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**Overcoming No Pass/No Play:
An investigation of factors contributing to variation in extracurricular participation eligibility rates among Texas high schools in the University Interscholastic League**

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University Interscholastic League**

by

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Chelle. Without her love, support, and understanding, this endeavor would never have been possible. I owe this accomplishment to her.

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Purpose

This study examined the factors contributing to the variation in extracurricular participation eligibility rates among Texas high schools in the University Interscholastic League under the No Pass/No Play law. The program factors examined by this study include extracurricular program type, tutorial program type, and grade monitoring program type. The demographic factors include schools size, student-body socioeconomic status, and student-body ethnicity. The extracurricular programs examined by this study include football, volleyball, girls basketball, boys basketball, and band.

Methods

One hundred fifty high school principals in Texas completed and returned a No Pass/No Play Principal Questionnaire. The questionnaire obtained information regarding the ineligibility rates of the extracurricular programs examined by this study. Demographic data was retrieved from the Texas Education Agency website. The data analysis was conducted using *Statistical Package for Social Studies (SPSS)* for Windows Version 11.0.

Findings

Research Question One examined the relationship between eligibility rates and three demographic factors: school size, student-body ethnicity, and student-body socioeconomic status. The results of the statistical analysis suggest larger schools and schools with a high percentage of minority students tend to have lower eligibility rates than smaller schools and schools with a low percentage of minority students. The socioeconomic status of the student body, the percentage of students qualifying for free or reduced lunch, does not seem to affect eligibility rates, however.

Research Question 2 sought to discover what program factors, tutorial program type and grade monitoring program type, increase eligibility rates. Furthermore, Research Question Two examined the effects of these program factors on eligibility rates of schools serving students from different ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds. Surprisingly, the program factors do not appear to have an effect on the rates of student eligibility. Despite what type of tutorial program or what type of grade monitoring program schools employ, the eligibility rates tend to not be affected. This tendency remains constant despite the ethnicity or socioeconomic status of the student body served by the schools.

Research Question Three reexamined the same program factors as Research Question Two; however, this research question sought to determine if tutorial program type or grade monitoring program type affect eligibility rates differently in schools of different sizes. Again, neither tutorial program type nor grade monitoring program type seems to affect eligibility rates. There is no relationship between the eligibility rates of schools within different UIL classifications and tutorial program type or grade monitoring program type. In other words, tutorial program type and grade monitoring program type do not affect eligibility rates despite the size of the school.

The final research question examined the eligibility rates of the five extracurricular activities in the study: football, volleyball, girls basketball, boys basketball, and band. The question was asked to determine which programs have the highest eligibility rates. The data suggest the eligibility rates of the different extracurricular programs are different. The data suggest a gender division in terms of eligibility rates. The activities including only female students, volleyball and girls basketball, proved to have the highest rate of student eligibility. On the contrary, the activities including only male students had much lower rates of student eligibility. The one mixed-gender activity, band, proved to have a low average eligibility rate, similar to the all male activities.

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Chapter I: Introduction

The Texas No Pass/No Play policy challenges schools to find effective ways of assisting students participating in extracurricular activities maintain eligibility. Participation in extracurricular activities is linked to higher student success rates (Breithaupt, 1996; Holloway, 2000). Given this relationship, schools and school leaders must accept responsibility for ensuring that those students choosing to participate in these activities maintain eligibility to maximize the benefits of that participation.

Prior efforts to examine the success of the No Pass/No Play reform on extracurricular activities have yielded mixed results. Opponents cite limitations for extracurricular participants, the general student body, and condemn the law as inequitably prohibiting minority and economically disadvantaged students from participating in extracurricular activities (Breithaupt, 1996; Holloway, 2000). In contrast, proponents of No Pass/No Play suggest the reform motivates students to perform better academically and serves as a measure to reinstate academic achievement as the primary focus for students (Jurenas, 1987).

Since its passage in 1984, the Texas No Pass/No Play law has remained controversial. As the first state to implement legislation connecting the privilege of participating in extracurricular activities to academic performance, Texas pioneered the notion of No Pass/No Play as part of a large education reform bill known as House Bill 72 (Slater, 1988). Since this reform, every state in the United States has either implemented or is considering implementing similar legislation linking eligibility for extracurricular participation to academic performance. Nearly two decades later, the debate over No Pass/No Play continues (Burnett, 2001).

The controversy emanates from oppositional viewpoints on the relationship between extracurricular activities and academic performance. On the one hand, there are those who believe that participation in extracurricular activities has a positive impact on student achievement. On the other hand, others believe that extracurricular activities, and particularly athletics, are a detriment to student achievement. For example, proponents of extracurricular activities criticize the No Pass/No Play policy because it reduces the number of students who benefit from the positive effects of extracurricular activities such as improving academic achievement and educating the whole student (Breithaupt, 1996; Holloway, 2000). Additionally, many condemn the law as disproportionately prohibiting minority and economically disadvantaged students from participating in extracurricular activities compared to Anglo students (Holloway, 2000).

In contrast, many believe that legal interventions, such as the Texas No Pass/No Play law, are needed because time spent in extracurricular activities can impede the academic progress of many students. In the 1980's, for instance, many believed the emphasis placed on athletics was growing out of control (Burnett, 2001; Hambrick, 2001). The explosion of media attention devoted to sports during the 1990's and beyond has intensified the dissension toward athletics held by many educators. No Pass/No Play serves as a measure to reinstate academic achievement as the primary focus for students (Jurenas, 1987).

Accordingly, supporters of No Pass/No Play perceive the law as a motivator for students participating in extracurricular activities to perform better academically. They believe it forces students involved in these activities to concentrate on academics (Tillman, 1999). No Pass/No Play proponents expected the overall failure rate to decrease

as students made efforts to maintain their eligibility for school sponsored activities (Burnett, 2001; Ligon, 1988). Supporters insist that the point of the rule was to encourage students to perform better academically, not to exclude failing students from participating in school sponsored extracurricular activities (Burnett, 2001; Lapchick, 1989).

Despite the mixed results from previous studies, the focus remains the same: improved academic achievement. Both supporters and critics of No Pass/No Play agree that student achievement is the primary priority. An obvious conflict exists between the existing body of literature, which strongly suggests participation in extracurricular activities positively impacts student achievement, and the eligibility requirements for such activities mandated through No Pass/No Play, which inherently prohibit some students from participating limiting the number of students benefiting from the positive impact of that participation.

The Case for Extracurricular Activities

The literature provides clear evidence that participation in extracurricular activities has a positive impact on students. Many educators view extracurricular activities as an educational tool. In fact, many educators believe the term ‘extracurricular activities’ misnames and inappropriately describes these activities; rather, they believe the term ‘cocurricular activities’ better depicts the benefits and functions of these activities as an extension of the curriculum (Breithaupt, 1996). (Because the majority of the research refers to extracurricular activities, this paper will refer to these types of activities as extracurricular as well).

Proponents of extracurricular activities contend that participation in such activities has a wide array of positive benefits on students. These positive effects include improving academic achievement and educating the whole student (Breithaupt, 1996; Holloway, 2000). In addition to these positive effects, many studies suggest participation in extracurricular activities improves attendance, reduces dropout rates, reduces instances of student involvement with drugs, and develops a positive school culture (Marsh, 1992; Picou, 1978; Spady, 1970).

Participation in extracurricular activities enhances academic achievement for many reasons (Breithaupt, 1996; Holloway, 2000; Marsh, 1992; Picou, 1978; Spady, 1970). The Texas legislature implemented the No Pass/No Play policy which inherently limits the number of students participating in these activities. The No Pass/No Play provision of House Bill 72 prohibited students who failed one or more courses during a six-week grading period with a grade of lower than 70 on a 100-point scale from participating in school sponsored extracurricular activities including practices, competitions, and public performances for the following six-week grading period (HB 72, 1984).

The No Pass/No Play policy has been revised twice. The first revision came with a 1985 amendment that exempted handicapped students and students with learning disabilities from being held to the standards of No Pass/No Play. The most significant of these revisions, however, came in 1994 as part of Senate Bill I. Senate Bill I reduced the length of time that failing students would be ineligible from six weeks to three weeks. Senate Bill I further revised the No Pass/No Play policy by exempting students who fail an honors or advanced placement course and allowed ineligible students to practice with

their team or organization (Hambrick, 2001, p. 5). Through these revisions, Senate Bill I attempted to answer the major points of criticism submitted by critics of the original No Pass/No Play policy.

More research is badly needed with regards to No Pass/No Play. Considering the controversy surrounding House Bill 72, very little research has been devoted to examine its effects. Furthermore, research is needed to provide a model program for schools to use to assist students in extracurricular activities maintain eligibility. Participation in such activities provides numerous benefits to students; thus, educational research must provide schools with effective methods of ensuring students in these activities maximize these benefits. This study addresses this need by identifying selected factors that may lead to variations and improvements of the rates at which students maintain eligibility.

Statement of the Problem

The conflict between the well-documented positive effects of student participation in extracurricular activities and the potential of No Pass/No Play to prohibit some students from participating in such activities calls for a commitment on the part of school staffs (1) to shoulder the responsibility for ensuring students maintain eligibility, and (2) to maximize the educational benefits inherent in participation in these activities. This study seeks to determine what program factors school staffs can employ and under what demographic conditions to ensure high student eligibility rates for participation in extracurricular activities.

By identifying the characteristics of academic support programs within schools maintaining high eligibility rates, this research can lead to identifying a model program(s)

of academic support for students in extracurricular activities. Furthermore, by identifying the characteristics of schools that are not maintaining high student eligibility rates, this study provides school leaders, extracurricular sponsors, directors, coaches, etc. and the University Interscholastic League with the information needed to focus efforts for much needed improvement.

Research Questions

Specifically, this study seeks to answer the following research questions:

Under the standards set by the Texas No Pass/No Play law, what program and demographic factors increase the eligibility rates of students participating in extracurricular activities?

- 1) What overall demographic factors affect eligibility rates for the participation of students participating in extracurricular activities?
- 2) What type of programs increases eligibility rates for the participation of students, representing different socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds, in extracurricular activities?
- 3) What type of programs increases the eligibility rates for the participation of students, enrolled in schools of different sizes, in extracurricular activities?
- 4) What extracurricular program types have the highest eligibility rates for the participation of students within those activities?

Given the lack of research dedicated to these questions, this study is an exploratory study that aims to generate hypotheses for future research. The study will examine an array of possible program factors contributing to the variation in eligibility rates including but not limited to:

- extracurricular program type;
- tutorial programs;
- academic performance monitoring of students in extracurricular programs.

Additionally, selected demographic factors will be examined to determine if there is a relationship between these factors and eligibility rates. Furthermore, the study will investigate whether or not these demographic factors modify the relationship between eligibility rates and the program factors. The selected demographic factors include:

- school size;
- student body ethnicity;
- student body socioeconomic status;

Operational Definitions

To clearly articulate the implications of this research, this paper offers definitions and explanations for the terms used within the research:

Eligibility Rates: As the dependent variable, eligibility rates refer to the average percentage of the total number of students in all extracurricular programs that maintained eligibility for each of the grading periods within the Fall semester within one school. Or,

eligibility rates can refer to the percentage of the total number of students participating in one particular extracurricular program within one school that maintained eligibility for each of the grading periods within the Fall semester that pertain to that activity. A student loses eligibility for extracurricular participation if he or she fails one or more courses not exempted by Senate Bill 1 as advanced courses and not exempted by local district policy. Each program's eligibility rate only examines the grading periods that coincide with that activity's schedule. For example, football and volleyball span the first two six week grading periods. Girls and boys basketball includes the second and third grading periods. And, band entails all three of the fall semester grading periods. Conversely, *ineligibility rates* refers to the average percentage of the total number of students in all extracurricular programs within one school, or one particular program within one school, that maintained eligibility for each of the grading periods within the Fall semester.

Demographic Factors: As moderating variables, demographic factors are subdivided into two categories. The first, *organizational factor*, refers to the following variable:

School Size: The total number of students enrolled in the school as reported to the Texas Education Agency (TEA) via the Public Education Information Management System (PEIMS).

The second, *student factors*, refers to the distribution of student body percentages in each school of the following two variables:

Student Body Ethnicity: The percentages of students representing different ethnic backgrounds, as reported to TEA via PIEMS, in the school.

Student Body Socioeconomic Status: The Student Body Socioeconomic status will be determined by the percentage of the students within each school who qualify for free or reduced lunch as reported to TEA via PEIMS.

Program Factors: As the independent variable, program factors refer to two types of programs. The first, *tutorial program*, refers to the type of tutorial and/or study hall opportunities provided to students participating in extracurricular activities. These programs will be divided into three categories: voluntary if a student chooses to attend, mandatory for selected student-participants, mandated for all student-participants. The second, *grade monitoring program*, refers to the manner in which schools monitor the grades of student participants. These programs will be divided into two categories: each coach/director creates monitors grades as he or she sees fit, every program within the school uses a standardized system.

Extracurricular Programs: The term extracurricular activities refers to activities sponsored by the University Interscholastic League and/or the school district. The extracurricular organizations examined by this study include: football, volleyball, girls basketball, boys basketball, and band. This study focuses on the academic achievement of participants for the first three six-week grading periods. These activities are those major activities affected by No Pass/No Play during these grading periods.

Assumptions and Limitations

Two major assumptions dominate this study. First, this study assumes participation in school related extracurricular activities positively affects student achievement. Additionally, participation in extracurricular activities provides educational value in itself. The literature review below offers strong support for this assumption. Second, the schools must shoulder the responsibility for providing the necessary academic support to the students participating in these activities to assist them in maintaining eligibility, thus allowing them to gain from all of the benefits associated with extracurricular activities. Pointing the finger of blame toward the student and/or parent when a student becomes ineligible is professionally irresponsible of educators. It is the responsibility of the school to ensure that each student receives a quality education. Within that responsibility lays the duty to ensure that students participating in extracurricular activities maximize the educational benefits of that participation which can only happen if those students maintain an eligible status.

This study examines five extracurricular organizations within these schools in Texas. Given that all organizations are not included, one must take great care when generalizing the findings of this study across all extracurricular groups.

Furthermore, the findings of the study cannot be generalized to high schools in other states. This study focuses on the Texas No Pass/No Play law and schools in Texas; thus, one cannot generalize the findings of this study across schools in other states.

Significance Statement

No Pass/No Play continues to be controversial even after nearly two decades. Research strongly suggests that participation in school sponsored extracurricular activities enhances academic performance (Breithaupt, 1996; Holloway, 2000; Marsh, 1992; Picou, 1978; Spady, 1970). No Pass/No Play requires students to maintain minimal academic standards, passing with a minimum grade of 70 on a 100 point scale, to remain eligible for participation in these activities. No Pass/No Play remains in place today forcing school leaders to enforce it at the campus level and to find ways to assist students to maintain eligibility for extracurricular activities.

This study does not propose to join in the argument over the effectiveness of the law. Rather, this study examines ways of improving the effectiveness of implementing the law at the campus level. The findings of this study will provide school leaders, leaders of extracurricular organizations, and the University Interscholastic League with badly needed guidance to begin developing a successful academic support program by identifying the factors that determine the effectiveness of schools to assist students participating in extracurricular activities to maintain eligibility for participation. Identifying these factors will lead future research to identify a model support program which will allow schools to improve eligibility rates. By improving eligibility rates, schools increase the number of students who benefit from the well-documented benefits of that participation.

Organization of the Study

This study is presented in the form of five chapters. Chapter I consists of an introduction to the study and its background. Additionally, Chapter I presents the statement of the problem and the research questions guiding the study. For clarification, the operational definitions of the terms used in the study are provided in the first chapter as well as the assumptions and limitations and organization of the study.

Chapter II presents a review of the related literature. This review will present the history of No Pass/No Play and how it was passed as a part of House Bill 72. The positions of both those who support and those who oppose the law will be included. Furthermore, this chapter will review the literature regarding the effects of participation in extracurricular activities for students.

The third chapter presents the methodology of the research design. This chapter includes the selection of the participants as well as the procedures used for collecting the data. Additionally, the data analysis methods will be discussed in Chapter III.

Chapter IV presents the data collected by the study. This chapter also includes analysis of that data.

Finally, Chapter V summarizes the findings of the study. This summary articulates the conclusions drawn from the data analysis as well as recommendations for future research.

Chapter II: Review of Literature

Introduction

The No Pass/No Play policy has remained controversial since its inception. This chapter provides a review of the literature to explain the source and nature of that controversy. Additionally, this chapter reviews the related literature regarding student participation in extracurricular activities and the positive effects that participation has on students.

The review will contain a historical analysis of No Pass/No Play. This section will detail the factors that led to the creation and implementation of the No Pass/No Play law. The historical analysis will present the arguments for those who oppose and those who support the law.

Following the historical account of the law, the chapter offers a discussion of the literature relating to extracurricular activities. This section reviews the argument of supporters of extracurricular activities as well as the contention of those who oppose them. Furthermore, this section extensively discusses the research related to the effect of participation in extracurricular activities on students.

Finally, this chapter reviews previous research on No Pass/No Play and policies of other states similar to it. This section provides a summary of various research studies conducted on the No Pass/No Play since its implementation and its effects on varying aspects of education and students.

Historical Analysis of No Pass/No Play in Texas

The No Pass/No Play law developed out of the panic of many educators concerning our educational system, both at the state and national levels, and the increasing emphasis placed on athletics in America (Burnett 2001, Hambrick 2001, Tillman 1999). Reports surfaced that the academic achievement of American students was declining. Increasing concern over these highly publicized reports was coupled with a national popularity explosion in athletics. The combination of alarm over decreasing student achievement and concern about increasing popularity of sports created a tense climate among educators. Many educators began clamoring for an effort to focus attention on restoring academic teaching and learning as the primary focus of American schools (Jurenas, 1987).

The United States Department of Education report, A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform (1983), stirred alarm across the country concerning a nation-wide decline in student performance. After its release, A Nation at Risk received a great deal of attention across the nation. The report stated that education had “lost sight of the basic purposes of schooling, and of the high expectations and disciplined effort needed to attain them” (1983, p. 5). A Nation at Risk (1987) listed several indicators that the public school system in America was failing, including decreasing scores on scholastic aptitude tests, an increasing number of functionally illiterate adults, and a decreasing number of students with higher order thinking skills.

In reaction to the report, educators began searching for causes of this decline. Many perceived the recommendations of this report to propose a restriction on the extracurricular functions of the school; thus, many states began to examine policies

regarding extracurricular activities (Tillman, 1999). Some educators felt that time spent participating in such activities diverts students' attention from the demands of their academic coursework (Camp, 1990). A Nation at Risk, and other reports like it, created an aftermath of concern and controversy that demanded more attention to student achievement and less emphasis on athletics and other extracurricular activities (Tillman, 1999).

In addition to academic concerns, a growing emphasis on and popularity of athletics began to cause a conflict between supporters of extracurricular activities and educators. The 1980's and 1990's saw sports enjoy a dramatic increase in popularity. This popularity explosion can be attributed in part to increased media coverage including television exposure, advertising exposure, and increased salaries of professional athletes. In Texas, for example, new multi-million dollar athletic complexes were being constructed at both the collegiate and high school levels; and, coaching salaries were dramatically rising, in some instances doubling that of teacher salaries (Hambrick, 2001). As the popularity of athletics exploded, so did the contempt toward athletics held by many educators (Burnett, 2001; Hambrick, 2001). Many educators perceived that the growing attention given to sports was detracting from student-athletes' focus on academic growth. As concern and tension grew over the mounting emphasis on sports, Texas legislators, as well as officials in other states, began to take note (Tillman, 1999; Slater, 1988).

Following the release of A Nation at Risk, nearly every state implemented some type of educational reform (Green, 1987). Texas, like most other states, joined in the reform effort. Gubernatorial candidate Mark White campaigned on a promise to increase

teacher salaries in the state by twenty percent, which gained him enough support to win the election (McNeil, 1988). However, as the new governor, White was unable to pass the salary increase. This failure left him with a strong need to pass significant reform legislation. Ultimately, this reform came in the form of House Bill 72 with the intent to improve education and directly help teachers (McNeil, 1988).

To investigate and address these concerns, the Texas legislature created the Select Committee on Public Education (SCOPE) in 1983. Mark White named Ross Perot, a well-known Texas billionaire businessman, as the chair of the committee. The committee was created to examine the state of public education in Texas and recommend changes for improvement.

The committee conducted numerous hearings across the state to determine the state of public education in Texas. Once these hearings were completed, the Select Committee reported to the legislature that Texas schools failed to meet minimal standards of educational excellence. SCOPE emphasized suggestions that indicated the Texas educational system needed drastic changes to improve to even minimal standards of excellence (Select Committee on Public Education: 1984 Report).

Among the many changes recommended by the Select Committee was initiating rules concerning eligibility for and participation in extracurricular activities. Ross Perot, the flamboyant chairman and spokesperson for the Select Committee, was quoted as stating:

Our schools have become places dedicated to play...Our communities seem mainly interested in how well the boys play and the girls prance...I thought I was living pretty good until I found a school system that had towel warmers and towel coolers for the football team (Taylor, 1983).

Additionally, Perot reported that the average high school student spent approximately one hour per night studying, but the average high school athlete spent fifteen to twenty hours per week practicing (Saul, 1984). Similar concerns were articulated in an editorial in the Dallas Times Herald, which stated, “any student with grades as low as three D’s and two F’s can participate in competitive sports” (Dallas Times Herald, January 23, 1984).

In 1984, The Select Committee issued several recommendations for improving the quality of public education in Texas. One of the recommendations the Select Committee proposed was some form of a No Pass/No Play policy. The recommendation stated that “extracurricular activities should not be conducted during the school day and that the Texas Board of Education and the local school districts shall make every effort to free the school nights for study and homework” (Select Committee on Public Education: 1984 Report). The Select Committee reported that educational studies indicated a large number of students who participated in extracurricular activities were unprepared for college due to a loss of instructional time. Additionally, the National Collegiate Athletic Association had recently adopted Proposition 48, mandating strict eligibility requirement for college students participating in competitive athletics.

In response to the recommendations made by the Select Committee on Public Education, the Texas Legislature acted quickly by conveying a very clear message that academics must take supreme priority over athletics and other extracurricular activities in Texas schools by passing the No Pass/No Play law. Texas was the first state to enact a No

Pass/No Play policy when it passed it as part of House Bill 72 in 1984 (Burnett, 2001; Slater, 1988). The No Pass/No Play law requires that a student failing any academic class with a grade of lower than 70 on a 100 point scale during a six-week grading period be removed from participation in extracurricular activities for the following six-week grading period (Texas Education Code, Section 21.920, 1996). Most states have since followed the lead of Texas by enacting similar No Pass/No Play policies by coupling eligibility for school sponsored extracurricular participation with academic achievement (Burnett, 2001).

The original No Pass/No Play prohibited any student who failed a class during a six-week grading period from participating in extracurricular activities during the following six-week grading period (Harris, 1986). The rule not only prohibited students who failed a course from participating in competitions or performances, but it banned them from participating in practices as well (Hambrick, 2001). Immediately the No Pass/No Play law became the most controversial portion of House Bill 72 and sparked a heated debate that continues today (Burnett, 2001).

That heated debate has even reached the courts. In 1985, a group of forty-five parents and students challenged the constitutionality of the law claiming it violated the students' right to participate in school sponsored extracurricular activities. The lawsuit further challenged the law because it only affected students participating in extracurricular activities and not the student body as a whole (Flygare, 1985).

Despite these claims, the Texas Supreme Court upheld the No Pass/No Play law. The Texas Supreme Court issued a unanimous decision on June 10, 1985 stating that the

right to participate in extracurricular activities is not equivalent to the right of free speech. The court also stated that the State of Texas has the authority to regulate extracurricular activities based on its interest to provide a quality education to students (Flygare, 1985).

The courts have upheld the policies of other states coupling eligibility for participation in extracurricular activities with academic achievement as well. For example, the Montana Supreme Court upheld a similar rule of the Helena school system (Jurenas, 1987). The United States Supreme Court has dismissed any appeals stating they are not federal matters (Cooke, 1992).

The law was, rather obviously, implemented at the macro level through being passed by the state legislature. Until September 1995, the policy was enforced at the macro level by the Texas Education Agency. Since September 1995, however, the University Interscholastic League, the organization that oversees interscholastic competition between public schools, has enforced the No Pass/No Play policy for the school districts in Texas.

The local districts have the responsibility of enforcing the policy at the micro level. Each district is accountable for ensuring its extracurricular teams and organizations are abiding by the rules of the No Pass/No Play policy. This responsibility includes making certain the grades of students participating in extracurricular activities are meticulously monitored to ensure no student who fails a course is allowed to participate in a competition or public performance. District and campus administrators must be certain the policy is enforced at the micro level.

Proponents of No Pass/No Play

Supporters of No Pass/No Play perceive the law as a motivator for students participating in extracurricular activities to perform better academically. They believe it forces students involved in these activities to concentrate on academics (Tillman, 1999). No Pass/No Play proponents expected the overall failure rate to decrease as students made efforts to maintain their eligibility for school sponsored activities (Burnett, 2001; Ligon, 1988). Supporters insist that the point of the rule was to encourage students to perform better academically, not to exclude failing students from participating in school sponsored extracurricular activities (Burnett, 2001; Lapchick, 1989).

Those who defend the rule claim that No Pass/No Play reinstates the primary focus of the school as a place for academic learning (Jurenas, 1987). Extracurricular activities are viewed as a privilege rather than a right of students. Students should focus on their grades as opposed to athletics or other extraneous functions. Further argument even states that the No Pass/No Play law will not only motivate students to perform better academically, but it will encourage student-athletes to reevaluate their priorities by putting academics as their premier focus (Burnett, 2001). The purpose of the law, according to proponents of No Pass/No Play, was to motivate students to improve their academic performance and reinforce academic learning as the primary function of schools. The No Pass/No Play law, according to its supporters, reestablishes academics as the chief priority in Texas public education.

Proponents of No Pass/No Play strongly contend they do not oppose student participation in extracurricular activities. They contend to recognize the benefits such

participation has on the overall development of students; however, they believe basic academic skills are more crucial to student development (Hambrick, 2001). Again, supporters insist that the purpose for the rule is to encourage students to perform better academically, not to exclude failing students from participating in school sponsored extracurricular activities (Burnett, 2001; Lapchick, 1989).

Critics of No Pass/No Play

Despite the fervor with which supporters make these claims, a strong contingency of research and educators oppose the No Pass/No Play law. Critics attack multiple components of the policy. The original No Pass/No Play provision within House Bill 72 was criticized for being too rigid and decreasing student enrollment in challenging courses. Additionally, those who oppose the law accuse it of contributing to increasing dropout rates. Critics also point out that the law penalizes only students who participate in extracurricular activities; and, by reducing the number students participating in extracurricular activities, the No Pass/No Play policy reduces the number of students who benefit from the positive effects of such activities.

After the original version of No Pass/No Play was implemented with House Bill 72, many educators immediately criticized the policy as too rigid. A report from the Lyndon Baines Johnson School of Public Affairs (1985) declared that many educators felt the law was too harsh on students who failed only one course. Several accounts surfaced that many students with high averages became ineligible after failing only one course (Hight, 1985). Some educators suggested the policy should require a certain number of courses be passed or an overall average of 70 be required for all courses to

maintain eligibility (LBJ School of Public Affairs, 1985). Additionally, some critics suggested that some students could become ineligible as the result of unfair grading policies of individual teachers (Thompson, 1985).

The six-week penalty period was criticized as being too long as well (Stutz, 1995). The six-week penalty period in many instances removed a student from participation for nearly an entire season. Because students would miss nearly an entire season by being penalized six weeks, many felt the time period should be reduced (Stutz, 1995).

Opponents of the law were also concerned it would encourage student-athletes to take less challenging courses. A 1987 survey by the Texas Association of Secondary School Principals found that many principals believed the policy contributed to students' decisions to take less demanding courses (McNamara, 1987). Some students participating in extracurricular activities opted to take "watered-down" courses to avoid the possibility of failing tougher courses and losing eligibility (Jurenas, 1987).

Critics of the No Pass/No Play policy feared it would increase dropout rates. Research suggests that students who do not participate in extracurricular activities are more likely to dropout of school (McNeil, 1995). The 1985 report by the Lyndon Baines Johnson School of Public Affairs suggested that a lack of proper remediation for ineligible students would contribute to an increase in the dropout rate. One psychologist from Johns Hopkins University described the No Pass/No Play policy as "ill-advised" and stated the rule would contribute to raising dropout rates (Barrientos, 1986). Many high school coaches agreed, claiming the rule was causing an increase in the number of dropouts (Tillman, 1999). The father of a one teenager testified to a legislative committee

that his son committed suicide after becoming ineligible and dropping out of school (Cutbirth, 1988).

The No Pass/No Play policy is criticized as discriminating against minority students. Data collected from 511 districts throughout Texas indicated twenty-three percent of African-American students and twenty-two percent of Hispanic students failed courses compared to only fifteen percent of white children (Associated Press, October 2, 1986). A study on the impact of No Pass/No Play in Arizona found a disproportionate negative effect on minority groups as well (O'Reilly, 1992). A study by Sabatino (1994) found African-American students were most likely to become ineligible while Anglo students were least likely to become ineligible. By disproportionately limiting the number of minority students participating in extracurricular activities, the No Pass/No Play policy prevents more minority students from benefiting from the positive effects of these activities.

Proponents of extracurricular activities also oppose the fact that the policy does not allow all students to gain from the benefits of participating in extracurricular activities. They view extracurricular activities as an educational tool. In fact, many educators believe the term 'extracurricular activities' misnames and inappropriately describes these activities; rather, they believe the term 'cocurricular activities' better depicts the benefits and functions of these activities as an extension of the curriculum (Breithaupt, 1996). (Because the majority of the research refers to extracurricular activities, this paper will refer to these types of activities as extracurricular as well). Proponents of extracurricular activities criticize the No Pass/No Play policy because it reduces the number of students who benefit from the positive effects of extracurricular

activities such as improving academic achievement and educating the whole student (Breithaupt, 1996; Holloway, 2000). Frith and Clark contend:

In fact, many of these students will be denied the right to participate in those activities where they function best and from which they benefit the most. Many students who are likely to have difficulty succeeding in an academic career might benefit immensely from positive attitudes, good work habits, and physical skills learned through athletic competition or extracurricular participation (Frith and Clark, 1984, p. 326).

Senate Bill 1 – Revision of No Pass/No Play

The No Pass/No Play policy has been revised twice. The first revision of the law came with a 1985 amendment that exempted handicapped students and students with learning disabilities from being held to the standards of No Pass/No Play (Hambrick, 2001, p. 5).

The most significant of these revisions, however, came in 1994 as part of Senate Bill I. The Senate Education Committee reexamined the No Pass/No Play policy during the Seventy-fourth Session of the Texas Legislature. During the session, the committee listened to testimony from members of the education community and others presenting arguments both for against revision of the rule. The legislature, through these revisions, tried to answer some of the major criticisms of the rule while keeping the foundation of the law in place (Brooks, 1995).

Two major revisions developed. Senate Bill I reduced the length of time that failing students would be ineligible from six weeks to three weeks. Additionally, the revisions allow ineligible students to practice with their team or organization; however, ineligible students are still prohibited from participation in competitions or public performances (Hambrick, 2001, p. 5).

Senate Bill I further revised the No Pass/No Play policy by exempting students who fail an honors or advanced placement course from becoming ineligible. The legislature, with this revision, intended to answer the criticism stating the No Pass/No Play policy discouraged participants in extracurricular activities from taking challenging courses. Through these revisions, Senate Bill I attempted to answer the major points of criticism submitted by critics of the original No Pass/No Play policy.

Specifically, Texas Education Code (2000), Section 33.081, Extracurricular Activities at (f) states:

A student who is enrolled in a school district in the state or who participates in a University Interscholastic League (UIL) competition shall be suspended from participation in any extracurricular activity sponsored or sanctioned by the school district or the UIL after a grade evaluation period in which the student received a grade lower than the equivalent of 70 on a scale of 100 in any class other than an identified honors or advanced class. A suspension continues for at least three weeks and is not removed during the school year until the conditions of subsection (d) are met. A student suspended under this section may practice or rehearse with other students for an extracurricular activity but may not participate in a competition or other public performance.

Theoretical Political Analysis of No Pass/No Play

No Pass/No Play can be seen as derived out of two political theories. Obviously, as No Pass/No Play is a part of a large educational reform effort, the theory of

educational reform and change can be easily applied. Additionally, No Pass/No Play is grounded in rational choice theory. Both theories are discussed in this section

Educational Reform and Change Theory

The Texas No Pass/No Play policy is an example of political reform and change legislation. According to Kingdon, a political subject rises to the agenda through the combination of problems, politics, and visible participants (Kingdon, 1984). Applying this theory to the development of No Pass/No Play in Texas clearly illustrates how the proposal rose to the agenda and why it was passed.

Kingdon discusses the manner in which some situations become problems and gain the attention of governmental officials. Whether or not conditions receive a great deal of attention depends on “the means by which those officials learn about conditions and in the ways in which conditions become problems” (Kingdon, 1984, p.106). The condition, the national decline in student academic achievement, came to the attention of public officials and the general public predominantly via A Nation at Risk (1983). This report served as what Kingdon refers to as an indicator, or a tool for measuring the magnitude of the condition. Conditions, however, do not always become problems. As Kingdon states: “We put up with all kinds of conditions every day, and conditions do not rise to prominent places on policy agendas” (Kingdon, 1984, p. 106). Conditions only become problems “when we believe we should do something to change them” (Kingdon, 1984, p. 106). The perception of a failing educational system obviously led to the belief that we should do something to change it. Poor education violates one of the most important common values shared in the United States. Neither the general public nor

elected public officials will permit the perception of poor education in our country without some effort to make changes. The nation began clamoring for a change to the conditions reported in A Nation at Risk (1983).

The second component of Kingdon's explanation of the theory of political change is politics. Kingdon explains that "(t)he combination of national mood and elections is a ...potent agenda setter..." (Kingdon, 1984, p. 107). A Nation at Risk (1983) created enough alarm around the nation and the state of Texas to produce a national mood that demanded educational reform and change. The growing contempt of many educators towards the growing emphasis placed on athletics added to that demand for educational improvement (Burnett, 2001; Hambrick, 2001).

The election of Mark White as Texas governor created the combination of national mood and elections that Kingdon suggests becomes a powerful agenda setter. White campaigned to improve the poor quality of education in Texas and to increase teacher salaries by twenty percent (McNeil, 1988). Once in office, White was unable to deliver the promised pay increase, which pressured him to pass some type of education reform legislation. Based on recommendations from the Select Committee on Public Education, White included the No Pass/No Play policy of a comprehensive reform bill known as House Bill 72 (McNeil, 1988). The combination of the national mood demanding educational reform and the election of a candidate that campaigned to place educational reform as a high priority led to the No Pass/No Play policy rising to the top of the government's agenda as a part of a larger bill.

The final component of Kingdon's theory on agenda setting revolves around visible participants. "The chances of a subject rising on a governmental agenda are

enhanced if that subject is pushed by participants in the visible cluster, and dampened if it is neglected by those participants” (Kingdon, 1984, p. 108). The visible participants at the core of the No Pass/No Play policy were crucial to it rising on the governmental agenda. Mark White has already been discussed as a visible participant pushing the policy. He campaigned on the promise of reforming and improving education in Texas (McNeil, 1988).

Another visible participant, however, was even more instrumental in bringing the policy to the agenda. Ross Perot, the Dallas billionaire who chaired the SCOPE, received a great deal of media attention as the highly visible and very vocal spokesperson for the Select Committee. He made a public statement claiming that high school athletes spent as many as twenty hours per week practicing while high school students spent only approximately one hour per night studying (Saul, 1984). In addition, as previously reviewed in this paper, he stated: “I thought I was living pretty good until I found a school system that had towel warmers and towel coolers for the football team” (Taylor, 1983). His statements fuelled the resentment toward athletics by educators and pushed educational reform efforts, such as the No Pass/No Play policy, to the forefront of the governmental agenda.

The theory of educational reform and change drove the No Pass/No Play policy to the top of the agenda and led to its implementation. Applying Kingdon’s theory of reform and change clearly illustrates how and why the policy rose to top of the agenda. No Pass/No Play, as a part of a more comprehensive reform bill, possessed all three components of Kingdon’s explanation. The condition of education became defined as a problem because it violated an important value: the notion that the nation’s children

deserve a quality education. The combination of the national mood demanding and a governor campaigning for educational reform drove the proposed policy to the top of the agenda. And, the visible participants not only assisted in driving the policy to the forefront of the agenda, but ensured the policy would be passed and implemented.

Rational Choice Theory

The notion of No Pass/No Play is grounded in rational choice theory. Rationalists believe a person's actions and decisions are driven by self-interests. In other words, people make choices that best serve their own material interests. As Lichbach and Zuckerman state, "...rationalist ontology depicts a world populated by rational individuals..." (1997, p. 246). These rational individuals make choices in the rational pursuit of individual interests.

In an attempt to solve the problems presented by reports like A Nation at Risk (1983) and the report presented by the Select Committee on Public Education (1983), the legislature took on a rationalist methodology. Schelling describes the rationalist methodology in simple terms:

If we know what problem a person is trying to solve, and if we think he can actually solve it, and if we can solve it too, we can anticipate what our subject will do by putting ourselves in his place and solving his problem as we think he sees it (Schelling, 1978, p. 18).

Individuals are motivated to solve problems based on their own desires and beliefs. If one understands these desires and beliefs, one can predict the choices these individuals will make in solving problems.

When approached from a rational perspective, the law serves as a productive motivator for students to improve academic performance. Operating as rational individuals, students will choose what is best for them. Thus, students will be motivated to choose to maintain passing grades in all classes to earn the privilege of participating in extracurricular activities. Within such a rational choice perspective, coupling eligibility for such activities with academic performance creates the motivation for students to perform better academically. If students value participation in athletics and other such activities, they will put forth the necessary effort to maintain academic eligibility. Academic achievement, then, should improve with students striving to preserve the privilege of participating in extracurricular activities. Rational choice theory permeates throughout this concept.

When the methodological concept presented by Schelling (1978) in the quote previously discussed is applied to the No Pass/No Play policy, it becomes very clear why the legislature passed and implemented the law. This methodological concept includes identifying the problem, then putting one's self "in the place" of the individual facing the problem. In doing so, one can anticipate what the individual will do to solve the problem. Proponents of the policy see it as a motivator for students to perform better academically. Applying the notion presented by Schelling clearly illustrates the rational choice theory understructure of the No Pass/No Play policy. Again, proponents of the No Pass/No Play policy believe the law motivates students to perform better academically and maintain their academic coursework as a priority over extracurricular activities. No Pass/No Play advocates draw this conclusion by putting themselves, as Schelling suggests, "in the place" of high school student-athletes.

They identify the problem high school student-athletes need to solve as how to maintain eligibility for extracurricular activities. Because students who participate in extracurricular activities value their eligibility for that participation, they will choose to act in a way that will allow them to maintain that eligibility. Thus, by putting themselves in the place of students who participate in extracurricular activities, the legislators reasoned that these students will choose to pass all of their classes. This will require students to focus on their academic course work as their primary focus over extracurricular activities.

The Texas No Pass/No Play policy is clearly grounded in rational choice theory. The legislature created a policy based on the belief that students will perform better academically to maintain eligibility for extracurricular activities. The policy assumes students value participation in athletics and other activities; thus, the students, operating as rational human beings, will choose to place academics as their chief priority to avoid losing eligibility to participate in these activities.

Effects of Extracurricular Participation on Students

The related literature documents the relationship between extracurricular activities and education. Proponents of extracurricular activities contend that participation in such activities has a wide array of positive benefits on students. These positive effects include improving academic achievement and educating the whole student (Breithaupt, 1996; Holloway, 2000). In addition to these positive effects, many studies suggest participation in extracurricular activities improves attendance, reduces dropout rates, reduces instances of student involvement with drugs, and develops a positive school culture (Marsh, 1992;

Picou, 1978; Spady, 1970). The following sections will outline the effects of extracurricular participation on student drop-out rates, academic achievement, and the personal and social development of students.

Drop-Out Rates

Many studies have focused on the relationship between academic achievement and participation in extracurricular activities. Many studies link extracurricular participation to educational benefits such as higher attendance rates and lower drop-out rates (Marsh 1992; Otto and Alwin, 1977; Picon 1978; Spady 1970). Conversely, a lack of extracurricular participation has been identified as strong characteristic of students who have dropped out of school (Bell, 1967; McNeal, 1995).

A study by Mahoney and Cairns (1977) investigated the relationship between extracurricular participation and the likelihood of dropping out of school for stronger students compared to weaker students. The researchers predicted the weaker students would realize greater gains in terms of preventing drop-out than the stronger students. The study included 392 subjects and followed these students from the seventh to the twelfth grades.

The results of the Mahoney and Cairns (1977) study linked participation in extracurricular activities to lower drop-out rates. Particularly, the study found that extracurricular participation significantly reduces the likelihood of at-risk students and academically fragile students dropping out of school. Such participation provides these at-risk students with a vehicle through which they can become connected to the school (Mahoney and Cairns 1977).

A more recent study by McNeal (1995) provides further evidence linking participation in extracurricular activities to lower drop-out rates. The McNeal (1995) study collected data from over 700 high schools and over 14,000 students. The study found that students involved in athletics were 1.7 times less likely to drop-out of school. Students involved with fine arts programs were 1.2 times less likely to drop out; while, students in academic organizations were 1.15 times less likely to become drop-outs. When controlling for variables such as socioeconomic status and academic achievement, the study found African-American students were twice as likely to drop out of school when they did not participate in extracurricular activities. Hispanic students were about one and a half times more likely to become high school drop-outs when with a lack of extracurricular participation (McNeal, 1995). The McNeal (1995) study offers even more support for the notion that extracurricular participation is linked to lower drop-out rates, especially within the minority student populations.

Academic Achievement

Several studies have linked extracurricular participation to improved academic achievement. Research has found a relationship between extracurricular participation and academic success, student attachment to school, and post-high school success.

Several studies report a positive effect on academic achievement associated with extracurricular participation. A study by Howley and Huang (1991) reports a positive relationship between extracurricular participation and academic achievement. Similarly, a study by Gerber (1996) found a strong correlation between participation in

extracurricular activities during the school day and improved academic achievement for students. Hecht (1993) also found higher academic success rates for students involved in school activities.

Jacobs and Chase (1989) studied 500 high school students across the nation. In this study, a majority of students reported that participation in extracurricular activities played an important roll in their education. High achieving students are more likely to be involved in extracurricular activities (Henry, 1992).

Haensly, Lupkowski, and Edline (1985) studied high school students within three Texas schools. The study included surveys to 508 twelfth grade students within these three high schools. The researchers found that the students achieving higher academically participated in some extracurricular organization. The study reports an overall positive relationship between participation and academic achievement (Haensly, Lupkowski, and Edline, 1985).

Camp (1990) researched the effects of extracurricular participation on student grades. The study consisted of 7,668 high school tenth graders from across the nation. Camp (1990) reported student activity level in school sponsored activities is significantly positively related to academic achievement.

How does participation in these activities lead to improved academic achievement? Otto (1976) reports extracurricular participation is associated with higher academic aspirations. This type of participation provides an attachment to school for students (Kostel, 1993). Time spent involved in school sponsored activities gives educators an opportunity to personally connect with students and an opportunity for students to connect to the school (Gold-Cunningham, 1999). These personal connections

and attachment to the school provide motivation for students to perform better academically.

Association with extracurricular activities leads to success beyond high school as well. Students who participate in these activities are more likely to go to college (Otto, 1982). Otto (1982) reported involvement in extracurricular activities positively affected career status and income. Furthermore, a more recent study found that students who had participated in these activities were not only more likely to have gone to college, but to have graduated from college as well (Galley, 2000). Mendez (1984) reported involvement in these activities as the single most common characteristic among successful people.

Personal and Social Development

A great deal of research has focused on the personal and social effects of extracurricular participation (Gerber, 1996). Extracurricular participation provides the “skills needed to success in life: goal setting, communication, group dynamics, team work, cooperation, planning and organizing, problem solving, decision making, self awareness, and self discipline” (Tillman, 1999, p. 28). Marano (1985) explains: “The opportunities to organize and plan, to assume leadership roles, to gain recognition and identity, to experience self-governance, to recreate physically and emotionally, and to mature socially come, to a significant degree, from the student activities program (Marano, 1985, p. 1).

The responsibility of schools to educate students goes beyond mere academics and includes developing the whole student. Participation in extracurricular activities

results in the social and emotional development of students (Haensly, Lupkowski, and Edline, 1985). This participation helps to build human qualities that regular academic programs cannot address (Gholson, 1985).

Extracurricular participation improves the self-esteem of students. Involvement in school activities builds self-esteem and self-confidence (Breithaupt, 1996; Klesse, 1994). Studies have found extracurricular participation is associated with higher levels of self-esteem among students (Finn, 1989; Yarworth and Gauthier, 1978). Marsh (1992) reports that such participation in school activities is also favorably associated with self-concept.

Students involved in school sponsored activities are less likely to engage in criminal and deviant acts as well. Extracurricular participants have been found to spend more time with their families than with friends (Cooley, 1992; Shifts, 1991). These students are also less likely to use illegal drugs, tobacco, or alcohol (Cassel, Chow, Demoulin, and Reiger, 2000). Overall, students involved in school activities are model students and are less likely to engage in criminal activity (Cassel, Chow, Demoulin, and Reiger, 2000).

Negative Effects of Extracurricular Participation

Some perceive extracurricular participation as having negative effects on students. Some educators believe participation in such activities distracts students from focusing on their academic coursework and detracts from time spent studying. Ross Perot, the chairman of Select Committee on Public Education, stated to reporters that the typical high school student spent one hour per night studying while the average high school athlete spent as much as twenty hours a week practicing (Saul, 1984). The time required

of students participating in extracurricular activities has become disproportionate compared to the time remaining for students to focus on academic coursework (Haensly, Lupkowski, and Edline, 1985; Mendez, 1984).

Additionally, many educators believe extracurricular activities, especially athletics, have become a central priority in education. These activities are receiving a disproportionate amount of resources that could be devoted to academics (Haensly, Lupkowski, and Edline, 1985). The 1980's and 1990's saw sports enjoy a dramatic increase in popularity. This popularity explosion can be attributed in part to increased media coverage including television exposure, advertising exposure, and increased salaries of professional athletes. In Texas, for example, new multi-million dollar athletic complexes were being constructed at both the collegiate and high school levels; and, coaching salaries were dramatically rising, in some instances doubling that of teacher salaries (Hambrick, 2001). As the popularity of athletics exploded, so did the contempt toward athletics held by many educators (Burnett, 2001; Hambrick, 2001).

Previous Research on No Pass/No Play

Relatively little research has been conducted on the effects of No Pass/No Play and policies of other states similar to it. The research that has been conducted examines the impact of No Pass/No Play on a variety of aspects of education and students.

Ligon (1988) conducted one of the first studies regarding the impact of No Pass/No Play. Within the Austin Independent School District, Ligon examined the effect No Pass/No Play had on student passing rates and dropout rates over a three year period. The researcher faced many limitations with the study, however, because the larger reform

effort of House Bill 72 implemented many changes in addition to the No Pass/No Play rule. For example, prior to House Bill 72, not all schools used the same grading system. Some schools considered any grade below 70 as failing; but, some schools allowed 65 or even 60 as the lowest passing grade. After House Bill 72, any grade below 70 is considered failing for all Texas schools (House Bill 72, 1984). This created a lack of longitudinal data regarding failure rates. The data for enrollment and dropout figures was complicated for similar reasons.

The study found No Pass/No Play to have an overall positive impact on student grades (Ligon, 1988). Furthermore, in the last school year of the study, 1987-88, over half of the students reported the rule motivated them to perform better academically. This differed from the student responses to the same survey in the previous two school years in which less than half of the students reported the rule has having a positive effect on their grades.

The study also examined the law's impact on dropout rates. While the study found dropout rates for students participating in extracurricular activities was significantly lower than the dropout rate for non-participating students, the report suggested that no clear impact could be found on overall dropout rates (Ligon, 1988). And, as with the data discussed earlier, House Bill 72 implemented many changes in addition to the No Pass/No Play rule. These changes must be considered as well.

In 1994, Sabatino followed up the Ligon (1988) study. The findings from this study support Ligon's (1988) findings. The Sabatino (1994) study found the No Pass/No Play law did have a positive effect on the academic performance of students participating in extracurricular activities in the Austin Independent School District. However, Sabatino

(1994) found that African-American students were most likely to become ineligible while Anglo student were least likely to become ineligible. The report stated enrollment in honors courses among students in Austin did not decrease. Additionally, the study found no significant increase in the number of dropouts; and, the dropout rate for students participating in extracurricular activities was substantially lower than those not participating in extracurricular activities (Sabatino, 1994).

Although these findings support those of the Ligon (1988) study, an additional facet of the Sabatino (1994) study confuses the findings. The Sabatino (1994) study also compared the effect of No Pass/No Play on the failure rate for students in extracurricular activities to the failure of nonparticipating students. The report states that while the failure rate for participating students decreased since the implementation of No Pass/No Play, so did the failure rate for non-participants (Sabatino, 1994). This makes it difficult to attribute the improvement to No Pass/No Play.

The Sabatino (1994) study, then, suggests that the negative effects of No Pass/No Play anticipated by its critics are not supported. The dropout rate has not significantly changed and enrollment in honors courses has increased rather than decreased (Sabatino, 1994). However, clear evidence is not found in the Sabatino (1994) study to support the intentions of the law, according to its supporters, of significantly improved academic achievement for students in extracurricular activities. This study does suggest that the No Pass/No Play rule has a slightly positive effect on academic achievement for these students (Sabatino, 1994).

A 1999 study in the Conroe Independent School District examined the effect of No Pass/No Play on students in extracurricular activities (Robb, 1999). This study reports

higher eligibility rates for students in extracurricular activities. Overall, the study states No Pass/No Play positively affects these students (Robb, 1999).

Studies examining similar rules in other states found similar results. A study in Arizona of the Mesa Public Schools found slight increases in academic achievement among students in extracurricular activities (O'Reilly, 1992). The study also found, as did Sabatino (1994), students were not avoiding challenging courses to maintain eligibility and the dropout was relatively unchanged (O'Reilly, 1992).

Not all studies have been positive, however. Some studies have found No Pass/No Play to promote inequities among students. For example, data collected from 511 districts throughout Texas indicated twenty-three percent of African-American students and twenty-two percent of Hispanic students failed courses compared to only fifteen percent of white children (Associated Press, October 2, 1986). The Sabatino (1994) study in Austin reported African American students were the most likely to become ineligible. And, the O'Reilly (1992) study in Arizona found significantly higher ineligibility rates among minority students as well (O'Reilly, 1992). The No Pass/No Play rule, and other rules like it, does seem to promote inequities in education by disproportionately affecting minority students.

Chapter III: Methodology

Introduction

This chapter describes the research methods used to determine those demographic and program factors contributing to variation in student eligibility rates for participation in extracurricular activities among Texas public high schools. A discussion of the descriptive research design used to ascertain the variable relationships is also presented in this chapter. The population/sample, instrumentation, sources of data, and procedures for analysis employed in the study are also delineated in the following discussion.

As indicated earlier, the design, methods, and procedures adopted for this study were incorporated to answer the following research questions:

Under the standards set by the Texas No Pass/No Play law, what program and demographic factors increase the eligibility rates of students participating in extracurricular activities?

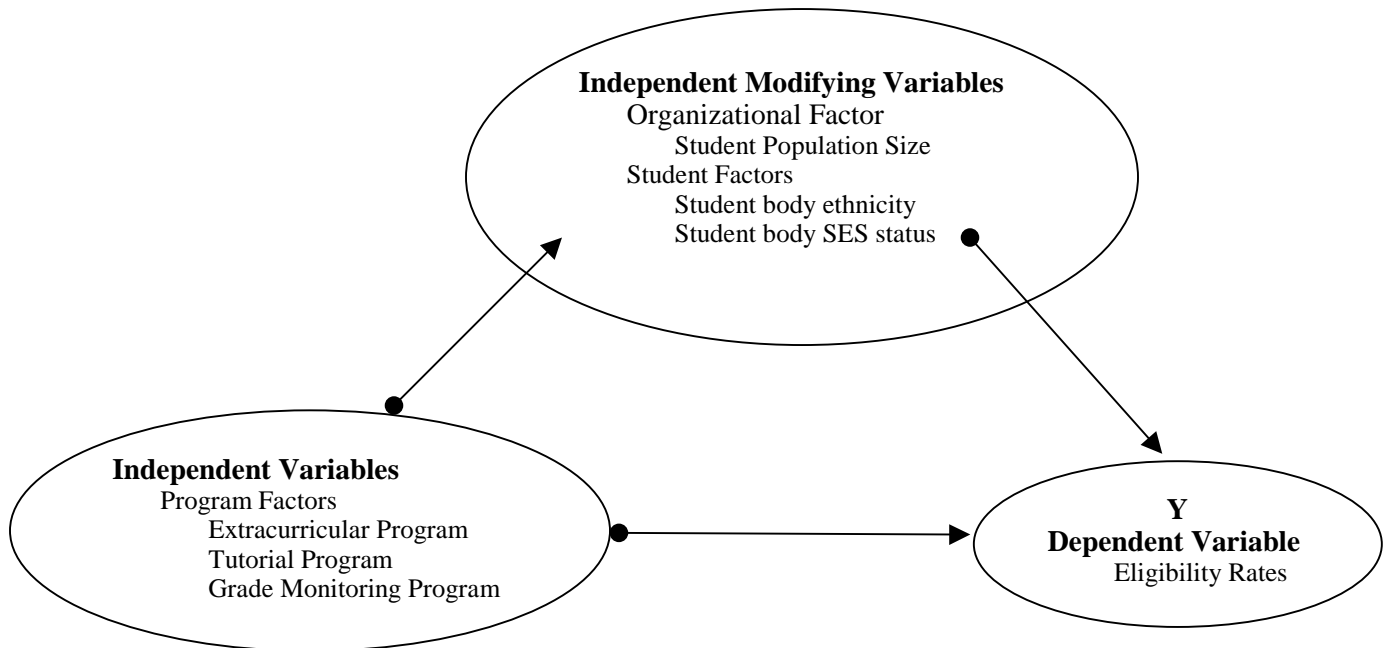
- 1) What overall demographic factors affect eligibility rates for the participation of students participating in extracurricular activities?
- 2) What type of programs increases eligibility rates for the participation of students, representing different socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds, in extracurricular activities?
- 3) What type of programs increases the eligibility rates for the participation of students, enrolled in schools of different sizes, in extracurricular activities?
- 4) What extracurricular program types have the highest eligibility rates for the participation of students within those activities?

Research Design

This study employs a descriptive research design. Descriptive research “deals with the relationship between variables...” and “is concerned with functional relationships” (Best and Kahn, 1998, p. 114). Descriptive research also involves non-manipulated variables, that is, conditions or variations in phenomena that have already occurred (Best and Kahn, 1998). Thus, this is a correlational study, investigating the relationships between various independent variables and eligibility rates for schools in Texas. The researcher is interested in how selected program and demographic variables affect eligibility rates. As described above, the variables examined within this study have already occurred and are not manipulated by the researcher.

In short, as a correlational study, this research investigates the relationship between variables, or the strength of the relationship between the selected program factors and eligibility rates (Patten, 2002, p. 137). Since it is assumed the relationship between the selected program factors and eligibility rates is complex, several organizational and student characteristics were identified as having an effect on this relationship. These latter variables are identified as modifying variables in this study. Thus, the descriptive research design, or correlational study, examines the variables shown in the following schematic (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Research Design Schematic



Population and Sample

The population of this study includes the 1226 Texas high schools participating in the University Interscholastic League. The UIL divides these schools by size into five classifications (see Table 1). The sample for this study will be a stratified random sample of the high schools in the UIL. The sample will be representative in terms of UIL classification (Patten, 2002, p. 137). In other words, the percentage of Class A schools in the sample will match the percentage of Class A schools in the entire population, and so on.

Table 1

Stratification of Schools in Population by UIL Classification

UIL Classification	Total in Population	Student Population Range for 2004-2005
A	341	Up to 179
AA	225	180 to 344
AAA	211	345 to 899
AAAA	224	900 to 1909
AAAAA	225	1909 and Larger
Total	1226	

Again, the sample for this study will include a stratified random sample. The recommended minimum sample size for a population of 1200 is 291 (Patten, 2002, p. 137). For this study, the population size is 1,226; thus, for the sample a total of 305 schools will be selected. To create a stratified sample, twenty-five percent of the schools from each of the five classifications will be included in the study with each of the schools having an equal opportunity to be selected. By selecting this percentage, the researcher ensures the sample will be representative of the population in terms of classification.

Table 2 below depicts the stratification of the sample for this study:

Table 2

Stratification of Schools in Sample by UIL Classification

UIL Classification	Total in Population	25% for Sample
A	341	85
AA	225	56
AAA	211	53
AAAA	224	55
AAAAA	225	56
Total	1226	305

The sample will be drawn randomly from a list of all of the schools participating in the University Interscholastic League. A list of these schools will be secured from the UIL Associate Director. The list will include the division of the schools into the five classifications.

The programs within each of these schools included in the study are the major extracurricular organizations affected by the No Pass/No Play law during the first three six-week grading periods. These programs include: football, volleyball, boys basketball, girls basketball, and band. These programs were chosen because of the relatively large numbers of students participating in these programs; and, again, these activities are affected by the No Pass/No Play law during the first three six-week grading periods. Football and Volleyball are both affected by No Pass/No Play during the first two six-week grading periods; while, both girls and boys basketball are affected by the second and third six-week grading periods. Band spans all of the first three six-week grading periods.

Sources of Data and Data Collection Procedures

Program Factors

A questionnaire will be developed following the guidelines recommended by *Surveys in Social Research* (de Vaus, 1986). The instrument will be designed to gather information regarding the eligibility rates of each of the organizations within each school for each of the first three six weeks grading periods. The questionnaire will gather data regarding the total number of students participating in each organization. Furthermore, the questionnaire will collect data regarding the total number of students losing eligibility

after each of the first three six-weeks grading periods; and, the total number of those students becoming ineligible who regained eligibility after the following three-week period. Additionally, the questionnaire will collect certain program information from each school regarding tutorial programs and student-participant academic performance monitoring.

More specifically, the questionnaire will address the following major topics for each school in the sample:

- The type of tutorial program the school has for extracurricular participants;
- The type of grade monitoring system the school has for extracurricular participants;
- The total number of participants per the selected activities;
- The total number of participants in each of the selected activities losing eligibility for each of the grading periods in the first semester;
- The total of number of ineligible participants in each of the selected activities who regained eligibility after the three-week reevaluation period.

The questionnaire will be mailed to the principal of each campus selected for the sample. As the instructional leader of the campus, the principal can provide accurate information regarding the topics addressed by the questionnaire. Furthermore, the principal can provide information regarding all of the programs. Individual coaches/directors can only respond regarding their respective programs.

The use of the questionnaire provides three benefits for the study. Questionnaires are considered to be an extremely efficient method of collecting data. Furthermore, questionnaires require less money and less time to collect data. Lastly, questionnaires consistently provide participants with an equal chance to answer the questions truthfully (Bourque and Fielder, 1995).

The questionnaire will be mailed to the principal of each school in the sample. To ensure validity and reliability of the questions, the questionnaire will be administered to a sample of six professionals from the University Interscholastic League and six current high school principals.

Demographic Factors

The school demographic data, organizational and student factors, related to the research questions will be gathered from the Public Education Information Management System (PEIMS) and the Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) published by the Texas Education Agency (TEA). Schools are required to report demographic and other information to the TEA using PEIMS; and, TEA publishes the AEIS reports based on campus performance. First, the student factors for the schools selected for this study reported to TEA via PEIMS includes the ethnic composition of the student body (STETH) and student socioeconomic status (STSES), or the percentage of students classified as who qualify to receive free or reduced lunch. Second, the organizational factor reported to TEA via PEIMS for these schools is the school size (SIZE), or total number of students enrolled in each school.

Data Analysis

The data collected will be analyzed using statistical analysis. The analysis will test for a relationship between eligibility rates and the following variables:

Program Factors

- type of tutorial program
- type of grade monitoring system
- type of extracurricular program

Demographic Factors

- Organizational Factor
 - schools size
- Student Factors
 - student-body ethnicity
 - student-body socioeconomic status

The analysis will test for a relationship between eligibility rates and each of the independent variables. This study will employ correlational analysis and multiple regression analysis to investigate for these relationships.

The correlational analysis will examine the relationship between each of the individual independent variables and the dependent variable. If a relationship does exist, the correlational analysis will determine the direction, positive or negative, of the relationship. This statistical approach tests the correlation between eligibility rates and each of the individual independent variables.

Analysis of variance will determine the relationship between the dependent variable and the combination of the independent variables. Analysis of variance “controls for the overlap (relatedness) of the predictor variables” (Best and Kahn, 1998). In other words, this statistical analysis method tests for the relationship between eligibility rates and the combination of some or all of the program and demographic variables. Additionally, multiple regression analysis allows for controlling for specific independent variables while testing for a relationship with the dependent variable. This analysis will test for the relationship between the program variables if the demographic variables are equal. For example, the following question can be answered: If the ethnicity of the student populations were the same, what is the relationship between tutorial program type and eligibility rates?

The data will be tabulated using *Statistical Package for Social Studies (SPSS)* for Windows Version 11.0. The findings will be presented in tabular form. *SPSS* will be used to conduct multiple regression analysis and correlational analysis (depending on the level of measurement of the variables) to test for a relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables. Analysis of the data will follow the guidelines described by Patten in Understanding Research Methods: An Overview of the Essentials, 3rd edition (Patten, 2002).

Chapter IV: Presentation and Analysis of Data

Introduction

The aim of this study was to identify what program and demographic factors increase the eligibility rates of students participating in extracurricular activities. Specifically, the study analyzed the following program factors: extracurricular program type, tutorial programs, and academic performance monitoring of students in extracurricular programs. The study analyzed the following demographic data: school size, student-body ethnicity, and student-body socioeconomic status.

The study seeks to answer the following research questions:

Under the standards set by the Texas No Pass/No Play law, what program and demographic factors increase the eligibility rates of students participating in extracurricular activities?

- 1) What overall demographic factors affect eligibility rates for the participation of students participating in extracurricular activities?
- 2) What type of programs increases eligibility rates for the participation of students, representing different socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds, in extracurricular activities?
- 3) What type of programs increases the eligibility rates for the participation of students, enrolled in schools of different sizes, in extracurricular activities?
- 4) What extracurricular program types have the highest eligibility rates for the participation of students within those activities?

The program factors information was collected using an instrument mailed to the principals of 305 high schools participating in the University Interscholastic League

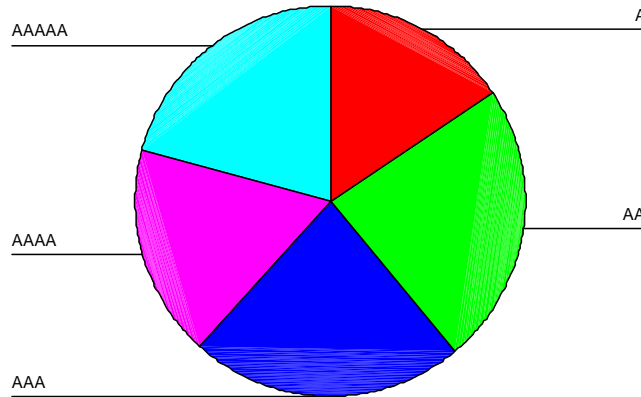
(UIL). All responses were recorded into *Statistical Package for Social Studies (SPSS)* for Windows Version 11.0 as articulated in Chapter III. The demographic factors were collected from Public Education Information Management System (PEIMS) and the Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) published by the Texas Education Agency (TEA), also as described in Chapter III.

Table 3 below summarizes the rate of return of the surveys by UIL classification. All responses were used in the data analysis with the exception of four. The four responses submitted incomplete or incorrectly were disregarded. The following table (Table 3) illustrates the stratification of the schools by representation in the population, representation in the sample, and the rate of return of the surveys administered to the principals of the schools selected for the sample. Graph 1 graphically depicts the stratification of the schools in the data analysis. The responses were fairly even distributed across the UIL classifications with the exception of Class A which found a much lower rate of return of 28.2%. Class AA through Class AAAA schools returned the surveys at rates between 47.3% and 64.2%.

Table 3

Survey Returns by UIL Classification				
UIL Classification	Total in Population	25% for Sample	Total Surveys Returned	Rate of Return of Surveys
A	341	85	24	28.2%
AA	225	56	35	62.5%
AAA	211	53	34	64.2%
AAAA	224	55	26	47.3%
AAAAA	225	56	31	55.4%
Total	1226	305	150	49.2%

Graph 1 - Stratification of Schools in Data Analysis by UIL Classification



Tables 4 thru 9 below present the demographic information about the schools whose principals returned surveys. The data from these schools is included in the data analysis. The demographic factors include both organizational and student factors. The organizational factor examined by this study is school size. The student factors include student-body ethnicity and student-body socioeconomic status. These data were gathered from the AEIS reports published on the TEA website.

Table 4 lists the mean total number of students and the standard deviation of population size for all of the schools included in the data analysis. The mean and standard deviation are presented for the percentages of the various ethnic groups for the schools in the data analysis as well. Finally, Table 4 offers the mean and standard deviation of the percentage of students classified low socioeconomic status for the schools in the sample. Then, Tables 5 thru 9 present the same statistics for the schools in the data analysis separated by UIL classification. The smaller schools, Class A and Class AA schools, serve higher Anglo student populations than the larger schools with Anglo students comprising 70.8% and 73.8% percent of the students respectively in these classifications. Class AAAA schools consist of the highest percentage of minority students at just over 60%.

Table 4

All Schools in Data Analysis Demographics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total Students	141	942.6099	989.80848
% Anglo	148	58.3757	27.27416
% African American	148	10.2155	14.33378
% Hispanic	148	29.4331	27.65697
% Other Ethnicity	148	1.8385	3.08436
% Low SES	148	39.5182	22.13033
Valid N (listwise)	141		

Table 5

Class 5A Demographics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total Students	25	2706.7600	673.59739
% Anglo	31	47.9290	23.04879
% African American	31	12.9097	10.27539
% Hispanic	31	33.2323	25.93928
% Other Ethnicity	31	5.3000	4.97346
% Low SES	31	28.5677	19.06617
Valid N (listwise)	25		

Table 6**Class 4A Demographics**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total Students	26	1423.5000	372.06873
% Anglo	26	39.6462	26.99540
% African American	26	16.8577	24.69891
% Hispanic	26	41.7154	29.80276
% Other Ethnicity	26	1.7808	1.98212
% Low SES	26	46.9346	23.98578
Valid N (listwise)	26		

Table 7**Class 3A Demographics**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total Students	33	511.9697	149.24026
% Anglo	34	57.1794	26.22095
% African American	34	10.1559	13.21872
% Hispanic	34	31.9324	31.27918
% Other Ethnicity	34	.7471	.73988
% Low SES	34	43.5765	22.21808
Valid N (listwise)	33		

Table 8**Class 2A Demographics**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total Students	33	271.4848	54.82764
% Anglo	33	73.8394	22.02242
% African American	33	7.6182	9.07347
% Hispanic	33	17.7758	22.32464
% Other Ethnicity	33	.7182	.90673
% Low SES	33	33.0879	16.09844
Valid N (listwise)	33		

Table 9**Class A Demographics**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total Students	24	90.6250	55.70092
% Anglo	24	70.8542	24.04640
% African American	24	2.3375	3.42964
% Hispanic	24	26.3125	24.13065
% Other Ethnicity	24	.5042	.89999
% Low SES	24	49.5708	23.48821
Valid N (listwise)	24		

Table 10 provides the information regarding one of the program factors, type of tutorial program. The survey asked each principal to report the type of tutorial program, if any, his or her campus employs for students participating in the identified extracurricular activities. The survey divided the responses into three categories: no tutorial program or a program in which participants may voluntarily attend tutorials, a tutorial program mandatory for selected participants, or a mandatory tutorial program for all participants. Table 10 illustrates that most schools in the data analysis, 63.8%, either have no tutorial program for students in extracurricular activities or have a program in which students may voluntarily attend tutorials. Schools with tutorial programs mandatory for all students participating in the identified extracurricular activities comprise the smallest percentage at 11.4%. This trend held true within each UIL classification with the exception of class AAA which reported 17.6% of the schools require all student-participants to attend a tutorial program. Tables 11 through 15 depict the responses for the schools within each UIL classification.

Table 10**Tutorial Type for All Schools in Data Analysis**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Tutorials or Voluntary for Participants	95	63.8	63.8	63.8
	Madatory Tutorials for Selected Participants	37	24.8	24.8	88.6
	Mandatory Tutorials for All Participants	17	11.4	11.4	100.0
	Total	149	100.0	100.0	

Table 11**Tutorial Type for Class 5A**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Tutorials or Voluntary for Participants	20	64.5	64.5	64.5
	Madatory Tutorials for Selected Participants	9	29.0	29.0	93.5
	Mandatory Tutorials for All Participants	2	6.5	6.5	100.0
	Total	31	100.0	100.0	

Table 12**Tutorial Type for Class 4A**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Tutorials or Voluntary for Participants	17	65.4	65.4	65.4
	Madatory Tutorials for Selected Participants	5	19.2	19.2	84.6
	Mandatory Tutorials for All Participants	4	15.4	15.4	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

Table 13**Tutorial Type for Class 3A**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Tutorials or Voluntary for Participants	24	70.6	70.6	70.6
	Madatory Tutorials for Selected Participants	4	11.8	11.8	82.4
	Mandatory Tutorials for All Participants	6	17.6	17.6	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 14**Tutorial Type for Class 2A**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Tutorials or Voluntary for Participants	20	58.8	58.8	58.8
	Madatory Tutorials for Selected Participants	12	35.3	35.3	94.1
	Mandatory Tutorials for All Participants	2	5.9	5.9	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 15**Tutorial Type for Class A**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Tutorials or Voluntary for Participants	14	58.3	58.3	58.3
	Madatory Tutorials for Selected Participants	6	25.0	25.0	83.3
	Mandatory Tutorials for All Participants	4	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	24	100.0	100.0	

The survey also inquired about another program factor, the type of program the school employs to monitor the grades of participants in the identified extracurricular

programs. Again, the survey divided the responses into three categories: no existing grade monitoring system, a non-standardized grade monitoring system in which each coach or director devises his or her own system, or a grade monitoring system that is standardized across all of the selected extracurricular programs. Table 16 provides the frequency of the responses within each category for all of the schools returning surveys. Subsequently, Tables 17 through 21 provide the same information for each individual UIL classification.

The smallest percentage of schools has no grade monitoring system at all with only 18.8% of the schools in this category. The largest percentage of schools, 50.3%, has a grade monitoring program; however, these programs are not standardized for all of the identified extracurricular programs. The majority of schools reporting in Class 5A, though, indicated having a standardized grade monitoring system for all extracurricular programs.

Table 16

Grade Monitoring for All Schools in Data Analysis

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid No Existing Monitoring System	28	18.8	18.8	18.8
Non-standardized Monitoring System	75	50.3	50.3	69.1
Standardized Monitoring System for All Programs	46	30.9	30.9	100.0
Total	149	100.0	100.0	

Table 17**Grade Monitoring for Class 5A**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Existing Monitoring System	2	6.5	6.5	6.5
	Non-standardized Monitoring System	12	38.7	38.7	45.2
	Standardized Monitoring System for All Programs	17	54.8	54.8	100.0
	Total	31	100.0	100.0	

Table 18**Grade Monitoring for Class 4A**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Existing Monitoring System	7	26.9	26.9	26.9
	Non-standardized Monitoring System	12	46.2	46.2	73.1
	Standardized Monitoring System for All Programs	7	26.9	26.9	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

Table 19**Grade Monitoring for Class 3A**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Existing Monitoring System	5	14.7	14.7	14.7
	Non-standardized Monitoring System	21	61.8	61.8	76.5
	Standardized Monitoring System for All Programs	8	23.5	23.5	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 20

Grade Monitoring for Class 2A

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid No Existing Monitoring System	8	23.5	23.5	23.5
Non-standardized Monitoring System	18	52.9	52.9	76.5
Standardized Monitoring System for All Programs	8	23.5	23.5	100.0
Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 21

Grade Monitoring for Class A

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid No Existing Monitoring System	6	25.0	25.0	25.0
Non-standardized Monitoring System	13	54.2	54.2	79.2
Standardized Monitoring System for All Programs	5	20.8	20.8	100.0
Total	24	100.0	100.0	

The school principals responded to the survey with information regarding the final program factor, extracurricular program type. The questionnaire asked for the total number of students participating in each of the identified extracurricular programs: football, volleyball, girls basketball, boys basketball, and band. Furthermore, the questionnaire asked for the total number of students in each of these programs who lost eligibility after each of the relevant grading periods for the fall semester. These figures were used to calculate an average percentage of ineligibility per grading period for each of the programs as well as an overall average percentage of ineligibility per grading period for all of the identified programs within each school. Table 22 depicts the mean

and standard deviation of the ineligibility rates for the schools and each extracurricular program for all of the schools in the data analysis. Tables 23 through 27 show the same figures for each of the UIL classifications.

Table 22

Ineligibility Rates for All Schools in Data Analysis by Extracurricular Program

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Overall	138	7.3356	6.82319
Football	129	8.3051	8.21924
Volleyball	114	4.6304	6.92633
Girls Basketball	135	4.6731	6.21461
Boys Basketball	136	7.7651	8.69292
Band	119	8.4994	10.06224
Valid N (listwise)	104		

Table 23

Ineligibility Rates for Class 5A in Data Analysis by Extracurricular Program

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Overall	31	9.6742	5.80080
Football	31	10.8839	7.68241
Volleyball	30	6.2200	7.81874
Girls Basketball	31	5.0484	5.41017
Boys Basketball	31	10.6839	10.41730
Band	30	8.6333	6.48049
Valid N (listwise)	29		

Table 24

Ineligibility Rates for Class 4A in Data Analysis by Extracurricular Program

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Overall	25	9.7760	9.01953
Football	25	11.2480	10.43840
Volleyball	25	4.9760	7.26907
Girls Basketball	24	6.9208	8.47580
Boys Basketball	24	8.9667	8.92474
Band	23	10.1609	10.19821
Valid N (listwise)	23		

Table 25**Ineligibility Rates for Class 3A in Data Analysis by Extracurricular Program**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Overall	24	5.74167	5.187352
Football	23	6.78696	6.069544
Volleyball	23	4.03043	6.425902
Girls Basketball	24	3.17917	5.013025
Boys Basketball	24	6.20417	5.604926
Band	23	11.89130	16.443676
Valid N (listwise)	21		

Table 26**Ineligibility Rates for Class 2A in Data Analysis by Extracurricular Program**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Overall	34	4.7853	4.47560
Football	33	6.1545	7.62947
Volleyball	28	3.5821	6.51739
Girls Basketball	32	3.0156	4.82902
Boys Basketball	33	4.5636	5.17885
Band	34	5.1794	5.40610
Valid N (listwise)	27		

Table 27**Ineligibility Rates for Class A in Data Analysis by Extracurricular Program**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Overall	23	5.9005	4.83240
Football	16	5.6787	7.37870
Volleyball	7	2.9802	5.55611
Girls Basketball	23	4.8855	5.80136
Boys Basketball	23	8.8156	11.30603
Band	9	4.3508	3.19269
Valid N (listwise)	4		

Research Question One

What overall demographic factors affect eligibility rates?

The variables involved in Research Question One include school size, student-body ethnicity, and student-body socioeconomic status.

School Size

The study employs partial correlation analysis to test the relationship between school size (total number of students) and ineligibility rates. The results of the partial correlation analysis controlling for student-body ethnicity and student-body socioeconomic status are presented in Table 28 below:

Table 28
Partial Correlation Analysis of School Size and Ineligibility Rates Controlling for Percentage of Minority Students and Percentage of Low SES Students
Controlling for.. MINORITY SOCIOECO

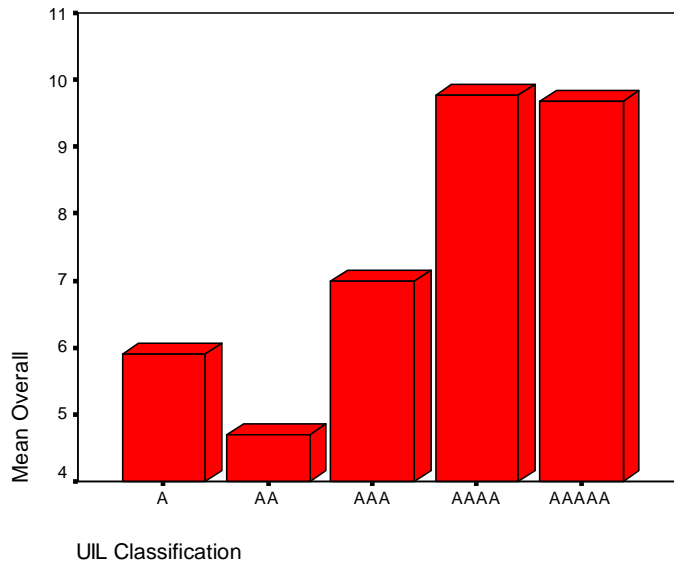
INELPCT	SIZE	
INELPCT	1.0000	.2070
(0)	(126)	
P= .	P= .019	
SIZE	.2070	1.0000
(126)	(0)	
P= .019	P= .	

(Coefficient / (D.F.) / 2-tailed Significance)

The partial correlation coefficient value of .2070 indicates a somewhat weak, but statistically significant at the .019 level, positive relationship between school size and ineligibility rates. This relationship exists holding both student-body ethnicity and student-body socioeconomic status constant. These data suggest that as school size increases, ineligibility rates increase slightly, and that this relationship is confounded neither by the ethnic makeup nor the SES of the school.

Graph 2 visually presents the relationship between school size and ineligibility rates by depicting the mean ineligibility rates for the various UIL classifications:

Graph 2
Mean Ineligibility Rates by UIL Classification



The general trend depicted by Graph 2 shows that as school size increases, the ineligibility rate increases.

Student-Body Ethnicity

The study tests the relationship between the student-body ethnicity and ineligibility rates. Partial correlation analysis is used to test the relationship between the percentage of minority students and ineligibility rates.

Table 29 presents the results of the partial correlation analysis between the percentage of minority students and ineligibility rates while controlling for student-body socioeconomic status:

Table 29
Partial Correlation Analysis of Percentage of Minority Students and Ineligibility Rates
Controlling for Percentage of Low SES Students
 Controlling for.. SOCIOECO

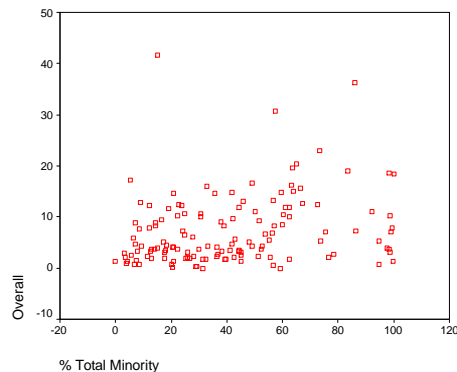
	INELPCT	MINORITY
INELPCT	1.0000	.2371
	(0)	(134)
	P= .	P= .005
MINORITY	.2371	1.0000
	(134)	(0)
	P= .005	P= .

(Coefficient / (D.F.) / 2-tailed Significance)

While controlling for socioeconomic status of students, the partial correlation coefficient for the percentage of minority students and ineligibility rates is .2371 and is statistically significant at the .005 level. This suggests that despite the socioeconomic status of students, as the percentage of minority students increases, there is a tendency for the ineligibility rate to increase.

The scatter plot below graphically illustrates the relationship between the percentage of minority students and ineligibility rates:

Graph 3
Percentage of Minority Students and Ineligibility Rates



As Graph 3 shows, the overall relationship is generally positive; however, it is a rather weak relationship.

Running the same test while controlling for school size rather than student socioeconomic status produces similar results:

Table 30
Partial Correlation Analysis of Percentage of Minority Students and Ineligibility Rates Controlling for Schools Size
 Controlling for.. SIZE

	INELPCT	MINORITY
INELPCT	1.0000	.1795
	(0)	(127)
	P= .	P= .042
MINORITY	.1795	1.0000
	(127)	(0)
	P= .042	P= .

(Coefficient / (D.F.) / 2-tailed Significance)

As Table 30 depicts, the relationship between the percentage of minority students and ineligibility rates is weaker when controlling for school size than when controlling for socioeconomic status; however, the partial correlation coefficient of .1795 is still statistically significant at the .05 level and remains positive.

The results change rather drastically when controlling for both school size and student socioeconomic status:

Table 31

**Partial Correlation Analysis of Percentage of Minority Students and Ineligibility Rates
Controlling for Percentage of Low SES Students and School Size**

Controlling for.. SOCIOECO SIZE

	INELPCT	MINORITY
INELPCT	1.0000	.0448
(0)	(126)	
P= .	P= .615	

	MINORITY	INELPCT
MINORITY	.0448	1.0000
(126)	(0)	
P= .615	P= .	

(Coefficient / (D.F.) / 2-tailed Significance)

While the relationship remains positive, it loses a great deal of strength. When controlling for both school size and student socioeconomic status, the relationship between the percentage of minority students and ineligibility rates is not statistically significant, a finding that is consistent with earlier results.

In summary, the relationship between the percentage of minority students and ineligibility rates is statistically significant and positive when controlling for either school size or student socioeconomic status. However, when controlling for both school size and student socioeconomic status, the relationship remains positive but is not statistically significant, suggesting that the apparent relationship between percentage of minority students and ineligibility rates is probably an artifact of school size first and SES second.

Student-Body Socioeconomic Status

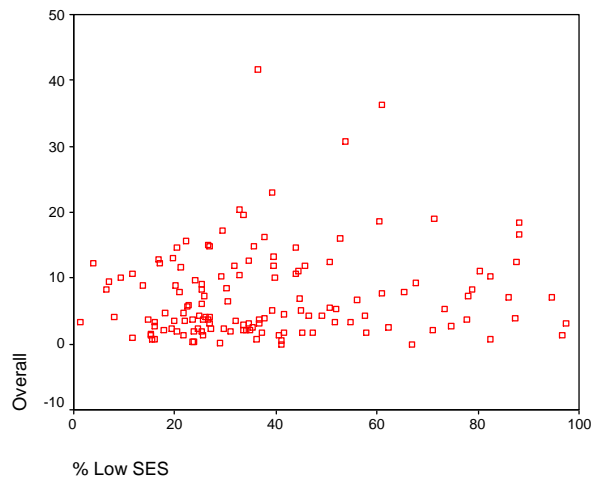
The third demographic variable is student-body socioeconomic status. This variable, operationalized as the percentage of students on the free/reduced lunch program, proved to have the weakest relationship with ineligibility rates:

Table 32
Partial Correlation Analysis of Percentage of Low SES Students and Ineligibility Rates Controlling for School Size and Percentage of Minority Students
 Controlling for.. SIZE MINORITY

	INELPCT	SOCIOECO
INELPCT	1.0000	.0691
	(0)	(126)
	P= .	P= .438
SOCIOECO	.0691	1.0000
	(126)	(0)
	P= .438	P= .
(Coefficient / (D.F.) / 2-tailed Significance)		

As Table 32 presents, the partial correlation coefficient of .0691 is not statistically significant at .05 level when controlling for both school size and the percentage of minority students. Graph 4 depicts the relationship visually:

Graph 4
Percentage of Low SES Students and Ineligibility Rates



Graph 4 provides shows there is not discernable pattern to the relationship. The relationship is weak and no statistically significant.

The relationship gains strength when controlling only for school size:

Table 33
Partial Correlation Analysis of Percentage of Low SES Students and Ineligibility Rates Controlling for School Size
 Controlling for.. SIZE

	INELPCT	SOCIOECO
INELPCT	1.0000	.1868
	(0)	(127)
	P= .	P= .034
SOCIOECO	.1868	1.0000
	(127)	(0)
	P= .034	P= .

(Coefficient / (D.F.) / 2-tailed Significance)

When controlling only for school size, the partial correlation coefficient of .1868 is statistically significant at the .034 level. However, the opposite happens when controlling only for student ethnicity:

Table 34
Partial Correlation Analysis of Percentage of Low SES Students and Ineligibility Rates Controlling for Percentage of Minority Students
 Controlling for.. MINORITY

	INELPCT	SOCIOECO
INELPCT	1.0000	-.0821
	(0)	(134)
	P= .	P= .342
SOCIOECO	-.0821	1.0000
	(134)	(0)
	P= .342	P= .

(Coefficient / (D.F.) / 2-tailed Significance)

Controlling only for student ethnicity, the relationship between student socioeconomic status and ineligibility rates becomes negative; however, this relationship is not statistically significant at the .05 level.

Summary of Statistical Analysis Results for Research Question One

Of the three demographic variables, school size has the strongest relationship with ineligibility rates. This relationship remains statistically significant when controlling for both of the other variables.

The second strongest relationship seems to be between student-body ethnicity and ineligibility rates. This relationship is statistically significant when controlling for either of the other demographic variables; however, it is not statistically significant when controlling for both schools size and student-body socioeconomic status.

The weakest relationship is between the student-body socioeconomic status and ineligibility rates. This relationship is not statistically significant when controlling for both other demographic variables or when controlling only for student-body ethnicity. It is statistically significant when controlling for school size, however.

Research Question Two

What type of programs increases eligibility rates for the participation of students, representing different socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds, in extracurricular activities?

Research Question Two addresses program variables, specifically tutorial program type and grade monitoring program type, and the demographic variables student-body ethnicity and student-body socioeconomic status. The study tests the relationship between each of these variables and ineligibility rates of schools by utilizing univariate factorial and repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA).

The tutorial program types were separated into three categories:

- No tutorials or voluntary tutorials for participants;
- Mandatory tutorials for selected participants;
- Mandatory tutorials for all participants.

The ANOVA tested for a relationship between tutorial program type with the percentage of minority students and the percentage of students on free/reduced lunch as covariates.

Table 35 lists the results of this statistical test:

Table 35
ANOVA for Tutorial Program Type, Percentage of Minority Students, and Percentage of Low SES Students

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

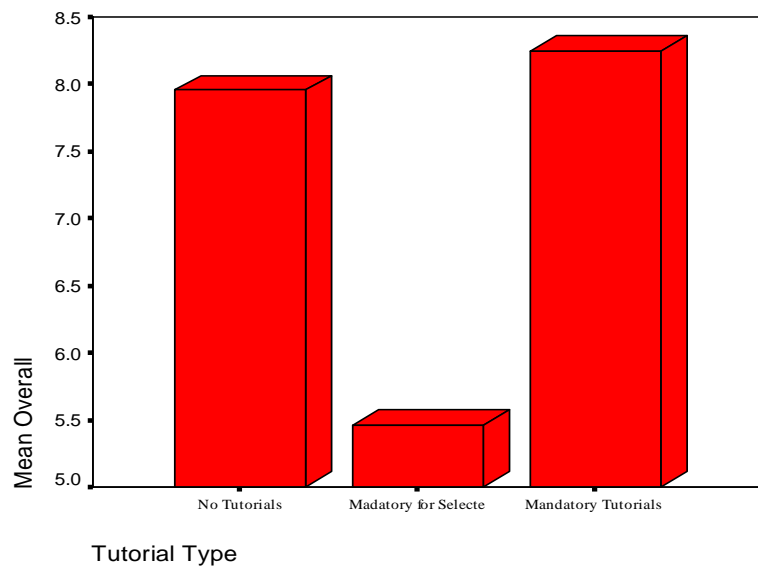
Dependent Variable: Overall

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	603.324 ^a	4	150.831	3.448	.010
Intercept	630.518	1	630.518	14.412	.000
MINORITY	338.766	1	338.766	7.744	.006
SOCIOECO	34.812	1	34.812	.796	.374
TUTORIAL	161.648	2	80.824	1.847	.162
Error	5774.789	132	43.748		
Total	13753.667	137			
Corrected Total	6378.113	136			

^a. R Squared = .095 (Adjusted R Squared = .067)

While holding ethnicity and socioeconomic status of students constant, tutorial program type does not have a statistically significant relationship with ineligibility rates. In other words, there is not a statistically different between the mean ineligibility rates of schools using the different tutorial program types. Graph 5 provides a visual presentation of the mean ineligibility rates for schools in the various tutorial categories:

Graph 5
Mean Ineligibility Rates by Tutorial Program Type



The same statistical test was used for the relationship between grade monitoring program type and ineligibility rates. The grade monitoring program types were divided into three categories:

- No existing monitoring system;
- Non-standardized monitoring system;
- Standardized monitoring system for all programs.

Again, both the percentage of minority students and the percentage of students on free/reduced lunch were included as covariates. Table 36 provides the results on the ANOVA:

Table 36
ANOVA for Grade Monitoring Program Type, Percentage of Minority Students, and
Percentage of Low SES Students

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

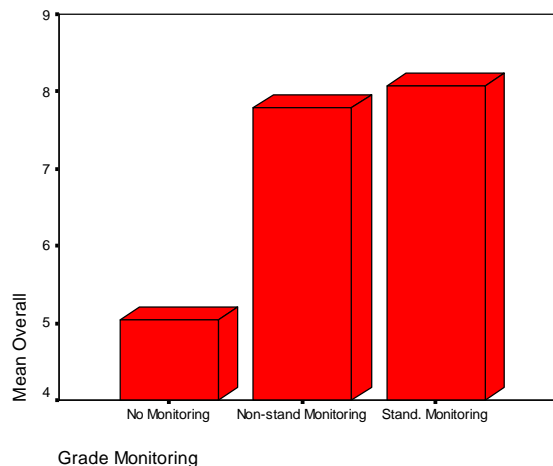
Dependent Variable: Overall

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	532.630 ^a	4	133.157	3.007	.021
Intercept	875.763	1	875.763	19.776	.000
MINORITY	294.330	1	294.330	6.646	.011
SOCIOECO	41.141	1	41.141	.929	.337
GRADEMON	90.955	2	45.477	1.027	.361
Error	5845.483	132	44.284		
Total	13753.667	137			
Corrected Total	6378.113	136			

a. R Squared = .084 (Adjusted R Squared = .056)

As with tutorial program type, while holding ethnicity and socioeconomic status of students constant, there is not a statistically significant relationship between the grade monitoring system type and ineligibility rates. Put another way, there is not a statistically significant difference in the means of schools utilizing the different grade monitoring system types. Graph 6 visually depicts the mean ineligibility rates for schools in the grade monitoring categories:

Graph 6
Mean Ineligibility Rates by Grade Monitoring Program Type



Summary of Statistical Analysis Results for Research Question Two

Neither tutorial program type nor grade monitoring program type had a statistically significant relationship with ineligibility rates. Despite the ethnicity or socioeconomic status of students, schools in different tutorial program type categories and different grade monitoring system type categories do not have a statistically significant different in ineligibility rates.

Research Question Three

What type of programs increases the eligibility rates for the participation of students, enrolled in schools of different sizes, in extracurricular activities?

Research Question Three addresses the same program factors as Research Question Two, tutorial program type and grade monitoring system type, and the demographic variable school size.

ANOVA was again utilized to test for a relationship between tutorial program type and ineligibility rates for schools in different UIL Classifications. The ANOVA included UIL Classification as a covariate. Table 37 presents the statistical results:

Table 37
ANOVA for Tutorial Program Type and UIL Classification

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Overall

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intercept	Hypothesis	3828.177	1	3828.177	41.479	.003
	Error	370.342	4.013	92.293 ^a		
TUTORIAL	Hypothesis	113.452	2	56.726	1.148	.359
	Error	453.633	9.181	49.412 ^b		
UILCLASS	Hypothesis	369.852	4	92.463	1.924	.164
	Error	652.241	13.573	48.053 ^c		
TUTORIAL * UILCLASS	Hypothesis	399.782	8	49.973	1.170	.322
	Error	5252.252	123	42.701 ^d		

- a. .997 MS(UILCLASS) + 3.418E-03 MS(Error)
- b. .923 MS(TUTORIAL * UILCLASS) + 7.715E-02 MS(Error)
- c. .736 MS(TUTORIAL * UILCLASS) + .264 MS(Error)
- d. MS(Error)

The table illustrates there is not a statistically significant relationship between the type of tutorial program in different UIL Classifications and ineligibility rates. Stated differently, the mean ineligibility rates of schools within each UIL Classification utilizing different tutorial programs are not statistically significantly different. The table below provides a different visual organization to explain:

Table 38
Mean Ineligibility Rates by Tutorial Program Type and UIL Classification

Overall

UIL Classification	Tutorial Type	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
A	No Tutorials or Voluntary for Participants	5.9611	14	4.48301
	Mandatory Tutorials for Selected Participants	6.4706	6	6.56309
	Mandatory Tutorials for All Participants	4.4779	3	3.81036
	Total	5.9005	23	4.83240
AA	No Tutorials or Voluntary for Participants	5.9900	20	5.18032
	Mandatory Tutorials for Selected Participants	3.1462	13	2.52178
	Mandatory Tutorials for All Participants	1.9500	2	1.76777
	Total	4.7029	35	4.43618
AAA	No Tutorials or Voluntary for Participants	6.1313	16	4.11675
	Mandatory Tutorials for Selected Participants	3.3750	4	2.71953
	Mandatory Tutorials for All Participants	14.0250	4	19.00568
	Total	6.9875	24	8.39795
AAAA	No Tutorials or Voluntary for Participants	11.3647	17	10.47383
	Mandatory Tutorials for Selected Participants	6.5750	4	2.17773
	Mandatory Tutorials for All Participants	6.2250	4	4.02772
	Total	9.7760	25	9.01953
AAAAA	No Tutorials or Voluntary for Participants	9.8750	20	6.08716
	Mandatory Tutorials for Selected Participants	8.5556	9	5.86198
	Mandatory Tutorials for All Participants	12.7000	2	.42426
	Total	9.6742	31	5.80080
Total	No Tutorials or Voluntary for Participants	7.9547	87	6.77038
	Mandatory Tutorials for Selected Participants	5.4590	36	4.74291
	Mandatory Tutorials for All Participants	8.2489	15	10.26831
	Total	7.3356	138	6.82319

Clearly, there is no clear pattern with regards to ineligibility rates and the various tutorial program types over all of the UIL Classifications or within them.

The study used the same statistical test for testing the relationship between grade monitoring program type and ineligibility rates for schools in different UIL Classifications. The ANOVA included UIL Classification as a covariate. Table 39 presents the results of the statistical test:

Table 39
ANOVA for Grade Monitoring Program Type and UIL Classification

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Overall

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intercept	5371.749	1	5371.749	44.142	.002
Error	503.504	4.138	121.692 ^a		
GRADEMON	62.237	2	31.119	.432	.662
Error	638.531	8.869	71.998 ^b		
UILCLASS	503.729	4	125.932	1.785	.213
Error	660.896	9.369	70.540 ^c		
GRADEMON * UILCLASS	600.155	8	75.019	1.834	.077
Error	5031.629	123	40.908 ^d		

- a. $.950 \text{ MS(UILCLASS)} + 4.987\text{E-}02 \text{ MS(Error)}$
- b. $.911 \text{ MS(GRADEMON * UILCLASS)} + 8.858\text{E-}02 \text{ MS(Error)}$
- c. $.869 \text{ MS(GRADEMON * UILCLASS)} + .131 \text{ MS(Error)}$
- d. MS(Error)

The relationship between the interaction of grade monitoring system type and UIL Classification and ineligibility rates is not statistically significant. Schools within any UIL Classification in different grade monitoring categories do statistically significant differences in eligibility rates. Table 40 provides the mean ineligibility rates for schools in each UIL Classification in different grade monitoring categories.

Table 40
Mean Ineligibility Rates by Grade Monitoring Program Type and UIL Classification

Overall

UIL Classification	Grade Monitoring	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
A	No Existing Monitoring System	3.4295	6	.86534
	Non-standardized Monitoring System	6.7806	12	5.35526
	Standardized Monitoring System for All Programs	6.7537	5	6.02012
	Total	5.9005	23	4.83240
AA	No Existing Monitoring System	2.4375	8	1.81733
	Non-standardized Monitoring System	5.8722	18	5.30392
	Standardized Monitoring System for All Programs	4.3778	9	3.55555
	Total	4.7029	35	4.43618
AAA	No Existing Monitoring System	7.1000	4	3.80263
	Non-standardized Monitoring System	4.9867	15	3.48053
	Standardized Monitoring System for All Programs	12.9000	5	17.13345
	Total	6.9875	24	8.39795
AAAA	No Existing Monitoring System	6.4000	7	3.19948
	Non-standardized Monitoring System	13.7917	12	11.53102
	Standardized Monitoring System for All Programs	5.6833	6	3.30540
	Total	9.7760	25	9.01953
AAAAA	No Existing Monitoring System	11.5000	2	4.38406
	Non-standardized Monitoring System	9.1500	12	7.65180
	Standardized Monitoring System for All Programs	9.8294	17	4.58145
	Total	9.6742	31	5.80080
Total	No Existing Monitoring System	5.0473	27	3.58422
	Non-standardized Monitoring System	7.7850	69	7.39704
	Standardized Monitoring System for All Programs	8.0683	42	7.23405
	Total	7.3356	138	6.82319

Summary of Statistical Analysis Results for Research Question Three

The interaction of UIL Classification and tutorial program type does not have a statistically significant relationship with ineligibility rates. Likewise, the interaction of UIL Classification and grade monitoring type does not have a statistically significant relationship with ineligibility rates. In other words, neither tutorial program type nor grade monitoring program type makes a statistically significant difference in ineligibility rates from one UIL Classification to another.

Research Question Four

What extracurricular program types have the highest eligibility rates for the participation of students within those activities?

Research Question Four examines the mean ineligibility rates of the various extracurricular programs: football, volleyball, girls basketball, boys basketball, and band. The study employed repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test the relationship between ineligibility rates and extracurricular program type. Table 41 below presents the results of the statistical test:

Table 41
Repeated Measures ANOVA for Activity Type and Mean Ineligibility Rates

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Football	9.1928	8.55517	104
Volleyball	4.7698	7.11489	104
Girls Basketball	4.7841	6.63453	104
Boys Basketball	7.9012	9.07787	104
Band	8.6253	10.30431	104

Multivariate Tests

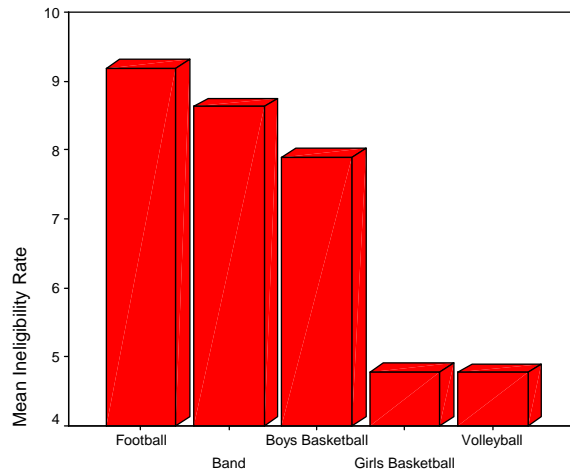
Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
PROGRAM	Pillai's Trace	.372	14.813	4.000	100.000	.000

a Exact statistic

b Design: Intercept Within Subjects Design: PROGRAM

As the table shows, football had the highest mean ineligibility rate at 9.2% followed by band at 8.6%. Boys basketball had a similarly high mean ineligibility rate at 7.9%. Volleyball and girls basketball both had much lower mean ineligibility rates at about 4.8% each. The Pillai's Trace test showed a statistically significant difference between the highest mean ineligibility rate, football, and the lowest ineligibility rate, volleyball, at the .000 level. Graph 7 illustrates visually the difference in the mean ineligibility rates of each of the extracurricular programs.

Graph 7
Mean Ineligibility Rates by Extracurricular Activity Type



A different repeated measures ANOVA including only the three extracurricular program with the highest mean ineligibility rates (football, boys basketball, and band) found a significance level of .248, or no statistically significant difference between these mean ineligibility rates. The same Pillae's Trace test including the two programs with the lowest mean ineligibility rates (volleyball and girls basketball) found no statistically significant difference with a significance level of .828. The repeated measures ANOVA

including the two midrange mean ineligibility rates (boys basketball and girls basketball) found a statistically significant difference at the .000 level.

Summary of Statistical Analysis for Research Question Four

The mean ineligibility rates of the various extracurricular programs seemed to form in two groups. The group with the highest mean ineligibility rates includes football, band, and boys basketball. The mean ineligibility rates for these programs are not statistically significantly different. The group with the lowest mean ineligibility rates includes girls basketball and volleyball. The mean ineligibility rates of these two programs are not statistically significantly different. There is, however, a statistically significant difference between the program with the lowest mean ineligibility rate in the highest group, boys basketball, and the program with the highest mean ineligibility rate in the lowest group, girls basketball, at the .000 level. In other words, the programs within the highest group are similar; and, the programs within the lowest group are similar. However, the two groups significantly differ in terms of mean ineligibility rates.

Summary

The study used statistical analysis to examine the four research questions. The results of the statistical analysis for Research Question One found that school size has the strongest relationship with ineligibility rates between the demographic variables with larger schools tending to have higher ineligibility rates. Student-body ethnicity also had a statistically significant relationship with ineligibility rates as an artifact of school size. Student-body socioeconomic status proved to have the weakest relationship with

ineligibility rates. Tests for Research Question Two found no relationship between tutorial program type and ineligibility rates or grade monitoring program type and ineligibility rates when controlling for student-body ethnicity and student-body socioeconomic status. Likewise, examination of Research Question Three found no relationship between tutorial program type and ineligibility rates or grade monitoring types and ineligibility rates when controlling for UIL Classification. Statistical analysis for Research Question Four suggests football has the highest mean ineligibility rate of all of the extracurricular programs followed by band and boys basketball. Volleyball and girls basketball have the lowest and second lowest mean ineligibility rates respectively. Football, band, and boys basketball seems to cluster in a similar group that differs from group formed by the cluster of volleyball and girls basketball.

Chapter V: Summary of Findings, Implications of Findings, and Recommendations for Future Research

Introduction

Chapter IV presented the data analysis and the results of the statistical tests employed by this study. This chapter is divided into three sections with the first section providing a summary of the findings of those statistical tests. The second section discusses the implications of those findings for school leaders. Finally, the third section offers recommendations for future research regarding No Pass/No Play.

Summary of Findings

This study examined the relationship between the rates of student eligibility for participation in extracurricular activities under the standards set by No Pass/No Play and various demographic and program factors. More specifically, the study examined 1) the relationship between eligibility rates and school size, student-body ethnicity, and student-body socioeconomic status; 2) the relationship between eligibility rates of students representing different ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds and type of tutorial program and type of grade monitoring program; 3) the relationship between eligibility rates of schools of different sizes and type of tutorial program and type of grade monitoring program; and 4) the relationship between eligibility rates and extracurricular program type.

The review of the literature documents the vast benefits of participation in extracurricular activities. Extracurricular participation has been linked to higher academic

achievement, higher school attendance rates, and lower dropout rates (Breithaupt, 1996; Holloway, 2000; Marsh 1992; Otto and Alwin, 1977; Picon 1978; Spady 1970).

Additionally, studies have linked extracurricular activities to lower instances of student involvement in drugs and a positive school climate (Marsh, 1992; Picou, 1978; Spady, 1970).

No Pass/No Play was passed in 1984 as an effort to refocus the emphasis of Texas public school away from extracurricular activities, athletic in particular, and toward academics (Burnett, 2001; Slater, 1988). The law, however, inherently limits the number of students who participate in extracurricular activities, thus limiting the number of students who benefit from extracurricular participation. The tremendous advantages associated with extracurricular participation demand that school leaders find ways to maximize the number of students who benefit from that participation. This study collected data from Texas public high schools in an effort to find ways to increase rates of student eligibility for extracurricular participation. Questionnaires were mailed to 305 Texas public high school principals with 150 of them being returned.

Research Question One

What overall demographic factors affect eligibility rates for the participation of students participating in extracurricular activities?

Research Question One examined the relationship between eligibility rates and three demographic factors: school size, student-body ethnicity, and student-body socioeconomic status. The results of the data analysis suggest that of these three variables school size has the strongest relationship with eligibility rates. This relationship is

negative, meaning that as the school size increases, the overall eligibility rates tend to decrease. While this is a somewhat weak relationship, the relationship is significant.

The statistical analysis also suggests a relationship between student-body ethnicity and eligibility rates. The relationship between the percentage of minority students and eligibility rates is negative. In other words, as the percentage of minority students increases, the overall eligibility rate tends to decrease. Schools with a high percentage of minority students tend to have lower rates of student eligibility for participation in extracurricular activities. This study failed to find evidence that student-body socioeconomic status is related to eligibility rates. The rate of student eligibility is not interrelated with the percentage of students who qualify for free or reduced lunch according to the evidence provided by this study.

Larger schools and schools with a high percentage of minority students tend to have lower eligibility rates than smaller schools and schools with a low percentage of minority students. The evidence collected by this study suggests socioeconomic status of the student-body, the percentage of students qualifying for free or reduced lunch, does not seem to affect eligibility rates, however.

Research Question Two

What type of programs increases eligibility rates for the participation of students, representing different socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds, in extracurricular activities?

This research question sought to discover what program factors, tutorial program type and grade monitoring program type, increase eligibility rates. Furthermore, Research

Question Two examined the effects of these program factors on eligibility rates of schools serving students from different ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds. Each of these program factors was divided into three categories on the questionnaire. The three tutorial program categories include: no tutorials or voluntary tutorials for participants, mandatory tutorials for selected participants, and mandatory tutorials for all participants. Grade monitoring program type was divided into these three categories: no grade monitoring system, a non-standardized grade monitoring program (each coach or director monitors grades as he or she determines), and a standardized grade monitoring system for all programs in which all coaches/directors use the same grade monitoring system. Surprisingly, this study failed to find evidence that the program factors have an effect on the rates of student eligibility. Despite what type of tutorial program or what type of grade monitoring program schools employ, the eligibility rates tend to not be affected according to the findings of this study. This tendency remains constant despite the ethnicity or socioeconomic status of the student body served by the schools.

Research Question Three

What type of programs increases the eligibility rates for the participation of students, enrolled in schools of different sizes, in extracurricular activities?

Research Question Three reexamined the same program factors as Research Question Two; however, this research question sought to determine if tutorial program type or grade monitoring program type affect eligibility rates differently in schools of different sizes. Again, this study failed to find evidence that either tutorial program type or grade monitoring program type affect eligibility rates. There is no support in these

findings that a relationship exists between the eligibility rates of schools within different UIL classifications and tutorial program type or grade monitoring program type. In other words, this study did not find evidence to support the notion that tutorial program type and grade monitoring program type affect eligibility rates despite the size of the school according to the findings of this study.

Research Question Four

What extracurricular program types have the highest eligibility rates for the participation of students within those activities?

This final research question examined the eligibility rates of the five extracurricular activities in the study: football, volleyball, girls basketball, boys basketball, and band. The question was asked to determine which programs have the highest eligibility rates. The data suggest the eligibility rates of the different extracurricular programs are different. Volleyball and girls basketball had the highest eligibility rates. They were very similar with both having only about an average of 4.8% of the students participating in these programs becoming ineligible. Football, band, and boys basketball all proved to have much lower eligibility rates. These programs had 9.2%, 8.6%, and 7.9% of the students on average becoming ineligible.

The data suggest a gender division in terms of eligibility rates. The activities including only female students, volleyball and girls basketball, proved to have the highest rate of student eligibility. On the contrary, the activities including only male students had much lower rates of student eligibility. The one mixed-gender activity, band, proved to have a low average eligibility rate, similar to the all male activities.

Theoretical Implications

Chapter Two discussed the rational choice theory foundation of No Pass/No Play. From a rational choice perspective, No Pass/ No Play was implemented to motivate students to perform better academically. From this theoretical perspective, the Texas legislature and the Select Committee on Public Education (SCOPE), chaired by Ross Perot, believed students participating in extracurricular activities would act as rational individuals and make the choice to maintain eligibility for that extracurricular participation.

As chairperson and spokesperson for the SCOPE, Ross Perot made several public statements that many students and schools had lost focus on academic coursework and allocated too much time and too many resources to extracurricular activities, especially athletics. Thus, the SCOPE and the Texas legislature decided to use extracurricular activities as leverage to refocus students and schools on academics, a truly rational choice based notion. Believing students in these activities truly value that participation, the legislature implemented No Pas/No Play under the belief that students would then commit the necessary time and effort to maintain eligibility for participation in these activities.

The findings of this research appear to support the rational choice intentions of the policymakers who implemented No Pass/No Play. The overall mean ineligibility rate of all of the programs in this study for all of the schools in this study was 7.34%. This suggests that the rational choice theory foundation of No Pass/No Play held true and motivated student participants to maintain eligibility for participation. The Recommendations for Future Research section of this chapter will address the fact that

this study does not have the failure rates of students not participating in extracurricular to compare to the mean overall ineligibility rate; however, the seemingly low mean ineligibility rate of 7.34% appears to support the original rational choice basis for the No Pass/No Play law. Students are working to achieve what is in their own best interest, eligibility for participation.

Rational choice theory applies to this study from another perspective as well. In addition to the students working to maintain eligibility, coaches and directors of these extracurricular activities should, within a rational choice perspective, work to ensure the students maintain eligibility because of their vested interest in the students' participation. As the leaders of extracurricular groups, the coaches and directors have a direct interest in the student eligibility; thus, one would expect to find evidence of this concern through the implementation of programs such as tutorial programs and grade monitoring programs for the students within these organizations.

Contrary to this concept, this study did not find evidence of such programs implemented on a large scale. Only 11.4% of the schools in this study employed a tutorial program that required all students to attend. Similarly, only 30.9% of the schools in this study utilized a standardized grade monitoring program through which all coaches and directors closely watch the academic performance of student participants. The programs one would expect to find to indicate the coaches and directors are working as rational individuals to achieve what is in their own best interest, high rates of student eligibility, were not present for the schools within this study.

Why do coaches and directors, with a vested interest in student participation, not provide these programs on a larger scale? This study does not address this question;

however, this study does raise this very interesting question. One possible explanation entails the coaches' and directors' perception of the No Pass/No Play law. Perhaps they view the law as yet another bureaucratic obstacle to overcome rather than as a tool for motivating students to perform better academically. This could explain why coaches and directors have not acted, at least on a large scale, to improve eligibility rates.

A very different possible explanation addresses the true complexity of the relationship between these program factors and eligibility rates. Coaches and directors can positively impact student achievement in ways other than implementing the program factors examined by this study. Maintaining high academic expectations, serving as positive role models, providing frequent positive reinforcement and encouragement, and other actions by coaches and directors can positively affect the academic achievement of students in extracurricular activities. These types of actions are not encompassed by rational choice theory.

In summary, the decision to implement the No Pass/No Play law was born out of the theory of rational choice. This study suggests that decision accomplished its goal of forcing students to pass classes. The low mean rate of ineligibility among schools within this study supports that. However, examining the actions of the coaches and directors under the lens of rational choice raises some questions. The programs examined by this study utilized by coaches to maximize eligibility rates were largely absent from the schools. While the findings of this study seem to support the idea of rational choice theory as the theoretical premise of the No Pass/No Play policy in terms of students, that same theoretical basis seems not to permeate to the coaches and directors.

Implications of Findings for Practice

The Texas No Pass/No Play law was enacted as part of House Bill 72 in 1984 in a large public education reform effort. The No Pass/No Play portion of the bill was included to force schools and students to focus more on academics than athletics (Burnett, 2001; Slater, 1988). The intent of the law was to reform and improve public education in Texas.

Despite the intent of the law to improve education, the law does reduce the number of students who gain from the numerous benefits, academic and social, of participation in extracurricular activities. This leaves the burden of ensuring students maintain eligibility for extracurricular activities on the shoulders of public school leaders. By helping students maintain eligibility, school leaders increase the number of students who enjoy the benefits associated with extracurricular activities. Thus, this research sought to identify the demographic and program factors that affect student eligibility rates to inform the development of a model program of academic support for students participating in extracurricular activities.

With regards to the program factors, the findings of this study failed to support the notion that the various programs designed to provide tutorial help to students participating in extracurricular programs affect eligibility rates. Whether the schools participating in this study mandated tutorials for all extracurricular participants, mandated tutorials for participants in danger of becoming ineligible, or had no particular tutorial program at all, the findings of the study did not provide evidence that these schools' eligibility rates were affected by the tutorial program type.

Similarly, the findings of this study failed to provide support that the programs through which coaches and directors can monitor the academic performance of students in their programs affect eligibility rates. Again, the eligibility rates of the schools in this study were not affected by the differences in the grade monitoring program type of the schools according to the findings of this study. The study examined grade monitoring systems ranging from standardized across all academic programs within the school to non-standardized to nonexistent and failed to find evidence that these different grade monitoring program types affect overall eligibility rates.

Despite these findings, this researcher strongly believes to the contrary. This belief is predominantly based on the results of a pilot study conducted prior to this study. The pilot study compared the success rates of two schools in assisting extracurricular participants maintain an eligible status and sought an explanation as to why those differences exist. Despite being extremely similar demographically, these two schools had drastically different eligibility rates. A qualitative methodology was used to investigate what contributed to these differences. The qualitative analysis suggested the following factors contributed to the variation in the two schools' eligibility rates:

- Regular monitoring of academic performance for students participating in these activities;
- Mandatory tutorials and/or study hall for all extracurricular participants;
- A strong emphasis on and high expectations for academic performance both stated and modeled by the coaches/directors.

The school with the significantly higher eligibility rates employed a standardized grade monitoring program and a standardized tutorial program. Furthermore, the coaches and directors of this school maintained a strong emphasis on academic performance and demanded high academic achievement. Because the nature of the relationship between these three factors is so complex, and because the current study did not measure for emphasis on academic achievement and performance, this researcher maintains the belief that tutorial program type and grade monitoring program type are in fact related to eligibility rates. This researcher believes that standardized tutorial programs for all participants can improve eligibility rates; and, this researcher believes a standardized grade monitoring program can improve eligibility rates as well.

The study found that the demographic factors that affect eligibility rates include school size and student-body ethnicity. Principals leading larger schools tend to face greater challenges assisting students to maintain eligibility than do principals of smaller schools. Additionally, principals of schools serving higher percentages of minority students tend to find more difficulty ensuring students maintain extracurricular eligibility than do principals of schools serving higher percentages of Anglo students. While all principals and school leaders have the charge of ensuring students maintain eligibility for extracurricular participation, administrators of larger schools and predominantly minority schools must find more effective ways of providing academic support to students participating in extracurricular activities due to the tendency of schools with these characteristics to find lower rates of eligibility.

Within the extracurricular activities examined by this study, the activities involving only female students proved to have much higher rates of eligibility than did

the activities involving only male students. These findings present yet another obstacle for school leaders to overcome. Texas administrators must find ways to better assist male students to maintain extracurricular eligibility.

In summary, this study informs Texas public school leaders, coaches and directors of extracurricular programs, and the University Interscholastic League regarding the development of a model academic support program for assisting students to maintain eligibility for participation in extracurricular activities. In the development of such a program, these leaders should identify elements that will assist larger schools and schools with a high percentage of minority students to increase eligibility rates. Furthermore, such a program should include factors that address the needs of male students participating in extracurricular activities. While such a program must be effective for all types of schools and all types of students, the schools with these characteristics have the greatest need for assistance.

Recommendations for Future Research

The goal of this research was to determine the relationship between certain demographic and program variables and the rates of student eligibility for extracurricular participation. While this study provides some initial guidance for the development of a model program of academic support for students participating in extracurricular activities, much more research is needed before such a program can be successfully developed.

Examination of Research Question One found that both school size and student body ethnicity have a negative relationship with eligibility rates. As school size increases,

overall eligibility rates tend to decrease. Likewise, as the percentage of minority students increases, eligibility rates tend to decrease. Future studies should consider conducting case studies identifying large, predominantly minority schools with high eligibility rates. An in depth study of such schools could examine the factors that lead to successfully improving eligibility rates. Similarly, future studies could perform an in depth study comparing schools that are very similar demographically but differ drastically in terms of eligibility rates. Such studies can provide further guidance to the development of an academic support program.

Research Question Two analyzed the affects of various tutorial program types and grade monitoring program types on eligibility rates of students representing different ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds. Research Question Three examined the affects of these same program factors on eligibility rates of schools of different sizes. For both questions, the study did not find evidence that the tutorial program type or grade monitoring program type is related to eligibility rates. Despite school size, student body socioeconomic status, or student body ethnicity, these program factors were not found to affect eligibility rates of the schools in this study. The implications of these findings imply that school leaders will likely not improve eligibility rates by implementing a program geared to provide tutorials to students in extracurricular activities or by implementing a program for coaches to monitor the academic performance of extracurricular participants. Future research might strongly consider the fact that this study asked principals to self report the types of tutorial programs and grade monitoring programs employed on their campuses. Because principals were self reporting, it is possible that these program types were either intentionally or unintentionally

misrepresented on the returned surveys. This possible misrepresentation deserves further examination by future studies.

Furthermore, this study neglected to measure for factors such as the role of the coaches and directors in the lives of participants and the attitude of the coaches and directors toward academic achievement. These factors and others such as academic expectations level create a complex dynamic with tutorial and grade monitoring program types. Thus, again, future research should strongly consider employing case study analysis to gain a greater understanding of these program factors and their relationship with eligibility rates.

The eligibility rates of the various extracurricular programs in the study were compared by Research Question Four. Of the five activities examined by the study, Football proved to have the lowest eligibility rate, followed by Band and Boys Basketball. Volleyball and Girls Basketball each had substantially higher rates of eligibility. Future studies may choose to further examine what seems to be a gender division. Because the all male activities were found to have much lower eligibility rates, future studies should seek to find the factors contributing to this gender division. These studies may also include a comparison of the mixed gender activities such as band to the all male activities and all female activities. Additional extracurricular activities should be added to such studies as well.

Additionally, future research should consider testing the rational choice foundation of No Pass/No Play. Future studies could examine the effectiveness of the theoretical intent of policymakers by comparing the overall mean failure rates of students who do not participate in extracurricular activities to the overall mean failure rates of

students who do participate in extracurricular activities. A different approach could include comparing archival data of mean failure rates of students in extracurricular activities prior to No Pass/No Play to the same figures for students in extracurricular activities after No Pass/No Play, although that archival data would likely prove quite difficult to attain. Finally, future research could take a different approach and compare the mean failure rates of students in extracurricular activities during grading periods pertinent to their respective activities to the mean failure rates for these same students during grading periods that are not pertinent to their respective activities. For example, such a study would compare the failure rates of football players during football season to the failure rates of football players outside of football season, and so on. These three various research approaches could further test the theoretical foundation of the law.

School leaders today are facing increasing pressure to improve attendance rates, decrease dropout rates, and increase student performance on standardized tests. Participation in extracurricular activities has been linked to all three of these goals (Breithaupt, 1996; Holloway, 2000; Marsh 1992; Otto and Alwin, 1977; Picon 1978; Spady 1970). With such a valuable tool available to assist school leaders in achieving multiple desired educational objectives, school leaders must find ways to maximize the benefits of extracurricular participation. This study initiated the quest for a model academic support program to assist students maintain eligibility for that participation. More research is needed to continue moving toward the development of such a program.

Appendices

Appendix A

Letter to Principals

Dear Principal:

The University Interscholastic League in conjunction with a doctoral student at the University of Texas at Austin is conducting a research investigation of No Pass/No Play and academic support programs for students participating in extracurricular activities. Your campus has been selected to participate in this study. The results of this study will lead to the development of a model academic support program. Such a model program will help schools to ensure that extracurricular participants maintain eligibility.

Enclosed you will find a short questionnaire. Please complete the Program Information and the Eligibility Information for the first six-week grading period and return it to the UIL. You will receive requests for the eligibility information for the second and third six-week grading periods in the future. This study will focus only on the fall semester.

While some schools utilize nine-week or twelve-week grading systems, all schools are required to check the grades of student participants at the end of the first six weeks of school. Thus, all schools can complete the eligibility for the first six weeks in the same way. The future requests will address varying grading systems.

All of the information collected in this questionnaire will be kept confidential. Only the principal researchers will have access to the data collected.

Thank you for your time and assistance with this research effort. **Please fax the completed questionnaire to Cheridah Vaughn at the UIL by December 19th, 2003**. The fax number is 512-471-6589.

If you have any questions regarding the questionnaire, please feel free to contact me at (409) 981-6435.

Thank you,

Jamey Harrison

Appendix B

No Pass/No Play Principal Questionnaire

No Pass/No Play Principal Questionnaire

Classification Information

High School: _____

District: _____

UIL Classification (Circle): A AA AAA AAAA
AAAAA

Program Information

1. A. Does your campus have a standardized tutorial program for students participating in extracurricular activities? In other words, are all coaches/directors/sponsors required to implement the same system for tutorials? (Please Circle Your Answer)
 - a. No, we do not have a standardized tutorial system for students in extracurricular activities.
 - b. Yes, all coaches/directors/sponsors are required to implement a standardized tutorial system

If the answer to question 1A is yes, what type of tutorial system has your school implemented?

- a. Yes – Students may voluntarily attend if they feel they need to attend
 - b. Yes – Mandatory for students with lower than a specified average in any class
 - c. Yes – Mandatory for all students participating in extracurricular activities
2. Does your campus have an academic performance monitoring system for students participating in extracurricular activities? In other words, do the coaches/sponsors on your campus have a system for checking the grades of the participants in their programs other than the mandatory three-week and six-week reporting system? (Please Circle Your Answer)
 - a. No
 - b. Yes – The coach/director/sponsor of each program creates his/her own system
 - c. Yes – Each program uses a standardized grade monitoring system

Eligibility Information

TOTAL NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS

3. Please list the **total number of students participating** in each of the following programs:

Football: _____

Volleyball: _____

Boys Basketball: _____

Girls Basketball: _____

Band: _____

4. Please list the total number of students in each of the following programs **who lost eligibility** after each of the following grading periods:

Activity	1 st 6 Weeks	2 nd 6 Weeks OR 2 nd 9 Weeks	3 rd 6 Weeks OR enter n/a if on a 9 wk system
Football			Does not apply
Volleyball			Does not apply
Boys Basketball	Does not apply for this		
Girls Basketball	Does not apply		
Band			

5. Please list the total number of students from Question #4 who **regained eligibility after the three-week penalty period following each grading period:**

Activity	AFTER the 1 st 6 Weeks	AFTER 2 nd 6 Weeks OR AFTER the 2 nd 9 Weeks	AFTER the 3 rd 6 Weeks enter n/a if on a 9 wk system
Football			Does not apply
Volleyball			Does not apply
Boys Basketball	Does not apply		
Girls Basketball	Does not apply		
Band			

Please fax the completed questionnaire to Cheridah Vaughn at the UIL by December 19th, 2003. The fax number is 512-471-6589.

Appendix C

Internal Review Board Application

Use of Human Subjects

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Vita

Jamey Glenn Harrison was born in Houston, Texas on May 14, 1974, the son of Glenn Vincent Harrison and Carolyn Dianne Livingston. After graduating from Hardin-Jefferson High School, Sour Lakes, Texas, in 1992, he entered Lamar University in Beaumont, Texas. He received his Bachelor of Science from Lamar University in May, 1996. He later received his Master of Education in Educational Leadership from Lamar University in August, 2002. He has been in public education since 1996 serving as teachers, coach, assistant principal, and principal in several different schools. In June, 2002 he entered The University of Texas at Austin Graduate School.

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