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ACADEMIC SUPPORT SYSTEMS AND COLLEGE READINESS
FOR BLACK MALE STUDENT ATHLETES

A Dissertation
presented in partial fulfillment of requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in the School of Education
The University of Mississippi

by

DEREK KING

May 2021

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ABSTRACT

High school athletics is a major aspect of today's educational landscape. Sports generate revenue, galvanize communities, and provide opportunities for widespread exposure. For the black athlete, sports generally represent an opportunity to go to college. With the pressure of academic accountability, increased athletic competitiveness, and the impact of future prospects, high schools have to be innovative in order to optimize the academic experience, particularly for Black male athletes.

The impact of high school academic support systems, particularly their capacity to increase the college readiness of Black male athletes, has not been adequately examined. College GPA, college persistence rate, and college graduation rate are all significantly lower for Black males. Leaders have to engage in pragmatic, intentional restructuring at the high school level so Black males can have a greater chance to experience postsecondary success beyond the field and court.

High school principals have the ability to leverage their impact to create comprehensive learning pathways which prepare students for postsecondary experiences. If Black students are overall less ready for college and black men graduate college at a lower rate than any other demographic, then it is incumbent upon high schools to develop effective support systems to enhance Black male athletes' college readiness.

Do academic support systems improve college readiness of Black male student athletes?
How do academically successful Black male athletes rate the level of academic support provided

by each of these support systems? Is there a certain combination of academic support systems which increases college readiness for Black male student athletes? The conceptual model for this research study focuses precollege factors and provides analysis for the impact of a faculty mentor, exposure to positive narratives, academic and athletic balance, self and social identity lessons, and participation in activities outside of sports. This cross-sectional study examines perceptions of the effectiveness of academic support systems in order to influence practice at the high school level. The survey will utilize questions which specifically focus on former high school athletes' perceptions of academic support systems during their high school career.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my family. My wife, Kelly, has been encouraging and supportive throughout this process. My son, Decklen, has motivated me to aspire to change the world. I am humbled to be the first person in my family to reach this level of academic achievement. Without the persistence of previous generations of family members, and their strong emphasis on education, there is no way I could have reached this point. I am eternally thankful for their sacrifices and prayers.

This work is my personal form of fierce advocacy. My entire life has been about the pursuit of intellectual and athletic excellence. I hope this dissertation not only adds to the research literature but also provides a practical approach to creating systems by which Black male athletes can be successful in both areas.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the Ole Miss Graduate School for this opportunity. Since entering the Master's program in 2010, I have grown personally and professionally. Without the dedicated professors in Guyton Hall, I would not have a career in education, and I would not be in this position.

Dr. Mullins, thank you for the opportunity to be a part of the Mississippi Teacher Corps. Moreover, thank you for the many doors you have opened for me since coming to Ole Miss. Thank you to Dr. Bartee, my first dissertation chair, for her guidance and support. Your steadiness and high standards have grounded me since I began the educational leadership journey. Thank you to Dr. Davis for serving as my chair as I finished the process. Thank you to my committee. Dr. Monroe, your passion for education helped me through my first two years of teaching and beyond. Dr. Balkin, without your statistical advice and guidance, I am not sure if this dissertation would be finished. Dr. Mungal, I appreciate your willingness to be a committee member. Although not on my committee, thank you to Dr. Bunch for his meticulous critiques and candid conversations over the course of my time at Ole Miss.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

High school athletics is a major aspect of today's educational landscape. Sports generate revenue, galvanize communities, and provide opportunities for widespread exposure. For the Black athlete, sports generally represent an opportunity to "Get out of the hood" and go to college (Smith et al., 2014). With the pressure of academic accountability, increased athletic competitiveness, and the impact of future prospects, high schools have to be creative and strategic in order to optimize the academic experience, particularly for Black male athletes.

Carter-Francique et al. (2015) examined the value of social capital and social support for Black student-athletes' academic success. While an emphasis on highlighting Black students' culture, Edwards (2000) cited the perils of overemphasis of athletics within the Black family. Edwards further argued how undervaluing the Black athletes' academic identity is detrimental to personal, social, and cultural development. "This depiction coupled with the notion of athletic superiority and intellectual inferiority, athletic exploitation, and the lack of Black role models results in the systemic disenfranchisement of Black student-athletes based on their race" (Carter-Francique et al., 2015, p. 172). It is valuable for schools to be intentional about incorporating social capital as a means to enhance Black student-athletes' academic success. The feeder systems of interscholastic athletics are replicating the behavior of intercollegiate athletics in regard to athletic integrity (Hawkins, 2010). Culturally competent teachers, along with culturally

competent practices and policies can positively affect the outcomes for Black students (ACT, 2015).

Statement of the Problem

The impact of high school academic support systems, particularly their capacity to increase the college readiness of Black male athletes, has not been adequately examined. Curricular standards, along with state and federal accountability standards, purport to focus on college and career readiness. In the midst of the latest shift in education, the disproportionately negative statistics regarding Black males have remained stagnant. College GPA, college persistence rate, and college graduation rate are all significantly lower for Black males. Analyzing data and implementing interventions once the athletes reach college is too late and an injustice. Leaders have to engage in pragmatic, intentional restructuring at the high school level so Black males can have a greater chance to experience postsecondary success beyond the field and court.

High school principals have the ability to leverage their impact to create comprehensive learning pathways which prepare students for postsecondary experiences (Malin & Hackmann, 2017). Athletics factors into postsecondary experiences. High schools which identify aspiring college athletes have the responsibility to implement targeted programming. Academic standards, staffing, systematic accountability, and cross-disciplinary collaboration helps to eliminate barriers and increase college readiness (Malin & Hackmann, 2017) for Black male athletes.

The American College Test (ACT), which is a nationally normalized test, ranks students comparatively with every other student who takes the test. ACT has college readiness benchmarks set for each subject area. The English subtest benchmark is 18. The Reading subtest benchmark is 22. The Mathematics subtest benchmark is 22. The Science subtest benchmark is

23. A score of 21 or higher is considered college ready. The highest possible score is 36 for each benchmark and for the composite score. Black students are less likely to meet benchmarks than all other students (ACT, 2015, p. 9). For each benchmark, Black students' percentage for meeting benchmarks was 34%, 19%, 14%, and 12% respectively. Only 6% of Black students met all four benchmarks. For total number of benchmarks met, 61% of Black students met zero benchmarks, 17% met one benchmark, 10% met two benchmarks, 6% met three benchmarks, and 6% met four benchmarks. These percentages show lack of college readiness for Black students overall (ACT, 2015).

While there is not an extensive collection of data showing the ACT scores of Black athletes, there is a preponderance of data chronicling the low college graduation rates of the same demographic. Harper (2016) reported 53.6% of Black men graduated within six years compared to 68.5% of athletes overall. Moreover, 58.4% of Black undergraduate men graduated in comparison to 75.4% of undergraduate students overall. Two-thirds of universities graduated Black male student-athletes at rates lower than Black undergraduates who did not participate in sports. Table 1 indicates the following:

Table 1

ACT Subtest Benchmarks

| <u>Subtest</u> | <u>Benchmarks</u> |
|----------------|-------------------|
| English | 18 |
| Reading | 22 |
| Math | 22 |
| Science | 23 |

Table 1 shows the benchmarks for each ACT subtest. The ACT College Readiness Benchmarks represent the level of achievement required for students to have a 50% chance of obtaining a B or higher, or about a 75% chance of obtaining a C or higher in first-year college courses (ACT,

2015). To qualify for an athletic scholarship, the lowest ACT sum score is 75 – which averages out to 18.75. The lowest possible GPA is a 2.3 for core courses.

This indicates that the qualifications for earning a scholarship are lower than what it takes to be college ready. Table 2 indicates the following:

Table 2

ACT Subtest Benchmark Data

| <u>Subtest</u> | <u>Black Students</u> | <u>All Students</u> |
|----------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| English | 34% | 64% |
| Reading | 19% | 46% |
| Math | 14% | 42% |
| Science | 12% | 38% |

Table 2 shows which percentage of Black students met the benchmark for each subtest. Black students were the lowest scoring demographic in comparison to all other race/ethnicity groups.

Black students also scored lower than the average of all students for each benchmark.

Table 3 indicates the following:

Table 3

Number of Benchmarks Met

| <u>Number</u> | <u>Black Students</u> | <u>All Students</u> |
|---------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 0 | 61% | 31% |
| 1 | 17% | 15% |
| 2 | 10% | 14% |
| 3 | 6% | 12% |
| 4 | 6% | 28% |

Table 3 shows the number of benchmarks Black students met. Only 6% of Black students were considered completely college ready because they met all four benchmarks. Two-thirds of Black students lacked readiness in all areas upon completing high school in 2015. Black students overall met less benchmarks than the average of all students.

If Black students are overall less ready for college and Black men graduate college at a lower rate than any other demographic, then it is incumbent upon high schools to develop effective support systems to enhance Black male athletes' college readiness. Through consideration of Critical Race Theory (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995), there must be acknowledgement of the forces of race, gender, power, and class. These forces interact and significantly impact the self-concept Black male athletes develop for themselves (Edwards, 1984). Race-based implications impose psychological barriers which inhibit optimal performance and stifle progress toward reaching potential. Negative beliefs regarding intellectual ability can lead Black males to set a low bar for academics. Programming has to be put in place to encourage Black male athletes to work against negative stereotyping and embrace academic challenges with the same commitment as they have with athletics. In order to adequately address the internalized stereotypes of the Black athlete, more work is needed to engage and examine culturally-relevant practices (Hodge et al., 2008).

Purpose of the Research Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the high school academic support systems experienced by Black male athletes who competed in college athletics during the years of 2008-2018. The study also particularly considered the quality of high school-based programs and their impact upon the college readiness of student-athletes. The study targeted Black student athletes at who have competed at all levels of collegiate athletics – NCAA Divisions 1, 2, and 3, NAIA, and Junior College. Including participants from all levels of competition should provide greater context for the findings and may also reveal useful comparative information which could affect future program implementation.

Research Questions

The hypotheses and research questions utilized comparisons and relationships to gain insight about how academic support systems impact college readiness for Black male athletes. The research questions compared means between college ready and non-college ready athletes. The research questions addressed athletes' perceptions of the effectiveness of academic support systems. The hypotheses explored how the compounded effect of academic support systems may indicate which programming measures best prepare Black male athletes for college. The research questions and hypotheses are as follows:

Research Question 1: Is there a relationship between having a faculty mentor and college readiness for Black male student athletes?

Research Question 2: Is there a relationship between positive narratives and college readiness for Black male student athletes?

Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between emphasis on academic and athletic balance and college readiness for Black male student athletes?

Research Question 4: Is there a relationship between self and social identity lessons and college readiness for Black male student athletes?

Research Question 5: Is there a relationship between participating in activities outside of sports and college readiness for Black male student athletes?

Theoretical Framework and Conceptual Perspectives for Student-Athlete and Academic Success

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework identified for this study was Critical Race Theory. According to Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995), Critical Race Theory involves the intersection of race and property which creates an analytic tool through which we can understand social (and,

consequently, school) inequity. Race is an ideological and objective construct. Ideological thought does not give credence to the lived experience of Blacks in society. Conversely, objective thought does not fully consider how the construct of race determines classifications in a stratified society. Racism defined as culturally sanctioned beliefs which, regardless of the intentions involved, defend the advantages Whites have because of the subordinated positions of racial minorities. Stereotyping of Black male athletes has depicted them as athletically superior while intellectually inferior to white male athletes. The challenge now is the simultaneous development of athletic, academic, and non-cognitive skills in order to help Black male athletes achieve success.

Equity and access, as it pertains to school, can be understood through the larger social race spectrum in America. The social construct of race has created culturally sanctioned beliefs which have afforded Whites advantages and subordinated racial minorities. These beliefs trump any arguments of neutrality, objectivity, color-blindness, or meritocracy. Neutrality and color-blindness are the most divisive because both involve ignoring race; this is impossible because ignoring race would mean ignoring the educational, social, and economic strata which has been created due to race. Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995) explained how skewed narratives provide members of outgroups a vehicle for psychic self-preservation. Those in dominant culture have the opportunity to frame stories, thus perpetuating ethnocentrism. Proponents of Critical Race Theory emphasize the need for multicultural education to counterbalance the dysconscious conviction of viewing the world in one way. The challenge now is to move the conversation past unscholarly examples of cultural signposts into a practical, effective format where subordinated minorities can actualize favorable outcomes. Schools must create positive environments where Black athletes are active participants in critical discourse about race and racism (Singer, 2016).

In many ways, Critical Race Theory challenges claims of neutrality, objectivity, color-blindness, and meritocracy. Much of reality is socially constructed. Stories provide members of outgroups a vehicle for psychic self-preservation. The exchange of stories from teller to listener can help overcome ethnocentrism and the dysconscious conviction of viewing the world in one way. Critical Race Theory emphasizes the need for multicultural education -- but at a level beyond unscholarly examples of cultural signposts.

Conceptual Perspectives on Student Athletes and Academic Success

College Student-Athlete Academic Success Model. Comeaux and Harrison (2011) developed a conceptual model to explain the cumulative processes and characteristics -- as a whole and in stages -- which influence academic success for Division 1 student-athletes. Figure 1 is as follows:

Figure 1. *College student-athlete academic success model*

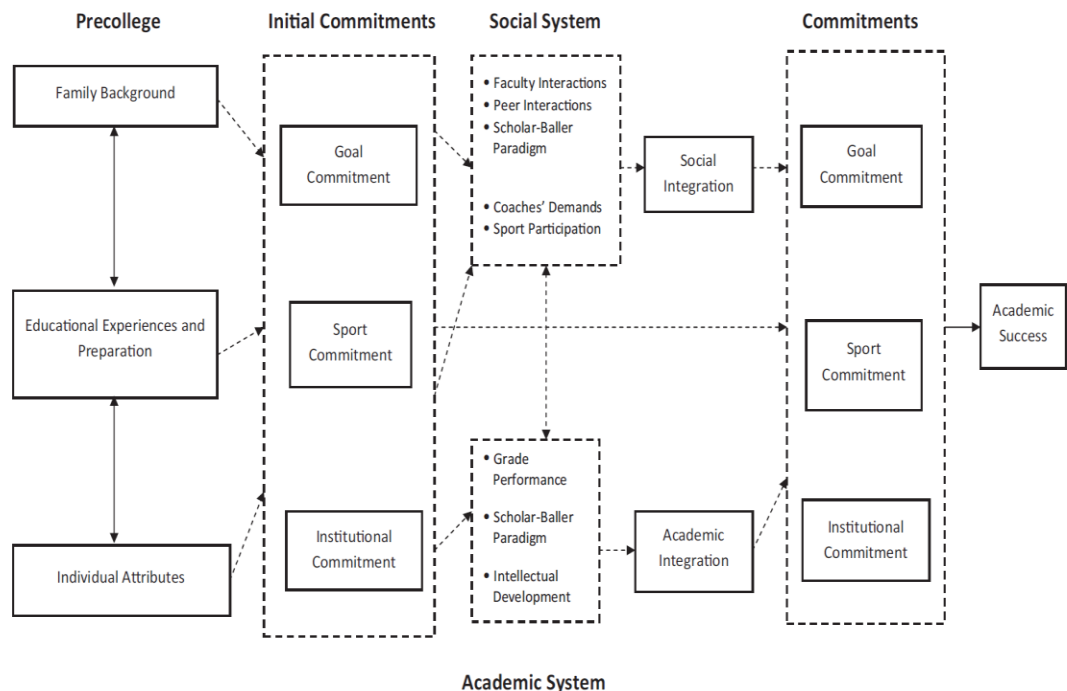


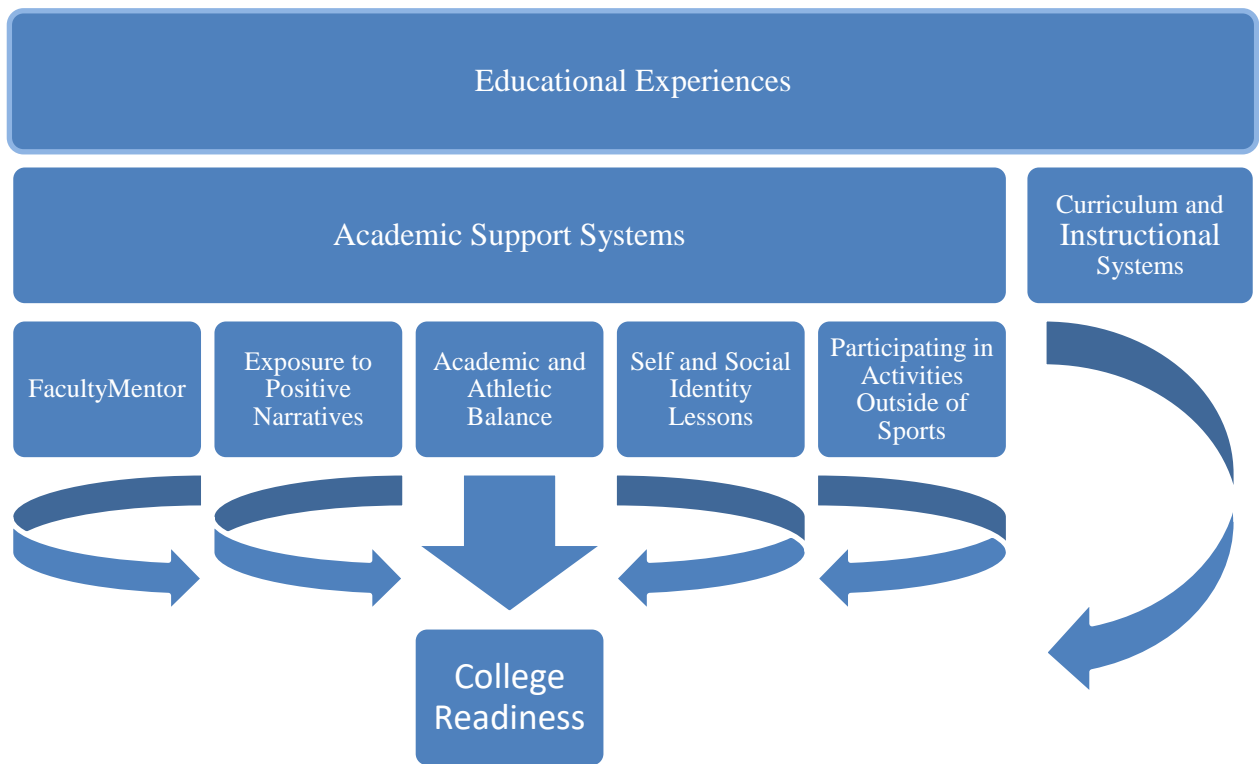
Figure 1 shows how the conceptual model has four major parts. Precollege includes family background, educational preparation, and individual attributes. These factors interact and form the foundation of what a student athlete needs in order to progress toward academic success. Initial Commitments is the second major part. Goal, sport, and institutional commitments are positioned after precollege and then again at the end of the model before the ultimate goal of academic success. The social system includes faculty interactions, sport responsibilities, and social integration. The academic system runs parallel in the model to the social system, but it includes grade performance, intellectual development, and academic integration. The Scholar-Baller paradigm, which is present in both, is the added intervention piece to help the athletes move toward academic success.

Comeaux and Harrison (2011) argue student-athletes have unique campus involvement and other powerful characteristics. Relationships with faculty and teammates are related to academic success. Interaction with faculty increases intellectual development. Understanding the unique set of circumstances which define an athlete's daily experiences informed the rationale and structure for the model. Intercollegiate athletics does not create a homogeneous experience for students. Athletes face similar challenges to other students in terms of social and academic adjustment (Comeaux & Harrison, 2011). However, sport adds responsibilities and commitments: practices, travel, team meetings, workouts, and games. Time commitments for sport often eclipse 40 hours per week. Residual effects include mental fatigue and nagging injuries. This combination results in less time available for extra academic events and other campus –based opportunities. As a result of this system, student-athletes live, eat, study, and socialize together, and are usually pushed into the same majors. Systems and mechanisms which

consider and control for these factors have to be implemented to help athletes create and balance between athletics and academics.

High School Student-Athlete College Readiness Model. As indicated, Comeaux and Harrison (2011) identified precollege factors: family, educational experiences, and individual attributes. The precollege factors were not explained in detail; instead, suppositions were based on what is generally defined in student success models. Since precollege factors influence the college readiness of student-athletes, this study highlighted implications associated with the educational experiences of student-athletes. Figure 2 is as follows:

Figure 2. *Conceptual model for high school student-athlete college readiness.*



To that end, Figure 2 is a graphic representation of how academic support systems impact the quality of educational experiences which influence college readiness. These systems, a combination of successful programs and interventions cited in previous studies, have an impact

on college readiness. The Academic Support Systems are fleshed out within the literature review.

Significance of the Research Study

Previous studies have examined which factors affect Black male student-athletes. Harris et al. (2014) conducted a thematic analysis of the responses of athletes and their families as it pertained to the connection between academics, athletics, and attitudes toward engagement and success. There was a recommendation for a solutions-based approach which provides information beyond theoretical and thematic analysis. A consistent, collaborative approach laden with cultural competence is necessary to facilitate such outcomes. The authors also identified a need for more quantitative measures and a shift to pragmatic thinking. The authors concluded Black males have been disenfranchised by schools and could benefit from more targeted efforts. The scope and type for those targeted efforts has yet to be determined. This study adds to the literature by identifying possible target efforts to implement specifically for Black male athletes. In addition to cognitive skills and academic behaviors, other studies have focused on the other constructs such as self-concept.

Fuller et al. (2017) examined the impact of high school on the leadership development of Black male scholar-athletes. This demographic is most susceptible to educational disengagement – due in large part to identifying more with a culture of sports and athletics. The authors argued for more engagement in high school which develops Black male scholar athletes as leaders in the school. Active steps must be taken to help the athletes positively perceive their own capabilities beyond sports. A major theme from this study was the idea of leadership and involvement starting in high school. Immersion in activities beyond athletics not only changed the athletes' perspectives of themselves, others in the school began to expect leadership from them as well.

The authors recommended developing a culture of celebrating academic achievement, establishing mentoring relationships, incorporating positive narratives, and advising Black male athletes to embrace identities outside of sports.

Bimper and Harrison (2011) found a connection between performance and motivation. Black male athletes felt more pressure to develop an athletic identity than an academic one, thus limiting engagement with professors. The authors recommended restructuring pedagogical frames and intentionally engaging theories of racial identity. Bimper et al. (2012) connected poor academic performance to poor academic motivation. Within the study, the authors posed two questions. How do we as prime educational stakeholders and those within scholarly communities improve the educational development of Black male student athletes? How do we intervene to prevent the academic falls from grace that severely limit their opportunities after collegiate and professional sport careers? The extension this study provided was framing the latter question for the high school context.

Carter-Francique et al. (2015) identified sources for social and academic support for Black student-athletes. Surrounding the athletes with school personnel who hold them accountable and consistently emphasize both academic and athletic development increases their chances for college readiness. Five themes were most effective in helping athletes be successful: monitoring academic progress, assisting with course work, providing financial support, emphasizing the importance of a college degree, and unconditional support. Race and culture can be leveraged to promote academic success for Black male athletes. Schools can skillfully and responsibly incorporate the learned, shared, and exhibited behaviors into culturally relevant academic supports to nurture and empower Black student-athletes.

Black males usually represent the majority in negative behavioral and academic outcomes. Proper attention has to be given to the intersection of race, gender, and school performance. Noguera (2003) posits Black males are successfully educated in schools where a problem-solving mindset is focused on changing attitudes and behaviors. In order for Black male athletes to achieve academic success in high school and become college ready, schoolwide practices have to be addressed. Culturally relevant strategies, along with active participation on the part of the students, will positively affect dispositions toward school and increases the changes of college readiness. This study extended Benson's (2000) research where student-athletes' personal narratives of schooling were analyzed. The focus of this study was to quantify athletes' perceptions of the programs and interventions implemented for their academic success.

There are two programs which have been used to specifically target student-athletes. The Scholar-Baller Program and the Intensive Learning Program (ILP) were athlete-centric initiatives designed to provide culturally-relevant structures to enhance academic performance. Both programs were grounded in Critical Race Theory (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995), and incorporated strategies of academic support. The Scholar-Baller Program, which has been most effective on the college level, focused on bridging the cultural divide between education and sport. The Scholar-Baller Identity Model (SBIDM) was similarly structured to Comeaux and Harrison's (2011) theoretical framework which was designed to promote academic success for athletes. Six principles make up the foundation of the Scholar-Baller curriculum. Self and social identity, the competitive spirit, Scholar-Baller paradigm, vision and mission, decision making system, and the Scholar-Baller ideals are taught through a five step process which includes define, examine, rehearse, live, and revisit (Harrison & Boyd, 2005). Scholar-Baller was intended to help student athletes combine their academic and athletic self-concepts into a strong

identity which protects them against negative stereotype threats and enabled them to navigate the social context and reduce anxiety. Currently, over 50 colleges have used the program and experienced success with its student athletes. Over 15 high schools have adopted the curriculum, and there are aspects of the Scholar-Baller program which can be applied to the everyday practices of secondary schools.

The Intensive Learning Program (ILP) was designed for Black male football student-athletes (Farrington & Gill, 2014). Tutoring, non-credit skills courses, and weekly meetings with a student-athlete learning specialist were all a part of the program. The ILP yielded favorable results for Black football student-athletes' GPAs. Spring GPAs were significantly higher than fall GPAs. Farrington and Gill (2014) cited the necessity of social workers as a key piece of the ILP. Counseling strategies, combined with culturally-relevant practices, can provide social and academic benefits for student-athletes.

This research contributes to the discipline because Black male high school athletes are an understudied group. While the interplay of sport and academics has been researched more extensively on the collegiate level, there are factors from the high school context which contribute to athletes' eventual outcomes on the post-secondary level. Findings from this study provide context to Comeaux and Harrison's (2011) conceptual model – specifically the precollege construct which deals with educational experiences and preparation.

From a longitudinal perspective, the implications of this study could begin a research agenda which continues to examine high school student-athletes. Developing a conceptual model for academic success for high school student-athletes would be powerful. The conceptual model could lead to integration of practical programming at the high school level.

Identifying effective support systems high schools can provide for Black male athletes can improve practice by influencing new curriculum development, modifying teaching techniques, and gathering measurable data to inform all decision-making. Finding a correlation between academic support systems and college readiness could lead to a redesigned school vision – which is the driving force of how the school operates. Research also informs policy conversation at the central office level. Superintendents and curriculum directors will have to reconfigure professional development protocol, create new, progressive benchmarks, and raise the level of rigor and expectations for everyone at the school level. Creating a new curriculum, with culturally-relevant pedagogy (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995), would also be a very relevant policy change because a revised course of study would include varied course offerings, capstone experiences, and college-preparatory activities. Along with creating a new curriculum, school districts and curriculum directors would have to implement practices to foster meaningful data collection. Because data-driven planning and instruction are best practices, it is imperative to have well-developed mechanisms to measure progress. College preparatory curricula have to be supported and effectively implemented by giving proper attention to the progression of developing effective support systems. The information gathered from this research should spark dialogue, inspire change, and enhance the academic experience for Black male athletes in high school.

Limitations and Delimitations in the Research Study

This research study had limitations. One limitation was the use of the survey instrument. Survey responses depended on honest self-reporting from participants. In reference to the foundation of this study, Comeaux and Harrison's (2011) model focused on academic support systems for college athlete success. Nonprobability, convenience sampling was used in this research study. Due to institutional barriers, it was difficult to access a definite set of

participants. While much data pertaining to the college graduation rate of Black athletes exists, there was a dearth of literature specifically focused on minority high school athletes.

Additionally, correlational data indicated the level of association of the between participants' ratings or experiences of academic support systems and college readiness. Statistical inferences cannot be made beyond determining the direction and strength of the predictor and criterion variable relationship.

This research study also had delimitations. Only one demographic was examined – Black male high school athletes. Comeaux & Harrison's (2011) model was used as the conceptual framework. The relationship between core course performance and benchmark scores is not directly measured. The relationship between Division 1, Division 2, and Division 3 athletes is not directly measured. The scope of this research study focused specifically on current and former college athletes' perceptions of high school academic support systems.

Summary of the Introduction

In this chapter, background on the issue of Black male athletes' college readiness was presented. The interscholastic sports system has contributed to a system of producing Black male athletes who are not prepared for college. They are not meeting benchmarks, and they lack requisite skills and behaviors which translate to academic success on the college level (ACT, 2015). The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the high school academic support systems experienced by current and former, college-ready Black student athletes. Critical Race Theory, the theoretical framework for this research study, focuses on the overall social system and how race affects power, influence, and access (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1996). Chapter 1 also shows how Comeaux and Harrison (2011) provide a conceptual framework to illustrate the interconnectedness of an athlete's precollege experiences, commitment, and identity. This

framework established the premises for a high school model as Figure 2 indicates. Figure 2 emphasized the precollege piece of Comeaux and Harrison's (2011) conceptual framework as it focused on self-identity, mentoring, balanced academic focus, participating in activities outside of sports, and exposure to positive narratives. These support systems, in addition to a strong curriculum and instructional system, can increase college readiness for Black male athletes.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

The Literature Review provides a helpful viewpoint about the impact of leadership and support systems needed to enhance Black male athletes' college readiness. Critical Race Theory is the undergirding research which highlights how race factors into the educational landscape – specifically in terms of identity, athletics, and social capital (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Hodge et al., 2008; Bimper et al., 2012; Singer, 2016). Harrison and Comeaux's (2011) Conceptual Framework, which is from the college perspective, is the reference point for the proposed Conceptual Model for this research study. Each aspect of the Conceptual Model is addressed in this literature review. The confluence of these analyses will illustrate a connection to college readiness – the intersection point. College readiness is a multi-faceted concept which consists of academic benchmarks, academic behaviors, and individual personality characteristics. The defining factors of college readiness interact with how Black male athletes situate themselves within society. Consequently, researchers have theorized about how educational leaders can create structures which promote positive self-identity and academic success for Black male athletes. In order to actualize the positive outcomes, it is important to identify the point of intersection, and overlap, of every element and develop practical solutions to the suggestions within the current research.

Leadership Impact

Malin and Hackmann (2017) analyzed how urban high school principals utilized distributed leadership to implement college and career readiness practices. The chief purpose of

school systems is to equip students with the skills they need to lead productive lives. National and state policies have been modified to shift focus for helping students transition to college and employment. While graduation rates have recently increased, “significant disparities remain, with Black, Hispanic, American Indian/Alaska Native, economically disadvantaged, students with disabilities, and limited English proficient student subgroups graduating at lower rates than their peers,” (Malin & Hackmann, 2017, p. 606-607). Furthermore, Asian and White students are attaining higher scores on the ACT. Some schools have created career pathway models which have specified curricular work, focused training, and work-based learning. A key aspect of this shift is the role and impact of the school principal.

Malin and Hackmann (2017) assert the principal’s unique position to bring stakeholders together when considering, planning, and implementing reforms. Six overarching themes capture the essential leadership actions which principals use to establish college and career readiness programs focused on student outcomes. Facilitating processes to form a shared vision, developing relational trust, a focus on learning, successful partnerships, creating conducive structures, and developing leadership skills and capacity are all aspects of effective, distributed leadership. Constructing and gaining support for a unifying vision streamlines the decision-making process and clarifies the priorities of the school. Clarity of purpose fosters greater trust because all stakeholders know where to focus their energy and efforts. Organizational structure creates a system where leaders, teachers, and students can all grow. A safe and supportive culture is crucial as school leaders work to create programming for career pathways (Malin & Hackmann, 2017). Addressing college athletics as a postsecondary career pathway impacts the approach and attention given to creating a system which prepares high school athletes for the challenge of participating in college athletics.

Self and Social Identity Lessons

Benson (2000) analyzed athletes' stories of school. More is known about deficient test scores and program interventions for this group of students than about their experiences of schooling that those programs are supposed to help with. How can educational policies and practices change based on the students' narratives of their schooling experiences?

Marginal academic performance created by a series of interrelated practices engaged in by all significant members of the academic setting including peers, coaches, advisors, teachers, and student-athletes themselves. The recruiting process establishes and reinforces limited expectations and attitudes by all. Perceived implicit and/or explicit messages that school was not important and they were not considered intellectually capable students -- also not cared about as individual student learners. This is established during the recruiting visit. There is no control over courses, and no care for their actual academic habits and lifestyle. This is similar to Rime of the Ancient Mariner - "water, water everywhere and not a drop to drink" --- "surrounded within an educational institution, but little learning to sustain them." School failure is a systems problem rather than an individual problem -- much more than a lack of ability.

Noguera's (2003) work focused on how environmental and cultural norms influenced academic performance. Black males are overrepresented in categories typically associated with negative behavioral outcomes. Environmental and cultural factors shape the relationship between identity -- particularly related to race, gender, and school performance. Minority and poor students indicated significantly higher levels of distrust. If they do not believe teachers care and are actively concerned, then aspirations are leveled.

Schools successful at educating Black males have the following characteristics: a clear sense of purpose, core standards within rigorous curriculum, high expectations, commitment to

educate all students, a safe and orderly learning environment, strong partnerships with parents, and a problem-solving attitude (Noguera, 2003). Strategies must be devised to incorporate the whole community. Religious and cultural instruction outside of school affirms identities of Black males by providing them with knowledge and information about Black history and culture and instills a sense of social responsibility. Connecting students with mentors and strategic after school programming can also cultivate trust and influence positive outcomes.

All students are active participants and they are not passive objects which can be manipulated by adults and reform measures. There is a need to influence attitudes and behaviors of Black males – an assertion which is consistent with previously published conceptual models. This is done through greater understanding of youth culture. Change the culture and structure of schools so Black male students come to regard them as sources of support for their aspirations and identities. Identity construction between race, class, and gender affect dispositions toward school, learning, and life in general. Engage in a process which makes the students active participants in this work. Noguera (2003) recommended further research on identity construction, and subsequent policy implementation which makes schools more effective and more attuned to the needs of Black youth.

Harrison and Boyd (2007) addressed creating a new blueprint for higher education, the NCAA, and society. The Scholar-Baller program is designed to help athletes reconcile their athletic and academic identities. The program targets personal, social, and cultural elements to help further athletes' educational development. The purpose of this chapter is to analyze the cultural divide between education, sport, and entertainment. As the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) began to focus on Academic Progress Rate (APR), eligibility and degree attainment became a major piece of the college athletic landscape. Black athletes, while

overrepresented in sport, were most negatively affected by APR requirements. Race and ethnicity, from the perspective of Critical Race Theory (CRT), raises policy issues and reveals a gap in the development of research and programming in education.

The Scholar-Baller program targets representation, regulation, consumption, production, and identity. Athletes find themselves at the intersection of these constructs and are left to work through the ‘trinary’ of education, sport, and entertainment. The Scholar-Baller Identity Model (SBIDM) was developed to provide a longitudinal perspective of the conditions which influence a student-athlete’s progress toward graduation. Precollege characteristics include educational experience and preparation, individual attributes, and family background. The social and academic dichotomy is targeted through level of commitment. Matriculation melds academic and social integration through identity development and persistence.

Scholar-Baller was designed to present counter-stereotypical narratives of Black male student-athletes. Incorporating SBIDM created the framework for intentional programming which helps Black male student-athletes develop a positive self-image, make academic progress, and manage the responsibilities of sport. There are six principles for what it means to be a ‘baller’. Identity, Competitive Spirit, The Scholar-Baller Paradigm, Purpose and Goals, Decision-Making System, and Perseverance are the bedrocks of the Scholar-Baller model. The next step is to continue to integrate the program – especially on the high school level. The success of Scholar-Baller in some NCAA programs illustrates the potential to inform the public and broaden perceptions about Black male student-athletes.

Bimper and Harrison (2011) found a connection between performance and motivation. Black male athletes felt more pressure to develop an athletic identity than an academic one, thus

limiting engagement with professors. The authors recommended restructuring pedagogical frames and intentionally engaging theories of racial identity.

Bimper, Harrison, and Clark (2012) connected poor academic performance to poor academic motivation. Within the study, the authors posed two questions. How do we as prime educational stakeholders and those within scholarly communities improve the educational development of Black male student athletes? How do we intervene to prevent the academic falls from grace that severely limit their opportunities after collegiate and professional sport careers? The extension this study provides is framing the latter question for the high school context.

Bimper, Harrison, and Clark (2012) cited how academic underperformance happens particularly in revenue-generating sports. This study investigated self-perceptions and behaviors of 7 Black male athletes. In bowl-bound or tournament-bound Black male college student athletes have 20% and 32% lower graduation rates than whites. A major challenge in academically developing student athletes is to identify and learn from academically successful athlete exemplars. How do we as prime educational stakeholders and those within scholarly communities improve the educational development of Black male student athletes? How do we intervene to prevent the academic falls from grace that severely limit their opportunities after collegiate and professional sport careers?

Thus in many ways, poor academic performance is reflective of poor motivation. Less personal interaction with professors; Black racial and dumb jock stereotypes; Internalization of those beliefs and negative self-concept. Black athletes are channeled toward limited sport opportunities while socialized to develop an ignorance of other opportunities beyond the athlete role.

Black male student athletes feel more pressure to develop an athletic identity than an academic identity. The pressures are covert and overt. Social perceptions had a significant impact on their identity development with regard to meanings about their Blackness, role as an athlete, system of beliefs about education, and the way in which advantageous learning environments may be constructed to better serve their needs as Black student athletes. They valued their education because it was viewed as a tool for liberation. They found refuge in a community of Black student athletes and other who were perceived to positively contribute to academic and athletic success. They fostered a more holistic approach. Athletic, academic support staff should adopt a culturally relevant pedagogical framework to foster a more culturally sensitive environment and holistic education. Athletes are aware of the racial stereotypes and assumed lowered expectations from faculty and student peers. They also believed that others thought Black student athletes valued athletics over education.

Further research should focus on achievement and positive counternarratives in Black youth schooling experiences. Black male student athletes are continually recruited despite educational deficiencies and low academic credentials. Reform perspectives and restructure pedagogical frames - nurture exploration of salient identities related to their self-concepts. Include theories of racial identity. Counselors, coaches, and educators of black male student athletes should earnestly contemplate the significant role that race plays in their experiences, behavior, and perceptions.

Bimper (2014) examined the degree to which athletic and racial identity forecast academic results of Black student athletes – specifically Division I football players. Educators have a growing concern about the quality of the academic experience for athletes. Elite athletes have to reconcile their dual responsibilities while living an experience no other group of students

lives on campus. There are undeniable nuances which affect student athletes differently than non-athletes. A powerful factor in the athletic experience is overrepresentation of Black athletes in revenue-generating sports and the substantial importance placed on competing at the highest level. While player eligibility is a part of the formula, Black athletes have been underdeveloped in academic areas and have usually met minimal requirements to qualify.

Effective development of student-athletes cannot be done without lending credence to identity. Currently, there is a dearth in the research in regards to how psychosocial variables impact academic outcomes. The purpose of this study was to investigate the interaction between psychosocial variables and culturally salient constructs as they relate to athletic identity and academic performance. In other words, can athletic and racial identity predict student athlete GPA? Bimper (2014) hypothesized athletic identity perceptions, and subscales of racial identity, will be associated with participants' GPA.

Descriptive statistics indicated student-athletes perceived a strong identification with their athlete roles. There was significant negative correlation between athletic identity and grade point average. Students who identified most strongly with athletic identity had lower GPAs. There was significant positive relationship between athletic and racial identity. As the degree of athletic identity increased, so did student-athletes' racial identity. "Multiple regression analysis between athletic identity, racial identity, and GPA revealed athletic identity as a significant predictor of GPA" (p. 803).

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How do we as prime educational stakeholders and those within scholarly communities improve the educational development of Black male student athletes? How do we intervene to prevent the academic falls from grace that severely limit their opportunities after collegiate and professional sport careers? Poor academic performance is reflective of poor motivation (Bimper et al., 2012). Less personal interaction with professors; Black racial and dumb jock stereotypes; Internalization of those beliefs and negative self-concept. Black athletes are channeled toward limited sport opportunities while socialized to develop an ignorance of other opportunities beyond the athlete role.

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Faculty Mentoring and Academic Tutoring

Farrington and Gill (2014) analyzed the impact of an intensive learning program on Black male football players. Black male student-athletes are graduating at substantially lower rates than their white counterparts. Black male student-athletes’ lack of degree attainment is a result of mitigating cultural and societal factors. Overemphasis on athletics, negative attitudes about student-athletes, and participation in revenue-generating sports shifts the focus from academic and intellectual development. Colleges accept Black male students to represent them athletically, but there is not equivalent fervor toward degree attainment. There have been initiatives such as the Total Person Academic Support Program, Team Excel, student-athlete support services programs, and others. The purpose of the initiatives has been to provide a holistic approach to student-athlete development. Intensive counseling, tutoring, mentoring, preparation for eligibility, and advising have all been central foci of the initiatives. The research question for this study is, “What is the impact of the Intensive Learning Program (ILP) on Black football student-athletes’ GPAs?”

The study focused on football student-athletes at a major Division I university, and the program evaluation used a pre/posttest design model. The ILP provided structured academic

assistance. Results indicated significant differences in the GPAs of Black male student-athletes enrolled in the ILP between the fall and spring semesters. The authors recommend a social work approach which incorporates counseling along with academic tutoring and mentoring. To counterbalance factors which lead to low retention of Black male students, athletic departments have to provide an opportunity for other campus systems to influence student-athlete development.

Fuller et al. (2017) examined the impact of high school on the leadership development of Black male scholar-athletes. This demographic is most susceptible to educational disengagement – due in large part to identifying more with a culture of sports and athletics. The authors argue for more engagement in high school which develops Black male scholar athletes as leaders in the school. Active steps must be taken to help the athletes positively perceive their own capabilities beyond sports. A major theme from this study was the idea of leadership and involvement starting in high school. Immersion in activities beyond athletics not only changed the athletes' perspectives of themselves, others in the school began to expect leadership from them as well. The authors recommend developing a culture of celebrating academic achievement, establishing mentoring relationships, incorporating positive narratives, and advising Black male athletes to embrace identities outside of sports.

Harrison, Comeaux, and Plecha (2006) focused on environmental factors which influence student athletes. Environmental factors include faculty interaction and coaches' priorities and beliefs. Cultivating meaningful relationships with faculty helps to offset athletes' belief about their athletic role superseding academic integration. Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) data was used to provide baseline data on entering college freshmen. The sample group included 693 football and basketball players at predominately white institutions.

This study uses the Input-Environment-Outcome (I-E-O) model for studying the impact of college on students. Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to examine the effect of input and environmental variables. The environmental variables were students' past achievement, family background, and high school environment; institutional control; and student interaction with college. The input variables were family background, socioeconomic status, and ethnicity.

Regression analysis supported the impact of interaction between student characteristics and the college environment on academic achievement. Nevertheless, analyses were also consistent with previous research which identified high school GPA as the strongest predictor of college GPA. Race had a significant effect and Black student athletes were more likely to attend high schools with inferior academic resources. The authors recommend a wide range of faculty communication and mentoring responsive to the needs of male athletes. Program design should focus specifically on academic support with a parallel emphasis on intellectual mentorship which facilitates development of self-identity.

Comeaux (2005) expanded on previous research which focused on how individual characteristics can predict student-athletes' academic success. This study was an examination of environmental influences, within the college experience, instead of academic criteria or psychological factors. Specifically, this study examines interaction with faculty measures as predictors of college GPA. Scores on the SAT, in addition to measures of academic habits, were used as input variables. Race and family background were the demographic measures used as input variables. Black student athletes tend to enter college less prepared than whites in revenue generating sports. Data indicated Verbal SAT was a strong predictor of academic achievement for athletes and non-athletes. The significance is consistent with previous research. Further

conclusions from this study are anchored in the impact of environmental factors and the larger system in which the athletes exist.

Comeaux (2005) tested predictive relationships with a regression model. Regression data indicated magnitude of faculty impact depends on the type of interaction. Input and environmental characteristics do impact academic achievement among male revenue athletics participation in intercollegiate sports. One of the environmental variables, faculty provided help in achieving professional goals, had a positive relationship with college GPA. Students who receive assistance from faculty, and feel respected, in achieving professional goals tend to perform higher academically. Formal and informal communication and interaction is essential: research projects, faculty attendance at sporting events, team lunches, and incorporating faculty team advisors are all integral pieces to the puzzle. Cultivate meaningful relationships.

Richardson (2012) identified Black male coaches as significant influencers and role models who can positively impact the Black community. As an understudied population, their impact has been overlooked and improperly valued. Richardson conducted interviews, community observations, and auto-ethnography to gauge the magnitude of the social capital Black males have in high-risk neighborhoods. In poor communities, social capital is low. Youth delinquency, crime, and violence are often exacerbated. At the point where parental involvement is either ineffective or nonexistent, sports leagues serve as valuable forms of social capital and support. The presence of coaches as positive adult males fosters safety and mentoring through building trust.

Findings were categorized the coach's role along three themes: search of respect, capital and resources of resilience, and analytic auto-ethnography. Results suggest that coaches, specifically adult Black males, are vital in high-risk communities. Coaches fill voids and

establish social trust with young men and parents. Coaches described their reason for coaching was to change negative stereotypes and influence young Black males' conceptualization of Black male identity. Coaches provide academic enrichment, SAT preparation, trips to colleges and universities, and life skill development for transitioning into young adulthood.

Rhoden (2006) utilized a historical perspective to discuss and analyze how sports and athletics have had an exploitative effect on Black people from slavery through present time. The power dynamic was established on the slave plantations, and the quest for freedom and inclusion has had a conflicting impact on Black culture. There have been trailblazers and success stories such as Paul Robeson, Floyd Patterson, Tom Molineaux, Rube Foster, Jack Johnson, Jackie Robinson, Sam Cunningham, and Major Taylor who have excelled in sports and debunked long-held racial stereotypes. They were also instrumental in accelerating sports integration – which is the conflicting aspect of their success. The cyclical fight for power is evidenced in the 'Jockey Syndrome'. "The 'Jockey Syndrome' is the changing of rules to fit the needs of whites to maintain control in the face of a perceived challenge to white supremacy" (Rhoden, 2006, p. 68).

Parlaying sports as a way to 'get out' is a concept with connections to American slavery. The stereotype of Blacks lacking intellectual capacity and fortitude was a basic tenet of slavery. Whites held low expectations of Black prowess; even Blacks' feats of greatness were tempered with coded language which maintained the power dynamic. Sports on the plantation were used as diversions to dull the revolutionary instinct. Slave owners would hold athletic competitions where slaves would race to see who was the fastest on the plantation. Slaves were competing for the owners' entertainment – this was seen as the slaves' greatest value. Black-on-Black fights were an idea of white planters. Frederick Douglass viewed sports a way to make a "contented, thoughtless slave" (Rhoden, 2006, p. 42). Slave owners would have their best slaves to compete

in their names. Slaves would receive certain privileges, and sometimes a measure of freedom, due to their athletic exploits. “The slave athlete often enjoyed exalted status among fellow slaves and became revered” (Rhoden, 2006, p. 55). This culture led slaves to see sports as the avenue to break the chains of servitude and posture the Black body as a positive counter-image to demeaning stereotypes. Douglass contended that this affectionate perspective toward sport enhances the system of enslavement because Blacks saw sport as a way to gain acceptance, admiration, and respect. The mindset, for the most part, did not evolve to the point of contending for true freedom.

Exposure to Positive Narratives

Harper (2016) published a report which focused specifically on the experiences of Black male athletes in the “Power 5” NCAA Division I conferences. Benson’s (2000) study on socialization and athletic identity, along with Edwards (1984) work regarding the ‘dumb Negro,’ formed the foundation for this report. The long history of the stereotypes which plague Black male athletes is the main reason this particular demographic needs educationally purposeful activities and enriching social experiences. This report provides statistical support for the aforementioned literature and highlights racial inequities which put Black male athletes at a disadvantage.

Harper calculated Black men’s share of undergraduate student enrollment at each school; those percentages were juxtaposed with Black men’s share of scholarship student-athletes at each school. Graduation rates for athletes overall, Black undergraduate men overall, and undergraduate students overall were compared to Black male student-athletes. Data reveal a disproportionate number of Black male students in the general population versus the large representation of Black male scholarship athletes in revenue-generating sports. While data does

show Black male athletes graduate a higher rates than Black men in general, this is not true for the Power 5 conferences. Black male student-athletes graduate at a 5% lower rate than their counterparts and 46.4% do not graduate within 6 years.

Harper recommends the establishment of a commission on racial equity where a series of research reports (with disaggregated data) is routinely produced. The Power 5 conferences should commit money toward improving racial equity within and beyond sports. College administrators must develop practices which connect the recruiting process to the standards of college-readiness. Black male non-athletes could also benefit from the focused supports offered to student-athletes since Black male athletes graduate, on average, at a higher rate. There should be a greater focus on the successful Black-male student athletes to help improve the outcomes of other Black male athletes. Increased dialogue and discourse is needed to help understand the athletes' backgrounds and to connect best practices across campuses and conferences. Harper also implores the media to highlight positive narratives of Black male athletes. Lastly, Harper admonishes Black male student-athletes and their families to approach the recruiting process differently and engage in conversation about overall development and preparation for a future outside of sports.

Harrison and Harrison (2002) cited the benefits of exposing Black male student athletes to positive narratives. This study focused on the multiple perspectives which contribute to the development of Black racial identity and sport identity. Through encounters, people begin to internalize certain cognitive schemas and eventually commit them to their own worldview. Stereotypes about the Black experience, expectations of the Black athlete, and what Black masculinity means are all contributing factors to how Black male athletes view themselves.

Those stereotypes, combined with an overemphasis of athletic cultivation, lead to lowered intellectual expectations.

The purpose of Singer's (2016) article was to highlight the broader implications for the education and holistic development of Black male athletes in both higher education and PreK-12. Based on Critical Race Theory, Singer analyzed narratives of 3 Black athletes at predominately white institutions. Black males have been most severely and disproportionately affected by the schooling process in the US educational system. This study is also a litmus test for educational stakeholders' interest and investment in Black athletes.

More counternarratives are needed. Pipeline issues and support mechanisms needed for Black athletes during their time in Prek-12 on into higher education. The voice of people of color is required for a complete analysis of the educational system. "There is a shift from deficient-laden attributions to an emphasis on structural factors which perpetuate systemic racism" (Singer, 2016, p. 1085).

Two types of qualitative inquiry, case study and narrative research, were employed in this study. The athletes' focus shifted from academics to athletics once they realized they were talented enough to play football at the major college level. Teachers and administrators had low expectations for their academics. In many ways, Black male athletes do not get the benefit of the doubt, get more 'random' drug tests, and are not privy to certain privileges. Also, they are pushed into unneeded, easy classes on the college level (in high school, people push kids into Special Education). For future prospects in athletic careers, they feel pressure to achieve extraordinary feats to be considered for coaching or executive positions (Singer, 2016).

Singer (2016) suggested creating positive environments where Black athletes are engaged with critical conversations about race and racism. The educational challenges for Black male

athletes begin during middle school. Teachers, coaches, counselors, administrators, and stakeholders in PreK-12 should utilize organized school sport as an important teaching and learning space. Best Practices: self-identity awareness, career aspirations, time management balance. Athletes must hold themselves accountable, believe they possess the power to determine outcomes, actively engage in good behaviors.

The purpose of Smith, Clark, and Harrison's (2014) study was to analyze the dominant narrative which characterizes Black collegiate athletes as athletic beings who are intellectually inept or undeveloped. The authors discussed the pathology of the 'Dumb Jock'. Black athletes have most often described their participation and connection to sport as a way to "Get out of the hood." Smith, Clark, and Harrison posit Black athletes as working through a Mind-Body Duality where athletic prowess is valued and intellectual capabilities dismissed or left uncultivated.

Black student-athletes have been conditioned to internalize negative stereotypes. The master narrative must be deconstructed and counterbalanced to exhibit a more positive representation of the full intellectual potential of Black male student-athletes. Dumb jocks are not born; they are being systematically created – individuals who value and excel at sports at the expense of their academic achievement. Many believe not only Blacks are naturally better at sports, but also sports are the most viable route to success for these athletes. Athletic and academic identities are thought to be mutually exclusive, it is suggested that coaches create dumb jocks through negative stereotypes, low academic expectations and overemphasis on the development on athletic identity.

Smith et al. (2014) discussed the concept of control and power in terms of a master script. In the realm of sport, the master script claims that athletics are instrumental for Black students in obtaining education because it provides the primary avenue toward attainment of higher

education and social status. It also portrays Blacks as intellectually inferior. The silence the master script creates is significant because it popularizes the aforementioned story about intellectual inferiority and the opportunity for improving ones' socioeconomic status while quieting all other accounts.

Sports serve as a conduit where racism and racist ideals are transmitted and embedded. When studying race and racism Critical Race Theory (CRT) can be used as an analytical tool to provide counter narratives, elucidating what the master script will not. Critical Race Theory challenges race, gender, power, and class inequity while creating equity in society through the knowledge bases and voices of people of color. Create counternarratives to empower historically marginalized students. This includes, but is not limited to, sharing the exploits of Black scholar-athletes such as Paul Robeson, William Henry Lewis, Duke Slater, Jerome Holland, Meredith Gourdine, Fritz Pollard, Garrett Johnson, and Myron Rolle (Smith et al., 2014). Each of these athletes, and many more, not only excelled athletically, but also in areas of academia, business, and leadership.

Balanced Emphasis on Academics and Athletics

According to Hodge, Burden, Robinson, and Bennett (2008), stereotyping of Black male athletes has depicted them as athletically superior while intellectually inferior to white male athletes. This study has a collegiate-level focus, and it is situated within critical race theory. Racial, social, economical, cultural, and psychological factors affect Black male student athletes' academic and athletic experiences. There are implications for academic faculty, coaches, advisors, and support personnel.

Race-based implications impose psychological barriers on performance that potentially reduce a student-athlete's ability to perform to his potential. Negative beliefs about their own

intelligence can lead them to lower their expectations in academic contexts. These factors influence Black and other youth to participate or not participate in selected sports (Hodge et al., 2008). Stereotypes are generalizations based on race markers. There is also stereotypic imaging of Blacks – natural physical prowess which gives advantage to excel in sport activities requiring high levels of athleticism (i.e. basketball, boxing, football, explosive track events). Blacks are underrepresented in most all other sports (“Blacks don’t swim, or ski, or race cars”).

Stereotype threat exists when Black male athletes perform poorly and harm self-esteem. They become apprehensive that their performance may serve to confirm the negative stereotype others have of their group. Negative stereotyping can also have positive effects and Black athletes work to prove the negative stereotype wrong. More so than whites, Blacks aspire to professional careers in basketball, boxing, and football as a means to economical and social mobility. “The emphasis on ‘making it’ in sports reinforces race-based stereotypes” (Hodge et al., 2008, p. 210). For example, divergent experiences between Black and White youth in education and sports are influenced by structural inequalities in school and neighborhood resources. Black are mostly in urban schools with low income, insufficient budgets, inadequate equipment and facilities, and limited access to a variety of sport activities.

Hodge et al. (2008) assert that “whites will tolerate or encourage racial advances for people of color only when they also promote white self-interest” (p. 214). For the sake of winning, schools accept student-athletes whose academic numbers fall well below other students. Academic program culture impresses the mindset of athletics over academics -- think about recruiting visits. Emphasis is heavy on recruiting the best athletes while giving much less regard to the academic preparedness of the student-athlete. Over 20% of Black football and basketball players were accepted under special admittance programs. The term “achievement gap” is often

used. Benson (2000) said Black male student athletes were the “least prepared for college with lowest ACT/GPA.”

Some Black students feel that they must suppress their racial identity in order to achieve academically. They have also perceived their efforts to excel academically would result in them being stereotyped as sell-outs, or as acting white and in conflict with their own cultural identities. Acting White is a labeling which perpetuates stereotypic belief that whites are naturally more intelligent (Hodge et al., 2008). This connects to other research which posits the need to change attitudes and behaviors. Black males may dis-identify with academic challenge as an avoidance behavior due to perceived intellectual inferiority.

First, engage in thoughtful self-reflective examination of their own race-sport stereotypic beliefs. Utilize culturally relevant coaching practices. Rewarding coaches for student-athletes academic successes is a good tactic. Second, ensure athletes are exposed to learning experiences that focus on issues in sports and education. Third, help students understand the difference between acting white and successfully navigating the educational system. Create a culture where athletes recognize their intellectual talents. Fourth, highlight academic successes of Black student-athletes as enthusiastically as often done for athletic triumphs. Highlight diversity of success beyond music, film, and sport. This increases awareness of balancing sport and academic pursuits. “This helps prevent more Black males from experiencing dreams deferred” (Hodge et al., 2008, p. 219) – the dream being success in any realm. Aspiring for sport careers must not come at the exclusion of potentially more attainable educational goals. Encourage and support Black student athletes academically and hold them accountable for efforts both in and out of class. They must not buy into stereotypes, but take responsibility for their academic life (active participants) -- just like they do with athletics.

Hawkins (2010) likened the American athletic landscape to the ‘New Plantation’. The critical analysis of the role of sport and its effect on the Black athlete provides critical contextual perspective. Two major areas within the book highlight racist ideologies and the failure of interscholastic sports to prepare Black athletes for college. Hawkins discussed Friday night lights, or high school football, as a dream deferred with delusions of grandeur. In its purest form, the culture of football builds positive character traits such as hard work, teamwork, and leadership. As the sport has become more commercialized, there has been a move toward anti-intellectualism. Young Black males dream of playing college and professional sports. All too often, sports are chosen as the primary way to achieve the “rags to riches” dream. “Interscholastic sports have become breeding grounds for unfortunate realities which usually leave athletes forlorn and disappointed” (p. 148). Interscholastic sports no longer supplements the educational experiences of the student-athletes; they are now exploited. Character development and intellectual enrichment have been substituted for capital accumulation and winning at all costs. Black males become attached to the idea of social mobility and neglect a balanced academic and athletic pursuit. What is being perpetuated is a system that is thriving on the athletic prowess of Black males, yet it is neglecting to motivate and prepare them academically. Hawkins (2010) also critiques the Black communities for validating and encouraging purely athletic dreams. Education cannot be described as “something to fall back on.” Intellectual cultivation must be considered primary and a worthy pursuit in and of itself. The feeder systems of interscholastic athletics are replicating the behavior of intercollegiate athletics in regard to academic integrity and commercialization.

Hawkins (2010) also analyzed an embedded social convention of America’s ideology – Blacks are physically superior and intellectually inferior. This prevailing ideology justifies

patterns of racial inequality and solidifies a set of institutional practices which have been established for hundreds of years. Colleges contribute to this ideology because they recruit Black athletes specifically for their athletic ability – their academic characteristics are looked upon with amused contempt. From recruiting, to signing day, until their eligibility is done, the main focus is on athletic potential and development. Moreover, their academic inadequacies are chronicled publicly. Low graduation rates, low SAT/ACT scores, and poor GPA data is shared widely. Conversely, the Black athletes who do excel academically are seen as anomalies. This entire system characterizes Black athletes as intellectually disadvantaged beings. The disproportionate representation of Blacks as athletes compared to students feeds into historical practices where the physicality of the Black body has been valued over the mind. As a result, being a Black student-athlete creates a dual identity of conflicting nature. Hawkins (2010) likened this dual identity to W.E.B. DuBois’ description of the American Negro having a double consciousness – “a constant twoness which leaves one longing to be proud of heritage while simultaneously having to prove humanity” (p. 61).

Hawkins (2010) highlights Dexter Manley, Lloyd Daniels, Kevin Ross, and Fred Butler as cautionary tales of supporting the ideology that Blacks are intellectually inferior but physically superior. High Schools and colleges perpetuate educational neglect because they pass students along if they are good at sports. This temporary glory and short-term benefit have proven to be detrimental to Black athletes. When professional sport is not an option, lack of education has a significant, negative impact on the lives of these neglected Black athletes. Hawkins highlighted intellectually successful athletes such as Moses Fleetwood Walker, Paul Robeson, Fritz Pollard, and George Jewett. There should be a culture shift in order to break down the contradictory double consciousness of Black student-athletes. Black athletes should be

encouraged to participate in extracurricular activities outside of their respective sports. Black communities are complicit in supporting the idea of intellectual inferiority because Black youth are continually pushed into sports as a way to find success.

Previous studies have examined which factors affect Black male student-athletes. Harris et al. (2014) conducted a thematic analysis of the responses of athletes and their families as it pertained to the connection between academics, athletics, and attitudes toward engagement and success. There was a recommendation for a solutions-based approach which provides information beyond theoretical and thematic analysis. A consistent, collaborative approach laden with cultural competence is necessary to facilitate such outcomes. The authors also identified a need for more quantitative measures and a shift to pragmatic thinking. The authors concluded Black males have been disenfranchised by schools and could benefit from more targeted efforts. The scope and type for those targeted efforts has yet to be determined. This study will add to the literature by identifying possible target efforts to implement specifically for Black male athletes. In addition to cognitive skills and academic behaviors, other studies have focused on the other constructs such as self-concept.

Hicks, Harrison, and Smith (2016) conducted an analysis of the relationship between Black high school football players, who go on to play college football, and their high school football coaches. Two tenets of Critical Race Theory were used: centrality of experiential knowledge and the challenge to dominant ideology. Researchers found athletes were positively influenced by their high school coaches to perform well academically in high school and focus heavily on academics in choice of college. Athletes who had positive relationships with coaches viewed college athletics as a means to attain a degree rather than the path to being a professional

athlete. These findings were antithetical to previous research which found strong coach relationships as the perpetuation of athletic exploitation.

Carter-Francique, Hart, and Cheeks (2015) identified sources for social and academic support for Black student-athletes. Surrounding the athletes with school personnel who hold them accountable and consistently emphasize both academic and athletic development increases their chances for college readiness. Five themes were most effective in helping athletes be successful: monitoring academic progress, assisting with course work, providing financial support, emphasizing the importance of a college degree, and unconditional support. Race and culture can be leveraged to promote academic success for Black male athletes. Schools can skillfully and responsibly incorporate the learned, shared, and exhibited behaviors into culturally relevant academic supports to nurture and empower Black student-athletes.

Involvement in Activities Other than Sports

Astin (1984) developed the Student Involvement Theory as a contribution to the student development sector of higher education. Involvement is defined as the amount of physical and psychological energy a student devotes to the academic experience. Highly involved students would spend time studying, participating actively in student organizations, and interacting frequently with faculty members and other students. A typical uninvolved student neglects studies, abstains from extracurricular activities, and has infrequent contact with faculty and other students. This theory can guide investigations and influence how educators design effective learning environments. Student learning and development outcomes associated with a student's matriculation experience are directly proportional to the quality and quantity of student involvement.

Involvement refers specifically to behavior – what a student actually does rather than the student’s feelings or thoughts. Involvement is active and tangible. Astin (1984) identified five postulates which undergird the Student Involvement Theory. Involvement refers to the investment of physical and psychological energy in various objects. Involvement occurs along a continuum; not all students involve themselves to the same degree. Involvement has quantitative and qualitative features. The amount of individual development associated with any program is directly proportional to the quality and quantity of student involvement in that program. “The effectiveness of any educational policy or practice is directly related to the capacity of that policy or practice to increase student involvement” (p. 519).

Astin (1984) addressed athletic involvement as a close parallel with academic involvement. Students who become intensely involved in athletic activities show smaller than average increases in social development areas. Athletic involvement tends to isolate students from the peer group effects that normally accompany college attendance. Isolation results from long hours dedicated to sport responsibility, athletic competitions, living quarters, and clustered majoring.

Astin (1984) recommends for faculty and administrators to focus more on what students are actually doing – this is an indicator of where their energy and motivations lie. The involvement approach shifts the emphasis achieving authentic participation and tangible interaction. Astin (1984) posited questions for further exploration. How do different forms of involvement interact? Does one form of involvement enhance or diminish the effects of another form? What are the ideal combinations that facilitate maximum learning and personal development? The advantage of the Student Involvement Theory is the directed attention to

student motivation and behavior. “The entire campus has a responsibility to encourage students to embrace a comprehensive college experience” (p. 529).

Edwards (2000) cited the perils of overemphasis of athletics within the Black family. Edwards further argued how undervaluing the Black athletes’ academic identity is detrimental to personal, social, and cultural development. Negative identity coupled with the notion of athletic superiority and intellectual inferiority, athletic exploitation, and the lack of Black role models results in the systemic disenfranchisement of Black student-athletes. As a result of the single-minded pursuit of sports fame and fortune, Black male athletes have suffered a triple tragedy. The first tragedy is obsession with sport goals which an overwhelming majority will not obtain. The second tragedy is personal and cultural underdevelopment which significantly inhibits chances of success. The third tragedy is cultural and institutional underdevelopment which pulls potential talent away from important careers such as medicine, law, economics, politics, education, and technical fields.

Hyatt (2013) investigated barriers to persistence among Black intercollegiate athletes. In response to low graduation rates, particularly for Black males, the NCAA has implemented legislation specifically focused on tracking the academic progress of student athletes. Colleges and universities have, in turn, implemented programming aimed at improving graduation rates. Due to haste and lack of planning, the programming has been unsuccessful because there has been little to no understanding of the target student population. Additionally, the focus has been cognitive (intellectual) factors. Hyatt’s purpose was to heighten awareness about non-cognitive factors and how they significantly impact persistence among Black athletes.

Black male athletes are one of the more challenging subgroups in terms of persistence and graduation rate. To be effective, programming and intervention strategies must be founded

on basic understanding of the characteristics of the institution as well as the characteristics of the student or subgroups of students. The NCAA has forced colleges and universities to provide oversight for progress toward degree, APR, and heightened eligibility requirements. “Academic advisors have to balance athletic eligibility requirements and meeting the non-cognitive needs of the students” (Hyatt, 2013, p. 260). The student athlete experience on campus is atypical of the traditional college experience. Added levels of stress, more structured time demands, and stereotyping are all powerful variables. Non-cognitive variables are the personal and social beliefs which determine how much an athlete engages with the larger campus community and persists through college. It has been posited that non-cognitive variables are stronger indicators of continuing enrollment in Black students than college entrance exam scores. Hyatt recommends using non-cognitive factors to evaluate academic potential. Non-cognitive variables should be used to address the needs of Black student athletes. Participation in practical sessions to develop non-cognitive skills is essential.

Hyatt (2013) asserted students who fail to integrate themselves into the campus community struggle to reconcile incongruence and isolation. They feel like they do not fit, and they are not intentional about initiating sufficient interactions with others. The opportunity that college athletics offers to Black men creates a paradox. Athletics is the reason they are in college, yet they are not usually provided the time and resources to navigate the educational and social arena. Coaches, administrators, and school personnel must create an atmosphere where the students feel comfortable enough to integrate. They must encourage social interaction, membership in clubs, attendance at social campus events, internships, study groups, and communication with advisors and career counselors. Affiliations with others in the campus

community enable the student to develop skills which allow them to adapt and network – this enhances persistence.

Simiyu (2012) examined the social, cultural, individual, and institutional racist factors that pose challenges to many Black college athletes. The challenge is the development of skills outside sports which are necessary to succeed in college and beyond. Grounded in Critical Race Theory (CRT) and Student Involvement Theory, this article examines “racial ideology and academic challenges faced by Black student athletes” (p. 40). Hence, there are six factors contributing to isolation of the Black athlete on campus. Racial and athletic stereotypes inhibit supportive social relations. Spending too much time on sports does not leave time for other campus activities. Campus events are not interesting to Black students. Campus life is not welcoming. White students do not interact with and relate to Black students because of lack of prior exposure. Another issue is white students’ judgment of Black athletes as spoiled or privileged. These factors perpetuate negative stereotypes and fortify obstacles to the inclusion of Black athletes into larger campus culture.

Student Involvement Theory (Simiyu, 2012) focuses on the effort and extent to which an individual student actively engages with the institution. The other piece of the equation is the presence, or lack thereof, of an enabling learning environment. Faculty stereotypes, academic underachievement, faculty interaction with Black student athletes, cultural isolation, athletic scheduling, and academic rigor are all antithetical to the concept of an enabling learning environment. Colleges and universities must be proactive in planning and programming for Black student athletes while remaining sensitive to the macro and micro level factors which affect their involvement with campus. Schools “should also strive to create opportunities for Black athletes to interact with other students away from the sporting arena and classroom” (p.

57). Black students would see themselves as members of the community, and the rest of the campus would benefit from diverse interactions. Colleges and universities have a responsibility to promote equity by affording Blacks opportunities in administration, management, corporate positions, and other professions. Black students will see opportunities beyond sports and broaden their horizons. While there is deeply entrenched systematic inequity, institutions of higher learning have to actively restructure, and individual athletes have to take accountability for maximizing opportunities when participating in sport and interacting on campus (Simiyu, 2012).

Sailes and Allen (2014) discussed the institutional barriers and self-handicapping behaviors of Black male student athletes which serve as catalysts for underperformance in the classroom. Black student athletes have been the poorest academic performers and have had the lowest graduation percentages. Generally, their actions exacerbate negative stereotypes and perpetuate a narrative fraught with low expectations and cautionary tales. Black athletes' chance of success is low because they rarely receive the necessary social support. The authors argued that sport has damaged Black America. The excessive focus on athletics has blinded Black people to the negative effects. White-controlled institutions are controlling and profiting from the excessive focus on athletics. Overemphasizing athletics has facilitated a debilitating anti-intellectualism in Black society. "Black intellectuals have failed to encourage Black youth into educational activities leading to conventional careers" (p. 167). When academically unprepared Black athletes are recruited to colleges for sports and placed in new environments, they are at a compounded disadvantage. Academic challenges, along with unfamiliar cultural atmospheres, create the opportunity for poor choices.

Institutional barriers have multiple forms. The absence of adequate transitional programs to equip Black student athletes is the fault of academic institutions. Professor and peer

stereotypes exist. Colleges are not scouring the inner cities looking for academically gifted students. Instead, the athletes are commodified for exploitation on the field and neglect in the classroom. Research has proven that the relationship between faculty and students has significant impact. Damaging stereotypes and negative branding are byproducts of the prevailing mindsets of the college community. Lack of intelligence and earning poor grades contribute to the idea of the 'dumb jock' (Sailes & Allen, 2014). Media helps to portray athletes as inferiorly intelligent by focusing on athletic prowess over educational gains. Professors typecast athletes and project feelings of disdain toward Black student-athletes. Interpersonal interactions are chock full of negative comments and racially charged statements. The notion of Black student-athletes lack of gratefulness is a recurring trope. Social integration is retarded because there is under-utilization of support services. Poor academic results for Black athletes illustrate an institutional problem. "Recruiting underqualified students, admitting underprepared students, large time commitment to sport, and an ineffective K-12 system all contribute to the academic inequities" (p. 171). The greater the extent a Black athlete can integrate oneself into campus, the higher the chances for academic success. Tools and programs must be provided to increase involvement in ventures outside the athletic social environment (Sailes & Allen, 2014). Schools must intentionally work to counterbalance barriers to participation and promote programs for inclusion. The exploitative nature of the college campus creates immense time demands for athletic commitments; academic responsibilities are unattended and success is not actualized. Black student-athletes shift their focus and have high expectations for futures in professional athletics. Academics take a backseat to athletics because of the oppositional relationship between sport and academic achievement. On the other hand, athletes who prioritize academics over athletics are at greater risk of putting their scholarship in jeopardy. The task of balancing athletics and academics proves tough. As a

result, most student athletes are majoring in eligibility instead of an academic major. They are alienated as intellectuals.

Self-handicapping behaviors develop in response to institutional obstacles. Negative self image and deleterious personal choices place Black student-athletes in compromising situations. Black males who have played their way into higher education and earned scholarships to campus are among the poorest academic performers. When a child comes from a low socioeconomic status, there is a tendency to encourage development of athletic skills. They are not challenged academically and fast-tracked without resistance so they have a chance to make it out. Disadvantaged students are mentally preoccupied with the possibility of material items and prestige. The entitlement mentality handicaps Black male athletes because they seek to leverage their athletic skills to cover for their lack of ability in other areas – particularly in the classroom. Employing on the ‘cool pose’ is one way athletes try to dumb down and avoid stereotype threat. Projecting an apathetic attitude is a symptom of social disintegration and enhances the opportunity to excuse their failures and place responsibility on the system rather than take personal accountability (Sailes & Allen, 2014). The athletes themselves, families, coaches, administrators, and professors all impact the academic underperformance of Black male athletes. Until all responsible parties own this reality, Black student-athletes will continue to suffer educationally.

Conceptualizing College Readiness

In *Challenge for Urban Schools* (Roderick et al., 2009), the authors encourage school administrators to be explicit about which sets of knowledge and skills shape college access and performance. High schools must stress the four areas Conley (2007) suggests. High schools must also develop college readiness indicators to gather data, which provides information on college

outcomes of their graduates. This linkage should be a key measure of the high school's true impact and performance. Because student-athletes are scoring poorly on the ACT, they are facing declining economic prospects. If educators are to use college readiness as the avenue to achieving postsecondary success, then they must incorporate a dual focus. Academic preparedness and college knowledge should be addressed as part of a comprehensive program. The author posits policy changes above the school level which will help teachers meet the instructional challenge, bridge the information and social capital gap, and provide incentives for students. Districts and schools must combine resources and support to increase capacity within schools through incentives to reinforce both student and teacher behaviors which build college readiness.

College readiness needs to be redefined. Conley (2007) outlined four major areas of development: Conceptual Skills and Awareness, Academic Behaviors, Key Content, Key Cognitive Strategies. Once a student's ACT score is measured against the benchmarks, factors such as race, high school curriculum, and locale help researchers gauge how powerful these variables are. Conley provided an in-depth analysis of the facets of college readiness. Then, a focused definition of college readiness was provided. Coupled with the definition, was a list of examples which illustrate what a college-ready student should be able to do. Lastly, possible ways to measure the definition were included to provide guiding metrics for each construct.

Key Cognitive Strategies encapsulates intellectual activities which, through intentional practice, are developed over time. "These activities include analysis, reasoning and proof, intellectual openness, inquisitiveness, precision and accuracy, and problem solving" (Conley, 2007, p. 12-14). Academic Knowledge and Skills is a generalized construct which enables college students to successfully engage with challenging content. Writing and research are

centrally important to college success. A high volume of writing, within short time frames, is a staple of post-secondary education. Presenting arguments with substantiated evidence is a critical piece for college writing in any discipline. Research includes the students' ability to utilize an appropriate approach to present logical, relevant information to support arguments and claims. Academic Behaviors include study skills, time management, taking notes, communicating with faculty, calendaring, and prioritizing (Conley, 2007). Contextual Skills and Awareness is a construct which focuses on a students' ability to operate within the networks and culture of the college campus.

Conley's (2007) definition of college readiness is a compilation of keystone skills; the four facets of college readiness buttress those skills. College-ready is demonstrated through the following: consistent intellectual growth, deep understanding of core academic subjects, solving novel problems, possessing a range of key intellectual and cognitive skills, reading and writing strategies, mastery of scientific and numeric concepts, ability to accept critical feedback, objective self-assessment, independent study and preparation, interpersonal interaction, and understanding the values and norms of a college campus. Examples of the aforementioned keystone skills include writing research papers, understanding a range of non-fiction and technical materials, solving multi-step mathematical problems, apply the scientific method, interpret conflicting information, communicate in a second language, engage in independent and group work inside and outside of class, create and maintain a personal schedule, utilize technology, and locate pertinent information from reliable sources.

Conley (2007) proposed measurements for each of the four dimensions. Key Cognitive Strategies are demonstrated through authentic tasks and collecting classroom evidence, possibly in portfolio format, is the best means available to measure. Key Content Knowledge can be

measured within a series of end-of-course exams because the exams can be an integral part of the curriculum and incorporate complex problems and writing. Academic Behaviors can be measured through student survey and inventory to get a gauge of which skills and strategies students already employ. Contextual Skills and Awareness can be measured through questionnaires. More important than the measurement tool is the subsequent use of the information provided in the questionnaire. Conley recommends high schools to create a culture of intellectual development and provide necessary supports to teachers and students. Clarity of purpose will help prepare students to be college-ready (Conley, 2007).

ACT

The American College Test (2015) compiled a report about the condition of college and career readiness which focused specifically on Black students. Black students who take the recommended core curriculum are more likely to be college ready. However, Black students who take core or more courses are still less likely to meet benchmarks than all other students. Black students are more likely to be in schools that offer less rigorous courses. Guidance counselors play a significant role, and efforts must be made at the state and local levels to provide students with sufficiently rigorous and aligned courses (ACT, 2015). There is a clear gap between college aspirations and readiness outcomes for Black students. A majority (85%) of students aspire to obtain a postsecondary degree. Overall, Black students are the lowest performing demographic on the ACT.

Each subtest area of the ACT correlates to a benchmark which indicates college readiness. ACT qualifies college readiness as a 50% chance of obtaining a 'B' or higher, or a 75% chance of obtaining a 'C' or higher in first-year college courses. The English test corresponds to English Composition, and the benchmark is 18. Only 34% of Black students met

the benchmark in 2015; whereas, 64% of all other students met the benchmark. The Reading test corresponds to Social Sciences, and the benchmark is 22. Only 19% of Black students met the benchmark in 2015; whereas, 46% of all other students met the benchmark. The Mathematics test corresponds to College Algebra, and the benchmark is 22. Only 14% of Black students met the benchmark in 2015; whereas, 42% of all other students met the benchmark. The Science test corresponds to Biology, and the benchmark is 23. Only 12% of Black students met the benchmark in 2015; whereas, 38% of all other students met the benchmark. Only 6% of Black students met all four benchmarks. On the other hand, 61% of Black students met zero benchmarks – which means three-fifths of Black students are not ready for college at all (ACT, 2015). In terms of total benchmarks met by Black students, 17% met one benchmark, 10% met two benchmarks, 6% met three benchmarks, and 6% met four benchmarks.

ACT recommends system alignment with curriculum, assessment, and instruction. There is value in using multiple measures to provide a more holistic approach to college readiness. Longitudinal research indicates GPA (35%) and ACT (27%) are the greatest predictors of academic outcomes (ACT, 2017). Offering students the core courses, with high quality and fidelity, will increase their chances of meeting benchmarks and being college ready. Setting clear performance standards includes maintaining an appropriate rigor level. Rigor and quality of courses are buttressed with effective teacher support and development. ACT recommends an overhaul in professional development, teacher training, and teacher recruitment. Culturally competent teachers, practices, and policies can positively impact the outcomes for Black students (ACT, 2015, p. 18-19).

GPA

Mishook et al. (2012) investigated college readiness through work with the College Readiness Indicator Systems (CRIS) initiative. Along with ACT, high school GPA is the most frequently noted indicator of college readiness. Maintaining a GPA of 3.0 or higher is correlated with success in credit-bearing, first-year college courses. The authors explained the GPA indicator as one piece of the college readiness puzzle which includes ACT score and college knowledge. For the purpose of defining college readiness, ACT and GPA are the most established metrics.

Screening Measures

Lombardi et al. (2012a) explored the development of a college readiness screening measure specifically for student-athlete recruits. The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) requires student-athlete recruits to meet a minimum baseline to qualify for post-secondary sport. A student-athlete's grade point average (GPA) and college admission exam scores are the qualifying metrics. The purpose of this study was to explore the reliability of the Student Athlete Pre-Screening Questionnaire (SA-PSQ). The SA-PSQ was developed to gauge the college readiness of high school athletes. Previous research regarding Conley's (2007) model of college and career readiness set the theoretical framework. NCAA academic requirements for degree progress and the context of college athletic recruiting contribute to the calculus of understanding the college athlete.

The SA-PSQ measured the four keys of college readiness. A series of analyses of variance (ANOVAs), expert content analysis, and alpha analysis were conducted to gauge the reliability of the questionnaire. The predictive validity using college GPA was also tested. The

SA-PSQ is a legitimate measure of student-athlete college readiness. Demographics notwithstanding, the questionnaire does measure more variables than GPA and ACT/SAT scores.

An implication for future research is to make the questionnaire available to high school athletes. Since the questionnaire measures cognitive and noncognitive factors, findings can directly affect the support systems and policies athletic departments offer to student-athletes. The information and best practices could reduce the number of student-athletes who become academically ineligible or do not graduate.

Lombardi, R. Downs, A. Downs, and Conley (2012b) examined the Key Cognitive Strategies (KCS) framework which is a measure of critical thinking skills intended for high school students. The framework is an extension of Conley's (2007) research on defining college readiness. Educational accountability systems incorporate a college and career readiness measure, and the authors wanted to highlight the misalignment between accepted indicators (GPA, college admission exam scores) and the specific skill set needed for postsecondary academic success. The CollegeCareerReady School Diagnostic (CCSRD) was used to measure the four model keys – Key Cognitive Strategies, Key Content Knowledge, Key Learning Skills and Techniques, and Key Transition Knowledge and Skills. Factor analysis was used to examine the reliability and internal validity of the CCSRSD. The goal was to measure the degree to which schools provide college and career readiness opportunities for their students. Findings revealed reliability and validity within factors of the KCS as a self-report measure. This instrument may be useful for school personnel when evaluating instructional programs for college and career readiness.

Camara (2013) analyzed how college and career readiness are defined and measured. The advent of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) added another layer to the conversation.

Construct and criterion validity are essential to determining exactly what postsecondary endeavors students are prepared for. High remediation and low completion rates in postsecondary education have shifted the focus to the high school preparation component. Postsecondary success has varied measurements. Persistence and completion of degree, obtaining certification, graduating within six years, exemption from remediation courses, and grade point average (GPA) have all been posited as measures of success in college.

Are college ready and career ready the same or different? Research has shown that there are significant differences in the academic requirements associated with preparation for college courses and career training programs. Shifting focus on the high school level means including standards which not only emphasize academic mastery but also career skill mastery. Varying levels performance descriptors creates the possibility of tracking students into less rigorous programs which increases their chances of needing remediation classes in college.

Camara (2013) also juxtaposed readiness and preparedness. CCSS standards are supposed to increase students' chances of being successful in postsecondary endeavors. While readiness and preparedness are sometimes used interchangeably, there is a difference in their meaning and function. Readiness has really meant cognitive development – enriching and enhancing a student's academic acumen. With reference to Conley's (2007) model of the four key dimensions of college readiness, it is important to lend attention to key learning and transition skills. This is where preparedness factors in. Equipping students with the requisite skills to manage time, set goals, be self-aware, navigate college systems, and build social capital are equally essential if they want to actually maximize their academic skills.

Summary of the Literature Review

Critical Race Theory grounds the work of identifying effective support systems to increase Black male athletes' college readiness. Race, as a social construct, has associated beliefs and challenges which affect academic outcomes. Black male athletes often develop negative personal identities which preclude them from attaining positive academic outcomes. School leaders must develop programming and effective support systems to meet the needs of Black male athletes. Scholar-Baller is an example of a program which targets athletes to help them embrace positive narratives, develop social skills, and construct well-rounded personal identities. The presence of a faculty member as mentor impacts Black male athletes' priorities and construction of self. Having intentional academic programming balances priorities and creates an opportunity for Black male athletes to take ownership of their academic existence. Exposing Black male athletes to positive narratives shifts their focus beyond athletic success.

Broadened horizons and diversified interests influence athletes to involve themselves in activities beyond sports; they integrate themselves within the larger campus. Conceptualizing college readiness entails modifying what it means for a student to be prepared for post-secondary education. For this research study, college readiness is defined by an ACT score of 21 or above and a GPA of 3.0 or above. ACT and GPA are not the only two constructs which factor into college readiness, yet they are the most significantly correlated to academic success. Moreover, ACT and GPA have the most well-defined metrics. Redefining readiness equally prioritizes academic behaviors and cognitive skills. The culture of schools and projected expectations reveal true purpose. The ACT subtest scores are used as the benchmark for college readiness. Due to lack of culturally competent practices, Black students perform significantly lower than students in all other demographics. This is a leadership opportunity; principals can shape a vision and

craft a structure which develops skill and capacity for Black male athletes. Refined screening measures are needed to help determine predictive validity of academic success. Intellectual, racial, and athletic identities are all constructed through social norms.

CHAPTER III

Research Methods

The methods section discussed the specific steps that were relevant to the given study. The methods section of a study, also, is very critical to the success of the research. In this section of the dissertation, vital information such as choosing the participants, site, and data analysis were discussed. Also, the type of instrument that the researcher chooses to collect data will be discussed. When conducting a study, the researcher must have permission from multiple sources. These sources include the participants, (their parents if minors) teachers, and the Institutional Review Board (IRB). The method's section provides a general view on how the study is to be carried out and the necessary procedures of the upcoming study as well.

Participants in the Research Study

The population of this study was Black male athletes who competed in college athletics. The sample was Black male athletes who competed in college athletics during the years of 2008-2018.

Instrument in the Research Study

Instrumentation consisted of a constructed survey based upon previously conducted studies (Bimper et al., 2012; Harrison et al., 2006; Harrison and Harrison, 2002; Smith et al., 2014; Harris et al., 2014). Construct validity was assessed with Cronbach's Alpha. Conley (2007) developed a theoretical framework that defined college readiness. Conley's work focused on the many factors affecting students heading into postsecondary activities. Lombardi (2012a) incorporated the College Career Ready School Diagnostic (CCRS) to examine the

psychometric properties of the key cognitive strategies. This survey instrument was developed to gather evidence about the knowledge and skills needed, GPA and college admission exam scores notwithstanding, for success in college. Items from the CCSRD were used to create the instrument for this study. Lombardi (2012b) also incorporated the Student-Athlete Pre-Screening Questionnaire (SA-PSQ) to assess college readiness for recruits. The SA-PSQ was derived from the CCRSD and both instruments were based on Conley's (2007) college readiness definition model. Some items in the SA-PSQ were included to examine predictive validity of academic outcomes in college. The Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS; Brewer & Cornelius, 2001) was developed to capture how athletes identify with their athletic role in relation to other social roles. These items were used in this study to test the null hypothesis regarding the predictive nature of academic support systems. The previously constructed surveys were used as a reference point to develop the instrument for this study.

Design of the Research Study

A cross-sectional survey design was used in this study. In particular, this cross-sectional study examines perceptions of the effectiveness of academic support systems in order to influence practice at the high school level. Survey research presented quantitative data to inform policy and add context to the national trend data (Creswell, 2015) regarding Black male athletes and college readiness. The survey utilized questions that specifically focus on former high school athletes' perceptions of academic support systems during their high school career.

The survey (Appendix B) will include 5-point Likert scale questions to obtain information about respondents' perceptions of academic support systems. Background and demographic questions will be included for proper grouping for subsequent data analysis. The survey consisted of previously used questions to target the academic support systems outlined in

the conceptual model (Faculty Mentor, Exposure to Positive Narratives, Balanced Emphasis on Academics and Athletics, Self and Social Identity lessons, and Involvement in Activities Other than Sports). Specific demographic items were added for purposes of disaggregation and organizing the data set. All survey items were checked for internal and external validity to ensure reliability. Closed-ended questions were incorporated to regulate responses for convenient comparison (Creswell, 2015). This was descriptive research. No treatment was incorporated.

Procedures in the Research Study

Since human subjects were primarily involved, approval was requested according to the university policies and procedures. Stringent protocols were followed to ensure survey respondents' confidentiality (Appendix A). In addition, as a student of The University of Mississippi, permission from The Institutional Review Board (IRB) was required. The data and documentation of the study was secured in a password protected website and hard copies of data and documentation were stored in a secure safe. Survey respondents were assigned unique identification numbers hence the survey data cannot be identified by the name of the participant. The researcher completed the CITI training and abided by the rules for human subjects approval.

The data was collected using a survey instrument. The survey (Appendix B) was distributed to male college athletes at NCAA Division 1, 2, and 3, NAIA, and Junior College institutions to cast a larger net for respondents and reduce sampling error. The participants were selected through nonprobability sampling. Convenience sampling was used to forward the survey to willing and available coaches and players who have played collegiate sports between 2008-2018. The participants then forwarded the survey to other willing and available coaches and players who have played collegiate sports between 2008-2018. Before the survey was

distributed, the items and format were normed in order to reduce measurement error (Creswell, 2015).

The survey was available online through Qualtrics, and the link was emailed and shared on public domain. Distribution happened through personal contact, or by way of athletes, administrators, and coaches. Each respondent received a cover sheet explaining the purpose of the study, the participants' rights, and the researcher's contact information for those who might have questions upon completion of the survey.

Reliability of survey items was tested using Cronbach's alpha, which is a measure based on the intercorrelation of factors. Variables with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient over .70 were considered acceptable. The reliability data provided information about the construct validity of the survey items – this is the degree to which the survey measures what it purports examine. A high level of construct validity provided a rationale for the conclusions drawn from the statistical tests. The reliability measure helped to eliminate the threat to internal validity of research design and established the reliability of the procedure, which could be revised if questions of the questionnaire for the survey are lengthy, irrelevant, or confusing. Once Cronbach's Alpha was successful, the proposed model was used for the research for the sample..

Data Analysis

SPSS 27.0 was used to organize descriptive data and assess relationships between variables using Binary Logistic Regression. Quantitative data is deductive or inferential in nature. The independent variables were the academic support systems outlined in the conceptual model for this research study. For all five hypotheses, each academic support system was analyzed with a Binary Logistic Regression conducted in two ways. The first Binary Logistic Regression examined the relationship between academic support systems and college readiness

(21 or above on the ACT *and* 3.0 GPA). The second Binary Logistic Regression examined the relationship between academic support systems and college readiness (21 or above on the ACT *or* 3.0 GPA). For all 5 hypotheses, college-readiness stood as a dependent variable with 2 levels (ready and not ready). Cronbach's Alpha was run to determine internal consistency between the cluster of survey items for all five aspects of the conceptual framework. Crosstabulations were conducted to measure the relationship between race and college readiness.

College-ready was defined as the following: a) 21 or above on the ACT; b) 3.0 GPA; and, c) member of college athletic team. It was necessary to target this sample because the responses of those who have already completed high school will inform the implications and recommendations for athletes who are currently in high school. The expectation was for this sample to generalize to the population and provide context about the outcomes for successful college athletes – counterbalancing data which identified Black male athletes as having lower GPAs and graduation rates in comparison to their white counterparts and female athletes.

Summary of the Research Methods

The introduction and literature review introduced the topic and gave grounds for a future study. The method section explained, in detail, the process involved with conducting this particular study. This study focused on former high school athletes' perceptions of the academic support they received in high school. These subjects were surveyed online. The method section introduced the instrument used in collecting data and discussed how the data was analyzed through multiple logistic regression. This section provided specific information used by the researcher, participants, and the gatekeepers to insure that the study was safe, beneficial, and successful.

CHAPTER IV

Data Analysis and Findings

This research project was designed to explore the impact of high school academic support systems -- particularly their capacity to increase the college readiness of Black male athletes. Additionally, the study examined perceptions of the effectiveness of academic support systems in order to influence practice at the high school level. This research project proposed a new conceptual framework of how academic support systems impact the quality of educational experiences which influence college readiness. The conceptual framework, a combination of programs and interventions, was analyzed through survey data. This chapter presents the findings and interpretations of the statistical measures utilized to determine whether there was internal consistency within the survey items. Moreover, this chapter presents the findings and interpretations of the statistical measures utilized to determine between-group effect sizes for each aspect of the conceptual framework.

Participants

The survey was made available through Qualtrics. The participants were anonymous, all males, and all current or former college athletes. There were 112 total respondents; 49 respondents completed the survey. Of the participants, 34 were Black, 12 were White, 1 was American Indian, and 2 did not identify. The athletes competed at all levels of collegiate competition. Of the participants, 14 were NCAA Division 1 athletes, 6 were NCAA Division 2 athletes, 17 were NCAA Division 3 athletes, 3 were NAIA athletes, 4 were Junior College athletes, and 5 did not identify.

College readiness was determined by the grade point average (GPA), American College Test (ACT) composite score, and Scholastic Assessment Test (SAT) composite score. A GPA of 3.0 or higher, an ACT composite score of 21 or higher, and a SAT composite score of 1090 or higher determined whether a student is considered college ready. Of the participants, 23 met the criteria for college readiness based on test scores; 27 met the criteria for college readiness based on GPA; and 20 met the criteria for college readiness based on test scores and GPA.

Of the 34 Black participants ($M = .72$), 16 met the criteria for college readiness based on test scores; 19 met the criteria for college readiness based on GPA; and 8 met the criteria for college readiness based on test scores and GPA.

With respect to the research questions, 20 participants ($M = .43$) were considered college ready by meeting the criteria for ACT and GPA. Conversely, 38 participants ($M = .81$) were considered college ready by meeting the criteria for ACT or GPA. Due to the low number of participants, more judgment will have to be exercised when determining if the results presented are representative of the larger population (Valentine et al., 2015). Table four and five contain descriptive data for meeting college readiness criteria.

Table 4

Totals for College Readiness Criteria Met

| <u>ACT</u> | | <u>GPA</u> | | <u>Both</u> | |
|------------|------|------------|------|-------------|------|
| n | % | n | % | n | % |
| 23 | 46.9 | 27 | 55.1 | 20 | 40.8 |

Table 5

Totals for College Readiness Criteria Met by Black Participants

| <u>ACT</u> | | <u>GPA</u> | | <u>Both</u> | |
|------------|------|------------|------|-------------|------|
| n | % | n | % | n | % |
| 16 | 32.6 | 19 | 38.7 | 8 | 16.3 |

Crosstabulations were conducted to provide more context about the participants. Tables four and five contain data that provide the relation between race and college readiness. The percentages therein reveal a disproportionate racial distribution for Black participants when considering meeting college readiness criteria for ACT and GPA. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was not a significant relationship between race and college readiness (both), $\chi^2 (1, N= 47) = 2.650, p = .104$. When the criteria are expanded to consider meeting college readiness criteria for ACT or GPA, a greater percentage of Black participants was considered college ready. A chi-square test of independence revealed a significant relationship between race and college readiness (either), $\chi^2 (1, N= 47) = 4.256, p = .039$. The impact of these percentages will be addressed in Chapter 5.

Table 6

Crosstabulation of Race and College Readiness (ACT and GPA)

| Race | ACT and GPA | | χ^2 | ϕ |
|----------------------------|-------------|-------|----------|--------|
| | Yes | No | | |
| Black | 12 | 22 | 2.650 | -.237 |
| % within Race | 35.3% | 64.7% | | |
| % within College Readiness | 60.0% | 81.5% | | |
| Other | 8 | 5 | | |
| % within Race | 61.5% | 38.5% | | |
| % within College Readiness | 40.0% | 18.5% | | |

Table 7

Crosstabulation of Race and College Readiness (ACT or GPA)

| Race | ACT or GPA | | χ^2 | ϕ |
|----------------------------|------------|--------|----------|--------|
| | Yes | No | | |
| Black | 25 | 9 | 4.256 | -.301 |
| % within Race | 73.5% | 26.5% | | |
| % within College Readiness | 65.8% | 100.0% | | |
| Other | 13 | 0 | | |
| % within Race | 100.0% | 0.0% | | |
| % within College Readiness | 34.2% | 0.0% | | |

Participation in campus activities had the highest mean ($M = 16.45$), which represents the highest average rating for the academic support systems in the conceptual model. The higher average rating could indicate participants' more positive experiences or attitudes about the relevance or effectiveness of participating in campus activities outside of sports. Participation also had the lowest standard deviation ($SD = 4.08$), which shows the least amount of response variance compared to the other academic support systems in the conceptual model. The faculty mentor academic support system had the lowest mean ($M = 12.91$), which represents the lowest average rating within the conceptual model. The lower average rating could indicate participants' less positive experiences or attitudes about the relevance or effectiveness of having access to a faculty mentor. The standard deviation ($SD = 4.72$) for faculty mentor was the highest which shows the most response variance compared to the other academic support systems in the conceptual model. The descriptive statistics for the conceptual model are shown in Table 8.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for Conceptual Model

| Conceptual Model | <i>N</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|------------------------------------|----------|----------|-----------|
| Faculty Mentor | 45 | 12.91 | 4.72 |
| Positive Narratives | 44 | 14.68 | 4.09 |
| Balanced Emphasis | 41 | 16.24 | 4.67 |
| Self and Social Identity Lessons | 39 | 15.38 | 4.27 |
| Participation in Campus Activities | 44 | 16.45 | 4.08 |

Data Analysis

Each intervention within the conceptual framework was assessed through five questions. The first question gauged whether the participant had personal exposure to the intervention. The second question gauged if there was an intervention established at the participant's high school. The third question gauged the effectiveness of the intervention. The fourth question gauged whether the intervention increased college readiness for Black, male athletes. The fifth question gauged if the intervention was a priority for the principal or school leader.

Cronbach's Alpha was conducted to determine internal consistency of the survey instrument created for this study. Five separate reliability tests were to assess the five interventions within the conceptual framework.

The average rating for the Faculty Mentor predictor was 12.91 ($SD = 4.72$). The overall value of the Cronbach's alpha for Faculty Mentor was ($\alpha = .814$) which is considered acceptable (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). The Faculty Mentor subscale consisted of five items.

The average rating for the Positive Narrative predictor was 14.68 ($SD = 4.09$). The overall value of the Cronbach's alpha for Positive Narratives was ($\alpha = .719$) which is considered acceptable (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). The Positive Narrative subscale consisted of five items.

The average rating for the Balanced Emphasis predictor was 16.24 ($SD = 4.67$). The overall value of the Cronbach's alpha for Balanced Emphasis was ($\alpha = .802$) which is considered good (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). The Balanced Emphasis subscale consisted of five items.

The average rating for the Self and Social Identity predictor was 15.38 ($SD = 4.27$). The overall value of the Cronbach's alpha for Self and Social Identity was ($\alpha = .805$) which is considered good (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). The Self and Social Identity subscale consisted of five items.

The average rating for the Involvement in Campus Activities predictor was 16.45 ($SD = 4.08$). The overall value of the Cronbach's alpha for Involvement in Campus Activities was ($\alpha = .705$) which is considered acceptable (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). The Campus Activities subscale consisted of five items.

Five research questions were the subject of the data analyses of this study. For statistical purposes, participants were divided into two groups based on college readiness. The following sections present an analysis of the results (SPSS) used in testing each of the hypotheses.

Research Question 1: Is there a relationship between having a faculty mentor and college readiness for Black male student athletes?

A simultaneous logistic regression was conducted to ascertain the effect of having a faculty mentor on a dichotomous dependent variable – college readiness. For this logistic regression, college readiness was defined as having a GPA of 3.0 or higher and an ACT score of 21 or higher. The predictor variable included five questions which were computed into the FM

variable. The model for predicting college readiness was not significant, $\chi^2(2) = 2.690, p = .261$. Having a faculty mentor, as defined in the model, is not a significant predictor of college readiness. Regression coefficients, Wald statistics, odds ratio, and the 95% confidence intervals for the odds ratio are in Table 9.

Table 9

Logistic Regression Analysis of College Readiness (GPA, 3.0+ and ACT 21+) as a function of having a Faculty Mentor

| Variables | B | Wald | Odds Ratio | 95% Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio | |
|-----------|-------|------|------------|--|-------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| FM | -.067 | .912 | .935 | .815 | 1.073 |
| Constant | .281 | .090 | 1.324 | | |

Note. Wald (df = 1).

* $p < .05$

A simultaneous logistic regression was conducted to ascertain the effect of having a faculty mentor on a dichotomous dependent variable – college readiness. For this logistic regression, college readiness was defined as having a GPA of 3.0 or higher or an ACT score of 21 or higher. The predictor variable included five questions which were computed into the FM variable. The model for predicting college readiness was significant, $\chi^2(2) = 7.770, p = .021$. Having a faculty mentor, as defined in the model, is a significant predictor of college readiness. Regression coefficients, Wald statistics, odds ratio, and the 95% confidence intervals for the odds ratio are in Table 10.

Table 10

Logistic Regression Analysis of College Readiness (GPA, 3.0+ or ACT 21+) as a function of having a Faculty Mentor

| Variables | B | Wald | Odds Ratio | 95% Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio | |
|-----------|-------|-------|------------|--|-------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| FM | -.125 | 2.086 | .883 | .746 | 1.045 |
| Constant | 2.800 | 4.912 | 16.438 | | |

Note. Wald (df = 1).

* $p < .05$

Research Question 2: Is there a relationship between positive narratives and college readiness for Black male student athletes?

A simultaneous logistic regression was conducted to ascertain the effect of having exposure to positive narratives on a dichotomous dependent variable – college readiness. For this logistic regression, college readiness was defined as having a GPA of 3.0 or higher and an ACT score of 21 or higher. The predictor variable included five questions which were computed into the PN variable. The model for predicting college readiness was not significant, $\chi^2(2) = 3.261, p = .196$. Having exposure to positive narratives, as defined in the model, is not a significant predictor of college readiness. Regression coefficients, Wald statistics, odds ratio, and the 95% confidence intervals for the odds ratio are in Table 11.

Table 11

Logistic Regression Analysis of College Readiness (GPA, 3.0+ and ACT 21+) as a function of having exposure to Positive Narratives

| Variables | B | Wald | Odds Ratio | 95% Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio | |
|-----------|-------|-------|------------|--|-------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| PN | -.090 | 1.286 | .914 | .782 | 1.068 |
| Constant | .851 | .503 | 2.342 | | |

Note. Wald (df = 1).

* $p < .05$

A simultaneous logistic regression was conducted to ascertain the effect of having exposure to positive narratives on a dichotomous dependent variable – college readiness. For this logistic regression, college readiness was defined as having a GPA of 3.0 or higher or an ACT score of 21 or higher. The predictor variable included five questions which were computed into the PN variable. The model for predicting college readiness was significant, $\chi^2(2) = 7.632, p = .022$. Having exposure to positive narratives, as defined in the model, is a significant predictor of college readiness. Regression coefficients, Wald statistics, odds ratio, and the 95% confidence intervals for the odds ratio are in Table 12.

Table 12

Logistic Regression Analysis of College Readiness (GPA, 3.0+ or ACT 21+) as a function of having exposure to Positive Narratives

| Variables | B | Wald | Odds Ratio | 95% Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio | |
|-----------|------|------|------------|--|-------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| PN | .058 | .390 | 1.059 | .884 | 1.270 |
| Constant | .054 | .002 | 1.056 | | |

Note. Wald (df = 1).

* $p < .05$

Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between emphasis on academic and athletic balance and college readiness for Black male student athletes?

A simultaneous logistic regression was conducted to ascertain the effect of having an emphasis on academic and athletic balance on a dichotomous dependent variable – college readiness. For this logistic regression, college readiness was defined as having a GPA of 3.0 or higher and an ACT score of 21 or higher. The predictor variable included five questions which were computed into the BE variable. The model for predicting college readiness was not significant, $\chi^2(2) = -3.258, p = .196$. Having an emphasis on academic and athletic balance, as defined in the model, is not a significant predictor of college readiness. Regression coefficients, Wald statistics, odds ratio, and the 95% confidence intervals for the odds ratio are in Table 13.

Table 13

Logistic Regression Analysis of College Readiness (GPA, 3.0+ and ACT 21+) as a function of having an emphasis on Academic and Athletic Balance

| Variables | B | Wald | Odds Ratio | 95% Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio | |
|-----------|-------|------|------------|--|-------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| BE | -.066 | .832 | .936 | .812 | 1.079 |
| Constant | .491 | .159 | 1.634 | | |

Note. Wald (df = 1).

* $p < .05$

A simultaneous logistic regression was conducted to ascertain the effect of having an emphasis on academic and athletic balance on a dichotomous dependent variable – college readiness. For this logistic regression, college readiness was defined as having a GPA of 3.0 or higher or an ACT score of 21 or higher. The predictor variable included five questions which were computed into the BE variable. The model for predicting college readiness was significant, $\chi^2(2) = 7.296, p = .026$. Having an emphasis on academic and athletic balance, as defined in the model, is a significant predictor of college readiness. Regression coefficients, Wald statistics, odds ratio, and the 95% confidence intervals for the odds ratio are in Table 14.

Table 14

Logistic Regression Analysis of College Readiness (GPA, 3.0+ or ACT 21+) as a function of having an emphasis on Academic and Athletic Balance

| Variables | B | Wald | Odds Ratio | 95% Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio | |
|-----------|------|------|------------|--|-------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| BE | .050 | .321 | 1.051 | .884 | 1.250 |
| Constant | .098 | .004 | 1.103 | | |

Note. Wald (df = 1).

* $p < .05$

Research Question 4: Is there a relationship between self and social identity lessons and college readiness for Black male student athletes?

A simultaneous logistic regression was conducted to ascertain the effect of having a self and social identity lessons on a dichotomous dependent variable – college readiness. For this logistic regression, college readiness was defined as having a GPA of 3.0 or higher and an ACT score of 21 or higher. The predictor variable included five questions which were computed into the SSI variable. The model for predicting college readiness was significant, $\chi^2(2) = -8.668$, $p = .013$. Having self and social identity lessons, as defined in the model, is a significant predictor of college readiness. Regression coefficients, Wald statistics, odds ratio, and the 95% confidence intervals for the odds ratio are in Table 15.

Table 15

Logistic Regression Analysis of College Readiness (GPA, 3.0+ and ACT 21+) as a function of having Self and Social Identity Lessons

| Variables | B | Wald | Odds Ratio | 95% Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio | |
|-----------|-------|-------|------------|--|-------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| SSI | -.251 | 5.686 | .778 | .633 | .956 |
| Constant | 3.329 | 4.453 | 27.920 | | |

Note. Wald (df = 1).

* $p < .05$

A simultaneous logistic regression was conducted to ascertain the effect of having self and social identity lessons on a dichotomous dependent variable – college readiness. For this logistic regression, college readiness was defined as having a GPA of 3.0 or higher or an ACT score of 21 or higher. The predictor variable included five questions which were computed into the SSI variable. The model for predicting college readiness was significant, $\chi^2(2) = -6.137, p = .046$. Having self and social identity lessons, as defined in the model, is a significant predictor of college readiness. Regression coefficients, Wald statistics, odds ratio, and the 95% confidence intervals for the odds ratio are in Table 16.

Table 16

Logistic Regression Analysis of College Readiness (GPA, 3.0+ or ACT 21+) as a function of having Self and Social Identity Lessons

| Variables | B | Wald | Odds Ratio | 95% Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio | |
|-----------|-------|-------|------------|--|-------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| BE | -.058 | .332 | .943 | .774 | 1.150 |
| Constant | 1.949 | 1.400 | 7.021 | | |

Note. Wald (df = 1).

* $p < .05$

Research Question 5: Is there a relationship between participating in activities outside of sports and college readiness for Black male student athletes?

A simultaneous logistic regression was conducted to ascertain the effect of participating in activities outside of sports on a dichotomous dependent variable – college readiness. For this logistic regression, college readiness was defined as having a GPA of 3.0 or higher and an ACT score of 21 or higher. The predictor variable included five questions which were computed into the CA variable. The model for predicting college readiness was not significant, $\chi^2(2) = 5.031, p = .081$. Participating in activities outside of sports, as defined in the model, is a not significant predictor of college readiness. Race, a dichotomous categorical variable in the model, did not significantly add to the model ($p = .164$). Regression coefficients, Wald statistics, odds ratio, and the 95% confidence intervals for the odds ratio are in Table 17.

Table 17

Logistic Regression Analysis of College Readiness (GPA, 3.0+ and ACT 21+) as a function of Participating in Activities Outside of Sports

| Variables | B | Wald | Odds Ratio | 95% Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio | |
|-----------|-------|-------|------------|--|-------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| CA | -.153 | 3.128 | .858 | .724 | 1.017 |
| Constant | 1.935 | 1.881 | 6.924 | | |

Note. Wald (df = 1).

* $p < .05$

A simultaneous logistic regression was conducted to ascertain the effect of participating in activities outside of sports on a dichotomous dependent variable – college readiness. For this logistic regression, college readiness was defined as having a GPA of 3.0 or higher or an ACT score of 21 or higher. The predictor variable included five questions which were computed into the CA variable. The model for predicting college readiness was significant, $\chi^2(2) = 8.170, p = .017$. Participating in activities outside of sports, as defined in the model, is a significant predictor of college readiness. Race, a dichotomous categorical variable in the model, did not significantly add to the model ($p = .999$). Regression coefficients, Wald statistics, odds ratio, and the 95% confidence intervals for the odds ratio are in Table 18.

Table 18

Logistic Regression Analysis of College Readiness (GPA, 3.0+ or ACT 21+) as a function of Participating in Activities Outside of Sports

| Variables | B | Wald | Odds Ratio | 95% Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio | |
|-----------|-------|-------|------------|--|-------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| CA | -.131 | 1.517 | .877 | .712 | 1.081 |
| Constant | 3.128 | 2.825 | 22.824 | | |

Note. Wald (df = 1).

* $p < .05$

Summary of Data Analysis and Findings

Chapter 4 offers important findings about the relationship between college readiness and the components of the conceptual model for high school student-athlete college readiness. The survey instrument was created for this study; as a result, Cronbach’s Alpha was run to determine the internal reliability of the survey items – specifically the five items within each aspect of the conceptual model (faculty mentor, positive narratives, balanced emphasis on academics and athletics, self and social identity lessons, and participating in other campus activities). Each measure was determined to have internal reliability.

The research questions and hypotheses were tested in two ways with a Binary Logistic Regression. College readiness was defined in two ways: meeting the criteria for GPA and ACT (both); and meeting the criteria for GPA or ACT (either). College readiness was the criterion variable and each of the five interventions within the conceptual model was the predictor variable. No statistically significant relationship was found between meeting the college readiness criteria for both and faculty mentor, positive narratives, balanced emphasis on

academics and athletics, and participating in other campus activities. The relationship between meeting the college readiness criteria for both and self and social identity lessons was statistically significant. There was a statistically significant relationship between meeting the college readiness criteria for either and all five interventions within the conceptual model.

Chapter 5 offers conclusions on the results of this study. Recommendations and implications for further studies related to the topics of college readiness and preparation for Black male student athletes will also be presented.

CHAPTER V

Research Summary, Findings, and Implications for Further Research

This chapter presents a summary of the study and a description of the participants followed by conclusions based on the data analysis in Chapter 4. Finally, the researcher's implications and recommendations for further research will finalize the study.

Summary of the Study

The impact of high school academic support systems, particularly their capacity to increase the college readiness of Black male athletes, has not been adequately examined. The purpose of this quantitative study is to examine the high school academic support systems experienced by Black male athletes who competed in college athletics during the years of 2008-2018 to consider the quality of high school-based programs and their impact upon the college readiness of student-athletes. The study targets Black student athletes who have competed at all levels of collegiate athletics – NCAA Divisions 1, 2, and 3, NAIA, and Junior College. Including participants from all levels of competition will provide greater context for the findings and may also reveal useful comparative information which could affect future program implementation.

The proposed conceptual model for high school student-athlete college readiness focused on five academic support systems which are not curriculum-based. Theoretically, the five academic support systems should work in concert to buttress the curricular exposure students receive and increase college readiness through intentional, targeted pre-college experiences. Access to a faculty mentor (Carter-Francique et al., 2015); exposure to positive narratives (Harrison and Harrison, 2002) about Black athletes who have excelled beyond sport; motivation

to focus on academic and athletic balance (Hawkins, 2010); self and social identity lessons to influence self-concept (Bimper et al., 2011), and participation in campus activities outside of sports (Fuller et al., 2017) are all purported to have a positive impact on Black, male high school athletes as they prepare for college.

All five research questions were correlational -- dealing with relationships between each aspect of the conceptual model and college readiness. College readiness was evaluated in two ways: meeting the criteria for ACT and GPA (both); meeting the criteria for ACT or GPA (either). There were 10 total Binary Logistic Regressions run to test the null hypotheses. Of the 10 tests, six were statistically significant.

Self and social identity lessons revealed a statistically significant relationship for college readiness (both) and college readiness (either). College readiness (either) revealed a statistically significant relationship between access to a faculty mentor, exposure to positive narratives, emphasizing academic and athletic balance, and participating in campus activities outside of sports. All regressions for college readiness (either) revealed a statistically significant relationship. Comparatively, the statistically significant relationships correctly classified at least 65% of the predicted occurrences within the model.

Race did not significantly add to any of the regression models. The findings do not prove that race is not a predictor, or at least a contributing factor, when examining college readiness. Instead, the findings indicate the need for a more robust study. The number of total participants ($N = 49$) impacted the outcome. Moreover, Black participants ($N = 34$) made up 69% of the total participants. A larger sample size could provide more context and inform more reliable conclusions with respect to the population. However, the chi-square showed a majority of white participants meeting college readiness criteria within race. Despite being 26.5% of the sample,

white participants made up 40% of college ready (both) and 34.2% of college ready (either).

Findings

The results of this study are heavily influenced by the sample size ($N = 49$). Due to the low number of participants, more judgment will have to be exercised when determining if the effect sizes are large enough to be meaningful beyond the context of this study (Valentine et al., 2015). College ready (both) yielded only one significant relationship – self and social identity lessons; College ready (either) yielded significant relationships for all five models. While the study does not prove that exposure to, or positive perceptions, of the academic support systems determine college readiness, there is strong evidence for considering the proposed conceptual model. The study also provides a comparison point for defining college readiness. As state accountability models evolve across the country, there is an increasing focus on test scores such as ACT and SAT to determine if students will be classified as ‘ready graduates’. Mississippi’s accountability measures represent students’ performance on subject-area state assessments and participation in accelerated coursework. The Mississippi Department of Education (2021) website states school and district performance grades do not measure how well an individual student or teacher is doing; moreover, there is no consideration of meeting students’ socioemotional needs and performance in other areas. According to the Tennessee Department of Education (2019), the high school accountability model has six components – ready graduate is one component which is 20% of the model. To be a ready graduate, students can meet either of the following criteria: ACT composite of 21+, Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB) of 31+, successfully pass four Early Postsecondary (EPSO) courses, or gain two industry certifications. If schools are motivated to meet state accountability standards, then students are subjected to pressure and priorities which under-serve their needs. The

conceptualization of college readiness in the Mississippi and Tennessee models currently fails to account for the predictive nature of high school GPA and its impact on postsecondary success. As a result, high school students are presented with a limited perspective about which factors and attributes contribute to college readiness. Reducing college readiness to test scores, and not considering the predictive nature of GPA, may eliminate a significant portion of high school graduates from admission and scholarship opportunities – whether they plan to pursue collegiate athletics or not.

Mishook et al. (2012) suggested that GPA strongly correlates with a student's college readiness and eventual success as well. ACT (2017) asserted GPA (35%) and ACT (27%) are the greatest predictors of academic outcomes -- note the more significant impact of GPA. This is particularly impactful for athletes because the threshold for qualifying for scholarship consideration (2.3 GPA and 17 ACT) is well below the standard for college readiness (3.0 GPA and 21 ACT). This study provides support for defining college readiness as meeting the criteria for GPA or ACT. High school course grades more directly assess content knowledge and provide a measurement of motivation, effort, and participation (Maruyama, 2012). Single assessments tend to miscategorize and reduce the overall rate of identified college readiness. These trends contribute to negatively skewed data, especially for Black males, furthering the notion of an ability or achievement gap. Thus, highlighting the need for more expansive definitions of college readiness and leading to more positive data to describe the population.

Meeting the criteria for both ACT and GPA did not reveal a significant relationship to the proposed conceptual model. Crosstabulations revealed that 64.7% of Black participants did not meet the criteria for both; moreover, Black participants made up 100% of the sample not meeting college readiness when the criteria were expanded to meeting either. Black participants ($N = 34$)

made up 69% of the total participants, yet they only comprised 16.3% of the participants who met both college readiness criteria. On the other hand, 81% of Black participants met either of the college readiness criteria. The disproportionality of the data is consistent with literature and further highlights a leadership challenge and opportunity. A more expansive, intentional approach to programming and preparation for Black male student-athletes should be implemented to meet students' needs. Leaders should evaluate this data to influence relevant advocacy. Redefining college readiness is the first step. Students should be told that their prospects for success are not relegated to test scores. Students should be exposed to school-based initiatives which holistically develop their academic behaviors. School leaders have an ethical imperative to work daily to offset the data trends so college readiness is realistic and attainable for Black students – especially athletes.

Implications of the Study

Low sample size decreases the power of the statistics and invites the possibility of statistical outliers impacting the findings. Additionally, lack of statistical significance threatens the relevance of the findings beyond this study. Lack of statistical significance is not a disqualifier, though – there is still critical information to glean. Even with a small sample, there was disproportionate racial distribution of college readiness criteria met. This is consistent with the literature which suggests African-American students are the lowest scoring demographic on subtests and the number of benchmarks met on the ACT (ACT, 2015).

Critical questions should be posited now. How does racism manifest in college readiness? How are current practices continuing to prepare White students to benefit from the current system? Higher education has to grapple with a multi-faceted problem (Majors, 2019). Colleges and universities have shaped how readiness is conceptualized; secondary policymakers have

developed curriculum and accountability models for alignment. There is a need to at least expand, and at most, overhaul the system which has a preponderance of evidence indicating that Black students have less access – and even less success. Achieving the overhaul does not happen without centering Critical Race Theory.

Harrison et al. (2006) suggested the strongest predictor of college readiness is the high school GPA. Black athletes will not reach college readiness criteria without culturally-relevant, intentional programming which provides academic support systems. Comeaux and Harrison (2011) developed a college student-athlete academic success model which laid the groundwork for this study. This study was conducted to address a gap in literature and practice – there is no academic success model for high school student-athletes. This study represents an attempt to develop a new conceptual model focused on implementing interventions through academic support systems. The interventions purport to add to Black male athletes' cultural wealth by emphasizing the assets and tools which heighten self-worth and self-concept (Brooms & Davis, 2017). Instead of the typical deficit perspective focused on Black underachievement, this model is framed to accentuate the student-athletes' range of skills and interests, thereby developing a more college-ready, well-rounded individual with a greater likelihood of postsecondary success. Executing the conceptual model in practice is the next step to determining its strength and relevance. In order to move the conceptual model beyond theory, there is an educational leadership imperative. School leaders now have a point of reference to begin thinking and strategizing about how to serve the whole child and employ effective, culturally-responsive tactics to increase college readiness for Black athletes and increase academic success.

Recommendations for Further Research

Conceptualizing college readiness, especially for Black, male athletes, is a complex undertaking. Myriad factors impact an athlete's ability to succeed academically and in sport. While metrics may seem arbitrary, they are grounded in theory, statistically normed, and widely accepted. School leaders, student advocates, and concerned stakeholders must find a way to develop appropriate tools to equip and empower Black, male athletes to not only meet the metrics but also navigate the mental, social, and emotional aspects of pressure, expectations, and competition.

In order to gain more knowledge about increasing college readiness for Black, male athletes, there are some recommendations for further research. Extending and enhancing this study to incorporate larger, more representative samples of subjects could add power and validity to subsequent findings. This study should be replicated with modifications. Connecting directly with college teams – preferably multiple sports at each level of collegiate competition – could yield a larger participant pool and capture stronger data. Additionally, the survey instrument could be refined: adjust question clusters based on Cronbach's Alpha output to increase reliability; revise questions for brevity and clarity; and define terms (e.g. college readiness, self and social identity, narrative, balanced emphasis, and composite). Future research, if replicated with random sampling, could focus on three question types per academic support system:

1. Did you have exposure to the intervention?
2. Did your high school have this intervention available for student-athletes?
3. Does this intervention increase college readiness for Black, male student-athletes?

While these recommendations are not exhaustive, they are informed by the results and conclusions of this study.

The proposed conceptual model in this study focuses on the high school experience. Utilizing the high school conceptual model for student-athlete college readiness would be a necessary progression to the research and contribution to the literature. Incorporate the academic support systems from the model with a high school athletic program and incorporate all sports. The student-athletes would take the survey before and after intervention implementation. Developing relevant, aligned interventions will be critical. The literature review in this study provides theoretical and practical examples to guide researchers. Furthermore, the theoretical framework, Critical Race Theory, provides framing for effective development and implementation. Piloting this research at the high school level could provide a template for culturally-relevant student-athlete support and preparation for college.

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List of Appendices

Appendix A

Consent to Participate in Research

Appendix A

Consent to Participate in Research

Research Study Title: “Academic Support Systems and the College Readiness of African American Male Student Athletes”

Investigator

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Purpose of the Research Study

The purpose of this quantitative study is to examine the high school academic support systems experienced by college-ready African American male athletes who competed in college athletics during the years of 2008-2018. The study also particularly considers the quality of school-based programs and their impact upon the college readiness of student-athletes.

Procedures for the Research Study

1. Participants will be asked to complete an online survey.
2. Participants will receive an online link. Interested subjects will click on the link, answer the questions in the survey, and then click submit. Data will be collected electronically.
3. Participants will be asked to complete a survey which asks questions regarding type of school, sport(s) participation, GPA, ACT score, and perceptions about high school academic support systems for athletes.
4. There will be no photographs or audio or video recordings.

Time Required for the Research Study

This study will take about 10 minutes total.

Possible Risks from your Participation

There are no physiological or psychological risks involved in this study.

Benefits from your Participation

Your responses to this survey will help the researcher gain insight about how high schools can better prepare Black male athletes for college.

Confidentiality

All information in the study will be collected from you anonymously: it will not be possible for anyone, even the researchers, to associate you with your responses.

Right to Withdraw

You do not have to volunteer for this study, and there is no penalty if you refuse. If you start the study and decide that you do not want to finish, just close your web browser. Whether or not you participate or withdraw will not affect your current or future relationship with the University or Athletic Department, and it will not cause you to lose any benefits to which you are entitled.

IRB Approval

This study has been reviewed by The University of Mississippi's Institutional Review Board (IRB). The IRB has determined that this study fulfills the human research subject protections obligations required by state and federal law and University policies. If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights as a research participant, please contact the IRB at (662) 915-7482 or irb@olemiss.edu.

Please ask the researcher if there is anything that is not clear or if you need more information. When all of your questions have been answered, then decide if you want to be in the study or not.

Statement of Consent

I have read the above information. I have been given an unsigned copy of this form. I have had an opportunity to ask questions, and I have received answers. I consent to participate in the study. I am age 18 or older.

“CLICK HERE IF YOU AGREE TO PARTICIPATE”

Appendix B

Survey

Appendix B

**Identifying Effective Support Systems to Increase
Black Male Athletes' College Readiness**

Background Information

What sport(s) did you participate in during high school? (Mark all that apply)

| | | | |
|------------|----------|---------------|---------------|
| Baseball | Swimming | Football | Wrestling |
| Basketball | Golf | Track & Field | Powerlifting |
| Tennis | Hockey | Volleyball | Cross Country |
| Soccer | Lacrosse | Rugby | Bowling |
| Cheer | | | |

What sport(s) do/did you participate in during college? (Mark all that apply)

| | | | |
|------------|----------|---------------|---------------|
| Baseball | Swimming | Football | Wrestling |
| Basketball | Golf | Track & Field | Powerlifting |
| Tennis | Hockey | Volleyball | Cross Country |
| Soccer | Lacrosse | Rugby | Bowling |
| Cheer | | | |

What year did you graduate high school?

- **Type in Number _____**

What extracurricular clubs or activities did you participate in during high school? (Mark all that apply)

| | | |
|------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Band | Photography | ROTC |
| Choir | Dance | Poetry |
| Drama | STEM | FCA |
| Art Club | Science Olympiad | Church Group |
| Chess Club | Math Club | Boy Scouts |
| Key Club | Book Club | Speech & Debate |
| World Language Club | Anime Club | Mock Trial |
| 4H | Peer Tutor | Model United Nations |
| DECA | Mu Alpha Theta | HOSA |
| FBLA | Culinary Arts | OTHER |
| SGA | School Newspaper | |
| Beta Club | Yearbook | NO CLUBS OR |
| National Honor Society | School Radio Station | ACTIVITIES |
| Ambassadors | School TV Station | |

What extracurricular clubs or activities did/do you participate in during college? (Mark all that apply)

| | | |
|------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Band | Photography | ROTC |
| Choir | Dance | Poetry |
| Drama | STEM | FCA |
| Art Club | Science Olympiad | Church Group |
| Chess Club | Math Club | Boy Scouts |
| Key Club | Book Club | Speech & Debate |
| World Language Club | Anime Club | Mock Trial |
| 4H | Peer Tutor | Model United Nations |
| DECA | Mu Alpha Theta | HOSA |
| FBLA | Culinary Arts | OTHER |
| SGA | School Newspaper | |
| Beta Club | Yearbook | NO CLUBS OR |
| National Honor Society | School Radio Station | ACTIVITIES |
| Ambassadors | School TV Station | |

College Status (Select One)

- Division 1 Athlete
- Division 2 Athlete
- Division 3 Athlete

- NAIA
- Junior College

Ethnicity (Select All That Apply)

- Black or African American
- American Indian or Alaska Native

- Asian
- Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- White
- Hispanic or Latino
- Not Hispanic or Latino

College Readiness (Select one choice for each question)

ACT Composite Score (Highest is 36)

- Type in Number _____

ACT English Score (Highest is 36)

- Type in Number _____

ACT Reading Score (Highest is 36)

- Type in Number _____

ACT Math Score (Highest is 36)

- Type in Number _____

ACT Science Score (Highest is 36)

- Type in Number _____

ACT Writing Score (Highest is 12)

- Type in Number _____

What was your high school GPA?

- Type in Number _____

What was/is your college GPA?

- Type in Number _____

Academic Support Systems / Specific Programming for Athletes

Faculty Mentor

- 1a. There was an academic faculty mentor assigned to me during your high school athletic career.
- 1b. I would have preferred having a faculty mentor assigned to me during my high school athletic career.
- 1c. My high school had an established faculty mentoring program all athletes.
- 1d. My high school was effective in providing faculty mentoring for **all athletes**.
- 1e. My high school was effective in providing faculty mentoring for **Black male athletes**.
- 1f. Having a faculty mentor increases college readiness for **all athletes**.
- 1g. Having a faculty mentor increases college readiness for **Black male athletes**.
- 1h. My principal/school leader placed high priority on having a faculty mentor for **all athletes**.
- 1i. My principal/school leader placed high priority on having a faculty mentor for **Black male athletes**.

Exposure to Positive Narratives

- 2a. During high school, I was exposed to stories about successful athletes who succeeded academically and intellectually.
- 2b. During high school, I would have preferred to be exposed to stories about successful athletes who succeeded academically and intellectually.
- 2c. My high school intentionally shared stories about successful Black male athletes who succeeded academically and intellectually.
- 2d. My high school was effective in providing **all athletes** with exposure to stories about successful Black male athletes who succeeded academically and intellectually.
- 2e. My high school was effective in providing **Black male athletes** with exposure stories about successful Black male athletes who succeeded academically and intellectually.
- 2f. Exposure to stories about successful Black male athletes who succeeded academically and intellectually increases college readiness for **all athletes**.
- 2g. Exposure to stories about successful Black male athletes who succeeded academically and intellectually increases college readiness for **Black male athletes**.

2h. My principal/school leader placed high priority on exposing **all athletes** to stories about successful Black male athletes who succeeded academically and intellectually.

2i. My principal/school leader placed high priority on exposing **Black male athletes** to stories about successful **Black male athletes** who succeeded academically and intellectually.

Balanced Emphasis on Academics and Sports

3a. During high school, I was encouraged to have a balanced emphasis on academics and sports.

3b. During high school, I would have preferred to have a balanced emphasis on academics and sports.

3c. My high school had an established academic program specifically for athletes.

3d. My school was effective in providing balanced emphasis on academics and sports for **all athletes**.

3e. My school was effective in providing balanced emphasis on academics and sports for **Black male athletes**.

3f. A balanced emphasis on academics and sports increases college readiness for **all athletes**.

3g. A balanced emphasis on academics and sports increases college readiness for **Black male athletes**.

3h. My principal/school leader placed high priority on a balanced emphasis on academics and sports for **all athletes**.

3i. My principal/school leader placed high priority on a balanced emphasis on academics and sports for **Black male athletes**.

Self and Social Identity Lessons

4a. I was involved in lessons about developing a positive self and social identity while in high school.

4b. I would have preferred to have lessons about developing a positive self and social identity while in high school.

4c. My high school had an established program to educate athletes about developing a positive self and social identity.

4d. My high school was effective in providing self and social identity lessons for **all athletes**.

4e. My high school was effective in providing self and social identity lessons for **Black male athletes**.

4f. Self and social identity lessons increase college readiness for **all athletes**.

4g. Self and social identity lessons increase college readiness for **Black male athletes**.

4h. My principal/school leader placed high priority on self and social identity lessons for **all athletes**.

4i. My principal/school leader placed high priority on self and social identity lessons for **Black male athletes**.

Involvement in Campus Activities Other than Sports

5a. I was encouraged to participate in campus activities other than sports while in high school.

5b. I would have preferred to participate in campus activities other than sports while in high school.

5c. My high school had an established program to involve athletes in campus activities other than sports.

5d. My high school was effective in involving **all athletes** in campus activities other than sports.

5e. My high school was effective in involving **Black male athletes** in campus activities other than sports.

5f. Involvement in campus activities other than sports increases college readiness for **all athletes**.

5g. Involvement in campus activities other than sports increases college readiness for **Black male athletes**.

5h. My principal/school leader placed high priority on involving **all athletes** in campus activities other than sports.

5i. My principal/school leader placed high priority on involving **Black male athletes** in campus activities other than sports.

Scale

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

VITA

Derek L. King

Education

| | | |
|------|---|--------------|
| 2014 | The University of Mississippi Major: Educational Leadership | Ed.S. |
| 2012 | The University of Mississippi Major: Curriculum & Instruction | M.A. |
| 2010 | Rhodes College Major: Psychology Minor: African-American Studies | B.A. |

Certifications

Tennessee Educator Licensure in the following areas:
ILL-B Beginning Administrator

Mississippi Educator Licensure in the following areas:
Administrator; English (7-12); Psychology (7-12)

Professional Experience

| | |
|------------------|---|
| 6/2017 – Present | Shelby County Schools, Memphis, TN <i>Southwind High School</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Vice Principal▪ Advanced Academics Coordinator▪ ELA / ESL Instructional Lead▪ Senior Administrator▪ Coordinator of School Counselors▪ Master Scheduler▪ ILT and PD Lead |
|------------------|---|

- 6/2016 – 5/2017 **Memphis Scholars, Memphis, TN**
Memphis Scholars Raleigh-Egypt Middle School
- Director of Culture
 - Head Football/Baseball Coach
 - English Department Instructional Lead
- 1/2015-5/2016 **North Panola School District, Sardis, MS**
North Panola Junior High School
- Assistant Principal
- 3/2012-5/2016 **North Panola School District, Sardis, MS**
North Panola High School
- English Instructional Coach (2014)
 - Administrative Intern (2013-2014)
 - 9th Grade Honors English Teacher (2012)
 - 10th Grade English Teacher (2013)
 - Head Football Coach (2012 – 2016)
 - Head Track Coach (2012 – 2016)
- 4/2012 **Channel One News, Manhattan, NY**
Education Roundtable
- Discuss national educational issues
 - Discuss international educational issues
 - Taped live and broadcast internationally
- 5/2011-5/2012 **Tate County School District, Senatobia, MS**
Coldwater High School
- 9th, 10th, 11th Grade English Teacher (Department Chair)
 - Assistant Football Coach (Special Teams Coordinator/Receivers/Linebackers)
 - Assistant Baseball Coach
 - Assistant Track Coach (Sprinters/Jumpers)
 - School Improvement Grant (SIG) Leadership Team
- 8/2010-5/2011 **Marshall County School District, Holly Springs, MS**
Byhalia Middle School
- 7th Grade Reading Teacher
 - Head Track & Field Coach
 - Strength and Conditioning Coordinator
 - Assistant Football Coach (Offensive Coordinator)
 - High School Assistant Football (Receivers/Special Teams)

Research Experience

1/2010-5/2010

Rhodes College, Memphis, TN

Advanced Research Methods: Tip of the Tongue States and Proper Names

Supervisor: Kathryn White, Ph.D.

- Completing a research project for an advanced experimental methods research course
- Duties: Participate in research meetings, plan and develop research study and hypotheses, conduct literature review, counterbalance materials, collect, code and analyze data, prepare a poster presentation and manuscript
- The goal of this project is to present the results at the Rhodes College Undergraduate Research and Creative Symposium (URCAS) and write a manuscript for publication

8/2009-5/2010

Rhodes College, Memphis, TN

Member of the Social Justice Research Team

Supervisor: Mistie Germek, Ph.D.

- Collaborating with five students and one faculty member on a research project that will explore the impact of racism and classism on overall mental health of undergraduate students
- Duties: Survey development and disbursement, data collection, creation of PASW code sheet, data entry, data analysis
- The goal of this project is to present the results at the American Psychological Association's Annual Convention in Washington, D.C. and to publish the results in the Journal of Higher Education

8/2009-12/2009

Rhodes College, Memphis, TN

Research Methods: Personal College Success

Supervisor: Bette Ackerman, Ph.D.

- Completed a research project that examined student success based on factors other than GPA by using the CIRP Freshman survey and the Rhodes College Alumni Survey.
- Duties: Conducted literature review, data collection and analysis, created final research paper, created poster summarizing the study

Professional Presentations

King, D. L. (2009) *Expectations and Outcomes: An Analysis of Personal College Success*.
Research presented at Rhodes College Psychology Department Research Conference.

Professional Awards

| | |
|---------|--|
| 12/2012 | Coach of the Year , Panola County, MS |
| 12/2013 | Coaching Staff of the Year , Panola County, MS |
| 12/2014 | Academic Excellence in Educational Leadership , University of Mississippi |
| 3/2016 | Inaugural Andy P. Mullins Scholarship , University of Mississippi |
| 10/2020 | New Memphis Educator of Excellence , New Memphis Institute |