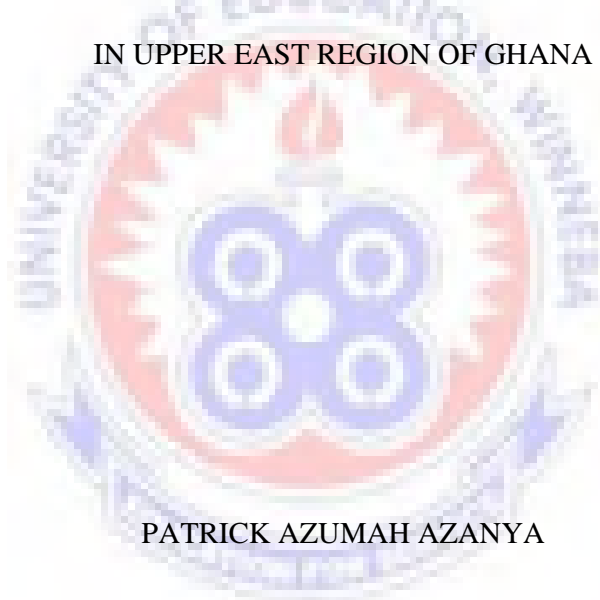


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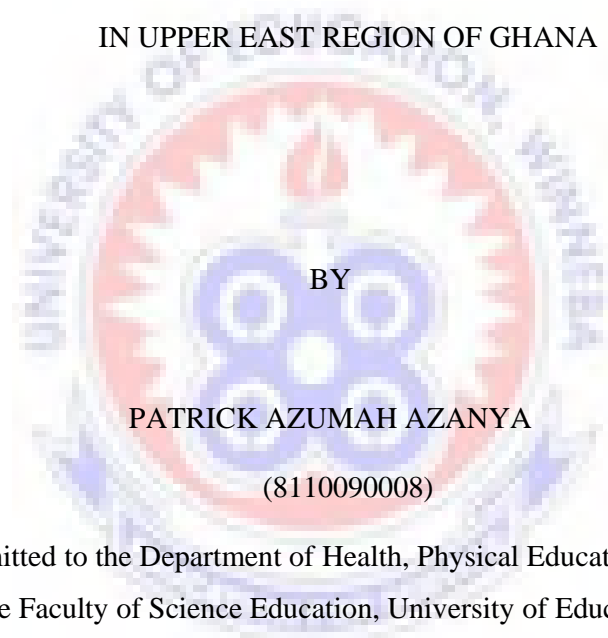
PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES OF TUTORS OF COLLEGES OF EDUCATION  
TOWARDS STUDENT-ATHLETES IN SELECTED VARIABLES OF BEHAVIOUR  
IN UPPER EAST REGION OF GHANA



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BY

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Thesis submitted to the Department of Health, Physical Education, Recreation and  
Sports of the Faculty of Science Education, University of Education, Winneba, in  
partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy Degree, in  
Physical Education

JULY, 2013

## DECLARATION

### CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I, Patrick Azumah Azanya declare that this Thesis, with the exception of quotation and references contained in published works, which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and has not been submitted, either in part or whole for another degree elsewhere.

CANDIDATE'S SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....

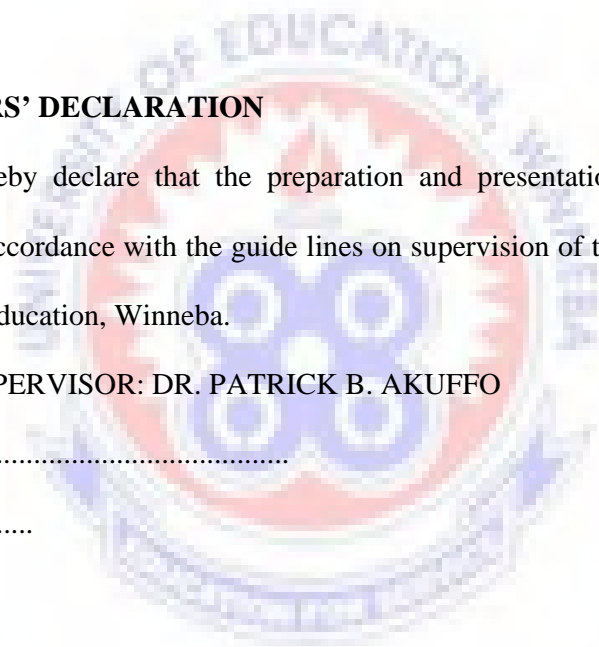
### SUPERVISORS' DECLARATION

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guide lines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: DR. PATRICK B. AKUFFO

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....



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My deepest love and gratitude also go to my wife Halimatu without whom this endeavour would not have been possible. For all of her support during this entire process, for her financial assistance, I am ever so grateful. I wish to also extend my appreciation to my parents who have supported my efforts over the years by giving me their prayers, time, and instilling within me a love for learning.

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I want to also recognise the important role played by my colleagues, Mercy, Zakaria, Michael (aka Bazooka), Stephen and Samuel for the love and oneness they exhibited throughout our stay.

## **DEDICATION**

This Thesis is dedicated to my beloved wife, Ayumah Halimatu and children:

Bazanyeya Likazina Portia

Bazanyeya Akatamug Polycarp and

Bazanyeya Adelwin Philander



## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>Content</b>	<b>Page</b>
DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iii
DEDICATION	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
ABSTRACT	ix
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
Background of Study	1
Statement of Problem	6
Purpose of Study	7
Research Questions	7
Significance of the Study	8
Delimitations of the Study	8
Limitations	9
Operational Definition of terms	10
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	11
Conceptual Framework	11
Teacher Perceptions about Student-athletes and Academic Work	16
Teacher Attitude Towards Student-athletes	32
Academic Support Programmes for Student-athletes	55



Recommendations	106
Suggestions for Further Research	107
REFERENCES	108
APPENDICES	125
A    Letter of Introduction to the Two Colleges	125
B (I) Questionnaire for Tutors of Colleges of Education	126
B (II) Questionnaire for Student-Athletes and Non-Athletes	131
C    Descriptive Statistics	136





## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table</b>	<b>Page</b>
1 Teacher Trainees by College Population and Sample Size	68
2 Tutors by College Population and Sample Size	68
3 Rating Scale for the Reponses	70
4 Tutor Perceptions of Effects of Athletic Participation on Student Achievement	78
5 Tutor Responses on Student-athletes Ability to Combine Academics and Athletics	78
6 Tutors Response on Negative Effective Effects Athletics have on Student-athletes	79
7 Students Responses on Whether Tutor Attitudes Dictate their Class Performance	80
8 Correlations on Selected Attitudinal Variables	81
9 Tutors Responses on Academic Support Programmes Available to Student-athletes in Colleges of Education	84

## **ABSTRACT**

This study investigated the perceptions and attitudes of tutors of Colleges of Education towards student-athletes in selected variables of behaviour in the Upper East Region of Ghana. A quantitative research approach was used for the study. The research techniques used were the descriptive method along with the correlation method. The significance of the study was that it would provide insights to tutors on how they can adopt a favourable attitude towards students who participate in athletics. The study again would provide invaluable information which can serve as basis for planning in-service training for tutors of Colleges of Education to upgrade their professional competencies with regard to modifying their teaching methodology vis-a-vis the organisation of sporting activities in the colleges. The study would also provide data which can serve as a springboard for further research into other areas of physical education. Three research questions were raised. The instruments used were questionnaires for both students and tutors. Data was analysed using descriptive statistics and correlations. The descriptive statistical analysis revealed that indeed tutors' had a negative perception and attitude towards student-athletes. Only a few tutors' had a positive attitude towards student athletes. The findings of the study also revealed that students were affected by the tutors' attitudes and perceptions about them. Some recommendations were that there is the need to create awareness of the negative effects tutors' attitudes have on the academic lives and work of student- athletes. There is also the need to do away with the negative perceptions and attitudes of tutors against student-athletes in various schools, institutions, and colleges in Ghana. There is the need for schools, colleges and institutions to provide various support systems for student-athletes to help them combine athletics with their academic work.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background to the Study

Students of school going age in Ghana including those in the Upper East Region enjoy participating in athletics/sports. This is clearly observed especially at the basic level of the education and spans to the second cycle institutions. The desire for participation in athletics by students in the Upper East Region and Ghana in general is not different from this observation. This may be attributed to the numerous benefits athletics offer to the individual. The benefits span from self-recognition through the development of sound mind and wellness.

Athletics is the single most popular school-sponsored extracurricular activity, regardless of race, ethnicity, or gender (Miller, Melnick, Barnes, Farrell, and Sabo, 2005; Eide and Roman, 2001; Eccles and Barber, 1999). Even though there is high popularity of sport participation among the youth as observed earlier, the controversy over the effect of participation in athletics on academic progress and success continues to linger (Ward, 2008; Miller et al. 2005; Marsh, 1993). Though many studies have indicated that there exist positive correlations between high school athletic participation and academic performance, there still seems to be a question regarding the stigma attached to student-athletes and treatment of student-athletes by teachers on one hand and non-athletic students on the other. Research has noted that student-athletes are faced with negative stereotypes which depict them as low achievers academically and undeservingly privileged when it comes to academic requirements (Sherman, 1988; Simons, Bosworth, Fujita and Jensen, 2007;

Lawrence, Harrison, & Stone, 2009). Bowen & Levin (2005), produced convincing data in their book *Reclaiming the Game* that highlights certain tensions between academics and athletics. Some of the issues raised in this study relate to the difference in academic preparedness and performance for recruited athletes versus “walk-ons” in which recruited athletes tend to have more of an advantage when it comes to being admitted despite lower qualifications, and then subsequently demonstrate lower academic performance once they are enrolled.

Studies in the past have equally examined the relationship between participation in High School athletics and academic achievement by many researchers. Aries, McCarthy, Slovey, and Banaji (2004), found that all collegiate student-athletes involved underperformed academically. Cantor and Prentice (1996); Meyer (1990); and Parham (1993), determined that time demands of athletic programs make it difficult for the athletes to devote necessary study time. Pascarella, Bohr, Nora, & Terenzini (1995), reported that male football and basketball players read fewer texts or assigned books than male non-athletes.

One approach to solidifying the link between athletics and academic achievement involves looking at both as part of the development of the talent of a student. In this way, the literature finds that supportive experiences can serve as a catalyst to make the connection. According to Czikszentmihalyi, what it takes to assist in the development of a student-athlete is to make sure that the class is immediately enjoyable to him or her, and develop in them long-term goals (Olszewski-Kublius, 2004, p. 107). Participation in extracurricular activities is also said to increase the parent’s social capital and therefore their ability in “obtaining appropriate educational resources and additional opportunities for

their children” (Olszewski-Kublius, p. 107). Most importantly, however, research shows that children participate in extracurricular activities because these activities present them with a level of challenge not found in classrooms. They often make friends and become more connected at school too, as a result of participation. Others report that during extracurricular activities, including sports, they also “learn time management and other skills” which enhance their abilities with regard to academics (Olszewski-Kublius, p. 108). Overall, then, the conclusion of this literature is that students gain much from participation in sports, which cumulatively and positively impacts academics. However, in the study of gifted students, while it was found that their giftedness is apparently buoyed by participation in extracurricular activities, as they were “more likely to be involved in a variety of high school extracurricular activities compared to students with lower test scores” (Olszewski-Kublius, p. 109).

The kind of extracurricular activity that gifted children appear to participate in are related to their hobbies, and most often involving writing, drawing and mathematics (Olszewski- Kublius, 2004). Other qualifications of these findings with regard to gifted students is that all adolescent participation in sports declines in high school, with girls in particular moving in “academic clubs and activities” (Olszewski-Kublius, p. 109). These changes in participation levels are also true for gifted students. One twist however relates to the motivation of gifted students to be noticed for their work and receive awards for academic accomplishments. It is conjectured that gifted students may seek out recognition because they are “vulnerable to peer pressure due to their superior abilities” (Olszewski-Kublius, p. 110). This latter finding provides the rationale for an additional argument in how sports lead to stronger academics, but in a negative way). A more positive, but equally

circuitous route to prove that sports improves academics is provided by those researchers who note that sports serves as a marketing tool to attract better students to a school, including students with higher test scores (Rishe, 2001). In this stream of research, athletics is linked to graduation rates, and found to be beneficial to the overall graduation rate of the school.

But this is because a strong sports programme creates a high level of prestige which in turn attracts a higher calibre of students, academically speaking, to the institution. Moreover, “higher levels of academic success create a larger disparity between student-athlete and undergraduate graduation rates” at the college level (Rishe, p. 7).

The importance athletics play in the total development of an individual has been recognised by the Ministry of Education, hence its incorporation into both the primary and junior high schools in Ghana. The Ministry notes that, some of the reasons for offering Physical Education in schools are that:

- Physical Education improves the general health of the individual, improves the general health of a community leading to lower absenteeism from school and work,
- serves as basis for the training of potential athletes for clubs and the nation imparts a healthy and positive attitude of mind that helps academic work in school.
- The freedom to develop physical, intellectual and more powers through Physical Education and Sports must be guaranteed both within the educational system and in other aspects of social life” (Ministry of Education, 2007).

Studies have shown that “the time demands of athletic programmes force student-athletes to sacrifice attention to academics, making it difficult for them to devote time to study or earn good grades” (Aries & McCarthy, et al., 2004, p. 528). This problem is

exacerbated if the student was granted some form of scholarship that overlooked his or her “less impressive academic records” or if they play in one of the high-profile money sports like basketball or football (Aries & McCarthy, et al., p. 528). Studies on the college level have also shown that as student-athletes move through college, the gap between their level of academic achievement and that of the non-athletic student increases (Aries & McCarthy, et al., 2004). Still other studies have found that student-athletes also underachieve outside the classroom, with indexes showing slower rates of personal growth, and that student-athletes remains less open to diversity and have low levels of self-understanding (Aries & McCarthy, et al., 2004). Along this line of research, the fact that athletes often “form a separate subculture” has been found to contribute to the downward spiral of achievement in many life skill areas among student-athletes (Aries & McCarthy, et al., p. 578). Not only does this subculture isolate student-athletes from non-athletic peers, but it encourages negative, insulated behaviour such as binge drinking (Aries & McCarthy, et al., 2004). In a study of high-commitment athletes in a Division III college level Aries & McCarthy, et al. (2004) found that these student-athletes, as a result of their lifestyle on campus, “had lower verbal SAT scores, to a lesser degree lower math SAT scores, and lower self-assessments of their academic skills” (p. 596). These athletes also reported that their isolation contributed to poor academic performance, as they experienced problems such as “being taken seriously by professors (Aires & McCarthy, et al., p. 590).” While these results would seem to negate the argument that participation in athletics helps improve academics, Aries & McCarthy, et al. (2004) do point out that this deficit vanishes when student-athlete academic performance is compared, not to the whole nonathletic student body, but to students with comparable demographic profiles and SAT scores upon entering college.

When such pre-college differences were taken into consideration, researchers found “no differences between the academic achievement of intercollegiate athletes and non-athletes” (Aries & McCarthy, et al., p. 597). Other studies find that high-commitment student athletes also spend enough time in other extracurricular activities to counteract the purported isolation of the sports subculture.

College student- athletes are under significant pressure to perform both inside and outside the classroom. Unlike the traditional college student population, student -athletes who compete in sports at the collegiate level must face an additional and unique collection of challenges and demands that may require special attention and support (Broughton & Neyer, 2001; Carodine, Almond, & Gratto, 2001). Student-athletes must learn to balance both academic and athletic responsibilities.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Majority of the studies that have been conducted on the relationship between teacher attitudes and student-athletes’ academic performance have been conducted in the western countries focusing mainly on grade school or secondary school students

Some students admitted into CoE have the desire to combine their academic work with their God giving talents in the area of athletics. However, from the researcher’s experience as a Physical Education tutor in the CoE for the past eight years, some tutors’ attitudes towards students’ involvement in sporting activities in CoE in Ghana generally and Upper East Region in particular, prevented potential student-athletes from actively participating in athletics. Those who accept to participate in athletics do it with some lukewarm attitude because they feel that they may fall short in their academic subject



areas. Most students raise concerns about tutors organising classes and sometimes quizzes at the time the students are supposed to be deeply involved in sporting/athletics activities, creating panic and fear in them. All these are aimed to discourage students from exhibiting their talents in sports and athletics. As a physical education teacher, the researcher has often encountered some resistance from colleague tutors during sporting times. Negotiating with colleagues to organise quizzes for student-athletes who are engaged in national or school sporting activities and without writing quizzes done by their non athlete colleagues have always been problematic. It appears many tutors often treat student-athletes with contempt, scorn and disdain.

### **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to investigate how tutors perceptions and attitudes influence student-athletes academic work at the Colleges of Education in the Upper East Region of Ghana. Specifically, the study looked at the attitudes of tutors of CoE towards student-athletes.

### **1.4 Research Questions**

Answers were sought to the following research questions:

1. What are the perceptions tutors of Colleges of Education have on college student-athletes?
2. What is the relationship between tutors' attitude towards student-athletes' in confidence, motivation, value and expectation?
3. What academic support do student-athletes receive in the Colleges of Education?

### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

Taking tutor attitudes towards student-athletes into account will help tutors to be more tactful and approach the student-athletes with the attitude that will help them learn. The study was to bring to the fore what existed with regard to the attitude of tutors towards students who participate in athletic activities. Specifically, the study would provide insights to tutors on how they can adopt a favourable attitude towards students who participate in athletics. The study would also provide information which can serve as basis for planning in-service training for tutors of Colleges of Education to upgrade their professional competencies with regard to modifying their teaching methodology vis-a-vis the organisation of sporting activities in the colleges. Finally, the study will provide data which can serve as a springboard for further research into other areas of physical education.

### **1.6 Delimitations of the Study**

The researcher would have wished to do the study in all the colleges of Education in Ghana, but owing to limited time to write and present the thesis and also financial constraints, the study was delimited to only second year students in two selected Colleges of Education in Upper East Region of Ghana. Only six attitudinal variables (tutor confidence in handling student-athletes, tutor motivation of student-athletes, tutor value of student-athletes, tutor expectations from student-athletes, tutor usefulness in handling student-athletes, and tutor understanding of student-athletes) were considered. These variables were considered because they dealt directly with the tutor's effort towards handling of student-athletes in the classroom.

## 1.7 Limitations

The limitations of this study warrant discussion and suggest the need for caution when interpreting the results. The findings of this study could only be limited within the selected colleges, but not all colleges in Ghana because of the purposive sampling and stratified sampling and simple random sampling techniques used for selecting the colleges and the respondents.

A scientific approach to studying attitude towards learning according to Braginsky and Braginsky (1974) should have an insight to deal with the facts rather than with what someone has said about them. Thus it could be possible that combination of different techniques (like questionnaire and observation) could produce better result than what has been produced by the questionnaire alone. That means there is no guarantee that errors will not occur no matter how well thought out the researcher is speaking on prediction. Braginsky and Braginsky argued that, generalization may distort and obscure those which the researcher wants to understand. However, they quickly added that, statistical procedures do not assure “truth”. Citing the views of other authorities on the contention that, logical errors may occur when generalizing from a small sample to a large universe especially when the studies is about people. The researcher was mindful of the fact that there are no known measurements of the attitude of human beings that can be used accurately.

Another problem was the interval nature of the instrument. The interval between strongly agree and agree may not be equal to the interval between agree and disagree or the spread of the responses, limited respondents options. The transformation of negative statement into the same variable group may have effect on the results which may not be

easily known. Therefore, there were likely to be gaps in the data collection, analysis and interpretation. All unanswered statements were assumed and interpreted as neutral response which may influence the result.

I encountered certain difficulties during the data collection in St. John Bosco's College of Education even though arrangement had been made earlier. It was difficult to get some of the respondents who were willing to return their questionnaire.

### **1.8 Definition of Terms**

**Academic performance:** performance of students in Colleges of Education as determined by the grade point average (GPA) of students.

**Attitude:** a feeling toward some object, person, or behavior that is favorable, unfavorable, or neutral (Pryor & Pryor, 2005).

**Athletic participation:** an engagement in one or more college sports programmes. points earned by the total number of credits attempted by a college student.

**Perceptions:** they are the impressions or feelings people make about somebody or something using their senses

**Social cognitive theory:** thought processes about other people, ourselves, and social situations. It is intimately related to the topic of attitudes, for social perceptions, beliefs, and attributions comprise the cognitive components on which attitudes are based (Oskamp & Schultz, 2005).

**Student-athlete:** Students in Colleges of Education who participate actively in at least one sports discipline for the college.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to investigate how tutors perceptions and attitudes influence student-athletes academic work at the Colleges of Education in the Upper East Region of Ghana. Specifically, the study looked at the attitudes of CoE tutors towards student-athletes.

This Chapter concentrated on review of relevant literature pertinent to the area of study. The researcher has tried to evaluate previous studies, observations, opinions and comments related to this research. Literature review is necessary to avoid the risk of duplicating previous studies, using unproductive techniques, and therefore not contributing much to the advancement of human knowledge. It is also to acknowledge works of other authorities so as to avoid plagiarism. The literature was therefore reviewed on conceptual framework and on the following guides:

- Teacher perceptions about student-athletes and academic work
- Teacher attitudes towards student-athletes in class activities
- Academic support programmes for student-athletes

#### 2.1 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study was taken from research on social cognitive theory and motivation theory. On the social cognitive theory, Wood and Bandura (1989), contended that, "Social cognitive theory explains psychosocial functioning in terms of triadic reciprocal causation" (p. 361). In this model, behaviour, cognition, and

environment interact together with varying strength. Wood and Bandura stated, "In the analysis of the personal determinant in this interactional causal structure, social cognitive theory accords a central role to cognitive, vicarious, self regulatory and self-reflective processes" (p. 362). In social cognitive theory there is an interaction between thought and behaviour (Bandura, 1989). Oskamp and Schultz (2005), defined social cognition as, "Thought processes about other people, ourselves, and social situations. It is intimately related to the topic of attitudes, for social perceptions, beliefs, and attributions comprise the cognitive components on which attitudes are based" (p. 19). Attitudes may occur from cognitive, affective or behavioural processes (Oskamp & Schultz, 2005). The authors further explained:

Social cognition is the process by which we understand people and social situations, and it forms the cognitive basis of our attitudes. It begins with perception, which selects stimuli and imparts meaning to them; but, particularly in the social realm, perception can introduce error into our thinking, (p. 42).

Social cognitive theory highlights the importance of cognition as a dynamic influence in a person's reality, how they process information, and form values and expectations. Social cognitive theory incorporates the concept of self-efficacy. Bandura (2001) stated:

Efficacy beliefs also play a key role in shaping the courses lives take by influencing the types of activities and environments people choose to get into. Any factor that influences choice behaviour can profoundly affect the direction of personal development. This is because the social influences operating in selected environments continue to promote certain competencies, values, and interests long after the decisional determinant has rendered its inaugurating effect, (p. 8).

Self-efficacy beliefs influence the choices people make, how they behave, their motivation, thoughts, and emotional responses (Goddard et al., 2000; Pajares, 2002).

Positive teacher attitudes associated with teaching and learning abilities are related to greater teacher efficacy (Guskey, 1984). Positive self efficacy beliefs are linked to positive teacher attitudes (Chen & Chang, 2006).

Attitudes are a psychosocial function explained through social cognitive theory. Within this theory attitudes are explained by the interaction between thinking, behaviour, and surroundings. Through these connections attitudes are formed and expressed (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Attitudes influence behaviours and motives (Oskamp & Schultz, 2005). Social cognitive theory underlines the internal standards that guide an individual's behaviour (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

The second conceptual model presumes that, all student-athletes do not share the same motivation or reasons for attending college and participating in their sport. Instead, college athletes vary in the amount of motivation exhibited towards sports and academics.

Inevitably, some student-athletes attend college for the sole purpose of making it to the professional level in their sport. Often this type of student-athlete often neglects his/her academic responsibilities, placing all effort and time into pursuing athletic dream. Student-athletes with the sole goal of playing professional sports are mainly concerned with doing enough in the classroom to maintain eligibility to compete. Student-athletes characterised as such are less concerned with making actual progress toward completion of a college degree.

There are also students who are motivated to play their sport and equally motivated to obtain a college degree. This type of student-athlete desires to do well both in the classroom and on the field. Student-athletes who exhibit more of a balance between academics and athletics have dual goals of completing a college degree and achieving a high level of performance in their sport.

On the other end of the continuum, are student-athletes who are most concerned with completing a college degree. This type of student-athlete may use their sport as a means to complete a college degree, and is less concerned with being a super-star on the team. An example would be a football player with a 3.8 grade point average who is perfectly content with sitting on the bench for the majority of the season. This type of student-athlete is clearly more motivated to earn a college degree and is likely using athletic grant-in-aid to finance his/her education.

These three types of attitudes exhibited by student-athletes exist at varying degrees on most college campuses across the country; however, there is no current way of measuring student-athletes' motivation toward sports and academics. Academic and athletic motivation is characterised by the amount of energy student-athletes put forth toward academic and athletic tasks, and are not the same for every student-athlete.

The field of motivation, when applied to college athletes, has the potential to help us understand why some student-athletes do or do not perform poorly in academic and/or athletic tasks. This study used theories of achievement motivation to examine the athletes and behaviour of student-athletes toward performing academic and athletic tasks. A basic assumption of achievement motivation theory is motivation toward a given task can be



determined by an individual's choice of persistence on, and the amount of effort applied to the task (Silva & Weinberg, 1984; Weiner, 1984).

Expectancy value theory is an achievement motivation theory focusing on an individual's perception about a given task based on the value associated with completion of that task (Rotter, 1954). For example, student-athletes who participate in revenue producing sports may work hard at making it to the professional level because they value the extrinsic rewards (e.g., financial, social status, etc) associated with playing at an elite level in sports such as football and basketball.

However, what happens if a student-athlete realises that he/she will not make it to an elite level of professional or Olympic competition? Attribution theory is also an achievement motivation theory which postulates that individuals have certain beliefs about the causes of their successes and failures (Weiner, 1984). Based on these beliefs, individuals make a choice whether to approach success or avoid failure. Individuals who choose to approach success tend to attribute success to ability and effort, and attribute failure to a lack of hard work and effort. Those who choose to avoid failure to luck or chance, and attribute failure to lack of ability.

For example, according to this theory, if a student-athlete who did not make it to the professional level was motivated to avoid failure, he/she would attribute his/her failure to lack of ability. However, if the student-athlete was motivated to approach success, he/she would likely attribute failure to not working hard enough or putting forth enough effort.

If the student-athlete happened to make it to the professional level, but was motivated to avoid failure, he/she would likely attribute this success to luck or chance. But if the student-athlete was motivated to approach success and made it to the professional

level, he/she would likely attribute this success to ability and applied effort. The two variations in attitude are very different in nature and can have a direct impact on an individual's self-esteem and self-worth.

Another related achievement motivation theory is self-efficacy, which is based on the assumption that individuals make judgments about their ability to successfully complete a task (Bandura, 1986). Based on this theory, individuals avoid tasks they do not believe they can complete successfully, but become involved in tasks they believe they can complete successfully. For example, if a student-athlete believes that he/she is not capable of doing well in the classroom, he/she may avoid academic tasks. On the other hand, a super-star athlete will put forth a great deal of energy towards excelling in football because he knows he is good. A star student and athlete will place time and energy into both realms.

## **2.2 Teachers Perceptions about Student-athletes and Academic**

Colleges of Education place a heavy burden on student-athletes because they are expected to be both successful in the academic as well as the athletic domain. They must meet the same academic demands as other students despite their devotion in extensive time and energy to their sport, spending time away from classes for athletic competitions to make name for themselves and their respective colleges. In an article published in 2005 by Lawry, it was stated that universities have spent enormously on student-athletes in an attempt to aid them in achieving scholastic benchmarks.

General perceptions of student-athletes are primarily centred on academic capability and motivation, but they are also viewed as being socially inept (Sellers, 1992). Faculty may have more negative attitudes toward college student-athletes than other

students, administrators, and alumni (Leach & Conners, 1984). The inherent mismatch between the student outcomes of athletics and academia may explain the root of these generalized perceptions by faculty members (Leach & Conners, 1984). Engstrom, Sedlacek, and McEwen (1995), found that faculty had negative perceptions of male student-athletes regarding services provided for student-athletes, the provision of full athletic scholarships, university admission despite low SAT scores, their ability to receive an “A” in a class, and receiving public attention for athletic accomplishments. Although these stereotypes are for male student-athletes, these perceptions by faculty provide a starting point for understanding the classroom environment for all student-athletes.

However, McMillen (1991) concluded high school athletics are negatively impacting the achievement of students. McMillen asserted that student-athlete eligibility requirements are not adequate, and a discrepancy exists between athletic success and academic achievement. Gehring (2001) stated high school student-athletes are financially and academically exploited by schools and communities. The factors contributing to the exploitation of student-athletes are as follows:

- a. schools beholden to the financial rewards of sporting events and demonstrating academic neglect for student athlete academic achievement,
- b. parents seeking an athletic scholarship for their student-athlete,
- c. the expectations of community members and booster clubs to produce winning programmes,
- d. the salaries for coaches and schools unsuccessful management of funds,
- e. the pressure student athletes are enduring from community members, family members (Cook, 2003; Burgess, 2007; Gehring 2004a).

However, Sitkowski (2008) cited the positive effects of athletic participation for student-athletes as:

- self-discipline,
- self-confidence,
- lower dropout rates, and
- smaller percentages of drug and alcohol abuse.

Many people also draw conclusions to female student-athletes as studies done in the past have shown. Athletic environments for women are viewed as heterosexist and homonegative (Griffin, 1998; Krane & Barber, 2005; Wellman & Blinde, 1997) and can create a hostile environment for student-athletes perceived to be gay, lesbian, and bisexual. Female athletes are perceived to be lesbians and masculine, and these stereotypes are more prevalent for athletes participating in basketball, soccer, golf, and softball (Kauer & Krane, 2006). They are labelled manly, butch, dyke, or lesbo for participation these sports which are typically more aggressive or traditionally masculine in nature (Kauer & Krane, 2006).

This spending includes facilities, staff, advisors and tutors that are not readily available to the average student on campus. As a result, the question of academic integrity has been challenged in relation to the student-athlete because additional expenditures and resources are seen as unfair advantages offered to the student-athlete. Contrasting this research, however, Thomas (2008) contends that there are additional pressures that student-athletes face to succeed at the college level. Of the significant factors listed, many were associated with the inequitable treatment and requirements that student-athletes must endure. Some issues listed were: time required to achieve all athletic and academic demands, physical and emotional strain and academic competition with traditional students.

The author suggests that additional resources that are currently being offered to student-athletes are not only required, but are indispensable to level the academic playing field. If these “perks” are not provided, student-athletes are at risk to fall further behind traditional students (Thomas, 2008). In this way, what some perceive as preferential treatment, may be conversely argued as accommodating a unique population in need.

There have been several quantitative studies on how student-athletes are viewed by faculty (tutors) and students who are not athletes. Most studies employed versions of the Situational Attitude Scale (SAS) developed by Engstrom, Sedlacek, and McEwen (1995). The SAS consists of 10 statements describing situations related to athletes. These situations refer to perquisites and behaviours that are part of the dumb jock stereotype. They include driving an expensive sports car, receiving special tutoring, being admitted with lower College Board scores, etc. The respondent is asked to rate each statement on 10 five point semantic differential bipolar adjectives (happy – sad, good – bad, etc.) indicating their degree of positive or negative attitudes. The SAS has two or more forms in which one neutral form has a student as the actor in each situation. The other forms can have athletes, or subcategory of athletes, i.e. revenue, non revenue, male or female. More negative rating of the athlete compared to the neutral form is taken as an indicator of negative perceptions of athletes.

Engstrom, Sedlacek, and McEwen (1995) used the SAS to examine faculty perceptions of athletes at a large public Division 1-A university. They found negative faculty perceptions that revolved around athletes' lack of academic preparation. In another study Baucom and Lantz (2001) employed the SAS in a study of faculty attitudes toward athletes in a highly selective Division II university which does not give athletic

scholarships and where the athletic environment might be expected to be less problematic. They found similar negative faculty perceptions of athletes concerning academic preparation and special treatment.

A less recognized burden faced by student-athletes is the negative perceptions and expectations by faculty and other students about their academic capability and motivation. These negative perceptions are embodied in the dumb jock stereotype that holds that athletes lack the motivation and intelligence to succeed academically at the intercollegiate level (Zingg, 1982, Leach & Connors, 1984). They are seen as academically unqualified illegitimate students whose only interest is athletics, who expect and receive special treatment from tutors and others. The perception is that in order to remain eligible and participate in sports they put in minimum effort, do little academic work, take easy classes and have others do their work for them.

From the above observation made by Zingg, 1982, Leach & Connors, 1984), it can be realised that when student-athletes want to satisfy their tutors and remove this perception they hold about them, then they have to work beyond their reach which can have a rippling effect on them both academically and athletically. Jokes like other forms of folklore can reinforce stereotypes and reflect issues that are of concern in society but cannot be expressed openly (Dundes, 1987). “Dumb jock” jokes provide a socially sanctioned way of expressing anxiety about the existence of intercollegiate athletics and the threat it poses to the academic integrity and purpose of the university. The following “dumb jock” jokes express these concerns:

This concern about the lack of academic qualifications and seemingly nonexistent admission standards for athletes can be seen in the numerous examples of College Entrance

exams for athletes found on the internet which include questions that a child could answer, (Jokes.com, 2005).

Lawrence, Ott, and Hendricks (2009), also found that faculty members' perceptions of intercollegiate athletics programmes covered a wide spectrum. Some faculty viewed athletics programmes as having a negative effect on the academic reputation of their schools and others believed that there was disconnect between athletics and academics. Conversely, there were faculty who saw no conflict between athletics and academics and highlighted the positive contributions of athletics, such as the development of athletes' personal characteristics and providing student entertainment. Lawrence et al. (2009) and Noble (2004), suggested that the varying opinions could be due in part to institutional and individual differences.

Myles Brand (2007), former President of the NCAA, identified three primary and formal roles that faculty members should play with regard to the conduct of intercollegiate athletics:

- a) setting and maintaining academic standards;
- b) governance oversight; and
- c) direct assistance and involvement with the intercollegiate athletics program.

Brand (2007), believed that college athletes are students first and should not receive any preferential treatment. He also reinforced the idea that the academic standards that apply to the general students should be identical to those applied to athletes. Brand (2007), further suggested that it is unacceptable to treat athletes adversely if they are following institutional rules and procedures. He stated that "unfortunately, because of understandable reluctance to criticize colleagues, faculty members are active in ensuring that athletes are

not unfairly advantaged, but often not equally attentive to ensuring that athletes are not unfairly disadvantaged (p. 2).”

In many cases athletes fail to take advantage of the faculty as one of their primary educational resources and are reluctant to meet with them outside the classroom (Cotten & Wilson, 2006; Jolly, 2008). Pierce (2007), noted that “time spent with the faculty advisor is perceived as being especially critical” to the academic success of athletes (p. 801). In addition, the importance of informal interactions between athletes and faculty members has been documented in several studies (Cotten & Wilson, 2006; Harrison et al., 2006; Jolly, 2008). Cotton & Wilson, (2006) found that students rarely interact with their teachers outside of class and if they do, it is usually because they are struggling with an assignment or have a specific problem with the class. Cotton & Wilson (2006), also suggested that many students do not realize the potential benefits of substantive interaction with faculty. By contrast, students involved in a group or activity that required substantial, one on one conversation or meetings with faculty had meaningful relationships and interactions and recognized the benefits. For some students, informal out of class interactions increased their comfort level and resulted in increased in-class interactions (Cotton & Wilson, 2006). Similarly, Jolly (2008), found that more informal interaction can help athletes with their misperceptions of faculty.

The athletes’ failure to meet tutors outside classroom and have discussions with them concerning their (athletes) progress and retrogress in academic areas might be attributed to the negative perceptions held about them by the college tutors in class. Based on this observation, Jolly (2008), suggested that faculty must be proactive in reaching out to the athletes outside the classroom and by doing so can increase athletes’ short term



success and create life-long learners. Informal social interactions provide an important foundation for students to pursue more academically focused interactions in the future. Jolly (2008) stated that faculty must understand athletes' day-to-day lives and challenges. Faculty who had taken more interest in athletes' academic success reported additional beneficial results from their informal interactions with the athletes such as attending games and practices (Jolly, 2008). The athletes also embraced the engagement of the faculty in the athletic side of their lives and became more comfortable approaching faculty in an academic setting.

Harrison et al. (2006) examined the relationships between male athletes and faculty, specifically the impact of students and faculty interaction on academic achievement. The research was limited to NCAA Division I and II men's football and basketball players, but produced results that may be applicable to other sports, divisions, and women. Harrison et al. (2006) suggested that faculty who provided intellectual challenges and stimulation for their students and helped students achieve professional goals, made strong contributions to the athletes' success. Academically oriented interactions with faculty positively impacted athletes' success and led to a recommendation that initiatives designed to increase levels of faculty communication and mentoring of athletes should be developed and implemented.

For many years, unappealing and negative attitudes toward athletics have existed which places an additional burden on athletes (Baucom & Lantz, 2001; Simons et al., 2007; Thelin, 1994). A number of researchers have concluded that stereotypical views of athletes exist often leading to misconceptions about their academic ability and motivation (Baucom & Lantz, 2001; Engstrom, Sedlacek, & McEwen, 1995; Jolly, 2008; Knight Foundation, 2007; Potuto & O'Hanlon, 2007). These stereotypes and prejudicial attitudes are evident at

all levels of competition, including community colleges, and are directed towards athletes in both revenue and non-revenue sports (Baucom & Lantz, 2001; Engstrom et al., 1995; Hobneck, Mudge & Turchi, 2003; Richards & Aries, 1999).

Aries et al. (2004), Engstrom et al. (1995), Potuto and O'Hanlon, (2007), and Simons et al. (2007) reported that athletes experience both positive and negative interactions with faculty. In addition, athletes were regularly stigmatized and often perceived to be less capable academically. Simons et al. (2007) investigated athlete stigma in higher education by surveying 538 Division I collegiate athletes. The authors suggested that the general view of Division I college athletes as "privileged" often masks the fact that this group is also stigmatized and that the "dumb jock" stereotype is often applied. When asked how they were treated by faculty and non-athletes, only 15 % of athletes cited positive perceptions. Negative perceptions from professors and other students were reported at 59% and 33% respectively. Athletes also reported that they were refused or given a hard time when requesting accommodations for athletics competitions (61.5%), had heard faculty members make negative comments about athletics (62.1%), had tried to hide their athletic identity to avoid being stigmatized (44.5%) , and (89%) reported they rarely or never received preferential treatment (Simons et al., 2007).

According to Brand (2007), "one concern often voiced by student-athletes is that some faculty members disparage them publicly, or worse penalize them in terms of grades and academic opportunities, because of requirements of sports participation...there is little doubt that some faculty members treat students who are athletes adversely (p .2)." In the 2005-2006 NCAA GOALS, over 20,000 athletes responded to the statement, "I feel my professors view me as more of an athlete than a student." Almost 70% of Division I and II

men's football and basketball players agreed. However, it is interesting to note approximately 80% of those respondents felt positively about their relationships with the faculty (Student-Athlete Relationships, 2007, p. 2). A 2008 survey conducted by the NCAA and administered to over 21,000 athletes, revealed that nearly two-thirds of the Division I football players and male basketball players considered themselves more of an athlete than a student (Wieberg, 2008). Given this self-assessment by the athletes, it is not surprising that faculty members may also see them as such.

Perceptions on the performance of student-athletes held by tutors, students and other school workers can negatively affect the academic performance of students who engage in athletics. Most perceptions the public and the general student body hold against student-athletes emanates from teachers' remarks about student-athletes. According to Papanikolaou, Nikolaidis, Patsiaouras and Alexopoulos (2003), student-athletes not only have to cope with their new collegiate identity; they must learn to cope with the change of perception from being highly revered in high school to being viewed as academically inferior. Corroboratively, a quantitative study conducted by Simons, Bosworth, Fujita and Jensen on *Athlete Stigma in Higher Education* on 538 student-athletes at a university to see how faculty members perceived student-athletes revealed that 33% of the athletes' professors saw them in a negative manner, and only 15% of the professors viewed them positively. The survey went further to report that almost 70% of the student-athletes experienced direct negative stereotypical remarks from faculty members. The study also revealed that, a larger percentage of the general student population regarded student-athletes negatively than the university faculty members (Simons et al, 2007). These

negative perceptions may have stemmed from the perceived stereotype that student-athletes do not possess the mental capacity as compared to non-athletes.

In a study of faculty attitudes toward male athletes competing in Division I revenue and non-revenue sports, Engstrom et al. (1995) found that prejudices existed and were based on the perceived preferential treatment of athletes with regard to admissions standards and financial support. Disparate treatment was also evident with some professors reluctant to provide athletes opportunities to make up missed work (Jolly, 2008). Potuto & O'Hanlon (2007) also found nearly 50% of the Division I athletes believed that they were discriminated against by their professors because they were athletes.

Baucom and Lantz (2001) also demonstrated that discrimination is not limited to Division I athletes. Prejudice towards male athletes in revenue and non-revenue sports, specifically regarding admissions processes, financial support and provisions of academic support services, was present at a highly selective Division II school (Baucom & Lantz, 2001). In addition, Hobneck, et al. (2003) reported that even though community college students viewed themselves as being equally successful in athletics and academics, faculty perceived athletes as lacking the academic skills necessary to succeed and believed the students' primary concerns were with athletics. Division III athletes also reported significantly more difficulties in being taken seriously by their professors than non-athletes reported (Richards & Aries, 1999). Jolly (2008) emphasized the point that the stereotype of athletes being unintelligent and unqualified for academics continues to be perpetuated.

Beck, Bennett, Maneval, and Hayes (2001) and McKindra and Centor (2005) proposed a contrasting view and suggested that many faculty members treat athletes in the same manner as any other student and also understand the role athletics play in their

college's mission. Pierce (2007) also supported this position and investigated the experiences of Division I athletes majoring in engineering. He found that athletes met frequently with professors and received substantial support. For example, 54% of the respondents met with their professors frequently (1-2 times per week). When asked about the level of support the athletes received from their professors, 83% indicated that they received some support, with 50% reporting a lot of support. It is not surprising that those who met frequently with their professors received more support, thus highlighting the importance of frequent communication (Pierce, 2007).

Potuto and O'Hanlon (2007) and Simons et al., (2007) also reported that athletes have positive perceptions college experience, are satisfied with the level of academic support received, experience strong influence and support from within (coaches & administrators) and outside (family & teammates) their athletic departments. Potuto and O'Hanlon (2006) studied athletes at 18 Division I universities and found that athletes had positive perceptions of their overall college experience over 90% of the time, and 93% said it was "very important" that they graduated from college. In many cases, athletes viewed their participation in collegiate athletics as an overwhelmingly positive experience. Potuto and O'Hanlon (2007) however, found that over 50% of athletes did not spend as much time as they would have liked on academics, and 80% of these athletes stated that athletics was a contributing factor (Student-Athlete Relationships, 2007, p. 2).

University of Michigan Faculty Athletic Representative, Percy Bates, suggested that the best way for athletes to avoid being stereotyped is to display proper academic behaviour, "if we don't address the faculty-perception issues, we risk losing credibility as it relates to the balance inherent in, student-athlete" (McKindra & Centor, 2005, p. 14). Sharp

and Sheilley (2008) underscored the importance of educating athletes with regard to appropriate academic practices and strategies needed to be successful. For example, athletes should be encouraged to develop open communication with the faculty, and recognize the importance of attending and actively participating in classes. In addition, by proactively seeking to develop an understanding of the day-to-day lives, experiences, and responsibilities of athletes, faculty members could increase their role in helping athletes succeed academically (Engstrom et al., 1995; Jolly, 2008; Sharp & Sheilley, 2008). Aries et al. (2004) noted that many athletes perform well academically and generalizations of underperformance are often overstated. Highly recruited athletes in “big time” programmes may provide the majority of these examples; thus, faculty should re-examine any negative stereotypes they have towards athletes in general. Furthermore, Baucom and Lantz (2001) suggested that institutions at all divisional levels should examine policies and procedures that may facilitate or reinforce negative attitudes towards athletes.

Given that many athletes devote a great deal of time and energy to their athletic interests, researchers (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993; Martin, Mushett, & Eklund, 1997) have investigated the concept of athletic identity in relation to college athlete experiences and behaviours. Brewer et al. (1993) defined “athletic identity as the degree to which an individual identifies with the athlete role” (p. 237). A strong athletic identity indicates a greater importance of the role athletics plays in an individual’s life. Athletic identity has been considered in relation to a number of variables including commitment to exercise, level of athletic performance, and potential psychological benefits or problems. Brewer, Boin, and Petitpas (1993) and Brewer et al. (1993) considered athletic identity in relation to commitment to exercise behaviour and level of athletic performance. Individuals

with strong athletic identities developed strong self-identities through their participation in sport and demonstrated a higher commitment to exercise behaviour. In addition, athletes with an exclusive athletic identity (when an individual bases his or her self-identity solely on the athlete role) may have stronger athletic performances.

The literature has shown that all of these perceptions place a burden on the student-athlete. They represent obstacles to athletes' efforts to overcome a negative climate and successfully balance academic achievement with athletic competition. This described situation often forces the student-athlete to choose between success in either academics or athletics, making it difficult to realize the benefits of dual participation (Aries, Banaji, McCarthy, & Salovey, 2004; Sander, 2007; Chomitz, et al, 2009).

Literature on the relationship between students' participation in sports and their various psychosocial and psycho-educational factors provides mixed findings. The findings of a group of studies indicated that participation in sports increased students' overall interest and commitment to schooling as well as their engagement in more student-teacher contact, more positive attitudes about schooling, more parent-school contact (Crain, 1981; Trent & Braddock, 1992). Moreover, Slavin and Madden (1979) found that sports could facilitate positive racial/ethnic relations as well as positive inter-group attitudes and behaviours among northern and southern desegregated schools. Crain (1981) reported similar findings.

Other researchers focused on the influences of sport participation on various psychosocial aspects of high school students. As the literature shows, one such benefit is that participation in sport activities could provide extrinsic rewards to students and help them form social bonds and relationships within school (Crain, 1981; Slavin & Madden,

1979; Trend & Braddock, 1992). In addition, sport/athletic participation could also create intrinsic values for students. As Kavussanu and McAuley (1995) observed, “Highly active individuals were significantly more optimistic and experienced greater self-efficacy than those non-active or low-active people”.

With respect to whether students’ participation in sporting activities was beneficial to their academic goals, Marsh (1988) observes that participation in too many activities produced diminishing returns. Participation in sports and other extracurricular activities was consistently beneficial, but participation in some activities had mixed or predominantly negative effects. With regard to the relationship between athletic participation and higher educational goals, Spreitzer and Pugh (1973), also see an association between athletic participation and higher educational goals. Sport involvement was not necessarily detrimental to academic pursuits. Influence of sport/athletic involvement was particularly strong for boys who were not otherwise predisposed to attending college. Sport involvement tended to engender high-perceived peer status, which in turn stimulated a desire for further status acquisition through college attendance.

College athletics has the opportunity to teach lessons such as the importance of healthy competition, wellness, work ethic, teamwork, and personal awareness. Collegiate athletics has been successful in creating community, despite the belief that college campus “have become a group of ‘multiple communities’ where our disparate goals work against the creation of a common campus community” (Kerr, 1982, p. 373). Wolf-Wendel, Douglas, & Morpew (2001, p.370) posit that, “intercollegiate athletics has accomplished much of what institutions generally are attempting to achieve in building community out of



difference”. Athletics programmes have been successful because they have focused on the shared athletic experience, rather than the differences that separate their community.

When athletics activities are played at in schools, colleges and at national levels, they increase the players' sense of belonging to their community or country. Athletics played internationally foster patriotism and a feeling of oneness among the team members of a country. Playing sports/athletics at these levels opens many employment avenues for not only sportsmen and women but also people who join tournaments as volunteers, cheerleaders or in the capacity of sports doctors and physical therapists. As developments are undertaken in cities hosting sports events, sports can lead to urbanization of rural areas.

Many cities have started becoming hubs for sports tourism. Sports parks are being developed in many tourist destinations. It is the increasing inclination for playing sports which is responsible for such developments, (Manali, 1/12/2012, <http://www.buzzle.com/articles/benefits-of-playing-sports.html>).

Wolf-Wendel et al. (2001) suggested eight commonalities that make athletic programmes successful:

- (a) student-athletes share common goals: to grow, improve, and ultimately, win;
- (b) through practices, classes, and living spaces, they engage in intense and frequent interaction;
- (c) they share common experiences of adversity through hard work, suffering, and sacrifice;
- (d) in working together to build a team, they recognize that each individual has something important to contribute to their collective success;
- (e) they hold each other accountable in terms of academic performance;

- (f) they hold each other accountable in terms of performance on the field, court, etc.;
- (g) they have coaches who invest time in each individual and truly care about their successes to guide them through their experiences; and
- (h) through involvement in athletics as children, collegiate student-athletes have exposure to several different identities at a young age.

“A remarkably strong sense of community exists” because of these several commonalities within the student-athletes experience, linking them “across most differences, including race, socioeconomic status, and geographic background” (p. 376).

### **2.3 Teacher Attitude Towards Student-athletes and Their Academic Work**

Studies conducted by Palardy and Rumberger have shown that tutor attitudes, practices, and beliefs have a significant impact on student achievement (Palardy & Rumberger, 2008). Current and past researches indicate that the teacher is the most important element in student achievement and growth (Rivers & Sanders, 2002; Marzano, 2003; Marzano, 2007; Strong, 2007; Palardy & Rumberger (2008)).

Many studies have examined teacher knowledge and quality and not the importance of teacher attitude. Pryor and Pryor (2005), added to the research of Oskamp and Schultz (2003), that teacher attitudes influence teacher behaviours and defined attitudes as beliefs that can be favourable, unfavourable, or neutral.

A number of studies over the years have gone beyond finding only non-cognitive advantages of participation in sports, and argued that there is a direct correlation between participation in high school sports and student’s academic success (Aries, McCarthy, Salovey, & Banaji, 2004; Comeaux, 2002; Ferris & Finster, 2004; Olszewski-Rublius,

2004; Rische, 2001). While in the context of the “us-versus-them” character of the current climate of athletics versus academics such a finding would appear to be counterintuitive, a strong literature has developed in support of the claim. In a study at Hardiness Research in 1991 it was found that “by a 2-to-1 ratio boys who participate in sports do better in school, do not drop out and have a better chance to get through college” (NHSAW, 2001, p. 21). For girls, the ratio is three to one. A study by the Women’s Sport Foundation in 1989 also found that “high school athletic participation has a positive educational and social impact on many minority and female students” (NHSAW, p. 4). The USDOE also issued a report indicating that the “dumb jock” stereotype is actually a myth, and that student-athlete boys drop out less than non-athletic boys (NHSAW, 2001, p. 4). In a study of high schools in Colorado it was found that those which had success on the playing field also experienced success in standardized tests (NHSAW, 2001). A study in School Counsellor magazine of 123 soccer students found that “activity participation...may enhance academic performance” (NHSAW, p. 5).

A study called Extracurricular Participation and Student Engagement from 1995 “revealed that during the first semester of their senior year, participants reported better attendance than their non-participating classmates” (NHSAW, p. 6). Moreover, “students who participated were three times as likely to perform in the top quartile on a composite math and reading assessment compared with non-participants” (NHSAW, p. 5). A 1990 study in North Carolina found “a strong correlation between participation in athletes and positives such as improved grades and increased attendance rates” (NHSAW, p. 7). A number of empirical studies exist that attempt to predict whether or not student-athletes will be successful in school (Comeaux, 2002, p. 1). Some studies look at demographic

factors influencing success, others environmental factors. Most of the studies are done on the collegiate level. Comeaux (2002), found that when student-athletes receive a lot of input from advisers and when they study in a supportive environment, their academic achievement will be high. He recommends “a wide range of forms of faculty communication and mentoring that are responsive to the needs of male student-athletes of different abilities” (Comeaux, p. 9). Mentoring of student-athletes by faculty has also been found to be helpful.

There is therefore the need to investigate the attitude of tutors in other subject areas in the Colleges of Education in Ghana towards student-athletes and to find out if there exists some relationship between the tutor attitude and student-athletes’ academic achievement in the colleges.

Research has indicated that attitudes towards the role of college athletics and the academic competency of student-athletes differ significantly based on samples studied in prior investigations. These investigations have utilised samples that have included non student-athlete, faculty and student-athlete populations. Based on historical models used to study these distinct realms, researchers now possess the ability to synthesize prior research in an attempt to describe how they work in tandem.

Some faculty members possess attitudes that suggest the typical student-athlete is a sub-standard student incapable of doing acceptable academic work and for the most part, may be disinterested in the educational system. Furthermore, many in academia argue that college presidents knowingly allow academically unqualified athletes to become students in order to increase the school’s chances of winning games and gaining the exposure and financial gain that accompany a national championship (Duderstadt, 2000). It is argued that

universities have no ability or intent to develop both the student and the athlete in an equitable manner. Evidence exists that supports the claim that star student-athletes have benefited from lenient admissions policies and “soft” grading practices. Dexter Manley, a former NFL standout with the Washington Redskins who played football for four years while attending Oklahoma State University, admitted later that he was functionally illiterate (Zimbalist, 1999). Sadly, Manley is just one in a long list of individuals who played big-time college athletics and either graduated without a true education or did not graduate at all. In an attempt to rectify these issues, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) and other groups have traditionally sought ways to realign the relationship between athletics and academics.

The issue of balancing academic ideals and athletics dominance has become a daunting challenge for the NCAA which possesses two distinct goals. On one end, the NCAA is committed to the growth of college athletics which it achieves by securing television contracts and other revenue streams. On the other end, the NCAA is responsible for regulating college athletics to ensure that academic and amateur ideals are upheld (Sperber, 2000).

Regardless of the benefits that exist as a result of the relationship between either physical fitness or athletic competition and academic achievement, obstacles exist which hinder the student-athlete’s overall development. A study conducted by Bosworth, et al (2007) revealed that a large percentage of their sample group of collegiate student-athletes have experienced a negative perception of their lifestyle within the collegiate community. Separate literature by Aries, Banaji, McCarthy and Salovey (2004) and Emma (2008) theorized that negative perceptions were due to the overall difference in the mean

standardized test scores of the non-athlete student population and those of the student-athletes. The study by Aries, Banaji, McCarthy, and Salovey specifically compared the SAT math and verbal scores of highly-committed student-athletes and non-athletes (2004). Their results showed that the student-athletes were entering college with not only much lower verbal scores on the SAT, but noticeably lower overall SAT scores (Aries, Banaji, McCarthy, & Salovey, 2004).

This negativity stemming from difference between the standardized academic aptitude of non student-athletes and student-athletes allows for the propagation of the stereotype that athletes are unqualified for the rigours of higher education (Bosworth, Fujita, Jensen, & Simons, 2007). Continued belief in this stereotypical image of the student-athlete by the general student population leads the student-athlete to have a lower self image and poorer quality of peer relationships with fellow students, circumstances that undermine the benefits of athletic participation mentioned above (Bosworth, et al, 2007; Aries, et al, 2004). Bosworth, Fujita, Jensen, and Simons specifically cite comments, jokes, and stories heard by student-athletes within their study which were based on the stereotypical belief that said group is unintelligent as well as lazy and unethical in terms of their academic career (2007).

Student-athlete relationships with faculty also present a disadvantageous climate for those who wish to excel on the field and in the classroom. A survey of 538 collegiate athletes by Bosworth, Fujita, Jensen, and Simons (2007), reported that only 15% of student-athletes felt their professors had a positive perception of them. In addition, 27% of the sample believed they were issued a grade lower than what was merited by their work while 50% of the same sample reported being refused an accommodation to rectify

conflicts that existed within their athletic and scholastic schedules (Bosworth, Fujita, Jensen, & Simons, 2007).

Sander (2007) wrote that one reason for this view of student-athletes by faculty is because of their belief that a university can either stand for academic integrity or athletic prowess. As a consequence, many professors oppose involvement in intercollegiate athletics, believing participation is at the expense of the academic reputation of their university or college. In addition, faculty feel they are uninvolved in shaping policy that governs athletic departments, setting academic standards for the student-athlete's eligibility, and allocating university funds for athletic teams (Sander, 2007). According to a report by Kelderman, Moser, and Wolverson (2008), the lack of involvement in monetary dispersal particularly angers faculty. They believe that funding designated toward athletics comes at the expense of resources needed for the overall academic advancement of the student population thus hurting the overall academic integrity of the university. The negative faculty perception of the student-athlete due to what is believed to be a compromise in academic integrity by athletics hinders the student-athlete in realizing all the academic benefits of athletic involvement.

It is assumed, particularly at large institutions, that an athlete is socially inept and does not do well in the classroom (Sellers, 1992), and student-athletes' lack of contact with the campus community makes them a group susceptible to stereotyping (Hamilton & Trolie, 1986). Fellow students tend to waver from being avid fans to holding very condescending stereotypes of this peer group (Zingg, 1982). There are limited forums to challenge the stereotypes held toward this special population since student-athletes often live in separate suites and apartments from other students, they have their own advising

services, and they have limited opportunities to engage with faculty, students or staff in co-curricular activities.

Lowman (1987), noted that:

The faculty's attitudes towards students and classroom performance also reflect a supportive teaching environment or the lack of it. Attitudes are communicated in informal conversation and jokes during faculty meetings as well as in official memoranda. A new instructor hearing colleagues refer to "immature", "lazy", "stupid", "untrustworthy", or "inconsiderate" students risks becoming socialised into a culture that does not value students or have rapport with them (Lowman, p. 215).

This is to say that, when faculty members (tutors) of Colleges of Education discuss positive attributes of student-athletes performance in the subject areas at staff common halls, and other places new tutors taking appointment will equally say good things about these students. These negative stereotypes held about student-athletes can have a devastating effect on the students' self-image (Wittmer, Bostic, Phillips & Waters, 1981; Zingg, 1982; Sellers, 1992). The research on self-fulfilling prophecy highlights the potential for student-athletes to internalize the expectations of poor academic performance and lowered chances for success (Hamilton & Trolie, 1986).

Engstrom and Sedlacek (1991, 1993) provided evidence that negative prejudice existed toward male student-athletes among fellow students, particularly around issues of academic competency. Sedlacek claimed that student-athletes who met these two criteria, were a group that has been oppressed and discriminated against, similar to such groups as women, disabled students, and Blacks (Sedlacek, in press – a). Although groups such as athletes, Blacks, and older people all show their diversity in various ways they all face



developmental challenges and issues, and, they must cope with a system that was not designed to support them (Sedlacek, in press – b).

Attitudes are composed of past and present experiences and are not observable as such, but are evidenced in behaviour (Oskamp & Schultz, 2005). Oskamp (1997, p. 15) posited that, "Attitudes postulate a hidden process occurring within the individual, which we call his attitude: and it uses his attitude as an explanation of the relationship between stimulus events and the individual's responses". Present research indicates that teacher's attitudes are connected to their actions and teacher actions are related to student achievement (Marzano, 2007).

Fear, conscious and unconscious prejudicial attitudes and behaviours, patterns of misinformation, and stereotyping toward student-athletes all may be instilled and perpetuated by members of the campus community. The discrimination may manifest itself in different ways. Gaertner and Dovidio argued that over time, the "rednecked" form of discrimination has generally been replaced by a more subtle, aversive type (1986, p. 62). Gaertner and Dovidio described "aversive racists" as individuals who see themselves as non prejudiced and non-discriminatory (1986, p.62). In actuality, these individuals hold negative feelings and beliefs about certain groups of people. Because they emphasize the importance of the egalitarian value system, their negative feelings toward particular groups are excluded frequently from their consciousness. Aversive racists also tend to have numerous non racial "facts" or reasons that justify, rationalize, or legitimize behaviours that generally disadvantage a certain group. Leach and Connors (1984) speculated that faculty members may hold more negative attitudes toward college student-athletes than do other students, administrators, and alumni. Such negative attitudes may be a consequence

of the perceived incompatibility between the goals of big-time college athletic programmes and the basic values of academic integrity and academic excellence in higher education. However, because faculty members generally are part of a system that espouses equity and fairness, researchers may have difficulty determining the presence of negative faculty attitudes toward particular groups of students.

Costenbader, Swartz, and Petrix (1992) found out that, 90% of students' life is spent in the learning environment or school and that is also the amount of time the teachers spend with the students. Therefore the students' behaviour will largely depend on the teachers' attitude towards them. This attempts to emphasise that teachers are the role model for students for that reasons the teachers' attitude and perception towards students determines the students' behaviour. Bridget, Vernberg, Twemlow, Fonagy and Dill (2008), focus on how the teachers' attitude contributes to students' academic performance and behaviour. In the study it has been found that students in classrooms with more devotee teachers were seen by peers as helpful to victims of bullying relative to students of other classrooms. Also the students with the devotee teachers have the courage and determination to face difficulties of school life either academically or outside of the schools curricular.

Ma and Kishor (1997), looked at the relationship between attitude and performance as three separate components. The first component they looked at was the relationship between performance and self-concept. The second component is the perception between family support and performance. The third component is the perception that mathematics is a male domain and how that affects performance.

From this, it could be seen that lack of self-concept, family support and perceptions people hold about student-athletes could negatively affect the performance of these group of students in mathematics. Hammouri notes that, “Attitude itself can affect level of energy input, perseverance (Carroll, 1963), time on task (Love and McVevey, 2001), standard of achievement (Webster and Fisher, 2000) and engagement in an activity (Middleton and Toluk, 1999), (Hammouri, 2004). From this, it could be noted that the better a teacher’s positive attitude towards student-athletes in the class, the more courageous and humble the student will learn that subject no matter how difficult it is to the student-athlete.

Reynolds and Walberg (1992) looked at middle school students and how achievement and attitude are related and also what determines the student’s attitude. They looked at the relationship as a sequence of effects and noted that the effects begin with home environment, then student aptitude, and finally psychological and instructional environments. These environments include things such as peers, the classroom they were in, and how the material is covered in the classroom.

Sometimes, when teachers exhibit some negative attitudes towards students, especially student-athletes, it can affect students’ behaviour in whatever they do. Supporting this, (Moore, 1997: p. 71), says that, “If administrators and teachers want to change student behaviour and attitudes, they should start by modifying their own behaviour and attitudes. Students learn to act in the ways we have taught them to act”. Van Acker, Grant, and Henry (1996: p. 332), echoed this sentiment when they also stated that, “teachers require information on their pattern of interaction with individual students. Only then would differential treatment of specific students become evident”.

Student-athletes routinely receive preferential treatment in the admissions process and are more likely to be academically under-prepared than their peers (Shulman and Bowen, 2001; Bowen and Levin, 2003), and as a result, student-athletes earn lower grades in college. Additionally, they argue that institutions allow athletes to create their own subculture and that it flourishes, isolated and insulated from the larger campus culture.

African-American student-athletes often bear the brunt of the "dumb jock" stereotype even more than athletes (Adler and Adler 1985, Roper and McKenzie, 1988). People on campus believe the athletes possess innate athletic abilities but lack academic competencies or abilities. These people fail to see this characterisation as racist because they believe they are focusing on the student-athlete's athletic status rather than race. Even those who work to add to racial diversity on campus often are reluctant to work with African-American student-athletes because they feel the athletes reinforce stereotypes that they are not comfortable with. This puts African-American student-athletes in a double bind as they are dealing with both racial discrimination and the athlete stereotype with fewer opportunities to participate in activities that may help them succeed.

Jim, contributing to an article written by Nate Kreuter with Eric Dieter on *Teaching Student-Athletes* in September 14, 2011, expressed his observation that, "I think that many times, the animosity felt by teachers toward student-athletes stems from envy of the supposedly great lifestyle enjoyed by athletes. The media sometimes portrays them (the athletes) as hulking simpletons who are interested in nothing beyond money and parties." This goes on to say that tutors of Colleges of Education may envy student-athletes on the mere remuneration they make from participating in some athletic events for their respective colleges.

Mullins, Chard, Hartman, Bowlby, Rich and Burke (1995), discovered that there was an increase in a teacher's self-reported level of personal rejection and a decrease in the level of personal attraction to children who were depressed. Furthermore, the same decrease in personal attraction and increase in personal rejection were found for boys aged six through eleven who showed an increase in social problems or delinquency. Again, Mullins et al., (1995), reported that teachers' negative responses to these troubled students were likely to grow stronger over time.

It must also be noted that the educational development needs of student-athletes are often neglected in higher education settings. College and university personnel sometimes erroneously assume that because an individual is an intercollegiate student-athlete, most needs are met; however, the opposite may typically be the case (Kirk & Kirk, 1993). Student-athletes are students and must be viewed by all college and university personnel as complex individuals with needs and wants specific to that of student-athletes, which needs to be addressed. This however, is usually frowned by teachers in the classrooms especially student-athletes who are well engaged in physical activities.

The negative views of faculty (tutors) in particular can have a debilitating harm to student-athletes in schools and colleges. A study conducted by Leach and Connors (1984) postulated that faculty perceive that athletics is incompatible with the basic values of academic integrity and academic excellence. A more recent study carried by Engstrom, Sedlacek, and McEwen (1995) also confirmed that faculty do view student-athletes (particularly those in revenue producing sports) less favourable than they do to other students. For example, faculty perceived more favourably students who were not involved

with athletics getting a scholarship, driving an expensive car, being mentioned in the campus paper, or even receiving a good grade in their class.

The nature of athletics can often isolate student-athletes from the larger campus community. This reason alone according to Hamilton and Trolier (1986), may explain why the student-athlete special population is so susceptible to stereotyping. Regardless, Hamilton and Trolier wrote that the general campus view of the dumb athlete is internalized by many student-athletes. The athlete experiences the low opinion that others have of him and begins to believe it. The athlete begins to think it is a done deal to have poor academic performance because that is what everyone expects. This cycle is damaging to the student-athletes self-esteem and their ability to succeed academically.

Many a time, students and teachers of schools and colleges castigate student-athletes and brand them with names (negative stereotype) that are not palatable which go a long way to affect them both academically and psychologically as viewed by some researchers in the past that, many students and faculty alike harbour stereotypes of student-athletes (Engstrom & Sedlacek, 1991, 1993; Engstrom, Sedlacek, & McEwen, 1995). The "dumb jock" image is still all too prevalent across college campuses and exists for both male and female student-athletes. Bandura (1986) addressed the debilitating effects of such stereotypes in connection with verbal persuasion and appraisal by significant others.

In contrast to teachers' negative thoughts that student-athletes perform abysmally poor, recent data show that graduation rates for student-athletes are on the increase (Franklin, 2006; Wolverson, 2006; Sander, 2008; USA Today, 2008). The NCAA data for 2008 show that Graduation Success Rate (GSR) for Division 1 players reached 78% (Sander, 2008) for the 1998 to 2001 academic years. The same GSR improved to 79% for

student-athletes who joined college in 2001. Based on this data, it can be justifiably argued that college athletics has a positive impact on student-athletes as well as on college education.

Horenczyk and Tatar (2002) state that “teacher’s approaches and behaviours toward culturally diverse populations do not exist in a social vacuum; rather they tend to reflect - and be affected by - the norms and values both of the larger society and of the educational settings in which the interactions take place” (p. 426). This implies that, community beliefs about student-athletes poor academic performance gives more room for teachers to have some lukewarm attitudes towards those who are into athletics business. This is so because, as members of the communities they live in, teachers cannot help but be influenced by dominant societal attitudes. When teachers internalize dominant societal messages, they bring them directly into their schools and classrooms. School administrators, other school staff and parents all internalize societal messages, creating a school ethos that mirrors that of the community and the dominant order of society at large.

Nieto (1995) contends that the attitudes and practices of schools, communities and society dramatically control the opportunities for success among various populations of students. If a society or community does not embrace its athletics diverse citizens, it is probable that the schools and many of the teachers in that community will not embrace them, either, detrimentally impacting the quality of education these students receive.

From the statements gathered from these authorities, it is very clear that student-athletes need to work harder to earn public confidence back. They can do that by proving to teachers who teach them and their own colleagues that they are not only good in athletics but equally good academically.

An article, *Education Misguided Student Athletes: An Application of Contract Theory* by Johnson (1985) notes that, schools have a contractual obligation to their student-athletes to assist in their educational progress. Thus it is in the interest of the entire university, not just the coaching staff and athletic department to provide their student-athletes with support for all aspects of their collegiate experience. Lack of a coordinated college programme and professional standards fail to support individual needs of the student-athletes.

This goes on to suggest that the faith of student-athletes should not be left in the hands of their coaches and departments but should be a concerted effort between all those who are concerned to help raise these students up academically. Career guidance is very necessary if we want the academic performance of student-athletes to improve when it comes to the selection of courses of study. Sometimes, well intentioned people and institutions' set up pose a troubled career for student-athletes because coaches and advisers tend to persuade student-athletes to register courses that offer them little academic challenge which means avoiding basic subjects such as maths and writing while they feel they are protecting the student-athletes by managing courses in which they enrol, they are in fact, depriving the student-athletes of their education (Johnson, 1985).

In a 2005 analysis of stress levels in college athletes, Dr. Gregory Wilson and Dr. Mary Pritchard reported that time management factors were a significant source of academic-related stress. Many student-athletes expressed concern over having insufficient time to study for exams and write term papers. Team travel was also cited as a stress factor because of missed classes and assignments. Some student-athletes, however, seem to thrive on the pressure caused by tight schedules.



According to Student involvement theory (Astin, 1984, 1993, 1999; Kuh et al., 2007; Morgan, 2001; Pascarella and Terenzini, 1991), student involvement on college campuses may be one of the most important factors influencing their academic success. SIT posits that for a student to learn, they must invest time and energy into the pursuit of learning. This demands effort, time and commitment. This educational learning involvement entails attending classes, interacting with faculty, doing research, engaging in group discussions, library research, and participation in student activities such as government and societies (Astin, 1984, 1993, 1999; Kuh et al., 2007; Morgan, 2001; Pascarella and Terenzini, 1991).

Student-athletes face challenges of individual nature including their personal involvement in academic oriented activities, time constraints, class attendance, personal goal setting and career choices, physical and emotional fatigue, to mention but a few. Students and for that matter, student-athletes with social, emotional, or behavioural problems are greatly affected by the way others respond to them and to the feedback that they receive. Pace, Mullins, Beesley, Hill, and Carson, (1999) stated that,

It is argued that children who have significant emotional and behavioural problems respond less positively to others and thus elicit fewer positive responses and more negative responses from others in interpersonal relationships. These problems create a lower sense of acceptance or attraction toward the child and may increase avoidance and rejection toward the child. Thus, as suggested by the authors, these processes may become entangled in a vicious circle of reciprocal causation (p. 151).

Etzel, Ferrante, and Pinkney (1996), supported that student-athletes face a range of unique challenges/barriers that result in qualitatively different educational experiences than those experienced by other students. They outlined them as:

- (a) adjustment to competing demands,
- (b) response to negative stereotypes,
- (c) needs for unique support services, and
- (d) coping with learning disabilities.

Student-athletes are expected to perform well on the field or court and equally well in the classroom. These student-athletes who were recruited based on their athletic ability, with little regard for their academic preparation, are expected to balance out the pressures of academics and athletics. Often, student-athlete experience conflict between academics, athletics, and social interests because these roles tend to work in opposition and become difficult to balance (Parham, 1993; Parmer, 1994). This suggests that the expectation of tutors in Colleges of Education from student-athletes usually force them to have conflicts with their academic work and sports, because they have the fear that, if they don't perform well in class work. Student-athletes, some of whom are under prepared for college level work, are expected to perform in the classroom comparable to their peers. Furthermore, non-athletes do not have the same demands on their time and energy as student-athletes.

In similar studies done by Adler and Adler (1991), they describe the conflict between the roles of student-athletes as "role-engulfment" (p.226). In their study of college basketball players, three essential roles of college athletes were outlined: athletics, academic, and social. Moreover, it was found that these roles often conflict with one another. The demands of competing in college sports, such as time commitment and

intense training, often led the more athletically inclined athletes to become inundated by their athletic responsibilities. The authors stated that: “these individuals found the demands and rewards of the athletic role overwhelming and became engulfed by it” (p. 27).

On a positive note, both Ryan (1989) and Pascarella and Smart (1991) found evidence that participation in intercollegiate athletics was positively related to motivation to earn a college degree. Ryan’s study focused on the impact of participation in college sports on four areas of effective development, 1) satisfaction with college, 2) motivation to complete a bachelor’s degree, 3) interpersonal skills, and 4) leadership skills.

The results of this study indicated that motivation to complete a college degree was only modestly related to participation in college sports. Two of the indicator variables for this relationship were being female and majoring in business. This suggests that, the relationship between participation in college sports and motivation to complete a degree was weak, and was applicable to female athletes and athletes who had decided on a major.

It is important to note that the student-athletes who are not completing college degree do not fit these characteristics. The majority of student-athletes who are not graduating are black males who participate in revenue producing sports (Suggs, 1999). The sample of athletes used in this study does not indicate the sport of the participants, which is a key factor in interpreting these results. Most student-athletes who participate in non-revenue producing sports do not seem to have a problem balancing the rigour of academic and athletic tasks.

Using data from the same source as Ryan (1989), Pascarella and Smart (1991) found similar results. However, the sample of students in this study consisted of all male athletes. The authors found that athletes were more likely to complete college degrees

compared to non-athletes. Again, these results are questionable due to the fact that the sport of the participants is unknown.

On the other hand, studies have been conducted suggesting that participation in college sports had a negative relationship to educational attainment for certain groups of students. Blann (1985) conducted a study that assessed the relationship between gender, class level of competition, and the capacity to formulate education and career goals. The participants consisted of male and female athletes who participated in Division I and Division III athletic programmes, and were categorised into two groups, high-level athletes and low-level athletes. The student-athletes participated in a wide range of sports.

The results indicated that underclass athletes (i.e., freshmen and sophomores) did not formulate mature educational and career goals in comparison to underclass non-athletes. The authors justified this result by presuming that athletes at this level may be overly occupied with training and playing sports.

It is worth noting that the time student-athletes arrive on campus, they are always required to confront the simultaneous adjustment to athletic, academic, and social demands. According to Hinkle (1994), Anxieties may emerge from the threat of evaluation by others, lack of self-confidence, and unreasonable expectations from coaches and fans. Also in line with this, Sedlacek and Adams-Gaston (1992) also observed that the student-athlete's environment presents a number of impediments because it is exploitative, developmentally damaging, socially alienating, and generally non-supportive. The competitiveness, physical regimen, and extreme emotional demands associated with collegiate athletics – all of which must be managed in addition to normal college stress make student-athletes, especially those who participate in revenue-producing sports, more vulnerable to developmental

crises and psychological distress problems than non-athletes (Etzel et al., 1996). By this, it means that student-athletes have a lot to deal with if they want to achieve academic and sports laurels in schools.

The cumulative physical toll throughout the academic year can potentially wreak havoc on a student athlete's ability to concentrate on studies (Thomas, 2008). The physical conditioning programme is characterized by intense daily afternoon pick-up games, weight training sessions, cardiovascular conditioning, timed trials and fitness tests, and individual skill development. Apart from the physical demands, the emotional highs and lows associated with competition outcomes can leave an individual athlete in a state of burn out. According to Fletcher et al. (2003), "athletes experience significant disappointments and fears when their team has key losses or when they perform poorly". Athlete's fears include losing the opportunity to compete because of injury or being cut from the team or being forced to retire from the sport one loves (Fletcher et al., 2003). The physical and emotional strains leave the student athlete tired all the time. This fatigue translates to failure to do assignments, dose off in class, miss class to recuperate in bed, poor concentration and mental lapses (Thomas, 2008). Added to the sport related demands are personal social habits and peer pressures associated with young men and women which may compromise academic pursuits during the competition season. Research findings show that student athletes' classroom performance is lower compared to the out of season performance (Scott et al., 2008).

According to (Barton & Fuhrmann, 1994), the primary characteristics of student-athletes with learning disabilities include problems in academic areas, such as math, reading, writing, and other language-based domains. Secondary characteristics are also

present, including social and emotional difficulties (e.g., overall feelings of lack of self-worth, low self-esteem, and a poor self-concept). From Barton & Fuhrmann, it can be deduced that student-athletes face both primary and secondary difficulties. Academic problems have been identified by the researchers as maths, English language and to some extent, science whereas the secondary problems have to do with social and emotions.

It has also been observed that, The N4A Committee on Learning Disabilities (1998) reported that nationwide, student-athletes with learning disabilities comprised approximately 2.7% of the total population of student athletes. Given that the NCAA recently altered its admission requirements enabling student-athletes to participate in college sports (National Collegiate Athletic Association, 2001; U. S. Department of Justice, 1998), greater numbers of these students may be anticipated in higher education settings than in previous years. These students have been particularly problematic given that they demonstrate poor graduation rates, are often embroiled in high visibility athletic eligibility issues, and are frequently targeted as being unmotivated and uncooperative in classroom settings (Robinson, 1999). These arrangements however, may not be well implemented in developing countries like Ghana, as student-athletes are left on their own to decide on their faith in terms of academics and admissions.

Student-athletes again face barriers/challenges that other students on campus do not have to deal with. This may include dealing with heavy practice schedules that eliminate a great deal of free time. Travel schedules (particularly for some sports like football and volleyball, running events) can be extensive which sometime requires some few days stay off on college campus. Furthermore, other aspects of the student-athlete's schedule are controlled by the institution and body organising the competition.

Fertman (2009) in his study on Student-Athletes Success: Meeting the Challenges of College Life, identified that, high school student-athletes face challenges, whether it is balancing school, home, relationships, early morning practices, extra travel, or late night games and competitions while friends are able to sleep in and enjoy high school. Fertman also noted that, student-athletes face similar challenges but on an advanced level. The college students talk about eight challenges they face:

- Academics
- Pain and injury
- Nutrition
- Performance enhances
- Alcohol, tobacco, marijuana and other drugs
- Sex and relationships
- Gambling, and
- Money

The challenges are more familiar, as each one has the potential to derail the academic and athletic performance of even the most promising college student-athlete. Many a times, student-athletes feel that they are now adults and can deal with the challenges that come on their way on their own. However, most adults have a support system and ask for help and guidance from older adults such as their parents, friends, peers. Student-athletes have these supports in addition to their coaches, professors and athletic directors. Likewise most colleges have a learning support and academic development centre offering academic support, mentoring and learning aids.

According to Fertman (2009) one successful approach to working with college student-athletes as well as high school student-athletes to meet the challenges is to use a four pronged approach:

- frank discussion;
- self assessment;
- accurate information; and
- action steps to meet goals

According to Bowen and Levin (2003), the athletics programme is a distracter in higher education. The authors observed that the ills characterising athletics include college athletes receiving preferential treatment during admission as they appear to be less academically prepared than peers; they earn lower grades in college; have their own subculture that flourishes; isolated and insulated from the larger campus culture.

The isolationist approach by student-athletes is counterproductive to their academic pursuits (Bowen & Levin, 2003). Such isolation may diminish opportunities for personal development through interactions with non-athletes and participation in other types of extracurricular groups which may lead to detrimental behaviours (Aries, et al, 2004) found no evidence of college athletes being less ambitious, grade conscious and that they did not devote lesser time to studying. Other studies (Umbach, Plamer, Kuh and Hannah, 2006; Kuh, Kinzie, Buckely, Bridges and Hayek, 2007) have shown that student-athletes actually engage in effective educational practices at the same level or even better than the non-athlete peers.

Studies done over the years conclude that student-athletes, primarily in the revenue producing sports of football and men's basketball, are often unprepared for and



uninterested in academics and come to college primarily to advance their athletic careers rather than their future vocational careers; therefore, they have lower grade point averages, higher attrition rates, and lower chances of graduating than other students (Adler & Adler, 1985; Cross, 1973; Gurney, et al; Nyquist, 1979; Sack & Thiel, 1979; Purdy, Eitzen, & Hufnagel, 1982; Edwards, 1984; Ridpath, 2002). This statement as observed by the authors can be linked to how some student-athletes in Colleges of Education in the Upper East Region think. This thought can sometimes have a negative effect on their academic performance in the major subjects considered core in the college education system.

#### **2.4 Academic Support Programmes for Student-athletes**

Schools and colleges need to provide programmes that will support student-athletes to enable them combine their academic and sports adventures to grow to their optimal desire. The movement that propelled change in the initial and continuing eligibility standards have placed the burden of academic decisions on individual universities. It is a university's "responsibility to admit students who have a reasonable chance of academic progress including graduating" (Carodine, Murphey, Orbach, Rulka, Frehlich, & Barba, 1999; Gurney, Tan, & Winters, 2010). Concern for the student-athletes' academic viability begins with their admission to a university. This is because recruited athletes, with low aggregate, have significantly lower SAT and ACT scores than other applicants to schools. Consequently, if it were not for their athletic talent, athletes would likely have appreciably lower admittance rates than applicants in general (Bowen & Levin, 2003; Gurney et al, 2010).

Virtually all institutions participating in NCAA Division I athletics provide some level of academic assistance many times including an array of advisors, tutors, and mentors to help athletes learn how to balance the demands of the classroom and the playing field (Briggs, 1997; Suggs, 1999a, b, c). However, this is not entertained in Ghanaian Colleges, especially those in the area of study. Many researchers (Ervin, Saunders, Gillis, & Hogrebe, 1985; Young & Sowa, 1992; Petrie & Russell, 1995; Watt & Moore, 2001) have suggested that student athletes face a unique set of challenges that they are not ready to meet without assistance. Student-athletes are a diverse special population because of their roles on campus, their atypical lifestyles, and their special needs (Ferrante, Etze & Lantz, 1996).

Many prospective student-athletes, who meet NCAA standards for competitive eligibility, often still do not meet admission standards for a particular university. This subgroup may be admitted to a university under a special exception and typically may need assistive academic services available only to athletes. Most Division I universities offer admission exceptions to get athletes into school, even if the athlete is under prepared and not ready for the academic reality of college work. The sheer competitive nature of athletics and the desire to get the best athletes can persuade coaches to just look for the best athletes and not the academically oriented ones. Looking for loopholes in admission requirements to get even non-qualified athletes admitted goes on everyday at institutions of higher learning (Sperber, 1990; Blum, 1994; Gurney, et al; Naughton, 1997). Student-athletes have almost twice the chance of being accepted to the college their dreams, although this dream may be based solely on athletic reputation and a persuasive coach (Greene & Greene, 2001). Several college admissions directors advocate the opportunity be

given to all students in college and the risk that goes with admitting any student who does not meet the institutional requirements. They also weigh that opportunity with the risk and the reward of knowing not all will make it, but hope that most will take advantage of the opportunity (Blum, 1994). With the exception of true scholar athletes, academic averages and test scores of recruited athletes are well below those of students admitted for their academic performance, but the graduation rates are higher than the student body at large, which begs the question as to how this is happening and what are the motivations of the athlete to succeed academically (Greene & Greene, 2001).

Even with student-athletes meeting initial academic standards and getting admitted, practice, competition, and the rigours of academic and athletic life in college can also present difficult challenges for even the academically successful college athlete (Gurney et al; Naughton, 1996). Athletes at the intercollegiate level must abide by an abundance of NCAA rules, be treated as any other student, and, in general, receive the same benefits that are available to the institution's students or their relatives or friends (NCAA, 2009-10). The reality is that athletes are treated differently from the rest of the student body at most higher education institutions. Athletes at virtually all NCAA institutions receive special compensatory academic assistance above and beyond the general student body (Briggs, 1997).

Initially, isolated academic services for student athletes included only priority class scheduling, tutoring, and time management assistance from assistant coaches and other administrators (Broughton & Neyer, 2001; Shinberg & Brodzinski, 1984) unlike current dedicated academic centres or even palatial buildings solely used for academic assistance to the athletes. These centres provide, in addition to academic counselling, a counsellor to

student ratio at a much better ratio than the general student body, tutoring, advance scheduling, drug and alcohol counselling, study and academic skill sessions, and life skills classes (Naughton). Critics of these types of arrangements argue that the necessity of these support services suggest many athletes, especially those in football and men's basketball would not succeed academically, nor graduate, without an inordinate amount of help. Those who support special services for athletics say all college students in general need these programmes and athletic academic assistance programmes are available for other students throughout campus (Naughton). However, these services are more concentrated in athletics, with the main reason being because the athletes' time is so limited due to complex demands that result from participating in competitive sport (Broughton et al; Naughton).

Increased academic assistance such as this has been cited as a reason, along with better pre-college preparation, for increased graduation rates for Division I athletes since 1991 (Benson, 1997). The overall increase in graduation rates, in surveys done by the NCAA since 1991 show that the increased initial eligibility standards instituted at that time, combined with a long list of academic services for Division I athletes have contributed to the overall increase in the graduation rates of student athletes (Benson, 1997; Wieberg, 2009). The NCAA's official stance is that part of the increase is due to initial eligibility standards and student-athletes being watched closely academically through their athletic academic services department during years of enrolment (Lederman, 1992).

In some advanced countries, especially the United States of America, education support programmes have been instituted to help student-athletes to gain popularity in terms of academic performance. This has been observed as intercollegiate athletics has in

recent years begun to focus on the creation of stronger academic and personal support services for student-athletes. As (Robinson, 1998) observed, “Inherent in this new focus is the perception that problems experienced by student-athletes in college and university settings are not insurmountable, though new programmes of support and assistance must be developed to complement those already in place”. Of particular importance are needs for holistic support programmes that address psychosocial issues relevant to student-athletes (Goldberg, 1991; Hinkle, 1994; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988).

Currently the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) (1998) CHAMPS Life Skills Programme highlights many of the developmental needs of college student-athletes. This programme is a major contributor to the growing body of literature on their special counselling needs (Robinson, 1998). The NCAA CHAMPS Life Skills Programme is designed to provide student-athletes with education and experiences that (a) optimizes their collegiate experiences, (b) facilitates successful transitions to professional careers, and (c) supports students' meaningful contributions to their communities. The CHAMPS/Life Skills Programme is based on the premise that student-athletes have a difficult time accessing campus-wide student activities, programming, and experiences. The programme provides athletics departments with resources and guidance to help them assist student-athletes to engage more fully in the collegiate experience (National Collegiate Athletic Association, 1998; Robinson, 1998).

In more developed countries such as the United States of America, Great Britain, etc, university librarians have been attempting to help student-athletes by starting special programmes for them in some instances. Indiana University started a programme (England 1982) in the early 1980s that addressed a large number of academic issues including library

skills for student-athletes. The first apparent write up about a library run student-athlete programme (Jesudason 1984) dealt with a programme at the University of Wisconsin, Madison in the mid-1980s. Jesudason wrote about how important library education was for athletes in regards to Proposition 48 that had been passed by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) to require minimum academic standards of new student-athletes. This meant that many new athletes were not eligible to play their first year in college and that remedial education was needed for these athletes to make them eligible. This gave academic libraries an opening to make an impact on the education of student-athletes. The library approached the athletic department at the University of Wisconsin and was given permission to create an education module for student-athletes. This module included the development of a brochure and sending student-athletes through two library instruction sessions.

Like the University of Wisconsin programme, the library instruction programme for student-athletes at the University of Central Florida also put athletes through two library instruction sessions. It was noted by (Ruscella 1993) that contrary to stereotype that the student-athletes had a higher graduation rate than the rest of the student population. Despite this, a programme was started for the special population of student-athletes because it was believed that the student-athletes needed more library help due to their extensive athletic schedules. The programme was well received and in evaluating the programme the student-athletes found the programme to be successful.

In 1996, the Seattle Times reported on a unique student-athlete support programme at the University of Washington. The men's basketball had been given laptops so that the athletes would be better able to complete school work when travelling. In addition, the

athletes were all enrolled in a two credit hour course on how to use the laptops. The programme was not initiated by the library but the librarians did assist by making arrangements at the university libraries at the schools the athletes were visiting to have study space set aside for the athletes to use the laptops. The programme had been considered successful and the laptop programme was going to be expanded to include more of the student-athlete population at the University of Washington.

From observation made and on personal experience, such academic support programmes are not initiated and put in practice to help student-athletes in schools and colleges in the country, especially schools and colleges in the Upper East Region.

## **2.5 Summary of Literature**

In summary, a review of the literature provides several findings that help support the present study. This current study proposes that variables such as tutor perceptions and attitude towards their college student-athletes academic work are related to tutor negative stereotypes toward student-athletes. As stated in the previous section, student-athletes do feel that faculty members hold stereotypical attitudes toward them (Aries, Mccarthy, Salovey, & Banaji, 2004; Bowen & Levin, 2003; Sack & Staurowsky, 1999; Shulman & Bowen, 2001). Stereotypes about these student-athletes are believed to be negative and negate individual differences between student-athletes.

Literature reviewed also indicated that, faculty (tutors) in Colleges of Education hold the perception that, student-athletes are seen as academically unqualified illegitimate students whose only interest is athletics, who expect and receive special treatment from tutors and others. The perception is that in order to remain eligible and participate in sports

they put in minimum effort, do little academic work, take easy classes and have others do their work for them (Zingg, 1982, Leach & Connors, 1984).

It has been established from the literature that three attitudes are imbued in student-athletes; the attitude of athletic likeness, attitude of academic likeness, and attitude of both academic and athletic likeness. These three types of attitudes exhibited by student-athletes exist at varying degrees on most college campuses across the country; however, there is no current way of measuring student-athletes' motivation toward sports and academics. Academic and athletic motivation is characterised by the amount of energy student-athletes put forth toward academic and athletic tasks, and are not the same for every student-athlete.

There are specific areas in which faculty may show negative attitudes towards their student-athletes. Research has shown that faculty indicate negative feelings toward student-athletes in terms of academic preparation, unfair admissions practices, enrolment patterns, and lack of time dedicated to academic matters (e.g., class attendance) (Baucom & Lantz, 2001; Defrancesco & Gropper, 1996; Engstrom, Sedlacek, & McEwen, 1995).

Evidence from literature in this study has shown that universities in advanced countries give academic support programmes to student-athletes to enable them meet their academic challenges. This however, contrasts with colleges of education in the Upper East Region of Ghana.

Lastly, a review of the literature revealed that individuals develop attitudes towards college athletics and the student-athlete in a variety of ways. These attitudes are influenced by the social and cultural contexts in which sport exists and studies have been conducted to research the phenomenon of sport.



## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to investigate how tutors perceptions and attitudes influence student-athletes academic work at the Colleges of Education in the Upper East Region of Ghana. Specifically, the study looked at the attitudes of CoE tutors towards student-athletes.

The chapter contains all the various aspects of the methods that were adopted in the data collection and analysis. The organization of the chapter is as follows:

- Research Design,
- Population,
- Sampling and Sampling Technique
- Instrumentation
- Validity and Reliability of Instrument
- Method of Data Collection
- Data Analysis Procedures.

#### 3.1 Research Design

Descriptive survey research design was used for this study. Descriptive design was used because according to Tuckman (1994), the descriptive research follows systematically the following steps in finding solution to a problem:

- i. Examines a problematic situation;

- ii. Lists the assumptions upon which its hypotheses and procedures are based;
- iii. Selects or constructs instruments for collecting data;
- iv. Validates the data collecting instruments;
- v. Makes discriminating objective observation, establishes categories for classifying data;
- vi. Describes analysis, interprets and presents research finding in clear, precise terms.

Similarly, descriptive survey design, according to Amedahe and Gyimah (2003), makes use of various data collection techniques involving observation, interview, questionnaires, attitude scale and examination of teaching documents. The researcher used both quantitative and qualitative research methods to collect, interpret, and analyze data because according to Knupfer and McLellan (2001), 'descriptive research does not fit neatly into the definition of either quantitative or qualitative research methodologies, but it can utilize elements of both, often within the same study'. When in-depth, narrative descriptions of cases are involved, the researcher uses description as a tool to organize data into patterns that emerge during analysis. Those patterns aid the mind in comprehending a qualitative study and its implications (<http://www.aect.org/edtech/edl/default.htm> 27/11/08).

This study, reports summary data such as measures of central tendency

(Mean) the spread of responses (standard deviations), percentages, and correlation between variables. Hence, it fits into a descriptive survey design. Survey research commonly includes that type of measurement, but often goes beyond the descriptive statistics in order to draw inferences. Descriptive studies can yield rich data that lead to important recommendations.

Fraenkel and Wallen (1993) listed the following as advantages of descriptive research:

1. It provides a good numbers of responses from numerous people
2. It provides a meaningful picture of events and seeks to explain people's perception and behaviour on the basis of information obtained at a point in time
3. It can be used with greater confidence with regard to particular questions which are of special interest and values to a researcher
4. In-depth follow-up questions can be asked and items that are not clear can be explained.
5. It is very easy to analyse the responses obtained from the respondents.

They also provide the following demerits:

1. Answers can vary greatly depending on the exact wording of questions or statements.
2. It can produce untrustworthy results because they may delve into private and emotional matters that respondents may not be completely truthful about

One major weakness of descriptive research is that, answers to descriptive research do not enable us to understand why people feel or think or behave in a certain way, why programmes pose certain characteristic, why a particular strategy is used at a certain time and so forth. As a result, our understanding of a situation, group or phenomenon is limited.

In spite of these couple of demerits, the rationale for this design chosen was to enable more respondents to be questioned fairly quickly and observed at less cost and also since questions are structured, there would be less bias in analysing the data yielded. There would also be less influence from the dynamics of interpersonal variable such as

personality influences. Also it allows for greater degree of accuracy, reliability, standardizations of measurement and the uniqueness of the study; much information can be obtained from individual respondent of the population. Finally, not so much involving in terms of time and energy

### 3.2 Population

Identifying the population of a research is a sine qua non (an essential condition) since no research is carried out in a vacuum. It is therefore, imperative to know the target population in order to decide on what sample size to use for the research. Nworgu (2006), classifies population into target and accessible. The target population is all the members of a specified group to which the investigation is related, while the accessible population is defined in terms of those elements in the group within the reach of the researcher.

The target population for this study were all tutors and teacher trainees in the two Colleges of Education in the Upper East Region of Ghana. The accessible population included all college tutors handling the four foundation courses (Mathematics, English Language, Environmental and Social Studies and Integrated Science) and second year groups of teacher trainees in the selected colleges. The size of the accessible population was five hundred and twenty-three (523) second year teacher-trainees, 413 males and 110 females. This group was considered because they have gone through the course in the four foundation courses and also have competed for their colleges in athletics.

### 3.3 Sample and Sampling Technique

A mix sampling method was used to arrive at the sample population. The two Colleges were labelled A and B: College A and College B (Gbewaa College of Education and St. John Bosco's College of Education) respectively were selected based on convenience, proximity or closeness at hand (Kannae, 2004). Besides, the researcher had established good rapport with them and was familiar with these colleges and could get access to the facilities and support.

Simple Random sampling was used to select a total sample of one hundred and fifty (150) respondents for the study. This includes 120 students and 30 tutors (see Table 1 below). The Simple Random technique was used to enable the researcher get a proportionate representation from each college. In addition, the respondents were categorized according to gender and the lottery technique used to select the sample to respond to the questionnaire. Out of the number, 45 were selected from College A and 75 from College B. Fifteen (15) tutors were also selected from the four major departments (Mathematics and ICT, Integrated Science, Environmental and Social Studies and Languages) in each college. Purposive sampling was used to select both tutors and second year teacher trainees in these colleges because of their advantage of been interacted with the tutors concerned and the exposure to external examinations in two different years. In purposive sampling, the researcher handpicks the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of judgment of their typicality and uniqueness, or particularly knowledgeable about the issues under study. Thus, in purposive sampling, also known as judgmental sampling, the researcher purposely chooses respondents whose opinions are thought to be relevant to the research topic (Amedahe & Gyimah, 2003).

Table 1 showed the breakdown of teacher trainees and Table 2 showed the breakdown of tutors in the accessible population and sample population from the various colleges.

**Table 1: Teacher Trainees by College Population and Sample Size**

College	Population	Sample
College A	221	45
College B	300	75
Total	521	120

**Table 2: Tutors by College Population and Sample Size**

College	Population	Sample
College A	20	15
College B	42	15
Total	62	30

### 3.4.0 Instrumentation

The questionnaire was deemed the most appropriate instrument to collect information for this study because of its easy administration and the relatively low cost of gathering essential information. According to Haley (1980), high quality data can be generated from questionnaire if handled properly. Based on this, the questionnaire items were designed from the research questions. Best and Khan (1989), also contended that, the Likert-type scale enables respondents to indicate the degree of their beliefs and feelings about a given statement or object.

The questionnaire was developed in a 5-point Likert-type Scale for respondents to give their views. This was put into three parts. Part 1 of the questionnaire requested for

background information of the respondents while Part 2 consisted of items or statements to which the respondents were required to agree or disagree to reflect their feelings and attitudes towards student-athletes. The last part of the questionnaire gave room for respondents to express themselves in the form of writing statements based on their level of understanding of the items concerned.

### **3.4.1 Definition of Variables**

#### ***Confidence in Student Athletes***

This is the teachers' belief/self-assurance that student-athletes can perform a task adequately to the best of his/her abilities.

#### ***Motivation of Student Athletes***

This is the teachers' ability to encourage student-athletes to perform tasks adequately to the best of their abilities.

#### ***Value of Student Athletes***

This is the worth, the teacher places on the student-athletes ability to perform tasks adequately.

#### ***Expectations from Student Athletes***

This the hope the teacher has in the abilities of student-athletes to perform tasks adequately and beyond their abilities.

### **3.4.2 Scoring the Items of the Instruments**

Value labels were assigned to sex and college as follows: Male = 1 and female = 2. College 'A' was labeled 1 and College 'B' 2. The responses to the various items were

scored using the five point Likert-type scale and weighted, depending on whether the item was worded positively or negatively. All the items were rated on a scale of 1 to 5 with 1 being *strongly disagree* and 5 being *strongly agree*. The negatively worded items were noted and were transformed during data analyses by recoding into the relevant variable group in order for a high score to indicate a favourable attitude and vice versa.

Table 3 showed the rating scale of the responses to the items based on the wording.

**Table 3: Rating Scale for the Responses**

Rating	Positive Wording	Negative Wording
Strongly agree	5	1
Agree	4	2
Undecided	3	3
Disagree	2	4
Strongly disagree	1	5

A total score of 32 indicates the least score and a total score of 160 the highest attitude score of a person. The mean score for each variable was determined by dividing the total score by the total frequency.

The responses to the tutors' attitude towards student-athletes questionnaires were scored from -2 (strongly disagree) to 2 (strongly agree). That is,

-2 SD: strongly disagree

-1 D: disagree

0 UD: undecided or no opinion

+1 A: agree

+2 SA: strongly agree



A score of less than zero means slight teachers' attitude towards student athletes (better) and a score of  $> 0$  but  $\leq 1$  means moderate teachers' attitude towards student athletes (good). A zero score indicate no anxiety (best). A score more than one means high teachers' attitude towards student athletes (bad). For a reverse scored questions, the scoring was transformed for all negative statement in to the same variable group for uniformity. The totals for all negative items scale were then averaged to give a single value in the range from -2 to +2. This scoring procedure is similar to Kaatz (2006) with slight modifications in the interpretation.

However, all analyses and values obtained from this study were done by the statistical computer application software called the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS)

### **3.5 Validity and Reliability of Instrument**

Tapia and Marsh II (2004) have observed that it is crucial that any investigation of attitudes is assessed with an instrument that has good technical characteristics if research conclusions are to be meaningful. To validate the instruments, the questionnaire was discussed with colleagues known to be critical physical education friends and the researcher's supervisor who is an expert about the content against the research questions, since one of the means of achieving content validity is by expert judgment (Guy, 1987).

Both content and face validity were examined by my supervisor and other experts in the department and were deemed appropriate and good to make inferences for recommendation. Hence validity is the appropriateness, meaningfulness, and usefulness of the specific inferences researchers make based on the data they collect (Fraenkel and

Wallen (2000). Validation is necessary for collection of evidence to support inference making. Therefore, two types of validity were identified and addressed in this study. These included face validity, and content validity of the instruments.

Face validity refers to the likelihood that a question will be misunderstood or misinterpreted by the subjects. Pilot-testing the instrument was carried out to increase face validity. Face validity of the instrument was further enhanced through assessment by the researcher's supervisor in the Department of Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Sports who is experienced, competent and familiar with research. Content validity refers to whether an instrument provides adequate coverage of a topic. As with face validity, content validity was assured by the supervisor's scrutiny of the instrument. The recommendations of the validator were used to revise the content material and the instructional package.

Reliability concerns the degree to which an experiment, test, or any measuring procedure yields the same results on repeated trials (Patton, 2007). To determine the reliability of this instrument; internal consistency estimate of reliability procedure was used. Sixty questionnaire items were pilot tested at Tumu College of Education. This was because pilot study helps the researcher to decide whether the study is feasible and whether it is worthwhile to continue. It provides the opportunity to assess the appropriateness and practicality of the data collection instruments. It permits a preliminary testing of the hypothesis and research questions, which may give some indication of its tenability and suggest whether refinement is needed. It will be able to demonstrate the adequacy of the research procedures and the measures that may have been selected for the variables. Unanticipated problems that appear may be solved at this stage, thereby saving time and effort later (Ary, Jacobs and Razavied, 1990). To estimate internal consistency of the

scores, Cronbach alpha was calculated and the reliability coefficient found to be 0.68. Of the 60 items, 34 had item-to-total correlations above 0.58 and the highest being 0.62. This suggested that most of the items contributed to the total inventory.

An item deletion process was performed in order to increase the value of alpha. Items were deleted based on their item-to-total correlation. Twenty-eight (28) items which had correlations lower than 0.58 were deleted one at a time starting with the one with the lowest item-to-total correlation. After deleting 28 items, the alpha reached a value of 0.72. This reliability coefficient was considered very appropriate. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2000), reliability should be at least 0.70 and preferably higher.

### **3.6 Data Collection Procedure**

Two visits to the selected colleges were scheduled; a preliminary visit and the actual visit. A preliminary visit was carried out to enable the researcher modulate the questionnaire, identify available and credible sources of data, and ascertain any challenges likely to hinder the smooth conduct of the study. In order to obtain maximum cooperation from the respondents and also have access to credible sources of secondary data, the researcher visited the selected colleges and sought permission from the Principals through a letter from the Department of Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Sports, UEW (See Appendix A). This was to enable the researcher not only gain entry for the study but also to confirm current specific programmes relating to athletics, study the time table, and to arrange for contact persons and identify informants. Meeting schedules were arranged with them where the researcher explained to the tutors and the trainees concerned about the essence of the study. The researcher finally visited the colleges and was led by the Physical

Education tutors. The purpose and the rationale of the visit was to encourage respondents to independently respond to the instruments. The Physical Education tutors assisted in the questionnaires distribution. I waited and collected the items back on the same day after the respondents had responded to them.

The questionnaire was administered to all the respondents (trainees) in the classrooms and supervised by the Physical Education tutors while the responses from the tutors were supervised and collected by the researcher. The researcher gathered the completed questionnaire items from both groups of respondents (tutors and trainees) and prepared a data file using the statistical computer application software called the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) by assigning identity numbers to cases and preparing variable list and names.

### **3.7 Data Analysis**

This study used quantitative form to analyse data. Knupfer and McLellan (2001) remarked that, any measured quality has just the magnitude expressed in its measure and quantities are of qualities. According to an International Programme for Development Evaluation Training (2007), whether you choose qualitative data or quantitative data, you will find that your data collection and data analysis will overlap. Fara Jr., Brown, and Mangione (2002), also indicated that, ‘a process of data analysis is eclectic; there is no ‘right way’’. The study was interested in describing the attitudes of Colleges of Education tutors towards the academic work of student-athletes.

Quantitative method was used to enable the researcher to;

- elaborate or develop analysis, providing richer detail

➤ initiate new lines of thinking through attention to surprises or paradoxes, “turning ideas around” and providing fresh insight.

The completed questionnaires collected were counted to determine the response rate. Even though, there was a 100% return, yet, there were fifteen uncompleted items which were interpreted as undecided. The data gathered was coded and the results analysed under each variable. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used.

The choice of the SPSS software package over the other packages was because:

1. that is the software package the researcher is familiar with.
2. of large sample size to use manual calculation.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients (PPMCC) of the respondents’ attitudes scores and academic work of student-athletes were calculated to explain the possible relationships between these variables.

Finally, the correlation coefficients between attitudinal variables were also presented. The two groups of participants (male and female) had their individual opinions so no population information is known.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate how tutors perceptions and attitudes influence student-athletes academic work at the Colleges of Education in the Upper East Region of Ghana. Specifically, the study looked at the attitudes of CoE tutors towards student-athletes.

This chapter was divided into three sections. The first section presents the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The second section presents general information concerning the attitudes of tutors of colleges of education towards the academic work of student-athletes in upper east region and the third section presents the findings based on the research questions for the study.

#### 4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Teacher Respondents

There were a total of 30 teachers selected for the study. Fifty percent (50%, n=15) of the teachers population came from Gbewaa College of Education and 50% (n=15) from St. John Bosco's College of Education. Sixty-seven percent (67%, n=20) of the teacher population were males and 33% (n=10) were females.

With regards to the subject of specialisation, 23% (n=7) of the teachers taught Mathematics, 20% (n=6) taught English, 17% (n=5) taught Education, 13% (n=4) taught Science, 7% (n=2) taught Ghanaian Languages, Social Studies and Agricultural Science respectively and 3% (n=1) taught ICT.

## **4.2 Demographic Characteristics of Student Respondents**

There were a total of 120 teacher trainees selected from the two colleges of education for the study. Thirty eight percent (38%, n=45) of the student population came from Gbewaa College of Education and 62% (n=75) from St. John Bosco's College of Education. Fifty-four percent (54%, n=65) of the teacher population were males and forty-six percent (46%, n=55) were females.

## **4.3 Findings**

The questionnaire responses for the 120 students were coded and the mean response to questions was computed (see appendix 3 for descriptive statistics table). The mean scores for each question was summed and divided by the total number of questions for the mean score of the questionnaire to be derived. The mean for the questionnaire was 1.9 and this was compared to measurement criteria stated in chapter 3 as follows:

A score of less than zero means slight teachers' attitude towards student-athletes (better) and a score of  $> 0$  but  $\leq 1$  means moderate teachers' attitude towards student-athletes (good). A zero score indicate no anxiety (best). A score more than one means high teachers' attitude towards student -athletes (bad).

Since the mean score for the questionnaire was a score greater than one it means that teachers' in the two colleges of education's attitude towards student athletes was bad.

### **4.4.1 Data Presentation for Research Questions**

**4.4.2 Research Question 1:** What are the perceptions tutors of Colleges of Education have on college student-athletes and how do these perceptions affect student-athletes in their academic work?

**Table 4. Tutor perception of effect of athletic participation on student achievement**

<b>How do you perceive the effect of athletic participation on student achievement?</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Positive	9	30
Negative	21	70
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100</b>

From Table 4 above, 30% (n=9) of the tutors had a positive perception of the effect of athletic participation by students on their achievement and 70% (n=21) had a negative perception of athletic participation by students on their performance. Thus, a majority of 70% tutors had a negative perception of the effect of athletic participation by students on their academic achievement.

The above finding was further buttressed by the response by tutors to the question about whether student-athletes can combine their academics and athletics work favourably.

**Table 5. Tutor responses on student-athletes ability to combine academics and athletics**

<b>My student-athletes cannot combine their academics and athletics work favourably</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Strongly disagree	5	17
Disagree	3	10
Undecided	2	7
Agree	8	27
Strongly agree	12	40
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100</b>

From table 5 above, 17% (n=5) of the tutors stated that they strongly disagreed that student-athletes cannot combine academics and athletics favorably, 10% (n=3) disagreed, 7% (n=2) were undecided, 27% (n=8) agreed and 40% (n=12) strongly agreed with the statement.



Thus with a combined majority of 67% (n=20), the tutors were of the opinion that student-athletes could not combine athletics and academic work favorably. From the data presented by the tutors that stated that they had a negative perception of athletic participation by students on their performance, some of the negative perceptions that the tutors held about students who are involved in athletic programmes are presented in the table 6 below:

**Table 6. Tutors response on negative effects athletics have on student-athletes**

<b>State briefly the negative effects you think athletics have on student-athletes</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Students not being serious	10	48
Laziness	4	19
Truancy	4	19
Tiredness	3	14
<b>Total</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>100</b>

From table 6 above, 48% (n=10) stated that athletes not being serious in class was a negative effect of athletics on academic work, 19% (n=4) stated that laziness and truancy respectively were the negative effects and 14% (n=3) stated that tiredness was a negative effect of athletics performance on students' academic performance.

With regards to how the perceptions of teachers affect student-athletes in their academic work, students' responses to the question about whether their performance in class as an athlete was dictated by their tutors' attitudes are presented in the table below:

**Table 7. Students' responses on whether tutor attitudes dictate their class performance**

<b>My performance in class as an athlete is dictated by my tutor's attitude</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Strongly Disagree	9	7
Disagree	21	8
Undecided	20	17
Agree	31	26
Strongly agree	39	32
<b>Total</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

Looking at table 7 above, seven percent (7%, n=9) of the student respondents strongly disagreed with the statement that their performance in class as an athlete was dictated by their tutors attitude, 18% (n=17) disagreed, 17% (n=20) were undecided, 26% (n=31) agreed and 32% (n=39) strongly agreed with the statement. Therefore with a combined majority of 58%, students agreed that their performance in class as athletes was dictated by their tutor's attitudes.

**4.4.3 Research Question 2:** What is the relationship between tutors' attitude towards student-athletes' in confidence, motivation, value and expectation?

In answering this research question, the researcher placed tutor attitude into four main attitudinal variables and coded them into dimensions as follows:

- Dimension 1 - Confidence in student-athletes
- Dimension 2 - Motivation of student-athletes
- Dimension 3 - Value of Student-athletes
- Dimension 4 - Expectations from student-athletes

The researcher used a significance level of .05 and .01 for all tests of hypotheses, except when it was necessary to carry out post-hoc analysis. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for all the quantitative data analyses.

*Table 8: Correlations on Selected Attitudinal Variables*

		Teachers attitude	Dimension 1	Dimension 2	Dimension 3	Dimension 4
teachers attitude	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	<b>1</b>				
Dimension 1	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	<b>.255**</b>	1			
Dimension 2	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	<b>.324**</b>	.273**	1		
Dimension 3	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	<b>.211*</b>	.003	.217*	1	
Dimension 4	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	<b>.027</b>	-.044	-.073	.108	1
		<b>.775</b>	.636	.433	.252	

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**4.4.2a. What is tutors' attitude toward student-athletes with respect to confidence in student athletes?**

From table 8 above, R value is 0.255 with a significance of 0.005 which is statistically significant at 0.01. However, since the R value is close to 1 and greater than 0.03, there is a relatively strong relationship between teachers attitude along the male domain. Since the R value is positive we have a positive correlation. This means that as tutors attitude increases in value, the second variable i.e. confidence in student athletes also increase in value. Similarly, as one variable decreases in value, the second variable also decreases in value.

**4.4.2b. What is tutors' attitude toward student-athletes with respect to motivation of student athletes?**

Table8 above indicated that, R value is 0.324 with a significance of 0.000 which is statistically significant at 0.01. However, since the R value is close to 1 and greater than 0.03, there is a relatively strong relationship between teachers attitude along the male domain. Since the R value is positive we have a positive correlation. This means that as teachers attitude increases in value, the second variable i.e. motivation of student athletes also increase in value. Similarly, as one variable decreases in value, the second variable also decreases in value. Thus we can conclude that our variables were strongly correlated.

**4.4.2c. What is tutors' attitude toward student-athletes with respect to value of student athletes?**

From table 8 above, R value is 0.211 with a significance of 0.023 which is statistically significant at 0.05. However, since the R value is close to 1 and greater than

0.03, there is a relatively strong relationship between teachers attitude along the male domain. Since the R value is positive we have a positive correlation. This means that as teachers attitude increases in value, the second variable i.e. value of student athletes also increase in value. Similarly, as one variable decreases in value, the second variable also decreases in value. Thus we can conclude that our variables were strongly correlated.

**4.4.2d. What is tutors' attitude toward student-athletes with respect to expectations of student athletes?**

From table 8 above, R value is 0.027 with a significance of 0.775 which is not statistically significant at 0.05 or 0.01. However, since the R value is close to 0 and less than 0.03, there is a weak relationship between teachers attitude along the male domain. This means that changes in one variable i.e. tutors' attitude are not correlated with changes in the second variable i.e. expectations of student athletes. Thus we can conclude that our variables were not strongly correlated.

**Research Question 3:** What academic support do student-athletes receive in the Colleges of Education?

With regards to academic support programmes for students in the Colleges of Education, the following responses were gotten from the tutors.

**Table 9. Tutors responses on academic support programmes available to student-athletes in Colleges of Education**

<b>What academic support programmes are available for student athletes</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
School instituted extra tuition programmes	3	10
Teacher initiated extra tuition programmes	9	30
Peer/student initiated extra tuition programmes	3	10
No academic support programmes	15	50
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100</b>

From Table 9, ten percent (10%, n=3) of the tutors stated that they had school instituted extra tuition programmes for student-athletes, 30% (n=9) stated that they had tutor initiated extra tuition programmes as academic support for students, 10% (n=3) also stated that they had peer/student initiated academic support programmes for student athletes and 50% (n=15) stated that there was no academic support programmes for students in their Colleges of Education. Thus by a simple majority of 50%, the tutors responded that they were unaware of or there were no academic support programmes for student-athletes.

## **4.5 Discussions**

### **4.5.1 Findings on Research Question 1**

The findings from the research question revealed that the attitudes of tutors towards students were generally bad. The negative views of faculty (tutors) in particular can have a

debilitating harm on student-athletes in schools and colleges. This finding is in line with the finding of a study conducted by Leach and Connors (1984) which postulated that faculty perceive that athletics is incompatible with the basic values of academic integrity and academic excellence. This was further amplified in a recent study carried by Engstrom, Sedlacek, and McEwen (1995) which also confirmed that faculty do view student-athletes (particularly those in revenue producing sports) less favorably than they do to other students. For example, faculty perceived more favourably students who were not involved with athletics getting a scholarship, driving an expensive car, being mentioned in the campus paper, or even receiving a good grade in their class.

Studies conducted by Palardy and Rumberger have also shown that tutor attitudes, practices, and beliefs have a significant impact on student achievement (Palardy & Rumberger, 2008). Current and past research indicates that the teacher is the most important element in student achievement and growth (Marzano, 2003; Marzano, 2007; Palardy & Rumberger; Rivers & Sanders, 2002; Strong, 2007). This means that if tutors have negative perception about student-athletes, it is invariably going to affect their academic achievement.

The nature of athletics can often isolate student-athletes from the larger campus community. This reason alone according to Hamilton and Troler (1986), may explain why the student-athlete special population is so susceptible to stereotyping. Regardless, Hamilton and Troler wrote that the general campus view of the dumb athlete is internalized by many student-athletes. The athlete experiences the low opinion that others have of him and begins to believe it. The athlete begins to think it is a done deal to have

poor academic performance because that is what everyone expects of them. This cycle is damaging to the student-athletes' self-esteem and their ability to succeed academically.

Many a time, students and teachers of schools and colleges castigate student-athletes and brand them with names (negative stereotype) that are not palatable which go a long way to affect them both academically and psychologically as viewed by some researchers in the past that, many students and faculty alike harbour stereotypes of student-athletes (Engstrom & Sedlacek, 1991, 1993; Engstrom, Sedlacek, & McEwen, 1995). The "dumb jock" image is still all too prevalent across college campuses and exists for both male and female student-athletes. Bandura (1986) addressed the debilitating effects of such stereotypes in connection with verbal persuasion and appraisal by significant others.

Self-efficacy beliefs influence the choices people make, how they behave, their motivation, thoughts, and emotional responses (Goddard et al., 2000; Pajares, 2002). Positive teacher attitudes associated with teaching and learning abilities are related to greater teacher efficacy (Guskey, 1984). Positive self-efficacy beliefs are linked to positive teacher attitudes (Chen & Chang, 2006).

Colleges of Education place a heavy burden on student-athletes because they are expected to be both successful in the academic as well as the athletic domain. They must meet the same academic demands as other students despite their devotion in extensive time and energy to their sport, spending time away from classes for athletic competitions to make name for themselves and their respective colleges. In an article published in 2005 by Lawry, it was stated that universities have spent enormously on student-athletes in an attempt to aid them in achieving scholastic benchmarks.



General perceptions of student-athletes are primarily centred on academic capability and motivation, but they are also viewed as being socially inept (Sellers, 1992). As found in the current study, faculty may have more negative attitudes toward college student-athletes than other students, administrators, and alumni (Leach & Conners, 1984). The inherent mismatch between the student outcomes of athletics and academia may explain the root of these generalized perceptions by faculty members (Leach & Conners, 1984). As found in the current study and buttressed by Engstrom, Sedlacek, and McEwen (1995) found that faculty had negative perceptions of male student-athletes regarding services provided for student-athletes, the provision of full athletic scholarships, university admission despite low SAT scores, their ability to receive an “A” in a class, and receiving public attention for athletic accomplishments. Although these stereotypes are for male student-athletes, these perceptions by faculty provide a starting point for understanding the classroom environment for all student-athletes.

Many people also draw conclusions to female student-athletes as studies done in the past have shown. Athletic environments for women are viewed as heterosexist and homonegative (Griffin, 1998; Krane & Barber, 2005; Wellman & Blinde, 1997) and can create a hostile environment for student-athletes perceived to be gay, lesbian, and bisexual. Female athletes are perceived to be lesbians and masculine, and these stereotypes are more prevalent for athletes participating in basketball, soccer, golf, and softball (Kauer & Krane, 2006). They are labelled manly, butch, dyke, or lesbo for participation these sports which are typically more aggressive or traditionally masculine in nature (Kauer & Krane, 2006).

Engstrom, Sedlacek, and McEwen (1995) used the SAS to examine faculty perceptions of athletes at a large public Division 1-A university. They found negative

faculty perceptions that revolved around athletes' lack of academic preparation. In another study Baucom and Lantz (2001) employed the SAS in a study of faculty attitudes toward athletes in a highly selective Division II university which does not give athletic scholarships and where the athletic environment might be expected to be less problematic. They found similar negative faculty perceptions of athletes concerning academic preparation and special treatment.

A less recognized burden faced by student-athletes is the negative perceptions and expectations by faculty and other students about their academic capability and motivation. These negative perceptions are embodied in the dumb jock stereotype that holds that athletes lack the motivation and intelligence to succeed academically at the intercollegiate level (Zingg, 1982, Leach & Connors, 1984). They are seen as academically unqualified illegitimate students whose only interest is athletics, who expect and receive special treatment from tutors and others. The perception is that in order to remain eligible and participate in sports they put in minimum effort, do little academic work, take easy classes and have others do their work for them.

From the above observation made by Zingg, 1982, Leach & Connors, 1984), it can be realised that when student-athletes want to satisfy their tutors and remove this perception they hold about them, then they have to work beyond their reach which can have a rippling effect on them both academically and athletically. Jokes like other forms of folklore can reinforce stereotypes and reflect issues that are of concern in society but cannot be expressed openly (Dundes, 1987). “Dumb jock” jokes provide a socially sanctioned way of expressing anxiety about the existence of intercollegiate athletics and the

threat it poses to the academic integrity and purpose of the university. The following “dumb jock” jokes express these concerns:

This concern about the lack of academic qualifications and seemingly nonexistent admission standards for athletes can be seen in the numerous examples of College Entrance exams for athletes found on the internet which include questions that a child could answer, (Jokes.com, 2005).

Lawrence, Ott, and Hendricks (2009) also found that faculty members’ perceptions of intercollegiate athletics programmes covered a wide spectrum. As the data analysis of the current study revealed some faculty viewed athletics programmes as having a negative effect on the academic reputation of their schools and others believed that there was disconnect between athletics and academics. Conversely, there were faculty who saw no conflict between athletics and academics and highlighted the positive contributions of athletics, such as the development of athletes’ personal characteristics and providing student entertainment. Lawrence et al. (2009) and Noble (2004) suggested that the varying opinions could be due in part to institutional and individual differences.

Brand (2007) believed that college athletes are students first and should not receive any preferential treatment. He also reinforced the idea that the academic standards that apply to the general students should be identical to those applied to athletes. Brand (2007) further suggested that it is unacceptable to treat athletes adversely if they are following institutional rules and procedures. He stated that “unfortunately, because of understandable reluctance to criticize colleagues, faculty members are active in ensuring that athletes are not unfairly advantaged, but often not equally attentive to ensuring that athletes are not unfairly disadvantaged (p. 2).”

In many cases athletes fail to take advantage of the faculty as one of their primary educational resources and are reluctant to meet with them outside the classroom (Cotten & Wilson, 2006; Jolly, 2008). Pierce (2007) noted that “time spent with the faculty advisor is perceived as being especially critical” to the academic success of athletes (p. 801). In addition, the importance of informal interactions between athletes and faculty members has been documented in several studies (Cotten & Wilson, 2006; Harrison et al., 2006; Jolly, 2008). Cotton & Wilson, (2006) found that students rarely interact with their teachers outside of class and if they do, it is usually because they are struggling with an assignment or have a specific problem with the class. Cotton & Wilson (2006) also suggested that many students do not realize the potential benefits of substantive interaction with faculty. By contrast, students involved in a group or activity that required substantial, one on one conversation or meetings with faculty had meaningful relationships and interactions and recognized the benefits. For some students, informal out of class interactions increased their comfort level and resulted in increased in-class interactions (Cotton & Wilson, 2006). Similarly, Jolly (2008) found that more informal interaction can help athletes with their misperceptions of faculty.

The athletes’ failure to meet tutors outside classroom and have discussions with them concerning their (athletes) progress and retrogress in academic areas might be attributed to the negative perceptions held about them by the college tutors in class. Based on this observation, Jolly (2008) suggested that faculty must be proactive in reaching out to the athletes outside the classroom and by doing so can increase athletes’ short term success and create life-long learners. Informal social interactions provide an important foundation for students to pursue more academically focused interactions in the future. Jolly (2008)

stated that faculty must understand athletes' day-to-day lives and challenges. Faculty who had taken more interest in athletes' academic success reported additional beneficial results from their informal interactions with the athletes such as attending games and practices (Jolly, 2008). The athletes also embraced the engagement of the faculty in the athletic side of their lives and became more comfortable approaching faculty in an academic setting.

Harrison et al. (2006) examined the relationships between male athletes and faculty, specifically the impact of students and faculty interaction on academic achievement. The research was limited to NCAA Division I and II men's football and basketball players, but produced results that may be applicable to other sports, divisions, and women. Harrison et al. (2006) suggested that faculty who provided intellectual challenges and stimulation for their students and helped students achieve professional goals, made strong contributions to the athletes' success. Academically oriented interactions with faculty positively impacted athletes' success and led to a recommendation that initiatives designed to increase levels of faculty communication and mentoring of athletes should be developed and implemented.

The current study reveals that unappealing and negative attitudes toward athletics have existed which places an additional burden on athletes. This is also buttressed by studies from the following researchers Baucom & Lantz, 2001; Simons et al., 2007; Thelin, 1994. A number of researchers have concluded that stereotypical views of athletes exist often leading to misconceptions about their academic ability and motivation (Baucom & Lantz, 2001; Engstrom, Sedlacek, & McEwen, 1995; Jolly, 2008; Knight Foundation, 2007; Potuto & O'Hanlon, 2007). These stereotypes and prejudicial attitudes are evident at all levels of competition, including community colleges, and are directed towards athletes

in both revenue and non-revenue sports (Baucom & Lantz, 2001; Engstrom et al., 1995; Hobneck, Mudge & Turchi, 2003; Richards & Aries, 1999).

Aries et al. (2004), Engstrom et al. (1995), Potuto and O’Hanlon, (2007), and Simons et al. (2007) reported that athletes experience both positive and negative interactions with faculty. In addition, athletes were regularly stigmatized and often perceived to be less capable academically. Simons et al. (2007) investigated athlete stigma in higher education by surveying 538 Division I collegiate athletes. The authors suggested that the general view of Division I college athletes as “privileged” often masks the fact that this group is also stigmatized and that the “dumb jock” stereotype is often applied. When asked how they were treated by faculty and non-athletes, only 15 % of athletes cited positive perceptions. Negative perceptions from professors and other students were reported at 59% and 33% respectively. Athletes also reported that they were refused or given a hard time when requesting accommodations for athletics competitions (61.5%), had heard faculty members make negative comments about athletics (62.1%), had tried to hide their athletic identity to avoid being stigmatized (44.5%) , and (89%) reported they rarely or never received preferential treatment (Simons et al., 2007).

According to Brand (2007), “one concern often voiced by student-athletes is that some faculty members disparage them publicly, or worse penalize them in terms of grades and academic opportunities, because of requirements of sports participation...there is little doubt that some faculty members treat students who are athletes adversely (p .2).” In the 2005-2006 NCAA GOALS, over 20,000 athletes responded to the statement, “I feel my professors view me as more of an athlete than a student.” Almost 70% of Division I and II men’s football and basketball players agreed. However, it is interesting to note

approximately 80% of those respondents felt positively about their relationships with the faculty (Student-Athlete Relationships, 2007, p. 2). A 2008 survey conducted by the NCAA and administered to over 21,000 athletes, revealed that nearly two-thirds of the Division I football players and male basketball players considered themselves more of an athlete than a student (Wieberg, 2008). Given this self-assessment by the athletes, it is not surprising that faculty members may also see them as such.

Perceptions on the performance of student-athletes held by tutors, students and other school workers can negatively affect the academic performance of students who engage in athletics. Most perceptions the public and the general student body hold against student-athletes emanates from teachers' remarks about student-athletes. According to Papanikolaou, Nikolaidis, Patsiaouras and Alexopoulos (2003), student-athletes not only have to cope with their new collegiate identity; they must learn to cope with the change of perception from being highly revered in high school to being viewed as academically inferior. Corroboratively, a quantitative study conducted by Simons, Bosworth, Fujita and Jensen on *Athlete Stigma in Higher Education* on 538 student-athletes at a university to see how faculty members perceived student-athletes revealed that 33% of the athletes' professors saw them in a negative manner, and only 15% of the professors viewed them positively. The survey went further to report that almost 70% of the student-athletes experienced direct negative stereotypical remarks from faculty members. The study also revealed that, a larger percentage of the general student population regarded student-athletes negatively than the university faculty members (Simons et al, 2007). These negative perceptions may have stemmed from the perceived stereotype that student-athletes do not possess the mental capacity as compared to non-athletes.

In a study of faculty attitudes toward male athletes competing in Division I revenue and non-revenue sports, Engstrom et al. (1995) found that prejudices existed and were based on the perceived preferential treatment of athletes with regard to admissions standards and financial support. Disparate treatment was also evident with some professors reluctant to provide athletes opportunities to make up missed work (Jolly, 2008). Potuto & O'Hanlon (2007) also found nearly 50% of the Division I athletes believed that they were discriminated against by their professors because they were athletes.

Baucom and Lantz (2001) also demonstrated that discrimination is not limited to Division I athletes. Prejudice towards male athletes in revenue and non-revenue sports, specifically regarding admissions processes, financial support and provisions of academic support services, was present at a highly selective Division II school (Baucom & Lantz, 2001). In addition, Hobneck, et al. (2003) reported that even though community college students viewed themselves as being equally successful in athletics and academics, faculty perceived athletes as lacking the academic skills necessary to succeed and believed the students' primary concerns were with athletics. Division III athletes also reported significantly more difficulties in being taken seriously by their professors than non-athletes reported (Richards & Aries, 1999). Jolly (2008) emphasized the point that the stereotype of athletes being unintelligent and unqualified for academics continues to be perpetuated.

Beck, Bennett, Maneval, and Hayes (2001) and McKindra and Centor (2005) proposed a contrasting view and suggested that many faculty members treat athletes in the same manner as any other student and also understand the role athletics play in their college's mission. Pierce (2007) also supported this position and investigated the experiences of Division I athletes majoring in engineering. He found that athletes met



frequently with professors and received substantial support. For example, 54% of the respondents met with their professors frequently (1-2 times per week). When asked about the level of support the athletes received from their professors, 83% indicated that they received some support, with 50% reporting a lot of support. It is not surprising that those who met frequently with their professors received more support, thus highlighting the importance of frequent communication (Pierce, 2007).

Potuto and O'Hanlon (2007) and Simons et al., (2007) also reported that athletes have positive perceptions college experience, are satisfied with the level of academic support received, experience strong influence and support from within (coaches & administrators) and outside (family & teammates) their athletic departments. Potuto and O'Hanlon (2006) studied athletes at 18 Division I universities and found that athletes had positive perceptions of their overall college experience over 90% of the time, and 93% said it was "very important" that they graduated from college. In many cases, athletes viewed their participation in collegiate athletics as an overwhelmingly positive experience. Potuto and O'Hanlon (2007) however, found that over 50% of athletes did not spend as much time as they would have liked on academics, and 80% of these athletes stated that athletics was a contributing factor (Student-Athlete Relationships, 2007, p. 2).

University of Michigan Faculty Athletic Representative, Percy Bates, suggested that the best way for athletes to avoid being stereotyped is to display proper academic behaviour, "if we don't address the faculty-perception issues, we risk losing credibility as it relates to the balance inherent in, student-athlete" (McKindra & Centor, 2005, p. 14). Sharp and Sheilley (2008) underscored the importance of educating athletes with regard to appropriate academic practices and strategies needed to be successful. For example,

athletes should be encouraged to develop open communication with the faculty, and recognize the importance of attending and actively participating in classes. In addition, by proactively seeking to develop an understanding of the day-to-day lives, experiences, and responsibilities of athletes, faculty members could increase their role in helping athletes succeed academically (Engstrom et al., 1995; Jolly, 2008; Sharp & Sheilley, 2008). Aries et al. (2004) noted that many athletes perform well academically and generalizations of underperformance are often overstated. Highly recruited athletes in “big time” programmes may provide the majority of these examples; thus, faculty should re-examine any negative stereotypes they have towards athletes in general. Furthermore, Baucom and Lantz (2001) suggested that institutions at all divisional levels should examine policies and procedures that may facilitate or reinforce negative attitudes towards athletes.

Given that many athletes devote a great deal of time and energy to their athletic interests, researchers (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993; Martin, Mushett, & Eklund, 1997) have investigated the concept of athletic identity in relation to college athlete experiences and behaviours. Brewer et al. (1993) defined “athletic identity as the degree to which an individual identifies with the athlete role” (p. 237). A strong athletic identity indicates a greater importance of the role athletics plays in an individual’s life. Athletic identity has been considered in relation to a number of variables including commitment to exercise, level of athletic performance, and potential psychological benefits or problems. Brewer, Boin, and Petitpas (1993) and Brewer et al. (1993) considered athletic identity in relation to commitment to exercise behaviour and level of athletic performance. Individuals with strong athletic identities developed strong self-identities through their participation in sport and demonstrated a higher commitment to exercise behaviour. In addition, athletes

with an exclusive athletic identity (when an individual bases his or her self-identity solely on the athlete role) may have stronger athletic performances.

This has shown that all of these perceptions placed a burden on the student-athlete. They represent obstacles to athletes' efforts to overcome a negative climate and successfully balance academic achievement with athletic competition. This described situation often forces the student-athlete to choose between success in either academics or athletics, making it difficult to realize the benefits of dual participation (Aries, Banaji, McCarthy, & Salovey, 2004; Chomitz, et al, 2009; Sander, 2007).

**Findings to Research Question 2:** What is the relationship between tutors' attitude towards student-athletes' in confidence, motivation, value and expectation?

There was a relatively strong relationship between tutors' attitude along confidence in student athletes, motivation of students, value student athletes. There was a weak relationship with regards to tutors' attitude and students-athletes expectations.

This shows that the findings of the current study are in line with the findings of studies conducted by Palardy and Rumberg which have shown that tutor attitudes, practices, and beliefs have a significant impact on student achievement (Palardy & Rumberger, 2008). Current and past research indicates that the teacher is the most important element in student achievement and growth (Marzano, 2003; Marzano, 2007; Palardy & Rumberger; Rivers & Sanders, 2002; Strong, 2007).

Many studies have examined teacher knowledge and quality and not the importance of teacher attitude. Pryor and Pryor (2005) added to the research of Oskamp and Schultz

(2003) that teacher attitudes influence teacher behaviours and defined attitudes as beliefs that can be favourable, unfavourable, or neutral. In this study, the results of the data analysis revealed that the bad attitudes of teachers created an unfavourable academic environment for student athletes.

For many years, unappealing and negative attitudes toward athletics have existed which places an additional burden on athletes (Baucom & Lantz, 2001; Simons et al., 2007; Thelin, 1994). A number of researchers have concluded that stereotypical views of athletes exist often leading to misconceptions about their academic ability and motivation (Baucom & Lantz, 2001; Engstrom, Sedlacek, & McEwen, 1995; Jolly, 2008; Knight Foundation, 2007; Potuto & O'Hanlon, 2007). These stereotypes and prejudicial attitudes are evident at all levels of competition, including community colleges, and are directed towards athletes in both revenue and non-revenue sports (Baucom & Lantz, 2001; Engstrom et al., 1995; Hobneck, Mudge & Turchi, 2003; Richards & Aries, 1999).

However, the current study has shown that there are strong correlations between tutors' attitude along the male domain, confidence in student athletes, motivation of students, value of students and understanding the needs of student athletes. This therefore shows that improved attitude by the tutors' towards the student athletes could lead to better performance in academics of the students.

The findings of a group of studies indicated that participation in sports increased students' overall interest and commitment to schooling as well as their engagement in more student-teacher contact, more positive attitudes about schooling, more parent-school contact (Crain, 1981; Trent & Braddock, 1992). Moreover, Slavin and Madden (1979) found that sports could facilitate positive racial/ethnic relations as well as positive inter-

group attitudes and behaviours among northern and southern desegregated schools. Crain (1981) reported similar findings.

Other researchers focused on the influences of sport participation on various psychosocial aspects of high school students. As the literature shows, one such benefit is that participation in sport activities could provide extrinsic rewards to students and help them form social bonds and relationships within school (Crain, 1981; Slavin & Madden, 1979; Trend & Braddock, 1992). In addition, sport/athletic participation could also create intrinsic values for students. As Kavussanu and McAuley (1995) observed, “Highly active individuals were significantly more optimistic and experienced greater self-efficacy than those non-active or low-active people”.

By contrast, students involved in a group or activity that required substantial, one on one conversation or meetings with faculty had meaningful relationships and interactions and recognized the benefits. For some students, informal out of class interactions increased their comfort level and resulted in increased in-class interactions (Cotton & Wilson, 2006). Similarly, Jolly (2008) found that more informal interaction can help athletes with their misperceptions of faculty.

The athletes’ failure to meet tutors outside classroom and have discussions with them concerning their (athletes) progress and retrogress in academic areas might be attributed to the negative perceptions held about them by the college tutors in class. Based on this observation, Jolly (2008) suggested that faculty must be proactive in reaching out to the athletes outside the classroom and by doing so can increase athletes’ short term success and create life-long learners. Informal social interactions provide an important foundation for students to pursue more academically focused interactions in the future. Jolly (2008)

stated that faculty must understand athletes' day-to-day lives and challenges. Faculty who had taken more interest in athletes' academic success reported additional beneficial results from their informal interactions with the athletes such as attending games and practices (Jolly, 2008). The athletes also embraced the engagement of the faculty in the athletic side of their lives and became more comfortable approaching faculty in an academic setting.

Harrison et al. (2006) examined the relationships between male athletes and faculty, specifically the impact of students and faculty interaction on academic achievement. The research was limited to NCAA Division I and II men's football and basketball players, but produced results that may be applicable to other sports, divisions, and women. Harrison et al. (2006) suggested that faculty who provided intellectual challenges and stimulation for their students and helped students achieve professional goals, made strong contributions to the athletes' success. Academically oriented interactions with faculty positively impacted athletes' success and led to a recommendation that initiatives designed to increase levels of faculty communication and mentoring of athletes should be developed and implemented.

**Findings Research Question 3:** What academic support do student-athletes receive in the Colleges of Education?

The findings revealed that in most cases there was no academic support programmes for student-athletes. There were a few instances of teacher initiated extra tuition and peer initiated extra tuition programmes for student-athletes. The findings of the current study are in contrast to studies by other researchers in advanced countries. For instance in some advanced countries, especially the United States of America, education support programmes have been instituted to help student-athletes to gain popularity in

terms of academic performance. This has been observed as intercollegiate athletics has in recent years begun to focus on the creation of stronger academic and personal support services for student-athletes. As (Robinson, 1998) observed, “Inherent in this new focus is the perception that problems experienced by student-athletes in college and university settings are not insurmountable, though new programmes of support and assistance must be developed to complement those already in place”. Of particular importance are needs for holistic support programmes that address psychosocial issues relevant to student-athletes (Goldberg, 1991; Hinkle, 1994; Petitpas & Champagne, 1988).

In more developed countries such as the United States of America, Great Britain, etc, university librarians have been attempting to help student-athletes by starting special programmes for them in some instances. Indiana University started a programme (England 1982) in the early 1980s that addressed a large number of academic issues including library skills for student-athletes. The first apparent write up about a library run student-athlete programme (Jesudason 1984) dealt with a programme at the University of Wisconsin, Madison in the mid-1980s. Jesudason wrote about how important library education was for athletes in regards to Proposition 48 that had been passed by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) to require minimum academic standards of new student-athletes. This meant that many new athletes were not eligible to play their first year in college and that remedial education was needed for these athletes to make them eligible. This gave academic libraries an opening to make an impact on the education of student-athletes. The library approached the athletic department at the University of Wisconsin and was given permission to create an education module for student-athletes. This module

included the development of a brochure and sending student-athletes through two library instruction sessions.

Similarly, the University of Wisconsin programme, the library instruction programme for student-athletes at the University of Central Florida also put athletes through two library instruction sessions. It was noted by (Ruscella 1993) that contrary to stereotype that the student-athletes had a higher graduation rate than the rest of the student population. Despite this, a programme was started for the special population of student-athletes because it was believed that the student-athletes needed more library help due to their extensive athletic schedules. The programme was well received and in evaluating the programme the student-athletes found the programme to be successful.

In 1996, the Seattle Times reported on a unique student-athlete support programme at the University of Washington. The men's basketball had been given laptops so that the athletes would be better able to complete school work when travelling. In addition, the athletes were all enrolled in a two credit hour course on how to use the laptops. The programme was not initiated by the library but the librarians did assist by making arrangements at the university libraries at the schools the athletes were visiting to have study space set aside for the athletes to use the laptops. The programme had been considered successful and the laptop programme was going to be expanded to include more of the student-athlete population at the University of Washington.

From observation made and on personal experience, such academic support programmes need to be initiated and put in practice to help student-athletes in schools and colleges in the country, especially schools and colleges in the Upper East Region.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate how tutors perceptions and attitudes influence student-athletes academic work at the Colleges of Education in the Upper East Region of Ghana. Specifically, the study looked at the attitudes of CoE tutors towards student-athletes. This chapter summarizes the research findings and looks at the conclusions and recommendations made by the researcher.

#### 5.1 Summary

The research was conducted, using questionnaires to find out the attitudes of tutors of Colleges of Education towards the academic work of student-athletes in two colleges of education in the Upper East Region. A sample size of 120 students and 30 tutors were used. The data analysis revealed that the tutors had a bad attitude and perception towards student athletes. Seventy percent (70%, n=21) of the tutors sampled responded that they had a negative perception about student athletes. Thus with a combined majority of 67% (n=20), the tutors were of the opinion that student athletes could not combine athletics and academic work favorably. A majority (58%) of the students sampled agreed that their performance in class as athletes was dictated by their tutor's attitudes.

There was a relatively strong relationship between tutors' attitude along the male domain, confidence in student athletes, motivation of students, value of students and understanding the needs of student-athletes. There was a weak relationship with regards to tutors' attitude and students-athletes expectations and usefulness of students-athletes.

The findings revealed that in most cases there was no academic support programmes for student-athletes in Colleges of Education especially those found in Upper East Region. There were a few instances of tutor initiated extra tuition and peer initiated extra tuition programmes for student-athletes in these colleges.

## **5.2 Conclusion**

The purpose of the study was to explore the attitudes of tutors of Colleges of Education towards the academic work of student-athletes in two Colleges of Education in the Upper East Region. The descriptive statistical analysis revealed that indeed tutors had a negative perception and attitude towards student-athletes. Only a few tutors had a positive attitude towards student-athletes. The findings of the study also revealed that students were affected by the tutors' attitudes and perceptions about them.

This research work is a contribution to knowledge on the attitude of tutors' of Colleges of Education towards academic work of student-athletes. This study has documented a process of ascertaining the effect of the attitudes and perceptions of tutors' towards student-athletes. This is indeed necessary and consequently in Ghana where many student-athletes are faced with the numerous problems in their academic work caused by the negative perceptions of their tutors'.

Finally, the researcher anticipates that this thesis has provided a useful framework and built a foundation for research across different approaches to solving the menace of tutors' attitude and perceptions on student athletes' academic work.

### 5.3 Implications

As previous and current studies have established, tutors' attitudes and perceptions play an important role in academic work of student-athletes, results of this study have further indicated that the attitude and perceptions of tutors' towards student-athletes are bad. A majority of the tutors' do have negative perceptions about the student-athletes and these perceptions indeed hinder the academic work of students.

Research has noted that student-athletes are faced with negative stereotypes which depict them as low achievers academically and undeservingly privileged when it comes to academic requirements (Sherman, 1988; Simons, Bosworth, Fujita and Jensen, 2007; Lawrence, Harrison, & Stone, 2009).

Studies conducted by Palardy and Rumberg have shown that tutor attitudes, practices, and beliefs have a significant impact on student achievement (Palardy & Rumberger, 2008). Current and past research indicates that the teacher is the most important element in student achievement and growth (Rivers & Sanders, 2002; Marzano, 2003; Marzano, 2007; Strong, 2007; Palardy & Rumberger (2008). Thus any negative attitude of the tutor has a great impact on the student and can make or break these student athletes.

Identifying and addressing this stereotype by tutors' will go a long way to ensure that student athletes receive the required support and motivation they need to ensure that they perform better both in academics and athletics. This will go a long way to improve the quality of students and ensure that they give off their best in their various roles in the nation at large.

It is also believed that this study has provided an insight into the attitudes of tutors of Colleges of Education towards the academic work of student-athletes in Upper East Region. This study was limited to students of Gbewaa College of Education and St. John Bosco's College of Education. However, there could be other factors that need to be identified or evaluated. For instance, specific reactions to student-athletes in specific athletic activities or events etc. hence, it is felt that further research needs to be carried out in the area and expanded to include other municipalities in other regions on the attitudes of tutors of Colleges of Education towards the academic work of student-athletes.

#### **5.4 Recommendations**

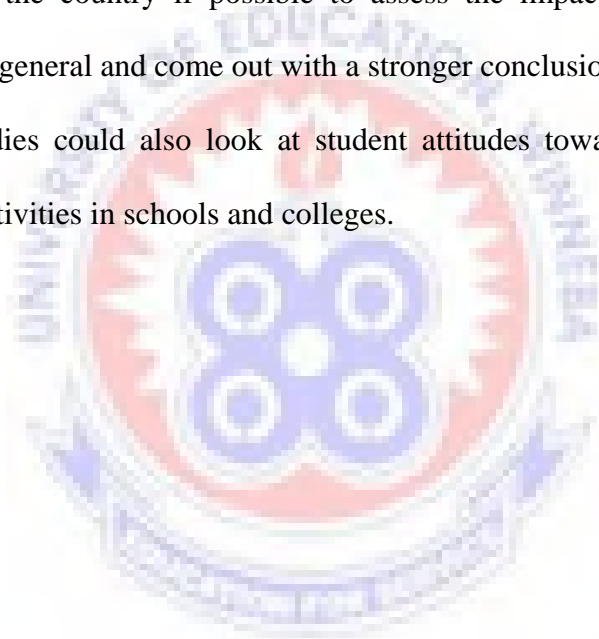
Based on the findings from the study, the researcher would like to make the following recommendations with the view that when properly adhered tutor negative attitudes towards students involving themselves in athletics can be controlled:

1. There is the need to create awareness of the negative effects tutors' attitudes have on the academic lives and work of student athletes. There is also the need to do away with the negative perceptions and attitudes of tutors against student-athletes in various schools, institutions, and colleges in Ghana.
2. There is the need for schools, colleges and institutions to provide various support systems for student-athletes to help them combine athletics with their academic work. There is the need to replicate this study in other schools and colleges in Ghana.
3. In addition, workshops and seminars should be organized for tutors' in Colleges of Education on ways to improve on their attitudes and perceptions towards student-

athletes and on how to provide support systems to enable them perform better in their academic work. This would go a long way to ensure that they do away with the stereotyping associated with student-athletes and ensure that teachers adopt a better attitude towards student -athletes.

### **5.5 Suggestion(s) for Further Research**

1. It would be appropriate if this study is done in other Colleges of Education in other regions of the country if possible to assess the impact tutor attitudes have on students in general and come out with a stronger conclusion.
2. Future studies could also look at student attitudes towards tutors who frown at athletics activities in schools and colleges.



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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

#### Letter of Introduction



**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**  
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION,  
RECREATION AND SPORTS

P. O. Box 258, Winneba, Ghana. Tel: (0332) 22494 Fax: 033222494

Our Ref:  
Your Ref:

31<sup>st</sup> January, 2013

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

Dear Sir/Madam,

**LETTER OF INTRODUCTION:**  
**AZANYA PATRICK AZUMAH**


This is to introduce to you MR. AZANYA PATRICK AZUMAH, a student with Index Number 8110090008 who is pursuing an Mphil programme in Physical Education in the Department of Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Sports at the University of Education, Winneba.

He is researching into the topic: ATTITUDES OF COLLEGES OF EDUCATION TUTORS TOWARDS ACADEMIC WORK OF STUDENT-ATHLETES IN UPPER EAST REGION OF GHANA.

We should be grateful if you could accord him the necessary assistance.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

  
Dr. J. A. Baba  
HOD, HPERS

## APPENDIX B (I)

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TUTORS OF COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

**PART 1**

**Personal Data**

(Tick one, or fill in the blank line for others if appropriate)

1. Name of College.....
2. Sex: Male [    ]      Female [    ]
3. Subject Area of Specialisation: .....

The following are series of statements. They have been set up in a way that permits you to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the ideas expressed. Please tick [✓] the box that best describes your response as you read the statement.

**Part II**

S/n	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
4	My student-athletes cannot combine their academics and athletics work favourably					
5	I am sure that males are not naturally better than females in both academics and athletics					
6	I believe that a female can be a genius in					



	athletics and academics work					
7	I am sure that athletics make student-athletes perform poorly in academics work					
8	I feel that participation in athletics is a waste of time on the part of student-athletes					
9	I don't think athletes can confidently perform well in exams when involved in active athletics					
10	I feel that athletics don't boost student-athletes' academic performance in internal and external examinations					
11	I think a student-athlete cannot handle more complex academic problems					
12	I am not sure that student-athletes are more interested in athletics than their academics work					
13	Student-athletes don't get good grades in external examination because of their active participation in athletics					
14	I always discourage my student-athletes from participating fully in athletics					
15	I believe that athletics do not offer any help to student-athletes					
16	I feel that participation in athletics will not					

	allow student-athletes have time to study and pass my subject					
17	I feel that there is no need to support any student-athlete in any form in class					
18	Student-athletes make my class ungovernable					
19	I easily lose my temper anytime I see a student-athlete in my class					
20	Student-athletes are indiscipline students who can distract others in class					
21	I will not support any college attempting to make it easy for student-athletes in terms of their academic work					
22	My non-athlete students get better grades at the end of a semester examination than those as student-athletes					
23	Student-athletes must perform as well as their non-student athletes					
24	I feel that performing in athletics breeds indiscipline in class					
25	Student-athletes are not performing well in my subject area because they don't have time for their books					

26	Student-athletes are arrogant because they think that they have a support base from college authorities					
27	Student-athletes are not good in the foundation courses because they spend much of their time in athletic activities					
28	I hate seeing student-athletes in my class after seeing them in athletic performance					
29	Student-athletes must be given names in class when they are seen performing athletic activities to stop them participating					
30	I feel happy when I see my student-athletes fail in my subject area					
31	The mode of entry into college by student-athletes should be made stiff because of their poor performance in the foundation courses					
32	I don't think it is necessary to waste time on a student-athlete who has no interest in studying					
33	My attitudes towards student-athletes dictates their performance in class					
34	There is no way that student can combine well with academics and athletic activities					

35	I don't think it is necessary for me or the entire student body to make friends with student-athletes					
36	I am emotional disturbed when I see some students wanting to perform athletic activities at the expense of their academic work					

**Part III**

Provide brief responses to the following questions

37. How do you perceive the affect of athletic participation on student achievement?

Positive [ ]      Negative [ ]

If your answer is Positive, proceed to Question 38 and if your answer is Negative, proceed to Question 39.

38. State in brief terms, three (3) positive affects you think athletics have on student-athletes. ....

.....

39. State briefly any three (3) negative affects you think athletics have on student-athletes.

.....

.....

40. How do student-athletes behave in their course work in class?

.....

.....

**Thank you for your response**

## APPENDIX B (II)

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENT-ATHLETES

#### PART 1

##### Personal Data

(Tick one, or fill in the blank line for others if appropriate):

1. Name of College.....
2. Sex: Male [  ]      Female [  ]
3. College Activity: Athlete [  ]      Non-athlete [  ]

#### Part II

The following are series of statements. They have been set up in a way that permits you to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the ideas expressed. Please tick [√] the box that best describes your response as you read the statement.

S/n	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
4	I am sure that I can combine academics and athletics work favourably					
5	Males are not naturally better than females in both academics and athletics work					
6	It is hard to believe that a female could be a genius in athletics and academics work					

7	Athletics make me perform poorly in my academic work					
8	Participation in athletics is a waste of time					
9	I think I can confidently perform well in academics even if I am engaged in active athletics					
10	Athletics boosts my academic performance in both internal and external examinations					
11	I think I can handle more complex academic problems even if I am an athlete					
12	I sometimes avoid taking active part in athletics because it affects my academic work					
13	I am more interested in athletics than academics					
14	I get good grades in external examination even if I am engaged in athletics.					
15	My tutor feels that participation in athletics will not let me have time to study and pass my exams					
16	The perceptions held by my tutor do not allow me to be committed to college athletics programmes					
17	I am well supported by my tutor during athletics programmes					
18	My college tutor organises extra classes for me after every college athletic activity.					

19	My non-athlete colleagues get better grades at the end of a semester examination than I do					
20	I feel at ease in athletics and I like it very much					
21	My tutor expects me to perform well in the foundation courses as compared to a non-athlete					
22	My tutor feels that am not performing well in his/her subject area because I don't have time for my books					
23	My tutor is happy to seeing me fail in his/her subject area in the end of semester examination					
24	My performance in class as an athlete is dictated by my tutor's attitudes					
25	Athletics is very interested to me but my tutor's attitude towards me does not allow me put off my best					
26	My tutor perceives that athletics in colleges is waste of time					
27	I'm always at a terrible state when I combine athletics and academics work					
28	I become emotionally sad when I have to go to class after athletic programmes					
29	My tutor has been interested in my progress in					

	both athletics and the foundation courses					
30	My tutor encourages me to study both athletics and the foundation courses					
31	My tutor would not take me seriously if I told him/her I was interested in a career in athletics					
32	Doing well in athletics is not important for my future					
33	I participate in athletics because I know how useful it is					
34	My tutor has made me feel I have the ability to do well in both athletics and the foundation courses					
35	As an athlete, getting a tutor to take me seriously in the foundation courses is a problem					
36	As an athlete, one of my goals is to look smart in comparison to other students in the foundation courses					

**Part III**

Kindly provide short responses to these questions

37. How do your friends who are influenced by college tutors behaviour towards you, treat you in class?

.....

38. How does your college support you in terms of academics?

.....



39. How do your college tutors support you academically in their respective subject areas?.....

40. What negative perceptions do college tutors hold about students who are involved in athletic programmes?

.....  
.....

**Thank you for your response**



**Descriptive Statistics**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
teachers attitude to student athletes	120	1	5	2.06	1.386
p1q4	120	1	5	1.43	.968
p1q5	120	1	5	1.43	1.638
p1q6	119	1	5	2.70	1.350
p1q7	119	1	5	2.07	1.247
p1q8	118	1	5	1.70	1.200
p1q9	120	1	5	3.05	1.560
p1q10	115	1	5	1.71	1.145
p1q11	120	1	5	1.52	1.108
p1q12	120	1	5	2.68	1.196
p1q13	118	1	5	2.34	1.214
p1q14	119	1	5	1.39	1.187
p1q15	120	1	5	2.77	1.430
p1q16	120	1	5	2.96	1.399
p1q17	118	1	5	1.44	1.258
p1q18	120	1	5	2.51	1.396
p1q19	120	1	5	2.39	1.380
p1q20	118	1	5	1.70	1.256
p1q21	119	1	5	3.51	1.248
p1q22	119	1	5	1.88	1.290
p1q23	118	1	5	1.74	1.243
p1q24	119	1	5	1.56	1.260

p1q25	120	1	5	1.04	1.325
p1q26	119	1	5	2.05	1.364
p1q27	118	1	5	2.69	1.399
p1q28	118	1	5	2.47	1.292
p1q29	116	1	5	1.97	1.042
p1q30	119	1	5	1.20	1.331
p1q31	120	1	5	1.63	1.415
p1q32	118	1	5	2.03	1.380
p1q33	117	1	5	1.10	1.155
p1q34	118	1	5	1.86	1.205
p1q35	119	1	5	1.88	1.290
p1q36	120	1	5	1.14	1.087
Valid N (listwise)	93				

