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thesis entitled

PERCEPTIONS OF SUCCESS AND FAILURE IN SPORT FOR AMERICAN ADOLESCENT ATHLETES AND NONATHLETES

presented by

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has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Master of Science degree in Physical Education & Exercise Science

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Date May 20, 1997

PERCEPTIONS OF SUCCESS AND FAILURE IN SPORT FOR AMERICAN ADOLESCENT ATHLETES AND NONATHLETES

By

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A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Physical Education and Exercise Science

1997

ABSTRACT

PERCEPTIONS OF SUCCESS AND FAILURE IN SPORT
FOR AMERICAN ADOLESCENT ATHLETES AND NONATHLETES

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The present study was designed to determine if male and female adolescent athletes and nonathletes differed in terms of the importance they placed on their subjective meanings of success and failure in sports. The study also examined the role experience played in determining these subjective meanings. In Phase 1, an open-ended questionnaire was used to ask adolescents to provide components of success and failure in sports. Results of Phase 1 were used in Phase 2 to assess athletic status differences and gender differences on the perceived importance of those components. Factor analysis revealed two success ("task-oriented" and "competitive-oriented" meanings) and three failure factors ("lack of achievement potential", "lack ability/time", "lack competitive-oriented" meanings). MANOVAs revealed Athlete x Gender interactions for all factors except lack competitive-oriented meanings. Female athletes rated these meanings as more important than did female nonathletes.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank Dr. Deborah L. Feltz for being the only person to give me a chance to prove my capabilities. Her patience and guidance during my thesis work and throughout my career as a graduate student proved to be invaluable in the part of my learning and maturation process as a human being. Her door was always open to me even when my questions or problems were not school related. The amount of compassion and understanding she exhibited at just the right moments helped me to make it through my graduate career. I would also like to thank the other members of my committee, Dr. Martha Ewing, Dr. Yvonne Smith, and Mr. John Fitzpatrick. The time and care they gave to their participation in this paper proved to make the difference to the quality of this thesis.

I would also like to thank all of my friends in the crew, especially Guap, and fellow graduate students for giving me all of their support without my ever having to ask for it and for listening to me when I needed to talk.

Finally, I would like to thank two very special people in my life, my parents, Tom and Mary Ann Stein. The love and support they have given me my whole life is what has given me the strength to believe in myself that I can accomplish anything. The amount of time and energy they have put into making my life worth while shines as an excellent example of the way parents should raise their children. It is my hope and dream that I can somehow pay them back in a way that shows how much I love, appreciate, and respect them. Thank you Mom and Dad. I love you very much.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Nature of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine if American adolescent athletes and nonathletes differ in terms of the importance they place on their subjective meanings of success and failure in sports. The study also examined whether years of experience in sports influenced the importance athletes placed on these subjective meanings. A third purpose of the study was to determine if gender differences existed in the importance that athletes and nonathletes placed on these subjective meanings.

Athletes and nonathletes are thought to differ in their subjective meanings of success and failure in sports because subjective meanings are learned in a specific context through experience and from significant others (Amster, 1964; Kess, 1976). Athletes and nonathletes learn about success and failure in sports differently. Athletes learn from direct experience with success and failure. Nonathletes learn more indirectly, such as through observation.

The role of success and failure in sports has been studied extensively from the perspective of attributions (e.g., Bird & Brame, 1978; Gill & Gross, 1979; Roberts, 1978; Scanlan & Passer, 1980). Success has generally been found to be attributed to internal factors such as ability and effort; whereas, failure has tended to be attributed to external factors such as luck and task difficulty. However, most studies have not used a subjective meaning approach to examining the causes of success and failure in sports. Rather, they have used either a closed-ended approach where the respondent must choose among four attributions (ability, effort, task difficulty, luck) or an open-ended approach where the respondent is asked to think about a specific success/failure experience and provide the main reason for the outcome. These typical attributional approaches do not allow for the full range of responses one might offer for success and failure in sports.

Subjective meanings, however, are the definitions that groups of people, from different ages, genders, and cultures, give to certain words (Osgood, Miron, & May, 1975). These definitions may be simple or complex, depending on a group's experience with the phenomenon. For instance, the English have few words for snow, but the Inuit have many (Dorais, 1990). Similarly, the social context and culture in which athletes and nonathletes learn, develop, and live will influence how they define beliefs about success and failure in sports. Once this development and achievement start to occur, experience will also play a big role in influencing individuals' subjective meanings. However, there has been little research conducted on the association between one's experience in sport and the subjective meanings of success and failure in sport.

Speculation has been offered on how experience might influence success and failure in sport. Lee (1995) emphasized certain factors that may influence the role experience has on individuals in sport. One factor that may influence the role of experience on individuals is the environment. Some environmental considerations include (a) the proper facilities available to play sports; (b) time in one's schedule to play sports (Kang, 1987; Yoon, 1993); (c) parental desire for their adolescent to participate in sports; (d) the amount and degree of positive or negative praise and support an adolescent receives; and (e) the quality of the organized sports program. These five factors, and probably many others, create a foundation upon which experiences are formulated. These experiences, in turn, act as yet another integral part of how subjective meaning influences the definitions of success and failure in sport for athletes and nonathletes.

One study that addressed the perception of success and failure in sport for adolescents, using a subjective meaning approach, was conducted by Lee (1995). The purpose of her study was twofold: (a) to determine if Korean and American adolescents differed in terms of defining their success and failure within school and sports contexts, and (b) to determine if male adolescents differed from female adolescents in terms of the importance of subjective meanings of success and failure within school and sports contexts.

Lee (1995) had two phases in her study. In Phase I, a list of words was generated by subjects regarding their perceptions of success and failure in sports and school. An open-ended questionnaire, containing 20 blanks was used for the subjects to write in words that denoted their perceptions of success and failure in sports and school. A second questionnaire for Phase II was generated by tabulating the frequency of responses for males and females in Phase I and using the top 25 from both lists in a Likert scale rated on importance for success and failure. Lee used the Phase II questionnaire to generate factors of subjective meanings of success and failure in sports and school for adolescents. She also examined gender differences in these factors.

According to Lee (1995), in terms of sports, American adolescents indicated factors such as "dedication" and "innate ability" to be associated with success in sport. The items included in dedication were confidence, work hard, do my best, attitude, self-esteem, participation, dedicated, motivation, team work, and practice. The items included in innate ability were speed, athletic ability, strong, physical fitness, smart, and good at sports. Korean adolescents, on the other hand, considered only one factor, "effort," in defining success in sport. Korean effort consisted of practice, regular exercise, confidence, basic training, effort, diligence, and interest. Factors for American adolescents for failure in sport included a "bad attitude" and a "negative environment." Items for bad attitude included do not care, bad sportsmanship, bad loser, low self-esteem, temper, bad mood, injury, fatigue, smoking, do not know rules, and no union. A negative environment for American adolescents consisted of bad places to play, stupid practice, too competitive, and friends. Korean adolescents perceived "poor facilitative environment," "low effort," and "task difficulty and lack of support" to be indicators of failure in sport. Items in a poor facilitative environment included lack of facilities, lack of equipment, poor environment, and no available time. Low effort for Koreans included items such as lack of effort, lack of will, laziness, and fat. The items for task difficulty and lack of support consisted of too hard to play, no instructor, no money, and fear of injury.

For American adolescents, innate ability and dedication appeared to be the prevalent factors for success in sport (Lee, 1995). Lee suggested that the U.S. adolescents had more explicit meanings in defining success in sports because they had more experience in athletics than did Korean adolescents.

In regard to perceptions of failure in sports, a bad attitude and a negative environment were two prevalent factors for U.S. adolescents (Lee, 1995). Failure was found to be either internal (resulting from a bad attitude), and therefore, seen in part to be due to a lack of effort, or failure was found to be external (because of a negative environment) and therefore was viewed as beyond one's control (Miller, 1976). This type of rationale helps to preserve one's self-esteem; the individual gave it their all, but because the task was too difficult, they were not lucky enough, or the environment was too negative, they failed. However, it was not their fault.

Lee (1995) found only two gender differences among American adolescents in terms of definitions of sport success and none for definitions of sport failure. In terms of definitions of success, girls assigned more importance for their success in sports to the amount of dedication that was put forth in the athletic endeavor. Boys, on the other hand, assigned more importance for their success in sports to innate ability. Lee's results partially supported Ewing's (1981) findings for antecedents of success in sport implying that ability for success in sport was more important for American boys than for American girls; whereas mental dedication for success in sport was more important for American girls than for American boys. However, Lee combined athletes and nonathletes in her sample and she did not control for years of athletic experience in comparing boys and girls. Boys had more experience playing sports than girls in her sample. The role that years of sport experience plays in these gender differences is yet unknown.

Even with controlling years of experience, boy and girl athletes may have different subjective meanings for success and failure in sport because of socialization differences. Boys and girls may have the same number of years of experience in playing sports, but

may have different interpretations of their sport experiences. These different interpretations might be attributed to the way boys and girls have been introduced into the realm of sports by significant others (Coakley, 1994). Gilligan (1982) discusses how boys are socialized through separation and individuation, while girls are socialized through interdependence. This socialization leads parents to encourage boys and girls differently (Hoffman, 1972). Boys grow up to be more independent and confident, while girls grow up tending to be more dependent and less self-confident. Sassen (1980) contends that when these girls grow up to be women, they have a hard time handling many of the different aspects of sport, including success. Some women go as far as to feel guilty for being successful in sport. The reason for this relates back to how these women were socialized as girls by their parents.

Lee (1995) deciphered the different role experience played between her American and Korean samples. However, how one's experience in sport affects the importance of subjective meanings for male and female American adolescent athletes has not been investigated. Athletes with more experience in playing sport may rate different factors of success/failure as more important than nonathletes or athletes with less experience in playing sport because of greater exposure to actual success and failure events that occur in sport.

Statement of the Problem

The present study is a replication and extension of Lee's (1995) study with American adolescents. The focus of the present study was to determine if male and female American adolescent athletes and nonathletes differed in terms of the importance they placed on their subjective meanings of success and failure in sports. The study also examined the role that experience plays in determining subjective meanings for American adolescents in sports.

Research Questions

The following questions guide this study:

1. How do American adolescents define success and failure in sports?
2. Do athletes and nonathletes differ in the importance they place on the factors they perceive to define sport success and failure?
3. Do boys and girls differ in the importance they place on the factors they perceive to define sport success and failure?
4. For athletes, do years of playing experience correlate with the degree of importance on perceived factors for defining success and failure in sport?
5. For athletes, do the correlations between years of playing experience and degree of importance on the obtained perceived factors differ by gender?

Definitions of Terms

Antecedent- a single factor or implication linked directly or indirectly to a concept. Implications can be environmental, biological, or social in nature (Triandis, 1972).

Athlete- an individual who is currently involved or was involved in athletics at an organized and competitive level for at least four years in a school or in a nonschool sport.

Consequent- a singular factor that is neither a necessary nor a sufficient cause of behavior, but can be considered a "contributing cause" that helps to establish patterns of behavior (Triandis, 1972).

Nonathlete- an individual who was not currently participating in organized sports and had no more than 3 years of previous experience in organized sports, school/nonschool.

Subjective Meaning- in the present study, a term used to describe the summed perceptions of the antecedents provided by subjects for this study.

Limitations

The limitations to this study were as follows:

1. There was no means to validate the answers given by each student to each item.
2. All subjects were volunteers.

Basic Assumptions

For the purpose of this study, the following assumptions were made; first that the participants were able to understand the questionnaire and were willing and able to provide their causes of success and failure in the sports context; and second, that the subjects' responses were their own.

Delimitation

The generalizability of the results of this research are limited to high school adolescents in the Midwest.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The topic of success and failure in sport has been quite intriguing to investigators in sports psychology and has been studied in various ways. Achievement motivation and attribution theory have been the common theories used to provide insight and perspective on this topic. The study of different cultural concepts of success and failure has also been employed as well as the use of perceived competence. The research in this chapter is divided in to four sections. The first section on attributions/achievement motivation presents approaches to the study of success and failure by presenting different theories to help explain how achievement behavior is linked to subjective meanings. This section also helps clarify why subjective meanings are pertinent to the study of success and failure. The second section focuses on athletes and nonathletes and discusses the inference of perceived ability in explaining possible differences in subjective meanings of success and failure in sport. Experience and environment is the third section in this review which focuses on how the environment and experience may play an influential role in formulating athletes' and nonathletes' definitions of success and failure in sport. Gender is the final section in this chapter in which socialization and subjective meanings of success and failure in sports are looked at through the male and female perspective.

Attribution/Achievement Motivation

The role of success and failure attributions in sports has been studied extensively. Achievement motivation theory has come to the forefront of this research. Part of the purpose of this section is to discuss the three theoretical approaches by McClelland, Atkinson, and Weiner, their limitations, and Maehr and Nicholl's new approaches to achievement motivation.

McClelland

The idea of an achievement process of a culture was hypothesized by McClelland (1961). The cycle of this achieving process hypothesis for a culture was as follows: Child rearing---Personality---Achieving Society. The idea behind this hypothesis is that children learn from social experiences at a very young age, which creates or sets a foundation for their personality trait of achievement motivation, which in turn determines their achievement motivation as an adult. McClelland's hypothesis of achievement motivation was believed to stand constant across time and situations (McClelland & Winter, 1969). However, this general hypothesis to achievement motivation does have some drawbacks.

Maehr (1974, 1978) noted that when a personality approach to achievement motivation is used to study success and failure, other important factors could be ignored such as social cues, task, definitions, situational and contextual factors, and social expectations. Second, there is also the strong possibility that different cultural or subcultural groups may have different ways of establishing achievement tasks and goals. McClelland's theory leaves little room for any flexibility when dealing with these different subgroups or cultures. Finally, McClelland's approach has been unsuccessful when studying women and has created a gender bias because the theory is based on interpretations from men.

Atkinson

The approach that Atkinson took on achievement motivation was from a more individual perspective. Rather than focusing on personality traits, Atkinson and his colleagues chose to emphasize the interaction of personal disposition and the situation (Atkinson & Feather, 1966; Atkinson & Raynor, 1974). Atkinson correlated preferences for different probabilities of achieving success or avoiding failure to individual differences in motivation. Atkinson came up with a model to explain this approach using a probability variable to represent the two components: tendency to achieve success and tendency to avoid failure.

Again, criticisms arose due to some conceptual and methodological problems in this theory. Atkinson's theory put too much emphasis on personality (Brawley & Roberts, 1984; Maehr, 1974; Maehr & Nicholls, 1980) even though other variables such as the instrumental value of the task (Raynor, 1969) and locus of control (Feather, 1969) have been incorporated into it. This theoretical approach, like McClelland's, was also based on interpretations from men and is, therefore not appropriate for women. There were also some cultural limitations that restricted cross-cultural studies.

Weiner

Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest, and Rosenbaum (1971) identified the four main standard causal attributions for achievement success and failure: ability, effort, luck, and task difficulty. This attributional theory of achievement motivation has become the basis for a majority of the follow up research on achievement motivation. Attribution theory directs attention to a gamut of cognitive constructs that trait approach does not, such as perceived control, interpersonal evaluation, and expectancy of success. There are also wide range affects that are cognitively determined such as pride, guilt, shame, and hopelessness. The theory views the individual's affective and cognitive reactions to an achievement-oriented success or failure as partially determined by the causal attributions used by the person to explain the cause of the outcome (Lee, 1995). Weiner et al. (1971) went on to classify these attributions into a two-dimensional system consisting of (a) control (internal-ability and effort or external-luck and task difficulty) and (b) stability (stable-ability and task difficulty or unstable-effort and luck). Continuing in this form of consistency, researchers have observed that success is attributed internally more than failure, and failure tends to be attributed to external factors (Fitch, 1970; Frieze & Weiner, 1971; Wolosin, Sherman, & Till, 1973; Wortman, Constanzo, & Witt, 1973). This tendency to take personal credit for success and to shift blame for failure to external factors is generally interpreted as an egocentric or self-enhancing bias (Gill, 1980).

A criticism of this theory is that this model of attribution is too culture-specific and sex-typed in terms of the nature of "achievement" tasks (Maehr & Nicholls, 1980). Also, the four attributions mentioned earlier are not adequate by themselves because other individuals may make other causal explanations in achievement situations (Bukowski & Moore, 1980; Frieze, 1975; Roberts & Pascuzzi, 1979). Finally, this theory has been criticized because it ignores the fact that different behavior may represent different goals or achievement orientations in sport and laboratory specific settings (Kukla, 1972, 1978; Maehr & Nicholls, 1980).

Maehr and Nicholls

In attempting to redefine achievement motivation, Maehr (1974, 1978) took the approach that the will to achieve occurred universally in nature. Based on this belief, Maehr created three necessary conditions for defining achievement behavior. The first condition for achievement behavior occurs in reference to a standard of excellence which can be determined by a person based on his or her experience of success or failure. Second, the individual realizes that he or she is in some part responsible for the outcome. The third defining condition recognizes that there is some level of challenge, which creates a sense of uncertainty regarding the outcome for the individual (Maehr, 1974, 1978). The reason this definition was created was to enhance the study of achievement behavior within specific contexts or situations.

Maehr and Nicholls (1980), based on this redefinition of achievement motivation, argued that there must be an investigation of the purpose and meaning of individuals' behavior patterns in order to understand the meaning and purpose of peoples' behavior. Thus, they came up with a new definition for achievement motivation, which proposed that "achievement motivation should be defined in terms of its purpose or meaning for people rather than in terms of overt behavior or the characteristics of situations in which the behavior occurs" (p. 227).

Maehr and Nicholls (1980) formulated two complementary approaches for this new definition of achievement motivation. The first approach dealt with attaining the "meaning of achievement and achievement behavior for any given group or for individuals within a group" (p. 227). The ideology of the second approach dealt with "defining a class or classes of achievement behavior in terms of meaning or goals of behavior" (p. 235). The first approach, which pertains to cultural diversity, will be discussed as it relates to the subjective meaning of success and failure. The second approach will be discussed as it relates to a universal pattern of behavior.

Cultural diversity in achievement behavior. Analyzing achievement motivation in terms of the subjective meaning of behavior and achievement for a group, or individuals who make up that group, is the purpose of this first approach by Maehr and Nicholls (1980). The diversity aspect plays a crucial role because there is an indefinite number of meanings for achieving. Understanding the behavior in the same manner as the persons who demonstrate it is very critical, even though this makes comparisons of groups almost unattainable due to the different definitions of the groups (Maehr & Nicholls, 1980). Looking at the concepts of success and failure was the place to start for Maehr and Nicholls (1980) to derive definitions of achievement behavior.

According to Maehr and Nicholls (1980), success and failure are psychological states that are determined by an individual's perception of attaining or not attaining his or her goals. In addition, these goals are pursued through the amount of desire that one possesses. Since the amount of diversity that is involved in meanings of terms for different groups of individuals is indefinite, perceived causes of success and failure will also vary throughout the different groups of individuals.

The universality of achievement behavior. The second approach to Maehr and Nicholls' (1980) definition of achievement behavior involves the meaning or goals of behavior. This approach tries to find universals among individuals across cultures or subcultures. Maehr and Nicholls (1980) proposed three forms of achievement behavior

that theoretically present meaningful definitions of achievement motivation boundaries. Attribution theory is the basis of these three forms, which include: ability, task, and social approval.

The goal of ability oriented achievement behavior is to "maximize the subjective probability of attributing high ability and minimize the probability of attributing low ability to oneself" (Maehr & Nicholls, 1980, p. 18). This definition correlates with the approach-avoidance principle of behavior. People might approach task situations where they think they can perform strongly, and actively avoid specific tasks where they think they would perform poorly. Weiner (1972) believes that the expectations of outcome on future tasks are mostly due to the attributions of ability and task difficulty, which are both seen as stable causal factors. Thus, causal attributions are the mediators of achievement behavior as they determine expectancies. So if athletes attribute their success to a certain high ability on a task, they will come to expect future performance on the same task to be just as, if not more, successful. The important factor seen in mediating achievement behavior is the attribution of ability (Maehr & Nicholls, 1980), which is supported by Nicholls (1975, 1976a, 1976b) and Sohn (1977).

The foundation of task-oriented achievement behavior shifts away from the attributional factor of ability to that of quality, specifically the quality of one's work. This type of achievement behavior is important in explaining those individuals who do their best on a task even though they might not demonstrate the best or most ability (Nicholls, 1972). Instead, the person's goal is to produce a better performance, or solve a problem. This desire to do so is often determined by the effort they put forth to accomplish their goal. Many athletes who have demonstrated this behavior have expressed how much they love a challenge and how much their love for the game has driven them to succeed despite of their limited talent or ability. As it can be seen, the athlete's immediate goal is to find the behavior, not necessarily the ability or competence, necessary for success.

The third achievement behavior proposed by Maehr and Nicholls (1980) is social-approval motivation. Social approval-oriented behavior is directed at maximizing the chances of attributing high effort to oneself and minimizing the chances of attributing low effort to oneself. Therefore, effort is the key attribution devoted to this achievement behavior rather than ability. Behavior is directed at producing and maintaining high levels of effort rather than ability, so when a lack of effort is apparent in an athletic performance, the level of virtuous intent is questioned rather than the level of the ability of the performer. Athletes who are social approval-oriented will often communicate the fact that they put forth a good effort, no matter what may have been the outcome of the game.

Researchers now have better perspectives and comprehensions about the theories and the differentiated definitions for the causal attributions and achievement behaviors that encompass achievement motivation theory. It is easier to see the roles success and failure have when applying these theories to athletes and nonathletes in sports. Attributions are causal in nature, being narrower and more specific in their meanings, while subjective meanings are the actual definitions of what it means for athletes and nonathletes to have success or to have failure in sport. By beginning to examine the subjective meanings of success and failure for athletes and nonathletes in sport, researchers may better understand the similarities and differences between athletes and nonathletes and males and females.

In the field of psycholinguistics, meanings are considered by some researchers as internal states (Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum, 1957). Other researchers see these meanings as a psychological process of interpretation (Ogden & Richards, 1923). Regardless of which view one takes, meanings are still considered to be perceptual components for some term. The perceptual components of a term constitute the meaning of that term for that individual (Slobin, 1971). These perceptual components also represent the cognitive structures that exist in the mind of that individual for that term (Osgood et al., 1957). In society, concepts or meanings of words are learned through certain contexts such as experience and from significant others (Kess, 1976). Amster

(1964) continues to explain context in terms of meaning. Context is very important and can change the meaning of the word or concept. Therefore, the social context or culture in which an athlete develops, learns, and lives will influence how he or she defines and develops terms for success and failure in sports. The subjective meanings that one may have in sport may depend on contextual variables such as age, gender, or ability. Different subjective meanings have been supported in research for success and failure, not only for different subjective cultures (Triandis, Kitty, Shanmugam, Tanaka, & Vassilou, 1972; Osgood, Miron, & May, 1975), but also for gender (Ewing, 1981).

Several studies used Triandis' (1972) antecedent-consequent approach to solicit subjective meanings from subjects. Triandis used this antecedent-consequent approach for investigating the influence that a culture or subjective culture had on its members' ways of perceiving certain beliefs, values, and attitudes and found cultural differences in the subjective meanings of such concepts as success and failure (Triandis et al., 1972). Antecedents and consequents were obtained by Triandis et al. (1972) through an open-ended questionnaire. Subjects were not limited to specific responses and were free to choose the terms that were important to them. For example, the questions "If you have _____, then you have success in sport", and "If you have success in sport, then you have _____", require individuals to respond with antecedents and consequents for success in sport. The use of the open-ended questionnaire was then followed by a second study using a closed-ended questionnaire that utilized the most frequent responses to the success questions for each group of respondents (e.g. males and females) in the open-ended questionnaire.

Lee (1995) discovered a problem with Triandis et al.'s (1972) questionnaire. Lee's (1995) study brought to the attention of others that the Triandis approach may bring about problems of translations in cross-cultural studies, such as hers. The Triandis format limits subjects' free thought processes in the course of selecting words because subjects are limited to providing only nouns or phrases in the blank space. Therefore, Lee (1995)

modified Triandis et al.'s (1972) questionnaire by making her open-ended questionnaire grammar-free, allowing for subjects to fill in the blanks with nouns, adjectives, verbs, and even sentences. Through the Triandis and Lee approaches, subjective meanings can be used to understand the formation of athletes' and nonathletes' definitions of success and failure in sport. How athletes and nonathletes come to acquire subjective meanings for their definitions of success and failure in sport is discussed next.

Athletes and Nonathletes

When boys and girls start to participate in sports, they experiment playing different sports to find out which ones they like, and for which ones they think they are skilled or have the potential to become skilled. The sports children like and are good at are the sports that these children play. Unfortunately, there are some boys and girls who think they do not have any ability for sports. They may love a certain sport, but they think they may not have the athletic ability to participate in that sport. When they experience failure in that sport, their peers and significant others take notice, and this is the point at which most of these children cease playing sports because they now feel self-conscious of their inadequate ability for sports. Consequently, these children's self-confidence may also decrease. This is the point where children may form concepts of "athletes" and "nonathletes." Harter's (1978) perceived competence theory helps support why athletes and nonathletes form different definitions of success and failure in sports.

Harter's (1978) perceived competence theory attempts helps explain how individuals gain perceptions of ability. Harter defines perceived competence as the sense one has of his or her ability to master a task resulting from cumulative interactions with the environment. Specifically, Harter's perceived competence theory focuses on achievement and mastery motivation (Harter, 1978). This theory is based in drive theory and incorporates two components, socialization and affective processes, to account for the development of competence and subsequent behavior.

Perceived competence is seen by Harter as a multidimensional motive, which contains three domains: cognitive, social, and physical (Harter, 1978). The cognitive domain involves school and academic performance. Issues of popularity with one's peers consumes the social domain, and the physical domain emphasizes perceived ability at sports and outdoor games. Harter's model also includes implications of success and failure, socializing agents, reinforcement effects, and motivational orientations in one's perceived competence (see Figure 1).

Harter's (1978) perceived competence theory explains that mastery attempts in specific domains result in success or failure and are evaluated by significant others. Perceived success has an element of optimal challenge which leads to perceived competence and intrinsic pleasure. At the same time, failure results in a lack of perceived competence, more anxiety towards mastery situations, and decreased intrinsic motivation to pursue mastery attempts.

A majority of the sport research on perceived competence theory focuses on the issues of youth sport dropouts and participant status. Many studies have found that older sport participants (9-11 years old) were higher in perceived physical competence than same-age nonparticipants (Feltz & Petlichkoff, 1983; Klint, 1985; Klint & Weiss, 1987; Roberts, Kleiber, & Duda, 1981; Ulrich, 1987).

In an application of Harter's (1978) theory, athletes have an increased perception of their ability and skill in what they can accomplish in athletics. These perceptions by athletes may be sharper and more concrete than nonathletes' perceptions because athletes have been in an environment that has provided them with experiences. As an athlete's relationship between perceived ability and experience grows, mostly through positive physical activity interactions, so does his or her self-confidence or sport confidence.

This model offers a possible explanation for a different formation of subjective meanings of success and failure. This model may support the fact that athletes and nonathletes have different definitions when it comes to success and failure in sports.

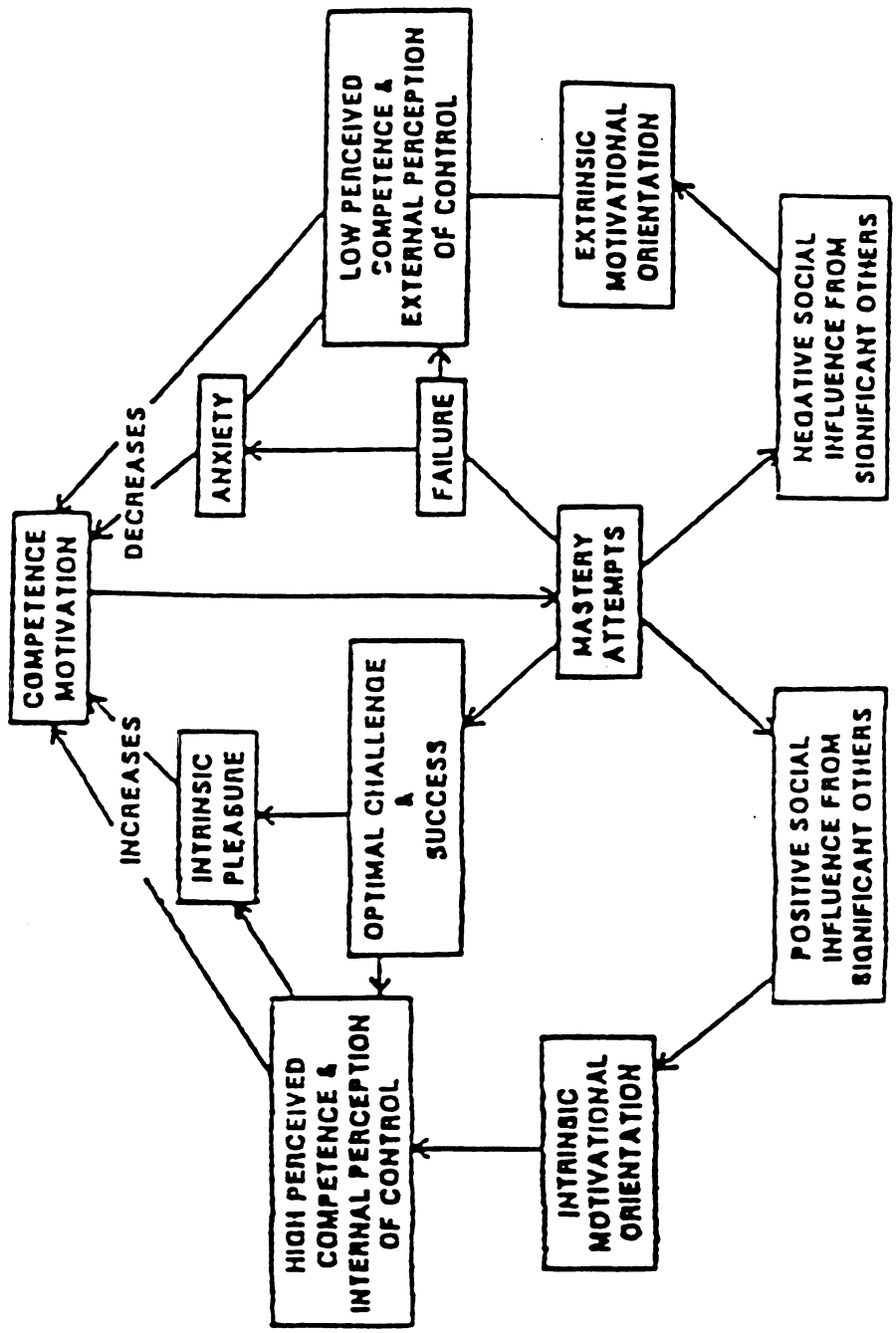

Figure 1. Harter's version of White's competence motivation theory.

Nonathletes lack the sports playing experience and may base their definitions of success and failure in sport on observation of others. Thus, the main difference between athletes and nonathletes in their definitions of success and failure in sport is the factor of experience, and this factor is explored next.

Experience

The role experience plays in further determining the definitions that athletes use for success and failure in sports has not been studied. One possible factor that may influence the role of experience on these individuals is the environment. Five aspects of environment are pertinent to this discussion: proper facilities, time availability, parental desire for their children to participate in sports, the amount and type of support and praise provided to individuals who play sports, and the quality of the organized sports program. It is these five aspects of environment that help to determine the experiences adolescents have in sports, and it is the experiences, in turn, that determine if adolescents continue to participate in sports.

The first environmental aspect to consider is if there are proper facilities available to play sports. Coakley (1994) explains that publicly funded youth sports programs are being cut in communities facing government budget crises. The same thing is happening with high school sports in school districts that have high proportions of low-income families. Varsity sports programs are being cut or dropped in many of the big city and poor rural schools (Miles, 1991; Swift, 1991). Coakley (1994) goes on to explain that as this continues to happen, fewer and fewer adolescents from low-income backgrounds have opportunities to participate in sports such as baseball and football because these are two sports that require facilities that are expensive to maintain. On the other hand, basketball among youths in this low-income bracket is growing in popularity in part because it is somewhat easier and more cost efficient to maintain a usable gym as opposed to maintaining the upkeep of a football or baseball field.

Varsity sport programs in middle and upper income areas also feel the threat of cuts by the government, but they are usually saved by "participation fees" that are paid for by the athletes and their families (Coakley, 1994). These fees are often too much for the lower-income youths, so they end up getting their sports programs cut instead of playing sports they enjoy. Unless the proper facilities, equipment, and training are provided in these public school athletic programs, adolescents from lower income brackets are at a disadvantage in regards to developing their skills in sports. As a result, these adolescents could miss out on valuable sport experiences that they may never be able to regain. Thus, a lack of good and proper facilities might be attributed by adolescents as to how they perceive success and failure in sport. One factor may be that if proper facilities are not available, practices will be harder to hold, and failure will result from losing a game. Also, if practices are hard to hold, adolescents might not be able to learn and improve as much as if they had the proper facilities for training. Thus, performance in itself would decline and failure in sport may again be the result. A "poor environment" was reported in Lee's (1995) study as part of the subjective meaning that respondents gave for doing badly in sport.

A second aspect of environment that may influence the role of experience for adolescents is the time availability in one's schedule to play sports. What is happening today is that more and more adolescents are being asked to shoulder more responsibility. For example, in low-income families, especially those with only one parent, adolescents are often expected to care for younger siblings when they get out of school every afternoon. Other adolescents are expected to get jobs after school to help pay the family bills. Then there are other adolescents who have children of their own. This problem more often than not affects female more than male adolescents because it is the female adolescents who are often left with the responsibility of caring for their children. One girls' team basketball coach explained, "It's not at all unusual that on a given day there may be two or three girls who aren't at practice because of responsibilities at home" (Dobie,

1987). As adolescents seem to be inheriting more and more adult problems in today's society, they are watching their chances for experiences in sport diminish, and as a result more athletes are involuntarily turning into nonathletes. It is quite possible that adolescents who do not have the time available to play or even practice sports perceive time availability as a definition of failure in sport. "Time availability" was another item in Lee's (1995) study that respondents gave as an antecedent for failure in sport.

The desire parents have for their child to participate in sports, and the amount of encouragement that is given to the adolescent to participate in sports is quite a critical environmental factor in determining how the adolescent's experience in sport is influenced, either positively or negatively. Parents and coaches are part of the determining factor that either makes the athletic experience enjoyable or destructive for their children.

Parents who get their children involved in organized sports want their children to have positive and enjoyable experiences. Berlage (1982) emphasized that at a time when so many activities in industrial societies are age-segregated, organized sport programs provide activities that often involve both parents and children. Unfortunately, some parents want their children's sport experiences to be so positive that they often go overboard. These parents become too emotionally involved in their children's sports and actually push their children to do things that they might not be physically or mentally ready to do. A study in Michigan indicated that when parents become too emotionally involved in the organized youth sports of their children, their behavior often overwhelms and creates anxiety for their children (State of Michigan, 1978). Thus, the enjoyment, or lack there of, regarding the experience may influence the child's definitions of success and failure. Supportive parents may be part of the definition of sport success for those children who perceive they have it. Whereas, other children may believe their parents contribute to their failure.

The last aspect of how environment influences the experiences of athletes deals with the concern of the quality of the organized sports programs. Coakley (1994) explained

explicitly that in organized games, the amount of personal involvement, or playing time, is often limited to all but the most skilled players. This range of involvement is limited to the specialization of positions. When 10-year-olds describe themselves as defensive tackles, or center fielders or left wingers or center halfbacks, it is a sure sign that the range of personal involvement has been unnecessarily limited in their sport experiences (Coakley, 1994). These positions are obviously not the star positions that relegate the playing time and experience, thus these kids are missing very important opportunities to gain experience in sport and to expand their social relationships. The problem with organized sports for kids is that sitting on the bench is an all-too-frequent experience, especially for those who need playing time the most (Coakley, 1994). As with the other environmental influences, the playing time that a child gets may influence the subjective meaning of success and failure.

Gender

Just as athletes and nonathletes are socialized into and out of sport, so are boys and girls. Gilligan (1982) claims that there is a definite gender barrier in sports and one reason for this gender barrier stems from the different way in which boys and girls are socialized. Boys are socialized through separation and individuation, while girls are brought up to be interdependent through love and care. Results indicate that girls are more in touch with their feelings and emotions. Girls are seen as weak and abnormal by boys for this reason. For boys, it is very important to be competent in sports skills (Roberts, 1978; Scanlan, 1982) and characteristics of feelings and emotions are just not viewed as fitting into the competence in sports equation. Veroff (1969) suggests that boys may establish their self-worth and peer standing through comparison in sports activities. Hoffman (1972) also makes the point that girls are encouraged by their parents differently from boys. Boys grow up to be more independent and confident and girls grow up tending to be more dependent and less self-confident. Harter's (1978) competence motivation theory provides a possible explanation for why girls are brought up in a more dependent-oriented

environment. Girls' mastery attempts may meet with more negative social influence, especially from their parents. As this happens, girls develop a more extrinsic motivational orientation, which produces a low perceived competence and external perception of control. Also, when girls mastery attempts fail, not only is low perceived competence and external perception of control created, but so is anxiety. These two components from the failed mastery attempts act to decrease girls' competence motivation and could possibly increase their socialization for dependency. This dependency that girls are socialized for creates problems later on when they experience success, especially in sports.

Sassen (1980) continues this discussion by introducing the topic of success. Sassen (1980) contends that girls grow up fearing success, which is derived in one of two ways. The first way girls learn to fear success is when they are successful at another's expense. There is a tremendous amount of guilt felt due to the belief that the success is undeserved. The second way girls fear success is from all the responsibility that results from achieving success. The pressure to be repeatedly successful can leave a bad taste in the mouth of some and this can, quite frankly, become too heavy of a burden for some girls who are not ready, nor socialized, for it. When these girls grow up to be women, they feel as though they either do not deserve to be successful under certain circumstances, or the pressure to replicate the success they did achieve is too much to handle.

A study designed by sociologist Janet Lever (1976, 1978, 1980) focused attention on the differences in the informal games played by boys and played by girls. The findings of Lever indicated several differences between the games boys and girls play. Boys play outside more than girls, and when they play with friends, boys play in larger groups. These groups tend to be more age-mixed and more competitive for the boys. The games boys play are more goal-orientated and more complex, meaning there are more rules, more positions, and more teamwork.

Lever (1978) explains that girls' activities are very different. These activities are usually very spontaneous, imaginative, and free from many rules. When it comes to

interpersonal competition, girls have far less experience because their style of competition is indirect and more individually based. The research clearly shows that directly after birth, girls are treated differently from boys. Girls under the age of 12 are less likely than boys to have experiences that encourage competition in a wide range of physical activities. When boys and girls have such different experiences in dealing with play during childhood, additional questions are raised. One pertinent question is if boys and girls are socialized differently in sport and have separate experiences, then how does this affect their subjective meanings of success and failure in sports?

Maehr and Nicholls (1980) hypothesize that success and failure might have different meanings in gender. Some studies support this claim (Ewing, 1981; Roberts & Duda, 1984). The results indicate that gender differences exist in perceived ability and subjective meanings in defining success and failure in sports. Maehr and Nicholls (1980) continue to say that women do not attribute success to high ability, but interestingly enough, women do attribute failure to poor ability. Rather, girls tend to attribute success to effort (Veroff, 1969; Bukowski & Moore, 1980). It is safe to assume that boys and girls have different goals for achievement. Referring back to Maehr and Nicholls' (1980) three forms of universality in achievement motivation, this creates an implication that girls are less achievement-oriented than boys because boys have goals that are more ability-oriented and girls have more of a combination of ability-oriented goals and social approval-oriented goals, which is more effort-oriented.

Ewing's (1981) study found that there were gender differences in definitions of success and failure in general achievement situations and in sports. Results indicated that high school boys thought more tangible and objective aspects (money and skill) were antecedents for success in general achievement situations. High school girls identified more personal, subjective, and internal aspects (doing your best, fun, understanding, trying hard, and patience) as antecedents for success in general achievement situations.

For success in sports, Ewing (1981) revealed that high school boys indicated "ability," "skill," and "hard work" as antecedents , and girls indicated "playing your best," "teamwork," and "determination" to be their antecedents. Boys identified "innate ability" to be more of an important factor, while girls identified "dedication" to be the more important factor.

For failure in sports, Ewing's (1981) study showed that high school boys perceived more stable factors (no talent, no ability, and no dedication) as the antecedents for failure in sports. Girls, on the other hand, perceived attitude-oriented items (no interest, don't care, no will, and bad attitude) as being the antecedents to failure in sports.

The summary of this study may suggest that boys are more ability-oriented than girls and girls are more effort-oriented than boys. Therefore, the socialization that boys and girls receive when they are young represents different goal orientations that ultimately determine how these boys and girls define their subjective meanings of success and failure in sport.

This review of literature is appropriate for the purposes of this study, which are to determine if male and female American adolescent athletes and nonathletes differ in terms of the importance they place on their subjective meanings of success and failure in sports. It is also the intent of this study to examine the role experience plays in determining subjective meanings for American adolescents in sports.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This study attempted to discover consistencies and inconsistencies in success and failure definitions that may exist between athletes and nonathletes as well as between males and females. This study also examined the relationship between extent of experience in sports and the importance of success and failure definitions. The methodology used to collect these data involved two phases. The first phase used an open-ended questionnaire format to gather components of success and failure for American adolescents. The second phase used a closed-ended questionnaire format, using the most frequent responses obtained in Phase 1 as forced choices in Phase 2.

Phase 1

Subjects and Design

The subjects involved in this study were 176 American high school students from Grades 9 through 12. There were 97 males and 79 females, specifically, there were 68 males who were athletes with experience in playing sports and there were 29 males who were nonathletes. Nonathletes were defined as students who were currently not participating in organized sport and had no more than 3 years of prior organized sports experience. The rationale for using 3 years experience as the division point between an athlete and a nonathlete is that although most youths have experimented with at least one sport, an individual who has been involved in a particular sport for at least 4 years is considered to be beyond the experimentation phase and to have made a commitment to that sport. There also were 42 females who were athletes with experience in playing sports and 37 females who were nonathletes. These students were obtained from high schools in a suburban area in a midwestern state. All subjects were volunteers.

The ethnicity breakdown of the sample was as follows: 74% Caucasian, 1% African American, 10% Asian American, and 11% listed as Other (mixed ethnicities). The sports experience of athletes and nonathletes is listed by frequency in Table 1.

Questionnaire I

An open-ended questionnaire was prepared to obtain components of success and failure in sports. The instrument used was different from Triandis et al.'s questionnaire in terms of format. The open-ended questionnaire asked subjects to supply many components of success and failure in sport. The following questions were asked: (a) Make a list of everything you can think of about yourself which causes you to feel that you can do well in sports, (b) Make a list of everything you can think of about yourself which causes you to feel that you would do badly in sports. The researcher then provided 20 blanks which allowed the subjects to write down as many responses as possible (see Appendix A).

In addition to the open-ended questionnaire, subjects completed a demographic questionnaire (see Appendix B). This questionnaire was designed to ask general information that may affect the adolescents' definitions of success and failure in sports such as gender, how they got involved in sports, and past experiences in sport.

Procedure

Prior to the collection of any data, the approval of human subjects was obtained from Michigan State University (see Appendix C). Permission was obtained from high school principals and classroom teachers following an explanation of the purpose and methods of the study (see Appendix D). Parents of the subjects involved and the subjects themselves were also asked for their permission to participate in this study.

Adolescents were administered the questionnaire in a classroom setting in their grade level groups or after school (before or after their athletic practices). The researcher provided short verbal instructions and told the adolescents to work individually on the questionnaires. The instructions informed the participants of their responsibility to

Table 1
Frequencies of Sports Experiences by Athletic Status and Gender

	Athletes		Nonathletes	
Years	M	F	M	F
None	0	0	3	17
1	0	0	8	4
2	0	0	7	11
3	0	0	11	5
4	15	7	0	0
5	7	1	0	0
6	3	3	0	0
7	4	2	0	0
8	8	7	0	0
9	4	2	0	0
10	8	10	0	0
11	8	1	0	0
12	5	4	0	0
13	5	4	0	0
14	1	0	0	0
15	0	1	0	0

provide as many responses as possible for each of the questions on the questionnaire. Participants were also informed that this was not a test of intelligence and that the results would only be reported as group findings. Further, each questionnaire had the same instructions and the researcher was present to administer all of the questionnaires and to answer any and all questions.

Treatment of the Data

The responses from the open-ended questions were tabulated by frequency of responses. First, the data were tabulated as to the total number of different responses for the components of success and failure. The data were then categorized into responses of athlete and nonathlete adolescents respectively. The athlete/nonathlete data were categorized further into female and male responses. A list of responses for each of the two questions (components of success in sport, components of failure in sport) was completed and responses were listed in descending order from most frequent to least frequent in each category (see Appendix E). The 25 most frequent responses were then chosen from the four subject lists in the success question and the four subject lists in the failure question. This was done to create equality between the four subject groups in each question and to lessen any confusion as to why certain word items were chosen over others. The top 25 responses from the success question and the top 25 responses from the failure question were then used to construct the second questionnaire for Phase 2. The number of items chosen for the second questionnaire (25) was based on the perceived tolerance and attention span of adolescents for completing this type of questionnaire.

Phase 2

Subjects and Design

The second phase of this study formally tested the differences in definitions of success and failure among the different athletic/nonathletic gender groups. Subjects were drawn from the same geographic area as in Phase 1. The new subjects for Phase 2 were 185 high school students from Grades 9 through 12. There were 62 males and 46 females who

were experienced athletes, and there were 38 males and 39 females who had no more than 3 years experience in organized sports and were thus considered nonathletes. All subjects were volunteers. As in Phase I, the majority of students were Caucasian (69%), followed by 9% African Americans, 7% Asian Americans, 3% Latino, 1% Native American, and 13% listed as Other (mixed ethnicities). The sports experience of athletes and nonathletes is listed by frequency in Table 2.

Questionnaire II

In this questionnaire (see Appendix F), the response categories formed the basis for constructing the Component Questionnaire which was employed in order to examine gender differences and athletic differences in the importance of success and failure definitions in sports. The questions for success and failure were the same as the two questions that were used in Phase 1, except that the participants were forced to rate the degree of importance for each item on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (very important) to 7 (least important). To be specific, subjects were asked to mark for each of the two questions the degree of importance for each of the 25 responses: (a) How important are the following things in making you feel that you can do well in sports, (b) How important are the following things in making you feel that you would do badly in sports?

The same demographic questionnaire, as was used in Phase 1, was administered to gather general information from the participants (see Appendix B). Four additional questions (Items 10-13) were added to the questionnaire for the respondents which asked them to rank in importance (a) the most important thing in playing sports (playing well, playing fairly, beating opponent); (b) success in sport (winning the game, playing to potential, outplaying opponent); (c) failure in sport (losing the game, not playing to potential, not outplaying opponent); (d) experience in sport (playing a lot, learning from mistakes, winning many games).

Table 2

Frequencies of Sports Experiences by Athletic Status and Gender

	Athletes		Nonathletes	
Years	M	F	M	F
None	0	0	10	17
1	0	0	10	7
2	0	0	11	6
3	0	0	7	9
4	3	2	0	0
5	13	11	0	0
6	2	7	0	0
7	6	7	0	0
8	5	5	0	0
9	8	2	0	0
10	12	9	0	0
11	3	3	0	0
12	3	0	0	0
13	5	0	0	0
14	2	0	0	0

The majority of the male athletes currently involved in athletics indicated football (16%) as being the most played sport. The majority of female athletes indicated they were currently active in soccer and swimming, both 15%. For nonathletes, 87% of the males said that they were involved at one point in time in organized sports with soccer and football being the most played sport (21%). Female nonathletes (68%) said they were at one point or another involved in athletics with basketball (15%) being the most frequent. Male nonathletes (24%) indicated consideration in joining one of their school's organized sports teams with soccer being the most popular team to join (5%). Female nonathletes (33%) said they would consider joining one of their school's organized sports teams with basketball being the team to join (10%).

Treatment of the Data

A factor analysis method was employed to generate factors that could then be used to compare responses between athletes and nonathletes and males and females. The subjects' responses to the two questions were analyzed separately by question. Varimax Rotation Technique was used in the factor analysis. Varimax rotation is most commonly used in this type of factor analysis because it allows for discussion of a person's score on one factor without having to take into account his or her scores on the other factors. Items with factor loadings of .50 or over were retained for a factor. Only factors which contained at least three variables, did not also have items which loaded heavily on another factor, and had initial Eigenvalues greater than 1 were reported. The rationale for using this criterion was based on Streiner's (1994) argument that retaining factors with less than an Eigenvalue of 1 and fewer than three items results in a greater probability of retaining too many factors. This would be too many "in the sense that, if the study were replicated with a new group of subjects, the first few retained factors may be the same both times, but the weaker ones would likely differ from one replication to the next" (p. 63).

A commonly used measure of reliability, Cronbach alpha, was used to assess internal consistency of the construct indicators, depicting the degree to which they "indicate" the

common latent (unobserved) consistency. A commonly used threshold value for acceptable reliability is .70 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1992).

A 2 x 2 (Athletic category x Gender) multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) test was used to determine differences among the group using the raw factor scores. The F-statistic was used as an approximation based on Wilks's criterion. Because of the exploratory nature of this study, an alpha level of $p < .10$ was used for all analyses. Post hoc tests for simple effects in the event of a significant interaction were conducted using a Tukey WSD procedure (Winer, 1971).

Pearson correlations were used to examine the associations between years of experience in playing sports and importance ratings from the derived factors for success and failure. Separate correlations were calculated for males and females.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter is divided into two major sections. The first section deals with results of Phase 1 relating to the overall responses of the subjects, as well as differences between responses of the adolescents who were athletes and nonathletes and between male and female adolescents. The second section deals with the results of Phase 2 which are reported in terms of (a) perceptions of success in sports by athletic status and by gender, and (b) perceptions of failure in sports by athletic status and by gender.

Phase 1 Results

As I mentioned in Chapter 3, responses of the subjects were tabulated in descending order in frequency tables for male and female athletes, and male and female nonathletes, separately. Among those responses, 25 top ranking responses were selected from male and female athletes', and male and female nonathletes' frequency tables. Thus, each question consisted of 25 items for Phase 2. The 25 items for success and the 25 items for failure are listed in Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3
List of Top 25 Items for Success Among Adolescent Athletes and Nonathletes in Rank Order

Athletes	Frequencies		Nonathletes	Frequencies	
	M	F		M	F
Athletic ability	63	37	Athletic ability	27	19
Physical fitness	28	24	Physical fitness	26	28
Like sports	9	16	Like sports	19	17
Team work	6	21	Team work	10	21
Good attitude	12	22	Good attitude	4	11
Competitive	14	12	Competitive	8	10
Hardwork	10	15	Hardwork	6	12
Smart	17	6	Smart	9	10
Confidence	13	12	Confidence	4	8
Desire	10	15	Desire	5	6
Determination	10	14	Determination	5	7
Support	8	11	Support	8	7
Experience	13	10	Experience	4	3
Follow instruction	6	12	Follow instruction	6	6
Dedication	9	7	Dedication	6	7
Physical stature	8	5	Physical stature	8	4
Practice	3	8	Practice	7	3
Mentally tough	8	6	Mentally tough	1	4
Like winning	4	4	Like winning	4	6
Good concentration	3	7	Good concentration	4	1
Good coaches	0	9	Good coaches	2	3
Aggressive	5	2	Aggressive	3	2
Good sportsmanship	4	2	Good sportsmanship	2	3
Leadership	3	6	Leadership	2	0
Team spirit	0	0	Team spirit	3	6

Note. n = 68 for male athletes, n = 42 for female athletes, n = 29 for male nonathletes, and n = 37 for female nonathletes.

Table 4
List of Top 25 Items for Failure Among Adolescent Athletes and Nonathletes in Rank Order

Athletes	Frequencies		Nonathletes	Frequencies	
	M	F		M	F
Out of shape	21	14	Out of shape	13	33
Lack athletic ability	17	13	Lack athletic ability	18	13
Bad physical stature	2	14	Bad physical stature	13	4
No time to practice	2	10	No time to practice	8	13
No confidence	14	10	No confidence	4	5
No interest	4	2	No interest	11	14
Laziness	3	11	Laziness	6	9
Bad attitude	5	13	Bad attitude	4	7
Injury	8	4	Injury	9	4
Bad coaches	2	14	Bad coaches	3	2
Pressure	4	7	Pressure	3	5
Not competitive	0	10	Not competitive	2	5
Lack experience	3	2	Lack experience	4	7
Lack desire	1	3	Lack desire	0	11
Fear of success	1	4	Fear of success	1	6
Not mentally tough	8	1	Not mentally tough	0	2
Self-conscious	0	4	Self-conscious	1	6
Easily intimidated	4	4	Easily intimidated	0	0
Drugs	5	1	Drugs	1	0
Lack dedication	3	1	Lack dedication	0	3
Low self-esteem	7	0	Low self-esteem	0	0
Indecisiveness	0	4	Indecisiveness	2	0
Frustration	2	4	Frustration	0	0
No concentration	3	1	No concentration	0	2
Smoking	1	1	Smoking	2	2

Note. $n = 68$ for male athletes, $n = 42$ for female athletes, $n = 29$ for male nonathletes, and $n = 37$ for female nonathletes.

As indicated in Table 3, male athletes reported "athletic ability" far more frequently than the three other groups in defining success in sport. Female athletes reported "athletic ability" somewhat more frequently than male and female nonathletes. The next highest response, which was similar across all groups, was physical fitness. In terms of perceptions of failure, all groups indicated that "out-of-shape" and "lack athletic ability" were the most frequent definitions of failure in sports.

Phase 2 Results

Two factor analyses were conducted: one for the subjective meaning of success and one for the subjective meanings of failure. Varimax rotation was employed for the factor analyses. The table of intercorrelations among factors are also contained in Appendix G. The factor analyses are reported first, followed by MANOVAs to determine athlete and gender differences. Lastly, Pearson correlations are reported between athletic experiences and the raw scores on the factors.

The results of the investigation in this section are reported as follows:

1. Factors that define success in sports.
2. Factors that define failure in sports.
3. Comparison of athlete and gender groups on success and failure in definitions.
4. Relationship between athletic experience and success/failure definitions.

Factors that Define Success in Sports

A factor analysis of the 25 items regarding the importance of each in making adolescents feel that they can do well in sports revealed four initial factors with Eigenvalues greater than one. These factors along with their factor loadings are contained in Appendix H.

Inspection of the rotated factor matrix revealed that Factor 4 (Eigenvalue = 1.06, % variance = 4.2) had only one item that met the criteria for retainment and thus was deleted. Factor 2 (Eigenvalue = 1.53, % variance = 6.1) had only two items that met the criteria for retainment and was also deleted. These two retained items (good sportsmanship and teamspirit), however, suggest the possibility of a distinct factor and should be pursued as a possible factor with item modifications in future research. The first factor (Eigenvalue = 13.25, % variance = 53) and third factor (Eigenvalue = 1.18, % variance = 4.7) had enough items to be retained. However, the Eigenvalue for Factor 3 dropped to 0.82 in the final statistics. Factor 3 was still retained because of its conceptual interpretation. The

first factor labeled "task-oriented meanings" contained four items (hardwork, team work, athletic ability, and likes the sport). The third factor appeared to measure "competitive-oriented meanings" which consisted of three items (being aggressive, like winning, and physical stature). The rotated factor loadings and final statistics for success in sport can be found in Table 5.

Table 5
Rotated Factor Loadings: Factors for Success in Sport

Item no.		Factor loadings		Factor Means	
		1	3	M	SD
Factor 1 "Task-oriented meanings"				1.93	1.13
5	Hardwork	.75	.26		
4	Teamwork	.62	.12		
1	Athletic ability	.57	.36		
3	Likes the sport	.57	.33		
Factor 3 "Competitive-oriented meanings"				2.58	1.33
22	Being aggressive	.22	.70		
19	Like winning	.16	.60		
17	Physical stature	.17	.52		
Total Variance	-Per factor	51.6	3.3		
	-Cumulative	51.6	59.4		
Eigen Value		12.89	.82		
Coefficient Alpha		.85	.72		

Factors that Define Failure in Sports

A factor analysis regarding the importance of 25 items in making male and female athletes and nonathletes feel they would do badly in sports revealed three factors. The first factor appeared to measure "lack of achievement potential meanings", which was composed of seven items (lack dedication, low self-esteem, drugs, no concentration, easily intimidated, smoking, and frustration). The second factor labeled "lack ability/time meanings" was composed of five items (out of shape, lack athletic ability, no time for practice, bad physical stature, and injury). The final factor was called "lack competitive-oriented meanings" and consisted of three items (fear of success, lack experience, and not

competitive). Although the Eigenvalue for the third factor dropped from 1.28 to 0.90 in the final statistics, the factor was retained because of its conceptual contribution and the exploratory nature of the study. Table 6 contains the rotated factor loadings for failure in sport. Loadings for all 25 items for both success and failure are contained in Appendix H.

Table 6
Rotated Factor Loadings: Factors for Failure in Sport

Item no.		Factor loadings			Factor Means	
		1	2	3	M	SD
Factor 1 "Lack of achievement potential meanings"					2.52	1.56
20	Lack dedication	.80	.27	.29		
21	Low self-esteem	.76	.29	.36		
19	Drugs	.73	.25	.22		
24	No concentration/focus	.69	.39	.30		
18	Easily intimidated	.68	.39	.31		
25	Smoking	.59	.18	.27		
23	Frustration	.59	.34	.38		
Factor 2 "Lack ability/time meanings"					2.52	1.40
1	Out of shape	.24	.73	.22		
2	Lack athletic ability	.23	.68	.19		
5	No time to practice	.34	.67	.27		
4	Bad physical stature	.29	.59	.25		
9	Injury	.21	.56	.34		
Factor 3 "Lack competitive-oriented meanings"					3.08	1.59
14	Fear of success	.39	.11	.67		
13	Lack experience	.24	.34	.66		
12	Not competitive	.35	.34	.54		
Total Variance	-Per factor	55.8	4.9	3.6		
	-Cumulative	55.8	60.7	64.3		
Eigen Value		13.96	1.22	.90		
Coefficient Alpha		.93	.86	.78		

Comparisons of Athlete and Gender Groups on Success and Failure Definitions

Research questions two and three asked whether athletes and nonathletes and boys and girls differ in the importance they place on the factors perceived to define success and failure in sport. These two questions were examined using a 2 x 2 (Athlete x Gender) MANOVA for the two success factors and another 2 x 2 MANOVA for the three failure factors. Means, standard deviations, and group numbers for all factors are contained in Table 7.

The results for the success factors (task-oriented and competitive-oriented aptitude) indicated a significant overall multivariate main effect for athlete group, Wilks' = .95, F (2, 176) = 4.73, p = .01; gender, Wilks' = .96, F (2, 176) = 3.29, p = .04; and for an Athlete x Gender interaction, Wilks' = .97, F (2, 176) = 2.63, p = .075. As an interaction supersedes any main effects, follow-up univariate F tests were conducted only for the interaction effect. Follow-up univariate F tests revealed a significant effect for task-oriented meanings, F (1, 177) = 4.57, p = .034 and competitive-oriented meanings, F (1, 177) = 3.44, p = .065. Post hoc tests for simple effects of the task-oriented meanings indicated that female athletes found this success factor to be more important for defining success in sport than did female nonathletes. This interaction is illustrated in Figure 2. Post hoc tests for simple effects of the competitive-oriented meanings indicated that both groups of males (athletes/nonathletes) and female athletes rated this second success factor as more important in defining success in sport than female nonathletes. This interaction is illustrated in Figure 3.

Table 7

Means, Standard Deviations, and Group Numbers for All Success and Failure Factors

	Athletes		Nonathletes	
Dependent Measure	Males	Females	Males	Females
		Success		
Task-oriented meanings				
M	1.92	1.53	2.02	2.36
SD	1.28	.55	1.03	1.33
n	62	46	35	38
Competitive-oriented meanings				
M	2.34	2.39	2.50	3.27
SD	1.31	.85	1.31	1.64
n	62	46	35	38
		Failure		
Lack of achievement potential meanings				
M	2.72	2.18	2.37	2.78
SD	1.89	1.16	1.37	1.57
n	57	44	36	37
Lack ability/time meanings				
M	2.64	2.22	2.36	2.77
SD	1.76	.82	1.20	1.45
n	57	44	36	37
Lack competitive-oriented meanings				
M	3.00	3.17	2.86	3.33
SD	1.76	1.39	1.62	1.53
n	57	44	36	37

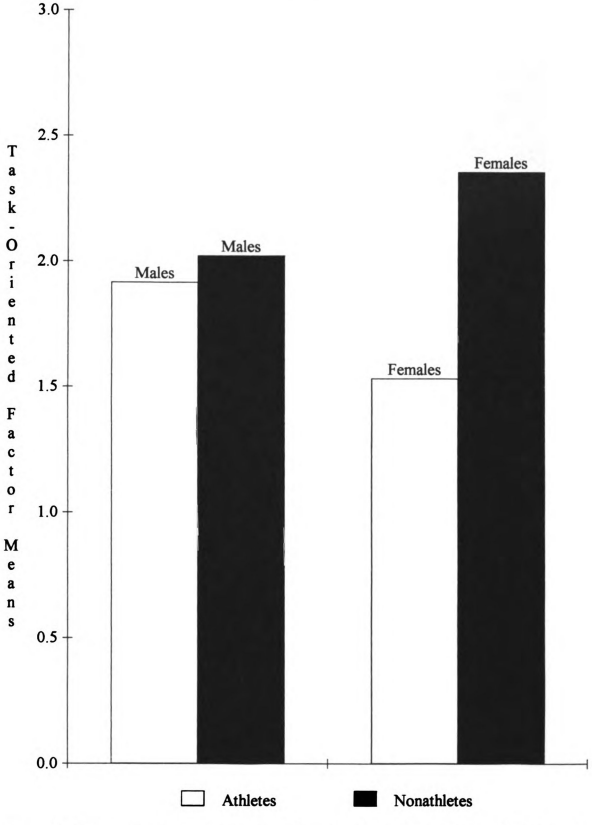

Figure 2. Mean task-oriented factor scores for athlete (n = 108) and nonathlete (n = 77) groups of males and females.

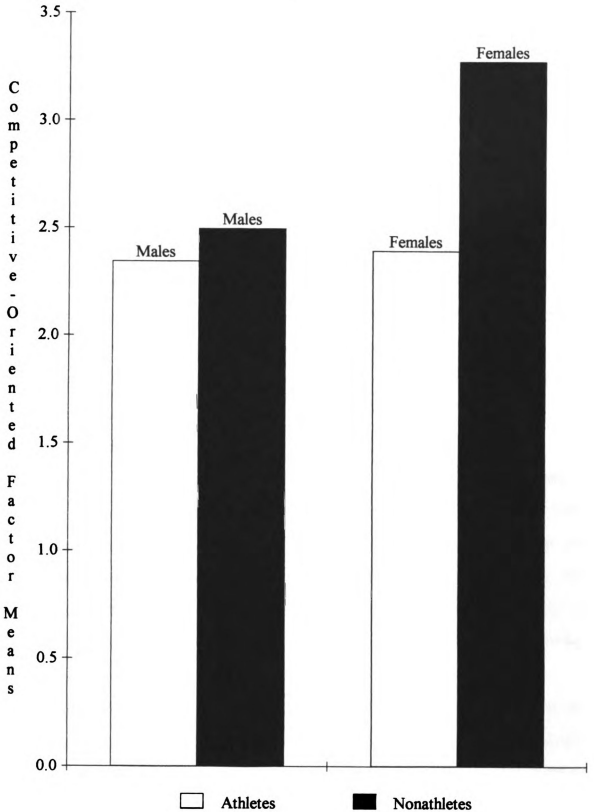

Figure 3. Mean competitive-oriented factor scores for athlete (n = 108) and nonathlete (n = 77) groups of males and females.

The results for the failure factors (lack of achievement potential meanings, lack ability/time meanings, and lack competitive-oriented meanings) also indicated a significant overall multivariate effect for an Athlete x Gender interaction, Wilks' = .96, F (3, 168) = 2.22, p = .087, but no main effects. Follow-up univariate F tests revealed a significant effect for lack of achievement potential meanings, F (1, 170) = 3.89, p = .050 and lack ability/time meanings, F (1, 170) = 4.20, p = .042. Post hoc tests for simple effects of the lack of achievement potential meanings revealed that female athletes considered this first failure factor to be more important in terms of defining failure in sports than did female nonathletes. This interaction is illustrated in Figure 4. Post hoc tests for simple effects of the lack ability/time meanings revealed that female athletes also rated this second failure factor to be of more importance when defining failure in sports than did female nonathletes. This interaction is illustrated in Figure 5. The third failure factor had no significant interactions to report.

Relationship Between Experience and Success/Failure Definitions

Correlations were conducted between athletic experience and the two success and three failure factors for athletes. Athletic experience was defined as the number of years a participant played in his/her best sport. Correlations were first performed with male and female athletes together, then correlations were conducted separately for gender in order to examine the last two research questions for this study. Negative correlations indicated a positive relationship because the questionnaire responses were ordered with "1" being most important and "7" being least important on the Likert scale.

The first set of correlations for male and female athletes combined indicated that only one failure factor, "lack ability/time meanings", was significantly correlated with years of playing experience (r = .19, p = .05). The more years of playing experience that athletes had, the less importance they placed on the "lack ability/time meanings" in defining failure in sports. However, when the second set of correlations were run separately for male and female athletes, the only significant correlation was for female athletes on the competitive-

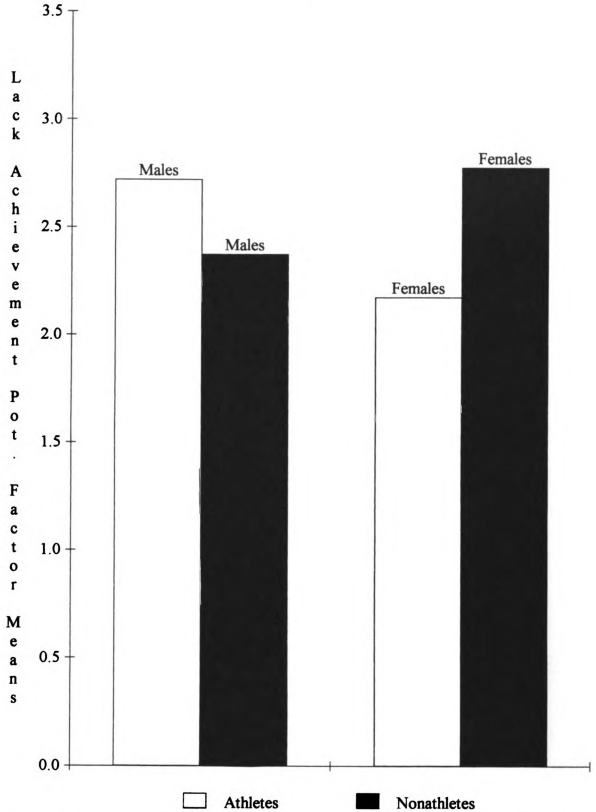

Figure 4. Mean lack of achievement potential factor scores for athlete (n = 108) and nonathlete (n = 77) groups of males and females.

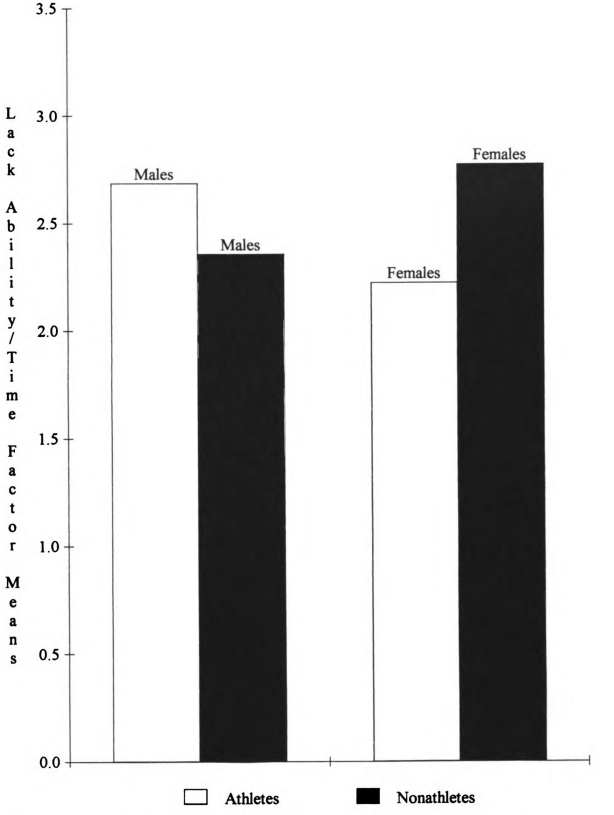

Figure 5. Mean lack of ability/time factor scores for athlete (n = 108) and nonathlete (n = 77) groups of males and females.

oriented success factor. Female athletes showed a significantly negative relationship with the "competitive-oriented meanings" factor ($r = .27$, $p = .07$). For female athletes, the more experience they had playing sports, the less importance they placed on "competitive-oriented meanings" for defining success in sports.

Cohen (1988) suggested that values of .10, .30, and .50 represent small, medium, and large correlations respectively. In relation to this study, female athletes approached a medium correlation (.27), between playing experience and perceived minimal importance of competitive-oriented meanings for defining success in sports.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was to determine if male and female American adolescent athletes and nonathletes differed in terms of the importance they placed on their subjective meanings of success and failure in sports. This study also examined the role experience had in determining subjective meanings for American adolescents in sports. The results are discussed in terms of (a) the success and failure factors that were found, (b) the differences in importance of success and failure meanings among athletes/nonathletes and gender groups, and (c) the relationship between experience and the success/failure definitions.

Success and Failure Factors in Sport.

Firstly, the labeling of the 2 success and 3 failure factors was difficult to do because not all of the items in each success/failure factor appeared to be tied to the same construct. The naming of the factors is, of course, subjective and another researcher may come up with a different set of labels. However, it is important to determine a label that in some way ties the variables together. The labels used in this study for success in sport were "task-oriented meanings" and "competitive-oriented meanings". These two factors differed somewhat from Lee's "dedication" and "innate ability" factors for success in sports. First, "task-oriented meanings" contained items in addition to hardwork and teamwork that were not included in Lee's "dedication" factor. These items included ("athletic ability" and "likes the sport"). The last item may seem to be common sense, but it represents an enjoyment component that is absent from any of Lee's (1995) factors. Liking a sport creates a passion to perform well. That in and of itself is a motivating factor for achieving success in sports. Athletic ability loaded on an "innate ability" factor in Lee's study. In the present study, "athletic ability" seemed to be a part of the hardwork, teamwork, and enjoyment aspects of being a successful athlete.

Research suggests enjoyment to be the primary factor children use to continue or discontinue sport participation. In earlier research, Brustad (1988), assumed enjoyment to be an indicator of positive affect, but such a definition was believed to be too vague and confusing (Kimiecik & Harris, 1996). Instead, enjoyment is starting to be considered as a flow. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) writes, "Enjoyment is characterized by this forward movement: by a sense of novelty, of accomplishment....After an enjoyable event we know that we have changed, that our self has grown: in some respect we have become more complex as a result of it" (p. 46). Continued sport participation may also depend on this cycle of self-improvement. Seeing oneself gradually improve in sports throughout the years may indeed ignite an athlete's passion to achieve success in sports. Kimiecik and Harris (1996) define enjoyment as, "an optimal psychological state (i.e., flow) that leads to performing an activity primarily for its own sake and is associated with positive feeling states" (p. 256). This explanation of the evolvement of enjoyment as a definition may present a strong argument for why "likes the sport" is such a pertinent antecedent for adolescents in defining success in sports.

The second success factor found in the present study was "competitive-oriented meanings." "Competitive-oriented meanings" included being aggressive, like winning, and physical stature. The physical stature item was similar to Lee's (1995) items of "strong" and "physical fitness" in her innate ability factor, but the factor in the present study represented more than "innate ability"; it included an attitude toward winning.

These two orientations, task and competitive, reflect the criteria individuals use to subjectively define success in achievement settings (Duda, 1989). When an individual is task-oriented, success is perceived more subjectively rather than more competitively oriented in nature. For an individual who is competitively oriented, success is still perceived subjectively, but this subjective success means being better relative to others in a challenging task (Duda, 1989). In Duda's (1989) study on task and ego orientations in the high school setting, these two orientation definitions suggest that task-oriented meanings

for success in sport evoke more of a social responsibility and emphasize a greater importance on personal mastery. Competitive or ego-oriented meanings elicit more of an emphasis on fame and fortune paralleled by a stellar career. There seems to be a definite balance between these two orientations, however, there is evidence that this balance is not stable over time.

A problem arises when the idea of ego-orientation is adopted at the expense of task-oriented meanings. This issue becomes even more pertinent when years of competitive involvement are examined (Chaumenton & Duda, 1988). Chaumenton and Duda (1988) believe that the ego-oriented meanings that are dealt with in a sport situation context become more pronounced as an individual moves from one level of competition to the next i.e. (middle school to high school or high school to college). Thus it appears that competitive or ego-oriented meanings comprise more negative connotations when compared not only with task-oriented meanings, but with years and level of athletic playing experience.

The Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) was developed by Duda and Nicholls (1992) to assess individual differences of task and ego involvement in athletic settings. Chi and Duda (1995) found that relationships exist between the (TEOSQ) and (a) sport success, (b) sport participation, (c) attitudes on sportsmanship, and (d) intrinsic interest and enjoyment. The task-oriented meanings in this study correlate with some of the task involved items on the (TEOSQ). "Hardwork" in the present study was similar to Item 7 on the (TEOSQ), "I learn a new skill by trying hard" and Item 8, "I work really hard". Item 5 on the (TEOSQ), "I learn something that is fun to do" is similar to "likes the sport" in the present study. The competitive-oriented meanings found in the present study were not compared to the (TEOSQ) ego items because the competitive-oriented meanings presented more of an attitude toward winning as opposed to an attitude toward the self (ego).

Three factors ("lack of achievement potential meanings", "lack ability/time meanings", and "lack competitive-oriented meanings") were found to be subjective meanings of failure in sports for adolescents. These three factors differed in some respects from Lee's (1995) "Bad attitude" and "Negative environment" factors for failure in sport. The "lack of achievement potential meanings" contained the items drugs, no concentration, and easily intimidated that were absent in Lee's study. "Lack ability/time meanings" indicated three items that were not found in Lee's study for defining failure in sports: lack athletic ability, no time for practice, and bad physical stature. Finally, "lack competitive-oriented meanings" had items not included in Lee's for defining failure in sports: fear of success, lack experience, and not competitive. This last item was particularly interesting because it contradicted an item found in one of Lee's failure factors which was "too competitive." There is a possibility that the different findings from the two studies was due to the different subject pools in each study. Lee had a more diverse subject pool that included more urban youths. The present study contained more female athletes, and more white and suburban youths. Different people in different environments may place different importance on meanings for success and failure in sport.

The first factor "lack of achievement potential meanings" included the following items (lack dedication, low self-esteem, drugs, no concentration/focus, easily intimidated, smoking, and frustration). These items were grouped together because they represented either internal or external qualities that were felt to deter success in athletics and instead promote an environment for failure. However, all items represent the qualities an individual can work on and eventually overcome.

The second factor for failure in sports was labeled "lack of ability/time meanings". It contained five items (out of shape, lack athletic ability, no time to practice, bad physical stature, injury). The importance of "lack athletic ability" as an item in defining failure in sport deviates from findings in previous research. Bukowski and Moore (1980), for instance, discovered that ability was found to be a major contributor or dominant factor

only in causing success. In terms of defining failure, "ability" was rated only average. Although effort appeared to be perceived among the dominant causes of success and failure in sport, ability was regarded as a dominant cause with respect to success only (Bukowski & Moore, 1980).

In Lee's (1995) study, she found that lack of ability was not a factor in defining failure in sports for American adolescents. Lee reported that there were no lack of ability items in the list of top 25 items of failure for Americans. Lee (1995) attributed the reasoning behind this discovery to Miller's (1976) self-serving attributional bias style. Lee (1995) maintained that for Americans in achievement situations, there persists a need to maintain or enhance self-esteem. When success is achieved, it is attributed to aspects of personal control such as ability and effort and thus self-esteem is enhanced. However, when failure is the outcome, in an achievement situation, this failure is attributed to aspects beyond an individual's control such as environment, luck, and task difficulty. This logic is motivated by the need to protect one's self-esteem. Lee concluded that attributing failure to lack of ability would be damaging to the self-esteem of an individual. Lee inferred that this is the reason why the lack of ability factor did not show up in her study. Then why did this failure factor surface in this present study? Again, it may be attributed to the different subject pools between Lee's study and this present study.

Given the subtle differences in the present sample in the factors that comprise definitions of success and failure in sport, researchers should consider using the subjective meaning approach when conducting research on this topic. A subjective meaning approach would allow the researcher to tap the qualities of success and failure in sport that are most meaningful to a particular population. The sample in the present study reflects youths from suburban, white, middle class backgrounds. The items and factors may change from urban to suburban youth, high school to college populations, or racial and ethnic cultures.

In addition, the nature of the question may tap slightly different underlying meanings of success and failure. Specifically, in the present study, the question was worded as, "How important are the following things in making you feel that you can do well (would do badly) in sports". If the question(s) was worded using "one" in place of "you", the response may have reflected more "causal" meanings. Instead, one could argue that the personalized "you" type of questions reflected more attributional responses on the part of the participants.

Gender and Athletic Group Differences for Success and Failure in Sports.

The main purpose of this study was to determine if there were any differences in defining success and failure in sports between gender and also athletes and nonathletes. The results of this study showed that there were indeed gender and athletic group differences in the subjective meanings for success and failure in sports, but the most significant findings revealed intra-gender differences between athletes and nonathletes.

In terms of the two success factors (task-oriented meanings and competitive-oriented meanings), female athletes thought "task-oriented meanings" were significantly more important than did female nonathletes in defining success in sports. In her study, Duda (1989) found a definite link between female athletes and task orientation. In fact, female athletes associated athletics with working with others and the significance of trying one's best.

Other studies such as Maloney and Petrie (1972), who studied Canadian adolescents in grades 8 through 12, found that participants in organized sports, especially males, were more likely to be oriented toward skill and victory than females and nonparticipants, who favored more task-oriented characteristics.

In 1976, Loy, Birrell, and Rose studied the same topic only this time focusing on college students and adults. Findings from their research indicated that females and nonathletes were less likely to embrace what they call a "professional" sport orientation, that is a win-at-all-costs orientation.

For the second success factor in this study, female nonathletes were the only group who thought competitive-oriented meanings were not important for subjective meanings of success in sports. Female athletes and both groups of males thought this factor was significant. The suggestion is made by Nicholson (1979) that if athletes tend to have a different orientation toward participating than nonathletes, there also may be personal characteristics, attitudes, or outlooks that vary between a female athlete and nonathlete.

Due to the sex roles and stereotypes brought forth in sport on female athletes by society, it may very well be that there is a sense of overcommitment on the part of female athletes to achieve, especially when defining, success in sports. Female athletes may feel that they have to commit and work twice as hard in order to gain acceptance and respect in a male dominated sport society. So what does it take on the part of the female athlete to make this leap from "outcast" to "leader" in the realm of sports?

According to Ogilvie (1979), it takes a strong personal identity. Ogilvie (1979) conducted interviews of successful female athletes. Through these interviews, the female athletes indicated that they attributed their achievement in their respective sports to a strong personality. One woman in particular listed the characteristics that composed her strong personality. The characteristics included: setting high goals, having a positive mental set, self-direction, independence, aggressive, leadership, and risk taking.

Thus, the findings in the present study are at odds with some of the previous work comparing gender and athletic categories (e.g., Loy et al., 1976; Maloney & Petrie, 1972). Female athletes are much more like their male athlete counterparts in defining success in sport than like nonathletic females.

Vealey suggested (1988) that elite female athletes are less influenced by traditional gender role socialization and possess as much confidence as males. Vealey explained that in motor performance research, sport psychologists have indicated that females are lower in self-confidence than males. This may very well be due to the process of gender-role socialization. That is, since sport is perceived as being primarily a male activity and a

majority of sports behaviors are likened to male behaviors, females may feel inadequate in an athletic capacity. Vealey continues to explain that females may feel less competent, think that they have less social support than their male counterparts, and receive fewer awards for sport participation and success.

Gender role research indicates that females in competitive sport possess more "masculine" qualities than do female nonparticipants (Vealey, 1988). Vealey predicts from this research that females who enter into an elite level of sports participation are not affected as much by traditional gender roles and tend to have as much confidence as males.

Results from Vealey's (1988) study revealed that elite female athletes strongly believe that they have the ability to be successful at their sport. Also, these elite athletes base their feelings of competence and satisfaction on how well they perform instead of whether they win or lose. Vealey indicated that it may be elite athletes have learned to focus on and evaluate themselves on standards that are personally controllable. It would have to be assumed that this type of mentality from elite athletes has developed over time through sporting experience. The implication here is that if subjective meanings/definitions of success and failure in sport come from experience, and if the experience is in sport, then the "socializing" in sport becomes more pronounced for defining success and failure than would traditional gender "socializing."

Relationship Between Experience and Success/Failure Definitions.

The second focus of this study was to examine the relationship between years of sport experience and the subjective meanings of success/failure for athletes. Correlations were run together and separately by gender using the two success and three failure factors and years of athletic experience. All athletes involved in this study indicated the "lack ability/time meanings" factor as being negatively correlated with years of playing experience. The more years of playing experience athletes had, the less importance they placed on this failure factor. However, when gender was isolated, only female athletes

showed a relationship (negative) between years of experience and the success factor "competitive-oriented meanings". The more experience female athletes had in athletics, the less importance they placed on this success factor. A possible explanation for why there was a noted gender difference for "competitive-oriented meanings" in the present study is due to the fact that male athletes had more years of playing experience than female athletes causing female athletes to have a restricted range in experience with which to correlate to competitive-oriented meanings.

Bukowski and Moore (1980) discuss how experiences can have different influences on different people. These two researchers state, "the understanding of the attributional process may be useful for the understanding of how persons construct a social reality and how they extract meaning from their experiences" (p. 198). That is, male and female athletes may not experience success and failure in sport to the same degree. The gender difference in the correlations run for this section of the present study could very well represent different ways these two groups of athletes were socialized into sport and why only female athletes placed less significance on "competitive-oriented meanings" with the more experience they had in sport.

Future Directions

There are several possible future research directions this study could take. First, it would be interesting to conduct this study in a college setting. There would possibly be more dramatic differences in the results because subjects would be a little older than the subjects in this present study and would have more experience in playing sports.

Second, it would be suggested that the use of interviews be included in any possible follow-up studies. The interviews would extract explicit meanings of success and failure in sports. This present study did not do this, so the reasons behind the definitions for success and failure in sports were never provided. Interviews might create more concrete insight and understanding as to why adolescents have different subjective meanings of success and failure in sports.

Third, it would be beneficial to confirm the factors through a replication study. In the present study, good sportsmanship and team spirit were two items that just missed making it to the group of success factors in Phase 2. A replication with a larger sample size might increase the number of items in the factors or increase the number of factors.

Fourth, conducting a factor analysis using an Oblique rotation is recommended. An Oblique rotation, moreso than a Varimax rotation, redefines and allows for correlation of the factors in order to make sharper distinctions for the meanings of these factors. This could clear up any discrepancies there might be with the items in the factors and the success/failure factors themselves.

Finally, the present study revealed a failure factor "lack ability/time meanings" that did not show up in Lee's (1995) study. It would be beneficial to see if this factor showed up in follow-up studies and if so, for what gender and athletic group(s).

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Appendix A
Lee's Open-Ended Questionnaire

A. Please provide answers to the following two questions.
B. Your answers do not need to be in order of importance.
C. This is not a test of intelligence and there are no right or wrong answers.
D. There is no time limit. Take all the time you need and give us answers that are important to you. Please fill in as many blanks as possible.
E. Your answers are anonymous. Do not put your name on this questionnaire.

1. Please make a list of everything you can think of about yourself which causes you to feel that **you can do well in sports**.

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

2. Please make a list of everything you can think of about yourself which causes you to feel that **you would do badly in sports**.

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

APPENDIX B

Appendix B

Demographic Questionnaire

Instructions: Please check the appropriate answer or fill in the required information.

Age:____ Sex:___ M ___F Grade in school:___9th ___10th ___11th ___12th

Race: ___African American ___Latino ___American Indian
___Asian American ___White ___Other_____
(Please specify)

Below are some questions about your experience in sports. By **SPORTS** we mean those that have organized practices, scheduled competitions, and coaches.

Experience in sports **Circle one** (Yes or No)

1. Are you involved in organized sports? Yes or No
List which ones:_____.

2. Have you ever been involved in organized sports? Yes or No
List which ones:_____.

3. Were your parents ever involved in organized sports? Yes or No
List which ones:_____.

4. Are you a member of your school's sports teams? Yes or No
List which ones:_____.

5. If no, do you plan to join a sport team in your school? Yes or No
List which ones:_____.

If you have participated in sports, please answer the following questions. If you have not participated in sports, please go to question #10.

6. How long have you played your best sport? _____years

7. How important is it to you to be involved in sports?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	a little	somewhat	important	very important

8. How satisfied are you with your playing experience in your best sport?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	a little	somewhat	satisfied	very satisfied

9. How much playing time do you get during a game? I played:

1	2	3	4	5
no time	less than half	half of time	most of time	all the time

Everyone please answer the following questions. Please rank accordingly: **1**=most important, **2**= second in importance, **3**= least important.

10. When playing sports, the important thing is:
    - playing well ___
    - playing fairly ___
    - beating opponent ___

11. To me, success in sport is:
    - winning the game ___
    - playing to potential ___
    - outplaying opponent ___

12. To me, failure in sport is:
    - losing the game ___
    - not playing to potential ___
    - not outplaying opponent ___

13. To me, experience in sport is:
    - playing a lot ___
    - learning from mistakes ___
    - winning many games ___

APPENDIX C

MICHIGAN STATE
UNIVERSITY

May 1, 1996

TO: Charles Stein
10004 Bergmen
Huntington Woods, MI 48070

RE: IRB#: **94-243**
TITLE: ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF SELF-ESTEEM FOR AMERICAN AND KOREAN ADOLESCENT ATHLETES
REVISION REQUESTED: 03/28/96
CATEGORY: 1-C
APPROVAL DATE: 05/01/96

The University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects'(UCRIHS) review of this project is complete. I am pleased to advise that the rights and welfare of the human subjects appear to be adequately protected and methods to obtain informed consent are appropriate. Therefore, the UCRIHS approved this project and any revisions listed above.

RENEWAL: UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year, beginning with the approval date shown above. Investigators planning to continue a project beyond one year must use the green renewal form (enclosed with the original approval letter or when a project is renewed) to seek updated certification. There is a maximum of four such expedited renewals possible. Investigators wishing to continue a project beyond that time need to submit it again for complete review.

REVISIONS: UCRIHS must review any changes in procedures involving human subjects, prior to initiation of the change. If this is done at the time of renewal, please use the green renewal form. To revise an approved protocol at any other time during the year, send your written request to the UCRIHS Chair, requesting revised approval and referencing the project's IRB # and title. Include in your request a description of the change and any revised instruments, consent forms or advertisements that are applicable.

PROBLEMS/ CHANGES: Should either of the following arise during the course of the work, investigators must notify UCRIHS promptly: (1) problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects or (2) changes in the research environment or new information indicating greater risk to the human subjects than existed when the protocol was previously reviewed and approved.

If we can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to contact us at (517)355-2180 or FAX (517)432-1171.

Sincerely,

David E. Wright, Ph.D.
UCRIHS Chair

DEW:bed

cc: Deborah L. Feltz

OFFICE OF
RESEARCH AND GRADUATE STUDIES

University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS)

Michigan State University
232 Administration Building
East Lansing, Michigan
48824-1046

517/355-2180
FAX 517/432-1171

APPENDIX D

Informed Consent Form
Department of Physical Education and Exercise Science
Michigan State University

Investigator: Inwha Lee and Charles Stein

I have freely consented to allow my students to participate in a study conducted by Charles Stein, master's degree student in the Department of Physical Education and Exercise Science at Michigan State University.

The purpose of this study is to examine whether there are any differences according to gender and athletic experience among adolescents in their perceptions of success and failure in sport.

I understand that my students are free to refuse to answer certain questions or discontinue their participation at any time without penalty. I understand that if they choose to participate in this study, it will take about 10 minutes or less to complete the questionnaires. I understand that my students' identity will remain anonymous in any report of research findings.

I agree to participate voluntarily in this research.

Andrew W. [illegible] 4-9-96
Principal/Director's signature Date

I, the undersigned, have defined and fully explained the study to the above subjects.

Charles T. Stein 4-9-96
Investigator's signature Date

APPENDIX E

Appendix E

Frequency of Responses for Male and Female Adolescent Athletes and Nonathletes

Table 8

Frequency of Responses of Male Athletes for Success in Sports

Words/Phrases	Frequency	Words/Phrases	Frequency
Athletic ability	63	Like winning	4
Physical fitness	28	Practice	3
Smart	17	Good concentration	3
Competitive	14	Leadership	3
Confidence	13	Consistency	2
Experience	13	Goals	2
Good attitude	12	Not intimidated	2
Desire	10	Family history	2
Determination	10	No drugs	2
Hardwork	10	Cocky	1
Dedication	9	Do what it takes	1
Like sports	9	Past success	1
Mentally tough	8	In the zone	1
Support	8	T.V.	1
Physical stature	8	Music	1
Follow instructions well	6	Off the streets	1
Team work	6	No alcohol	1
Love of sports	6	Environment	1
Aggressive	5	Equipment	1
Good sportsmanship	4	Dealing with pressure	1
Willing to try	4		

Table 9
Frequency of Responses of Female Athletes for Success in Sports

Words/Phrases	Frequency	Words/Phrases	Frequency
Athletic ability	37	Mentally tough	6
Physical fitness	24	Smart	6
Good attitude	22	Leadership	6
Team work	21	Physical stature	5
Like sports	16	Set goals	5
Desire	15	Can handle pressure	4
Hardwork	15	Like winning	4
Determination	14	Doing your best	3
Competitive	12	Good sportsmanship	2
Confidence	12	Visualization	2
Follow instruction	12	Aggressive	2
Support	11	Well rounded	2
Experience	10	Good listener	1
Good coaches	9	Consistency	1
Good health	8	Open to criticism	1
Practice	8		
Good concentration	7		
Dedication	7		

Table 10
Frequency of Responses of Male Nonathletes for Success in Sports

Words/Phrases	Frequency	Words/Phrases	Frequency
Athletic ability	27	Integrity	2
Physical fitness	26	Leadership	2
Like sports	19	Respect	2
Team work	10	Visualization	2
Smart	9	Good coaches	2
Competitive	8	Good sportsmanship	2
Support	8	T.V.	1
Physical stature	8	High energy level	1
Practice	7	Consistency	1
Hardwork	6	Being successful	1
Dedication	6	Patience	1
Follow instructions well	6	Perfectionist	1
Desire	5	Mentally tough	1
Determination	5	Try hard	1
Confidence	4	Equipment	1
Like winning	4		
No drugs	4		
Experience	4		
Good concentration	4		
Good attitude	4		
Aggressive	3		
Team spirit	3		
Accept criticism	2		

Table 11
Frequency of Responses of Female Nonathletes for Success in Sports

Words/Phrases	Frequency	Word/Phrases	Frequency
Physical Fitness	28	Experience	3
Team work	21	Can handle pressure	3
Athletic ability	19	Good sportsmanship	3
Like sports	17	Good coaches	3
Hard work	12	Energetic	2
Good attitude	11	Aggressive	2
Competitive	10	No drugs	2
Smart	10	Set goals	2
Confidence	8	Honesty	2
Determination	7	Consistency	1
Dedication	7	Family history	1
Support	7	Open to criticism	1
Desire	6	Well rounded	1
Follow instructions well	6	Inspiration	1
Like winning	6	Good concentration	1
Team spirit	6		
Physical stature	4		
Mentally tough	4		
Friendly	4		
Practice	3		

Table 12
Frequency of Responses of Male Athletes for Failure in Sports

Words/Phrases	Frequency	Words/Phrases	Frequency
Out of shape	21	Lack experience	3
Lack athletic ability	17	No time to practice	2
No confidence	14	Frustration	2
Injury	8	Losing	2
Not mentally tough	8	Bad coaches	2
Low self-esteem	7	Bad physical stature	2
Drugs	5	Bad luck	1
Bad attitude	5	No set goals	1
No interest	4	Politics	1
Easily intimidated	4	Lack desire	1
Pressure	4	Authority problems	1
Lack dedication	3	Lack aggression	1
Selfish	3	Overconfident	1
Overly aggressive	3	Smoking	1
No concentration	3	Fear of success	1
Laziness	3	Bad referees	1
		Not consistent	1

Table 13
Frequency of Responses of Female Athletes for Failure in Sports

Words/Phrases	Frequency	Words/Phrases	Frequency
Out of shape	14	Lack experience	2
Bad physical stature	14	Try too hard	2
Bad coaches	14	Having a bad day	2
Bad attitude	13	Impatient	2
Lack athletic ability	13	No support	2
Laziness	11	Winning not important	1
No confidence	10	Not mentally tough	1
Not competitive	10	No concentration	1
No time to practice	10	Overconfident	1
No interest	8	Hearing impaired	1
Pressure	7	Environment	1
Bad sportsmanship	5	Bad preparation	1
Indecisiveness	4	Over aggressive	1
Frustration	4	No fun	1
Injury	4	Bad grades	1
Self-conscious	4	Drugs	1
Easily intimidated	4	Alcohol	1
Fear of success	4	Smoking	1
Don't like losing	3	Lack dedication	1
Bad influences	3		
Lack desire	3		
No interest	2		

Table 14
Frequency of Responses of Male Nonathletes for Failure in Sports

Words/Phrases	Frequency	Words/Phrases	Frequency
Lack athletic ability	18	Not competitive	2
Bad physical stature	13	Don't like orders	2
Out of shape	13	Lack aggression	2
No interest	11	Indecisiveness	2
Injury	9	Stupid	1
No time to practice	8	Drugs	1
Laziness	6	Alcohol	1
Lack experience	4	Discrimination	1
Bad attitude	4	Make too many mistakes	1
No confidence	4	No respect	1
Losing	4	Overconfident	1
Not doing well and know it	3	Self-conscious	1
Pressure	3	Penalty prone	1
Bad news prior to game	3	Fear of success	1
Bad coaches	3	Need glasses	1
Smoking	2	Bad team	1

Table 15
Frequency of Responses of Female Nonathletes for Failure in Sports

Words/Phrases	Frequency	Words/Phrases	Frequency
Out of shape	33	Not a team player	3
No interest	14	Not mentally tough	2
No time to practice	13	Best not good enough	2
Lack athletic ability	13	Eat too much prior to game	2
Lack desire	11	Bad coaches	2
Laziness	9	No concentration	2
Lack experience	7	Smoking	2
Bad attitude	7	Don't like orders	1
Fear of success	6	Too cocky	1
Self-conscious	6	Perfectionist	1
Pressure	5	No support	1
Not competitive	5	Environment	1
No confidence	5	No money	1
Bad physical stature	4	No patience	1
Injury	4	Too competitive	1
Lack dedication	3		

APPENDIX F

Appendix F
Stein's Closed-Ended Questionnaire

1. How important are the following things in making you feel that you **can do well in sports**. Please rate each one on a scale of (very important) to (least important).

	1=Very important						**7=Least important**
1. Athletic ability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Physical fitness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Like sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Team work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Good attitude	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Competitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Hard work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Smart	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Confidence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Desire	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Determination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Support (family/friends)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Follow instructions well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Dedication	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Physical stature	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Practice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Mentally tough	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Like winning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Good concentration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Good coaches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Aggressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Good sportsmanship	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Leadership	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Team spirit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. How important are the following things in making you feel that **you would do badly in sports**. Please rate each one on a scale of (very important) to (least important).

	1=Very important						**7=Least important**
1. Out of shape	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Lack athletic ability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Bad physical stature	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. No time to practice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. No confidence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. No interest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Laziness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Bad attitude	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Injury	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Bad coaches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Pressure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Not competitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Lack experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Lack desire	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Fear of success	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Not mentally tough	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Self-conscious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Easily intimidated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Drugs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Lack dedication	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Low self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Indecisiveness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Frustration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. No concentration/focus	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Smoking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX G

Appendix G

Table 16

Intercorrelations Among Factors for Success and Failure in Sports

	Factors				
	1	2	3	4	5
Success					
1. Task-oriented meanings	1.00				
2. Competitive-oriented meanings	.55	1.00			
Failure					
3. Lack of achievement potential meanings			1.00		
4. Lack ability/time meanings			.68	1.00	
5. Lack competitive-oriented meanings			.68	.62	1.00

APPENDIX H

Appendix H

Factor Loadings and Initial Statistics for All 25 Items for Success and Failure in Sport

Table 17

Rotated Factor Matrix for Success in Sport

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Hardwork	.75	.36	.26	.19
Determination	.68	.50	.28	.10
Good attitude	.66	.55	.08	.17
Teamwork	.62	.38	.12	.29
Desire	.61	.46	.32	.10
Physical fitness	.59	.07	.44	.28
Competitive	.59	.11	.56	.15
Confidence	.57	.44	.22	.21
Athletic ability	.57	.04	.36	.33
Like sports	.57	.30	.33	.14
Dedication	.55	.35	.44	.16
Practice	.54	.41	.40	.23
Follow instructions well	.48	.32	.27	.38
Good sportsmanship	.26	.70	.08	.33
Team spirit	.28	.70	.29	.13
Good concentration	.30	.69	.46	.11
Good coaches	.22	.52	.41	.23
Smart	.32	.34	.29	.34
Being aggressive	.22	.26	.70	.01
Like winning	.16	.19	.60	.04
Physical stature	.17	.14	.52	.39
Leadership	.42	.41	.50	.16
Mental toughness	.48	.30	.48	.20
Experience	.24	.10	.46	.38
Support	.26	.36	.07	.73
Total variance -Per factor	53.00	6.10	4.70	4.20
-Cum.	53.00	59.10	63.90	68.10
Eigen Value	13.25	1.53	1.18	1.06