2015

Sports Participation and GPA for African-American Male Students

Demetrit Scott Rusin
Walden University

Walden University

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

This is to certify that the doctoral study by

Demetrit Rushin

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Kathleen Van Horn, Committee Chairperson, Education Faculty
Dr. Dawn DiMarzo, Committee Member, Education Faculty
Dr. Michelle Brown, University Reviewer, Education Faculty

Chief Academic Officer

Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2015

Abstract

Sports Participation and GPA for African-American Male Students

by

Demetrit S. Rushin

MPA, National University, 1996

BA, Kentucky State University, 1995

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Walden University

July 2015

Abstract

Improving the academic success and graduation rates of African-American males has been a major focus of both scholars and practitioners in the United States. Locally, African-American males at an urban Title 1 school were experiencing the lowest grade point averages, American College Test scores, and graduation rates in the district. In response to these academic declines, this study focused on the tenets of Bechtol's sports participation theory, which holds that students who play sports experience greater academic achievement and adult success in life. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between total hours of high school athletics participation and earned GPAs for African-American male students at the school under study for 1 academic year and across each term (4) of the school year. A correlational research design was used to identify if a relationship existed between hours of sports participation and the GPAs of African-American male student-athletes from the 2012 – 2013 school year ($N = 36$). The results of the 5 Pearson correlation analyses indicated no statistically significant relationship between the total hours African-American male student-athletes spent participating in sports and their GPAs. The sample size was a limitation of the study design, therefore it was recommended to conduct the investigation with a larger sample size. The results of the study prompted the design of a professional development program for local administrators, faculty, and staff called Championing Higher Achievement Matriculation, Preparation, and Success for Student Athletes (CHAMPS). The CHAMPS program prepares school personnel to more effectively mentor, coach, tutor, and teach African-American male student-athletes. The program can improve the quality of education that can serve as the stimulus for social change through improved educational outcomes for African-American male student athletes.

Sports Participation and GPA for African-American Male Students

by

Demetrit S. Rushin

MPA, National University, 1996

BA, Kentucky State University, 1995

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Walden University

July 2015

Dedication

This is foremost and ultimately dedicated to my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ. Thank you for hearing my prayers and blessing me to keep my sanity during this process. This is also dedicated to my Shero and mother Judith "Judy" Carolyn Anderson and my sister Agua Rushin, may you both rest in peace. I know in my heart that you two are in Heaven cheering for me to complete this task. I miss and love you both. Thanks Momma, for your encouraging words, in which you used to look me in my eyes and say, "Bubba, you are going to be somebody special." It has always given me the burning desire to never let you down and make you proud! I also dedicate this to my father Mose Rushin, Jr., my male Hero, and my second mom Jennie Lee Capitini. You all are greatly loved and appreciated more than I can ever say or show. Dad, thanks for the tough love, continued education in life, and honesty, it has made me the man I am today. Thank God, I inherited your work ethic, desire to be successful, and mental toughness! Mom, you know you hold a special place in my heart forever. I thank and praise God that he placed you in my Dad's and my life when he did. Neither he nor I would be the men we are today without your encouragement, patience, support, and guidance. I love you! My goal and aim in life has always been to make you two proud of me.

Acknowledgments

I want to acknowledge my biggest fan, cheer leader, support system, inspiration, and best friend on earth, the love of my life, wife, and "Sweetheart" Dr. Palisa Williams Rushin. Without you Palisa, I would not have been able to accomplish this feat. Thank you so much for praying for me and for our family as I worked toward the completion of this degree. You are my angel on earth, whom I will love forever. I would also like to acknowledge my two amazing children, Zephany "Bubbles" and Tomias "Poppi-T" Rushin. After this journey is complete, I am all yours! I love you both and am very proud of you two. Big sister Misty "Blue" and Harold Nichols, little sister African Freeman, all of my family not mentioned and friends, your prayers and encouragement is greatly appreciated.

Ollie Marie Williams, "Mom" wow, thank God for you! You have been with me through my entire educational journey starting in undergraduate school to now. I greatly appreciate all of your help, encouragement, and support over the years. You are the best Mother-In-Law in the world! I love you and sincerely thank you for keeping me in your prayers. Dad, "Al" Williams, thank you as well, I love and miss you, rest in peace!

Dr. Kathleen Van Horn, words cannot express my appreciation for you and all you have done for me. I feel as if I have gained a true friend for life. Without your help, encouragement, empowerment, and motivation, I would not have completed this journey. I want to give you the biggest hug I can when I see you. Dr. Dimarzo, thank you as well for your invaluable input and encouragement regarding this project study.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

Section 1: The Problem

Introduction

African-American males around the nation experience the highest infant mortality rates, often do not receive adequate adolescent health care, are highly apt to live and be raised in a one parent household, often do not attend preschool or early childcare programs, and often live in poverty; as a result, throughout their lives, they face many economic, social, emotional, and academic problems (Lewis, Simon, Uzzell, Horwitz, & Casserly, 2010). Eckholm (2006) and Rashid (2009) posited that African-American males' educational plight and problems start as early as elementary school. Moreover, Bell (2010) and Cooper and Smalls (2010) argued that numerous young African-American males do not receive a childcare or head start education and, thereby, miss Pre-K learning opportunities. The absence of these types of early learning opportunities places the African-American male at an educational disadvantage before he starts elementary school. Rashid claimed that African-American males over all other races of students (and genders) in the country enter the fourth grade having experienced the highest levels of disciplinary actions (suspension and expulsion) taken against them. Furthermore, by Grade 4, over, and in comparison to their peers, they will have been referred for special education and designated as having the lowest reading levels in their schools (Bush-Daniels, 2008).

The School Under Study's (SUS) district School Report Card – No Child Left Behind Report (2010-11) supported that the SUS's African-American males miss the most days of school and incur the highest number of disciplinary actions, highest suspension rates, and highest expulsion rates in the district. Because of their truancy and

extended periods away from the classroom, African-American males at the SUS are underachieving academically in their classrooms, on standardized tests, and on college entrance exams (Waters, 2008). The SUS has seen its African-American male graduation rates drop and its dropout rates for African-American males in Grades 9 to 11 increase. Rounds-Bryant (2008) claimed, "Early school failure typically leads to classroom frustration, academic withdrawal, and negative behavior" (p. 3). Similarly, Bell (2010) and Halvorsen (2009) claimed students who come from urban and lower socioeconomic households, especially African-American males, experience classroom frustration and academic withdrawal faster and at higher rates than other students (all races and genders) because they begin school with lower literacy skills.

In addition to Bell's and Halvorsen's studies, Hernandez's (2011) research produced results that found that students who come from impoverished homes, especially African-American males, who failed to learn how to read by third grade, struggled in later grades and dropped out before they graduated from high school. ProLiteracy Worldwide (2003) claimed that low literacy levels are a major contributor to African-American males' elementary school (Grades 1-4) struggles. Moreover, Halvorsen (2009) contended, "Low levels of literacy are associated with a range of long-term social problems, including unemployment and delinquency" (p. 352). Boykin (2000) purported that African-American male children are often lost to the enjoyment of education by Grades 3 and 4. Rashid (2009) similarly claimed that "the fact that young African-American males go from being 'brilliant' babies to 'at-risk' youth during Kindergarten through third grade is a major problem" (p. 351). Rashid further argued that this is the

"time frame in which their potential for unlimited learning is highest" and losing their interest in education at this point is a major problem that all stakeholders and national educational policy makers have to address (p. 351). Rashid claimed, "A preschool to prison pipeline exists in the school systems of today" (p. 352). Wald and Losen (2003) stated, "The pipeline begins at the elementary school level and ends at the high school level" (p. 42). Wald and Losen (2003) contended that African-American males begin thinking about quitting school by Grade 7 and age 12. Halvorsen (2009) further contended that by age 15, in Grades 9 and 10, many African-American males who failed a grade level and were forced to repeat that grade knew they would quit school by age 16. Rashid argued that, "Grades 10 –12 is the time frame that African-American males begin to quit school in large volumes and enter the penal system" (p. 354).

The aforementioned problems have led to an unpleasant outlook on life for many African-American males. According to Hunt (2009), Lewis et al. (2010), and Sum, Khatiwada, McLaughlin, and Palma (2009), African-American males are victims of unparalleled racism and, as a result, have become frustrated with their lives, which has caused many of them to drop out of school, experiment with drugs, abuse alcohol, suffer from health related diseases (such as hypertension, heart disease, obesity, and diabetes), and have high rates of unemployment, incarceration, and death. Holzer (2006) and Walker and Thomas Lester (2007) claimed that the aforementioned problems are reasons why many African-American males quit trying and give up on life.

African-American males' high school dropout rates are the highest in the country and are continuing to increase as time passes (Holzer, 2006). Because of their quitting

school, African-American males are in a state of crisis (Lewis et al., 2010). African-American males ranging in age from 16 to 24 are considered an endangered species because they are being incarcerated and institutionalized at rates twice as high as Latinos/Hispanics and three times greater than Caucasian males (Nealy, 2008; Thompson, 2011; United States Justice Department, 2009). Statistics have shown that African-American males quit school at a rate twice that of White males. According to Dillon (2009), about one in 10 males who quit school (regardless of race) are sent to jail or are placed in juvenile detention. Dillon also claimed that the statistics for African-American males are worse because one in four (25%) of them who quit school are put in prison every day. White, Hispanic, and Asian males in comparison to African-Americans have about a one in 14 (7%) incarceration rate (Dillon, 2009).

A more recent study conducted by Thompson (2011), using statistical data from the United States Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics report from 1970-2005, showed that the United States prison population increased significantly from 52,249 to 1,266,437 people during that time, which is a 96% increase of people in prison (United States Justice Department, 2009). Of all those incarcerated over the past 35 years, African-American males ranging in age from 20 to 34 years old had experienced the highest levels of (one in nine) prison incarceration across the nation. According to Pinkney (1987), "African-American families in the United States, due to the increasing rate of absent fathers in the home, are perceived negatively" (p. 29). Staples (1986) agreed with Pinkney. Montgomery (2010), in conjunction with Pinkney and Staples, claimed that "the absence of fathers in the African-American household is also a major

reason why there is an increased volume of teenage pregnancies, out-of-wedlock births, youth violence, poverty, and a negative perception associated with the African-American family structure" (p. 1). African-American families are weakening because fathers are not present in their homes (Hirsh, 2009; Simons, Chen, Simons, Brody, & Cutrona, 2006), do not have active roles in their children's lives (abandonment), suffer from alcohol and drug addictions, are battling the court system because of non or lagging child support payments, are engaged in parental custody disputes, and are already incarcerated (Dillon, 2009; Hirsh, 2009; Nealy, 2008). In addition, African-American families experience the highest levels of teenage pregnancy and out-of-wedlock births and have the largest number of single parented homes in the United States in which the mother is the primary care giver (Hirsh, 2009; Lewis et al., 2010; Mokrue, Chen, & Elias, 2012; Nealy, 2008; Passley, Gerring, & Gerson, 2006). In a 2009 report from the United States Census Bureau, one in four children of all races (25.8%) are being raised in single parent homes. In the same report, 72% of African-American children grow up in single parent homes headed by the mother (Thompson, 2011; United States Census Bureau, 2009). Adolescent African-American males who grow up in households absent of fathers experience negative repercussions and have an increased risk of chemical abuse (Hirsh, 2009; Lewis et al., 2010; Mandura & Murray, 2006; Neblett, Chavous, Nguyen, & Sellers, 2009).

African-American males who are raised in father-absent homes are forced to choose role models outside their home environments. The role models they seek are often super star athletes, actors, musicians (gangsta rappers), neighborhood street hustlers (drug dealers), and gang leaders (Ancona, 1998; Dillon, 2009; Oliver, 2006). Barton and Coley

(2006) stated, “To ignore what happens to the children of prisoners, in the home, the school, and the community is to accept that a high percentage of these children will follow in their parents footsteps” (p. 24). To further support Barton and Coley’s claim, both Lewis et al. (2010) and Thompson (2011) agreed that young African-American males, more than their White and Hispanic male counterparts, will follow in their father’s footsteps and become products of the prison system. Thompson argued that the major reason why the United States prison population has grown so significantly over the last 50 years is that the children of prisoners are becoming products of the penal system themselves.

As a result, Lewis et al. (2010) claimed that now is as good a time as ever to begin soul searching ideas, developing methods, creating solutions, and implementing plans of action to help the African-American family, especially its males, overcome their emotional, social, societal, and educational failures that have placed them on the endangered species list. Mezuk (2009), using data taken from a U.S. Department of Education 2003 report, stated that, “It is estimated that 25% of all high school students read below ‘basic’ level and nearly 40% of all students lack the literacy skills that employers seek” (p. 3). African-American males, regarding the aforementioned statistics in comparison to their female, White, Asian, and other minority student counterparts, are 50% below reading level and nearly 60% below in the literacy skills sought by employers (Mezuk, 2009). The aforementioned issues must be addressed at all school levels, beginning at the local and ending with the federal. In order for education policy makers to help African-American males overcome their educational failures, new strategies and

policies must be employed and implemented that first address the low literacy skills (Moje, 2008) that African-American males possess, which keep them from experiencing educational success (Hernandez, 2011; Herring, Hunt, & Mezuk, 2009).

In addition to the aforementioned, Dorime and Toldson (2008) argued that significant educational policy procedures must be developed and implemented to examine the social, personal, and emotional factors (barriers) that African-American males face that prevent them from experiencing academic success to graduation. Dorime and Toldson also purported that large discrepancies in the school and community-based services provided to help African-American males overcome their barriers, in comparison to their Caucasian peers, existed because adequate funding was not made readily available in the communities of African-American males. To a further extent, Dorime and Toldson argued that mental health services should be provided at the local medical community centers in which African-American males live to help them find alternative solutions to deal with their stress, depression, negative peer pressure, in home, societal, at school, sports related, and emotional problems to avoid crossing paths with the juvenile justice and prison system.

In addition to Dorime and Toldson's (2008) study, to improve the educational struggles of African-American males much research has been conducted to identify varying ways to combat the negative circumstances that African-American males face in their daily lives. Research studies over the years have been conducted that argued sports participation has a positive correlation to academic success. For example, McNeal (1998) found that athletes over non-athletes, because of their sports participation, had increased

school performance and higher GPAs. Similarly, Fox, Barr-Anderson, and Neumark-Sztainer (2010), in their research, found that athletes over nonathletes, because of their sports participation, had more self-esteem, a stronger sense of self-worth, less disciplinary referrals, and better attendance rates. Likewise, research conducted by Dobosz and Beaty (1999) produced results that found participation in sports had an impact in other areas of a student-athlete's education. Student-athletes over nonathletes had stronger qualities in leadership, sportsmanship, socialization, citizenship, and teamwork. According to Gardner (2011), who conducted a study using data taken from a 1988 National Education Longitudinal Study (NELS) in which parental involvement, race, test scores, gender, and poverty were controlled, found that students who participated in athletics and after school extracurricular programs for 2 years or more "had a 97% greater chance of going to college than students who were nonathletes and who did not participate in extracurricular afterschool activities" (p. 9). To further support Gardner's claim, Kronholz (2012) reported that data from the same 1988 NELS study showed that "kids with the highest test scores were the most active participants in afterschool activities, and that two-thirds of those kids scored in the top 25 percentile on standardized tests" (p. 10). Since African-American males experience the highest rates of educational failure in the areas of literacy, academic performance, GPAs, disciplinary referrals, suspensions, truancy, and dropping out (Dillon, 2009; Moje, 2008; Rashid, 2009; Wald & Losen, 2003), participation in sports could be one of the possible solutions to help them achieve greater academic success and graduation from high school (Bechtol, 2001).

Definition of the Problem

African-American males' lack of academic progress, academic success, and graduation at the SUS in the local school district is the identified problem. African-American males in the SUS have the highest truancy, disciplinary referrals, suspension, and expulsion rates as well as the highest rates of academic underachievement on standardized tests, lowest American College Test (ACT) scores, most special education designations, most placements in alternative school programs, and lowest graduation rates in the district and county. African-American males in the SUS, because of being suspended, truant, and expelled for excessive periods of time, have underperformed academically, and their GPAs fall under a 2.0 or "C" average. The GPAs of the African-American male student-athletes will be used to measure their academic achievement and serve as the dependent variable of this study. When compared to their White male counterparts, many African-American males at the SUS whose GPAs fall under a 2.0 tend to become uninterested in school, which has led to an increased rate of the African-American male students dropping out of school in Grades 9 through 11. However, African-American males who play sports must maintain a 2.0 GPA to remain eligible to participate in their sport during the season. Since many African-American male student-athletes at the SUS do not keep their 2.0 GPAs after the season ends, they experience increased academic failure and higher dropout rates. The major problem and gap in practice that educators are having at the SUS is identifying solutions to help African-American male student athletes maintain 2.0 GPAs after their sport season ends. If sports participation keeps African-American male student-athletes' GPAs at a 2.0, which is a

"C" average, it could suggest that African-American male student-athletes should be encouraged to participate in sports activities year round to increase their opportunities of having academic success (higher GPAs), eventually leading to their graduation from high school. If the GPAs of African-American male student-athletes fall under a 2.0 when they are participating in sports during the sporting season, it could suggest that African-American males' time spent playing sports could be substituted with academic study skill programs that would enable them to maintain 2.0 GPAs throughout the year, which could eventually lead to their graduation from high school. Furthermore, African-American students, both male and female, are the lowest performing academic ethnic group in the school (School Report Card – No Child Left Behind Report, 2010-11).

Rationale

Evidence of the Problem at the Local Level

It is likely for an African-American male student at the SUS to drop out and not enter a GED or adult educational program to graduate from high school. This has become a major problem for the SUS and its stakeholders because statistics show that young males, (one in 10) regardless of race, who drop out of school, will experience jail or prison. The statistics are worse for African-American males who have a one in four chance in going to jail or prison (Dillon, 2009; Hirsh, 2009). African-American males who are convicted felons and who drop out of high school represent the highest level of unemployed men (67%) in the United States (Hirsh, 2009). Furthermore, African-American males who are dropouts and go to prison have a difficult time transitioning back into mainstream society, which affects their ability to have success in marriage,

child rearing, parenting, and finding gainful employment. The SUS, in the 2008 - 2009 academic school year, graduated 60 out of 83 African-American males with 23 dropping out (28% dropout rate). In 2009 – 2010, 98 out of 121 African-American males graduated with 23 dropping out, accounting for a 19% dropout rate. In 2010 – 2011, 107 out of 123 African-American males graduated with 16 dropping out, accounting for a much-improved 13% dropout rate (School Report Card – NCLB Report, 2008 - 2011). Although much improvement had taken place over those 3 years, a rate of 13% is still high. These statistics represent only African-American male senior students and do not include the number of African-American male students who dropped out in Grades 9 to 11. Furthermore, for each academic year reported, it is estimated that about 5% of those African-American males who graduated had not graduated with their age cohort in 4 years (School Report Card – NCLB Report, 2008 - 2011). African-American males at the SUS have the largest number of student-athlete participants in football (63% of team African-American), basketball (73% of the team African-American), baseball (34% of team African-American), and track and field (84% of team African-American). In comparison to their White male counterparts and other student athletes (African-American females, Caucasian females, Asian and Latino/Hispanic males and females), African-American male athletes at the SUS have lower grade point averages, lower ACT scores, and lower graduation rates. When compared to all other student-athletes, African-American males at the SUS have the largest number of special education designations, Individual Education Plans (IEPs), and 504 (special educational modification) plans.

Evidence of the Problem at the State Level

The Jefferson County Public School system in Louisville, Kentucky, has the country's 13th largest urban school district, with 48.5% of its students being African-American, and the Fayette County Public School system in Lexington, Kentucky, has the state's second largest urban school district with an 11.8% African-American student population. African-American males in both districts are the lowest academic achievers and suffer the worst graduation rates in the state. According to the Kentucky Department of Education; (2010), the graduation rate for African-American males in the state of Kentucky was 59% as opposed to a 68% graduation rate for Caucasian males. In a graduation report performed by the Kentucky Department of Education (2011), the graduation rates in 2009 for the state of Kentucky rose slightly over 1% from 75.11% to 76.68% in 2010.

African-American males' graduation rate in the state of Kentucky in 2011 remained at 59%. Since 2000, the state of Kentucky has participated in an educational assessment called the Kentucky Measurement Report Card to analyze its ability to produce high school students who are college and career ready using the following six categories: (a) how a state gets its students ready for education and training after high school, (b) how a state affords and grants its students opportunities to participate and secure enrollment into postsecondary educational systems, (c) how a state makes education affordable for its students and their families, (d) how well a state prepares its students to graduate and earn a certificate of completion or degree in a sufficient amount of time, (e) how a state measures the benefit it gains from producing a well-educated

group of people, and (f) what a state knows about the learning that has taken place as a result of the education and training students received during high school in preparation for college. For each category, a letter grade of A, B, C, D, F, and/or I was assigned to identify the progress the state's high schools made in getting its students ready to attend college. In the preparation and participation categories, Kentucky scored letter grades of C; in the affordability category, F; in completion, B; in benefits, D+; and in learning, I, which means incomplete (for all race groups male and female) because there was not sufficient information about student learning to produce a meaningful state-by-state comparison. African-American males in the aforementioned categories scored letter grades of F in all categories but learning, I. According to the report, the chance of a Kentucky high school student (all races and genders) enrolling in college by age 19 was only fair (44%). Overall, the report noted that there was a 6% gap difference between African-American students' and Caucasian students' enrollment in the state's colleges and universities.

In 2008, Kentucky had 39% of its students enrolled in community college and 43% in public 4-year colleges and universities (The Kentucky State Measuring up Report Card, 2008). For African-American males in Kentucky, rates of enrolling in college after high school was a dismal (10.8%), with 49% of them enrolling in community colleges and less than 5% enrolling in public 4-year colleges and universities (The Kentucky State Measuring up Report Card, 2008). African-American males who entered community colleges and universities had a 7% graduation rate of finishing on time or at all (The Kentucky State Measuring up Report Card, 2008). The results of this report prove that

African-American males who do graduate from high school in the state of Kentucky, in comparison to their female and White counterparts, do not possess the educational aptitude and skill to go to colleges (universities) or enter the workforce at the same heights as their White male, female, and other minority group counterparts (The Kentucky State Measuring up Report Card, 2008). A State Test Profile Report prepared by the Kentucky Department of Education (2009) for the Kentucky Commission on Human Rights (2010) to measure high school 11th graders' readiness to attend college and enter the workforce (careers), using the results of the 2008 ACT, showed that a dismal 10% of Kentucky's high school juniors passed the four criteria (math, science, English, and reading benchmarks) to be considered college and career ready. Of all the students tested, African-Americans ranked the lowest and had only 2% reach the qualifying benchmark to be considered college ready by ACT standards.

Evidence of the Problem From the Professional Literature

The educational pitfalls of the African-American male student are not just a local problem. African-American males under achievement in academic performance in all areas of education such as earned GPAs, standardized tests, college entrance exams (ACT/SAT), and high school dropout rates is a major problem across the nation. African-American males in comparison to White males suffer the highest rates of unemployment (13.6%) in the country because they are quitting school, have criminal records, lack the work related skills sought by employers, and are victims of work related racism (Lewis et al., 2010; Nealy, 2008; Sum et al., 2009; Thompson, 2011). African-American males who do not graduate from high school, let alone college, according to the Department of

Justice (2009), become products of the prison system. Thirteen percent of African-American males, ranging in age from 25 to 29, are in prison (United States Justice Department, 2009). On the other hand, only 2% of White males and 4% of Hispanic males are in prison. It is estimated that 50% of young Black males who do not graduate from school will have a prison record and, as a result, will be unemployable, resort back to committing crimes, and return to prison (Dillon, 2009; United States Justice Department, 2009; Wildeman, 2010).

In a 2011 college and career readiness condition report on Kentucky, 28% of the nation's students who tested for the ACT were not ready to enter college or the workforce. Statistics have shown that three out of 100, or 3%, of the African-American students tested in Kentucky were college and career ready by the end of their high school careers. ACT composite scores taken from the years 2007 to 2011 revealed that White students on average outperformed African-American students by more than 4 points each year by scoring a 21 out of a possible 36 points, while African-American students scored on average 17 out of 36 points (ACT Profile Report State, Kentucky, 2011). African-American males across the country have found themselves far behind in climbing the public school systems' educational ladder of success when compared to their Caucasian male peers. In the 2007-2008 academic school year, African-American males had a 47% graduation rate across the United States (United States Department of Education, 2008). The data show that in 2003, only 70% of high school students nationwide graduated from high school (United States Department of Education, 2008). More than half of these dropouts came from large urban "dropout factory" districts, such as Baltimore, Chicago,

Detroit, Indianapolis, Miami, New York City, Newark, and St. Louis (United States Department of Education, 2003). Each of these districts contains a large number of schools that are classified as low performing schools that have inadequate facilities, inexperienced teachers, and student populations that come from impoverished and lower socioeconomic communities (Gottlob, 2006; Hauke, 2008; Stillwell, 2009; Sum et al., 2009). Swanson (2008) argued that the reported national high school graduation rate of 70% in 2003 was marked by variation between region and urbanicity in the city of Chicago because their real graduation rate was 48%, which was consistent with the data showing that Chicago's public inner city schools had lower graduation rates, on average, than their suburban high school peers (Chicago Public Schools OREA, 2009; Mezuk, 2009). Rowley and Bowman (2009), Gottlob (2006), Hauke (2008), Sum et al. (2009), and Swanson (2008) all agreed that racial and ethnic minorities disproportionately experience poor educational attainment in these underperforming urban settings. African-American males who are educated in urban school settings are highly unlikely to graduate high school, have a very small chance to be accepted into 2- or 4-year colleges in comparison to their Caucasian peers, and, when in college, will not graduate within 5 years (Knapp, Kelly-Reid, & Ginder, 2010; Mezuk, 2009).

In 2007, Baltimore Maryland's urban school district reported that it graduated only 35% of its African-American students and, as a result, saw its prison population increase by 5% (Hauke, 2008). Baltimore's urban high school district in the 2007–2008 school calendar year had a population of 85,168 total students, of which 61.6% (52,463 students) were African-American. The total number of African-American students who

dropped out was 13,815, in which 38.10% (5,264) were African-American males. According to Hauke (2008), "ninety-two percent of these African-American males will be unemployed and 893 will land in prison" (p. 21). Moreover, Gottlob (2006) claimed, "Graduation from high school is an important predictor of an individual's future economic success" (p. 10). Hauke asserted that if the aforementioned statement was true, then the Kansas City and St. Louis Missouri School systems are failing to produce college and career ready students, especially African-American males. Both cities claimed to have graduation rates in the 73 to 75% range, but in a report conducted by the Urban Institute, Kansas City and St. Louis had graduation rates closer to 37.3 and 31.4% (Stillwell, 2009). African-American males who attend predominantly urban schools, such as those mentioned above, have produced consistent patterns of academic underachievement. Atlanta, and Louisville, Kentucky, which both have large urban school systems, reported graduating only 69% and 59% of their African-American males, respectively, which is a major disappointment when compared to the national average of White males graduating at an 81% rate (United States Department of Education, 2010). In addition, California's African-American male graduation rates at 54% in 2009 are, by a small margin, slightly better than the national average of 47% (United States Department of Education, 2010). However, when compared to its Caucasian males, a 78% graduation rate, it is catastrophically lower (United States Department of Education, 2010). In a report on African-American males produced by the United States Justice Department (2009), the following statement was made, "Unfortunately without an

education, many males of color have become large segments of the prison system" (p. 31).

According to the SUS's (2011) academic school year report card, graduation statistics showed that African-American male senior students had graduated 87% (107/123) of its African-American male students, with 13% dropping out. Forty-two of those 107 (39.25%) who graduated were African-American male student-athletes playing at least one sport during the academic year. All student athletes who participate in sports during their sport season are required to attend study hall and receive academic tutoring, if needed, in all subjects. In order for those African-American male student-athletes to have graduated, they had to have maintained GPAs of 2.0 or higher during the season to remain eligible to participate in sports and high enough GPAs throughout the year to graduate from high school. Not one of those sixteen (13%) African-American males who quit school were a student-athlete. Based upon the aforementioned data, educational stakeholders at the SUS should take into consideration encouraging African-American male students to play sports throughout the academic year, and when their sport season ends, continue to attend the mandatory improved study skills tutoring required by all athletes, which is designed to help them maintain their grades to remain eligible during the season to participate in sports. Encouraging African-American male students to participate in sports and/or attend improved study skills tutoring offered to student-athletes at the SUS could have been a possible solution to filling a gap in practice that educators may be ignoring. If, in this study, there had been a high positive correlation between African-American male students' GPAs and the hours they spent participating in

athletics, it was possible that being encouraged to participate in athletics would have been one of the factors that would have kept them in school until they graduated. In conclusion, the purpose of this study was to measure if the total hours participating in sports was correlated to the average earned GPAs of African-American male student-athletes across 1 year of time.

Definitions

The following definitions were used for completing the study.

Academic and educational success: For the purpose of this study, this is defined as the African-American male student GPAs per term across 1 year of high school (Haddix, 2010; Hartmann 2008).

African-American male: A Black male United States citizen or person relating to any part of the African continent or its peoples, languages, or culture. An American male of African descent and ancestry (Montgomery, 2010; Slavin & Madden, 1989).

Athlete: For the purpose of this study, this is defined as any student who participates in a varsity sport (Baseball, Basketball, Field Hockey, Football, Lacrosse, Soccer, Softball, Swimming, Tennis, Track, and Wrestling) at the SUS (Eccles & Templeton, 2002; Messer, 2006).

At-risk or high risk youth: Students who are consistently low academic achievers, in danger of failing each grade level, have poor school attendance, have a strong potential to drop out of school, come from predominantly minority races and ethnic backgrounds, come from lower socioeconomic living conditions, and are highly like to be raised in single parent homes (Greene & Winters, 2006; Rashid, 2009).

Grade Point Average (GPA): The cumulative average of the combination of core content and elective course grade points earned divided by the number of credit hours attempted on a 4.0 scale. The GPA in this study has a double purpose, which will be used as a measure to assess the athlete's academic success to remain eligible to play sports and overall educational success that will lead to graduation (Montgomery, 2010).

Nonathlete: Any student who does not participate in a varsity sport at the SUS (Eccles & Templeton, 2002; Messer, 2006).

Sports participation: All student-athletes who participate in varsity school sports and students who participate in club, social, intramural and recreational sports leagues during the academic year (Marsh & Kleitman, 2002; McNeal, 1998; Streich, 2009).

Stereotype threat anxiety: Asocial-psychological fear that arises among members in a group who reinforce negative stereotypes about the intellectual ability of a particular racial group (Aronson et al., 2009).

Utilitarian belief: Relating to, characteristic of, or advocating the doctrine that value is measured in terms of usefulness (Aronson et al., 2009; Montgomery, 2010).

Significance of the Problem

High school athletics participation is not considered an essential component of a students' education (Coleman, 1961; Hartman, 2008). However, sports participation has been a major extracurricular activity for students of all ethnic backgrounds, races, and genders for over 60 years (Dawkins, Braddock, & Celaya, 2008). In many urban high school districts across the country, funding extracurricular athletic programs has become very expensive, especially when schools in the district are failing to graduate students.

Educational policy makers are forced to decide if they should reduce or take funds normally allocated for athletics and extracurricular programs and use them to make academic improvements and progress in their school districts (Dawkins et al., 2008; Miller, Melnick, Barnes, Farrell, & Sabo, 2005). Robinson-English (2006) stated that "urban high school African-American males in large numbers are turning their backs on education because they see no return on the time invested at school making a difference in their lives" (p. 1 - 2). Furthermore, according to Braddock (2005), 98% of the nation's high schools offer sports and extracurricular activities in which their students may participate. Over the last 30 years, African-American males have comprised the largest percentage (71%) of student-athletes to participate in football and basketball, which are the highest yielding monetary sports (Dawkins et al., 2008). In agreement and conjunction with Braddock's (2005) research findings, Dawkins et al. (2008, p. 52) claimed that African-American males who participate in sports have greater academic success, higher GPAs, less discipline and behavioral problems, higher attendance rates, higher graduation rates, a stronger sense of self-efficacy, worth, esteem, sense of belonging to the school and community, and exhibit stronger leadership qualities than their nonathlete African-American male counterparts.

African-American males at the SUS in the local school district have the highest dropout rates in the school, district, and state. African-American male student athletes at the SUS must keep at least a 2.0 minimum GPA on a 4.0 scale to stay eligible to participate in sports during the season. A major problem many of the SUS's African-American male student athletes are having is maintaining the required level of academic

success after the season is over, when their grade point averages fall under 2.0 or a C average.

African-American male student athletes who are in Grades 9 to 11 have time to make adjustments and improvements to get their GPAs where they need to be to gain eligibility for sports participation, but senior athletes who no longer have high school sports eligibility do not. Seniors who win scholarships to play collegiately must maintain their motivation and keep their grade averages at 2.0 or higher plus pass the ACT with a score of 19 to meet the minimum requirements for an athletic scholarship for 90% of Division I and II colleges. The majority of the SUS's top African-American male senior student-athletes who have the ability to play collegiate athletics do not maintain the required GPA or score high enough on their ACT exams to meet college readiness entrance and sports eligibility requirements to be admitted into college.

Senior African-American male student-athletes' inability to earn and maintain 2.0 or higher GPAs and score a minimum of 19 on the ACT exam to meet college acceptance as well as high school career readiness standards is a major problem at the SUS. Furthermore, African-American students, especially the males, are not meeting the required college and career readiness benchmarks established by the NCLB legislation. Additionally, studying this problem at the local school setting could be very instrumental in identifying solutions that could both improve the academic success and lower the dropout rates of African-American male students at the SUS.

A correlational research design was used to conduct this study to address the local school setting educational problem by measuring the total hours that a African-American

male student-athlete spends participating in athletics and relating it to his earned average GPA across the school year to identify if a correlation exists between participating in sports and GPAs and, thus, graduation from high school. One correlation of the total number of hours of sports participation per student with the student's average GPAs across 1 year of time (i.e., the senior year) was conducted to complete this study to address Research Question 1. Five total correlations were used to address Research Question 2. The four individual correlations (one per term) over the year were totaled and averaged together to conduct the fifth correlation, which enabled me to see if a relationship exists between total hours of sports participation and the earned average GPA of the student-athletes across each term of 1 school year. If their academic success (sustained higher GPAs and eventual graduation from school) was positively correlated to the total time they spent participating in athletics and proved to be sports related, then encouraging African-American males to participate in sports throughout the academic year could be a major solution to implementing social change in the local educational setting. If their academic success (sustained higher GPAs and eventual graduation from school) was not positively correlated to the total time they spent participating in athletics and did not prove to be sports related, then encouraging African-American males to participate in the same kind of study halls and tutoring used during sports terms throughout the academic year could be a major solution to implementing social change in the local educational setting.

Guiding/Research Question

The guiding research questions for this study were as follows:

Research Question 1 (RQ1): What is the relationship between total hours of high school athletics sports participation and earned GPAs for African-American male students at the SUS?

Research Question 2 (RQ2): What is the relationship between total hours of high school athletics sports participation to African-American males' earned GPAs across each term of 1 school year?

Hypotheses

Creswell (2012) proposed formulating hypotheses for empirical research, and the roles of those hypotheses are to guide the direction and design of one's research study. The following hypotheses, related to RQ1 and RQ2, were tested in order to answer the research questions:

$H1_{0:}$ No relationship exists between the total hours spent participating in high school sports and the average earned GPAs of African-American male student-athletes at the SUS.

$H1_{a:}$ A relationship does exist between total hours spent participating in high school sports and the average earned GPAs of African-American male student-athletes at the SUS.

$H2_{0:}$ No relationship exists between total hours spent participating in high school sports and the earned GPAs across each term of one school year for African-American male student-athletes at the SUS.

$H2_{a:}$ A relationship does exist between total hours spent participating in sports and the earned GPAs across each term of one school year for African-American male student-athletes at the SUS.

More specifically, I explored if there was a correlation between sports participation and improved academics, GPAs, over time that could lead to successful graduation from high school for African-American males. To a further extent, I explored the degree and direction of the relationship between African-American male students' total hours of participation in sports activities and the average of their senior year's four terms of GPAs per student. The goal of conducting this project study was to gather information to address the local problem of African-American males' low GPAs that seem to lead to their low graduation rates.

If the results of the study produced evidence that athletics participation is found to have an impact, albeit direct or inverse, on the earned GPAs of African-American males, it would have implications for change at the local level. A simple correlational design was used to conduct this study. The average GPAs per term (4) in their senior year of high school per student were correlated with the total number of hours that student spent participating in athletics during that year to answer RQ1. In order to address RQ2, the Independent Variable (IV) and Dependent Variable (DV) were the same; however, for RQ2, the IV (total hours spent participating in sports) were collected for 4 individual terms (or once per term) and the DV, earned GPA, was gathered per term (4) overall, over the student's 12^{th} grade year. The GPAs (used to measure the academic and educational success of the student) for African-American male student-athletes was the

DV. The total hours spent playing sports (participation) served as the IV. Both variables are continuous variables, which enabled me to measure the relationship's strength and direction (strong or weak and/or direct or inverse).

Review of the Literature

An exhaustive effort was made using various research databases such as ERIC, Education Research Complete, SAGE full-text database, and other research sources on related subjects to find peer-reviewed articles, journals, and books related to the topic to reach saturation pertaining to the research problem. The search terms used to conduct this review were *African-American male*, *student-athletes*, *at–risk and high-risk youth*, *dropout rates*, *athletics*, *academics*, *graduation rates*, *self-esteem*, *self-worth*, *self-efficacy*, *educational racism*, *incarceration rates*, *lower socioeconomic students*, *motivation*, *urban schools*, *absent fathers, prison statistics*, and *ACT scores*. A Boolean's literature review included these terms: *African-American males and athletics*, *academics and education*, *graduation rates and sports participation*, *African-American males and graduation rates*, *African-American males and sports socialization*, *African-American males and dropout rates*, *African-American males and educational racism, African-American males and special education,* and *African-American males and endangered species.* Literature on the topic from previous years' research was reviewed, but concentration was on the current literature from 2005 to 2014 to research the topic. In the process of researching the literature, I found many dated primary sources because there were not a lot of up to date sources on the topic being researched. Numerous up to date secondary literary sources were found and used to complete the review of the literature.

The literature review focused on several theoretical viewpoints from past, recent, and present research that directly relate to the negative impact that society and stereotyping have on African-American males and their socialization with sports, the failure of African-American males to receive an equitable education under our current NCLB system, the plight of the African-American male that causes him to disconnect from education and the world, develop a negative attitude in life, and become a statistic in our justice system, theories supporting that athletic participation is correlated and positively impacts academic success leading to graduation, and research studies that argue against athletics and claim sports participation is not related to academic success.

The preeminent theory that served as the basis of the theoretical framework driving this study was Bechtol's sports participation theory (BSPT) because it supports the purpose behind my need to conduct this study, which is identifying whether or not athletics participation is related to the GPAs of African-American males (Montgomery, 2010). BSPT was derived and based on a qualitative multicased constant comparative research study conducted on student-athletes from the time they began to play sports in their early teen years until their adult working years. Bechtol (2001) argued that all students who played sports in school benefit from it in a present and future state. Bechtol's theory claimed that students who played sports over students who did not participate in athletics experienced higher academic achievement, higher educational success, and higher graduation rates. Furthermore, sports participation and academic success was related and has long-term benefits in the adult lives of student-athletes. Bechtol's study produced positive results and found that student-athletes over the course

of their lives were more competitive, goal oriented, physically active, apt to make friends, practice leadership skills, be more confident, exude higher self-esteem, and stay gainfully employed. If this theory were demonstrated to be true, then African-American males who play sports in high school should experience academic success that would enable them to graduate from school and matriculate into college. Furthermore, this would support the continuation of athletic participation as a means to promote positive academic success for African-American males and all students who participate in athletics across the nation.

The BSPT (2001) was used to conduct, test, and evaluate the long-standing effects of playing sports in high school and how this affected the adult lives of a sample group of 10 male and female employees from 10 of the highest-ranking Fortune 500 companies in the United States. The guiding question of interest in the study was the following: "What are adults' perceptions of the long-term effects of participation in high school sports" (Bechtol, 2001, p.19)? Five major categories were studied in relation to answering the guiding research question of the study. The categories were formulated as questions that asked the following:

1. What organizational factors affect the participation of high school students in sports?
2. What personal factors affect the participation of high school students in sports?
3. What participation features affect the participation of high school students in sports?
4. What are the long-term effects of participation in high school sports (Bechtol, 2001, p. 19)?

5. How would communication of the long-term effects of high school sports participation be presented to school administrators and policy makers (Bechtol, 2001, p. 19)?

Bechtol (2001) used a qualitative method and multiple case study research strategy to conduct they study. Bechtol collected data using three methods: "interviewing, reviewing high school yearbooks, and observing" the work offices of the 10 workers for sports related memorabilia and photos (p. 24). Bechtol used a constant-comparative analysis for data collection: "Ten interviews, six observations, and nine analyses of the participants' yearbooks" were used to produce the findings of the study (p. 24). The participants in the study were multiracial and included both genders. The results of the study concluded that each participant, when questioned what they believed was the direct benefit of participating in sports while they were in high school, produced one clear theme. Five out of 10 participants said that, "the making of friends and creating relationships was an immediate benefit" (p. 70). An implication can be made that sports participation has a long-standing impact on building friendships. A second response to the question of what impact did playing sports have on them was that "sports participation enhanced their ability to build confidence" (p. 73). The five members believed that playing sports enhanced their capacity to conquer failure, achieve success, increase their opportunities to go to college, and fulfill the goals that they believed could not be accomplished were direct benefits (Bechtol, 2001). In order for Bechtol to determine the long standing impact that playing sports in high school had on the adults in

the study, a rule must have been established to relate the data in accordance to a theme to use a constant comparative analysis method to perform the data analysis.

Bechtol (2001) decided that in order for data to be considered a theme, it had to be unitized when two or more participants stated the same or similar responses regarding their answer about the long-lasting impact of participating in high school sports. The results of the data analysis produced 13 long-term effects that participating in sports has on adults. The 13 long-term effects that the adult participants said playing high school sports did for them was that they enabled them to be more competitive, be goal oriented, be physically active, make friends, develop leadership skills, enhance their self-esteem, proudly display sports paraphernalia and athletic achievement (trophies, old jerseys, symbolic of the significance, influence, and lasting effect that the sport had on the person's life), practice sports philosophy, work as a team (member), acquire skills not taught in the classroom, be better time managers, be a volunteer, and work in diverse groups (Bechtol, 2001, p. 75). According to results produced in this study, an implication can be made that playing sports in high school has a positive long-term impact on adult success regardless of one's race, gender, or socioeconomic status.

Socialization Through Sports Theory

African-American males are considered victims of their own educational demise when they emphasize athletic goals over educational progress (Herring, 2009; Woodruff & Schallert, 2008). African-American males, according to Coleman (1961), place too much emphasis on athletics and, as a result, are failing and falling far behind their White male counterparts in academics. Both Dawkins et al. (2008) and Hartman (2008)

similarly argued in their research that African-American male student-athletes' priorities are backward, and they should refocus their efforts on becoming the next professional educator, doctor, and scientist, instead of the next Lebron James. According to Edwards (1986), African-American families have a strong tendency to encourage their sons to participate in athletics and adopt mentalities that playing sports could lead to them becoming professional athletes and earn millions of dollars. In conjunction with Edwards, Dawkins et al. (2008) similarly claimed that the parents of African-American males often place more significance on their sons' athletic success over their academics, believing that superior athletic performance will earn them a scholarship before their academic performance will. Reeves (2008), in agreement with Edwards and Dawkins claims, argued that African-American males are victimized by their own parents who fill their heads with false realities of becoming professional athletes, which often causes them to focus less on their academics. Many African-American males for years have identified with playing sports as being their meal ticket to leave their impoverished, low income, high crime, "ghetto" communities (Sabo, Melnick, & Vanfossen, 1993; Spence, 2000; Streich, 2009). According to statistics taken from the National Collegiate Athletic Association official probabilities report (2012), regardless of race, collegiate baseball players have an 11.6% chance of going pro. High school baseball players have a 0.6% chance of going pro. Collegiate football athletes have a 1.7% chance of playing professional football. High school basketball players have a 0.08% chance of going pro, and collegiate basketball players have a 1.2% chance of going pro. All high school student-athletes regardless of the sport played have a 0.03% chance of playing pro sports.

Each of the following researchers Arnett (2006), Coleman (1961), Cotton (1996), Edwards (1986), Sabo, et al. (1993), and Streich (2009) in their research studies similarly concluded that participation in athletics is a detractor to the academic success of African-American males. Edwards (1986) further argued that participation in sports comes at a cost to African-American males because it diverts efforts away from academic success. Statistics show and favor that all athletes, African-American males in particular, have greater opportunities of going pro in business, education, science, engineering, and medicine than they do as athletes (Harrison, 2007).

In contrast to the aforementioned theories that claim sports participation is a detractor and impedes the academic success of African-American males, Braddock (2005) argued that academic success is influenced by the students' active engagement and participation in three mediating school related social, cultural, and athletic activities. Braddock further claimed that students (regardless of race and gender) who develop aspirations to excel in sports at early ages (childhood) become academically engaged earlier, learn academic expectations for sport participation from their parents, schools, and coaches, which enables them to fully devote efforts toward the learning process, and achieving academic success. Hartmann (2008) claimed that students receive future health benefits from participating in sports. Kronholz (2012) in conjunction with Hartmann's findings claimed that students who participate in sports not only lead healthier lives, but also develop leadership skills, the ability to work in teams, and the ability to handle adversity better than students who do not participate in athletics. Dawkins (2008) argued that sports participation promoted academic achievement because it increases the student-

athlete's interest in school, need to maintain good grades for eligibility, self-concept, attention received from adults like teachers and coaches, membership with others who are academically oriented, and expectations to play college sports. Gardner, Roth, and Brooks-Gunn (2010) agreed with Dawkins.

Furthermore, Hanks and Eckland (1976) and Eitle and Eitle (2002) discovered that students who partook in extracurricular sports had deeper connections to the schools' educational goals and social relations (teachers and students), identified with school norms, were more self-empowered, had stronger interpersonal communication skills, and exuded more self-confidence. The aforementioned characteristics discussed by Hanks and Eckland and Eitle and Eitle are behaviors that African-American males need to embrace and practice to experience academic success in high school, which could lead to success in college. In addition to Hanks and Eckland and Eitle and Eitle's findings, O'Bryan, Braddock, and Dawkins (2010) study conducted on public high school African-American male athletes adoption of college bound behaviors produced results which claimed that, by 10th grade, African-American males whose parents were involved in both their education and varsity sports had significantly higher adoptive college-bound behaviors in the 12th grade.

Kronholz's (2012) modern day research, as well as Braddock's (1981) and Wells's and Picou's (1980) early research, suggested that sports participation for African-American students increased their aspirations for college. Kronholz found that many African-American males seek validation and social mobility through sports participation. African-American male youth, more so than ever, will choose to adopt their professional

idols' pathway to success, which often leads to their placing more focus on athletics than academics (Rhoden, 2006; Woodruff & Schallert, 2008). However, in contrast to Rhoden's (2006) argument, Jordan (1999), like Braddock (1981) and Reeves (2008), agreed that sports participation increased African-American students' interest and pursuit of academic success because it required them to focus on some aspects of their education to remain eligible for competition. In agreement with Rhoden, Braddock, and Reeves and to a further extent, Fox et al. (2010) purported that participating in sports as well as focusing on their education for sport eligibility, eventually leads African-American males to graduate from high school and seek college opportunities.

Failure of the Education System, Racism, and Discipline Gap

An enormous amount of research (McCadden, 1998; Monroe, 2005; Skiba, Peterson, & Williams, 2000) over the last 30 years has been conducted on student discipline, emphasizing the inequities surrounding the distribution of disciplinary actions taken by schools and their districts in regard to behavior (Webster-Stratton, Reid, & Stoolmiller, 2008), particularly for African-American males (Butler, Jourbert, & Lewis, 2009). According to Butler et al. (2009) and Noltemeyer and McLoughlin (2010), scholars such as Ferguson (2000), Greene and Winters (2006), McCadden (1998), McCarthy and Hodge (1987), Monroe (2005), Skiba, Michael, Nardo, and Peterson (2002), Skiba et al. (1997), and Thornton and Trent (1988) found in their research that a discipline gap exists in schools that is unfavorable to African-American males. African-American males in public schools across the nation experience the highest levels of educational racism (Kenyatta, 2012; Milner, 2007). Rashid (2009) stated, "The overall

quality of life for African-American males continues to be a national disgrace moving through the first decade of the 21st century" (p. 347). In addition, African-American males are disproportionately incarcerated in our nation's penal system (Lewis et al., 2010; Thompson, 2011), experience the highest rates of death by homicide and HIV (Kaiser Family Foundation, 2004), have suffered a prolonged regression of participation in our work force (Donnor & Shockley, 2010; Holzer, Offner, & Sorrenson, 2004), are quitting school in frightening numbers (Orfield, Losen, Wald, & Swanson, 2004), suffer the "highest rates of suspension and expulsion from school than any other group" (Drakeford, 2004, p. 2), and receive the highest "number of referrals for special education services" (Townsend, 2000, p. 2).

Kozol (1994), Bettmann and Moore (1994), and Gomez (1994) similarly argued that school systems in the United States are failing to educate its students. Anthony, Kritsonis, and Herrington (2007), in agreement with Kozol, Bettmann, and Gomez, further asserted that "U. S. schools are disproportionately failing indigenous students of color at even higher rates" (p. 4). To a further extent, the disciplinary measures asserted towards African-American males are the primary reason why schools are failing to educate African-American males. In urban school systems across the nation, African-American males suffer the highest levels of school failure because they are mishandled in ways that are not proper for their personalities, household setting, way of learning, or African value system (Anthony et al., 2007; Dillon, 2009; Thomas & Stephenson, 2009; Urban League, 2008). Educational research conducted between 2004 and 2006 on United States teacher demographics reported that almost 87% of teachers who teach in the

United States are White, while only 8% are African-American (Douglas, Lewis, Douglas, Scott, & Garrison-Wade, 2008; Lewis, 2006; U.S. Department of Education, 2004). The future of the African-American male, according to Anthony et al. (2007), "lies in the hands of the Caucasian female teacher who represents 83% of the elementary school teachers in the United States" (p. 3). Many of these teachers when hired into urban school systems are new to teaching, not equipped, and lack the capability, expertise, basic judgment, ability to identify, and communicate with lower socioeconomic, other minority, and African-American students, especially the males (Anthony et al., 2007; Douglas et al., 2008; Neblett et al., 2009). Douglas et al. (2008) argued that the cultural misunderstanding, indifference, and gap between some White teachers and African-American students exacerbate the powerful social condition that cultivates actual negative attitudes towards African-American students.

Additional research conducted by Scheurich (1993), reported "that many Caucasian teachers work from within a hegemonic, Western, epistemological framework, which often predisposes them to have lower expectations of Black students and a lack of respect for the students' families and primary culture" (p. 10). Darder (1991), Boykin (1992), and Scheurich (1993) believed that, when teachers have this predisposition (mindset), their ability to teach students of color and lower socioeconomic backgrounds is greatly reduced. Douglas et al. (2008) in agreement with Darder, Boykin, and Scheurich, further claimed that the "adoption of this mindset by White teachers in regard to teaching African-American and lower socioeconomic students" may be a major reason why African-American students have not equaled the academic performance of their

White peers on standardized tests, graduation rates, and college admissions rates (p. 49). The cultural gap between Caucasian teachers and African-American students is the leading cause of the discipline gap between African-American and Caucasian students. Many White teachers' inability to understand the culture and communicate with African-American students has caused them to overreact and discipline African-American males in disproportionate numbers compared to their White peers (Bell, 2010b; Kenyatta, 2012) for committing the same behavioral infractions. According to Monroe (2006), in conjunction with several authors, Emihovich (1983), DeRidder (1990), and McCadden (1998) whose studies preceded her research similarly claimed, that there is more than enough evidence to justify that African-American males are unjustly punished, disciplined, and experience coercive treatment at school that far exceeds the disciplinary actions taken against other students regardless of their gender and race.

Monroe (2006) also claimed, that there is proof to support "that the unjust coercive treatment and punishment of African-American male students' disciplinary trajectories influence additional problems such as dropout rates, standardized test scores, and teacher's decisions to leave the profession" (p. 103). To a further extent, Anthony et al. (2007) claimed that disciplinary trajectories can also "predict and impact the behaviors students adopt about school, such as, devaluing their education, their school, the schooling process, and school personnel" (p. 5). Additional data collected by Anthony et al. in conjunction with the Children's Defense Fund (1975), Drakeford (2004), and Skiba et al.(1997) produced evidence that African-American male students were punished at percentages that far exceeded their numerical representation in their immediate

communities, especially in reference to being suspended and expelled from school, in nearly all public school systems. An example of this phenomenon may be witnessed via a study conducted by Skiba et al. (2011) of a large "Midwestern school district in which the African-American students represented 66.1 percent of all office referrals, 68.5 percent of the school suspensions, and 80.9 percent of expulsions despite constituting only 52 percent of the district population" (p. 87). According to Richardson and Evans (1992), when corporal punishment was allowed in schools, African-American males were disproportionately disciplined, paddled, and suspended at percentages 2 times higher than their Caucasian male peers were.

Educational Plight of African-American Males and Their Overrepresentation in Special Education Programs

Bell (2009) in conjunction and agreement with Richardson and Evans's (1992) earlier research, later claimed that the aforementioned forms of punishment conveyed a negative and dangerous message to many African-American boys, which caused them to feel inferior, to adopt mindsets that they could not excel academically, to develop low self-concepts, self-esteem, self-respect, self-worth, to feel dehumanized and humiliated, and to become hopeless. To a further extent, Aronson et al. (2009) believed that the forms of punishment mentioned above create high levels of stereotype threat anxiety in African-American male students, which causes them to adopt self-sabotaging educational mindsets.

Kunjufu (1983) stated that "African-American males who develop self-sabotaging attitudes, begin to experience learning problems and eventually begin withdrawing from

education at an early age" (p. 37). Kunjufu (1983) followed in succession by Radin (1988), and similarly claimed that, "Most African-American boys start school eager to learn, but negative experiences replace that eagerness with oppositional and defiant behaviors (p. 479). Richardson and Evans (1992) further claimed that "African-American males by fourth grade or age nine who adopt attitudes of academic hopelessness, become potential dropouts" (p. 4). Another major problem African-American males face in public education is being declared learning disabled and placed in special education programs. African-American male students who are frequently punished for behavior are labeled and considered to be chronic disciplinary problems and, as a result, are designated as being mildly or mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, and learning disabled (Anthony et al., 2007). Data produced in Anthony et al.'s study illustrated that African-American males are 2.9 times more likely to be labeled mentally retarded, 1.9 times more likely to be labeled seriously mentally disturbed, and 1.3 times more likely to be labeled as having a learning disability. Furthermore, African-American students make over one-third of all students identified as mentally retarded and one-fourth of those labeled emotionally disturbed (p. 3). African-American males, in comparison to all other ethnicities and races both male and female, are disproportionately identified for special education due to behavior disorder classification (Anthony et al., 2007; U.S. Department of Education, 1999). Bush-Daniels (2008) stated that

> African-American males are overrepresented in special education programs and the most prevalent factors that contribute to these phenomena are teachers' perceptions, their attitudes toward African-American males, their lack of cultural

> understanding, inability to communicate with students from minority races, how they react to the behavior, and discipline African-American children for that behavior. (p. 8)

African-American males who are consistently punished for behavior problems in school have the highest rates of special education designations (Bush-Daniels, 2008). According to Bush-Daniel (2008), the special education designation (epidemic) is "dominated by students who come from impoverished, lower-socioeconomic families, which are predominantly Latino/Hispanic students and African-American males" (p. 4). In agreement with the following researchers, Kunjufu (1983), Radin (1988), Richardson and Evans (1992), Anthony et al. (2007), Thomas and the Urban League (2008), Dillon (2009), and Stephenson (2009), Bush-Daniels claimed that African-American males are overrepresented in special education programs because they are misdiagnosed, having poor school attendance due to being suspended, expelled, and truant.

African-American males who miss school lose opportunities to learn and, as a result, fall behind, produce lower quality work, and do not learn the material needed to perform well on course exams, standardized tests, and college entrance exams (Bush-Daniels, 2008; Stephenson, 2009). Many African-American males who experience this become dejected, depressed, frustrated, adopt negative attitudes about their ability to learn, and begin to accept that quitting school is their best option (Kunjufu, 1983; Radin, 1988; Richardson & Evans 1992). African-American males who quit school become products of the penal system (Dillon, 2009; Kunjufu, 1983; Radin, 1988). Research efforts over the last 60 years have been conducted to understand if sports participation

leads students toward academic success and graduation. African-American student-athletes have made great strides in sports and research has been found that connects sports participation to academic success.

Studies That Support Sports Participation Improves Academic Success

Participation in athletics and other extracurricular activities in school are perceived to be a positive and major influence in the African-American male's fight to defeat the negative situations they face academically in school, their communities, and society. Davis and Cooper are considered the ancestors of the theory that sports participation is related to and positively affects students' academic success. Davis and Cooper's (1934) study reported that students who played sports had better grades (higher GPAs) than non-athlete students who chose not to play sports. Soltz's (1986) study on sports participation and its relationship to academics confirmed the results of Cooper and Davis's study but produced additional results showing that athletes had higher GPAs and better school attendance on average than non-athletes.

Nuhn's (1991) study of athletes at small rural schools confirmed Davis and Coopers (1934) and Soltz's (1986) research arguments, in which Nuhn claimed that athletes on average scored higher GPAs than non-athletes did. Whitley and Pressley's (1995) study of 133 North Carolina high school's student and non-student athletes, found that student who were athletes over non-athletes had lower disciplinary referrals, lower dropout rates, and higher graduation rates. The results of their study showed that the mean dropout rate percent was significantly lower for athletes at less than 1% (.7) and drastically higher for non-athletes at 9.1% (Whitley & Pressley, 1995). Field, Diego, and

Sanders (2001) conducted a study on eighty-nine high school seniors by having them complete a survey to gather data on their exercise habits. They found that students who played sports in or out of school and exercised regularly, had better relationships with their parents (openly communicated and expressed more affection), experienced less depression, used drugs less frequently, and had better GPAs than non-athletes who did not exercise regularly. According to Windschitl (2008), ". . . participation in sports has been positively linked to academic outcomes, including grades, test scores, school engagement, and educational aspirations" (p 73). Previous research conducted by Cooper, Valentine, Nye and Lindsey (1999), Eccles and Barber (1999), and Marsh and Kleitman (2002) agreed with Windschitl's findings. Furthermore, Fredricks and Eccles (2006) claimed that students who actively participated in sports and other after school related activities had a greater chance of attending college, becoming civically engaged in their communities, and maintaining their mental health in the future (p. 698).

Trudeau and Shephard (2008) stated that their study produced results that "Physical activity had a positive influence on concentration, memory, classroom behavior, and most importantly, cognitive function that pointed to a positive relationship between physical activity and intellectual performance" (p. 1). Dawkins, Braddock, and Celaya's (2008) study produced evidence indicating that students who participated in sports received positive benefits such as, ". . . a greater physical and mental well-being, higher self-esteem, decreased discipline problems, reduced experiences with depression, suicide, and substance abuse" (p.59). Dawkins, Braddock, and Celaya (2008) and Fredricks and Eccles (2006) proposed that athletic participation in secondary schools may

be a positive solution toward leading African-American males in the right direction to achieving academic success and graduation. Fredricks and Eccles (2006), Mahoney (2000), and Mahoney and Cairns (1997) purported that participating in sports and other after school extracurricular activities further benefited student-athletes because it reduced problem behavior in high or at-risk youth. African-American males are considered to be high and/or at-risk youth. A high or at-risk youth is a student who comes from an impoverished and lower-socioeconomic community who lacks the educational fundamentals to succeed in school (Montgomery, 2010). They are students who are low academic achievers, are in danger of failing each grade level, have poor attendance, a strong potential to drop out of school, come from predominantly minority races and ethnic backgrounds, and are raised in single parent homes (Montgomery, 2010; Slavin & Madden, 1989).

Studies That Do Not Support Sports Participation Improves Academic Success

In contrast to the large amount of studies that support the benefits of sports participation on academics, there are many research studies that argue that no correlation exist between sports participation and academics. Coleman's (1961) study on the adolescent society has caused great debate in the argument of whether or not a relationship between student's participation in athletics positively affects academic achievement. Coleman argued against the relationship that participation in athletics positively affects education by claiming it is a hindrance on the academic success of students. Coleman, in his 1961 research, reported that a negative relationship existed between participating in after school sports and student educational success. Coleman,

therefore, concluded that participation in after school extra-curricular sports was a detriment to the time that a student could dedicate toward his/her effort to accomplish greater academic success. Coleman (1961), followed by Edwards (1986), similarly claimed that sports participation and academics are in direct competition for a student-athlete's time. Edwards (1986) argued that an athlete who is playing sports becomes fully engaged in the sport and literally forgets about academics in the process. In contrast, if the student-athlete is fully engaged in academics, he is not concerned with sports. Coleman (1961), Edwards (1986), and Cotton (1996) similarly agreed that travel, preparation for sporting events, and time spent at games consumes a lot of the student-athlete's concentration and time that could be used toward sustaining academic progress.

Cotton (1996) said,

> Athletics participation is a thief of student's commitment to academics. In most American schools, academic subjects get some part of an hour five days a week, a generous time allotment would be around 250 minutes (4 hours) per week per subject. Athletic practices and games during the season are given more than three times the time commitment of academics, which calculates to be around 1050 minutes (13 hours) per week (p. 2).

Cotton (1996) believed that American schools are failing to compete on global levels because too much time and energy is concentrated on athletics and not academics. Cotton, like Coleman (1961) many years before him, and Streich (2009) 13 years after him, believed that extra-curricular activities that are not associated with academics and increased sports participation have led to the downward spiral of the United States

educational system. Streich's (2009) study results confirmed Coleman's (1961), Edwards (1986), and Cotton's (1996) arguments, by concluding that sports participation does have a part in the complete growth of a student-athlete. The role, Streich (2009) claimed, is an unfavorable consequence that athletic participation negatively affects the academic progress of the student because it steals their time. He further argues that the majority of student-athletes' struggle to distribute their time equally between education and sports, and as a result, will most likely take shortcuts in academics over athletics.

Over the years, many research studies have been conducted that argue for and against athletic sports participation's correlation to increased academic performance for student-athletes. In each of the studies, a concentration to study only African-American males was not the case. Athletes of all socioeconomic levels, races, and genders were studied. Each of the authors research studies listed in the following parenthesis, albeit past or present produced results that found either a positive or small (Davis & Cooper, 1934; Field, Diego & Sanders, 2001; Fredricks & Eccles, 2006; Nuhn, 1991; Soltz, 1986; Trudeau & Shephard, 2008) or a negative impact to no correlation (Coleman, 1961; Cotton, 1996; Edwards, 1986; Streich, 2009) between sports and academics, existed. Evidence based on the aforementioned studies to support that a positive or negative relationship on the topic of African-American males sports participation impacting academic achievement and graduation may be different between races and social groups proved to be limited and inconclusive because the African-American male was not the focus of these studies.

Bechtol's Sports Participation Theory (BSPT)

In contrast to the studies that argue against sports participation and its positive impact on academic success, Bechtol's sports participation theory argued that high school sports participation for student athletes regardless of race and gender enables the athlete to lead a more fulfilling adult life (Bechtol, 2001; Soltz, 1986; Whitley & Pressley, 1995). Bechtol's sports participation theory, developed in 2001, is grounded on the premise that playing sports in high school has positive long-term effects on the lives of student athletes. Bechtol's qualitative study produced results that claimed students who played sports over the course of their lives were more competitive, goal oriented, physically active, and apt to make friends, practice leadership skills, be more confident, exude higher self-esteem, and stay gainfully employed. Although I will not be able to collect this type of data to conduct my study, the results and findings of Bechtol's sports participation theory demonstrated that high school athletic programs are critical in the life development and success of students.

African-American males, according to Bechtol's (2001) study, who played sports in high school, should go on to have very prosperous adult lives. African-American male students are considered "at-risk". Common characteristics of at-risk students are low grades, poor attendance, disruptive behavior, disciplinary problems, high suspension, and dropout rates (Worley, 2007). Bechtol's (2001) sports participation theory claimed that students who partake in afterschool activities experience improved attendance, behavior, esteem, efficacy, social belonging, teamwork, leadership, academic achievement, less depression, less experimentation with drugs and underage drinking, and greater success

in life as adults. Bechtol's theory directly aligned to the purpose of my study, which was to measure if a relationship existed between the time an African-American male student spent playing sports and his improved academics that could lead to his successful graduation from high school. Bechtol's sports participation theory was designed to teach students life skills that they could put to use right away such as, teamwork, group dynamics, relationship building, positive thinking, social communication, and character building. Bechtol's (2001) research on this theory produced results, showing a positive correlation existed between sports participation and academic success. In her study, she compared athletes to non-athletes and found that over the course of the athlete's lives, they were more competitive, goal oriented, physically active (exercised regularly), had better health, had stronger friendships, had more self-esteem, self-confidence, had stronger abilities to work in groups or as team members, and sustained professional careers.

Implications

The literature review served as the foundation to develop a potential project to remedy the educational plight of African-American males in the local school district. Studies and theories that argue sports participation positively impacts academics as well as studies that dispute that sports participation impacts the academic success of African-American males were explored along with the failure of the educational system to educate African-American males coupled with statistical crisis data, educational racism, the discipline gap, the overrepresentation of African-American males in special education theory, and Bechtol's sports participation theory to demonstrate the significance and

impact athletics participation in high school has on African-American males rates of graduation. Largely, the literature review was conducted to explore if participating in sports has a relationship with the graduation rates of African-American males. Furthermore, if a relationship had existed between athletics participation and the GPAs of African-American males in the local school setting that could be a contributing factor toward their graduation from high school. If a positive relationship between the two aforementioned variables proved to be true, then maintaining current athletic programs and creating new, extracurricular after-school programs and activities that focus on African-American male student-athletes could be a possible solution and the social change needed to improve the educational plight of African-American male students in the SUS.

The results of this study proved to be beneficial in helping me find a possible solution to help my local school setting overcome its challenges to educate African-American males on the same levels as their White male counterparts. Because of the data collection and analysis, a two-Phased professional development and training program called Championing Higher Achievement Matriculation Preparation and Success (CHAMPS) was created. CHAMPS is a two-Phased professional development and training program. The first Phase is the Professional Staff Development and Training Program, (PSDTP) which will focus on the stakeholders.

The 1st-Phase is designed to help administrators, faculty, and staff improve the academic achievement of African-American male student-athletes. The SUS's administrators, faculty, and staff personnel will be provided with information and

equipped with the practical tools to facilitate student learning which could lead to higher retention rates, lower dropout rates, improved scores on standardized tests and college entrance exams, increased graduation rates and matriculation to college. Phase-2 of CHAMPS is student focused and will use the PSDTP stakeholders as the Coaches, Mentors, and Tutors to implement, facilitate, and operate the African-American Male Student-Athlete Academic Enhancement Program (CMTAEP). Furthermore, all stakeholders' (administrators, faculty, staff, parents, and students) based on the results of the data collection and analysis being direct or inverse, will receive and benefit from a professional development and training program that is goal oriented to improve the academic success (higher GPAs) and, thus, the graduation rates of African-American male student-athletes. A major goal of CHAMPS is to prepare, equip, and teach the stakeholders at the local school setting to use the training tools and skills they received via the first Phase of CHAMPS to help African-American males experience sustained academic success (higher GPAs), improved standardized tests scores, higher ACT scores, reach college and career readiness benchmarks, and thus, higher graduation rates and matriculation into college. The CHAMPS professional development and training program, through best practice research based alternatives is designed to lower the dropout rates and increase the graduation rates of African-American male students.

African-American males, according to Anthony, Kritsonis, and Herrington (2007), Dillon (2009), Thomas and Stephenson (2009), and Urban League (2008) are treated in a manner that is not appropriate for their personality, home surroundings, method of learning, or their African heritage. Furthermore, 83% of teachers in the United

States elementary and secondary schools are White and female (Anthony, Kritsonis, & Herrington, 2007; Douglas, Lewis, Douglas, Scott & Garrison-Wade, 2008). Many of these teachers work in urban school systems and are not accustomed or prepared, lack the knowledge base, common judgment, ability to identify, and communicate with lower socioeconomic, other minority, and African-American students, especially the males (Anthony, Williams, & Herrington 2007; Neblett et al., 2009). Many White teachers have an inability to understand the culture and communicate with African-American students (Bell, 2010b; Kenyatta, 2012). This is a major reason why White administrators, teachers, and staff fail in their efforts to teach students who come from inner city, lower socio economic, and minority families. Varying modes of delivery such as group participation, individualized assessment, self-paced instruction, technology, self-reflection, and skill building techniques will be used to conduct this professional training and development for the stakeholders.

According to Musanti and Pence (2010), professional development is a collaborative effort shared by all stakeholders, especially administrators, faculty, and staff. By using the professional development program, teachers may be encouraged to implement in their classroom instructional strategies that involve more culturally relevant teaching practices, be more flexible and open to teach subject matter content to students based upon their learning styles, to use social media networks and technology to teach math and other subjects that do not require technology to teach them (Zeppieri, 2008).

Based on the data collected in this study, this program will be designed to allow for flexibility and will take place over the course of an academic year to help sustain

learning and enable application to the individual, classroom, and organization. This professional development program will be designed with the intention to help stakeholders (administration, faculty, and staff), remedy the educational situation of African-American males in the school setting.

Summary

In the literature review, the socialization through sports theory argues that many African-American males develop a sense of who they are through playing sports. The literature that argues that sports participation in high school positively impacts academic success coupled with the socialization through sports theory claims that African-American males through sports participation develop their masculinity, gain confidence in their abilities, establish friendships, receive acceptance, learn how to communicate with their peers, learn problem solving, teamwork, goal setting, and social mobility. The literature that argues against sports participation positively impacting academics and being a distraction to academic success coupled with the socialization through sports theory also claims that the families of many African-American male student-athletes overemphasize sports in their homes and often lead their sons in the wrong direction when they place sports on the same mobility level as academics. Many African-American males are pursuing the dream of having professional athletic careers and awakening to the nightmare of reality that their dream will not come true. The literature argues that all male student athletes regardless of race have about a one in five million shot at playing professional football, a one in three million shot in playing basketball, and a one in one million shot at playing pro baseball. Furthermore, African-American males have stronger

and better opportunities of going pro in other professions such as medicine, engineering, and business. African-American males, because of their emphasizing athletics over education have caused themselves great educational failure and setbacks. These educational failures lead into adult life and success, which has not been favorable to many African-American males who represent the nation's largest unemployed population in the country at 13.6% (Thompson, 2011).

The literature produced data showing that many African-American males' ages, 16 – 24, who do not graduate from school have a 1 in 4 chance (25%) of entering the prison system (United State Justice Department, 2009). In contrast, other literature produced findings that suggest African-American males who participate in sports at very young ages, can be taught and trained to excel in both sports and achieve high academic success simultaneously. Furthermore, student-athletes who develop aspirations to excel in sports during childhood become academically engaged earlier, learn academic expectations for sport participation from their parents, schools, and coaches, which enables them to fully devote efforts toward the learning process, and achieving academic success. Other literature found that African-American male student-athletes who played sports had an increased interest in academics to remain eligible for competition, which enabled them to experience academic success that led to graduation from high school. Numerous research studies have been conducted on sports participation and its relationship to academic success.

The literature reviewed about a positive relationship existing between participation in sports and it having an inverse or significant correlation to the academic

success for African-American males was inconclusive. An impact direction, level, and whether or not it was negative or positive that sports participation had an influence on the academic success of African-American males could not be determined. According to the literature review, regarding African-American male's academic success due to sports participation, it can be argued that there is evidence to support that athletics participation does have both a positive and negative connection to the educational success of African-American males. The literature review discussed the failure of the educational system (Herring, 2009), discipline gap (Monroe, 2006), educational racism (Spence, 2000), overrepresentation of African-American males in special education programs (Bush-Daniels, 2008), and statistical data to support why "African-American males are considered to be an endangered species" (Montgomery, 2010, p.39) in both education and in society. Furthermore, the literature discussed that our education system is failing all students regardless of gender and race. Educational policy and decision makers have to respond and find a way to provide equity in education for all students, starting with the African-American male. This study contributed to the effort of helping African-American males receive equity in education. Potential solutions to the problems that African-American males are having in education sought to help them overcome their academic failures, to experience academic growth and success that will lead to graduation from high school and matriculation into college.

Section 2 of this project discusses the research design, approach, setting, sample, and materials used for data collection. The data collection and analysis, assumptions, limitations, scope and delimitations, and protection of human participants' rights are also

discussed in this section. Section 3 of this project study will focus on describing the project that derives from the study's research, the description and goals of conducting the study, the scholarly rationale used to support the research project, the literature review that addresses the project, it's implementation, the project study evaluation plan, the social change implications, and the significance of the project to the local stakeholders. Section 4 of this project study will focus on the reflections and conclusions, the project's strengths, recommendations for remediation of limitations, recommendations for ways to address the problem differently, the scholarship, the project's development and evaluation, leadership and change, analysis of self as a scholar, practitioner, and project developer, the project's potential impact for social change, implications, applications, and suggestions for directions to conduct future research related to the study.

Section 2: The Methodology

Introduction

Section 1 of this study validated that educational problems continue to exist in educating African-American males at the SUS at the same heights, levels, and degrees as Caucasian students. It is critical for policy makers, school administrators, teachers, local colleges, universities, community leaders, and business executives to play their roles in society to help school systems prepare and supply students with the knowledge, expertise, and education needed to become college and career ready. Over the last 50 years, much research has been conducted to identify, test, and measure whether or not participating in sports at secondary school levels positively or negatively affects the academic success and graduation rates for student-athletes.

The goal behind conducting this study was to identify if sports participation had an impact on the GPAs and, thus, graduation rates of African-American males. The results of the study will be used to aid in the creation and finalization of a professional development training program that could be used to train, equip, and prepare administrators, faculty, and staff with the practical tools needed at the local school setting to improve African-American male student-athletes' GPAs and, thus, graduation rates.

In this section, I describe and discuss the research design used to conduct the study, a defense of the setting and sample used in the data collection and analysis process, assumptions, limitations, scope, delimitations, and the plan to protect the rights of the participants of the study.

Research Design

This project study was conducted to explore if a relationship between sports participation and the earned average GPA for African-American male student-athletes existed at the local school setting. A correlational prediction research design was used to conduct this study to collect and analyze data to identify patterns or the association between the variables (hours of sports participation = IV, while earned GPA = the DV being measured (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2010). Because I was trying to measure if playing sports relates to the GPAs and, thus, the graduation rates of African-American males, I was justified in using a correlational research design over experimental and casual comparative research methods. Both an experimental and casual comparative design was being considered to conduct this study. However, an experimental design was not chosen because the variables in the study were not controlled or manipulated. Furthermore, I did not test or examine groups for data collection and analysis but gathered individual student archival data. A casual comparative design was not chosen because the research did not involve comparing groups to see if some independent variable had caused a change in a dependent variable, but instead to see if one variable was related to the other. To a further extent, casual comparative research involves manipulating variables experimentally that have already occurred, which I did not do.

Another supporting reason why a correlational method was chosen over the aforementioned designs is that I wanted to measure if a relationship between sports participation and GPAs actually exists at the SUS. If sports participation and GPAs were found to relate, it would have enabled me to determine the impact as being positive,

negative, or having no effect on the GPAs of local students, and therefore, possibly, on the graduation rates of African-American males at the local school setting. Thus, a correlational design, which would also show me the degree of this relationship, was the best method to use for this study because it best fit what I was trying to examine. A product moment correlational method was chosen over a multiple regression method because it enabled me to use variables to establish relationship in the simplest format. Furthermore, a multiple regression method was not chosen because it uses a statistical procedure for determining the relationship between a criterion variable DV and a grouping of a couple or more additional predictor variables IVs (Lodico et al., 2010). My using a product moment correlation is justified by the fact that I used one predictor variable (hours of sports participation).

Setting and Sample

The sample that was used for this research project study was purposefully selected and taken from the 12th grade African-American male student population from the SUS. I collected archival sports participation (total hours of participation in sports activities) and GPA data from the SUS. Therefore, there was no student contact or involvement in regard to the data collection to complete this study. Creswell (2012) stated, "A general rule of thumb is to select as large a sample as possible from the population. The larger the sample, the less the potential error is that the sample will be different from the population" (p. 146). According to Creswell, in order to conduct a thorough and complete research study, approximately 30 participants to relate variables must be used to avoid a sampling error. The sample that was used for this study might have been much larger

than 30 students. However, it turned out that there were 36 students in the actual study. The sample number of African-American males at the SUS was not over 150 students as hoped for, but it was a reliable representation of the African-American male high school students in the school and district, which is a reliable representation of the African-American male high school students in the school and district. I used all of the African-American male students who participated in at least one sport during one term of the year in question, across the four terms of that academic school year, except for those who did not stay enrolled in the school all year long.

Instrumentation and Materials

I did not use any specific instruments to collect data. The archival (public domain) materials that were collected to perform the data analysis came from electronic (computer generated and database reports and records) and hard copy documents from the district office and SUS. Archival data (hours of sports participation and GPAs of the senior African-American male students) from the SUS were collected to run separate correlations per each term (four in total for each individual grading period during the year) and one averaged total of all the GPAs for the entire 12th grade (2012 – 13) academic year (five correlations total) to complete this study. The IV was total hours spent participating in sports during the academic year for each student athlete, and the dependent variable DV was the earned average GPA of each student-athlete during the sport(s) season/year. Both the IV and DV are continuous variables. The IV enabled me to depict the data on the horizontal or X - axis of my correlational graph. The DV enabled me to depict each of the student-athletes' GPA data on the vertical or Y – axis of my

correlational graph. The first data point comes from measuring the number of hours African-American males spend participating in sports during the season/academic year. The second data point comes from measuring the student-athletes earned average GPAs over the four grading periods during the sport season/academic year. Measuring these two data points enabled me to see if a direct relationship (a correlation coefficient [+] where the points move in the same direction, i.e., as the IV increases, the DV also increases or vice versa), or an inverse relationship (correlation coefficient [-] where the points move in opposite directions, i.e., when the IV decreases, the DV increases, or vice versa), or no linear relationship exists between the total hours spent participating in sports during the season (1 year) and the earned average GPA for African-American male student-athletes (per 4 terms/1 year) in 1 year. Reliability, validity, and credibility of the research variables was established by running confidence intervals for each correlation with alpha levels set at less than .05 (**$p < .05$) to ensure that the probability of the correlations were not obtained due to chance alone and that they are statistically significant.

Data Collection

In adherence with the Walden IRB guidelines, no data were collected prior to receipt of approval on January 31, 2014 (IRB #01-31-14-0184016). Two letters were sent out on February 01, 2014 to inform the local school district and head administrator at the SUS that the data collection process would begin on February 02, 2014. In this project study, the data collection and analysis was designed to work collectively to produce results. The quantitative data were gathered from the SUS's existing de-identified

archival records and data files. Archival data such as sports participation, total hours spent participating in sports, during the season/year, earned GPAs during the sport(s) season, and the earned average GPAs data over the four terms of the student athletes' 12th grade 2012 – 2013 academic school year was collected. Graduation determination by definition means the African-American male student-athletes are on course to graduate because they are currently enrolled or have successfully completed the required courses to graduate with their age cohort. The GPAs of the African-American male student-athletes from the SUS from academic school year 2012-13 was used to measure the students overall academic performance (GPAs) in all courses including electives.

The student-athletes' time spent participating in sports and their earned average GPAs was calculated and recorded in excel spreadsheets and assigned codes PT1, PT2, PT3, PT4, and PT5; P = Participation, T = Time, and the number (1, 2, 3, 4, and 5) equals the number of sports the student-athlete participated in during the academic year/season. If a student-athlete has a code with multiple numbers (PT123) assigned to him, it means he played multiple sports throughout the year. Codes were also assigned to the student-athletes and their earned average GPAs during the sport season and academic year. In code SA1, the S = Student, A = Athlete, and the number 1 = first student athlete in the sample. GPAs were coded with the letter G = GPA, T = Term, and the number 1 = Grade Term 1 in the academic year. An SA1GT1 code = student-athlete 1's GPA for Grading Term 1 during the academic school year/season. Every student-athlete was assigned a code. The private and public archival data from this study were stored on my personal computer in password-protected spreadsheets to ensure their security.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions were answered based upon the results of the statistical analysis.

RQ1: What is the relationship between total hours of high school athletics sports participation (predictor variable = IV) and earned GPAs (criterion variable = DV) for African-American male students at the SUS?

RQ 2: What is the relationship between total hours of high school athletics sports participation (predictor variable = IV) and earned GPAs (criterion variable = DV) across each term of one school year?

Data Analysis

To address RQ1, the IV was total hours spent participating in sports during the academic year, and the DV was the earned average GPA of the student-athlete during the sport(s) season/year. The IV is continuous and enabled me to depict the data on the horizontal or X-axis of my correlational graph. The DV, also continuous, enabled me to depict each of the student athletes' GPA data on the vertical or Y-axis. The IV and DV for RQ2 was kept the same; however, to answer RQ 2, the IV (total hours spent participating in sports was collected for four individual terms (or once per term) and the DV (earned GPA) was gathered per term. Due to both variables being continuous, I was able to measure the impact that sports participation had on the students' GPA during the sport(s) season (or per term) during the academic year. This data showed me the individual terms in which the sports activities existed and those in which they did not

exist, or in which they were ended, and the effect on the students' GPAs during those terms.

The IBM SPSS Advanced Statistics System Version 21 or the Number Crunching

Statistical System version 8 (NCSS-8) was the software used to perform the correlational prediction research data analysis. This design enabled me to measure the relationship of the earned GPAs to the hours of sports participation for my sample, from which, if the relationship had been both positive and strong, I would have been able to, to some extent, predict earned GPA from the hours of sports participation for students at the SUS in the future. Through the correlational analysis, I was able to produce and display the data collected from each student-athlete in table format, scatter plots, and matrices. I was also able to make associations about the direction and strength of the variables' relationship. The correlational data analysis for the first research question enabled me to see if a positive, negative or no relationship existed between total hours participating in sports during the season (for 1 year) and the average earned GPAs for African-American male student-athletes (per 4 terms/1year) in 1 year. For RQ2, I ran four separate correlations to measure the student-athletes' academic performance across the entire year term by term. To a further and more in-depth extent, I was able to see whether or not the student-athletes' GPA fluctuated or changed when the season ended, or when he quit participating in a sport during 1 term in the academic year. Having these data enabled me to make a positive or negative correlation because I was able to see whether the increase or decrease of X – (IV) impacted Y – (DV). This data enabled me to see if the relationship was a strong or weak correlation and in which direction it lay.

Product moment correlation coefficients range from negative 1.00 to positive 1.00. According to Creswell (2012), "positive correlations are indicated by a (1) correlation coefficient and the points move in the same direction; that is when X increases, Y increases, or alternatively, if X decreases, so does Y" (p. 345). If the scores of one variable do not relate in any pattern to the other variables, then no linear association exits. In this research study, I wanted to assess the African-American male student-athletes' academic performance for the entire year by analyzing the changes in their GPAs during the season and when the season was over. The GPAs were collected each term and totaled together to calculate an average GPA for the entire year to measure the direction and strength of the relationship between the students' total hours participating in sports and the students' overall academic performance. These data enabled me to identify if the relationship was a positive or negative and/or if there was a strong or weak correlation. If the correlation coefficient is 0.84 or stronger, it is considered a very strong correlation. If the correlation is 0.65 to 0.83, it is considered a strong correlation. If the correlation coefficient is 0.35 to 0.64, it is considered a moderately strong and very acceptable correlation coefficient (Lodico et al., 2010).

Validity and Reliability

Reliability refers to consistency of measurement and validity refers to the accuracy and appropriateness of whatever is supposed to be measured (Creswell, 2012; Lodico et al., 2010). Furthermore, high correlation coefficients that have statistical significance, which is a correlation that has a probability of being obtained due to chance alone less than .05 or 5% of the time ($p < .05$), increases the validity and reliability of the

research variables (Lodico et al., 2010). Confidence levels were run and alpha levels were set at .05 to test the correlation coefficients aforementioned. Archival data (hours of sports participation, and GPAs of the senior African-American male students) from the SUS was collected to run separate correlations per each term (four in total for each individual grading period during the year) and one averaged total of all the GPAs for the entire 12^{th} grade year (five correlations total) to complete this study. Before any data were collected, permission from Walden University's Institutional Review Board, the FCPS school district, and the Principal from the SUS was sought. Permission to retrieve copies of these data was also sought before any records were taken from the school site. All documents and data used to conduct the study was locked and stored in a metal filing cabinet. All electronic documents were password protected in folders stored in my computer files. Archival records are data that have already been collected, typically by an administrator, teacher, school, or district for their own purposes and not by the researcher for the purposes of this study.

Quantitative Results

RQ 1: What is the relationship between total hours of high school athletics sports participation and earned GPAs for African-American male students at the SUS?

$H1_0$*:* No relationship exists between total hours spent participating in high school sports and the average earned GPAs of African-American male student-athletes at the SUS.

$H1_a$: A relationship does exist between total hours spent participating in high school sports and the average earned GPAs of African-American male student-athletes at

the SUS. Table 1 shows the results for the total hours spent participating in sports and earned average GPAs for the entire year.

Table 1

Results for Total Hours Spent Participating in Sports and Earned Average GPAs

		Earned average GPA year/season	Total hours spent participating in sports during year/season
Earned average GPA Year/Season	Pearson Correlation	1	.168
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.329
	N	36	36
Total hours spent Participating in sports during year/season	Pearson Correlation	.168	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.329	
	N	36	36

Note. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). * $p < .05$.

Thirty-six African-American male student athlete's ($n = 36$) total hours spent participating in sports and their earned average GPAs over one year (2012 – 2013) for 4 grading terms were collected and analyzed to answer research question 1. I assigned a confidence interval of 95% and set a p value score of ($p < .05$) to increase the validity and reliability of the variables' statistical significance. According to the Pearson Correlation coefficient of $r = .168$, there is a small almost moderate positive correlation between African-American males' total time spent participating in sports and their earned average GPAs for the academic year. However, due to the fact that I observed a small sample, and not a large sample, and, my significance level (2-tailed) = .329, which is greater than the established p value score of .05 means that my correlation is *not* statistically significant. Therefore, I do not have enough evidence to say that a correlation exists between the total

hours spent participating in sports and the earned average GPAs of African-American male student athletes at the SUS. I will have to accept the null hypothesis. See also Appendix F- *Graph 1*, The Scatter Plot for Correlation 1, Research Question 1, to receive a deeper understanding of the data results.

RQ 2: What is the relationship between total hours of high school athletics sports participation and African-American Males' earned GPAs across each term of one school year?

$H2_0$: No relationship exists between total hours spent participating in high school sports and the earned average GPAs across each term of one school year for African-American male student-athletes at the SUS.

$H2_a$: A relationship does exists between total hours spent participating in high school sports and the earned average GPAs across each term of one school year for African-American male student-athletes at the SUS. Table 2 shows the results for the total hours spent participating in sports and earned average GPAs for Term 1.

Table 2

Results - Total Hours Spent Participating in Sports and Earned GPAs per Term 1

		GPA Semester 1 Term 1	Total hours spent participating in sports Term 1
GPA Semester 1 Term 1	Pearson Correlation	1	-.210
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.218
	N	36	36
Total hours spent participating in sports Term 1	Pearson Correlation	-.210	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.218	
	N	36	36

Note. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). * $p < .05$.

Thirty-six African-American male student athlete's ($n = 36$) total hours spent participating in sports and their earned GPAs over each grading term (4 terms in all) during the academic school year of (2012 – 2013) were collected and analyzed to answer Research Question 2. A separate but same correlation was run for each grading term individually primarily to observe whether or not the student-athlete's earned GPAs fluctuated or changed, albeit positively or negatively, throughout the year as he participated in a sport during one or multiple sporting seasons throughout the year. I wanted to observe if the student-athletes GPA was higher while he played sports and declined when he stopped playing a sport. For each correlation run, I assigned a confidence interval of 95% and set a p value score of ($p < .05$) to increase the validity and reliability of the observed variables statistical significance. Correlation coefficients range

in between – 1 and + 1. The Pearson Correlation coefficient in grading term 1 of r = -2.10, means that an inverse or negative relationship exists between total hours spent participating in sports and the student-athletes earned GPA. A negative correlation coefficient of r = -2.10 indicates that as the student-athletes total hours spent participating in sports during the year/season increases his earned GPA decreases at a constant rate across cases. The grade term 1 significance level (2-tailed) = .218. It is greater than the p value score of ($p < .05$) that I established, which means that the correlation for Grading Term 1 is not statistically significant. Therefore, I do not have enough evidence to say that a significant correlation exists between the total hours spent participating in sports and the earned GPAs of African-American male student-athletes at the SUS for grade Term 1. I must accept the null hypothesis for Term 1. Table 3 shows the results for the total hours spent participating in sports and earned average GPAs for Term 2.

Table 3

Results - Total Hours Spent Participating in Sports and Earned GPAs per Term 2

		GPA Semester 1 Term 2	Total Hours Spent Participating In Sports Term 2
GPA Semester 1 Term 2	Pearson Correlation	1	-.341*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.042
	N	36	36
Time Hours Spent Participating In Sports Term 2	Pearson Correlation	-.341*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.042	
	N	36	36

Note. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). * $p < .05$.

The Pearson Correlation coefficient for grading term 2 is $r = -3.41$, which means an inverse or negative relationship exists between the total hours spent participating in sports and the student-athletes' earned GPA. A negative correlation coefficient of $r = -3.41$ indicates that as the student-athletes total hours of participation in sports increases, his earned GPA decreases at a constant rate across cases. The Grade Term 2 significance level (2-tailed) = .042. It is less than the *p* value score of .05 that I established, which means that the correlation for Grading Term 2 has some statistical significance. Therefore, I do have evidence to say that the correlation observed between the total hours spent participating in sports and the earned GPAs of African-American male student-athletes at the SUS has a weak negative or inverse relationship in Grading Term 2. Table 4 shows the results of the Model Summary for Grading Term 2.

Table 4

Results -Model Summary Results for Grading Term 2

Model	*R*	*R* Square	Adjusted *R* Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.341[a]	.116	.090	.82942

Note. a. Predictors: (Constant), Time Hours Spent Participating in Sports Term 2.

In Pearson product-moment correlation by convention, correlation coefficients of .10, .30, and .50, regardless of sign, are interpreted as small, medium, and large coefficients. By squaring $r\ (-3.41)^2$, I was able to obtain an index that directly told me how I could predict *Y* from *X*. R square - r^2 indicates the proportion of *Y* variance that is accounted for by its linear relation with *X*. When squared, $r^2 =$ .116, which is positive, and adjusted R square = .090, which means that a small positive correlation exists between the total hours an athlete spends playing sports and his earned GPA.

The significance level of .042 being less than ($p < .05$), means that there is a small relationship between the two variables and the correlation has statistical significance. Due to the aforementioned, I reject the null hypothesis about grading Term 2. Table 5 shows the results for the total hours spent participating in sports and earned average GPAs for Term 3

Table 5

Results-Total Hours Spent Participating in Sports and Earned GPAs per Term 3

		GPA Semester 2 Term 3	Total Hours Spent Participating In Sports Term 3
GPA Semester 2 Term 3	Pearson Correlation	1	.367*
	Sig. (2-ailed)		.027
	N	36	36
Time Spent Participating in Sports Term 3	Pearson Correlation	.367*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.027	
	N	36	36

Note. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). * $p < .05$.

The Pearson Correlation coefficient for grading term 3 is $r = 3.67$, which means that there is a positive medium strength linear relationship between the total hours spent participating in sports and the student-athletes' earned GPA. A positive correlation coefficient of $r = 3.67$ indicates that as the student-athletes total hours of sports participation increases, so does his earned GPA at a constant rate across cases. The Grade Term 3 significance level (2-tailed) = .027. It is less than the p value score of .05 that I established, which means that the correlation for Grading Term 3 has statistical significance. Therefore, I do have evidence to say that the correlation observed between the total hours spent participating in sports and the earned GPAs of African-American male student-athletes at the SUS is statistically significant. Therefore, I reject the null hypothesis regarding Grading Term 3. Table 6 shows the results for the total hours spent participating in sports and earned average GPAs for Term 4.

Table 6

Results -Total Hours Spent Participating in Sports and Earned GPAs per Term 4

		GPA Semester 2 Term 4	Total Hours Spent Participating In Sports Term 4
GPA Semester 2 Term 4	Pearson Correlation	1	.294
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.081
	N	36	36
Time Spent Participating in Sports Term 4	Pearson Correlation	.294	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.081	
	N	36	36

Note. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). *$p < .05$.

The Pearson Correlation coefficient in Grading Term 4 - $r = 2.94$ indicates that a moderate strength relationship exists between the total hours spent participating in sports and the student-athletes' earned GPA. However, due to the fact that I observed a relatively small sample and my significance level (2-tailed) = .081, which is greater than the established p value score of ($p < .05$) means that my correlation is not statistically significant. Therefore, I do not have enough evidence to say that a correlation exists between the total hours spent participating in sports and the earned GPAs of African-American male student-athletes at the SUS. I will have to accept the null hypothesis for Grading Term 4.

Assumptions, Limitations, Scope, and Delimitations

The participants in this study were all high school African-American male students in the 12th grade for the school year 2012 – 2013. It was assumed that all stakeholders in the local school district and state department of education were adequately informed of this research study. A limitation in this study resulted in the fact that the archival data was collected by other persons instead of the researcher conducting this study. Another limitation is that the data collected could have been falsified, manipulated, and entered into the district database incorrectly to place a school and the district in a more favorable position about school report cards and NCLB adequate yearly progress status. Another limitation of the study is the fact that only one academic school year's GPAs and total hours spent participating in sports activities instead of multiple school years was collected and used to conduct the study. The fact that the researcher was not researching what sport(s) at school and outside of the school (club teams, AAU, etc.) in which the student athlete participates, was a limitation. A major limitation is the fact that the researcher did not use or include socioeconomic status data for African-American male student-athletes or free and reduced lunch data as a measurement factor in the study. A final and very significant limitation is that this research study was conducted over a short period of time: unlike Bechtol's (2001) qualitative multi-case study, where she used a constant comparative data collection strategy to analyze her participants 20 years after they had played high school sports via interviews, observations of school year books, and sports paraphernalia displayed in their work offices to ascertain their opinions of how participating in sports benefitted them in their adult lives. Bechtol's (2001) study found

positive results that shown sports participation has a strong positive impact on student-athletes grades, confidence, motivation, ability to work with others, ability to lead, lead healthier lifestyles, stay gainfully employed, and become successful adults. Due to the aforementioned and short amount of time to conduct the study, my results did not produce strong enough evidence to claim that the time (hours) an African-American male student-athlete spends participating in sports was positively correlated to his earned GPA. However, the results of this research could still be instrumental for all stakeholders in their decision making to design programs that help African-American males improve their educational plight. If sports participation for some of the African-American male student-athletes at the SUS enabled them to maintain high enough grades to remain eligible during their sport(s) season, experience sustained academic success over multiple school grading terms, improve their school attendance, reduce behavioral problems, and graduate at higher rates; then sports participation could be used as an incentive as well as encouraged and supported by all educational stakeholders.

A delimitation of the study includes the fact that the participants of the study consisted only of African-American male student-athletes from one high school in the district. Furthermore, another major delimitation in this research study is that the African-American male student-athletes socioeconomic status was not used as a variable to measure if their income class albeit, upper, middle, or lower, affected their academic success, ability to sustain sport eligible GPAs of 2.0 or higher in and out of season, and their graduation rates. Non-athlete African-American females, males, and other minority students were not included in the study or compared in this research. Collecting and

comparing the data of African-American male student-athletes to African-American male non-athletes could be very significant information needed to argue for or against athletic participation having a positive, negative, or inverse relationship on the African-American male student's academic success and graduation state. A second delimitation is the fact that the researcher selected the GPAs and used archival data from the 2012-2013 academic school year provided through the district and school personnel.

Protection of Participants' Rights

Before any data were collected to conduct the study, approval was sought from Walden University's IRB, the local school district, and administration from the SUS. Because the researcher was collecting data from archived files and documents provided by the school and district offices, parent and student contact was not a factor. If the school district, participating school, and Walden's IRB required parental and student consent, it would have been obtained. There were no risks involved with the research study. The local school district and participating school were sent a formal letter that included the purpose of the study, the amount of time the researcher would be at the site collecting data, how the data would be used, and results produced. The letter also included the benefits of conducting the study and a plan to protect the identity, confidentiality, and anonymity of the SUS, parents, students, and stakeholders.

The confidentiality and anonymity of student personal information such as GPAs was stored electronically in a password-protected file in my computer. Hard copies of student data were locked and stored in a metal filing cabinet in which the researcher was the only person who had a key. The confidentiality and anonymity of the district and

school personnel was protected in a similar fashion as that of the students'. The data collected from the school and district was not discussed or shown to any person. Locations, names, and demographic information that could identify the school or personnel in the school were protected and stored in password protected computer file and key-locked file cabinets.

Conclusion

The data collection and analysis worked collectively to produce the correlational results. Based on the results of the study, there was not enough evidence to argue that a relationship with enough statistical significance existed between the total hours an African-American male student-athlete spends participating in sports and his earned average GPA. Five total correlations were run. For Research Question 1 (Correlation 1), Research Question 2 – Grading Term 1 (Correlation 2), and Grading Term 4 (Correlation 5), I had to accept the null hypothesis. However, for Research Question 2 – Grading Term 2 (Correlation 3) and Grading Term 3 (Correlation 4), I had to reject the null hypothesis.

A major theme that was consistent amongst all of the correlations run was that the African-American males who had GPAs of 1.0 to 1.9 before the sport season, raised and/or maintained their GPAs to a 2.0 to become eligible to play their sport. If the student-athlete played sports that were concurrent, such as football, followed by basketball, the student maintained the 2.0 GPA needed to remain eligible for the second sport. As soon as the season ended, the majority of the student-athletes who had the border line GPAs of 1.0 – 2.0 grades dropped and fail to below sport eligibility status.

The student-athletes who had 2.5 – 2.9 GPAs during the sport season, had a tendency to maintain their GPAs with little fluctuation albeit positive or negative during the season and academic year. The African-American male student-athletes who had 3.0 GPAs and above maintained their grades all year round regardless of the sporting season. There were at least two occasions where the student-athletes' grades tended to drop as they participated in their sport, which was easily noticeable by the drop in their GPAs for the grade term that their sport occurred. As soon as their season ended, these student-athletes' grades improved as was shown in their next grade term. Overall, based on the results of the study, the time an African-American male at the SUS spends playing sports is not positively correlated to his per term and overall earned average GPA for 1 year. The goal of achieving higher academic success is strictly based on the individual student-athletes desire to earn good grades. Those student-athletes who struggled to keep the 2.0 GPA needed to remain eligible for sports participation were able to because they utilized the mandatory after school tutoring and study hall program. After the sport season ended, the student-athletes were no longer required to attend the SUS's after school tutoring and study hall; and, as a result of their not participating, their grades fell under the 2.0 GPA range. The results of the study and the realization that the African-American male student-athletes' grades tended to suffer when they quit attending the mandatory athletic study hall inspired me to create the Championing Higher Achievement Matriculation, Preparation, and Success for Student Athletes (CHAMPS) professional development and training program. The CHAMPS professional development and training program will be

offered year round and was created to be a continuum to the mandatory athletic study hall program, but to offer more extended academic services.

The 2nd Phase of the CHAMPS program Coaching, Mentoring, and Tutoring, Academic Enhancement Program (CMTAEP), by design will be created for the African-American male student-athletes to use at the same times that they participated in their sport as well as when their sport season ends (basically, year round). The CMTAEP will enable the student-athletes to receive coaching, mentoring, tutoring, and training to become college and career ready, score higher on standardized tests and college entrance (ACT) exams, complete a career portfolio, be trained in financial literacy, personal banking, the purchasing of insurance, and managing one's credit to protect himself from debt.

Section 3: The Project

Introduction

Due to budget cuts and decreases in state educational funding, education policy decision makers are forced to decide what programs they will support. Athletic programs, followed by non-effective, rarely used academic programs are most often the first and second programs to be cut or not funded (U. S. Department of Education, 2010). Although a strong positive and statistically significant relationship was not found to exist between the hours spent participating in athletics and the earned GPAs of the African-American male student-athletes at the SUS, the results of the study did provide me with significant information to create a professional development and training program called Championing Higher Achievement Matriculation, Preparation, and Success for Student Athletes (CHAMPS). This project study was conducted to answer the following questions: What is the relationship between total hours of high school athletics sports participation and earned GPAs for African-American male students at the SUS? And, what is the relationship between hours of high school athletics sports participation and earned GPAs across each term of one school year? Based on the results, in which I had to accept the null hypothesis for both research questions, the most effective way to enable African-American male students and athletes to strive for higher academic achievement (improved graduation rates and GPAs) is to educate those stakeholders who have the most contact and influence on them at the local level. The stakeholders are the principals, counselors, coaches, and, most importantly, the faculty and staff who are responsible in educating and preparing these students to be both college and career ready (Reeves,

2010). The focal point of CHAMPS is to teach, prepare, develop, and equip all stakeholders (administrators, faculty, staff, and parents) with the tools needed to successfully implement, run, and operate an afterschool academic improvement coaching, mentoring, and tutoring program.

Section 3's primary focus is concentrated on describing the project that derives from the study's research, description and goals of conducting the study, scholarly rationale to support the research project, a literature review that addresses the project, implementation, project study evaluation plan, social change implications, and the significance of the project to the local stakeholders.

Description and Goals

The purpose of this project was to measure whether or not an African-American male's time spent participating in sports correlated to both his term GPA and overall earned average GPA during a sports season and/or over the 2012 – 2013 academic school year. All student-athletes at the SUS regardless of race, gender, and socioeconomic status are required to attend a mandatory study hall in which they can receive tutoring in all of their core content courses (English, Math, Science, and Social Studies), elective courses, as well as use this time to make up tests, quizzes, projects, and complete homework. Each study hall lasts 1.5 hours per meeting, and occurs 2 days a week, which means that the student-athletes receive at least 3 hours per week of academic assistance. Student-athletes are required to maintain at least a 2.0 – "C" average on a 4.0 scale to remain eligible to participate in their sport during the season. According to the results of the correlations I ran, African-American male student-athletes' time spent participating in sports during a

season or over the year had little to no impact on their seasonal (Grading Terms 1 - 4) or their earned average GPA over the entire academic year. In general and overall, the African-American males who participated in sports during the season and academic year did remain eligible to participate in their sport during the season. A major problem the SUS is having is getting African-American male student-athletes to maintain GPAs at or above 2.0 – "C" levels after their sporting season ends. After examining the academic performance of the African-American male student-athletes at the SUS, I found that 95% of them, if they did not have a 2.0 GPA, raised their GPA to a 2.0 to become eligible for sports participation. Furthermore, they maintained the 2.0 GPA needed throughout the season. This enabled me to show the SUS's administration that a gap in practice existed. The gap was easily evident in the fact that the African-American male student-athletes at the SUS could maintain GPAs of 2.0 if they wanted to or if they were mandated to participate in three study halls a week. The 95% who maintained the eligible GPA did so because they received additional academic assistance since they were required to attend the mandatory after school sports participation study hall. A contributing factor to their maintaining 2.0 GPAs and experiencing academic success was their mandatory attendance to participate in this study hall program, in which they received academic tutoring, additional time to make up homework and tests, and received assistance with assignments. A second gap in practice was that the student-athletes were not given the opportunity to attend the mandatory study hall more than the 3 hours and 2-day a week period established by the coaching staff. If the student-athletes needed more academic assistance, they had to miss practice and schedule a time slot with their teacher to receive

additional academic services. Streich and Herring (2009) argued that athletes who dedicated more time, energy, and effort to athletics over academics would experience greater success in athletics and fail in academics and vice versa. Based upon Streich and Herring's argument, it is highly likely that the African-American male student-athletes would have continued to experience academic success throughout the year had they continued to participate in the academic study hall. The results of the study pointed out that the African-American male student-athletes needed the following:

1. Continued academic support and assistance throughout the entire school year.
2. Access to after school academic programs in which they could be tutored, coached, and mentored to become college and career ready.
3. Encouragement by all stakeholders to attend the after school academic enhancement program throughout the year to give themselves better opportunities to experience continued academic success, and to perform well on the ACT and standardized tests.

Because of the findings of the study, the CHAMPS professional development and training program was designed. The ultimate goal of the CHAMPS Phase 2 CMTAEP is to have 65% of its African-American male student-athletes who attend the program graduate and be college and career ready in its first year of existence. Participation in the CHAMPS professional development and training program CMTAEP will be voluntary for all African-American male student-athletes. The African-American male student-athletes will first be introduced and invited to participate in the program by their team coaches. All stakeholders who participated in the Phase 1- PSDTP training will be asked

to serve as facilitators, coaches, mentors, and tutors in the Phase 2 program. The SUS is an urban designated and Title 1 school in which money to implement an academic enhancement program such as CHAMPS is made readily available for allocation to close achievement gaps, improve the graduation rates, and reduce the dropout rates for African-American males and other minority students. The in-house stakeholders because of their active participation will be paid hourly stipends for the services they will provide to the African-American male student-athletes. The CHAMPS program will be highly advertised and marketed by administrators, teachers, counselors, coaches, and the parents of the student-athletes for African-American male student-athletes to attend.

Introduction and informational letters will be sent home to the parents of the student-athletes soliciting their participation in the CMTAEP. Furthermore, the SUS's coaches from all sports, the school counselors, teachers, and administrators will be asked to promote and encourage all of the African-American male student-athletes to participate in this program. Business owners, college and university personnel, and community stakeholders will be invited to participate in the CMTAEP. There are two focal points of CHAMPS. The first focal point will be to seek the support of all stakeholders, then introduce the professional development-training program to them, and describe what will be required of them if they participate. Each stakeholder will be informed that he/she will be trained, taught, prepared, developed, and equipped with the necessary tools to successfully implement, run, and operate the afterschool academic improvement coaching, mentoring, and tutoring program. Focal Point 1 of CHAMPS will concentrate on introducing and familiarizing the administration, faculty, and staff with

the five major components of CHAMPS, which are cultural competency and inclusion, social factors and the achievement gap, student learning styles, sports participation and social theories, and designing student learning outcomes.

The second focal point of CHAMPS will concentrate on the implementation phase of the after school academic coaching, mentoring, and tutoring program. The intent behind creating the professional development-training program, CHAMPS, is to bring about a positive social change in the academic success, graduation rates, and college and career readiness for African-American males student-athletes first; if successful, all students at the SUS will be welcomed to participate in the program.

Rationale

The rationale for developing the after-school academically focused coaching, mentoring, and tutoring program stemmed from the success the African-American male student-athletes experienced from attending the mandatory sports participation study hall for 1.5 hours a day, twice a week. The identified gap in practice at the SUS that was being missed was not encouraging the African-American males to continue attending the academic study hall program after their sport season ended. During the season to remain eligible, the student-athlete had to maintain a 2.0 GPA. The study hall program enabled them to remain eligible during the term or sport season. Research conducted by Brown and Donner (2011) argued that student-athletes who join other after school extracurricular activities that are not sports related, such as academically focused programs, extended school services, Future Business Leaders of America, Future Educators of America, and other school clubs (Year Book, Newspaper Staff, etc.) have

better grades (GPAs), higher standardized tests and ACT scores, higher graduation rates, and matriculation rates into college than those who do not. Therefore, it is highly likely that if the student-athlete continued to participate in the after school academic program, he could maintain or improve his academic success and graduation rates. CHAMPS was derived from this mindset in that it is specifically focused to equip all stakeholders (administrators, faculty, staff, and parents) with the educational tools (literary resources on African-American males learning styles, culturally designed teaching methodologies, and inclusion/awareness strategies) needed to assist them with coaching, mentoring, and tutoring African-American males, at-risk, lower socioeconomic, and other minority grouped students. The CHAMPS program will serve as a substitute and as a continuum for the African-American male student-athletes to use when they are no longer required to attend the mandatory sports participation study hall. CHAMPS will offer the student-athlete coaching, mentoring, tutoring, and other academic services that the mandatory sports participation study hall will not after the sport season is over.

Review of the Literature

Based on the findings of the data results, African-American male student-athletes at the SUS who attended the mandatory 2-day, 1.5-hour study hall maintained GPAs of 2.0 and higher to participate in their sport during the season. However, the major problem at the SUS is that a large percentage of the senior African-American male student-athletes do not maintain 2.0 GPAs after their season ends unless they participate in a second sport concurrently and continue to be involved in their mandatory study hall. Their GPAs fall below 2.0, which causes many of them to fail and not graduate on time

or at all. African-American male student-athletes, because of being required to attend a mandatory sports participation study hall, displayed that they could maintain the grades required for sports eligibility with the help received in their study hall.

The purpose of conducting the study was to identify a positive social change solution that would help African-American male student-athletes maintain their academic success (GPAs 2.0 or higher) throughout the year until they graduated. A very strong possible solution to achieve the aforementioned would be to create a more inclusive, intensive, and extensive academically focused after school coaching, mentoring, and tutoring program that would provide more services such as career related employment research skills, creative writing and on demand writing skills, reading and comprehension enhancement skills, successful test taking techniques, and ACT preparation to the student-athlete that the sports participation mandatory study hall did not provide. Supported by an exhaustive review of the literature, African-American male student-athletes and non-athletes all over the county are underachieving academically, failing, and dropping out of school because they are educationally discriminated against and disciplined at disproportionate rates in comparison to all other students (Bush-Daniels, 2008). Bush-Daniels (2008), Anthony, Kritsonis, and Herrington (2007), Dillon (2009), Kunjufu (1983), Radin (1988), Richardson and Evans (1992), Stephenson (2009), and the Urban League (2008) similarly claimed in their research that the special education designation epidemic is dominated by African-American males, followed by Latino/Hispanic males, and students who come from impoverished and lower-socioeconomic backgrounds. According to Anthony et al., African-American males'

disconnection from education stems from their being overly suspended, assigned to other disciplinary measures (Behavior Modification Plans), Special Education Programs, and/or learning behavior programs, which cause them to miss altogether and become truant, leading to expulsion. Additional reasons why African-American males are underachieving, failing, and quitting school are because school administrators, faculty, and staff, are failing to communicate, identify, and learn the social factors/influences (positive and/or negative), to build trusting relationships with the African-American males in order to teach them (Bush-Daniels, 2008). Last and most critical of the reasons why African-American males are underachieving, failing, and dropping out of school is their lack of being culturally included in their classroom environments (Bell, 2010b; Kenyatta, 2012). Kunjufu (2010) posed that this happens because educational scholar-practitioners and policy makers cannot fully agree that African-American males have different learning styles than all other students. Because of this debate, African-American males in the American public school will continuously be misrepresented, misunderstood, and miseducated (Kunjufu, 2010). The overall goal of conducting this project study was to use the findings of the research to design a professional development program specifically catered to equip all stakeholders at the SUS with the tools needed to help African-American males achieve higher academic equality, success, and improved graduation rates. To a further extent, the goal was to use the results of the study to create a positive social change agent such as CHAMPS that has implications to help solve and remedy the educational plight of the African-American male at the local school setting. A primary means to accomplish the goals of CHAMPS is to prepare all stakeholders to

become advocates of practicing cultural inclusion and diversity in their classroom environments.

Cultural Competency Continuum and Inclusion

African-American males' educational fate lies in the hands of the middle to upper middle class Caucasian female, who comprises slightly over 83% of the teachers in the United States public school systems Anthony et al., 2007; Douglas, B., Lewis, C., Douglas, Scott, & Garrison-Wade, 2008; Kunjufu, 2010). Many of these Caucasian teachers are assigned to work in urban schools in which they are not ready or prepared to work. These young teachers find it very difficult to understand, relate, and communicate with African-American males because they cannot identify with their character, culture, home environment, and learning styles (Anthony et al., 2007; Neblett et al., 2009). As a result of the aforementioned inabilities, African-American males are disproportionately disciplinarily discriminated against by White teachers (Skiba et al., 2011). These teachers also have difficulty identifying, communicating with, and teaching at-risk, lower socioeconomic, and other ethnic minority groups (Dillon, 2009; Kohn, 2011; Skiba et al., 2011). The fact that many White teachers have a difficult time understanding the culture, lack the ability to effectively communicate with, and teach students from diverse backgrounds, especially African-American male students, is a major reason why Cultural Competency Continuum was chosen as one of the five major topics to be taught in the CHAMPS professional training program for the administrators, faculty, and staff at the SUS (Kenyatta, 2012).

Cultural Competence Continuum focuses on participant knowledge, building awareness and skills, and taking action in regard to practicing diversity as an individual in an organization, or as an entire organization as a whole (Cross, 1988; Sullivan, 2010). The National Committee on Racial and Ethnic Diversity (NASW) defines cultural competence as an "ongoing process" that requires all individuals and the organization as a whole to accept and respect the diversity that people of all races, cultures, sexes, religions, ethnicities, languages, abilities, orientations, classes, and other differentiating factors have in the organization, in a way that will enable them to feel valued as individuals and recognized as important members of the organization (NASW, 2001). Although there are many development models used to train participants in cultural diversity and competence, the *Cross Model*, will be used in this professional development training program because it "offers both an institutional and individual" conceptual framework from which to work, it doesn't require special permission to be used, and the materials can be purchased for use online and from retail stores such as, Joseph-Beth Booksellers (Cross, 1988; p. 1). There are six stages of the Cross model continuum. A brief summary of each will be explained in the numbered list:

1. *Cultural Destructiveness* – out of the six continuums, is regarded as the negative continuum and is driven by practices, procedures, and attitudes that are damaging to both the culture and individual that operates inside the culture. An example of cultural destructiveness would be cultural genocide, which is the planned destruction of a culture.

2. *Cultural Incapacity* – is the next continuum in line and is considered the second to worst position of the six, because the system or institution does not purposely seek to destruct or incapacitate its minority groups or communities. Simply put, it lacks the capacity to help them altogether. Strong negative destructs in this continuum are bias, racial superiority and inferiority, in which the superior class rules over the inferior class and considers them to be "less than" the superior class or race. Discrimination, stereotyping, and oppressive policies are enacted against the people of color or the lower class. The lower class and people of color are designated to territories or places that they should not leave. An example of cultural incapacity would be the agency adopting segregation as a desirable policy to separate people of color and superior and inferior classes from one another. Common characteristics associated with cultural incapacity include: discrimination in hiring, sending messages to let people of different races and classes know that they are not wanted or welcomed, and the formulation of low expectations for minority groups.

3. *Cultural Blindness* – is positioned in the middle of the continuum. At the midpoint, the system and its agencies provide philosophically unbiased services. The system and agency adopts the "color blind" mentality, and claims that neither color nor culture makes a difference, thus, everyone is treated the same. A major problem with this stage in the continuum is that agencies believe that the serving approaches normally practiced by the superior culture are commonly applicable, if the system worked as it should, and will be equally appropriate and effective

for everyone regardless of culture and race. Due to this adoptive mentality and belief system, the services offered are so atypical that they are only applicable to the people of color who assimilate to the system (Cross, 1988). Characteristics often associated with cultural blindness include: encouraging assimilation, blaming victims for experiencing problems if they don't assimilate, viewing minorities from a culturally deprived model, plus assets aren't equally distributed because it is assumed that all cultures need the same things, institutional racism is experienced because minorities are not granted equal access to professional training, staff positions, and other services.

4. *Cultural Pre-Competence* – is the Phase where the agency recognizes that cultural differences do exist and that a need to start educating themselves about the differences must be addressed. An understanding of the shortcomings is realized; and, as a result, interaction with the diverse environment begins to take place. The organization must be cognizant that efforts made to understand diversity do not become complacent. The institution, in order to safeguard against complacency begins to hire a multicultural staff, offers diversity sensitivity training, and promotes multicultural staff personnel to higher management positions.

5. *Basic Cultural Competence/Individuals* – occurs at the organizational level and is the stage where agencies work diligently to hire employees who practice unbiased thinking, seek minority community consultants for input, and actively decide what services they can and cannot provide to their minority constituents.

This is the Phase where acceptance, appreciation, and accommodation for cultural differences begin. Diversity is embraced and valued, cross-cultural interaction, communication, and problem solving, including all members of the staff, is welcomed. Characteristics of cultural pre-competence includes: acceptance and respect for difference, continuously expanding and self-assessing changes in culture, paying careful attention to the dynamics of difference in diversity, looking to expand cultural resources, and adapting to service models that best meets the needs of the minority populations.

6. *Advanced Cultural Competence/Individuals* – is the highest and most positive stage and level on the continuum, in which the institution and individuals have gone past embracing, valuing, and obliging cultural diversities. At this Phase, the institution begins to train and educate all staff to become culturally competent and practice diversity. Furthermore, it encourages them to pursue opportunities to obtain knowledge of how to interact with people from different cultures, backgrounds, and environments. This will enable them to develop relationships with allies, and, the allies with them, to create a multicultural atmosphere in which it is comfortable for everyone to interact. Lastly, the organization dives deeply into conducting diversity research. This is done so that the organization can begin to hire staff who are specialists in diversity training and implementing competency practices, who can serve and act as advocates for the traditional minority groups and to promote multiculturalism. (Cross, 1988)

The Cross Model is based on the premise that cultural competency is a movement along a continuum, where the reverence and gratitude of all people and the institution's diversity can be simultaneously at varying stages of growth. The aforementioned statement means that the institution/agency could be functioning at stage 4 (Cultural Pre-Competence), while the individuals in the institution are functioning at stage 3 (Cultural Blindness).

In stage 4, the institution recognizes that a cultural difference exists at the agency and that they need to start educating themselves to practice cultural diversity and inclusion. While the institution is at stage 4, the individuals in the institution are at stage 3. A major problem with the stage 3 continuum is that the agency believes that the help normally provided to the dominant culture is universally applicable, equally appropriate, and effective for every individual in the institution regardless of culture and race. Because of the aforementioned belief system in stage 3, minority individuals in the agency experience institutional racism and are not granted equal access to professional training, staff positions, and other services. The institution recognized that the individuals in stage 3 were not benefitting from the help system approach of the dominant culture, and as a result, moved from the stage 3 continuum to the stage 4 continuum to focus on addressing their lack of cultural diverse and inclusion issues. According to Anand (2000), when surveying different models of cultural competency to identify common interaction components, one should use the following set of basic skills listed below:

- Being aware of one's own culture, values, and biases.

- Being aware of and working at controlling one's own biases and how these may affect interactions with others.
- Culture-specific knowledge.
- Knowledge of institutional barriers that prevent some populations from accessing resources.
- Ability to build strong cross-cultural relationships and to be at ease with difference.
- Flexibility and ability to adapt to diverse environments.
- Ability and willingness to be an ally to individuals who are different from oneself.
- Effective communication skills across differences.
- Able to mediate cross-cultural conflicts. (Anand, 2000; para. 2).

The goal of this specific section of the professional development training, is to get the institution (SUS stakeholders, especially those who are teachers, and those who will serve as coaches, mentors, and tutors) into a position in which they can overcome their biased and prejudiced thinking, behaviors, and practices to communicate and build positive trusting relationships with the diverse population of students, especially, the African-American males at the local school setting. According to Davis and Donald (1997), a goal of cultural competency from an organizational standpoint is to learn, integrate, and transform the knowledge one has gathered from the attitudes, beliefs, and differences of a diverse group of people and using that knowledge to create a cultural

system that offers them the quality of services needed to feel valued, respected, and contributing members in the organizations operational success.

Social Factors and the Achievement Gap

According to research studies and reports conducted within the last 5 years, the educational attainment of African-American males in contrast to their Caucasian peers, Black females, and other ethnic groups regardless of gender, is in a woefully poor state (Coley, 2011; Lewis, Simon, Uzzell, Horwitz, & Casserly, 2010; Tsoi-A-Fatt, 2010). According to Murphy (2010) and Rodriguez (2011), African-American males have existed and performed at the bottom of the educational ladder for too long. Ford and Moore III (2013) who agreed with Murphy and Rodriguez, further argued that the major reason why African-American males are far-removed from their White male peers in educational attainment and graduation rates is because they start the school process in last place in three primary areas, reading, writing, and arithmetic. African-American males, from the time they start elementary and transition to middle and on through high school, have been documented to have the lowest school cognitive ability, academic achievement, readiness skills in writing, reading and comprehension, and mathematics (Aud, Fox, & Kewal Ramani, 2010; Maxwell, Kizzie, Rowley, & Cortina, 2010). African-American males are considered “at-risk” students, which means it is highly likely that they will quit school, be unemployed, experiment with alcohol and drugs, or participate in activities dealing with the sale and distribution of drugs, be incarcerated, and/or violently killed (Noguera, 2012; Lewis et al., 2010; Rashid, 2009; Thompson, 2011).

At-risk young people are students who are designated as being low academic achievers, having poor school attendance, and as a result of being truant are in danger of failing their core content subjects (English, Math, Science, social studies), each grade level (9-12), and due to little or no in-home support or positive influences, have a strong potential to drop out of school (Rashid, 2009). Furthermore, "at-risk" students are usually raised in single parented homes, live in lower socioeconomic conditions, and come from predominantly minority races and ethnic backgrounds (Greene & Winters, 2006; Rashid, 2009; Worley, 2007). African-American males who drop out of school widen the achievement gap because many of them do not seek alternative educational programs or methods to graduate from high school. Three major reasons why many African-American males who drop out of school do not seek alternative methods to graduation is because they don't feel that having a high school diploma benefits them, they're unemployed, or they work minimum wage jobs and can't afford to pay the cost associated with earning a GED or attending an adult education program (Cokley & McClain, 2011; Denton, 2001). Other social factors that are contributing to African-American males dropping out of school are the fact that they are victims of unfair disciplinary practices taken against them, they suffer the highest suspension and expulsion rates in school, and receive the highest number of referrals for special education designation over all other groups (Dillon, 2009; Drakeford, 2004; Skiba et al., 2011; Thomas & Stephenson, 2009; Townsend, 2000). African-American males are long overdue for an educational make over and break through, claimed Cokley, McClain, Jones, and Johnson (2011). The makeover and break through has to start with closing the achievement gap, which is why

educational stakeholders' have to be educated and informed about the impact that the socioeconomic status, first generation parental involvement or the lack thereof, racists myths, and negative social factors associated with African-American males has on their educational attainment. All stakeholders' involved in the educational process of teaching students need to understand how African-American males learn to close the achievement gaps that exists between Black and White students in our schools today.

Student Learning Styles

African-American males, over-all other races, are struggling academically and represent "80 percent of the 41 percent of African-American students in special education programs" (Kunjufu, 2010; p. 5). Furthermore, 80% of the students referred to special education are below grade level in reading and writing (Kunjufu, 2010). African-American male's educational plight begins with the national educational policy maker's denial and neglect of the fact that African-American males mature and learn differently than Black females and other racial groups. Kunjufu (2010) further argued that ignoring and taking into consideration that African-American males have different learning styles than all other student groups has caused them to develop stereotype threat anxiety, self-sabotaging, and negative attitudes about education. Furthermore, they adopt mindsets that make them feel inferior, believe that they cannot excel academically, and develop low self-concepts, which is a leading cause to their dropping out (Kunjufu, 2010).

Harradine, Coleman, and Winn (2014) argued that it is important to study, identify, and know what causes African-American males to struggle in school; but, it is equally, if not more important, to know what factors, methods, practices, and teaching

strategies work effectively to help them achieve academically. African-American males, as a result of the aforementioned, have caused much research to take place over the last 15 years in regard to finding strategies, methods, and techniques to prepare and teach them more effectively by taking into consideration their different learning styles (Kober, 2010; Murphy, 2010; Walker, Fergus, & Bryant, 2012). African-American males do have different learning styles than their peers. Kunjufu (2010) outlines the difference as being both behavioral and educational. The African-American male's, from a behavioral perspective, ability to learn is driven by his aggression, energy and maturity levels, peer pressure, and length of attention. His ability to learn from an educational perspective is driven by his verbal and linguistic skill, organizational skill, gross, and fine motor skill, and reading interests. Understanding African-American male learning styles is critical to the success of all teachers whether they are veteran or brand new teachers to the public school system. Varying methods, models, strategies, and theories will be used to train all stakeholders, more specifically the (teachers) coaches, mentors, tutors, and parents how to use and apply the techniques they learn via the professional development to more effectively reach and teach African-American males.

A specific section of the professional development training on student learning styles will focus on preparing teachers who are nonblack and female, how to apply what they have learned via the training, in real-world situations both in and outside the classroom, to help them better understand, prepare, and teach African-American males in a normal classroom setting. Kunjufu's Understating Black Male Learning Styles (2010) and The Educational Strategies to Teach Children of Color (2009) manuals, which

contain over 300 combined new pragmatic daily challenges and methodologies, that can be achieved in the classroom will be the teaching tools used to provide this training. These preparation and teaching resources were chosen because they are free for public use and do not require permission from the author to use. These manuals can be purchased online and in stores such as Joseph-Beth Booksellers. Furthermore, they give the participant a first-hand experience, advice, and the expertise to handle situations that deal directly with real-life situations such as racism and classism while presenting a genuine disapproval of the United States school system that postures many of the difficulties that educators in the classroom face. Furthermore, the participants during this training Phase will be required to develop a plan to create an environment that supports a culturally inclusive classroom.

Sports Participation and Social Theories

Athletic and sports programs at the high school level have grown exponentially popular over the last 35 years due to the money they generate from ticket sales, sale of team merchandise, concession revenue, and the personal identification, association, support, pride, and sociological ties the parents, boosters, and fans have to the team or school (Kaser & Oelkers, 2005). Social and Sports participation theorists for over 50 years have debated that sports participation is either good, has a positive impact on the student-athlete's academic achievement and adult success in life, or bad, causing the student-athlete to underperform academically, which negatively impacts his education and adult success in life. Social and Sports theorists who argued against sports participation having a positive impact on student-athletes' academic success, claimed that

sports participation is the leading cause for the downfall of the United States public school system's ability to compete globally with other nations in math, science, and technology (Dawkins et al., 2008; Herring, 2009; Woodruff & Schallert, 2008). Furthermore, anti-sports participation and social theorists argue that African-American male student-athletes are victimized by their own parents when they allow their children to emphasize athletics over academics (Edwards, 1986; Montgomery, 2010; Reeves, 2008). Social and sports participation theorists who advocate for athletic participation in schools, claimed that playing sports in school has an influential impact on student-athletes academic progress (Beamon, 2012) and adult success in life (Bechtol, 2001). Pro-social and sports participation theorists found in their research the following common characteristics, recurring themes, and personal traits in students who participated in athletics: they exercised regularly and had better health, experienced less depression, experimented less frequently with underage drinking, and recreational drug use, had clear and open communication habits that led to better relationships with their parents, had great classroom behavior and higher GPAs, achieved higher scores on standardized and ACT tests, had more involvement in other school extracurricular activities, had higher educational goals and aspirations to attend college, had stronger memory recall and concentration ability, had higher cognitive function and intellectual performance, had a stronger perception of personal worth, self-efficacy, and self-esteem, were less apt to miss school, experienced less disciplinary issues, had a strong ability to work well with others in groups and teams, and were able and more likely to use these characteristics to experience adult success in life (Beamon, 2012; Bechtol, 2001; Cooper, Valentine, Nye,

& Lindsey, 1999; Dawkins, Braddock, & Celaya, 2008; Eccles & Barber, 1999; Field, Diego, & Sanders, 2001; Fredricks & Eccles, 2006; Marsh & Kleitman, 2002; Trudeau & Shephard, 2008). African-American males are considered at-risk students and victims of unfair levels of disciplinary actions, suspensions, and expulsions taken against them (Boykin, 2000). According to research findings by Fredricks and Eccles (2006), Mahoney (2000), and Rashid (2009), playing sports in school reduces truancy, disciplinary issues, and problematic behavior in at-risk students. Sports participation and social theories are being used as professional development and training components because stakeholders need to know what social factors influence the educational achievement of African-American males at the SUS as well as the potential impact participating in sports could have on their educational achievement. All stakeholders who volunteer to participate in the CHAMPS after school academic enhancement program will have access to these tools, which will greatly benefit and enable them to design highly effective student learning strategies with desired out comes.

Designing Student Learning Outcomes

Preparing students for college and career readiness is the newly adopted philosophy of the NCLB legislation. All stakeholders should have a vested interest in preparing the students they serve and educate to become college and career ready. According to the ACT Report (2011), college and career readiness should be the major goal of all educational stakeholders. A major conflict educators at the SUS are having is in understanding, communicating with, and building positive and trusting relationships with the African-American male students. The aforementioned conflict coupled with high

teacher turnover rates, and an inability to motivate African-American males to maintain 2.0 or C averages, makes it extremely difficult for an educator to prepare them to successfully pass the ACT with an acceptable score of 21 or higher. At the SUS, the C average means the student-athlete is learning only 74% of the subject matter content. The highest score that a student can score on the ACT is a 36. Seventy-four percent of thirty-six equals twenty-six (36 * 74% = 26.6%). If an African-American male student-athlete at the SUS could score a 26, and maintain a C average over his high school career through graduation, it would be highly likely that he would be accepted to enter college. In contrast, based on a college and career readiness report conducted on the state of Kentucky in 2011, only 3% (3 out of 100) African-American students were considered college and career ready at graduation. On average, African-American males students score a 13 out of 36 points on the ACT, which means they are only able to recall 43% of the subject matter content they were taught over 2 – 3 years (ACT Profile Report, State, Kentucky, 2011). African-American male student-athletes, in order to achieve academic success, must develop the soft skills, self-determination, motivation, social integration, conflict resolution, and successful test taking strategies needed to meet the qualifications required to become college and career ready when they graduate (Walker, Fergus, & Bryant, 2012).

Desired learning outcomes are student driven and require the student to become involved in his learning experience by investing physical and psychological energy to his academic experience (Astin, 1984). The theories that will be used in the CHAMPS professional development training program to cover this component are the student

involvement development theory, traditional pedagogical theory, the subject matter theory, the resource theory, and the place of the theory of student involvement *(*Astin, 1984).

When teaching the student involvement development theory, I will train the stakeholders using these 5 concepts:

1. Student involvement requires them to invest physical and psychological energy to achieve a desired outcome or goal, such as, learning from an experience or, more specifically preparing for a statistics exam.
2. Student involvement occurs on a continuum basis, and different students will be at different continuum levels of involvement based on the amount of time, energy, and effort they invest in a given object.
3. Student involvement has both quantitative and qualitative features, which enables stakeholders to measure the extent of a student's involvement in his/her academic work. For example, time in hours or minutes a student spends studying can be quantitatively calculated. From a qualitative perspective student comprehension can be calculated by conducting reading assignment reviews and quizzing.
4. Student learning and personal development in conjunction with the educational program is directly proportionate to the amount of quality and quantity time a student spends involved in the program.
5. The effectiveness of any educational policy or practice is directly related to the capacity of that policy or practice to increase student involvement.

Concepts 4 and 5 are the key educational components associated with this theory because they provide the clues necessary for designing more effective educational programs with learning goals and desired learning outcomes for students (Astin, 1984).

The traditional pedagogical theory focuses on assessing if educational programs are translated into student achievement. Pedagogy methods, strategies, desired learning outcomes, exposure to subject matter content, and student involvement are input mechanisms and output mechanisms are achievement measurements such as GPAs and test scores. Input mechanisms are compared to output mechanisms to evaluate whether or not the pedagogy (teaching method or strategy, subject matter content, coupled with the students involvement) impacted the student's academic achievement (GPA scores, standardized test performance, ACT scores, etc.). The subject-matter theory works in conjunction with the traditional pedagogical theory in that both have a component that places a strong emphasis on measuring the significance of subject matter content exposure, student retention, and student recall ability of that knowledge.

The subject-matter theory of pedagogy also referred to as the content theory is very common with teachers because this theory poses that student knowledge and growth are largely associated with their introduction to the correct subject matter (Astin, 1984; Hochbert & Desimone, 2010). The subject matter theory appeals to the audio, visual, and kinesthetic learner. Proponents of the subject matter theory poses that the students learn audibly and visually by attending lectures, reading the textbook, and completing assignments. Furthermore, students learn kinesthetically through learning tools they

create themselves such as, oral and written presentations. Although the subject matter theory has some limitations, in that, it gives scholars a submissive role in the knowledge gaining process; students who are motivated and actively engaged in their learning manage to strive under this approach (Astin, 1984; Desimone, 2010; Walker & Greene, 2009). I am using this theory because students who immerse themselves in their learning environment become engaged; and, when they are engaged, they are forced to solve problems using their audio, visual, and bodily-kinesthetic critical thinking skills (Astin, 1984; Desimone, 2010; Walker & Greene, 2009).

The resource theory of pedagogy is highly favored by educational policy personnel and school administrators because of the resource component association connection to student learning. The resources represent and include the physical facilities such as, the school's libraries, laboratories, and computer labs, which are furnished with the computer hardware components and processing software required for the student to learn using technology (audiovisual aids, multimedia learning tools via written and text pictures, clipart, animations, demonstration and step-by-step/explanation videos, a mix of movie images, music, and sound bites), and other technology equipment such as, electronic portable devices such as, IPods, IPads, and cellular smart internet equipped phones (Astin, 1984; Mayer, 2005; Paas, Renkl, & Sweller, 2003). A second proponent of the resources includes the human resources, which are the school's highly skilled/trained faculty members, counselors, and support personnel. The last proponent of the resources is the fiscal resources such as, grants, funding, and financial aid provisions the school can use to offer extended educational achievement services to students. The

major philosophy behind the resource theory is that when these three proponents are brought together and utilized equally to achieve one common goal, student learning and development will occur. To a further extent, resource theory enables policy makers and administrators to measure student growth and learning because of resource use and provision on both a qualitative and quantitative level. Resource theory proponents are great tools to measure whether or not resource input and output mechanisms are having a positive or negative impact on the student's achievement. This enables policy makers and administrators to make well-informed decisions as to what programs they should fund, eliminate, and create to offer new programs and services to enhance student achievement.

The place of the theory of student involvement links the variables associated with the traditional pedagogical, subject matter, and research theories together by relating them to the "teacher and student's desired learning outcomes" (Astin, 1984, para. 3). In other words, the student's physical and psychological involvement (energy), investment (effort), and time must be sufficiently maximized to achieve the established desired learning and development outcomes (Astin, 1984; Paas, Camp, & Rikers, 2001; Van Gerven, 2002). According to Paas, Tuovinen, Tabbers, and Van Gerven (2003), Paas Tuovinen, Van Merriënboer, and Darabi (2005), and Astin (1984), in order for an instructional design to be effective, learners have to be self-motivated and willing to invest the mental effort, physical time, and energy required to achieve the desired learning outcome on a mastery level. The place of student involvement theory emphasizes active student learning, and active learning leads to life-long learning (Astin, 1984; Kornell & Bjork, 2007). The goal of instructional design, creating learning goals,

and establishing desired learning outcomes should be to produce learning opportunities that enable students to develop the motivation, knowledge, skill, competence, expertise, and attitude needed to become life-long learners (Kornell & Bjork, 2007). The primary focus of the professional development program CHAMPS is to increase knowledge as well as introduce, equip, prepare, and train all stakeholders at the SUS to use the aforementioned theories, teaching strategies, and methods in their classrooms to inspire African-American male student-athletes, followed by all students to become life-long learners at the local setting.

Implementation

CHAMPS will be physically located and take place at the local school setting, the SUS. There are two unique Phases of the CHAMPS program. The Professional Staff Development and Training Program (PSDTP) is the 1st Phase and the 2nd Phase is the CMTAEP.

The second Phase will not be implemented until after the PSDTP Phase is completed. The primary goal of the 1st Phase, will be focused on equipping, preparing, and teaching the SUS's stakeholders how to identify, understand, communicate with, build trusting relationships with, and effectively teach African-American male student-athletes based on their cultural differences, different learning styles, and social (negative or positive) influences. The main and first goal of CHAMPS is to improve the academic success of African-American Male Students at the SUS as measured by GPA's, standardized test and ACT scores, and an increased graduation rate, thereby increasing their subsequent matriculation rate into college. The second goal of CHAMPS, if

successful, is to offer these services to all students who want to improve their academic success and become college and career ready.

Potential Resources and Existing Supports

The resources needed to implement the CHAMPS program and its 2 Phases were simple. I requested that both Phases of the CHAMPS professional and staff development programs be offered at the SUS. The administrative and support staff granted me the permission to use all of the technology (lab/classroom computers) and equipment (copiers, projection and sound systems) as needed to provide the development. Further support items granted for me to use were copiers, paper, 3 ring binders, folders, and other additional hard copy and computer generated reports and materials needed to provide the professional development materials.

Potential Barriers

Potential Barriers to completing (Phase 1) PSDTP will derive primarily from three areas; scheduling conflicts with computer labs and room availability, participant stakeholders such as coaches, mentors, teachers, peer tutors, and parents having other priorities and obligations, and unforeseen events such as inclement weather. Furthermore, if the stakeholder and participants are larger in number than thirty participants, they may use their personal technology devices to participate in the professional development and training because the school is Wi-Fi capable. Although these barriers exists, they can easily be overcome through strategic planning, effective two-way communication, using personal computers, and other alternative technological methods such as skype to teach, deliver, learn, and receive the professional development needed to implement the

CHAMPS (Phase 1) training. I do not foresee any potential barriers to the implementation of Phase 2 that are different from Phase 1.

Time Implementation (Phase 1)

The time implementation of the program will start and end in week one of October 2015 of the 2015 – 2016 academic school year. The Professional Development and Training Program will be scheduled to take place over 3 full days, 8 hours each day, totaling 24 hours of professional development credit. The 3 days will be broken into 6 modules and 9 sessions. Day one will cover modules 1-3 and training sessions 1- 6. Day two will cover modules 4 and 5 and training sessions 7-1 -- 8-2. Day 3 will cover module 6 and training sessions 9-1 – 9-4. Each day will begin at 8:00 a.m., contain a lunch break from 12:00 noon to 1:00 p.m., and end at 4:20 p.m. Stakeholders will complete 5 major training components (cultural competency and inclusion, social factors and the achievement gap, sports participation and social theories, student learning styles, and designing student learning outcomes) during the Phase one training. After stakeholders complete this training, they should feel confident and equipped with the practical tools needed to facilitate student learning that leads to higher retention rates, lower dropout rates, improved scores on standardized tests and college entrance exams (ACT), increased graduation rates, and matriculation to college for African-American males.

During day 1, in modules 1-3 and sessions 1-6, the stakeholders will be introduced, immersed, and trained to use The Cross Model of Cultural Competence and inclusion in their teaching pedagogy and classrooms by completing real-world scenarios, exercises, and diversity-training lesson plans to solve real-life cultural problems that exist

in schools today. Sessions 1 and 2 will focus primarily on introducing the stakeholders to cultural competency inclusion and diversity. Furthermore, the participants will complete lessons that will enable them to secure information that builds their knowledge and awareness to implement cultural diversity and inclusion practices in their everyday working environments. Session 3 of Module 1, will focus on having the participants complete individual Cultural Competency Self-Assessment Questionnaires (see Appendices B-E) to measure their individual experiences, inclusion, knowledge, and practice of cultural competency and diversity in their personal work settings. In module 2 and session 4, participants will watch a video by Lee Mun Wah, called, "If These Halls Could Talk". The purpose of the video is to show and give the participants an in-depth look at the effect of not using cultural inclusion and diversity in their classroom environments on a student's learning experience. After screening the video, participants will be asked to participate in a guided discussion, several self-reflection exercises, and some group activities focused on implementing culturally diverse practices in their work environments. Module 3 and sessions 5 & 6 will cover the 6 stages of the "Cross Model". Session 5 will cover the 1st 3 stages, cultural destructiveness, incapacity, and blindness. Participants will be asked to engage themselves in varying exercises, activities, and lessons that require them to role-play and become characters in the learning environment to better identify with and experience the subject matter content in a personal manner. Session 6 will cover the 2nd 3 stages, cultural pre-competence, basic cultural competence, and advanced cultural competence. Participants will be asked to repeat what they did in session 5, in order to relate more personally to the subject matter content.

On day 2, modules 4 & 5, and sessions 7-1 – 8-2, the participants will be introduced to Kunjufu's student learning styles and the social factors and achievement gaps that are associated with the African-American male's educational process. Session 7-1, will focus on introducing participants to African-American male learning styles and teaching them how to develop useful methods and strategies to educate African-American males more effectively by incorporating their learning styles into their educational plans. Session 7-2, will cover Kunjufu's (2010) Understanding African-American Learning Styles and Kunjufu's (2009) Educational Strategies to Teach Children of Color. These resources will be used as the primary training materials to teach this session. In this session, stakeholders will use the exercises, strategies, and tools they have learned to create and implement lesson plans that are culturally inclusive, respect the different learning styles of African-American males, incorporate scaffolding, technology, and differentiated instruction to teach subject matter content to African-American males in their classrooms. Sessions 8-1 and 8-2 will focus on covering an abbreviated version of the social factors and achievement gap data that influence African-American males in education. Session 8-1 will cover and discuss the social factors that are associated with African-American males' academic underachievement such as being considered endangered and at-risk educational low-achievers due to parental involvement or a lack there of, and less-than because of lower socioeconomic status, or a statistic in our penal system. The stakeholders, during this Phase, will be required to face their own inner prejudices, biased thinking, and erroneous cultural beliefs about other races of people by participating in a cultural immersion activity. After completion of the cultural

plunge activity, the stakeholders will be required to explain what they have learned and how they plan to eliminate biased thinking in the future through completing a self-reflection activity. In session 8-2, participants will be asked to design a plan for a classroom environment that is culturally diverse and inclusive for all students to learn. They will also be required to design lesson plans that take into consideration the social factors, achievement gaps, the socioeconomic status, and African-American males learning styles, for practical use and implementation in their real classroom environments.

On day 3, module 6, and sessions 9-1 – 9-4, the stakeholders will be introduced to the 5 theories for desired student learning outcomes and an abbreviated coverage of the sports participation and social theories associated with sports participation being either influential or detrimental to an African-American male's academic success. Session 9-1 will cover the 1st 3 theories, which are student involvement theory, research/content theory, and the traditional pedagogical theory. Session 9-2 will cover the last 2 theories, which are the traditional pedagogical theory and the place of the development of the student involvement theory. Session 9-3 will focus on the sports participation and social theories that are associated with African-American male student-athletes. Many anti-sports and social theorists argue that sports participation is a detriment to and has a negative impact on the academic success of African-American males (Coleman, 1961; Cotton, 1996). They further contended that as African-American male student-athletes start to gain notoriety and become socially recognized in the community for the sport they play, they will choose to adopt the identity most associated with sports stardom over

being recognized as students who are high academic achievers (Herring, 2009; Marsh & Kleitman, 2002; Streich, 2009; Woodruff & Schallert, 2008). Pro-sports and social theorists, however, argued that participating in sports has a positive impact on the African-American male student-athlete's academic success (Beamon, 2012; Bechtol, 2001; Butler, 2007; Fox, Barr-Anderson, & Neumark-Sztainer, 2010). Session 9-4 is the final training component. A major focus of using this training component is to make learners aware of the two different conflicts of thought that argue for and against sports participation and the social theory factors impacting the academic success of African-American males at the SUS. Having these two frames of thought to work from will enable the stakeholders to formulate their own opinions and decide for themselves how they will use these conflicts to help, prepare, and educate African-American males in both their individual classrooms and as participants in Phase 2 of the CHAMPS program. Session 9-4 concludes the last module of Phase 1. In the closing session of 9-4's training, the participants will be asked to complete a practical application exercise that will demonstrate their knowledge, understanding, and mastery of the professional development and training by completing an assignment that requires them to write a plan describing how they plan to identify, communicate with, build relationships with, motivate, challenge, and empower African-American males at the local school setting to achieve academic success.

After the PSDTP (Phase 1) is completed and approved, a room in the SUS will be identified and assigned to implement Phase 2 of the CHAMPS program. Phase 2, which is the Coaching, Mentoring, and Teaching African-American Male Student-Athlete

Academic Enhancement Program CMTAEP, will replace the SUS's mandatory sports-participation study hall. The SUS's sports participation study hall offered the student-athlete only 2 days of tutorial services; Monday and Thursday's from 3:30 p.m. to 5:00 p.m., which totaled only 3 hours per week of academic tutorial services. Furthermore, student-athletes were no longer required or encouraged to participate in the program once their sport season ended. The CMTAEP will be offered 3 times per week (Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday) for 2 hours a day, totaling 6 hours of additional academic exposure per week. The CMTAEP program will be offered year round for all African-American male student-athletes during their sports season and after their sport season ends. It is strictly voluntary, but will be highly advertised and encouraged by all stakeholders at the SUS, for African-American male student-athletes to attend. Once deemed a success, all student-athletes, and all students regardless of gender and race will be welcomed to participate. Phase 2 will be centrally located at the SUS and take place in a lab specifically designated for its use.

Roles and Responsibilities of Students and Others

The CMTAEP (Phase 2) will be focused on assigning the voluntary stakeholders and other participants their roles in the coaching, mentoring, tutoring, facilitating, and peer tutor roles. The anticipated month and year of implementation for Phase 2 will be January 2016. Administrators will be assigned facilitator, disciplinary, and coaching roles. Coaches who are not working in their sport season will serve as student coaches, mentors, and tutors. Teachers and other faculty members who have the subject matter expertise and knowledge will serve as subject matter coaches, mentors, and tutors. All in-

house stakeholders (administrators, coaches, mentors, tutors) who agree to participate in the program will be paid a biweekly stipend for their time commitment. Students who are gifted and talented or extremely smart in a particular subject(s) will be assigned peer tutor roles. Parents and stakeholders who are business owners/professionals in the community, local college and university professors, law enforcement, military, and medical professionals who want to volunteer and can pass the law enforcement back ground checks will be invited to contribute their expertise to the success of the African-American male student-athletes' success at the SUS. The academic and professional services that will be offered in Phase 2 of CHAMPS will be concentrated toward teaching African-American males successful test taking strategies (all content areas and standardized), reading and writing comprehension skill, on-demand and creative writing strategies, technology and social network etiquette, career portfolio, networking, and job research preparation, fundamentals of engineering, math, and science technology, financial literacy, banking, investment, insurance, family, and consumer life skills, ACT preparation, and college preparedness.

Project Evaluation

The effectiveness of the project study is outcome based, because the researcher will be able to identify whether or not the SUS's African-American male student-athletes are attending the CMTAEP, and as a result, experiencing academic success based upon their sustained 2.0 or improved GPA scores after the season ended, scores on state mandated standardized tests, and ACT scores. Further outcome-based indicators that will be used as tools to monitor the effectiveness of the CMTAEP are African-American male

improved graduation rates, decreased dropout rates, increased attendance, decreased disciplinary referrals and suspensions, and matriculation into college. A justification for using an outcome-based evaluation plan to measure my professional development training program's effectiveness is that, using this plan effectiveness can be quantitatively measured. A student participant's invested time participating in an educational enhancement program, exposure to the right subject matter content, coupled with his receiving a direct learning outcome, represent input mechanisms that can be measured quantitatively. Student grades (improved and/or sustained GPAs), standardized tests and ACT results, improved graduation, decreased dropout rates, and improved matriculation rates into college; represent output mechanisms that can be measured quantitatively. Astin (1984), followed by Paas, Camp, and Rikers (2001), similarly claimed that when input mechanisms, such as time invested, are mathematically compared to output mechanisms, such as improved GPAs; a program's effectiveness can be measured. The key stakeholders that will receive the Staff Development and Training Program evaluation effectiveness information will be the vested in-house stakeholders (administrators, counselors, academic dean, teachers, coaches, and mentors). This evaluation effectiveness information will be made available for them to review on a monthly basis and/or when a student-athlete is scheduled to take a college and career readiness exam and/or achieves an academic goal, for example, passes the College Placement Tests (COMPASS), which is a standardized test the student is required to take his freshman year. The Practice ACT-American College Test (PACT) is a standardized test the student is required to take his sophomore year, and, is a precollege and career

readiness exam. The ACT – is a required exam the student-athlete must take his junior year that qualifies him as being college ready if he passes all of the subject matter test sections. Finally, the KYOTE (Kentucky Online Testing Exam), which is an exam the student-athlete can take and use to pass a section of the ACT that he failed to become college ready. The vested stakeholders and the parents of the student-athletes will also be provided career-readiness, evaluation information on the performance and achievement status of their child's Kentucky Occupational Skills Assessment Test (KOSSA) and Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB) tests. The aforementioned tests are used to qualify students as being career ready who are career and technical education and Junior Reserve Officer's Training Corps (JROTC) majors. This evaluation effectiveness information will be made available for all vested stakeholders to track the progress of the student-athletes academic success in each course and yearly mandated standardized tests for his grade level throughout the year on a monthly basis. Each of the aforementioned outcome-based evaluation performance measures will be established as the written goals used to monitor the effectiveness of the CHAMPS Phase 2 professional staff and development program on a continuous basis.

Implications Including Social Change

Local Community

The CHAMPS Professional Staff and Development Training Program is designed to accomplish two major Phases at the local school setting. The first Phase is school improvement focused on and directly related to preparing stakeholders to be participants and social change agents in the implementation of the second Phase of the CHAMPS

program called CMTAEP. Darling-Hammond and Richardson (2009) and Schmoker (2006) purported that staff development should be aligned to a school's improvement plan to ensure that newly designed student educational improvement programs will be financed and supported by educational policy makers. Phase 2 of the CMTAEP Professional Staff Development and Training Program was carefully designed to include professionals, people in the community, and parents as vested partners, coaches, mentors, teachers, and facilitators in the implementation and operation of the program. Reeves (2010) claimed schools that have strong community, professional, and parental participation in their academic programs are the schools that will experience high academic achievement amongst their students in the 21st century. A major goal of the SUS is to teach and prepare students to become college and career ready in order to compete in the global workforce of the 21st century.

Far-Reaching

The CHAMPS Professional Staff Development and Training Program (Phase 1) will be offered on a continuous basis at least once a year to interested stakeholders to ensure that the CMTAEP (Phase 2) PSDTP has qualified coaches, mentors, teachers, tutors, and facilitators to run the program on a yearly basis. According to McCoog (2008) and Muhammad (2009), students, in order to compete in the 21st century global society, must be taught with lessons that use rigor, relevance, real-world simulation, and multiple forms of computer technology, in order for them to be successful. The ultimate goal of designing and implementing both Phases of the CHAMPS PSDTP was to create a social change program at the local school level that could have implications to improve the

African-American male student-athlete's academic achievement both now and in the future. If the CHAMPS program becomes a success, the program will be offered to all students at the SUS to help them become college and career ready. The CHAMPS PSDTP is designed with the intent that the program will be run and operated on an annual basis long after the creator of the program retires. In the field of education, new challenges arise every day. The CHAMPS PSDTP will be continuously updated and modified to fulfill the needs of the stakeholders who serve as the coaches, mentors, tutors, facilitators, and leaders of the program. The services offered to the students will be modified and updated as well to meet their needs to become college and career ready.

Conclusion

The SUS is a title 1 and urban designated school that is making an honest effort to help all of its students reach its college and career readiness benchmarks. The CMTAEP (Phase 2) of the CHAMPS program will be the only program offered that will be focused on the academic needs of African-American male student-athletes. Walker, Fergus, and Bryant (2012) believe that academic programs with standards that can be measured should be implemented for African-American males at schools that are failing to educate them on the same levels of equality as their other students. African-American boys who are not fairly and equitably educated now do not stand a chance to experience adult success in the 21st century global society (Tsoi-A-Fatt, 2010). The CHAMPS program was created with the intent to be included in the section of the schools improvement plan that is focused on helping African-American males improve their academic achievement. Furthermore, the CHAMPS program when fully implemented will be beneficial for all

stakeholders at the local school setting because it will enable everyone to work as members on a team to accomplish the school's goals. The acronym T. E. A. M. means together everyone achieves more.

Section 4 contains the project's reflection, including its strengths, recommendations for remediation limitations, scholarship, development of the project study and evaluation, leadership and change, analysis of self as a scholar, practitioner, and project developer, project's potential impact on social change, implications, applications, and directions for future research, and conclusion.

Section 4: Reflections and Conclusions

Introduction

This research study was performed to explore if a correlation existed between hours of sports participation and the earned average GPA for African-American male student-athletes at the SUS. After reviewing the African-American males' GPAs from the 2012-2013 academic school year, both when they participated in a sport and when their sport season ended, I realized that the African-American male student-athletes were able to maintain or improve their GPAs to become eligible to play their sport. A major reason why they were able to continue playing sports dependent on maintaining a "C" average was because they were required to attend a mandatory study hall that enabled them to focus on their academics through being tutored, allotted more time to complete homework, and make up quizzes and exams. The aforementioned academic student-athlete study hall was a major influence in my creating the two-phased CHAMPS program.

Project Strengths

The major strengths of this project are four fold; in addition, all stakeholders will play a major role in its success. According to Putnam and Borko (2000), "The physical and social contexts in which an activity takes place is an integral part of the activity, and the activity is an integral part of the learning that takes place within it" (p. 4). Putnam and Borko further claimed that stakeholders must be put in a situation and a place that is fundamentally conducive for them to learn and develop certain knowledge and skills. Brown et al. (1989) posited that it takes all personnel participating in a training and staff

development process to make that process effective. Lave and Wenger (1991) and Greeno et al. (1998) agreed with Brown et al.'s research findings. The first strength of the projects success will be its stakeholders (administrators, faculty, staff, parents, community leaders, business owners, and professionals). They will be asked to contribute to the CHAMPS second phase's implementation and operation because they received the professional development and training required to serve as the coaches, mentors, tutors, and facilitators of the process, which makes them an integral part of the program's success (Brown et al., 1989; Greeno et al., 1998; Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Second, the in-house administrators, faculty, and staff will be trained, equipped, and prepared to use cultural inclusion in their work environments (office and classrooms) and teaching strategies to better serve African-American male student-athletes. According to Douglas et al. (2008) and Kunjufu (2010), 83% of classroom educators in the United States are White females. White female teachers find it hard to identify with African-American male students because they cannot connect and relate to African-American males' cultural differences and societal and in-home environmental issues to build working/teaching relationships with them, nor understand that African-American males have different learning styles (Anthony et al., 2007; Neblett et al., 2009). Cultural competence inclusion is a major strength of this project because it will enable the stakeholders from the professional development and training program to use acquired knowledge, awareness, and skills, to take action, and to implement diversity practice in their individual work settings, classrooms, and within the organization as a whole (Cross, 1988; Sullivan, 2010). Furthermore, Kenyatta (2012) posited that stakeholders should be

professionally developed, trained, and equipped to understand both the positive and negative social factors that affect the African-American male student's ability, willingness, and desire to learn. Harradine et al. (2014) claimed that identifying and learning the negative factors that cause African-American males to struggle in school is important, but it is of greater importance to know what teaching methods, strategies, and practices are most effective in helping them experience greater academic success.

A third strength of the project is that the stakeholders (administrators, teachers, and staff) will be taught strategies to build believing relationships with the African-American male students through obtaining an understanding of their cultural differences and through using the societal factors that impact their learning to create and implement varying methods of teaching delivery to address and appeal to their different styles of learning. All stakeholders who volunteer to participate in the CHAMPS after school academic enhancement program will have access to these tools, which will greatly benefit and enable them to design highly effective student learning strategies with desired out comes (Kober, 2010; Kunjufu, 2010; Murphy, 2010; Walker et al., 2012). According to Kunjufu (2010), when designing lesson plans for African-American male students, teachers should use varying styles of teaching strategies such as differentiated instruction, scaffolding, and lessons involving technology because African-American males learn more effectively when they are assigned lessons that require them to be active and use their motor (physical) skills. All stakeholders through the CHAMPS professional development and training program will be taught how to use differentiated and scaffolding instructional methods to better teach African-American male students.

The fourth and final strength of the project is that the stakeholders through the professional development and training program will be shown and learn strategies that will enable them to implement and practice cultural competence and diversity inclusion in their work settings (Kenyatta, 2012). The purpose of this training is to help them overcome their own prejudices, biased thinking, and stereotyping to teach students who come from single parented homes, lower socioeconomic backgrounds, and who are considered at-risk (Greene & Winters, 2006; Rashid, 2009; Worley, 2007). Furthermore, teachers will learn how to implement and incorporate varying teaching methods at the same time, such as differentiation coupled with active participatory learning strategies (students learn by immersing themselves in the learning environment--seeing, touching, feeling, hearing, experimenting, and self-reflection analysis--and scaffolding, coupled with computer technology. Scaffolding and computer technology will be used to teach lessons that require the student to actively participate by performing step-by-step instructions to complete learning stages that lead to mastery of the subject matter content (Kunjufu, 2010; Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011). Lastly, all stakeholders in both the school and community will work together to implement a program that will have a positive impact on closing achievement gaps as well as improving the academic success of African-American male student-athletes at the SUS (Brown et al., 1989; Greeno et al., 1998; Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Limitations of the Project and Recommendation for Their Remediation

This project's major limitation is that the African-American male student-athletes are initially the only benefactors of this CHAMPS project. Therefore, if the program fails

to succeed with improving the academic achievement of African-American male student-athletes at the SUS, the other students regardless of race, gender, and socioeconomic status will not be given an opportunity to benefit from the CHAMPS project. African-American males at the SUS, when their sport season ended, were no longer required to attend the mandatory after school student-athlete academic study hall. Not having to attend the academic study hall when their sport season ended had a strong negative impact on the African-American male student-athletes' academic success and sustainment of 2.0 GPAs. According to McCoog (2008), Muhammad (2009), and Walker et al. (2012), students must be consistently challenged academically to make them hungry to learn. Coaches who lead fall and spring semester sports programs must, therefore, continue to collaborate with teachers and with their athletes when the season is over to help their student-athletes continue experiencing academic success throughout the year (Lias, Krivak-Fowler, Holdam, & Maxwell, 2005). Unfortunately, coaches at the SUS do not now continue this practice, which has caused many of their senior student-athletes GPAs to fall under the minimum 2.0 GPA. Furthermore, this issue has caused many of the ninth through 11th grade African-American male student-athletes to experience the same academic problems. The aforementioned problems are the catapult that inspired me to develop the CHAMPs Professional Staff Development and Training Program. The implementation of the Phase 2 CHAMPs program, CMTAEP, will afford the African-American male student-athletes a means to continue and sustain their academic success by offering them coaching, mentoring, tutoring, ACT preparation, reading and

comprehension, and successful test taking strategies that could lead to improving their graduation rates and matriculation into college.

A possible successful remediation to overcome limitation one would be to make attendance of the CMTAEP mandatory for all African-American male student-athletes in Grades 9 to 11 for participation when their sport season ends. This will require all stakeholders who are vested in the CHAMPS program to be in one accord. The Site Based Decision Making Council (SBDM) approved the mandatory in-season athletic sports participation study hall at the SUS. Hence, the administrators, coaches, mentors, tutors, and teachers would have to present the CMTAEP to the SBDM council. The SBDM council has the approval power to make the CMTAEP mandatory for participation for underclassmen African-American male student-athletes. If the program proves to be a success for the African-American male student-athletes, then the CMTAEP program would be extended to all students, and, thus, be used to improve the academic success of all students at the local school setting on a yearly continuous basis. The parental stakeholders of the student-athletes will also play a major role in the CMTAEPs mandatory implementation. Letters will be drafted to the parental stakeholders to ask their permission for their child to attend a mandatory 3 day a week 2-hour a day after-school academic enhancement program. The parents will be informed that their child will receive coaching, mentoring, expert subject matter content tutoring, and be equipped with the academic tools that will enable him to become a better student, improve his academic success (GPAs, standardized test performance, ACT scores), and, thus, help him graduate from high school qualified as being college and career ready. The

parents will also be notified that the CMTAEP will be offered at the same time that the student-athlete would normally be practicing and would not require them to make any unnecessary changes to their work or daily schedules or routines. Having mandatory participation of the CMTAEP would enable all stakeholders to see the program's effectiveness and success or lack thereof. The federal government (Reeves, 2010) continuously funds successful afterschool academic educational enhancement programs. Furthermore, due to the SUS being a Title 1 school, monetary support is made readily available for after school academic enhancement programs (U.S. Department of Education, 2004).

A second major limitation of the CHAMPS project is that it is voluntary and not mandatory. If the African-American male student-athletes decide not to participate in the CMTAEP, it is highly likely that their academic problems at the SUS will continue. Their lack of participation in the program could be a contributing factor to the program being shut down altogether, and as a result of the project being eliminated, no other students will be given the opportunity to receive the academic enhancement benefits (Barak, Gidron, & Turniansky, 2010; Desimone, 2009; U. S. Department of Education, 2010). A possible remediation for this second limitation would be to invite all of the coaches of the sports and academic teams to serve as coaches in the CMTAEP. Each of the coaches will be asked to meet with his/her African-American male student-athletes to introduce to them this new academic program. Each coach will be given a pamphlet of the academic services that will be offered in the program and a job description of the role that the coach will have in the program. The coaches will be asked to recruit, motivate, empower,

and highly encourage all of their African-American male student-athletes in the offseason of their sport to participate in the CMTAEP. The coaches will sell the CMTAEP to the student-athlete by identifying how the program will enable him to improve his academics and educational success that could lead to his graduating from high school college and career ready and being offered an athletic/academic scholarship from a college or university in the future. According to the U. S. Department of Education (2010), if one student benefits and succeeds from attending an afterschool academic program CMTAEP or extracurricular activity, it is highly likely that more students will show interest in that program or activity and participation will increase. Furthermore, all administrators, counselors, and teachers at the SUS will promote and encourage their African-American male student-athletes to participate in the CMTAEP.

A third limitation of the project is the recruitment of administrators, teachers, staff, coaches, mentors, tutors, and community leaders to participate in the program. If the in-house stakeholders do not support or fail to participate in the program's implementation and recruitment of students, parents, coaches, mentors, tutors, facilitators, and community volunteers to run the program, the program will not survive (Barak et al., 2010; Desimone, 2009). A possible remediation for Limitation 3 would be to make the CHAMPS professional development and training program a mandatory certification that all administrators, faculty, and staff must have to work at the SUS. Each semester at the SUS, all administrators, faculty, and staff must complete 24 mandatory hours of professional development and training. A secondary remedy for this limitation would be to give the participating administrators, teachers, and staff permission to count

the hours they spend serving as a coaches, mentors, tutors, or facilitators in the CMTAEP toward the completion of their required professional development and training hours for each semester. After these hours of professional development are recorded as completed, all stakeholders will be paid a bi-weekly monetary stipend for their participation in the program. Making the CHAMPS professional development and training program a mandatory certification for all administrators, faculty, and staff and paying them a monetary stipend to participate in the CMTAEP could be very beneficial to the program's continued existence.

A fourth and final limitation of the project is asking the question, "What will happen to the CHAMPS project at the SUS if it is successful but runs out of Title 1 funding coverage to pay the stipends of its in-house stakeholders?" A possible remedy for this limitation would be to make participating in the CHAMPS professional development and training program (Phase 1 and 2) mandatory for all new administrators, faculty (1-3 years of experience in education), and staff at the SUS. All first and second year teachers in the state of Kentucky must pass the Kentucky Teacher's Internship Program (KTIP) in order to earn their qualifications to be hired and receive their professional certificates to teach in the state. In order to pass the KTIP, each teacher must either create a professional development training for all school in-house stakeholders in which to participate, join a leadership committee and co-chair it, and/or participate in an after school extracurricular club or academic program. The SUS has weekly scheduled mandatory professional development trainings for first year and new administrators, teachers, and staff. The CHAMPS program could be added to the professional development they receive weekly.

Furthermore, completing Phase 1 of the training and serving in Phase 2's operation as a coach, mentor, tutor, or facilitator would enable the new teacher to successfully fulfill a major KTIP qualification. By implementing this remedy, not all new first and second year teachers would have to be paid a monetary stipend for their participation and service to the CMTAEP. This would save a good deal of Title 1 funding that could be used toward paying stakeholders that are more experienced for their participation in the program.

Recommendations for Ways to Address the Problem Differently

There are several ways that this problem could be addressed differently. However, I believe the easiest way to address this problem would have been to make attending the sports academic study hall mandatory year round for all student-athletes in grades 9-12 who have GPAs below 2.0 and who have not passed the NCLB college and career readiness benchmarks. African-American male student-athletes as well as all other student-athletes at the SUS were required, during their sport season to mandatorily attend the sports academic after school study hall. Due to attending this study hall, the African-American male student-athletes were able to keep their GPAs at a 2.0 or higher during the season, which enabled them to stay eligible for sports participation. After the season ended, the student-athletes were no longer required to attend the sports after school study hall, in which many of the African-American male student-athletes grades fell below the minimum 2.0 GPA. Furthermore, there was a very high attrition rate with teachers who served as subject matter experts and tutors in the study hall program. Participation of the stakeholders was voluntary and they were not given any incentive such as a monetary

stipend or professional development credit to serve in the sports academic study hall program. A majority of the coaches who taught English, math, science, social studies, and business courses served as the tutors in the sports academic study hall during the season. The other teachers who served as tutors in the program did so voluntarily because they wanted to contribute to the student-athletes' academic success. I believe the CHAMPS professional development and training program is a great idea that will contribute to the success of the SUS's goal of closing achievement gaps and improving the academic success of its African-American male student-athletes. However, this problem could have been simply solved by making the sports academic study hall program mandatory year round for all student-athletes in grades 9–12. The SBDM council could easily revote, change the policy, and make attending the after school sports study hall mandatory for all underclassmen student-athletes year round. Furthermore, the sports academic study hall was available to all athletes regardless of race and gender. It was proven to be successful and the services could easily be converted to an after school Extended School Service program (ESS) for all other students at the SUS to use. In order to equate the after school sports mandatory study hall to the CMTAEP, I would add an additional day of service (3, M, T, Th) to the two days currently offered, and, provide more extensive academic enhancement services such as, coaching, mentoring, tutoring, ACT preparation, reading and comprehension training, career preparation and research strategies, and successful standardized test taking strategies that could lead to improving the student-athletes' graduation rates and matriculation into college. To overcome the high attrition rate of teachers who participated in the program, I would ask the administration to allot and

dedicate Title 1 monetary support to all teachers (coaches, mentors, tutors) by paying them a stipend every two weeks for their services to the sports academic study hall program. Furthermore, I would ask that any time spent in excess over their time commitment to the sports academic study hall be accounted as credit toward the completion of their professional development hours.

Scholarship

A major step to complete the scholarship of this study included understanding the needs of the African-American male student-athletes (targeted participants), rationale of the issue, data analysis, and literature review. All stakeholders (administrators, faculty, staff, parents, professionals, and community leaders) will all be included and involved in the progress of this study. Each individual person will play a vital role in the implementation and operation of the CMTAEP (Phase 2) CHAMPS program. The data analysis and results of the correlations run (5 total) did not produce evidence that I could use to argue that a strong enough statistically significant relationship existed between the African-American male student-athletes' time spent participating in sports during a season or academic year was correlated to his earned average GPA. However, after conducting further research on how the African-American male student-athletes were able to maintain 2.0 sport eligible GPAs, I was encouraged to create an after school academic enhancement coaching, mentoring, and tutoring program to help African-American male student-athletes continue experiencing academic success after their sport season ended.

The knowledge I gained from conducting this study at the local school setting (Title 1 urban inner city school) and on a state and national level, has made me realize that African-American males all across the country experience the same educational setbacks (lowest academic performers in school, most special education referrals, highest suspension, expulsion, and dropout rates) in education (Cokley & McClain, 2011). Their educational plight has made me more sensitive, empathetic, and eager to develop a solution to help them overcome their educational challenges (Cokley & McClain, 2011). The scholarship received from conducting this research helped me develop a two Phased Professional Staff Development and Training Program, CHAMPS, to address a gap in practice that all stakeholders needed to be made aware of to help them better serve, equip, teach, coach, mentor, and prepare African-American males, "at-risk," lower socioeconomic, and other ethnic disadvantaged students at the SUS.

Project Development and Evaluation

The CHAMPS project was developed to accomplish two major goals. The first goal (Phase 1 - PSDTP) was developed to equip, prepare, and teach the stakeholders at the SUS how to better serve, prepare, and teach African-American males. I learned during the creation of Phase 1 that the most accurate way to evaluate its effectiveness with the stakeholders would be to incorporate academic teaching and training strategies that would enable the stakeholders to identify both their strengths and weaknesses and effective and ineffective teaching practices in relation to African-American male student-athletes. By identifying the aforementioned practices, the stakeholders could use self-reflection journals and logs to record their best and most ineffective teaching strategies to

make adjustments and modifications to their lesson plans. This practice would enable them to use, knowingly and consistently, effective teaching techniques in their lessons. I learned the best method to ensure that stakeholders' experience success in Phase 1 of the CHAMPS program is to teach them how to be culturally competent, identify the social factors that cause African-American males to accept or reject education, to identify and understand African-American males different learning styles, and how to create reachable learning outcomes.

Through the staff professional development and training program – Phase 1, the stakeholders will be introduced to their roles (coaches, mentors, tutors, facilitators) in which they will serve in the second Phase of the CHAMPS program. The second goal (Phase 2 – CMTAEP) was created and developed to help African-American male student-athletes, through coaching, mentoring, tutoring, and other academic preparation services, maintain and improve their academic achievement, earn higher GPAs, improve their graduation rates, earn higher scores on ACT exams, standardized tests, and matriculate into college. The implementation and operation of the second Phase of the CHAMPS professional development after school academic enhancement program will take a team effort (Costley, 2013). Administrators, coaches, mentors, tutors, peer-tutors, facilitators, community professionals (doctors, business owners, firemen, policemen, etc.) and college/university professors and specialists will be assigned their roles and work closely with our "in-house" stakeholders (administrators, coaches, and teachers) to accomplish our goal to improve the academic success of African-American male student-

athletes at the local school setting. Conducting this project study confirmed that the school administrative leaders (stakeholders) were not giving the faculty the freedom to evaluate, review, reflect, develop their own and/or adjust the professional development they received to align their staff development to the school's goals.

Furthermore, I learned through this project study experience, that the administrative stakeholders were not providing a risk-free environment for their faculty to feel comfortable, encouraged, and empowered to reflect and examine their own professional growth, or, to a further extent, seek professional development opportunities that would enable them to select staff development to better serve their students' academic needs (Spanneut, 2010). In conjunction with Spanneut, Costley (2013) purported that administrators needed to support their teachers in the process of making social change. Costley claimed that leadership is responsible for training teachers, making them feel confident, and preparing them to make social changes at their school. Costley further claimed that, as teachers become competent through training, they will become teacher leaders in instruction, developing the capability to make changes in student learning. Conducting this project study is what encouraged me to create CHAMPs, which is aligned in accordance to NCLB laws and the new college and career readiness goals of the state and local school setting. I learned through the planning process of this project that the most effective way to evaluate the strengths, weaknesses, success, and failure of the CMTAEP program would be to use the NCLB college and career readiness benchmarks. The newly established college and career readiness

benchmarks at the local school setting will be the standards used to evaluate the success and/or failure of the CHAMPS professional staff development and training program.

According to Love, Stiles, Mundry, and DiRanna (2008) academic programs CHAMPS data (established benchmarks) should be examined and evaluated to identify if the program will be a strength or weakness to the student's academic needs. To a further extent the academic program should be evaluated based upon the student's academic performance after he has received the coaching, mentoring, tutoring, ACT preparation, test taking enhancement strategies, and other academic development and enhancement tools offered by the program (Nunnaley, 2013). An accurate and thorough evaluation of the CHAMPS CMTAEP program will be conducted after the first full semester it is implemented at the local school setting. Testing students for college and career readiness benchmarks starts in the student's freshman year and continues through his senior year or until he achieves all of the benchmark goals. After Spring break of the student's second semester, an evaluation of the student's performance will be conducted again and measured against the established benchmarks for college and career readiness. The NCLB benchmarks for college and career readiness for Math is a 19, English is 18, Reading is 20, and Science is 21. The evaluation of the program's success will take place twice each year. This evaluation plan will enable me to measure the success or failure (impact) that the program is having on the student's academic performance. Furthermore, evaluating the program on a semester to semester level over the four years of the

student's career will enable me to make adjustments and modifications to the training the student receives to meet his academic needs.

By evaluating the program twice a year via both semesters, I will be able to keep track of the student's accomplishments of the benchmarks on a semester and year-to-year basis. If the student reaches the benchmark scores, the program would be evaluated as an *indirect* strength and success to the student's academic performance. In the final analysis, a student's progress depends *directly* on the time and effort the student invests himself. Evaluation of the CHAMPS program will begin during the student's freshman year and continue to his senior year. In the second semester of the student's senior year, a final evaluation of the program's success or failure will be conducted. If the student reaches all of the benchmark scores and is designated as being college and career ready, the program will be considered a strength and success, lending a positive, although indirect, influence to the student's academic progress. If the student fails to reach one benchmark, and is not designated as being college and career ready upon graduating high school, then the program cannot be considered as influential to the student's academic success as desired, and other, more direct, factors will need to be examined.

Leadership and Change

The leadership at the SUS was supportive and enthusiastic about this study, fully supporting my effort to create a professional development-training program as well as an African-American male student-athlete academic enhancement program to help close the achievement gaps and improve the academic success of African-American males at the

local school setting. When I presented this idea to the administration, faculty, and staff, they agreed that it would take the complete harmonious effort of us all to implement and run the social change effort successfully. Reeves (2010) and Schmoker (2006) claimed that the harmonious and consensus efforts of the stakeholders greatly affect the students' learning and academic achievement. Brozo and Simpson (2007) claimed that when stakeholders receive professional development training as an entire staff, they gain specific content knowledge that enables them to provide a quality and evenhanded education to all students. Presently at the SUS, African-American male student-athletes are not receiving an equitable education in comparison to their Caucasian peers.

The 1st Phase of CHAMPS - PSDTP was designed with Brozo & Simpson's (2007), Reeves's (2010), and Schmoker's (2006) combined beliefs that it takes a consensus effort of the stakeholders to embrace and serve in the implementation of a professional development and training program, providing students a quality and equitable education. Conducting this project study enabled me to find that stakeholders, primarily faculty, did not understand how to effectively understand, relate to, communicate with, build relationships with, and teach African-American males (Kenyatta, 2012). They had a very limited knowledge of how to teach African-American male student-athletes because they did not understand that African-American males had different learning styles, cultural beliefs, and other social factors that impacted and influenced how they learned (Kunjufu, 2010). The school administration team focused their instructional attention and professional development on leadership. The administrative stakeholders focused their efforts on achieving the goals of NCLB and all

students becoming college and career ready. The administration adopted the mindset that using the same instructional models, methodology, and pedagogy would work for all students without taking into consideration their sex or ethnicity. The belief that the instructional models would work for all students is a major reason why many African-American males are failing, experiencing higher disciplinary actions, are more truant, being suspended, expelled, placed in special education programs, and most critical, dropping out (Bell, 2009; Kunjufu, 1983; Radin, 1988; Richardson & Evans 1992).

Analysis of Self as a Scholar

Over the last 8 years, I have worked at an urban designated, Title 1 school, which has failed to reach adequate yearly progress for over 10 years. African-American students, especially the males, are the lowest academic achievers in the school. This high school has the largest amount of free and reduced lunch, lower socioeconomic students of all races, and the highest dropout rates in the district, with African-American males experiencing the highest dropout rates. The aforementioned data is the driving force that sparked my interests to conduct this study. As a scholar, I realized that the only way I could truly help African-American males reach their goals and experience adult success in life was to coach, mentor, tutor, teach, and influence them to complete their high school education. As a classroom teacher, I noticed that many African-American male students hated and had a dreaded fear of math. Furthermore, they did not like to read, write, and had no desire to communicate and elaborate in detail what they comprehended from reading. A result of their being fearful, not liking, and being unwilling to do math, read, and communicate in writing what they comprehend, is their high levels of low

academic achievement (Bell, 2009; Coley, 2011). As a scholar, I have been reading and applying information from extensive research studies, utilizing a variety teaching methods, strategies, such as scaffolding, and differentiated instructional methods to better teach African-American males as well as all students to help them improve their educational achievement at the SUS.

As a scholar, finding solutions to improve the academic progress of African-American male student-athletes at the SUS is a major goal of mine. It is my passion, as a scholar practitioner, to understand what causes African-American male student-athletes to experience lower academic achievement and to find possible solutions to help them overcome these barriers improving their graduation rates, lowering their dropout rates, and helping them matriculate into college. Studying, utilizing, and implementing successful educational strategies recommended by noted professionals in the field in which I am conducting research is helping me achieve my goals for the African-American male student-athletes at the SUS.

Analysis of Self as a Practitioner

As a self-practitioner, I pride myself on remaining a highly qualified teacher. I primarily work as a teacher in the Career Technology Education (CTE) field. As a teacher of technology, I have to constantly pursue professional and staff development in the areas of computer technology, software application use, and technology equipment installation and operation. In conjunction with the aforementioned, CTE teachers are responsible to teach all students utilizing the same instructional and teaching methodologies as core content teachers do. According to Cochran-Smith and Power

(2010), teachers are researchers of their own schools and classrooms, who are responsible to gather, interpret, and use student information to design effective lesson plans to advance student learning. In conducting this project study, I realized that many of the teachers (90% Caucasian) at the SUS had a very difficult time understanding, working with, teaching, and preparing African-American males. As a result, the CHAMPS (Phase 1 – PSDTP) was created to help the teachers develop the skills, tools, and knowledge to work with African-American males, lower income students regardless of race, and other ethnic groups, achieve higher academic success. Teachers who specialize in teaching math, English, science, and other subjects, that are not technologically dependent must now seek professional and staff development training on how to best teach their students.

The 21st century is the technology era, and students in this generation communicate differently than students ten years ago. Teachers must utilize technology in their classrooms in order to teach students today in all subject matter content (Tsoi-A-Fatt, 2010). In order for teachers to prepare their students to succeed on a global level, they must change their instructional methods, strategies, and techniques to fulfill the needs of every one of their students regardless of socioeconomic and "at-risk" status, race, and gender differences.

In a recent study conducted by Darling-Hammond, Zielezinski, and Goldman (2014), "at-risk" students "benefit most from technology use in the classroom because it requires them to express their ideas, use data manipulation, and higher order thinking skills to solve real-world problems" (p. 15). Furthermore, technology usage in the classroom forces the student to engage himself in what he is learning, to interact,

visualize, hear, see, and perform tasks to learn through doing. As a scholar practitioner, it is very important to design programs of study and lesson plans that requires students to utilize technology to create their own content to better learn subject matter material. Darling-Hammond, Zielezinski, and Goldman (2014) found in their research that students when given the opportunities to create their own content using technology, become more motivated and develop stronger skills in the utilization of software applications, such as, creating reports in Word, presenting findings in Excel spreadsheets, and bringing reports to life through multimedia PowerPoint presentations, creating websites, and conducting research via the internet to download and learn specific subject matter content. Through the use of technology, students (all) are able to see content in multiple formats. Technology usage in the classroom enables the student to "experience live maps, videos, hyperlinks to definitions, instructional tools, step-by-step directions to complete or download software and course lessons, additional content, and more" (Darling-Hammond, Zielezinski, & Goldman, 2014, p. 10).

As a teacher practitioner, I researched and read scholarly material, seeking if a relationship between the hours of time an African-American male spent participating in sports was correlated to his academic success. In conducting this research project, I found numerous reasons that led to the African-American male student-athletes' educational plight. Finding these reasons coupled with the results of the data collection and analysis, enabled me to understand and determine the value of conducting this study. As a scholar and self-practitioner, I realize, as a result of deciding to conduct this study that educators have to become more involved identifying possible solutions to promote positive social

change at their local school settings. In other words, if we see something wrong, don't complain about it, do something to fix it.

Analysis of Self as Project Developer

After completing the project study, I understood that the role of the project developer was to organize and record data, lead staff development discussions, training, and analyze implementation and students' progress (Spanneut, 2010; Costley, 2013). Reeves (2010) noted that using an evidence-based decision making model would lead teachers to understand the correlation between their teaching and students' performance. When teachers studied their students' data, they were able to analyze their own teaching strategies through self- reflection and find areas for improvement (Cochran-Smith & Power, 2010). This step generated teachers' buy-in for future implementation. The project developer listened to all involved personnel, 'stakeholders' ideas and used the information to make the necessary adjustments with the implementation of the social change CHAMPS program (Zeppieri, 2008). During the process of the implementation of the project, the developer will create a schedule to observe teaching instruction, implementation, examination of students' progress, and discussion of the implementation progress with individual teachers. In this way, the developer can develop a better understanding to assist with determining the most effective way to promote the implementation (Desimone, 2009). Furthermore, as a project developer of the professional development and training program, I realize that the projects ultimate success and failure falls on me a scholar practitioner. Therefore, extensive

communication, collaboration, and peer insight will be sought to make the necessary adjustments and efforts to make the program a success.

The Project's Potential Impact on Social Change

The goal of the CHAMPS two-Phased professional development programs is to improve the stakeholders,' primarily the 'in-house" administrators, faculty, and staff at the SUS, ability to understand, communicate, and build relationships with the African-American male student-athletes in order to improve their academic success, leading to higher GPAs, graduation rates, and more incidence of matriculation into college. In order to achieve this overall goal and make the CHAMPS program a success, will take the effort of all stakeholders. The SUS is a Title 1 urban designated school that over the last 10 years has struggled to meet Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) NCLB legislation and, as a result, is open to ideas and academic programs that will close the achievement gaps, between Caucasian and African-American students, and help African-American males be removed from the endangered species lists (Donnor & Shockley, 2010; Garibaldi, 1991; Hunt, 2009).

Implementing and bringing an academic program into fruition of this magnitude will take over one year to complete. Therefore, the educational policy makers and administration at the SUS are carefully considering training the faculty, staff, parents, community professionals, and other volunteers to ensure the programs operational success. The CHAMPS professional development and training program will be outcome-based and focused primarily on improving the academic performance of African-American male student-athletes. Furthermore, when proven to be a successful academic

enhancement program for African-American males, the program will be offered to all students regardless of race, gender, and socioeconomic status. In conducting this study, I wanted to measure if a relationship existed between the time an African-American male student-athlete participated in sports and his earned average GPA. In conducting the study, I found that the African-American males who played sports and attended the mandatory study hall were able to maintain GPAs of 2.0 during the season to remain eligible to participate in their sport. Although the results of my study did not show that a strong enough statistically significant relationship between the time an athlete spent participating in sports and his earned GPA existed, they enabled me to see that African-American male student-athletes could achieve a certain amount of academic success if they attended an academic program requiring them to focus on their education for at least 4 extra hours per week.

The two-Phased CHAMPS program especially Phase – 2, the CMTAEP will be voluntary but offer the African-American male student-athletes a more structured and in-depth focus on his education. The CHAMPS program will focus on the African-American male student-athletes at first, and when successful, be extended to all students. A major goal of the CHAMPS – CMTAEP is to equip and prepare African-American males to be global students, consumers, citizens, and professional workers who can compete in a global society (Tsoi-A-Fatt, 2010). A further goal of the CHAMPS social change program is to equip and prepare African-American males as well as all students to use higher order decision making, problem-solving, critical-thinking, outside-the-box creativity, analytical, two-way communication, and collaboration skills that will enable

them to be leaders, scholars, and professionals who master technology, engineering, mathematics, science, and business through E-commerce in the 21st (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011). Furthermore, critical thinking and problem solving are crucial elements of education that students need to be successful in college (Schmoker, 2008). CHAMPS major goal is to teach "at-risk", African-American males, and students of all races who come from low socio-economic backgrounds to become independent and self-sufficient problem solvers. According to Bechtol (2001), students who are prepared and equipped for success as adolescents through their young adult lives who participate in athletics will experience adult success in life. The CHAMP's program was created based on this theory and as a result will strive to equip students with the skills and tools necessary to become successful adults in the 21st century.

Implications, Applications, and Directions for Future Research

The findings of this project study was critical for me to understand and develop a social change professional development and training project that could remedy the educational plight of African-American male student-athletes, at the local setting as well as in the state, region, and around the nation. The result of implementation of the CHAMPS Phase 2 – CMTAEP will enable the stakeholder's at the SUS to identify what coaching, mentoring, tutoring, and teaching strategies, methodologies, and techniques are working best in helping African-American male student-athletes achieve higher academic success. Stakeholders as well as the student-athletes will be able to communicate, collaborate, and make decisions as well as adjustments ensuring the student is making progress. Student input, feedback, and suggestions to modify their academic

enhancement exposure will play a vital role in the services that will be provided and they will receive to make their learning experience a positive one. The applied CHAMPS professional development and training program will focus on preparing African-American males to achieve higher academic success, improved graduation rates, and matriculation to college.

The secondary goal of the CHAMPS program is to close the achievement gaps between Caucasian, African-American male students, lower-socioeconomic, "at-risk" and other ethnic minority student. The data analysis and results of this study illustrated that African-American male student –athletes if exposed to after school extended academic study hall programs, had the ability to achieve and maintain GPAs of 2.0 or "C" during the terms in which their sport season lasted and/or if they played a sport during consecutive seasons. Due to the fact that African-American male student-athletes displayed that they could maintain C averages in school during the sport season, had implications that that they could maintain GPAs of 2.0 or higher throughout the year if they were given the opportunity to attend after school coaching, mentoring, and tutoring academic enhancement programs at the local school setting. Bechtol's (2001) BSPT was the theoretical framework form, which this study was conducted. Bechtol found through her qualitative multi-cased research study that athletes, regardless of race, gender, and socioeconomic status, experienced higher levels of adult success than students who were not athletes. Bechtol's research study findings showed that student-athletes over non-athletes experienced higher academic achievement were less likely to experiment with drugs, experience early-age drinking, get in trouble at school, had better attendance, had a

stronger sense of belonging, higher self-esteem, efficacy, confidence, and made better grades. Although I did not have enough time to conduct such a lengthy study for this research project, I highly recommend that conducting a longitudinal study with African-American male student-athletes should be considered in the future. I further recommend that a correlational study similar to mine be conducted on African-American female student-athletes to ascertain whether or not their academic achievement is correlated to the time they spend participating in sports.

Future recommendations for more in-depth research on the impact or relationship that sports participation may have on the academic status of African-American students as a whole should be conducted. Comparisons and contrasting research studies should also be conducted on the influence of sports on Caucasian and African-American males' adult success in life. Another major recommendation for future study on this topic is to conduct a mixed-method qualitative, and quantitative study to test the impact that after school educational enhancement programs have on student achievement, especially that of African-American males. Professional development at urban designated and Title 1 schools is a shared responsibility of all stakeholders (administrators, faculty, and staff) to implement educational equity, cultural inclusion, and diversity teaching to promote social change efforts at their schools (Musanti and Pence, 2010). Future consideration should be taken in regard to conducting research that could provide a solution and means to help African-American male student-athletes, other ethnic minority, and lower socioeconomic students, receive a fair and equitable education in the future.

Conclusion

The final outcome of this correlational research project study showed that the time an African-American male student-athlete spent participating in sports did not have a strong enough statistical correlation to his earned GPA. However, through conducting this research study, I was able to realize that African-American male student-athletes did have the ability to maintain sport eligible GPA's of 2.0 or higher during the season to participate in their sport. Furthermore, the findings of the research study enabled me to identify a gap in practice that was missing and thus sparked the creation of the two-Phased professional development program called CHAMPS. Phase 1 was focused on the stakeholder and preparing them to participate in the Phase 2 CMTAEP. Phase 2 is focused to equip, prepare, coach, mentor, and tutor African-American male student-athletes at the SUS to improve their academic achievement by attending the academic enhancement program. The overall goal is to help them maintain and raise their GPAs, improve their standardized tests, and ACT scores, graduate from high school, and matriculate into college.

The CHAMPS program wants to help African-American male student-athletes, males, other minority, and lower socio economic students become college and career ready to meet the goals of NCLB. The CHAMPS Phase 1 development program will be offered annually to interested stakeholders to provide all new administration, faculty, and staff with the opportunities to receive culturally diverse, inclusive, and specialized education techniques, methods, and pedagogy to teach students of all ethnic backgrounds,

races, genders, and economic levels. The CMTAEP – Phase 2 will be offered annually each year to all students in succession to help them improve their academic achievement and make progress to become college and career ready. By continuously offering all stakeholders the opportunity to participate in the CHAMPS program, faculty and staff will constantly be developed and learn strategies to work with all students in order to help them achieve their academic goals. The SUS through the receipt of the CHAMPS professional training program will provide students with a fair, equitable, and culturally inclusive education. Furthermore, staff will be taught how to use alternative instructional strategies, such as, differentiated and scaffolding techniques, to teach students, utilizing audio, visual, and bodily-kinesthetic learning methods.

The CHAMPS program will hold all stakeholders accountable in the process of student growth. The ultimate and final goal of CHAMPS is to close the educational achievement gap, by lowering African-American male drop out, suspension, expulsion, special education designation rates, improving their graduation rates, helping them become college and career ready, and increasing their matriculation rates into college.

References

ACT Report (2011). Kentucky. The condition of college and career readiness. Retrieved from http://www.act.org/readiness/2011.

Ahlfeld, K. (2010). Hands-on learning with a hands-off approach for professional development. *School Library Monthly, 26*(6), 16-18. Retrieved from www.schoollibrarymedia.com

Allen, Q., & White-Smith, K. (2014). "Just as bad as prisons": The challenge of dismantling the school-to-prison pipeline through teacher and community education. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, *47*(4), 445-460. doi:10.1080/10665684.2014.958961

Anand, R. (2000). *Teaching skills and cultural competency: A guide for trainers*. Fourth Ed. Washington, DC: National Multicultural Institute (NMCI) Publications.

Ancona, F. (1998). *Crisis in America: Father Absence*. Commack, NY: Nova Science Publishers.

Anthony, T. D., Kritsonis, W. A., & Herrington, D. E. (2007). National cry for help: Psychological issues as they relate to education; A realistic approach to understanding and coping with the African American males. *Lamar University Electronic Journal of Student Research*, *1*, 1-9. *Online Submission.*

Arnett, B. (2006). *The effects of high school athletics participation in academic achievement, discipline referrals, and school attendance*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Argosy University, Atlanta, Georgia.

Astin, A. W. (1984). *Student involvement: A developmental theory for higher education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Aud, S., Fox, M. A., & Kewal Ramani, A. (2010). *Status and trends in the education of racial and ethnic groups.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

Barak, J., Gidron, A., & Turniansky, B. (2010). Without stones there is not arch: A study of professional development of teacher educators as a team. *Professional Development in Education, 36*(1-2), 275-287. doi:0.1080/19415250903457489

Bandura, A., Ross, D., & Ross, S. A. (1963). Critical analysis of an original writing on social learning theory: Imitation of film-mediated aggressive models. *National Forum of Applied Educational Research Journal, 20*(3), 1-6. doi:10.1037/h0045925 Retrieved from: http://www.nationalforum.com

Barber, B. L., Eccles, J. S., & Stone, M. R. (2001). Whatever happened to the jock, the brain, and the princes? Young adult pathways linked to adolescent activity involvement and social identity. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, *16*, 429-455.doi:10.1177/0743558401165002

Barber, B. L., Stone, M. R., Hunt, J. E., & Eccles, J. S. (2005). Benefits of activity participation: The role of identity affirmation and peer group norm sharing. In J. Mahoney, R. W., Larson, & J. S. Eccles (Eds.), *Organized activities as contexts of development: Extracurricular activities, after school and community programs* (pp. 185-210). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum. doi:10.1037/0012-1649.42.4.698

Beamon, K. (2012). "I'm a baller": Athletic identity foreclosure among African-American student-athletes. *Journal of African American Studies, 16*(2), 195-208.doi:10.1007/s1211-012-921-8

Bechtol, S. (2001). *Adults' perceptions of the long-term effects of participation in high school sports.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, VA.

Bell, E. E. (2009). *Impact of self-esteem and identification with academics on the academic achievement of African American students* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.liberty.edu/doctoral/266/

Bell, E. E. (2010). Understanding African American males. *Online Submission*. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED511010).

Bell, E. E. (2011). Black males in education: Learning and achievement. A summative community analysis response from the Kwanzaa adult forum (December 27, 2010). *Online Submission*.

Borko, H., Jacobs, J., & Koellner, K. (2010). Contemporary approaches to teacher professional development. In P. Peterson, E. Baker, & B. McGaw (Eds.), *Third international Encyclopedia of Education*, *7*, 548–556. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Elsevier. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-044894-7.00654-0

Boykin, A. W. (2000). Foreword. In M. Sanders (Ed.), *Schooling students placed at risk: Research, policy and practice in the education of poor minority adolescents* (pp. xi-xiv). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Braddock, K. (2005). Athletics, academics, and African American males. In O. Fashola Banks (Ed), *Educating African American males* (pp .255-283). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Brown, A. L., & Donnor, J. K. (2011). Toward a new narrative on African-American males, education, and public policy. *Race Ethnicity and Education, 14,* 17-32.doi:10.1080/13613324.2011.531978

Brown, J. S., Collins, A., & Duguid, P. (1989). Situated cognition and the culture of learning. *Educational Researcher, 18*(1), 32-42. doi:10.3102/0013189X018001032

Brozo, W. G., & Simpson, M. L. (2007). *Content literacy for today's adolescents: Honoring diversity and building competence*. Des Moines, IA: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Bush-Daniels, S. (2008). Examining the overrepresentation of African-American males in special education. *Online Submission*. Retrieved from: ERIC database. (ED508215).

Butler, P. (2007, July 10). Academics vs. athletics: African-American parent dilemma. *PBS Communications.* Retrieved from http://searchwarp.com/swa231491.htm

Calhoun, E. F. (2009). Action research for school improvement. In R. A. Schmuck, (Ed). *Practical action research: A collection of articles* (pp. 99 – 108). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Chappuis, S., Chappuis, J., & Stiggins, R. (2009). Supporting teacher-learning teams. *Educational Leadership*, *66*(5), 56-60. http://dx.doi.org.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/10.1007/s10964-008-9309-4

Cokley, K., McClain, S., Jones, M., & Johnson, S. (2011). A preliminary investigation of academic disidentification, racial identity, and academic achievement among African adolescents. *High School Journal, 95*(2), 54-68. doi:10.1353/hsj.2012.0003

Cole, N. (2008). How long should a training program be? A field study of "rules-of thumb". *Journal of Workplace Learning, 20*(1), 54-70. doi:org/10.1108/13665620810843647

Coleman, James S. (1961). *The adolescent society*. New York, NY: The Free Press.

Coley, R. J. (2011, June). ETS's Addressing Achievement Gaps Symposium. A strong start: Positioning young black boys for educational success. *Policy Evaluation and Research Center, 19*(3), 2-17. Retrieved from http://www.ets.org/s/sponsored_events/pdf/16818_lackMale_trifold3_WEB.pdf

Cooper, S. M., & Smalls, C. (2010). Culturally distinctive and academic socialization: direct and interactive relationships with African American adolescents. *Journal of Youth Adolescent*, *39*(2), 199-212. doi:10.1007/s10964-009-9404-1

Cooper, H., Valentine, J. C., Nye, B., & Lindsay, J. J. (1999). Relationships between five afterschool activities and academic achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 91*(2), 369-378. doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.91.2.369

Corneliben, T., & Pfeifer, C. (2007). *The impact participation in sports on educational attainment: New evidence* from Germany. Retrieved from: http://ftp.iza.org/dp3160.pdf. doi:10.1177/0044118X06290651

Costley, K. C. (2013). Ongoing Professional Development: The Prerequisite for and Continuation of Successful Inclusion Meeting the Academic Needs of Special Students in Public Schools. *Online Submission*. Retrieved from: http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED541075

Cotton, H. (1996). Athletics vs. academics. Teacher Magazine, 7, 42-43.

Creswell, J. W. (Ed. 3). (2008). Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Creswell, J. W. (Ed. 4). (2012). Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Crippen, K. J., Biesinger, K. D., & Ebert, E. K. (2010). Using professional development to achieve classroom reform and science proficiency: An urban success story from southern Nevada, USA. Professional Development in Education, 36(4), 637-661. doi:10.1080/19415250903396026

Crosnoe, R. (2002). Academic and health-related trajectories in adolescence: The intersection of gender and athletics. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 43*, 317-335.

Cross, T. L. (1988). *Services to minority populations. Cultural competence continuum.*

Focal Point, 3, pp. 1–9.

Cross, T. L. (1989). Towards a Culturally Competent System of Care: A monograph on effective services for minority children who are severely emotionally disturbed. Washington, DC.

Cross, T. L., Bazron, B.J., Dennis, K. W. & Isaacs, M. R. (1989). Towards a culturally competent system of care. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Child Development Center, CASSP Technical Assistance Center.

Cuthrell, K., Stapleton, J., & Ledford, C. (2009). Examining the culture of poverty: Promising practices. *Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth*, *54*(2), 104-110. doi:10.1080/10459880903217689

Darling-Hammond, L., & Richardson, N. (2009). Research review/teacher learning: What matters. *Educational leadership*, *66*(5), 46-53. Retrieved from: http://www.minmathandscience.org

Darling-Hammond, L.; Zielezinski, M. B., & Goldman, S. (2014). *Using Technology to Support At-Risk Students' Learning*. Alliance for Excellent Education: Washington, DC. National Policy and Advocacy Organization (September 10, 2014). Retrieved from: https://edpolicy.stanford.edu/publications/pubs/1241

Davis, E. C., & Cooper, J. A. (1934). Athletic ability and scholarship: A resume of studies comparing scholarship abilities of athletes and non-athletes. *Research Quarterly. American Physical Education Association*, *5*(4), 68-78.

Davis, P., & Donald, B. (1997). *Multicultural counseling competencies: Assessment, evaluation, education and training, and supervision.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Dawkins, M., Braddock, J. H., II; Celaya, A. (2008). Challenge: *A journal of Research on African American Men, 14*(2), 51-65.

Dawkins, M., Williams, M., & Guilbault, M. (2006). "Participation in school sports: Risk or protective factor for drug use among African-American and White students." *Journal of Negro Education, 75*, 25-33.

Denton, D. (2001). *Finding alternatives to failure: Can states end social promotion and reduce retention rates?* Retrieved from: http://www.sreb.org/programs/srr/pubs/alternatives/AlternativesToFailure.pdf

Desimone, L. M. (2009). Improving impact studies of teachers' professional development: Toward better conceptualizations and measures. Educational Researcher, 38(3), 181-199. doi:10.3102/0013189X08331140

Dexter, T. (1999). Relationship between sport knowledge, sport performance, and academic ability: Empirical evidence from GCSE physical education. *Sports Science Journal, 17*, 283-295.

Dillon, S. (2009). Study finds high rate of imprisonment among dropouts. The New York Times, p. A12. Retrieved from: http://www.nytimes.com/2009/10/09/education/09dropout.html.

Dobosz, R. P., & Beaty, L. A. (1999). The relationship between academic and athletic participation and high school students' leadership ability. Adolescence, 34(133), 215-220. Retrieved from: http://libproxy.uwstout.edu:2123/cgi-bin/../.URL.P=I(H9Z7)J(0000044705)

Donnor, J. K., & Shockley, K. G. (2010). Leaving us behind: A political economic interception of NCLB and the miseducation of African American males. *Educational Foundations, 24*, 43-54.

Donnelly, R. (2010). Interaction analysis in a "learning by doing" problem-based professional development context. Computers & Education, 55(3), 1357-1366. doi:org/10.1016/j.compedu.2010.06.010

Dorime, M., & Toldson, I. (2008). Breaking the education barrier. Retrieved from: http://www.empowernewsmag.com/listings.php?article=131

Douglas, B., Lewis, C., Douglas, A., Scott, M., & Garrison-Wade, D. (2008). The impact of white teachers on the academic achievement of African-American students: An exploratory qualitative analysis. Educational Foundations, Winter-Spring 2008. [Online]. Available: ERIC.

Eccles, J. S., & Barber, B. L. (1999). Student council, volunteering, basketball, or marching band: What kind of extracurricular involvement matters? *Journal of Adolescent Research, 14*, 10-43. doi:10.1177/0743558499141003

Eccles, J. S., & Barber, B. L., Stone, M., & Hunt, J. (2003). Extracurricular activities and adolescent development. *Journal of Social Issues, 59*, 865-869. doi:10.1046/j.0022-4537.2003.00095.x

Eccles, J. S., & Templeton, J. (2002). Extracurricular and other after school activities for youth. *Review of Research in Education, 26*. 113-180. doi:10.3102/0091732X026001113.

Eccles, J. S., & Roeser, R. W. (2011). Schools as developmental contexts

during adolescence. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 21*(1), 225-241. doi:10.1111/j.1532-7795.2010.00725.x

Eckholm, E. (2006). *Plight deepens for African-American men, studies warn*. Retrieved from: http://www.commondreams.org/headlines06/0320-06.htm

Edwards, H. (1983). The exploitation of African-American athletes. *AGB Reports, XX*, 37-46.

Edwards, H. (1986). "The Collegiate Athletics Arms Race." In R. Lapchick, *Fractured Focus* (pp. 21-43). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Eitle, T. M., & Eitle, D. J. (2002). Race, cultural capital, and the educational effects of participation in sports. *Sociology of education*, 123-146.

Fashola, O. S. (2005). *Educating African American males: Voices from the field*. Corwin Press.

Ford, D. Y., & Moore III, J. L. (2013). Understanding and reversing underachievement, low achievement, achievement gaps among high-ability African American males in urban school contexts. *The Urban Review, 45,* 399-415.

Field, T., Diego, M., & Sanders, C. (2001). Exercise is positively related to adolescents' relationships and academics. *Adolescence, 36*, 105-110.

Fox, C., Barr-Anderson, D., & Neumark-Sztainer, D. (2010). Physical activity and sports team participation: Associations with academic outcomes in middle school and high school students. *Journal of School Health, 80*(1), 31-37. Retrieved from: http://ehis.ebscohost.com.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/ehost/detail?vid=11&hid=1&sid ea8370b7-956c-4eb2-98da-4107eb8941e0%40sessionmgr113&bdata

=JnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZSZzY29wZT1zaXRl#db=eric&AN=EJ885720

Fredricks, J., & Eccles, J. (2006). Is extracurricular participation associated with beneficial outcomes? *Developmental Psychology, 42,* 698-713. doi:10.1037/0012-1649.42.4.698

Fredricks, J. A., Eccles, J. S. (2008). Participation in extracurricular activities in the middle school years: Are there developmental benefits for African-American and European American youth? *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 37*(9), 1029-1043. Retrieved from: http://dx.doi.org.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/10.1007/s10964-008-9309-4

Gardner, M., Roth, J., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (2010). Adolescents' participation in organized activities and developmental success 2 and 8 years after high school: Do sponsorship, duration, and intensity matter? The American Psychological Association: 44, 814-830. doi:10.1037/0012-1649.44.3.814

Garibaldi, A. (1991). The African-American male: An endangered species. *Segna, 1*(2), 71-73.

Gaytan, J. A., & McEwen, B. C. (2010). Instructional technology professional development evaluation: Developing a high quality model. Delta Phi Epsilon Journal, 52(2), 77-94. Retrieved from: www.dpe.org

Ginsberg, M. & Craig, A. (2010). Tradition becomes the teacher: Community events enrich educators' professional learning. Journal of Staff Development, 31(4), 36 - 41. Retrieved from www.learningforward.org/news/jsd/index.cfm

Grant, D. G., and L. A. Dieker. (2011). "Listening to 252 Black male student voices

Using Web-Based Mentoring", Remedial and Special Education, 2011.

Greeno, J. G., & the Middle School through Applications Project Group. (1998). The situativity of knowing, learning, and research. *American Psychologists*, 53. 26.

Greene, J., & Winters, M. (2006). Leaving boys behind: Public high school graduation rates. Civic Report, 48. Retrieved from: http://www.manhattan-institute.org/html/cr_48.htm.

Haddix, M. (2010). African-American boys can write: Challenging dominant framings of African-American adolescent males in literacy research. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy Policy, 53*(4), 341-343. doi:10.1598/JAAL/53/4.8.

Halvorsen, A., Lee, V., & Andrade, F. (2009). A mixed-method study of teachers' attitudes about teaching in urban and low-income schools. *Urban Education, 44,* 181-224.

Harradine, C. C., Coleman, M. R., & Winn, D. C. (2014). Recognizing academic potential in students of color: Findings of U-STARS~PLUS. Gifted Child Quarterly, 58, 24–34.

Harrison, C. (2007). There is more to life than sports: Getting brothers to take the road less traveled. Retrieved from: http//diverseducation.com/article/8143/1.php

Hart, K., & Kritsonis, W. (2006). Critical analysis of an original writing on social learning theory: Imitation of film mediated aggressive models by: Albert Bandura, Dorothea Ross, and Sheila Ross (1963). *National Forum of Applied Educational Research Journal, 20*(3). Retrieved from: http://www.nationalforum.com/

Hartmann, D. (2008). High school sports participation and educational attainment: Recognizing, assessing, and utilizing the relationship. *Report to the LA84 Foundation*.

Hauke, J. (2008). The high cost of Maryland's dropout rate. *Friedman Foundation for educational choice.* Maryland's Public Policy Institute: October, 2008. Retrieved from: http://www.friedmanfoundation.org.

Haviland, D., & Rodriguez-Kiino, D. (2009). Closing the gap: The impact of professional development on faculty attitudes toward culturally responsive pedagogy. Journal of Hispanic Higher Education, 8(2), 197-212. doi.org/10.1177/1538192708317613

Haviland, D., Turley, S., & Shin, S. H. (2011). Changes over time in faculty attitudes, confidence, and understanding as related to program assessment. Issues in Teacher Education, 20(1), 69-84. doi.org/10.1177/1538192708317613

He, Y., Rohr, J., & Miller, S. D. (2010). Toward continuous program improvement: Using a logic model for professional development school program evaluation. School-University Partnerships, 4(1), 15-28. Retrieved from: ERIC Database (EJ915878R).

Hernández, D. J. (2011). Double jeopardy: how third grade reading skills and poverty influence high school graduation. Annie E. Casey Foundation. ERIC database. Retrieved from: http://www.aecf.org/~/media/Pubs/Topics?Education/Other?DoubleJepoardyHowThirdGradeReadingSkillsandPoverty/DoubleJeopardyReport040511FINAL.pdf

Herring, M. (2009). *African-American males are not graduating*. Retrieved from: http://www.thesouthendnews.com/perspectives/black-males-are-not-graduating-1.1593688.

Hill, M.L. (2009). Beats, rhymes, and classroom life: Hip-hop pedagogy and the politics of identity. New York: Teachers College Press.

Hirsh, P. (2009). *African-Americans in sports and the absent father*. Retrieved from: http://www.articlesbase.com/sports-and-fitness-articles/african-americans-in-sports-and-the-absent-father-1278954.html

Hochbert, E. D., & Desimone, L. M. (2010). Professional development in the accountability context: Building capacity to achieve standards. Educational Psychologist, 45(2), 89-106. doi:10.1080/00461521003703052

Holzman, M. (2012). The urgency of now: The Schott 50 state report on public education and Black males. Schott Foundation for Public Education. Retrieved from http://blackboysreport.org/urgency-of-now.pdf.

Holzer, H. (2006). Reconnecting young African-American men. Retrieved from http://www.urban.org/publications/900956.html.

Hunt, J. (2009). *No African-American boy left behind*. Retrieved from: http://diverseeducation.com/article/12512/no-black-boy-left-behind.html. *Forum of Applied Educational Research Journal*, 20(3).

Johnson, C., & Kritsonis, W. A. (2006). The National dilemma of African American students: Disparities in Mathematics achievement and instruction. *Online Submission*, *20*(3).

Kaser, K., & Oelkers, D. B., (Ed. 2). (2005). Sports and Entertainment Marketing. South-Western, Thomson Corporation.

Kentucky Commission on Human Rights, (2010). Protector of civil rights voice for Equality, catalyst for positive change. Retrieved from: http://www.kde.state.ky.us/KDE/Administrative+Resources/Testing+and+Reporting+/Reports

Kenyatta, C. P. (2012). From Perception to Practice: How Teacher-Student Interactions Affect African American Male Achievement. *Journal of Urban Learning, Teaching, and Research*, *8*, 36-44. Retrieved from: eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ979953

Kewal-Ramani, A., Gilbertson, L., Fox, M., and Provasnik, S. (2007). *Status and trend in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Minorities* (NCES 2007-039), National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC.

Knapp, L. G., Kelly-Reid, J., & Ginder, S. (2010). Postsecondary institutions and price of attendance in the United States: Fall 2009, degrees and other awards conferred: 2008-2009, and 12 – month enrollment: 2008-2009. National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). 2010-161, U. S. Department of Education. Retrieved from: http://www.nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/161.pdf

Kober, N. (2010). *A call to action to raise achievement for African American students*. Washington, DC: Center on Education Policy.

Kohn, A. (2011). Poor teaching for poor children… in the name of reform. Education Week, April 27, 2011. Bethesda, MD: Editorial Projects in Education.

Kornell, N., & Bjork, R.A. (2007). The promise and perils of self-regulated study. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review, 14*, 219–224.

Kozol, J. (1994). *Savage Inequalities: Children in America's schools.* New York: Harper Perennial.

Kronholz, J. (2012). Academic value of non-academics: The case for keeping extracurriculars available. *Education Next*, *12*(1), 8-14. Retrieved from: http://educationnext.org/academic-value-of-non-academics

Kunjufu, J. (1983). *Countering the conspiracy to destroy Black boys.* Chicago: Afro-Am Publications.

Kunjufu, J. (1995). *Countering the conspiracy to destroy Black boys.* (Vol. 4). Chicago: African American Images.

Kunjufu, J. (2010). Understanding Learning Styles. Chicago: African American Images. IBN #: 1-934155-38-1

Laing, T. (2010). Virtual Learning: A Solution to the All-African-American male school debate and the challenge of African-American male K-12 outcomes. *Journal of African American Males in Education*, *1*(3).

Lave, L., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lewis, S., Simon, C., Uzzell, R., Horwitz, A., Casserly, M. (2010). A Call For Change: The Social and Educational Factors Contributing to the Outcomes of African-American Males in Urban Schools. The Council of the Great City Schools – Report October 2010. Washington, DC. http:// www.cgcs.org.

Lias, A., Krivak-Fowler, S., Holdam, G., & Maxwell, M. (2005). Developing a Deep Understanding of Elementary School Mathematics: A Staff Development Partnership. *International Journal of Learning*, *12*(6), 73-77. Retrieved from: Education Research Complete database.

Lodico, M. G., Spaulding, D. T., & Voegtle, K. H. (2010). *Methods in educational research: From theory to practice.* Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Love, N., Stiles, K., Mundry, S., & DiRanna, K. *(2008). The data coach's guide too improving learning for all students: Unleashing the power of collaborative inquiry.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Loy, J., McPherson, B., & Kenyon, G. (1978). Sport and social systems. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Mayer, R. E. (Ed.) (2005). *The Cambridge handbook of multimedia learning*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Mahoney, J. L., Cairns, B. D., & Farmer, T. (2003). Promoting interpersonal competence and educational success through extracurricular activity participation. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 95*, 409–418. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.95.2.409

Mandara, J., Murray, C. B., & Joyner, T. N. (2005). The impact of fathers' absence on African American adolescents' gender role development. *Sex Roles*, *53*, 207-220.

Mandara, J. & Murray, C. B. (2006). Effects of parental marital status, income, and family functioning on African American adolescent self-esteem. *Journal of Family Psychology, 14*(3), 475-490.

Marsh, H. W., & Kleitman, S. (2002). Extracurricular school activities: The good, the

bad, and the non-linear. *Harvard Educational Review, 72*, 464–514. doi:10.1007/s10964-010-9551-4

Martin, B. E., Harrison, K., Stone, J., and Lawrence, S. (2010). Athletic Voices and Academic Victories: African American Male Student-Athlete Experiences in the Pac-Ten. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues 2010 34: 131.* doi:1177/0193723510366541 Retrieved from: http:/jss.sagepub.com/content/34/2/31

Mason, J. L. (1995). Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire: A Manual for Users.

Matthews, J. S., Kizzie, K., Rowley, S. J., & Cortina, K. (2010). African American and boys: Understanding the literacy gap, tracing academic trajectories, and evaluation the role of learning-related skills. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 102*(3), 757-771.

McCadden, B. (1998). Why is Michael always getting timed out? Race, class, and the disciplining of other people's children. In R. E. Butchart & B. McEwan (Eds.), *Classroom discipline in American schools: Problems and possibilities for democratic education* (pp. 109-131). Albany, NY: State University of New York.

McClendon, C. (1998). *Promoting achievement in school through sport (PASS): An evaluation study*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Maryland, College Park.

McCoog, I. (2008). 21st Century Teaching and Learning. *Online Submission*, Retrieved from: ERIC database. http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED502607

McNeal, R., Jr. (1998). High school extracurricular activities: closed structures and stratifying patterns of participation. *The Journal of Educational Research, 91*. 183 - 191. Retrieved from: http://libproxy.uwstout.edu:2123/cgi bin/../.URL.P=I(H9Z7)J(0000089390).

Measuring Up. The State Report Card – Kentucky (2008). National Center Report #08-3. The National center for public policy and higher education. Retrieved from: http://www.highereducation.org

Messer, K., L. (2006). African American male college athletes. In M.J. Cuyjet (Ed.), African American Men in College (pp. 154-173). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mezuk, B. (2009). Urban Debate and High School Educational Outcomes for African American Males: The Case of the Chicago Debate League. *The Journal of Negro Education, 78*(3), 290-304.

Miller, D. (2008). *African-American males are worth it*. Retrieved from: http://www.audaciousideas.org/index.php?s=african+american+males+are+worth+it&submit=Search

Milner, H. (2007). African-American males in urban schools: No excuses-teach and empower. *Theory into practice*, *46*(3), 239-246.

Moje, E. B. (2008). Foregrounding the disciplines in secondary literacy teaching and learning: A call for change. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy, 52*(2), 96-107. Retrieved from: http://www.jstor.org/stable/20111747

Mokrue, K., Chen, Y., & Elias, M. (2012). "The interaction between family structure and child gender on behavior problems among urban ethnic minority children." *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 36(2)*, 130-136.

Monroe, C. (2006). African-American boys and the discipline gap: Balancing educators' uneven hand. Educational Horizons. Journal of Teacher Education, Winter 2006.

Monroe, C. (2005). "Why are 'bad boys' always Black? Causes of disproportionality in school discipline and recommendations for change." The Clearing House 79(1): 45–50.

Monroe, C. and Obidah. J. (2004). "The impact of cultural synchronization on a teacher's perceptions of disruption: A case study of an African-American middle-school classroom. *Journal of Teacher Education 55*(3): 256–268.

Montgomery, III, T. V. (2010). *Comparing Academic Achievement of African-American Males Who Do and Do Not Participate in High School Athletics.* (Dissertation, Liberty University), Virginia.

Moos, D. C., & Azevedo, R. (2009). Learning with computer-based learning environments: A literature review of computer self-efficacy. Review of Educational Research, 79(2), 576-600. doi:10.3102/0034654308326083

Muhammad, A. (2009). *Transforming school culture: How to overcome staff division*. Bloomington: Solution Tree.

Murphy, J. (2010). *The educator's handbook for understanding and closing achievement gaps.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

NASW National Committee on Racial and Ethnic Diversity. (2001) *NASW Standards for Cultural Competence in Social Work Practice.* http://www.naswdc.org/pubs/standards/cultural.htm

WMU Project AGE. Developing Cultural Competence. in Western Michigan University Project AGE's Website at http://www.wmich.edu/hhs/ProjectAGE/focus_toc.html (last updated May, 08, 2002).

National Collegiate Athletics Association. (2012). NCAA. Official sports probability report. Retrieved from: http:// www.businessinsider.com/odds-college-athletes-become-professionals-2012-2?op=1

Neblett, E. W., Chavous, T. M., Nguyen, H. X., & Sellers, R. M. (2009). "Say it loud-I'm African-American and I'm Proud." Parents messages about race, racial discrimination, and academic achievement in African American boys. *The Journal of Negro Education, 78*, 246-262.

Nealy, M. (2008). *African-American men left out and locked up*. Retrieved from http://www.britannica.com/bps/additionalcontent/18/29338433/BLACKMEN-LEFT-OUT-AND-LOCKED-UP/fulltext.

Neito, S. (2009). From Surviving to Thriving. *Educational Leadership, 66*(5), 8-13.

Noguera, P. A. (2012). Responding to the challenges confronting black and Latino males: The role of public policy in countering the "crisis" and promoting success. In S. Lewis, M. Casserly, C. Simon, R. Uzzell & M. Palacios (Eds.), *A*

call for change: Providing solutions for Black male achievement (pp. 5- 18). Washington, DC: Council of Great City Schools.

Noltemeyer, A. L., and McLoughlin, C. S. (2010). Changes in exclusionary discipline rates and disciplinary disproportionality over time. *International Journal of Special Education.* Vol 25, No1. 2010, Kent State University.

Nunnaley, D. (2013). Professional development to build data literacy: The view from a professional development provider. *Journal of Educational Research & Policy Studies, 13*(2), 39-49.

Nuhn, G.C. (1991). An analysis of academic achievement comparing athletes and non-athletes in selected small, rural schools. Dissertation Abstracts International, 54(07), 2400.

O'Bryan, S. T., Braddock, J. H., Dawkins, M. P. (2010). An examination of the effects of school-based varsity sport participation and parental involvement on male academic behaviors. Challenge: *A Journal of Research on African American Men, 14*(2), 1-27. Retrieved from: http://ehis.ebscohost.com.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/ehost/detail?vid=9&hid=1&sid=ea8370b7-956c-4eb2-98da-4107eb8941e0%40sessionmgr113&bdata=jnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZzY29wZT1zaXRi#db=eric&AN=EJ885720

Oliver, W. (2006). "The streets": An alternative African-American male socialization institution. Retrieved from: http://jbs.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/36/6/918

Paas, F., Camp, G., & Rikers, R. (2001). Instructional Compensation for Age-Related Cognitive Declines: Effects of Goal Specificity in Maze Learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 2001, Vol. 93, No. 1, 181-186.

Paas, F., Renkl, A., & Sweller, J. (2003). Cognitive load theory and instructional design: Recent developments. *Educational Psychologist, 38*, 1-4.

Paas, F., Tuovinen, J., Tabbers, H., & Van Gerven, P. W. M. (2003). Cognitive load measurement as a means to advance cognitive load theory. *Educational Psychologist, 38*, 63-71.

Paas, F., Tuovinen, J., Van Merriënboer, J. J. G., & Darabi, A. (2005). A motivational perspective on the relation between mental effort and performance: Optimizing learner involvement in instruction. *Educational Technology, Research & Development, 53*, 25-33. doi:10.1007/ BF02504795

Parson, G. C., & Kritsonis, W. A. (2006). A National Focus: An Assessment of the Habits of African American Males from Urban Households of Poverty Who Successfully Complete Secondary Education Programs. *Online Submission*, *1*(1).

Passley, J.A., Gerring, J.P., & Gerson, A.C. (2006). The relationship between parental involvement and child outcomes in male African American youth. Forum on Public Policy. Available: www.forumonpublicpolicy.com/archive07/passley.pdf

Partnership for 21st Century Skills. (May, 2011). "Critical thinking and problem solving." *P21.org*. Web. 16 May211.2011 http://www.p21.org/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=260&Itemid=120.

Pinkney, D. (1987). Black Americans. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Pressley, J. S., & Whitley, R. L. (1996). Let's hear it for the "dumb jock": What athletics contribute to the academic program. *NASSP Bulletin, 80*(580), 74-84. doi:10.1177/019263659608058010

Putnam, R. T. and Borko, H. (2000). "What do new views of knowledge and thinking have to say about research on teacher learning?" *Educational Researcher*, *29* (1), 4-15.

Available on http://edr.sagepub.com/content/vol29/issue1

Radin, N. (1988). Alternatives to suspension and corporal punishment. *Urban Education, 22*(4), 476-494.

Rashid, H. (2009). From brilliant baby to child placed at risk: The perilous path of African-American boys in early childhood education. *The Journal of Negro Education, 78*(3), 347-355.

Reeves, D. (2008). The extracurricular advantage. *Educational Leadership*, *66*, 86-87.

Reeves, D. B. (2010). *Transforming professional development into student results*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.

Rhoden, W. (2006). *Forty million dollar slaves: The rise, fall, and redemption of the African-American athlete*. New York, NY: Random House.

Richardson, R., & Evans, E. (1991). Afro-American males: Endangered species and the most frequently paddled. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association, Lexington, KY.

Rodriguez, A. B. (2011). Effects of schools attuned on special education referrals for

African American boys. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A*, 71, Retrieved from EBSCO*host*.

Sabo, D., Melnick, M., & Vanfossen, B. (1993). High school athletic participation and Post-secondary educational and occupational mobility: A focus on race and gender. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, *10*, 44-56.

Schmoker, M. J. (2006). *Results now: How we can achieve unprecedented improvements in teaching and learning*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Simons, L. G., Chen, Y., Simons, R. L., Brody, G., & Cutrona, C. (2006). Parenting Practices and Child Adjustment in Different Types of Households: A Study of African American Families. *Journal of Family Issues*, 27, 803-825.

Skiba, R. J., Horner, R. H., Chung, C., Rausch, M., May, S. L., & Tobin, T. (2011). Race is not neutral: A national investigation of African American and Latino disproportionality in school discipline. *School Psychology Review*, 40(1), 85-107. Retrieved from: EBSCO*host*.

Soltz, D.F. (1986). Athletics and academic achievement: What is the relationship? *NASSP Bulletin, 70*(492), 20, 22-24.

Spanneut, G. (2010). Professional learning communities, principals, and collegial conversations. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 46(3), 100-103. Retrieved March 20, 2011, from ERIC database.

Spence, C. (2000). *The skin I'm in: Racism, sports, and education*. Halifax, CA: Fernwood Publishing.

Staples, R. (1986). The black family: Essays and studies (3rd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Stillwell, R. (2009). Public School Graduates and Dropouts from the common core of data: School Year 2006–07 (NCES 2010-313). National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC. Retrieved from: http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2010313

Streich, M. (2009). *High school sports: The downside of athletic programs destroys academic balance*. Retrieved from: http://high-school-culture.suite101.com/article.cfm/high_school_sports.

Sullivan, J. A. (2010). Making a difference: A study of the perceptions, classroom management, and instructional practices of teachers who use culturally responsive strategies to teach African American adolescent male students. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A*, 71, Retrieved from EBSCO*host*.

Sum, A., Khatiwada, I., McLaughlin, J., & Palma, S. (2009). *The consequences of dropping out of high school: Joblessness and jailing for high school dropouts and the high cost for taxpayers*. Retrieved from: http://www.clms.neu.edu/publication/documents/The_Consequences_of_Dropping_Out_of_High_School.pdf.

Swanson, C. B. (2008). Cities in Crisis: A special analytic report on high school graduation. *Editorial Projects in Education*. Retrieved from: Eric database (ED505655)

Theiss, D., & Grigsby, C. (2010). Measuring the achievement of professional development schools. School-University Partnerships, 4(1), 29-46. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EJ915879).

Thomas, D., & Stephenson, H. (2009). *Gender risks and education: The particular classroom challenges for urban low-income African-American boys*. Retrieved from: http://rre.sagepub.com/cgi/content/full/33/1/160.

Thomas-Lester, A. (2007). *Bettering the odds for young African-American men*. Retrieved from: http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/content/article/2007/07/11/AR2007071101089.html?nav=emailpage.

Thompson, H. A. (2011). Criminalizing Kids: The Overlooked Reason for Failing Schools. *Dissent* 58(4), 23-27. University of Pennsylvania Press. Retrieved April 15, 2015, from Project MUSE database.

Trudeau, F., & Shephard, R. J. (2008). International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity*, *5*(10), 5868-5. doi:10.1186/14795868-5-10

Tsoi-A-Fatt, R. (2010). *We dream a world: The 2025 vision for black men and boys.* Washington, DC: Twenty-First Century Foundation.

U.S. Department of Education. (2003). National assessment of educational progress 2002 Brief (No. NCES 2003^51). Washington DC: National Center for Educational Statistics, Institute of Educational Sciences, U.S. Department of Education.

U.S. Department of Education. (2004). *Title I - Improving the academic achievement of the disadvantaged. R*etrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/esea02/pg1.html

U. S. Department of Education. (2008). A nation accountable: Twenty-five years after A nation at risk. Washington, D. C. (ERIC Reproduction Service No. EJ90538).

U. S. Department of Education. (2010). Improving basic programs operated by local educational agencies. Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/programs/titleiparta/index.html

U.S. Department of Education. (2011). National assessment of educational progress 2011 Brief (No. NCES 2011^150). Washington DC: National Center for Educational Statistics, Institute of Educational Sciences, U.S. Department of Education.

United States Justice Department. (2009). *The Bureau of Justice Statistics Bulletin, Prisoners in 2007*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.

Wald, J., & Losen, D. (Eds.). (2003). Deconstructing the school-to-prison pipeline: New directions for youth development. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Walker, C. O., & Greene, B. A. (2009). The relations between student motivational beliefs and cognitive engagement in high school. *The Journal of Educational Research, 102*(6), 463-474.

Walker, R., Fergus, E., & Bryant, R. T. (2012). Great schools are not an accident: Standards and promising practices for educating boys of color. In S. Lewis, M.

Casserly, C. Simon, R. Uzzell & M. Palacios (Eds.). *A call for change: Providing solutions for Black male achievement* (pp. 5- 18). Washington, DC: Council of Great City Schools.

Waters, J. (2008). *ACT scores: African-American students fall farther behind*. Retrieved from: http://www.bipps.org/article.php/2108

Webster-Stratton, C., Reid, M. M., & Stoolmiller, M. (2008). Preventing conduct problems and improving school readiness: Evaluation of the incredible years teacher and child training programs in high-risk schools. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 49(5), 471-488. doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.2007.01861.

Whitley, R., & Pressley, J. (1995). A Comparison of the educational performances of athletes and non-athletes in 133 North Carolina high schools. National Forum Journals.

Wildeman, C., & Western, B. (2010). Incarceration in fragile families. Vol. 20, No. 2. Retrieved from: http://www.futureofchildren.org

Windschitl, M. R. (2008). *The relationship of participation in recreational sports with retention rates and academic success of first-year college students.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Minnesota, MN.

WMU Project AGE. (2002). *Developing Cultural Competence.* Western Michigan University Project AGE's website. Retrieved from: http://www.wmich.edu/hhs/ProjectAGE/focus_toc.html

Woodruff, A., and Schallert, D. (2008). Studying to play, playing to study: Nine

college student-athletes' motivational sense of self. *Department of Educational psychology, 33*, 34-57. doi:10.1016/j.cedpsych.2007.04.001

Worley, C. L., (2007). At-Risk Students and Academic Achievement: *The Relationship between certain selected factors and academic success*. Dissertation. Virginia Polytechnic and State University, Virginia.

Zeppieri, R. (2008). Professional learning communities & teacher-directed professional development. Learning Languages, 14(1), 16-19. Retrieved from: http://nnell.org/journal/php

Appendix A: CHAMPS (Phase 1) Professional Development Plan (PSDTP)

Championing Higher Achievement, Matriculation, Preparation and Success for Student Athletes

The Professional Staff Development and Training Program will be entitled CHAMPS for Student Athletes. The acronym CHAMPS is defined as **C**hampioning **H**igher **A**chievement, **M**atriculation, **P**reparation, and **S**uccess. CHAMPS is a professional development training program designed to help administrators, faculty and staff to improve the academic success of African American male student athletes. High school faculty and personnel will be provided with information and equipped with the practical tools to facilitate student learning which could lead to higher retention rates, lower dropout rates, improved scores on standardized tests and college entrance exams, increased graduation rates and matriculation to college.

The program has five topics with varying modes of delivery, including group participation, individualized assessment, self-paced instruction and technology skill building. Upon completion of the program, participants/stakeholders could include the professional development towards tenure and/or promotion. The in-house stakeholders' (administrators, faculty, and staff), will be paid their hourly wage based on their Rank and time in service with the local school district, over the 3 days of training and development. The program is designed to allow for flexibility and to take place during one calendar week beginning and ending in October of 2015 in the 2015 – 2016 academic school year to help sustain learning and enable application to the individual, classroom, and organization. The Professional Development and Training Program will be scheduled to take place over 3 days, 8 hours each day totaling 24 hours of professional development credit. The 3 days will be broken into six modules and nine sessions. Day one will cover modules 1-3 and training sessions 1- 6. Day two will cover modules 4 and 5 and training sessions 7-1 - 8-2. Day 3 will cover module 6 and training sessions 9-1 – 9-4. Each day will cover 8 hours, beginning at 8:00 a.m., contain a lunch break from 12:00 noon to 1:00 p.m., and ending at 4:20 p.m.

Professional Development Components:

3 day Professional Development and Training schedule:

Day 1 – Modules 1-3: Sessions 1 – 6:

Module 1 - Cultural competence continuum – Part I.

Session 1: Introduction – of the concept of cultural competence and inclusion. This topic will focus on building participant knowledge, awareness, and skills, and taking action. The Cultural Competence Continuum developed by Terry L. Cross (1988) will be the foundational model utilized. There are numerous models of cultural competency within the diversity field. The Cross Model of Cultural Competence is commonly recognized and referenced as a conceptual framework.

Session 2: Assessment of Individual Cultural Competency. Each participant will complete Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaires as a means to evaluate his/her individual knowledge and experience with cultural competence and diversity inclusion.

Session 3: Group participation exercises and individual self-reflection activity based upon individual scores on self-assessment questionnaires.

Module 2 – Cultural competence continuum continued – Part II.

Session 4: *If These Halls Could Talk*, by Lee Mun Wah.
Participants will watch the video, participate in a guided discussion, and complete several reflection exercises and educational cultural inclusion problem solving activities.

Module 3 – Introduction of the "Cross Model" continuum stages.

"*The Cross Model consists of six stages:*
1. Cultural Destructiveness;
2. Cultural Incapacity;
3. Cultural Blindness;
4. Cultural Pre-Competence;
5. Basic Cultural Competence; and
6. Advanced Cultural Competence.

Session 5 – 1st 3 stages:

1. Cultural Destructiveness -
This is the most negative end of the continuum. Individuals in this Phase:
a) View culture as a problem;
b) Believe that if culture or population can be suppressed or destroyed, people will be better off;
c) Believe that people should be more like the "mainstream"; and
d) Assume that one culture is superior and should eradicate "lesser" cultures.

At the organizational level, this viewpoint taken to the extreme leads to such things as genocide.

2. Cultural Incapacity
Individuals in this Phase:
a) Lack cultural awareness and skills;
b) May have been brought up in a homogeneous society, been taught to behave in certain ways, and never questioned what they were taught;
c) Believe in the racial superiority of a dominant group and assume a paternalistic posture toward others; and
d) Maintain stereotypes.

At the organizational level, this translates into supporting segregation or having lower expectations of persons from other cultures.

3. Cultural Blindness
Individuals in this Phase:
a) See others in terms of their own culture and claim that all people are exactly alike;
b) Believe that culture makes no difference ("we are all the same"); and
c) Believe that all people should be treated in the same way regardless of race.

At the organizational level, services are so ethnocentric that they are virtually useless to all but the most assimilated.

Session 6 – 2nd 3 Stages:

4. Cultural Pre-Competence
Individuals in this Phase:
a) Recognize that there are cultural differences and start to educate themselves and others concerning these differences;
b) Realize their shortcomings in interacting within a diverse environment; but
c) May become complacent in their efforts.

At the organizational level, this Phase leads institutions to attempt to address diversity issues by, for instance, hiring a diverse staff, offering cultural sensitivity training, promoting diverse staff to upper management, and so on.

5. Basic Cultural Competence
Individuals in this Phase:
a) Accept, appreciate, and accommodate cultural differences;
b) Value diversity and accept and respect differences;
c) Accept the influence of their own culture in relation to other cultures;

d) Understand and manage the dynamics of difference when cultures intersect; and
e) Are willing to examine components of cross-cultural interactions (communication, problem solving, etc.).

At the organizational level, this Phase leads to an effort to hire unbiased employees, to seek advice from communities of color (and others), and to assess what can be provided to diverse clients.

6. Advanced Cultural Competence
Individuals at this Phase:
a) Move beyond accepting, appreciating, and accommodating cultural difference and begin actively to educate less informed individuals about cultural differences; and
b) Seek out knowledge about diverse cultures, develop skills to interact in diverse environments, and become allies with and feel comfortable interacting with others in multicultural settings.

At the organizational level, this translates into conducting research on diversity, hiring staff who are specialists in cultural competence practices, and acting as an advocate for historically underrepresented groups and for multiculturalism" (Anand, 2000; Cross, 1988, pp. 1-9).

Day 2 - Modules 4 & 5: Sessions 7-1 – 8-2:

Module 4 - Student Learning Styles.

Session 7-1: African American Males learning styles. Participants will learn about the differences in learning styles and teaching strategies.

Session 7-2: *Understanding Black Male Learning Styles, Dr. Jawanza Kunjufu, December 30, 2010.*

- Utilizing Dr. Kunjufu's "Understanding African-American males Learning Styles" (2010) book of strategies and methods to design learning plans for African-American males will enable me to provide the participants of the professional training with information and the skills needed to learn how African-American males learn differently from their peers. It is an excellent tool to equip educators, parents, psychologists, mental therapist, coaches, mentors, and tutors with tried and proven lessons, strategies, and methods to effectively educate African-American males from adolescent aged boys to young adult men. Furthermore, using these resources will enable me to teach and train young non-African-

American teachers how to incorporate cultural inclusion and diversity into their classroom environments so that they may learn to identify, relate, openly communicate, and establish trusting relationships with African-American males and other diverse students of color in order to help them improve their academic success and reach college and career ready benchmarks at the SUS.

- Due to the SUS being an inner city school, Dr. Kunjufu's "*200+ Educational Strategies to Teach Children of Color" (2009);* will be a great asset to my professional development and training program because it will enable me to use a variety of approaches, methods, and strategies that utilize real-world issues instead of theoretical and hypothetical scenarios. These real-world issues and problems that occur in our school systems across the nation will help me prepare and equip the stakeholders with the training needed to help them overcome and deal with these problems as they occur in their teaching careers. This training will help many young teachers of all races and genders learn how to overcome their biased thinking, erroneous perceptions, and stereotypes of African-American males, lower socioeconomic, and "at-risk" students to better serve and teach them in their classroom and working environments. Another major benefit of utilizing these resources is that the training could help eliminate the high teacher turnover rate at the SUS by equipping the teachers with the knowledge, expertise, and assistance needed to help them adjust to the stressful demands of teaching at inner city schools.

Module 5 - Social Factors and the Achievement Gap.

Session 8-1: Participants will learn about the impact of socioeconomic status, first generation, parental involvement, supporting African American families and dispelling myths and building on strengths.

- Social Factors and Theories
- Impact of Socioeconomic status
- First Generation and Parental Involvement
- Dispelling Myths and Building Strengths of African-American Families

Session 8-2: Classroom application. Participants will develop a plan to create an environment that supports a culturally inclusive classroom. All participants will also design lesson plans that incorporate cultural diversity inclusion in combination with Kunjufu's African-American male learning styles for practical use and implementation in their real work environments.

Day 3 - Module 6, parts 1 and 2: Sessions 9-1 – 9-4:

Module 6 - Designing student learning outcomes – Part I.

Sessions 9-1: Student Involvement Theory - Developing soft skills: self-motivation, self-determination, social integration, conflict resolution, and successful test taking strategies.
Session 9-1: Research (Content) theory – Usage of Computer Technology, multimedia, videos, self-help, follow, and do presentations and other pedagogical teaching methods to prepare students for active learning.
Session 9-1: The Traditional Pedagogical Theory – Using input and output mechanisms to measure ones teaching and lesson development effectiveness.
Session 9-2: The Subject Matter Content Theory – Exposing students to the right subject matter content at the right time and requiring them to become audio, visual, and bodily-kinesthetic participants in their own learning.
Session 9- 2: The Place of the Development of the Student Involvement Theory – Teaching strategies that motivate student to become life-long learners who seek higher levels of learning on a continuous basis. Career and College Readiness.

Module 6 - Sports Participation and Social Theories – Part II.

Session 9-3: Introduction and discussion of Sports Participation and Social Theorists that argue for Sports Participation being good for African-American male student-athletes.
Session 9-4: Introduction and discussion of Sports Participation and Social Theorists that argue against Sports Participation being good for African-American male student-athletes. Practical application and exercises - Flip Pages with quizzes at the end of each theory.

Appendix A -1: CHAMPS – PHASE 1 **Professional Staff Development/Training Program (PSDTP) Curriculum** Professional Lesson Plan **3 Days will be configured into 6 learning Modules and 9 Training Sessions**. Totaling 24 hours' worth of PD credit. **Target Audience:** All Stakeholders (Administration, Faculty, and Staff at SUS)
Professional Development Learning Outcomes: All participant stakeholders in the CHAMPS –Phase 1- professional staff development and training will be expected to implement practice, and demonstrate knowledge based on the following outcomes.

1. Create an educational atmosphere and climate that respects cultural diversity and includes cultural competence utilizing the six stages of "The Cross Module of Cultural Competency".
a. Complete an Individual Cultural Competency Assessment of him or herself by completing a series of Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaires (Service Provider Version) for Administrators, Faculty, and Staff personnel.
See Appendices B - E.

2. Use and take into consideration social factors that African-American males experience in their daily lives to better understand, communicate, and identify with them to better serve and teach them in educational environments.

a. The focus and aim of this outcome is to devise teaching methods and strategies that will be effective with African-American males, helping close the academic achievement gaps.

3. Embrace African-American male learning styles to design lessons that are most effective and conducive to their learning subject matter content utilizing technology, hands-on practice, immersion and active engagement activities.
Dr. Jawanza Kunjufu's learning style and teaching curriculum will be used as the primary teaching tool during this training development.

4. Understand the effect of Sports Participation and Social theories that argue for and against sports participation being either good or detrimental to African-American males' academic achievement.

All participant stakeholders will be asked to create practical application exercises with quizzes at the end of each theory to demonstrate understanding of the content.

5. Explain, discuss, distinguish between, demonstrate the ability to implement, and design using all student learning outcome theories (student involvement, research/content, traditional pedagogical, subject matter content, and the place of the development of student involvement theory) coupled with college and career readiness student learning strategies in both the professional development and training as well as in their personal classroom and working environments.

6. Overall and from a professional development and training program perspective, use the stakeholder participants newly acquired, knowledge, skill, and expertise in the Phase 2 – CMTAEP – Coaching, Mentoring, and Tutoring Academic Enhancement Program. The overall outcome of this staff professional training is to equip them to serve as facilitators, coaches, mentors, and tutors in the afterschool academic enhancement program to improve the academic success of the African-American male student-athletes in the local school setting.

The Purpose of Professional Development CHAMPS

Phase 1- of the CHAMPS – Professional Staff Development and Training program is designed to provide the local SUS's administrators, faculty, and staff with information designed to equip them with the practical tools needed to facilitate student learning which could lead to higher retention rates, lower dropout rates, improved scores on standardized tests and college entrance exams, increased graduation rates and matriculation to college.

The Goals

Goal 1 - of the PSDTP (phase 1) is to teach, prepare, develop, and equip all stakeholders'(administrators, faculty, staff, and parents) with the tools needed to

successfully implement, run, and operate an afterschool academic improvement coaching, mentoring, and tutoring program.

Goal 2 - of CHAMPS (phase 2) is to use the aforementioned stakeholders who received the Phase 1 training to serve as facilitators, coaches, mentors, and tutors in the CMTAEP – phase 2 afterschool academic enhancement program to help the African-American male student athletes improve their academic success by providing them with services that will enable them to increase their GPAs, score higher marks on standardized and ACT tests, improve their graduation and lower their dropout rates, and help them to meet college and career ready NCLB benchmarks.

Lesson Plan Training Components

Description of Professional Development Plan and 3 day working Modules and Sessions

Teaching Materials:

1. Cultural Continuum Lesson Pamphlets containing Self-Assessment Questionnaires for all participants. 2. Terry Cross Model Continuum information packet. 3. Participant lessons, activities, and exercises.

***Teaching Methods:**

1. Lecture, discussion, group work, and use of technology to complete activities, exercises, and lessons.

Day 1 - Modules 1-3:

Cultural Competency, The Cross Model 6 stages, & completion of **Self- Assessment Questionnaires**.

Day 2 - Modules 4 & 5:

Student Learning Styles and an abbreviated coverage of the **Social Factors** associated with causing ***Achievement Gaps*** in the Education of African-American males and lower SES students.

Day 3 – Module 6:

Designing Student Learning Outcomes with abbreviated coverage of **Sports Participation and Social theories** associated with African-American males and education.

Appendix A-1: Day 1 - Lesson Plan

Modules 1-3 - Duration 8 hrs.

***Teaching Materials:**
1. Cultural Continuum Lesson Pamphlets containing Self-Assessment Questionnaires for all participants.
2. Terry Cross Model Continuum information packet.
3. Participant lessons, activities, and exercises.

***Teaching Methods:**
1. Lecture, discussion, group work, and use of technology to complete activities, exercises, and lessons.

Modules 1-3:
Cultural Competency & Inclusion

Module 1 – Time: (8:00-10:50) a.m.
Sessions 1-3: Introduction of
Cultural Competency, The Cross Model 6 stages,
& completion of Self- Assessment Questionnaires.

Module 2–Time: (11:00-12:00)
Session 4: Video – If these Halls Could Talk. Group Think/Discussion/Activity

****LUNCH:** 12-1:00 p.m.

Module 3 – The Cross Model
Session 5: Time: 1:10-2:40 pm
1st 3 stages Cross Model.

Session 6: Time: 2:50 -4:10 pm
2nd 3 stages Cross Model.

Closing Session 4:20 pm

Day 1 -Learning Sessions Description Activities:

Session 1– (8:00-9:00 a.m.)
1. Introduction -
Lecture, demonstration, and discussion of - Cultural Competence Continuum – & Terry Cross Model.

Session 2– (9:00-10:00 a.m.)
2. View video –"If these Halls Could Talk" then take part in a guided group discussion to complete a self-reflection exercise to help them identify and overcome their biased thinking and perceptions about other people of culturally diverse backgrounds.

Session 3– (10:00-11:00 a.m.)
3. C.C. S.A. Questionnaire results tabulations and cultural competency and diversity knowledge and practice self-reflection activity.

Session 4– (11:00-12:00 a.m.)
4. Participants will be given materials that will require them to engage themselves in discussions, participation activities, and to complete lessons to demonstrate learned knowledge of the 6 stages of the Cross Model Cultural Continuum. Introduction of Cultural Competency Inclusion and Cultural Diversity.

Session 5– (1:10-2:40 p.m.)
5. Introduce through lecture 1st 3 stages of the Cross Model. 1. Cultural destructiveness, 2. Cultural Incapacity and 3. Cultural Blindness. Participants will take part in a panel discussion, complete group work activities, and exercises that demonstrate acquired knowledge of the subject matter content.

Session 6– (2:50-4:10 p.m.)
6. Participants will be given materials that will require them to engage themselves in discussions, participation activities, and to complete lessons to demonstrate learned knowledge of the last 3 stages of the cross cultural continuum stages: 4. Cultural Pre-Competence, 5. Basic Cultural Competence, and 6. Advanced Cultural Competence.

Closing Session 4:20 p.m.

Meet in conference room to complete Plus/Delta End of day Professional Training Evaluation forms. Dismissal.

Appendix A-1: Day 2 – Lesson Plan

Modules 4 & 5 - Duration 8 hrs.

Student Learning Styles with an abbreviated coverage of the ***Social Factors*** associated with causing ***Achievement Gaps*** in the Education of African-American males and lower SES students.

***Teaching Materials:**

1. Dr. Jawanza Kunjufu's abbreviated Understanding Black Male Learning Styles, Folder created by Lecturer.
2. Social Factors theories that lead to educational achievement gaps.
2. Guided notes and sample learning style method, social factor theories, and strategies to remedy achievement gaps associated with African-American males and lower socioeconomic students.
3. Participant lessons, activities, and exercises.

***Teaching Methods:**

1. Lecture, discussion, group work, and use of technology to complete activities, exercises, and lessons.

Module 4
Student Learning Styles

Session 7-1:– **(**8:00-9:50) a.m.
1. Introduction of Student Learning Styles – Dr. Jawanza Kunjufu. *Understanding Black Male Learning Styles, 2010.*

Session 7-2: (10:00–12:00) noon
2. Demonstration and participant practical application lesson activities – Student Learning Styles.

****LUNCH:** 12-1:00 p.m.

Module 5:

Social Factors & Achievement Gaps:

Session 8-1–(1:10- 2:10) p.m.
1. Introduction to **Social Factors and Achievement Gaps** (abbreviated).

Session 8-2 – (2:15-4:10) p.m.
2. Demonstration and Participant practical application lesson and exercises.

Day 2 - Learning Session Description of Activities:

Session 7-1: **(**8:00-9:50) a.m. Student Learning Styles – Dr. Jawanza Kunjufu – 1. View "You Tube" lectures of Dr. Jawanza Kunjufu's training on African-American Male Student Learning Styles.

Session 7-2: (10:00–12:00) noon
2. Participate in the creation and design of lesson plans, student activities, exercises and assignments using the methods and strategies recommended in Dr. Kunjufu's training.

3. Implementing and designing techniques, teaching strategies and methods that includes scaffolding, differentiated instruction, hands on, active and immersion, and computer technology to most effectively teach African-American males subject matter content.

Session 8-1–(1:10- 2:10) p.m.
Social Factors &Achievement Gaps (abbreviated).
1. Introduction to the many Social Factors that impact the educational progress of African-American males.

2. Lecture and discussion, on topics: Social factor theories, Socioeconomic status, First Generation and Parental Involvement factors, and Dispelling myths to build on strengths to better educate African-American males and lower socio economic students.

3. Activities, group work, panel discussion, and participation in self-reflection exercise.

Session 8-2 – (2:15-4:10) p.m.
4. Working Sessions
Participants will identify certain social factors that impede learning (cause achievement gaps) in their personal teaching and learning environments to design student practical application lesson, exercises, and activities to best teach their students subject matter content.

Closing Session 4:20 p.m.

Meet in conference room to complete Plus/Delta End of day Professional Training Evaluation forms. Dismissal.

Appendix A-1: Day 3 – Lesson Plan

Module 6 - Duration 8 hrs.

Designing Student Learning Outcomes *with abbreviated coverage of* **Sports Participation and Social theories** *associated with African-American males and education*

***Teaching Materials:**

1. Pamphlets containing Sports participation and Social factor theories associated with African-American males and education.
2. Guided notes and sample learning style method, social theories, and sports participation theories associated with African-American males.
3. Participant lessons, activities, and exercises.

***Teaching Methods:**

1. Lecture, discussion, group work, and use of technology to complete activities, exercises, and lessons.

Designing Student Learning Outcomes (8:00-12:00) noon

Introduction – Designing Student Learning Outcomes utilizing the 5 Student Learning Theories.

Session 9-1 – (8:00-10:00) a.m.

1. Introduction – 1st 3 Student Learning Theories.

Session 9-2 – (10:00-12:00)

2. Introduction – last 2 Student Learning Theories.
3. College & Career Readiness

****LUNCH:** 12-1:00 p.m.

Session 9-3 – 1:15- 2:40 p.m.

4. Introduction of Sports Participation and Social Theories of African-American males in education.

Session 9-4 – 2:50- 4:10 p.m.

4. Culmination of 3day professional development and training activities major project development activity.
5. Create and design Cultural Competency and Diversity Lessons in combination with African-American male learning styles and designing learning outcomes Subject Matter and The Place of the Development of Student Involvement Theory

Day 3 -Learning Session Description of Activities:

Session 9-1 – (8:00-10:00) a.m.

1. Introduction – 1st 3 Student Learning Theories:

2. Student Involvement Theory – Developing soft skills: self-motivation, determination, integration, conflict resolution, and successful test taking strategies.
2. Research (Content) theory – Usage of Computer Technology, Multimedia, videos, self-help, follow, and technology use.
3. The Traditional Pedagogical theory-Using input and output mechanisms to develop effectiveness.

Session 9-2 – (10:00-12:00)

4. Introduction – last 2 Student Learning Theories.
4. The Subject Matter Content theory – exposing students to the right subject at the right time. Using audio, visual, and bodily-kinesthetic methods to improve their own learning.
5. The Place of the Development of the Student Involvement Theory-teaching strategies to become life-long learners and seek higher levels of learning on a continuous basis.

Session 9-3 – 1:15- 2:40 p.m.

4. Introduction of Sports Participation and Social Theories of African-American males in education.

Session 9-4 – 2:50- 4:10 p.m.

6. College & Career Readiness – meeting the academic benchmarks in science, reading, mathematics, and English through effective lesson plan design utilizing Cross cultural inclusion, African-American male learning styles and strategies based on uniquely designed learning outcomes based on the student involvement theories
7. Culmination of 3day professional development and training activities major project development activity.
8. Create and design Cultural Competency and Diversity Lessons in combination with African-American male learning styles and designing learning outcomes Subject

Closing Session 4:20 p.m.

Meet in conference room to complete Plus/Delta End of day Professional Training Evaluation forms. Dismissal.

Appendix B: Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire

Service Provider Version

This questionnaire is designed to assess cultural competence training needs of mental health and human service professionals. The self-assessment process is used to develop agency-specific training interventions, which address cross-cultural weaknesses and build upon cross-cultural strengths of the staff generally and organization specifically. Cultural competence is a developmental process; therefore, the goal is to promote positive movement along the cultural competence continuum. Thus, the assessment should be viewed as an indication of areas in which the agency and staff can, over time, enhance attitudes, practices, policies, and structures concerning service delivery to culturally diverse populations. Your responses are strictly confidential and will solely be used to identify areas in which planned growth and greater awareness can occur.

Instructions: Please circle or otherwise mark the response that most accurately reflects your perceptions. If you have trouble understanding a question, answer to the best of your ability. Feel free to expand your responses or note concerns on the backs of the pages. Inapplicable questions will be statistically eliminated from the analysis. Please keep in mind that there is no way to perform poorly.

KNOWLEDGE OF COMMUNITIES

1. How well are you able to describe the communities of color in your service area?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

2. Please list the cultural group(s) of color who reside in your service area and how much of the overall population this represents:

Group	Percent of Population in Service Area	Percent of Population in State

2a. How well are you able to describe within-group differences?

NOT AT ALL1 8ARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

3. How well are you able to describe the strengths of the groups of color in your service area?

NOT AT ALL1 8ARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

4. How well are you able to describe the social problems of the groups of color in your service area?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

5. To what extent do you know the following demographic characteristics within communities of color in your service area? *(Circle the number of your response for each area).*

	NOT AT ALL	BARELY	FAIRLY WELL	VERY WELL
• **unemployment rates**	1	2	3	4
• **geographic locations**	1	2	3	4
• **income differential**	1	2	3	4
• **educational attainment**	1	2	3	4
• **birth/death rates**	1	2	3	4
• **crime rate**	1	2	3	4
• **homicide rates**	1	2	3	4
• **owner occupancy rates**	1	2	3	4

6. To what extent do you know the following resources regarding the people of color in your service area? ***(Circle the number of your response for each area.)***

	NOT AT ALL	BARELY	FAIRLY WELL	VERY WELL
• **social historians**	1	2	3	4
• **informal supporters and natural helpers**	1	2	3	4
• **formal social service agencies**	1	2	3	4
• **formal leaders**	1	2	3	4
• **informal leaders**	1	2	3	4
• **business people**	1	2	3	4
• **advocates**	1	2	3	4
• **clergy or spiritualists**	1	2	3	4

7. Do you know the prevailing beliefs, customs, norms and values of the groups of color in your service area7

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

8. Do you know the social service needs within communities of color that go unaddressed by the formal social service system?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

9. Do you know of social service needs that can be addressed by natural networks of support within the communities of color?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

10. Do you know of any conflicts between or within groups of color in your service area 7

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY 2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

11. Do you know the greeting protocol within communities of color?

NOT AT ALL1 B ARELY 2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

12. Do you know the cultural-specific perspectives of mental health/illness as viewed by the groups of color in your area?

NOT AT ALL1 8ARELY 2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

13. Do you understand the conceptual distinction between the terms "immigrant" and "refugee"?

NOT AT ALL1 8ARELY 2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

14. Do you know what languages are used by the communities of color in your area 7

NOT AT ALL1 8ARELY 2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

15. Are you able to describe the common needs of people of *all colors* in your community?

NOT AT ALL1 8ARELY 2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

PERSONAL INVOLVEMENT

16. Do you attend cultural or racial group holidays or functions within communities of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

17. Do you interact socially with people of color within your service area?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

18. Do you attend school-based meetings that impact people of color in your service area?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

19. Do you attend community forums or neighborhood meetings within communities of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

20. Do you patronize businesses owned by people of color in your service area?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

21. Do you pursue recreational or leisure activities within communities of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

22. Do you feel safe within communities of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

23. Do you attend interagency coordination (IAC) meetings that impact service delivery in communities of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

24. Do you attend community- or culturally-based advocacy group meetings within communities of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

RESOURCES AND LINKAGES

25. Does your agency work collaboratively with programs that provide . . .

	NOT AT ALL	BARELY	FAIRLY WELL	VERY WELL
● employment training?	1	2	3	4
● educational opportunity?	1	2	3	4
housing?	1	2	3	4
● alcohol/substance abuse treatment?	1	2	3	4
● maternal and child health services?	1	2	3	4
public health services?	1	2	3	4
● juvenile justice services?	1	2	3	4
recreation services?	1	2	3	4
● child welfare services?	1	2	3	4
● youth development services?	1	2	3	4

26. Does your agency have linkages with institutions of higher education (e.g., colleges, universities, or professional schools) that can provide accurate information concerning communities of color?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

27. Does your agency have linkages with civil rights, human rights, or human relations groups that provide accurate information concerning populations of color?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

28. Does your agency have linkages with the U.S. Department of the Census, local planners, chambers of commerce, or philanthropic groups who can provide you with accurate information regarding populations of color?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

29. Does your agency publish or assist in the publication of information focusing on cultural groups of color?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

30. Has your agency conducted or participated in a needs assessment utilizing providers in communities of color as respondents?

NEVER1 ONCE OR TWICE2 A FEWTIMES3 A NUMBER OF TIMES4

31. Has your agency conducted or participated in a needs assessment utilizing consumer or family members of color as respondents?

NEVER1 ONCE OR TWICE2 A FEWTIMES3 A NUMBER OF TIMES4

32. Does your agency have linkages with advocates for communities of color who can provide reliable information regarding community opinions about diverse and important issues?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

33. Does your agency conduct open house-type events to which you invite providers, consumers, and others concerned with service delivery to communities of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

34. Does staff utilize cultural consultants who can help them work more effectively within a cultural context?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

35. Does your agency utilize interpreters to work with non-English speaking persons?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

36. Does your agency subscribe to publications (local or national) in order to stay abreast of the latest information about populations of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

37. Does staff have access to culturally-related materials (books, video, etc.)?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

38. Do you maintain a personal library with cultural resources?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

39. Does agency staff regularly attend cross-cultural workshops?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

40. Are agency staff encouraged to take ethnic studies courses?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

41. Do agency workspaces contain cultural artifacts?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

STAFFING

42. Are there people of color on the staff of your agency?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

43. Are there people of color represented in . . .

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

	NOT AT ALL	BARELY	FAIRLY WELL	VERY WELL
• administrative positions?	1	2	3	4
• direct service positions?	1	2	3	4
• administration support	1	2	3	4
• positions?				
◦ operational support positions?	1	2	3	4
◦ board positions?	1	2	3	4
• agency consultants?	1	2	3	4
• case consultants?	1	2	3	4
• (sub) contractors?	1	2	3	4

44. Does your agency...

NEVER SELDOM SOMETIMES REGULARLY

	NOT AT ALL	BARELY	FAIRLY WELL	VERY WELL
• hire natural helpers or other non-credentialed people of color as para-professionals?	1	2	3	4
• hire practicum students or interns of color?	1	2	3	4
• out-station staff in communities of color?	1	2	3	4
• hire bilingual staff?	1	2	3	4

45. Does your agency prepare new staff to work with people of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

46. Does your agency provide training that helps staff work with people of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

47. Does your agency emphasize active recruitment of people of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

48. How well has your agency been able to retain people of color on staff?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

49. Does your agency staff routinely discuss barriers to working across cultures?

NEVER1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 REGULARLY4

50. Does agency staff routinely discuss their feelings about working with consumers/co-workers of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

51. Does agency staff routinely share practice-based success stories involving people of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

52. Does your agency direct students of color towards careers in human service or related occupations?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

53. Does your agency convene or reward activities that promote learning new languages relevant to the communities of color that the agency serves?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

SERVICE DELIVERY AND PRACTICE (for Direct Service staff Only)

54. Are you familiar with the limitations of mainstream diagnostic tools as applied to people of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

55. Do you discuss racial/cultural issues with consumers in the treatment process?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

56. Do you willingly share information with clients about your personal or professional background?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

57. Do you share some of your personal feelings with clients?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

58. Do you assess client acculturation or assimilation with respect to the mainstream culture?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

59. How well do you use cultural strengths and resources when planning services to clients of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

60. Do you use cultural references or historical accomplishments as a source of empowerment for people of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

61. Do you use treatment interventions that have been developed for populations of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

62. Do your treatment plans contain a cultural perspective (e.g., role of extended family, spiritual/religious beliefs, issues related to the formation of cultural identity) that acknowledges different value systems of people of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

63. Do you advocate for quality of life issues (e.g., employment, housing, educational opportunities) identified as important by communities of color in your service area?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

64. Are you familiar with the use of moderator variables?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

65. Do you use ethnographic interviewing as a technique to gather more accurate information?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

66. Do you use self-disclosure in the treatment process?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

67. Do you encourage the involvement of extended family members or significant others in diagnosis, treatment planning or evaluation of treatment?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

68. Do you see clients outside of your usual office setting?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

	No POLICY	CONSIDERING POLICY	FORMAL POLICY	POLICY IN PLACE
• use culture-specific assessment instruments for diagnosis?	1	2	3	4
•use culture-specific treatment approaches?	1	2	3	4
•envision community empowerment as a treatment goal?	1	2	3	4
• review case practice on a regular basis to determine relevancy to clients of color?	1	2	3	4
•provide or facilitate child care7		2	3	4
•provide or facilitate transportation (e.g., bus tickets, ride-sharing)?	1	2	3	4
• allow access after regular business hours (e.g., through message-beeper, agreements with Crisis-providers, etc.)?	1	2	3	4
• specifically consider *culture* in service plans?	1	2	3	4
• conduct outreach to community- based organizations, social service agencies, natural helpers, or extended families?	1	2	3	4

• take referrals from non-traditional sources?	1	2	3	4
•translate agency materials into languages that reflect the linguistic diversity in your service area.	1	2	3	4
•solicit input from groups of color with respect to physical plant location and interior design.	1	2	3	4
•advocate for a better quality of life for persons of color in addition to providing services for people of color?.	1	2	3	4

69. Do you use clergy or people from the spiritual community to enhance services to people of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

70. Do you dismiss clients that come late for their appointments?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

71. Do you use consumer satisfaction measures to evaluate service delivery?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

72. Do you ensure that clients of color have transportation, child care, and other arrangements which facilitate access to your services?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

ORGANIZATIONAL POLICY AND PROCEDURES

73. As a matter of formal policy, does your agency. . .

CURRENTLY WRITING

74. In general, how well are policies communicated to agency staff?

NOT AT ALL, 8ARELY, FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

75. Is information on the ethnicity or culture of clients specifically recorded in your organization's management information system?

NOT AT ALL1 MINIMALLY 2 PRETTY WELL3 VERY WELL4

REACHING OUT TO COMMUNITIES

76. How well do you assure that communities of color are aware of your program and the services and resources you offer?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

77. Does your organization or agency reach out to. . .

	NEVER	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	REGULARLY
• churches and other places of worship, clergy persons, ministerial alliances, or indigenous religious leaders in communities of color?	1	2	3	4
• medicine people, health clinics, chiropractors, naturopaths, herbalists, or midwives that provide services in communities of color?	1	2	3	4
• publishers, broadcast or other media sources within communities of color?	1	2	3	4
• formal entities that provide services?	1	2	3	4
• cultural, racial, or tribal organizations where people of color are likely to voice complaints or issues?	1	2	3	4
• business alliances or organizations in communities of color?	1	2	3	4

78. Are people of color depicted on agency brochures or other print media?

NOT AT ALL, SELDOM2 SOMETIME53 0FTEN4

79. Does your agency participate in cultural, political, religious, or other events or festivals sponsored by communities of color?

NOT AT ALL, SELDOM2 SOMETIME53 0FTEN4

Appendix C: Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire

Administration Version

This questionnaire is designed to assess cultural competence training needs of human services organizations and administrative staff. The goal of this self- assessment process is used to develop agency-specific training interventions that address cross-cultural weaknesses and build upon cross-cultural strengths of a given organization and its administrative staff. Because cultural competence is a developmental process, the assessment should not be viewed as a static measure but as an indication of areas in which the program and staff can enhance their attitudes, practices, policies and structures as they relate to culturally diverse populations over time. Your responses are strictly confidential and will not result in individual comparisons, but will be used to identify areas in which planned growth and greater awareness can occur.

Instructions: Please circle or otherwise mark the response that most accurately reflects your perceptions. If you have trouble understanding a question, answer to the best of your ability. Feel free to expand your responses or note concerns on the backs of the pages. Inapplicable questions will be statistically eliminated from the analysis. Please keep in mind that there is no

KNOWLEDGE OF COMMUNITIES

1. How well are you able to describe the communities of color in your service area?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

2. Please list the cultural groups of color who reside in your service area and how much of the overall population this represents:

Group in Service Area	Percent of Population in State	Percent of Population
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

2a. How well are you able to describe within-group differences?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

3. How well are you able to describe the strengths of the groups of color in your service area?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

4. How well are you able to describe the social or community problems of the groups of color in your service area?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

5. To what extent do you know the following demographic characteristics within communities of color in your service area? *(Circle the number of your response for each area.)*

	Not AT All	BARELY	FAIRLY WELL	VERY WELL
• unemployment rates	1	2	3	4
• geographic locations	1	2	3	4
• income differentials	1	2	3	4
• educational attainment	1	2	3	4
• birth/death rates	1	2	3	4
• crime rates	1	2	3	4
• homicide rates	1	2	3	4
• owner occupancy rates	1	2	3	4

6. To what extent do you know the following resources regarding the people of color in your service area? *(Circle the number of your response for each area.)*

	NOT AT ALL	BARELY	FAIRLY WELL	VERY WELL
• social historians	1	2	3	4
• informal supports and natural helpers	1	2	3	4
• formal social service agencies	1	2	3	4
• formal leaders	1	2	3	4
• informal leaders	1	2	3	4
• business alliances	1	2	3	4
• advocates	1	2	3	4
• clergy or spiritualists	1	2	3	4

7. Do you know the prevailing beliefs, customs, norms and values of the groups of color in your service area?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

8. Do you know the social service needs within communities of color that go unaddressed by the formal social service system?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

9. Do you know of social service needs that can be addressed by natural networks of support within communities of color?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

10. Do you know of conflicts between or within groups of color in your service area?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

11. Do you know the greeting protocol within communities of color?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 VERLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

12. Do you know the cultural-specific perspectives of mental health/illness as viewed by the groups of color in your area?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

13. Do you understand the conceptual distinction between the terms "immigrant" and "refugee"7

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

14. Do you know what languages are used by the communities of color in your area?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

15. Are you able to describe the common needs of people of all colors in your community?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

PERSONAL INVOLVEMENT

16. Do you attend cultural or racial group holidays within communities of color?

Not AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

17. Do you interact socially with people of color in within your service area?

Not AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

18. Do you attend school-based meetings within communities of color in your service area?

Not AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

19. Do you attend community forums or neighborhood meetings within?

Not AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

20. Do you patronize businesses owned by people of color in your service area?

Not AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 0FTEN4

21. Do you pursue recreational or leisure activities within communities of color7

Not AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

22. Do you feel safe within communities of color?

Not AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

23. Do you attend interagency coordination meetings (IAC) that impact service delivery in communities of color?

Not AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

24. Do you attend community- or culturally-based advocacy group meetings within communities of color?

Not AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

RESOURCES AND LINKAGES

25. Does your agency work collaboratively with programs that provide . . .

	NOT AT ALL	BARELY	FAIRLY WELL	VERY WELL
• employment training?	1	2	3	4
• educational opportunity?	1	2	3	4
• housing?	1	2	3	4
• alcohol/substance abuse treatment?	1	2	3	4
• mental and child health services?	1	2	3	4
• public health services?	1	2	3	4
• juvenile justice services?	1	2	3	4
• recreation services?	1	2	3	4
• child welfare services?	1	2	3	4
• youth development services?	1	2	3	4

26. Does your agency have linkages with institutions of higher education (e.g., colleges, universities, or professional schools) that can provide accurate information concerning communities of color?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

27. Does your agency have linkages with civil rights, human rights, or human relations groups that provide accurate information concerning populations of color?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

28. Does your agency have linkages with the U.S.? Department of the Census, local planners, chambers of commerce, or philanthropic groups who can provide you with accurate information regarding populations of color?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

29. Does your agency publish or assist in the publication of information focusing on cultural groups of color?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

30. Has your agency conducted or participated in a needs assessment utilizing providers in communities of color as respondents?

NEVER1 ONCE OR TWICE 2 A FEWTIMES3 A NUMBER OF TIMES4

31. Has your agency conducted or participated in a needs assessment utilizing consumers or family members as respondents?

NEVER1 ONCE OR TWICE 2 A FEWTIMES3 A NUMBER OF TIMES4

32. Does your agency have linkages with advocates for communities of color who can provide reliable information regarding community opinions about diverse and important issues?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

33. Does your agency conduct open house-type events to which you invite providers, consumers, and others concerned with service delivery to communities of color?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

34. Does staff utilize cultural consultants who can help them work more effectively within a cultural context?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

35. Does your agency utilize interpreters to work with non-English speaking persons?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

36. Does your agency subscribe to publications (local or national) in order to stay abreast of the latest information about populations of color?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

37. Does staff have access to culturally-related materials (books, video, etc.)?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

38. Do you maintain a personal library with cultural resources?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

39. Does agency staff regularly attend cross-cultural workshops?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

40. Are agency staff encouraged to take ethnic studies courses?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

41. Do agency workspaces contain cultural artifacts?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

STAFFING

42. Are there people of color on the staff of your agency?

NONE1 A FEW2 SOME3 MANY4

43. Are there people of color represented in . . .

	NONE	AFEW	SOME	MANY
•administrative positions?	1	2	3	4
•direct service positions?	1	2	3	4
•administrative support positions?	1	2	3	4
•operational support positions?	1	2	3	4
•board positions?	1	2	3	4
• Agency consultants?	1	2	3	4
•case/consultants	1	2	3	4
•(sub) contractors?	1	2	3	4

44. Does your agency

	NEVER	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	REGULARLY
•hire natural helpers or other Non-credentialed people of color as para-professionals?	1	2	3	4
•hire practicum students or Interns of color?	1	2	3	4
•out-station staff in communities of color?	1	2	3	4
•hire bilingual staff?	1	2	3	4

45. Does your agency prepare new staff to work with people of color?

NOT AT All1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WEll3 VERY Well4

46. Does your agency provide training that helps staff work with people of color?

NOT AT All1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

47. Does your agency emphasize active recruitment of people of color?

NONE1 A LITTLE2 SOME3 A LOT4

48. How well has your agency been able to retain people of color on staff?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

49. Does your agency staff routinely discuss barriers to working across cultures?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 METIMES3 OFTEN4

50. Does agency staff routinely discuss their feelings about working with consumers or coworkers of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

51. Does agency staff routinely share agency or practice-based "success stories" involving people of color?

NOT AT All1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

52. Does your agency direct students of color towards careers in human service or related occupations?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES$_3$ OFTEN4

53. Does your agency convene activities that promote learning new languages relevant to the communities of color that the agency serves?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES$_3$ OFTEN4

ORGANIZATIONAL POLICY AND PROCEDURES

54. As a matter of formal policy, does your agency. . .

	NO POLICY	CONSIDERING POLICY	CURRENTLY WRITING FORMAL POLICY	POLICY IN PLACE
➢ use culture-specific assessment instruments for diagnosis?	1	2	3	4
➢ use culture-specific treatment approaches?	1	2	3	4
➢ envision community empowerment as a treatment goal?	1	2	3	4

55. In general, how well are policies communicated to agency staff?

NOT AT ALL1 8ARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

56. Is information on the ethnicity or culture of clients specifically recorded in your organization's management information system?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERYWEL4

REACHING OUT TO COMMUNITIES

No Policy	CONSIDERING Policy	CURRENTLY WRITINGFORMAL Policy	POLICY IN Place	No Policy
➢ review case practice on a regular basis to determine relevancy to communities of color?	1	2	3	4
➢ provide or facilitate child care?	1	2	3	4
➢ provide or facilitate transportation (e.g., bus tickets, ride-sharing)?	1	2	3	4
➢ allow access after regular business hours (e.g., through message-beeper, agreements with crisis-providers, etc.)?	1	2	3	4
➢ specifically consider culture in service plans?	1	2	3	4
➢ conduct outreach to community-based organizations, social service agencies, natural helpers, or extended families?	1	2	3	4
➢ take referrals from non-traditional sources?	1	2	3	4
➢ translate agency materials into languages that reflect the linguistic diversity in your service area?	1	2	3	4
➢ solicit input from groups of color with respect to physical plant location and interior design?	1	2	3	4
➢ advocate for a better quality of life for persons of color in addition to providing services?	1	2	3	4

57. How well do you assure that communities of color are aware of your program and the services and resources you offer?

NOT AT ALL1 BARELY2 FAIRLY WELL3 VERY WELL4

58. Does your organization or agency reach out to . . .

	NEVER	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	REGULARLY
➢ churches and other ministerial alliances, or indigenous religious leaders in communities of color?				
➢ medicine people, health clinics, chiropractors, naturopaths, herbalists or midwives that provide services in or to members of communities of color?	1	2	3	4
➢ publishers, broadcast or other media sources within communities of color?	1	2	3	4
➢ formal entities that services?	1	2	3	4
➢ cultural, racial, or tribal organizations where people of color are likely to voice complaints or issues?	1	2	3	4
organizations in communities of color?				

59. Are people of color depicted on agency brochures or other print media?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

60. Does your agency participate in cultural, political, religious, or other events or festivals sponsored by communities of color?

NOT AT ALL1 SELDOM2 SOMETIMES3 OFTEN4

Appendix D: Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire Scale

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Now we would like to ask you questions about yourself. These are for research purposes only and will not be used to identify you.

A. The following personal identification code allows you to keep your responses anonymous but allows the surveys to be matched in the future.

Personal identification code:

First three letters of your mother's maiden name:

__ __ __

Please circle the appropriate number or fill in where requested.

B. Sex: 1. Female 2. Male

C. Race:
1. Asian/Pacific Islander
2. Black/African American
3. Hispanic- or Latino-American
4. Native American/American Indian
5. Caucasian
6. Other *(please specify* _____

D. Age: _____ Years

E. Marital Status:
1. Married or marriage-like living arrangement
2. Single
3. Divorced
4. Separated
5. Widowed

F. Highest level of education:
1. Some high school or less
2. High school diploma or GED
3. Business or trade school
4. Some college
5. College degree
6. Some graduate school
7. Graduate degree

G. Professional Affiliation:
1. Social Worker
2. Psychiatrist
3. Psychologist
4. Nurse
5. Business
6. Accounting
7. Teacher
8. Physician
9. Lawyer
10. Case Manager

11. Other *(please specify)* _____

H. Position and Experience:

Position: _____

Years with agency: _____

Years' experience in administration: _____

Years' experience in direct service: _____

I. To what extent are you involved with the analysis or formation of agency policy?

1. Very much 2. Sometimes 3. Very rarely 4. Not at all

J. How many cultural awareness/competence workshops or conferences have you attended since 1975?

1. None
2. 1 to 3
3. 4 to 6
4. 7 to 9
5. 10 or more

K. Rank in order of most to least the groups of color:

a. with whom you serve most

_____

_____

_____

_____

b. Of which you feel most knowledgeable

_____

_____

_____

_____

c. With whom you have most social contact

_____

_____

_____

_____

L. Which of the following experiences apply to you? Check all that apply.

_____ personal military experience

if so, for how long? _____ years

_____ parents who were career military

_____ Peace Corps

_____ Vista

_____ lived in a foreign country

_____ if so, for how long? _____ years where?

_____ active religious affiliation
if so, please list: _____

M. list any foreign languages that you currently speak.

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix E: Subscale Analyses

Knowledge of Communities: This subscale concerns awareness of the respective cultural groups, how they differ from the dominant culture, how they differ internally, and how they differ from non-mainstream cultural groups. Therefore, cultural beliefs, vulnerabilities, strengths, demographics, and contextual realities are of central focus. In particular, it is important for professionals and systems to understand issues and factors which can preclude or support specific clinical or programmatic efforts respectively.

SCALE: Knowledge of Communities	SPV* MEAN	ADV* MEAN
Ability to describe communities of color in area	1**	1
Ability to describe within-group differences	2a	2a
Ability to list cultural strengths	3	3
Ability to list social problems	4	4
Knowledge of risk factors by group a. unemployment rates b. geographic locations c. income differential attainment d. educational attainment e. birth/death rates f. crime rates g. homicide rates h. owner occupancy rates	5	5
Knowledge of group resources a. social historians b. informal supports and natural helpers c. formal service systems utilized d. formal leaders e. informal leaders f. business alliances g. advocacy groups or organizations h. clergy or spiritualists	6	6
Knowledge of prevailing beliefs, customs, norms, of respective groups	7	7
Knowledge of unmet social service needs by groups	8	8
Services that can be addressed by natural helping networks	9	9

* Service Provider Version

* Administration Version

— Number corresponds to question number on survey

Knowledge of conflicts within and between communities of color	10	10
Knowledge of greeting protocol within communities of color	11	11
Knowledge of cultural-specific definitions of mental health/illness	12	12
Knowledge of conceptual distinction between terms "immigrant" and "refugee"	13	13
Knowledge of languages used by groups of color	14	14
Ability to describe common needs of people of a// colors	15	15
SUBSCALE MEANS (KNOWLEDGE)		

Personal Involvement: This subscale concerns the degree to which professionals and agencies demonstrate reciprocity to a given ethnic community or community of color. Much of the cross-cultural literature considers personal involvement as one of the highly effective methods of both learning about and showing respect to diverse communities.

SCALE: Personal Involvement	SPV MEAN	ADV MEAN
Attend cultural/racial holidays and rituals	16	16
Interact socially with people of color in area	17	17
Attend school-based meetings	18	18
Attend community forums in communities of color	19	19
Patronize businesses owned by people of color	20	20
Pursue recreational or leisure activities within communities of color	21	21
Feel safe in communities of color	22	22
Attend interagency coordination meetings	23	23
Attend community- or culturally-based advocacy meetings in communities of color	24	24
SUBSCALE MEAN TOTALS (INVOLVE)		

Resources and Linkages: This subscale is an indication of the system's ability to effectively utilize both formal and informal networks of support within a given cultural community to develop a comprehensive system of care. Such linkages with the various resources are often vital outlets for personnel recruitment, community education, and for obtaining demographic, theoretical, or philosophical perspectives of a given cultural community. Moreover, with the shrinking of formal service systems over recent years, natural networks are often necessary to provide a more individualized array of services to more completely meet the needs of a given client or family.

SCALE: Resources and Linkages MEAN	SPV	ADV MEAN
Work collaboratively with programs that provide: a. employment training b. educational opportunity c. housing d. alcohol/substance abuse treatment e. maternal and child health services f. public health services g. juvenile justice services h. recreational services i. child welfare services j. youth development services	25	25
Linkages with higher education	26	26
Linkages with civil rights, human rights or advocacy groups	27	27
Links with census, planner, etc. for accurate information regarding people of color	28	28
Publish or assist in publishing information on cultural groups/issues	29	29
Needs assessments using providers	30	30
Needs assessments using consumers/family member of color	31	31
Key cultural contacts or advocates for communities of color	32	32
Conduct open house-type events	33	33
Consult with individuals about specific cultural groups of color	34	34
Utilize interpreters to work with linguistically-diverse persons of color	35	35
Subscribe to publications for information of communities of color	36	36

Staff access to culturally-related materials (books, videos, etc.)	37	37

Maintain personal library with cultural references	38	38
Attend cross-cultural workshop	39	39
Take ethnic studies course	40	40
Workspace or office contain cultural artifacts	41	41
SUBSCALE MEAN TOTAL (RESOURCES)		

Staffing: This subscale addresses the recruitment and retention of diverse staff, preparation of new staff, training activities convened by the agency, and the various activities generally sanctioned by the agency to keep staff abreast of cultural issues.

SCALE: S Wing MEAN	SPV	ADV MEAN
People of color on staff	42	42
Are there people of color represented in: a. administrative positions b. direct service positions c. administrative support positions d. operational support positions e. board positions f. agency consultants g. (sub) contractors	43	43
Does your agency: a. hire natural helpers b. utilize practicum or intern students of color c. station staff in ethnic enclaves d. hire bilingual staff	44	44
Prepare new staff for culturally-diverse clients/communities	45	45
Cultural training of people of color	46	46
Active recruiting of people of color	47	47
Retain people of color on staff	48	48
Routinely discuss barriers to services faced by people of color	49	49

Routinely discuss cross-cultural comfort and discomfort	50	50
Routinely share cross-cultural success stories	51	51

Direct students of color toward social service careers	52	52
Promote the learning of new languages	53	53
SUBSCALE MEAN TOTALS (STAFFING)		

Service Delivery and Practice: This subscale is used primarily to evaluate the activities of service providers. It lists a number of suggested activities that exemplify one or several aspects of the cultural competence model. The list is not exhaustive.

SUBSCALE: Service Delivery and Practice (Service Provider Only) MEAN	SPV
Know problems with mainstream diagnostic approaches	54
Discuss cultural issues with consumers	55
Share information on your personal or professional background	56
Share personal feelings with consumers	57
Assess level of assimilation/acculturation	58
Use of cultural strengths and culturally-based resources in service planning	59
Use cultural references, historical accomplishments, or other cultural manifestations to empower clients of color	60
Use culturally-normed evaluation or treatment approaches	61
Treatment plans contain a cultural perspective	62
Advocate for improved quality of life for communities of color	63
Familiar with moderator variables	64
Use ethnographic interviewing techniques	65
Use self-disclosure in treatment process	66
Encouraging the involvement of family members in treatment process	67
Set appointments outside of office setting	68
Consider clergy and spiritual resources in treatment or service plan	69

Require promptness in appointments or clients may not be seen	70
Use culturally appropriate consumer satisfaction measures to evaluate service delivery	71

Facilitate or arrange transportation, child care, or other supports for clients' appointments	72
SUBSCALE MEAN TOTALS (SERVICE & DELIVERY)	

Organizational Policies and Procedures: This subscale concerns the various practices and procedures that reflect culturally competent principles but have yet to be mandated by policy. These culturally progressive efforts are often a result of a given leadership style, staff personalities, or even fads which can change or erode over time. Therefore, one important aspect of policy is to uphold good clinical and administrative practices.

SCALE: Organizational Policies & Procedures	SPV MEAN	ADV MEAN
a. use of culturally-normed assessment procedures b. use of culture-specific treatment approaches c. community empowerment as treatment goal d. routine review of practice to ensure culturally appropriate service delivery e. provide or facilitate child care f. provide or facilitate transportation g. access after regular business hours (e.g. beeper, crisis arrangements, etc.). h. culture a component of all treatment plans i. outreach to community-based organizations, social services agencies, and natural helpers j. referrals from non-traditional sources k. agency materials translated into appropriate languages l. community input into interior decor m. advocate for a better quality of life for communities and people of color	73	54
Policies well disseminated and understood	74	55
Ethnicity Recorded in MIS	75	56
SUBSCALE MEAN TOTALS (POLICIES)		

Reaching Out to Communities: This subscale is suggestive of outreach efforts and venues that may prove helpful to clients and communities of color. This section emphasizes connections with individuals, agencies, and structures that work informally on behalf of children and families within a given cultural context. When appropriately engaged, culturally-

sanctioned helpers, leaders, supports, and ultimately networks can comprise highly effective systems of care at either the case or class levels.

SCALE: Reaching out to Communities	SPV MEAN	ADV MEAN
Ensure community awareness of program	76	57
a. outreach to places of worship b. outreach to natural healers c. outreach to media resources in communities of color d. outreach to formal service provider networks e. outreach to tribal or cultural organizations f. outreach to indigenous merchants or business people	77	58
People of color on agency brochures	78	59
Participate in cultural, political or religious events sponsored by communities of color	79	60
SUBSCALE MEAN TOTALS (OUTREACH)		

Appendix F: Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire

A Manual for Users

EVALUATION FORM

1. Who used the manual? (Check all that apply)
   - ❑ Parent ❑ Educator ❑ Child Welfare Worker
   - ❑ Juvenile Justice Worker ❑ Mental Health Professional
   - ❑ Other (Please specify) _____

2. Please describe the purpose(s) for which you used the manual:

   _____

   _____

3. Would you recommend use of the manual to others? (Check one)
   - ❑ Definitely ❑ Maybe ❑ Conditionally ❑ Under No Circumstances

   Comments: _____

4. Overall, I thought the manual was: (Check one)
   - ❑ Excellent ❑ Average ❑ Poor

   Comments: _____

5. Please offer suggestions for the improvement of subsequent editions of this manual:

   _____

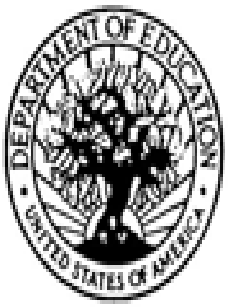
   _____

   _____

   _____

We appreciate your comments and suggestions. Your feeback will assist us in our effort to provide relevant and helpful materials. Thank you.

Please fold, staple and return this self-mailer to the address listed on the reverse side.



U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI)
Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)

ERIC®

NOTICE

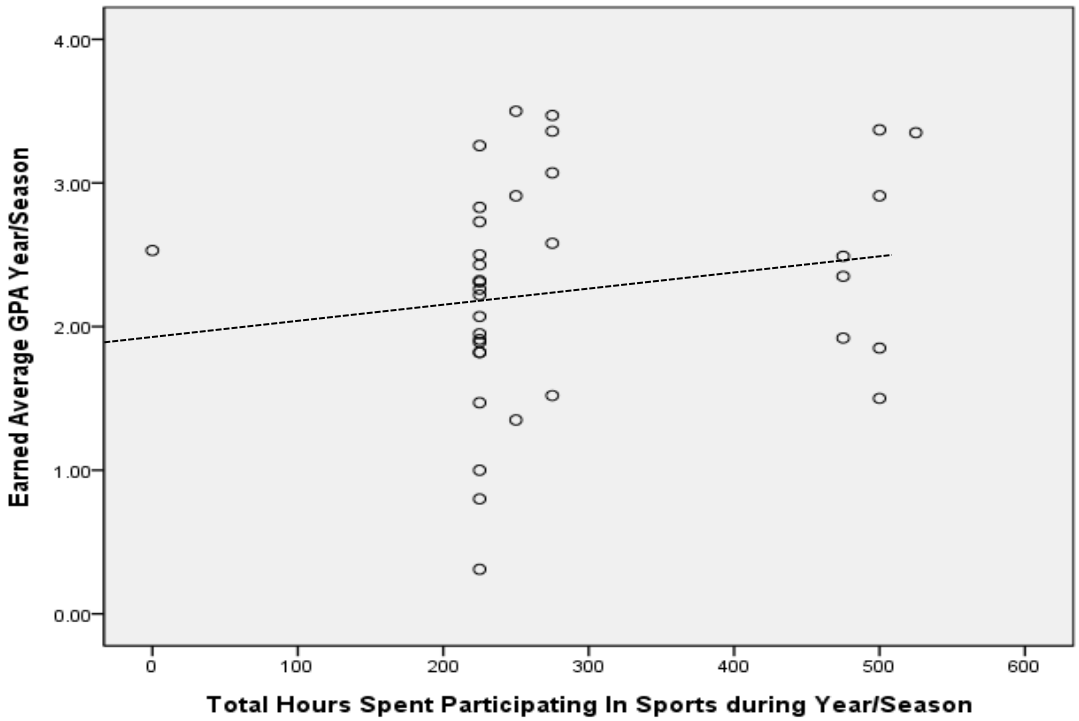
REPRODUCTION BASIS

☐ This document is covered by a signed "Reproduction Release (Blanket)" form (on file within the ERIC system), encompassing all or classes of documents from its source organization and, therefore, does not require a "Specific Document" Release form.

☑ This document is Federally-funded, or carries its own permission to reproduce, or is otherwise in the public domain and, therefore, may be reproduced by ERIC without a signed Reproduction Release form (either "Specific Document" or "Blanket").

Appendix G: Graph 1 – Scatter Plot for Correlation 1, Research Question 1

Graph 1 - Total Hours Spent Participating in Sports and earned Average GPAs

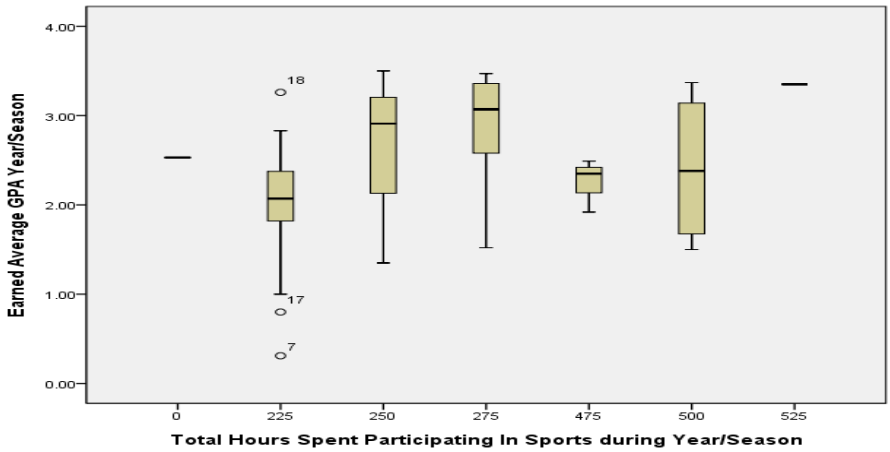


Research Question 1.

What is the relationship between total hours of high school athletics sports participation and the earned average GPAs for African-American male students at the SUS?

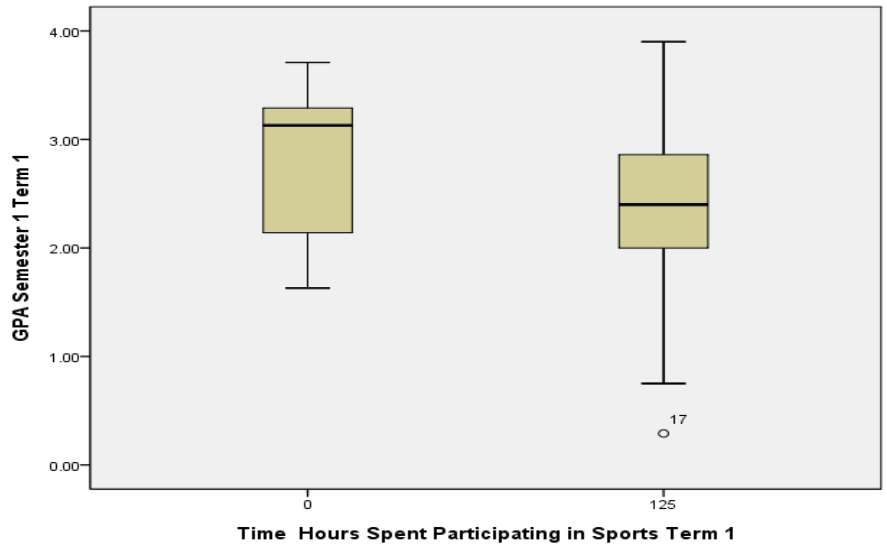
Box and Whisker - Graph 2 – Research Question 1

Total Hours Spent Participating In Sports and Earned Annual Average GPAs



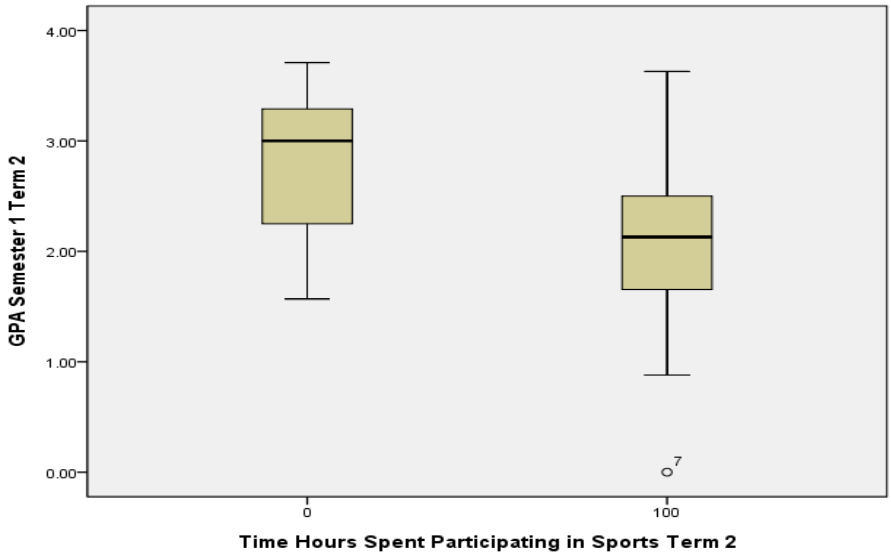
Box and Whisker - Graph 3 – Research Question 1

Total Hours Spent Participating In Sports and Earned Average GPAs Term 1



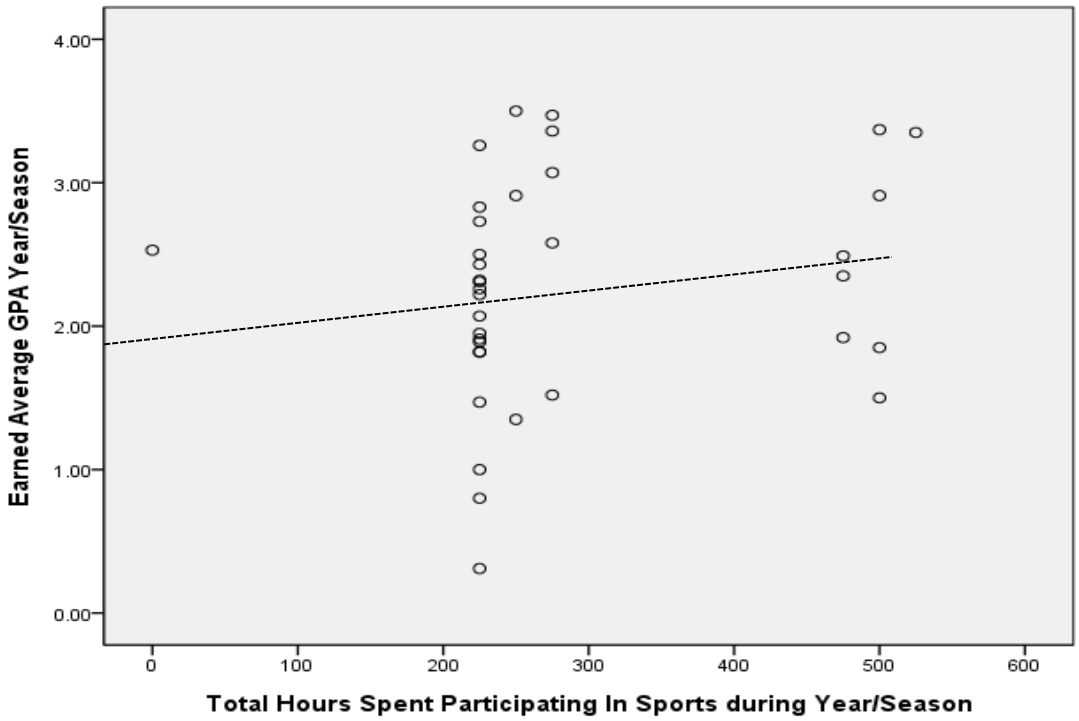
Box and Whisker - Graph 4 – Research Question 1

Total Hours Spent Participating In Sports and Earned Average GPAs Term 2


4.00
3.00
2.00
1.00
0.00
GPA Semester 1 Term 2
7
0
100
Time Hours Spent Participating in Sports Term 2

Appendix H: Graph 5 – Scatter Plot for Correlation 1, Research Question 2

Graph 5 - Total Hours Spent Participating in Sports and earned Average GPAs

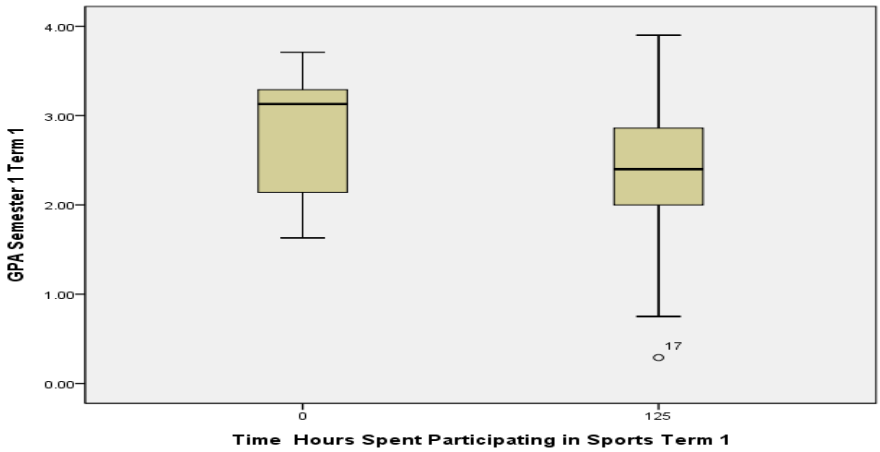


Research Question 2.

What is the relationship between total hours of high school athletics sports participation and the earned average GPAs for African-American male students at the SUS?

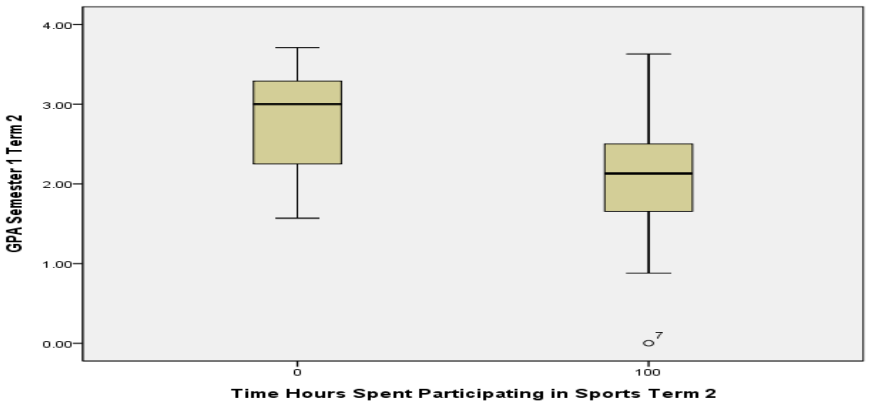
Box and Whisker - Graph 6 – Research Question 2

Total Hours Spent Participating In Sports and Earned GPA Grading Term 1



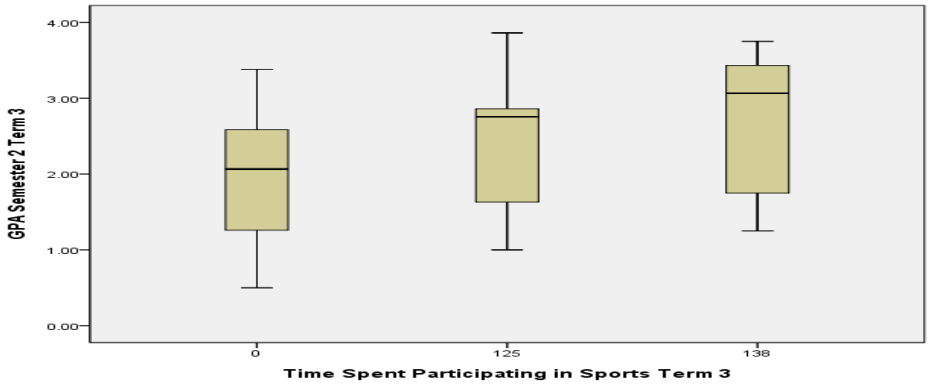
Box and Whisker - Graph 7 – Research Question 2

Total Hours Spent Participating In Sports and Earned Average GPAs Term 2



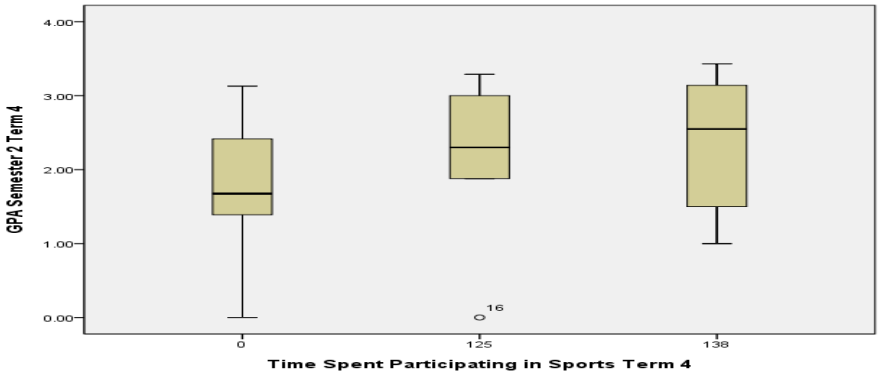
Box and Whisker - Graph 8 – Research Question 2

Total Hours Spent Participating In Sports and Earned Average GPAs Term 3



Box and Whisker - Graph 9 – Research Question 2

Total Hours Spent Participating In Sports and Earned Average GPAs Term 4



Appendix I: – CHAMPS CMTAEP (Phase 2) Evaluation of the Program Plan

The purpose of the CHAMPS CMTAEP (Phase 2) Evaluation plan is to measure the program's effectiveness on the African-American male student-athletes academic progress in accordance to the NCLB college and career readiness benchmarks in English (score of 18), Mathematics (score of 19), Reading (score of 20) and Science (score of 21). The student-athletes academic progress will be monitored and tracked for each grading period in Semester 1 and each grading period in Semester 2, totaling 4 over the academic year. Furthermore the student-athletes overall academic progress will be evaluated each semester, totaling 2 during the academic year. The purpose of monitoring and tracking the student-athletes academic progress each grading period will enable me to identify the student-athletes academic weaknesses. An accurate and thorough evaluation of the CHAMPS CMTAEP program will be conducted after the first full semester it is implemented at the local school setting. Testing students for college and career readiness benchmarks start in the student's freshman year and continues through his senior year. After Spring break of the student's second semester, an evaluation of the student's performance will be conducted again and measured to the established benchmarks for college and career readiness. The major evaluation of the program's success will take place twice each year. This evaluation plan will enable me to measure the success or failure (indirect influence) that the program is having on the student's academic performance. Furthermore, evaluating the program via the 4 individual grading periods and on a semester to semester level over the four years of the student's career

will enable me to make adjustments and modifications to the training the student receives to meet his academic needs. Furthermore, evaluating the program on a semester-to-semester basis will enable me to keep track of the student's accomplishments of the benchmarks. If the student reaches the benchmark scores, the program would be evaluated as an *indirect* strength and success to the student's academic performance. In the final analysis, a student's progress depends *directly* on the time and effort the student invests himself. Evaluation of the CHAMPS program will begin during the student's freshman year and continue to his senior year. In the second semester of the student's senior year, a final evaluation of the program's success or failure will be conducted. If the student reaches all of the benchmark scores and is designated as being college and career ready, the program will be considered a strength and success, lending a positive, although *indirect*, influence to the student's academic progress. If the student fails to reach one benchmark, and is not designated as being college and career ready upon graduating high school, then the program cannot be considered as influential to the student's academic success as desired, and other, *more direct*, factors will need to be examined.

Appendix I: Part A. Evaluation Plan Form

CHAMPS CMTAEP Student Academic Evaluation Plan

Academic Year: _____ - _____

Students Name: _____

Year in School: Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior

Classes	Progress 1 Grades	Progress 2 Grades	Semester 1 Grades	Progress 1 Grade	Progress 2 Grade	Semester 2 Grades	Final Grade Pass to Next Grade
English							
Math							
Science							
Reading							
Social Studies							
Foreign Language							
Health/PE							
Elective							
GPA							

Evaluation Comments:
What courses are problem areas for the student?

Weaknesses Identified in grading period or semester:

Recommendations/Changes/Modifications to services provided to improve students' academic weaknesses:

Academic Progress/Benchmark Accomplishments During Grading Period or semester:

Appendix I: Part B. Evaluation Plan Benchmark Scores Form

Benchmark Scores Based on Grade Level Standardized Test

Academic Year: _____ - _____

Students Name: _____

Year in School: Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior

Benchmarks	**Scores Needed to be Designated as College and Career Ready**	9th Year Test **Practice PLAN Scores**	10th Year Test **PLAN Scores**	11th Year Test **ACT or PSAT Scores**	12th Year Test if Benchmarks not reached on **ACT Alternate Tests for Seniors to take to meet Benchmarks for college and career readiness COMPASS, KYOTE, or ACT** retake Scores
English	18				
Math	19				
Science	21				
Reading	20				
Benchmarks Reached	Y or N				

Evaluation Comments:

Did student reach his benchmark scores on the test? Yes or No?

Weaknesses Identified in benchmark categories:

Recommendations/Changes/Modifications to services provided to help student reach benchmarks:

Academic Progress/Benchmark Accomplishments:

Appendix J: SUS Student-Athletes - Time Spent Participating In Sports Table

SUS Student-Athletes

Time Spent Participating In Sports Table

Sports Authorities:	Time Allotted For Sports Participation per **Day (5 per week)**	Time Allotted For Sports Participation per **Week (in Hours)**	Average Hours Per Day **KHSAA** (30 hours/5 days)	Length of **Football** Season in Weeks	Length of **Soccer** Season in Weeks	Length of **Basketball, Bowling** & **Wrestling** Season in Weeks	Length of **Baseball** Season in Weeks	Length of **Track & Field** Season in Weeks
Kentucky High School Athletics Association - **KHSAA**	3	30	6	18	18	22	20	20
Time Spent Participating in all Sports that pertain to the student-athletes at the SUS over the 2012 - 2013 academic school year and season(s).			**KHSAA** Hours alloted for Scheduled Games/Track Meets	**KHSAA** Average Hours per **Day** Practicing Football	**KHSAA** Average Hours per **Day** Practicing Soccer	**KHSAA** Average Hours per **Day** Practicing Basketball	**KHSAA** Average Hours per **Day** Practicing Baseball	**KHSAA** Average Hours per **Day** Practicing Track & Field
			3 hours = FB & SCR 3.67 hours =Basketball 3.33 hours = Baseball and Track & Field	3	3	3.67	3.33	3.33
			Average Hours Per Day **FCPS** (20 hours/5 days)	**FCPS** Average Hours per **Day** Practicing **Football**	**FCPS** Average Hours per **Day** Practicing Soccer Includes 2 hours for study hall	**FCPS** Average Hours per **Day** Practicing Basketball	**FCPS** Average Hours per **Day** Practicing Baseball	**FCPS** Average Hours per **Day** Practicing Track & Field
Fayette County Public Schools - FCPS	2	20	4 **FCPS** Hours allotted for Scheduled Games/Track Meets	**2 hours per week** on Monday & Thursday are used for Academic Mandatory Studyhall		Includes 2 hours for study hall	Includes 2 hours for study hall	Includes 2 hours for study hall
Special Note: Following the suggested and alloted times for participating in sports under the FCPS guidelines is not mandatory. KHSAA is the governing authority over high school sports athletics in the state of Kentucky and therefore has precedence over FCPS. This gives coaches the freedom to choose KHSAA over FCPS and vice versa. The coaches at the SUS follow the FCPS sports participation guidelines because it is academically based and gives student-athletes free tutoring, mentoring, and academic assistance during their mandatory study hall meetings.			4.5 hours FB & SCR + Tavel time 5.5 hours =Ba sketball + 2 games per week & Travel 5 hours = Baseball and Track & Field + Travel + Invitationals	4.5	4.5	5.5	5	5
	Total Hours Spent Participating in Sports over season. (18 weeks * 20 hours)		**Semester 1 - Total Hours**	Term 1 (9 weeks)	Term 2 (9 weeks)	**Semester 2 - Total Hours**	Term 3 (9 weeks)	Term 4 (9 weeks)
			360	180	180	360	180	180