-athletes (Gaston-Gayles, 2003; Harrison & Moore, 2007; Lucas, 2002; Sailes, 1996; Snyder, 1996). Affiliation or membership in a cultural group plays a significant role on an individual's sense of self and socio-cognitive processes (Markus & Kitiyama, 1999). African-

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Americans' sport attitudes are influenced by their race and social structure and sport is an arena where African-Americans can express their cultural nuances. Based upon previous research on African-American culture, sports became a salient aspect of their lives (Harrison & Moore, 2007).

It is important to mention that research has reported that high athletic motivation can have positive effect on academic motivation. Ryska & Vestal (2004) found that sport motivated student-athletes had carry over into the academic realm. In their study, student-athletes with higher athletic motivation spent a greater amount of time and energy on academic preparation utilizing information processing, time management, personal effort, task persistence, self testing and skill improvement. Therefore, it is possible for student-athletes to have high athletic motivation and still maintain high academic motivation (Sellers & Kuperminc, 1997).

However, given the disparity in graduation rates between African-American and White American football student-athletes, it is surprising that African-American Scholar-Ballers in the current study have higher academic motivation than White American Scholar-Ballers. Current statistics report that African-American football student-athletes graduate at the rate of 50% while White American football student-athletes graduate at the rate of 64% (NCAA, 2007). Research suggests that African-American student-athletes have lower academic performance and motivation than White American student-athletes (Brand, 2007; Edwards, 2000; Gaston-Gayles, 2005; NCAA, 2007; Sellers, Chavous & Brown, 2001).

Programs that value behavioral theories and cultural awareness may enable the African-American student-athlete to achieve academically (Berry, 2001; Podlog, 2002; Powell & Taylor, 1999; Sellers, 2001). As there were no significant differences in the current study regarding

race/ethnicity, further research is necessary to explain the effect a retention program incorporating popular culture has on student-athletes' motivation.

In addition to higher academic and athletic motivation, African-American Scholar-Ballers also had higher intrinsic motivation towards academics than White American Scholar-Ballers or Other race/ethnicity Scholar-Ballers. Intrinsic motivation can increase fondness and importance of an academic task, further growing academic motivation (Clow, 2000; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Having strong intrinsic academic motivation is important in academic performance (Spray, Wang, Biddle & Chatzisarantis, 2006; Vallerand, Fortier & Guay, 1998). As these findings were not significant, it is not known whether Scholar-Ballers' competitive environment and extrinsic rewards are fostering a love for academics within the African-American football student-athletes. Perhaps increased research of academic motivational programs incorporating culture into the curriculum will help explain important factors involved in the gap between African-American and White American football student-athletes' academic performance.

Although African-American Scholar-Ballers had higher athletic motivation than White American Scholar-Ballers, they had lower athletic identity scores than White American Scholar-Ballers and Other race/ethnicity Scholar-Ballers. Although this finding is not significant, it is in contrast to previous literature results in which African-Americans typically report higher athletic identity (Berry, 2001; Harrison, Harrison & Moore; 2002; Kimball & Freysinger, 2003).

Lastly, although not significant, but nonetheless interesting was the finding that Other race/ethnicity Scholar-Ballers reported a higher mean academic and athletic motivation score than both the African-American Scholar-Ballers and White American Scholar-Ballers. It would seem that this group may value academics and athletics more than African-American and White American Division I football student-athletes. However, as little information is known about the

22 student-athletes who designated their race/ethnicity as Other, and the results are not significant, no interpretations for the slightly higher scores of this small group will be attempted at this time.

Non Scholar-Baller African-American, White American, Other race/ethnicity

In contrast to African-American Scholar-Ballers' findings, African-American Non Scholar-Ballers had lower academic motivation than both White American Non Scholar-Ballers and Other race/ethnicity Non Scholar-Ballers. These differences were not significant, however, were nonetheless interesting as they were completely opposite the Scholar-Ballers' race/ethnicity findings.

Coinciding with previous research on African-American student-athletes (Berry, 2001; Gaston-Gayles, 2003; Kimball & Fresinger, 2003; Lucas, 2002; Sellers & Kuperminc, 1997; Snyder, 1996), the current study found that African-American Non Scholar-Ballers had higher (not significant) athletic motivation than White American Non Scholar-Ballers and Other race/ethnicity Non Scholar-Ballers. Studies have suggested that African-American male student-athletes have higher professional sports career aspirations than White American male student-athletes (Gaston-Gayles, 2003; Sailes, 1996). Although only one in 6,318 football student-athletes will reach professional sport aspirations, almost 40% of African-American football student-athletes expect that they will play professionally (Snyder, 1996).

Although research has suggested that high athletic motivation is not detrimental to African-American football student-athletes' academic motivation (Gaston-Gayles, 2005; Harrison, Stone, Shaprio, Yee, Boyd & Rullan, 2009; Yopyk & Prentice, 2005), the African-

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American Non Scholar-Ballers had lower academic motivation than White American and Other race/ethnicity Non Scholar-Ballers.

Similar to findings with Other race/ethnicity Scholar-Ballers, Other race/ethnicity Non Scholar-Ballers also scored higher on academic motivation and athletic identity than African-American and White American Non Scholar-Ballers. It may be that Other race/ethnicity student-athletes are more affirmed in their athletic role, allowing for more acceptance of critical academic information. Or perhaps cultural differences and academic expectations play a role in the Other race/ethnicity student-athletes' higher academic and athletic motivation. As these differences were not significant, further interpretations cannot be made.

It is also important to note that the small group of 22 student-athletes designated as Other race/ethnicity: (12 of whom selected Other as their race/ethnicity, 2 Native Americans, 5 Hispanics, and 3 Asian-Pacific Islanders), may have reduced the power of analysis for the second research question. The 22 student-athletes in Other race/ethnicity were compared to much larger groups of 90 African-American football student-athletes and 117 White American student-athletes. In summary, further research on race/ethnicity is necessary to determine if differences exist between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Ballers' motivation.

Conclusions

To summarize, this study had three statistically significant findings:

1. Scholar-Baller football student-athletes had lower academic motivation scores than Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes.

2. Scholar-Baller football student-athletes had lower athletic motivation scores than Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes.

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3. Scholar-Baller football student-athletes had higher athletic identity scores than Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes.

Throughout the literature review, it was apparent that Division I football student-athletes are in need of academic motivational programs. Student-athletes are one group that faces negative stereotypes and low value of education, which may play an integral role in Division I football student-athletes' low academic performance. Universities incorporate academic motivational programs to help combat student-athletes' low academic performance, but according to Bell (2005) and Clow (2000), current retention programs have revealed little success. The lack of educational value and popular culture as a means of transmitting the messages may be why there has been little improvement (Lang, 2000; West, 2004).

Scholar-Baller is one such program that does utilize popular culture to address student-athletes' motivation and identity issues. Through the Scholar-Baller Identity Development Model (SBIDM), the term "scholar," which represents an individual who is committed to education, and the term "Baller," which represents a gifted athlete, can help student-athletes become more affirmed (Stone & Harrison, 2008). By providing role models, including examples of student-athletes who are gifted on and off the court, Scholar-Baller seeks to motivate student-athletes and engage them academically.

The theoretical framework (expectancy-value and self-affirmation theory) for this study allowed for better focus and explanation of the results. Expectancy-value theory provided a lens in which to evaluate Scholar-Ballers' and Non Scholar-Ballers' motivation and allowed for richer description of student-athletes' expectancies of academic and athletic tasks. Self-affirmation theory also provided a good lens to view student-athletes' athletic identity. Student-athletes are one group that faces negative stereotypes in the classroom, and self-affirmation

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theory explains how affirmation in one area can help a student become more open to criticism in another (Cohen, 2006; Crocker, Niiya & Mischkowski, 2008; Steele, 1988). Scholar-Baller curriculum incorporates affirmation exercises aimed at increasing student-athletes' positive self-identity, hoping to help student-athletes become more receptive to academic challenges.

This study provided some insight into the differences between Scholar-Baller and Non-Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes'motivation (academic, athletic and intrinsic) and athletic identity. When examining the results, consideration was given to the role choice may play in motivation. The current study also provided a glimpse into the effect racial/ethnic backgrounds and Scholar-Baller participation has on Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic and intrinsic) and identity.

Although Scholar-Baller has reported success at universities in which the program was implemented (increased GPA and graduation rates), this study found that Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes had significantly lower academic motivation than Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes. Perhaps, as this study was just a snapshot in time, the bigger picture of Scholar-Baller's results, are not represented. Or perhaps, choice, an overarching factor, may have contributed to Scholar-Ballers' lower academic and athletic motivation. If Scholar-Baller parents had higher athletic aspirations and lower academic aspirations for their children, this may have negatively affected Scholar-Ballers'academic and athletic motivation. The Scholar-Ballers may have felt forced to participate in athletics due to their parents' desires. They may also have felt that academics were not an option for them based upon their parents' beliefs in their academic abilities.

In this study, Scholar-Ballers had higher athletic identity than Non Scholar-Ballers. This too may be explained by choice and the fact that perhaps the Scholar-Ballers felt that their whole

lives were geared towards athletics and so they identified strongly with their athletic identity. If their parents had always pushed athletics, then this would be the role with which the Scholar-Ballers would feel most comfortable. However, this strong belief in the athletic role can be viewed as an asset when trying to increase academic motivation as it may help negate stereotype threat in the classroom (Gaston-Gayles, 2005; Sellers, Chavous & Brown, 2001; Harrison & Boyd, 2007). With the integration of both athletics and academics, Scholar-Baller student-athletes may be able to influence change in athletic subculture's devaluation of academics. According to Tinto (1975), social and academic integration is directly related to college students' persistence and success. Student-athletes' academic success is imperative, as only 3% of student-athletes go on to play professionally in their sport (Susanj & Stewart, 2005). Attainment of the college degree will allow the other 97% a professional career outside of sport.

The current investigation reported no significant differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Ballers' motivation (academic, athletic and intrinsic) and identity when examining race/ethnicity. African-American Scholar-Ballers scored higher (although not significant) on academic motivation than White American Scholar-Ballers. The complete opposite result was found with White American Non Scholar-Ballers scoring higher (although not significant) on academic motivation than African-American Non Scholar-Ballers. Previous research has stated that African-American student-athletes generally score lower on academic motivation (Berry, 2001; Snyder, 1996) and have lower graduation rates than White American student-athletes (Hyatt, 2003; NCAA, 2007). However, as the current study found no significant differences between race/ethnicity and Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Ballers' motivation and identity more research is necessary to explicate any differences.

Implications

This study on academic and athletic motivation at Scholar-Baller universities contributes to the limited body of literature on student-athletes' motivation and identity. Information from this study may be helpful to college athletic programs, university faculty, and college counselors by informing them of important concepts involved in student-athletes' academic and athletic motivations. Although the current study's findings were in contrast to what was expected, it may contribute to professionals in the field of sport and higher education by explaining the role choice has in student-athletes' motivation.

Athletic directors and athletic staff may need to consider student choice when implementing retention programs for student-athletes. Whether or not a student-athlete has the choice of participating in a particular retention program may have an effect on their motivation. In addition, understanding the parents' role in student-athletes' academic and athletic motivation may encourage athletic directors to communicate and educate parents on the importance of education in college athletics. Consideration of student-athletes' integration into the academic community may also help to increase academic motivation. Separate dorms and dining halls may prohibit student-athletes from fully experiencing academic life and reinforce athletic subculture's negative views of academics. Therefore, athletic directors who understand athletic subculture and the importance of integration may design housing and dining options for student-athletes that allow for more student-athlete interaction within the academic community.

Additionally, as Scholar-Ballers had higher athletic identity and this was shown in the literature to negate stereotype threat, it may of importance for athletic directors to consider using self-affirmation techniques in their retention programs. Scholar-Baller's self-affirmation exercises may help reduce stereotype threats, helping student-athletes integrate further within the

university and ultimately improve academic achievement. Scholar-Ballers' use of competition and extrinsic rewards may help universities and athletic staff incorporate transferrable skills from the athletic domain to the academic domain within their retention programs. The current study may also generate interest among university athletic staff to increase academic recognition. Having award banquets and media focus on student-athletes' academic performance may help alleviate the discrepancy between student-athletes' academic and athletic achievement.

The current study may also provide professors in higher education with information on the struggles of the student-athlete and how best to help them in an academic setting. Increased communication between student-athletes and faculty may have a positive effect on student-athletes' academic success. In addition, preparing student-athletes for educational success while they are still in the K-12 setting may help prevent the tug of war between academics and athletics. Educating classroom teachers on the issues surrounding college student-athletes and academics may help reverse the negative attitudes towards academics and help parents understand their influence upon students' motivation. K-12 coaches will also benefit from knowing the factors involved in student-athletes' motivation and they can then share this information with their athletes and parents. Educating athletes and parents on the importance of college education may be a major key in helping create successful student-athletes in both academics and athletics.

With the low graduation rates of revenue-producing student-athletes, finding programs that help student-athletes academically appears to be a priority, especially with the new NCAA academic requirements. Investigations of retention programs are necessary, as previous research has revealed little success with student-athletes' improved grade point averages or graduation rates (Bell, 2005; Lang, 2004; West, 2004). Retention programs that incorporate popular culture

may be important for universities, as they may have a positive effect on minority student-athletes' academic performance (Comeaux & Harrison, 2007). This is important for universities to consider as most revenue-producing sports teams are comprised of 50 % African-American student-athletes. Scholar-Baller is one program available to universities, and its effectiveness needs further study. This research was a first step in that process. By sharing this study's results with university athletic staff, further steps can be taken to ensure student-athletes are taught skills to thrive in a university environment, take responsibility for making and achieving goals that they value and receive effective tutoring in their classes. Thus, more student-athletes may graduate from college and be prepared for careers outside of athletics and we could truly say,

"Intercollegiate athletic programs combine opportunities to extend successful scholastic athletic careers and gain a post-secondary education that can facilitate student-athletes' successful transition into the professional workforce" (Kissinger & Miller, 2009; p.1).

Recommendations for Future Research

This study examined the differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic) and athletic identity using expectancy-value theory and self-affirmation theory as its framework. As this is the first study of its kind, further motivational and athletic identity studies are needed to explain Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes' motivation and athletic identity as well as use of other theoretical frameworks to interpret the findings.

An important area for future studies to consider include choice, and the role it plays in student-athletes' academic and athletic motivation. Investigations of the parents' role in student-athletes' choices and motivations are necessary to help further explicate student-athletes' motivation and identity. Studies involving middle and high school athletes and their parents may help researchers determine other factors involved in student-athletes' motivation.

The field of sport and higher education also needs additional studies on retention programs. The Scholar-Baller program should be compared to other retention programs used in higher education to increase focus on what strategies work to increase student-athletes' motivation. Additionally, as motivation can change at any given time, it would be important to investigate this in a longitudinal study. Comparison of academic data (grade point averages and graduation rates) to motivation may provide more insight into motivation and its role in student-athletes' academic performance. Furthermore, studying a large population of student-athletes, including those in a variety of men and women's sports may help contribute to the literature. However, it is necessary to separate revenue and non revenue sports as each may have distinct cultures that affect student-athletes' motivation.

The current study revealed that Non Scholar-Ballers had significantly higher academic motivation than Scholar-Ballers. One Non Scholar-Baller university was a private, liberal arts university. As university culture may play a role in student-athletes' motivation, it may be necessary to investigate the role private versus public plays in academic motivation. It would be interesting to research whether parents' motivations differ for student-athletes who attend private or public universities.

In addition, although class rank was not a specific variable investigated in the current study, it was noted Scholar-Ballers (37%) included more freshman than Non Scholar-Ballers (23%). Research has found that first year male student-athletes have lower academic motivation than junior or senior student-athletes (Howard-Hamilton & Sina, 2000; Kissinger & Miller, 2009; Miller & Kerr, 2002; Pascarella, Truckenmiller, Nora, Terenzini, Edison & Hagedorn, 1999). Freshman student-athletes are still adjusting to a new community and culture and struggle academically (Howard-Hamilton & Sina, 2000; Kissinger & Miller, 2009; Miller & Kerr, 2002; Pascarella, Truckenmiller, Nora, Terenzini, Edison & Hagedorn, 1999). Seniors, who are more integrated into the college experience, may experience higher intrinsic academic motivation. According to Willis (2005), Adler & Adler (1991) and Miller & Kerr (2002), freshmen and sophomore student-athletes are not as likely to formulate a mature educational plan as juniors and seniors, implying they are less academically motivated.

Class rank also needs to be researched for its relationship to athletic motivation. The Non Scholar-Ballers' higher athletic motivation in the current study could be due to the higher percentage of Non Scholar-Baller seniors and lower percentage of freshmen. As senior student-athletes' have been integrated into the football program longer than freshman, their level of confidence, comfort level and perceived competence on the team may be higher, increasing their

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level of athletic motivation (Amorose & Horn, 2000; Boegler & Somech, 2002; Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Furthermore, as the current study revealed higher athletic identity of Scholar-Baller student-athletes, it would be of interest to investigate class rank along with athletic identity to see if athletic identity ranks differently among freshman, sophomores, juniors and seniors. As many student-athletes realize in their junior or senior year that their athletic dreams of playing professionally are not plausible, they may begin to focus more on other careers outside of athletics. Knowing at what point their athletic identity decreases would be helpful in introducing career exploration at an appropriate time. Also, investigation and comparison of academic and athletic identity could contribute to the literature on student-athletes' academic and athletic motivation.

Although scholarship status was not part of this research design, it may have affected student-athletes' academic motivation. Many revenue-producing student-athletes attend university on full athletic scholarships, which may have a decreasing effect on academic motivation (Amorose & Horn, 2000). When student-athletes attend school on full athletic scholarships, their focus may be on athletics rather than academics (Adler & Adler, 1991; Deci, Koester & Ryan, 1999; Fortier, Vallerand, Briere & Provencher, 1995; Kingston, Horrocks & Hanton, 2006). Additional research into scholarships and the role they play in athletic motivation may be necessary as well. It was noticed in the current study that Non Scholar-Ballers (69%) had more full scholarships than Scholar-Ballers (61%), which may also have a positive effect on athletic motivation (Adler & Adler, 1991; Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

Moreover, as coaches have much influence over their student-athletes, their values and expectations can be transmitted (Griffith & Johnson, 2002). Many coaches are concerned with

winning, as their jobs depend on their team's athletic performance. Coaches may demand athletic performance and not focus on academics. This coaching culture can lead to a devaluation of education. A coaching culture which is not be supportive of academic performance may decrease student-athletes' academic motivation (Adler & Adler, 1985; Caldwell, 1997; Fortier & Guay, 1998; Spray, Wang, Biddle & Chatzisarantis, 2006; Vallerand). Coaching changes have taken place over the course of Scholar-Baller curriculum's inception at both Scholar-Baller universities. The culture shift involving academics versus athletics and whether these coaches emphasize academic achievement, may have affected the Scholar-Baller football student-athletes' academic motivation. Therefore, an investigation into the role coaches play on student-athletes' motivations is needed.

The current study investigated the effect of race/ethnicity and Scholar-Baller participation on Division I football student-athletes' motivation (academic, athletic, intrinsic) and athletic identity. As over half of all Division I football teams are comprised of African-American student-athletes, and given the discrepancy between African-American and White American football student-athletes' graduation rates, further investigation is warranted. Qualitative studies would provide more information on African-American student-athletes' experiences to determine what support would benefit their academic progress and career exploration. As the literature review for this research has shown that culturally appropriate interventions may increase motivation amongst college football student-athletes, more research needs to be done investigating culturally appropriate programs, such as Scholar-Baller and their effect on student-athletes' academic experience.

APPENDIX A: TABLES

Table 1: SAMPLE AND DEMOGRAPHIC CHARCTERISTICS

Variable	University A	University B	University C	University D
Total Undergraduate Enrollment	≈ 20,000	≈ 50,000	≈ 4,400	≈20,000
Student Faculty Ratio	19:1	22:1	10:1	17:1
University Race/Ethnicity				
White American	90%	68%	85.4%	70%
African-American	5%	4%	6.5%	16%
Native American	1%	2%	.4%	1%
Hispanic	2%	13%	2.1%	4%
Asian/ Pacific. Islander	2%	5%	4.1%	6%
Unknown	0%	8%	1.5%	6%
Other	0%	0%	0%	0%
Total Football Team Roster	111	122	88	96
Football Team Race/Ethnicity				
White American	69	44	41	51
African-American	36	62	44	44
Native American	0	0	1	0
Hispanic	4	4	1	1
Asian/ Pacific Islander	0	11	0	0
Unknown	1	1	0	0
Other	1	0	1	0
Mean GPA	2.34	2.32	2.39	2.58
GSR	79%	60%	83%	59%

Note: Universities A and B were Scholar-Baller universities, whereas Universities C and D were Non Scholar-Baller universities.
GPA = grade point average; GSR = Graduation Success Rate.

Table 2: UNIVERSITY RESPONSE RATES

Variable	University A	University B	University C	University D
Total Response Rate (%)	53 (47.8%)	18 (14.8%)	84 (95.5%)	74 (77.1%)
Race/Ethnicity				
White American	34	4	41	38
African-American	15	9	36	30
Native American	0	0	2	0
Hispanic	2	1	0	2
Asian/ Pacific Islander	0	2	0	1
Other	2	2	5	3
Class Rank				
Freshman	19	7	13	23
Sophomore	15	3	31	22
Junior	11	3	19	15
Senior	8	5	31	14

Note: Universities A and B were Scholar-Baller universities, whereas Universities C and D were Non Scholar-Baller universities.

Table 3: VARIABLE SKEWNESS AND KURTOSIS

Variable	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	SB	NSB	SB	NSB
Acad. Mot.	-1.32	0.53	1.19	7.32
Athl. Mot.	0.11	-1.61	-2.11	1.18
Intr. Mot.	-0.81	-1.25	0.68	1.79
Athl. Ident.	-2.51	-5.89	0.18	5.58

Note: Values in the table are expressed as *z*-scores. Acad. Mot. =
Academic motivation; Athl. Ident. = Athletic identity; Athl. Mot. =
Athletic motivation; Intr. Mot. = Intrinsic motivation; NSB = Non
Scholar-Baller; SB = Scholar-Baller.

Table 4: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF STUDY VARIABLES

Variable	SB		NSB	
	X	SD	X	SD
Acad. Mot.	3.85	0.39	4.01	0.34
Athl. Mot.	4.62	0.43	4.75	0.44
Intr. Mot.	4.31	1.12	4.62	0.99
Athl. Ident.	41.76	5.33	39.13	6.60

Note: Acad. Mot. = Academic motivation; Athl. Ident. = Athletic identity;
Athl. Mot. = Athletic motivation; Intr. Mot. = Intrinsic motivation; NSB =
Non Scholar-Baller; SB = Scholar-Baller.

Table 5: MANOVA RESULTS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION ONE

Main Effect	Wilk's L	F	df	P	Eta2
SB vs. NSB	.901	5.97	4, 217	<.001	.099

Note: NSB = Non Scholar-Baller; SB = Scholar-Baller.

Table 6: MANOVA RESULTS FOR RESARCH QUESTION TWO

Effect	Wilks L	*F*	*Df*	*P*	Eta2
SB vs NSB	.957	2.394	4, 213	.052	.043
Race/Ethnicity	.943	1.581	8, 426	.128	.029
Interaction	.966	0.929	8, 426	.492	.017

Note: Interaction = Scholar-Baller curriculum by Race/Ethnicity; NSB = Non Scholar-Baller; SB = Scholar-Baller.

Table 7: ANOVA RESULTS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION ONE

Dependent Variable	F	Df	Eta2	Contrast
Acad. Mot.	11.26***	1, 277	.047	SB < NSB
Athl. Mot.	4.08*	1, 277	.018	SB < NSB
Intr. Mot.	2.37	1, 222	.011	SB = NSB
Athl. Ident.	8.54**	1, 224	.037	SB > NSB

Note: Acad. Mot. = Academic motivation; Athl. Ident. = Athletic identity; Athl. Mot. = Athletic motivation; Intr. Mot. = Intrinsic motivation; NSB = Non Scholar-Baller; SB = Scholar-Baller.
* = $p \leq .05$; ** = $p \leq .01$; *** = $p \leq .001$

Table 8: RACE/ETHNICITY DESCRIPTIVES

Variable	SB								NSB							
	Cau		AA		Other		Total		Cauc		AA		Other		Total	
	X	SD	X	SD	X	SD	X	SD	X	SD	X	SD	X	SD	X	SD
Acad. Mot.	3.77	0.314	3.91	0.349	4.00	0.372	3.85	0.339	4.02	0.338	3.98	0.358	4.12	0.337	4.01	0.346
Athl. Mot.	4.49	0.371	4.70	0.456	4.86	0.412	4.60	0.421	4.73	0.473	4.76	0.397	4.75	0.481	4.74	0.442
Intr. Mot.	4.18	1.22	4.75	1.07	4.39	0.614	4.39	1.13	4.54	1.00	4.79	0.986	4.35	0.938	4.63	0.996
Athl. Ident. N	42.13	4.99	41.27	6.03	42.00	5.40	41.84	5.32	38.78	5.96	39.22	7.77	40.92	4.59	39.14	6.66

ote: Acad. Mot. = Academic motivation; Athl. Mot. = Athletic motivation; Intr. Mot. = Intrinsic motivation; Athl. Ident. = Athletic Identity; Cau = White American; AA = African-American; Other = Asian/Pacific Islander, Hispanic, Native American or Other race/ethnicity; SB = Scholar-Baller; NSB = Non Scholar-Baller

APPENDIX B: IRB APPROVAL

Notice of Expedited Initial Review and Approval

From :   **UCF Institutional Review Board**
         FWA00000351, Exp. 5/07/10, IRB00001138

To   :   **Janet Rasmussen**

Date :   **December 05, 2007**

IRB Number: SBE-07-05289

Study Title: **Tug of War: An investigation of academic and athletic motivation at Scholar-Baller Universities**

Dear Researcher:

Your research protocol noted above was approved by **expedited** review by the UCF IRB Chair on 12/3/2007. **The expiration date i** **12/2/2008.** Your study was determined to be minimal risk for human subjects and expeditable per federal regulations, 45 CFR 46.11(The category for which this study qualifies as expeditable research is as follows:

7. Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

The IRB has approved a **consent procedure which requires participants to sign consent forms.** Use of the approved, stamped consent document(s) is required. Only approved investigators (or other approved key study personnel) may solicit consent for research participation. Subjects or their representatives must receive a copy of the consent form(s).

All data, which may include signed consent form documents, must be retained in a locked file cabinet for a minimum of three years (six if HIPAA applies) past the completion of this research. Any links to the identification of participants should be maintained on a password-protected computer if electronic information is used. Additional requirements may be imposed by your funding agency, your department, or other entities. Access to data is limited to authorized individuals listed as key study personnel.

To continue this research beyond the expiration date, a Continuing Review Form must be submitted 2 – 4 weeks prior to the expiration date. Advise the IRB if you receive a subpoena for the release of this information, or if a breach of confidentiality occurs. Also report any unanticipated problems or serious adverse events (within 5 working days). Do not make changes to the protocol methodology or consent form before obtaining IRB approval. Changes can be submitted for IRB review using the Addendum/Modification Request Form. An Addendum/Modification Request Form **cannot** be used to extend the approval period of a study. All forms may be completed and submitted online at http://iris.research.ucf.edu .

Failure to provide a continuing review report could lead to study suspension, a loss of funding and/or publication possibilities, or reporting of noncompliance to sponsors or funding agencies. The IRB maintains the authority under 45 CFR 46.110(e) to observe or have a third party observe the consent process and the research.

On behalf of Tracy Dietz, Ph.D., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Joanne Muratori on 12/05/2007 12:57:21 PM EST

Joanne Muratori

IRB Coordinator

APPENDIX C: INFORMED CONSENT

To: Student Athlete

From: Janet Rasmussen, Doctoral Student
        College of Education
        University of Central Florida
        1000 University Blvd.
        Orlando, FL 32817
        jrasmuss@mail.ucf.edu

Re: Informed Consent

Dear Student Athlete:

        I personally understand the difficulties of being a student athlete. It is definitely a tug of war between academics and athletics. This study will help me investigate ways to help support student athletes in their academic and athletic endeavors. I am a student at the University of Central Florida, pursuing a doctorate in Education. Under the supervision of my co-dissertation chairs, Dr. Larry Holt and Dr. Trae Stewart, my dissertation research involves college athletes' academic and athletic motivation. This form informs you about my study and asks for your voluntary consent to participate in the Student Athletes' Motivation Toward Sports and Academics Questionnaire (SAMSAQ), as well as the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS). The purpose of these questionnaires is to assess your motivation toward athletic and academic tasks at this point in time in your career as a student athlete.

        These surveys will take about 25 minutes of your time and will benefit the research on college athletes' motivation. In order to understand your academic motivation, I will be accessing your academic records (GPA, Credit Hours).   The completion of the survey and demographic information involves no foreseeable risks to you. Participation in this study may not benefit you in any way. However, your participation will assist me and other researchers in understanding motivation in college athletes.

        You must at least 18 years of age to participate. You have the option of refusing to answer any question on the survey sand may withdraw from the study at any time. Individual answers will not be published. There is no compensation being offered for participation in this study and participation will not affect your status in the program.

        All questionnaires will be kept confidential by the researcher. The consent forms and survey responses will be kept under lock and key in a secure file cabinet. Each form and survey will be coded so that names are not involved in any part of the research process.

        If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at (407) 230-8088 or at jrasmuss@mail.ucf.edu. You may also contact my dissertation chair, Larry Holt at (407)823-2015 or holt@mail.ucf.edu. Research at the University of Central Florida is conducted under the oversight of the UCF Institutional Review Board. Questions or concerns about research participants' rights may be directed to the UCF IRB office, University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246. The telephone number is 407-823-2901.

I have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in the procedure and I have received a copy of this description

      Signature _____ Date _____

Return of this survey indicates consent to participate in the study. Thank you for your participation,

     Janet Rasmussen

APPENDIX D: STUDENT-ATHLETES' MOTIVATION TOWARDS ACADEMICS AND
ATHLETICS QUESTIONNAIRE

Student Athletes' Motivation Toward Sports and Academics Questionnaire

Thank you for agreeing to participate in the Student Athletes' Motivation Toward Sports and Academics Questionnaire. The purpose of this questionnaire is to assess your motivation toward your athletic and academic tasks at this point in time. Your honest responses to the statements in the questionnaire will help us better understand your goals and expectations as a student athlete.

Directions: Read each statement carefully. Indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement by circling one of the coded choices directly across from each statement. Refer to the key below for a description of the codes. Please respond to all items on the questionnaire. Also, please complete the demographic information on the last page of the survey. Your responses to items on this survey will be kept confidential. Thank you again for your participation and honesty in completing this survey!

Thank you again for your participation and honesty in completing this survey!

Level of Agreement	
VSD = Very Strongly Disagree	VSA = Very Strongly Agree
SD = Strongly Disagree	SA = Strongly Agree
D = Disagree	A = Agree

Level of Agreement

1. I believe that I can achieve a high grade point average this year (3.0 or above).　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

2. Achieving a high level of performance in my sport is an important goal for me this year.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

3. It is important to me to learn what is taught in my courses.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

4. I am willing to put in the time to earn excellent grades in my courses.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

5. The most important reason why I am in school is to play my sport.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

6. The amount of work required in my courses interferes with my athletic goals.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

7. I will be able to use what is taught in my courses in different aspects of my life outside of school.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

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│                 Level of Agreement                  │
│  VSD = Very Strongly Disagree    VSA = Very Strongly Agree  │
│  SD = Strongly Disagree          SA = Strongly Agree       │
│  D = Disagree                    A = Agree                 │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Level of Agreement

8. I choose to play my sport because it is something I am interested in as a career.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

9. I have some doubt about my ability to be a star athlete on my team.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

10. I chose (or will choose) my major because it is something I am interested in as a career.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

11. Earning a high grade point average (3.0 or above) is not an important goal for me this year.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

12. It is important to me to learn the skills and strategies taught by my coaches.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

13. It is important for me to do better than other athletes in my sport.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

14. The time I spend engaged in my sport is enjoyable to me.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

15. It is worth the effort to be an exceptional athlete in my sport.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

16. Participation in my sport interferes with my progress towards earning a college degree.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

17. I get more satisfaction from earning an "A" ina course toward my major than winning a game in my sport.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

18. During the years I compete in my sport, completing a college degree is not a goal for me.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

19. I am confident that I can be a star performer on my team this year.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

20. My goal is to make it to the professional level or the Olympics in my sport.　　VSD SD D A SA VSA

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                  Level of Agreement                  │
│ VSD = Very Strongly Disagree    VSA = Very Strongly Agree │
│ SD = Strongly Disagree          SA = Strongly Agree  │
│ D = Disagree                    A = Agree            │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Level of Agreement

21. I have some doubt about my ability to earn high grades in some of my courses. VSD SD D A SA VSA

22. I am confident that I can make it to an elite level in my sport (Professional/Olympics). VSD SD D A SA VSA

23. I am confident that I can earn a college degree. VSD SD D A SA VSA

24. I will be able to use the skills I learn in my sport in other areas of my life outside of sports. VSD SD D A SA VSA

25. I get more satisfaction from winning a game in my sport than from getting an "A" in a course toward my major. VSD SD D A SA VSA

26. It is not important for me to perform better than other students in my courses. VSD SD D A SA VSA

27. The content of most of my courses is interesting to me. VSD SD D A SA VSA

28. I am willing to put in the time to be outstanding in my sport. VSD SD D A SA VSA

29. The most important reason why I am in school is to earn a degree. VSD SD D A SA VSA

30. It is not worth the effort to earn excellent grades in my courses. VSD SD D A SA VSA

APPENDIX E: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Demographic Information

1. What varsity sport do you participate in?

2. Are you a _____ Freshman _____ Sophomore _____ Junior _____ Senior

3. Are you on an athletic scholarship? (check one) _____ (Yes) _____ (No)
    a) If yes, is your athletic scholarship…(check one) _____ (Full) _____ (Partial)

4. Are you "red-shirting" this year? (check one) _____ (Yes) _____ (No)

5. Highest level of education completed for: (check one per box)

Mother	**Father**
_____ some high school	_____ some high school
_____ high school	_____ high school
_____ some college	_____ some college
_____ 4 year college degree	_____ 4 year college degree
_____ graduate school	_____ graduate school

6. Your Race/Ethnicity (check one)

_____ Black/African American	_____ American Indian
_____ White/Caucasian	_____ Hispanic
_____ Asian/Pacific Islander	_____ Other: (Please specify below)
	_____

7. How long have you specialized (played only one sport year-round) in your sport? (check one)

    _____ Never
    _____ Since Toddler
    _____ Since Elementary School
    _____ Since Middle School/Junior High
    _____ Since High School
    _____ Since College

8. Date of Birth: _____ Month _____ Day _____ Year

9. Rank your identity (first or second or equal) as an athlete and a student in order of importance to you.

Athlete _____	Student _____

10. How many credit hours are you taking this semester? _____

11. What is your Grade Point Average? _____

APPENDIX F: ATHLETIC IDENTITY MEASUREMENT SCALE

7-Item Version of the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS)

Please circle the number that best reflects the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your sport participation.

1.   I consider myself an athlete.

    Strongly   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly
    disagree   agree

2.   I have many goals related to sport.

    Strongly   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly
    disagree   agree

3.   Most of my friends are athletes.

    Strongly   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly
    disagree   agree

4.   Sport is the most important part of my life.

    Strongly   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly
    disagree   agree

5.   I spend more time thinking about sport than anything else.

    Strongly   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly
    disagree   agree

6.   I feel bad about myself when I do poorly in sport.

    Strongly   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly
    disagree   agree

7.   I would be very depressed if I were injured and could not compete in sport.

    Strongly   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly
    disagree   agree

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APPENDIX G: MOTIVATED STRATEGIES FOR LEARNING QUESTIONNAIRE

Motivational Strategies for Learning Questionnaire

The following questions ask about your motivation for and attitudes towards academics. Remember there are no wrong or right answers, just answer as accurately as possible. Use the scale below to answer the questions. If you think the statement is very true of you, circle 7; if a statement is not at all true of you, circle 1. If the statement is more or less true of you, find the number between 1 and 7 that best describes you.

				Scale			
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Not at all true of me ◄──────────────────────────────────► Very true of me

1. In my classes, I prefer course material that really challenges me so I can learn new things.

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

2. If I study in appropriate ways, then I will be able to

   learn the material in my classes.

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

3. When I take a test I think about how poorly I am doing compared with other students.

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

4. I think I will be able to use what I learn in my classes in other courses.

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

5. I believe I will receive an excellent grade in my classes.

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

6. I'm certain I can understand the most difficult material presented in the readings for my classes.

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

7. Getting a good grade in my classes is the most satisfying thing for me right now.

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

8. When I take a test I think about items on other parts of the test I can't answer.
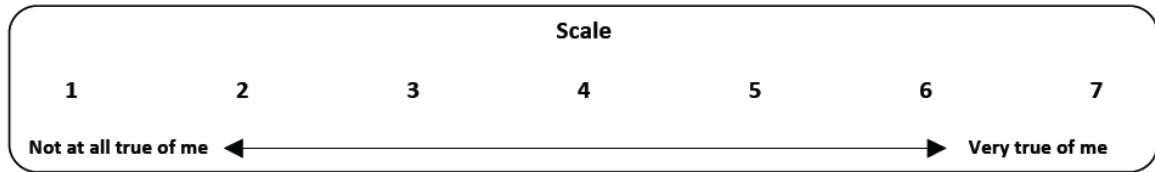
   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

9. It is my own fault if I don't learn the material in my classes.

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

10. It is important for me to learn the course material in my classes.

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Scale

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Not at all true of me ◄────────────────────────────► Very true of me

11. The most important thing for me right now is improving my overall grade point average, so my main concern in my classes is getting a good grade.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. I'm confident I can understand the basic concepts taught in my classes.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. If I can, I want to get better grades in my classes than most of the other students.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. When I take tests I think of the consequences of failing.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. I'm confident I can understand the most complex material presented by the instructors in my classes.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. In my classes, I prefer course material that arouses my curiosity, even if it is difficult to learn.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17. I am very interested in the content area of my classes.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

18. If I try hard enough, then I will understand the course material in my classes.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19. I have an uneasy upset feeling when I take an exam.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

20. I'm confident I can do an exellent job on assignments and test in my classes

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

21. I expect to do well in my classes.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

22. The most satisfying thing for me in my courses is trying to understand the content as thoroughly as possible.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Scale

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Not at all true of me ◄———————————————► Very true of me
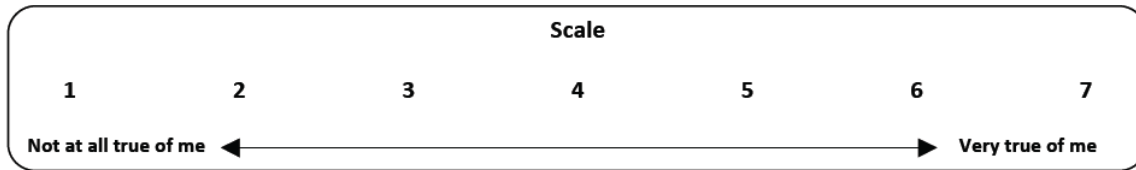
23. I think course material in my classes is useful for me to learn.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

24. When I have the opportunity in my classes, I choose course assignments that I can learn from even if they don't guarantee a good grade.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

25. If I don't understand the course material in my classes, it is because I didn't try hard enough.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

26. I like the subject matter of my classes.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

27. Understanding the subject matter of my classes is very important to me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

28. I feel my heart beating fast when I take an exam.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

29. I'm certain I can master the skills being taught in my classes.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

30. I want to do well in my classes because it is important to show my ability to my family, friends, employer, or others.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

31. Considering the difficulty of some courses, teachers, and my skills, I think I will do well in my classes.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX H: DISSERTATION ANNOUNCEMENT

Date of defense: **09/10/2009**

Time and room: 10:00 AM-12:00PM ED 306

Dissertation Title: **An investigation of Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I football student-athletes' academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation and athletic identity**

As less than 3 % of student-athletes go on to play sport professionally, it is important that they are prepared for careers outside of athletics (Susanj & Stewart, 2005). Many football student-athletes have low grade point averages and graduation rates. Universities incorporate academic motivational programs to help combat low academic performance. One unique program, Scholar-Baller, utilizes popular culture within its curriculum to bridge the gap between academics and athletics. This dissertation examines the differences between Scholar-Baller football student-athletes' and Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes' academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation and athletic identity, using expectancy-value theory and self-affirmation theory as its framework. This framework allows for exploration of student athletes' academic expectations and values. Three instruments were used to collect data. The Student-athletes' Motivation toward Sports and Academics Questionnaire (SAMSAQ) was used to assess academic and athletic motivation, while the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) was used to assess intrinsic motivation towards academics. Lastly, the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS) was used to investigate athletic identity.

Four universities (two Scholar-Baller and two Non Scholar-Baller) were chosen for their similar academic and athletic performance. Using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences: Graduate Pack 16 for Windows, a Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) and Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) were run to determine if significant differences exist between the Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes' academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation and athletic identity. These tests revealed that Scholar-Baller football student-athletes had significantly lower academic and athletic motivation than Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes. Having low academic expectations and little value for academics is consistent with student-athlete subculture. However, these findings were in contrast to what was expected.

In addition, Scholar-Baller football student-athletes had significantly higher athletic identity than Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes. This finding is also consistent with the literature on student-athletes. As student-athletes must be motivated athletically to perform at intercollegiate sports, it is not surprising to find high athletic identity among the Scholar-Baller football student-athletes. In fact, studies have suggested that high athletic identity correlates with high academic performance (Harrison, Stone, Shapiro, Yee, Boyd & Rullan, 2009; Sellers, Chavous & Brown, 2001). Using self-affirmation theory as the lens, it was found that Scholar-Baller football student athletes are more affirmed in their athletic role which may lead to academic success.

This dissertation also investigated differences between Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes' academic, athletic, intrinsic motivation and athletic identity in relation to race/ethnicity. Three groups, comprised of African-American, White American and

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Other race/ethnicity, were used to compare Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller football student-athletes. No significant differences were found. However, it was noted that Scholar-Baller African-American football student-athletes had higher academic, athletic and intrinsic motivation than Scholar-Baller White American football student-athletes. This finding is surprising given the previous research indicating African-American student-athletes' low academic motivation.

This dissertation contributes to the limited amount of studies on student-athletes' motivation and identity. Its results will assist athletic administrators and faculty to help student-athletes improve their academic motivation and performance. As this dissertation investigated only differences between Scholar-Baller and Non-Scholar football student-athletes' motivation and identity, further research needs to be done to further explicate these differences. Also, athletic identity should be further investigated among football student-athletes to determine its role in academic performance. Furthermore, given this study's findings of higher academic and athletic motivation among Scholar-Baller African-American student-athletes than Scholar-Baller White American football student-athletes and its contrast to previous research, further studies should be performed to further explicate these differences among race/ethnicity.

Committee in charge:
Dr. Larry Holt
Dr. Trae Stewart
Dr. Kay Allen
Dr. C. Keith Harrison

Doctoral Major: Curriculum & Instruction, Sport
Educational Career:
      B.A., Communications, 1994, Wake Forest University
      M.A., Sports & Fitness, 2005, University of Central Florida

Approved by Dr. Larry Holt and Dr. Trae Stewart, Committee Co-Chairs

APPENDIX I: DISSERTATION APPROVAL

DISSERTATION APPROVAL

Students should complete the following information and obtain all signatures except that of the College of Graduate Studies Dean. College of Graduate Studies Dean signs only after the entire thesis or dissertation process has been completed, including delivery of all paperwork and upload of the final thesis or dissertation document. Only one copy should be delivered to the College of Graduate Studies in Millican Hall 230.

Student Name: Janet Rasmussen   Student PID: 113-42887

Dissertation Title: An Investigation of Scholar-Baller and Non Scholar-Baller Division I Football Student-Athletes Academic, Athletic, Intrinsic Motivation, and Athletic Identity.

Defense Date: September 16, 2009

Department: Department of Educational Studies

College: College of Education

Degree: Doctor of Education

The members of the Committee approve the dissertation named above:

Name (MINERVA)	Type	Signature
Larry Holt	Chair	
Trae Stewart	Co-Chair	
Keith Harrison	Committee Member	
Kay Allen	Committee Member	
	Committee Member	
	Committee Member	

It is recommended that this dissertation be used in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education from the Department of Educational Studies in the College of Education.

Name (MINERVA)	Title	Signature
B. Grant Hayes	Associate Dean for Graduate Studies	
Sandra L. Robinson	Dean	
Patricia J. Bishop	Vice Provost and Dean of Graduate Studies	

The committee, the college, and the University of Central Florida are not liable for any use of the materials presented in this study.

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