

SOCIALIZATION INTO AND OUT OF SPORT:  
MODELS PREDICTING SPORTS  
INVOLVEMENT AND  
TERMINATION

By

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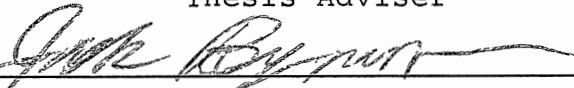
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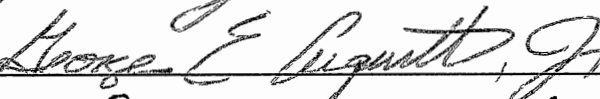
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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Participation in sports, either as a spectator or primary participant, is viewed as normal in the U.S. Those who do not at least show some interest in sports are viewed as "odd" by many people in this society. Chapter II of the study further illustrates the emphasis and value placed on sports in the United States and also deals with the question of why sports are so important in a society. Answers to this question, as provided by several scholars, will also be examined.

This study will attempt to understand better the process of socialization which results in people developing a desire to participate in sports and, more importantly, will attempt to understand why some people, in the face of societal pressure, choose not to participate in sports. A more specific goal of this research was the comparison of the socialization experiences of males and females with regard to sport participation. Much research has indicated that the socialization experiences of males and females were different with regard to socialization into sport. The present study was based on the past work of researchers who have studied socialization into sport, socialization through sport, and the consequences of non-participation. Chapter

III of this study is an in-depth view of sociological theory which is related to this phenomenon and also includes a review of much of the past research which has studied socialization into or out of sports.

Two concepts important to this study should be defined. Socialization, for this study, was defined as the process of social interaction through which people acquire the skills, values, and norms necessary for them to function in a society or microcosm of society. Sports participation was defined as participation in an organized sport, either individual or team, where won and loss records were maintained.

The survey method was used to obtain data from a sample of 504 students enrolled in introductory sociology courses at a large midwestern university. The survey instrument was made up of eight scales to measure various aspects of the process of socialization into and out of sport. Chapter IV is composed of a detailed discussion of the research methods used in this study. Included in this chapter is a definition of all variables and how they were defined and measure, a discussion of the statistical techniques utilized, and a look at the limitations of this study.

Chapter V is a detailed report of the findings of this research, with male and female differences being highlighted. Chapter VI is a discussion of these findings as well as suggestions for further research.

## CHAPTER II

### SPORTS IN THE UNITED STATES

Athletic competition has been a component of human social life throughout recorded history. In the epic poems, the Iliad and the Odyssey, Homer gave written accounts of athletic competitions which occurred around 800 B.C. (McIntosh, 1981). Accounts of sports competitions were also given by the apostle Paul when he used sports metaphors to illustrate Christian teachings (1 Corinthians 9:24-27). Perhaps the most notable of ancient athletic competitions were the Greek Olympiads, the first of which was held in 776 B.C. (McIntosh, 1981).

Sports, as well as being an important part of ancient cultures is also an integral component of contemporary societies. Although critics of sports argue that sports are not important for a society, they have difficulty substantiating their claims in the face of the actions of the citizens of any contemporary society. Though in danger of becoming involved in a tautological argument, one must ask, why so many people spend so much time, money, and emotion on sports if they do not perform important functions for them.

Indicators of The Emphasis Placed  
On Sports In The United States

A great deal of emphasis and value is placed on sports in the United States. We encounter sports in a variety of places: in church we hear sports used to illustrate religious doctrine; in school some instructors talk more about sports than the subject matter of the course; and on the street a person will encounter numerous conversations about sports. There are many other specific indicators of the emphasis placed on sports in the United States. Included among these indicators are media coverage and the economic aspects of sport.

Media Coverage of Sports

Media coverage of sports is a powerful indicator of the importance which the United States places on sports. On television and radio there are twenty-four hour, three hundred sixty-five days a year sports networks. This is especially interesting when taking into consideration that there are no networks which devote this much time entirely to political or economic events. Local news broadcasts also are an example of the media's love affair with sports. In most markets local news is presented in thirty minute segments. Out of these thirty minutes, an average of about ten minutes is devoted to local, regional, and national sports news; the remainder of this time is used for coverage

of area crime, economic events, weather, and political events. Small-town newspapers also dedicate an entire section to sporting events while virtually ignoring local economic reports.

### Economic Aspects of Sports

Still another indicator of the emphasis placed on sports in our society is the money which is spent on sports, referred to by many as the "economic aspects of sport." Eitzen (1989, pp. 186-187) provided several graphic examples of the extraordinary amounts of money spent on sports in our society. He pointed out such things as CBS paying the NCAA 55.3 million dollars per year for the exclusive rights to televise the Division I men's basketball tournament, advertisers paying \$600,000 per thirty seconds of commercial time during the 1987 Super Bowl, and John Elway receiving 12.7 million dollars for a six-year contract. More recently Troy Aikman signed an even more lucrative contract with the Dallas Cowboys.

Richard Sandomir (1989) refers to the amount of money spent on sports and leisure activities in the United States as the gross national sports product (GNSP). According to Sandomir the GNSP for 1986 was \$47.2 billion, showing a seven percent increase over 1985. This seven percent increase was greater than the increase of the gross national product of the United States. In his essay Sandomir compared the economic robustness of sports with other

industries. Here sports ranked twenty-fifth out of the fifty-eight industries with regard to revenue generated. Sports ranked ahead of such industries as air transportation, newspapers, radio and television, and motion pictures.

In an unpublished study of student's attitudes toward professional sports (Martin, 1988), a number of respondents believed that professional sports were important because it contributed to the economic well-being of professional sports cities. Some also believed that diverse segments of the population benefited as the salaries the revenue generated by the sport trickled down. Many of the respondents believed that professional sports also gave an economic boost to businesses which provided services to the team and fans.

#### Other Indicators

Media coverage and the economic aspects of sports are only two indicators of the emphasis placed on sports in the United States; there are others. Some of these other indicators include the content of conversations (Snyder, 1972b), the status of athletes in our society (Coleman, 1961, pp. 146-147), and the raw number of people who participate in sports (Snyder & Spreitzer, 1983).

#### Social Functions Of Sport

Having presented some of the indicators of the emphasis

which is placed on sports, the question of why sports are so important becomes paramount. Several researchers have arrived at tentative answers to this question. Haerle (1974), for example, said that sports were important because it contributes to the maintenance and development of important cultural values. He said that the values manifested in and through sports support the accepted values in a society. People value sports because values associated with sports correspond with other values they hold and with values found in the dominant culture.

While Haerle (1974) alluded to the functional nature of sport, other social scientists have identified specific functions which sport perform for a society. Sage (1981, 1989) said that sports perform many of the same societal functions as religion. According to Sage (1989) sports were an important agent of social integration; it provided a common bond for people and brings them together in the name of a particular sport or team, just as religion brought people together in the name of a God. Sage also said that sports, like religion, acted as an agent of social control. The morality governing the world of sports--work hard, play fair--was adopted by the general population. But it could be argued that these values evident within the world of sport can be traced back to religious doctrines. On the other hand, this could also be evidence of our society shifting from a traditional form of religion to the civil religion of sports. Micheal Novak (1976, p. 3) likened

sport to just this, a civil religion. Sports like religion also fulfills a cathartic function for the individual. At both sporting events and religious ceremonies, individuals are able to release stress and feel rejuvenated (Novak, 1976, p. 31).

Coakley (1989) views sport from a functionalist perspective and explained how sports function to meet the four problems encountered by a society or a social system. These four problems are adaptation, goal attainment, integration, and latency which is made up of two related problems; pattern maintenance and tension management (Parsons, 1951, pp. 26-35). Sports prepare individuals, both physically and emotionally, to meet their own basic needs. Thus sports help a society meet the adaptation requirement (Coakley, 1989). Coakley also wrote that functionalists view sport as being conducive to the maintenance of the existing value system, which is consistent with Haerle's view, and by preparing the people of a society to perform necessary functions in a society, they therefore contribute to a society's ability to overcome the problem of goal attainment.

Functionalists also believe that sports are conducive to the integration of a society. They emphasize the role which sports play in uniting a population and allowing cooperative action to occur. Again, functionalists are saying that sports help society to overcome one of the four problems it faces; the problem of integration (Coakley,



1989). Sports according to the functionalist, also serve as an agent of socialization through which the members of a society learn the norms, values, statuses, and roles of a culture. When people learn and accept these elements of a culture, the social structure, sport in this case, has contributed to the latency need (pattern maintenance and tension management) of a society (Coakley, 1989).

Harry Edwards (1973, pp. 103-130) also identified what he believed to be some of the functions of sport which made sport more attractive to a society. Edwards presented these functions as an "American Sports Creed," and he maintained that the "sports creed typically suggests that the benefits accrued from sport most directly affect the athlete, though everybody involved is . . . affected in some positive way" (Edwards, 1973, p. 103). Following are the components of the American sports creed:

1. Character--sports develops character
2. Discipline--sports teaches individuals discipline which will be an asset throughout their life
3. Competition--sports prepares individuals for the competition they will encounter in the "real world"
4. Physical Fitness--sports prepare the body for the rigors of life
5. Mental fitness--sports help a person to achieve a high level of mental alertness, and participation in sports is conducive to educational achievement
6. Religiosity--sports are related to the traditions of American Christianity
7. Nationalism--sports are conducive to patriotism

Several studies have gone beyond abstract theorizing about the functions of sport and asked people to report their perceptions of the social functions performed by sport. Spreitzer and Snyder (1975) conducted a survey of people's perceptions of the functionality of sport. The results of this survey showed that people believed sports performed positive functions for both the individual and society. This research was replicated by several researchers (Fromme, 1980; Grove & Dodder, 1979) and the findings were similar to the findings of the original study.

One of the most intensive studies of the functions of sport was conducted by Grove (1979). Grove attempted to assess empirically people's perceptions of the functions of sport. Based upon his data, Grove concluded that sports perform five functions for individuals and society. These five functions were self expression, pride in place, social integration, sex role socialization, and psychophysical health (Grove, 1979, p. 108).

In another study Martin (1988) asked 75 freshmen enrolled in introductory sociology classes to respond to two open ended questions: (1) are professional sports important for society? and (2) If pro sports are important why they think so? or if pro sports are not important, why not? Ninety-two percent of the respondents believed that professional sports were important for society. Some of the reasons they felt professional sports were important

included the feeling that professional sports provided inexpensive entertainment, provided a common bond for the people of a society, and enhanced the economy. The subject's responses to these questions (Martin, 1988) echoed the statements of many social scientists who have studied people's perceptions of the functions of sports.

Based upon past empirical research and theoretical work it can be concluded that sport is an important structure in our society and in other societies. It is the norm in our society to value sports and participate in sports, either as a primary or secondary participant (McPherson, 1981). But what about the group of people who choose to deviate from this norm? There are some who do not participate in sports and have no desire to participate in sports. This study will investigate the agents of socialization and the process of socialization by which people become sports participants or terminate sports participation.

## CHAPTER III

### THEORY AND LITERATURE REVIEW

#### A Theoretical Framework For The Study of Sport Participation

A great deal of research has investigated participation in sports, especially socialization into sport. The majority of this research though has failed to provide an adequate theoretical framework for understanding socialization into or out of sport. Several studies have utilized Bandura's social learning theory (1977) as a theoretical framework for developing causal models of sport participation. Researchers utilizing this theory include Fromme (1980), Kenyon & McPherson (1973), and Snyder & Spreitzer (1976). Other researchers (Kenyon & McPherson, 1974) have advocated the use of Sewell's (1963) "social role-social system" scheme for understanding socialization into sport. Both theoretical frameworks have their advantages, but both are similar in that they provide a model of the socialization process which is linear; neither allows for potential reciprocal relationships between the agent and target of socialization. It is these theories' inability to deal with reciprocal relationships between target and agent which resulted in their criticism by some researchers of

socialization into and out of sport.

Many researchers believe that socialization into or out of sport is a phenomenon too complex to be understood using the linear time order of variables suggested by social learning theory or social role-social system theory. In recent years many have advocated a more processual, reciprocal approach in sport socialization research (Fishwick & Greendorfer, 1987; Hasbrook, 1986).

This processual, reciprocal approach views the target of the socialization process as influencing the agents of socialization as well as being influenced by the agents of socialization. This approach attempts to take into account the manner in which the actions of the target influence the action the agent directs back at the target. For example, a sport socialization situation may involve a junior high school coach (agent) and a potential athlete (target). The coach need never have come into direct contact with the athlete to develop an opinion regarding the athlete's ability. The coach may have been influenced indirectly by the athlete's prior performances, as told to him by a little league coach. The coach's preconception of the individual's athletic ability may then influence the way the coach treats the athlete in future interactions.

It can be speculated that the coach in the above scenario will be more supportive of the athlete if the coach has heard from others that the athlete is of superior athletic ability. In this case a linear causal model is not

appropriate. In essence the potential athlete has been labeled as an exceptional athlete, and this label influences the line of action the coach directs at him or her.

In light of the above illustration it should be apparent that previous theoretical models of sport socialization are not complete. It is proposed in this research that perhaps symbolic interaction, which attempts to account for individual's ability to influence an interaction situation, is a more appropriate framework for understanding socialization into or out of sport.

Symbolic interaction is a theoretical paradigm which views the basis of human social life as existing in the exchange and interpretation of symbols between individuals (Blumer, 1972). In a symbolic interactionist framework, individuals are viewed as decision makers, not merely responding to a stimulus but interpreting the meanings of significant symbols and responding in a creative manner which also has the potential for influencing others in an interaction. Blumer presents the symbolic interactionist's view of individual action very well when he says that

Individual action is a construction, not a release, being built up by the individual through noting and interpreting features of the situations in which he acts (Blumer, 1972).

Perhaps the most important concept in symbolic interactionist theory is the self. Symbolic interaction views humans as having a self which arises in the process of

interaction (Mead, 1962, p. 178). As indicated in the above sentence the self develops as a result of a socialization process. But this process only lays the groundwork for future socialization experiences of individuals. According to Mead (1962, p. 178) the self is an ability or a process which is necessary for the individual to be able to respond to others. Hence, the self while developing as a result of socialization is also necessary for the future socialization of individuals.

Once the self is present individuals are able to take the attitude or roles of significant others (important individuals) and the generalized other (society) (Mead, 1962, pp. 154-155). Couple this ability with peoples' perceived need to cooperate with others, and we have humans who can be socialized (Mead, 1962, p. 254). The individual takes the role of the other, interprets the meaning of that role, and then acts in a way which compliments the act, role, or attitude of the other. If we apply this process to the phenomenon of socialization into sport we would see an individual with a self, interpreting the attitude of significant others who are interested in sport and the attitude of the generalized other which places great value on sport. Based upon these interpretations the individual will participate in sports because it is the behavior which seems to best cooperate with the attitudes of significant others and society.

Other symbolic interactionists have built on the work

of Mead and continue to paint a picture of the individual as a cognitively creative individual who responds to the influence of others and engages in a line of action which is in sync with the perceived attitudes of these others and society (Meltzer, 1972; Cooley, 1972;).

The key to the use of symbolic interaction as a framework for understanding socialization into or out of sport is the assumption that people want to cooperate with others. And many symbolic interactionists or pragmatic philosophers who have influenced symbolic interaction imply in their work that people learn how to cooperate via their interaction with others. John Dewey (1972) said "habits, tendencies, and likes-dislikes all occur as the result of interaction with others." Other symbolic interactionists have focused on the influence of reference groups on people's socialization experiences (Shibutani, 1972; Kuhn, 1972) maintaining that the content of the socialization process is greatly influenced by reference groups. Shibutani (1972) says that people compare their behavior to the group which they identify with and align their behavior with that of the reference group.

Based upon symbolic interaction this study will investigate the influence of significant others, reference groups, and the generalized other on people's decision to participate in sports or terminate sports involvement. From the perspective of symbolic interactionist theory it can be inferred that a major factor in people's commitment to sport



is their interaction with significant others and the generalized other. The quality and content of the interaction with significant others and the meanings interpreted from these interactions acts as the basis for individual decisions about sports involvement and commitment.

It is therefore assumed that individuals who become involved in sports and maintain a commitment to sports will interpret meanings from interaction which encourages sports involvement or the maintenance of commitment to sport. However, individuals who terminate sports involvement have interpreted meanings from interaction with significant others that either discourage initial involvement, continued involvement, or leads the person to develop a negative attitude toward sport.

Another result of interaction with others is individual's perception of sports ability, or their "athletic self." It is believed that these perceptions are formed as the result of feedback from significant others which occurs during the interaction process. Based upon interaction with others and meanings interpreted from the situation, individuals form identities of themselves as either athletic or non-athletic. The process mentioned above is modeled after Cooley's (1902, pp. 136-167) "Looking-Glass Self," which is a process where individuals imagine their appearance to others, imagine others' judgement of that appearance, and arrive at some feeling,

good or bad, about themselves.

In the sports socialization situation the self which individuals impute to themselves will then effect their future involvement in sport. People who define themselves as non-athletic will be more likely not to become initially involved in sports, or after initially being involved in sports, to terminate involvement in sports.

Although the hypothesized reciprocal nature of the socialization into and out of sport process is not dealt with in this theory section nor directly measured or dealt with empirically in the body of this research, it will be maintained that individuals, although they do respond to the influence of others, also have an influence on the other and the action or attitude the other directs toward them. Actual testing of the reciprocal nature of the sport socialization process is beyond the scope of this study and will require additional research.

#### Past Research On Sport Socialization

Past research relevant to the topic of individual commitment to sports participation can be divided into two areas of discussion. The first area deals with individuals' initial socialization into sport. The second area of research reviewed deals with the factors which may lead to the termination of sports involvement.

### Socialization Into Sport

The majority of research done in the area of sports socialization deals with the initial socialization into sports. The first significant work in the area of socialization into sports was by McPherson & Grogg in 1969. Since then a number of studies have been conducted which attempt to understand better the process of socialization into sport. Most of the research of socialization into sport has been conducted under the assumption that a person is not born an athlete but through the socialization process one assimilates the values and abilities necessary for sports involvement (Brim, 1966; Clausen, 1968).

Several models which attempt to provide a comprehensive model of socialization into sport have been developed (Kenyon, 1970; Kenyon & McPherson, 1973, 1974; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1976). Kenyon & McPherson's model utilizes Sewell's (1963) "social role-social system model of socialization in their attempt to provide an exhaustive list of all agents of socialization into sport and the relationship between the different agents of socialization. The research of Kenyon & McPherson resulted in several propositions applicable to the phenomenon of socialization into sports (Kenyon & McPherson, 1974). In summary form, these propositions state that sport participation is a function of the influence of different social systems on individuals. These systems include the school, family, peer

group, and community. Within each of these systems are more specific agents of socialization--parents, friends, coaches, and teachers who serve as transmitters of the values and norms of a general social system. Other research has also arrived at conclusions similar to those of the original Kenyon and McPherson research. McPherson (1978, 1981, 1982) and Kenyon (1977) found similar findings in subsequent research.

McPherson (1982) actually expanded on the list of social systems which have an influence on the child. In addition to the family, school, and peer group he lists the church, sports organizations, and mass media as social systems which influence the individual. One criticism of the Kenyon and McPherson studies and other studies conducted in the Kenyon and McPherson tradition is that the sub-elite athlete, the athlete who participates in sport but does not receive a high level of sports achievement, is neglected (Fishwick & Greendorfer, 1987). Research by Kenyon and McPherson and others have focused on the retrospective socialization experiences of elite, usually male athletes. Kenyon and McPherson's sampling frames have included professional hockey players and olympic athletes, while other researchers have focused on such elite athletes as professional golfers.

Another pair of researchers who greatly contributed to the early study of socialization into sport were Snyder and Spreitzer (1973, 1976a, 1976b). They utilize a social

learning model in their exploration of socialization into sport. Snyder and Spreitzer's work suggests that sports participation of parents is an important influence on children's decision to participate in sports. The testing of Snyder and Spreitzer's model indicates that encouragement from family members, the peer group and coaches are the most significant influences on the target's level of sport participation.

Other researchers have continued to build upon the ideas of Snyder and Spreitzer as well as Kenyon and McPherson. These researchers have, to a large extent, broken down the broad, general models of the above researchers into their various components. Hence these studies have focused on more specific relationships between some agent of the socialization process and the target. McElroy (1983), for example, conducted a study to determine if the father or mother was a more powerful influence on children's decision to participate in organized sports. McElroy concluded that the father was the most influential for both male and female athletes. McElroy claimed that this was due to the father having a greater interest in sports; therefore the father was more likely to be the source of children's interest in sports, whereas the mother may be more likely to influence the child to participate in some other activity.

Landers (1979) focused on variations in the family in his attempt to better understand the role of the family in

the sport socialization process. In particular Landers was interested in the effect of birth order on participation in sports. His findings indicate that firstborn children are less likely to engage in violent sports. He attributes these findings to the relationship between the firstborn child and his or her parents. Landers and others claim that the firstborn is seen as novel and unique to a young couple. Therefore the young couple gives their first child more attention and pampering, resulting in a child who is more dependent on parents and less adventurous, hence less likely to engage in sports in which there is a perceived risk. Children who are born second, third, or later are not as dependent on the parents. Consequently they are more likely to participate in violent sports.

Gregson and Colley (1986), like the first sport socialization researchers, attempted to provide a comprehensive model of the process of socialization into sport, but they do add variables in their model which are absent from the research of Snyder and Spreitzer or Kenyon and McPherson. Their findings were similar to the findings of the first serious researchers, but they also identified a relationship between level of masculinity and femininity and participation in sports. Women who participated in sports scored more masculine on masculinity and femininity scales than women who did not participate in sports. Previous research (Chalip, Villiger, & Dunigan, 1980) had similar findings but attributed them to an interaction between

socialization and sport involvement. Women, they said, were socialized to be more masculine because of their involvement in sport.

Other researchers have focused exclusively on the sport socialization of different minority groups. Greendorfer (1979) focused on women's socialization into sport. Her particular focus was on how the socialization experiences of female athletes differed from those of the non-athletes. Greendorfer concluded that athlete's socialization, with regard to sport involvement, was significantly different than the socialization experiences of non-athletes. She also concluded that siblings, parents, and teachers were the most influential in the athlete's decision to participate in sports.

Other research has focused on the difference between the socialization of females and males with regard to sport participation (Lewko & Greendorfer, 1982). This research led the researchers to conclude that boys and girls received differential treatment with regard to sport involvement which was attributed to the role expectations for girls versus the role expectations for boys.

Castine and Roberts (1974) narrowed the study of socialization into sport so that it highlighted the socialization of blacks into sport. In their research they tested a hypothesis formulated by McPherson. This hypothesis stated that "black athletes are socialized to certain sport roles through role modeling of previous

successful black athletes" (Castine & Roberts, 1974, p. 69). This study revealed findings which supported past socialization into sport research and also supported McPherson's hypothesis that blacks are greatly influenced by successful black sports figures. Based upon these findings Castine and Roberts suggested that researchers should further investigate the modeling process as a major factor in children's socialization into sport.

Along these lines, Orlick (1974) emphasized identification and imitation as integral factors in the acquisition of sport roles. Orlick says that through a process of social learning the child is "shaped into a sports participant by being exposed to role models." Orlick claims support for his position by citing the work of Albert Bandura and his development of the social learning paradigm.

Another factor which many researchers believe influences people's decision to participate in sports are subjects' self-perceptions of themselves as athletes. Fox, Corbin, and Couldry (1985) concluded that people's estimation of their athletic ability played a major role in their decision to participate in sports. People with a higher level of "physical estimation" were more likely to participate in sports than those with lower levels of perceived athletic ability.

Much research has been conducted in an attempt to understand better socialization into sport--much more than can be dealt with in this review of past research.



Presented above is the research which has had the most impact on the study of socialization into sport. To date researchers have basically come to the conclusion that involvement in sport is a function of the social milieu; others and social systems both influence people's decision to participate or not participate in sports. A number of specific variables, agents of socialization, and social systems have been identified as influencing sport participation. These variables include a person's perceived sports ability, encouragement from family members, peers, and teachers, and influence of the norms and values of particular social systems such as the school, community, mass media, family, and the church. Researchers have also basically concluded that the learning of sport roles and athletic identities occur via a process of social learning similar to the process advocated by Bandura.

#### Socialization Out of Sport

Although a lot of research has been conducted in an effort to investigate socialization into sport very little has examined the alternative--why people do not participate in sports or why people terminate involvement in sports. Some would argue that research on socialization into sport, by default, has adequately addressed these questions. It would make sense that if a person did participate in sports because of high levels of encouragement from significant others that people who did not participate failed to do so

because they did not receive encouragement. But it is believed that there are other variables besides the ones examined by the socialization into sport researchers which may influence a person not to participate or terminate involvement in sports. One variable in particular is aversive socialization experiences.

Snyder and Spreitzer (1983) define an aversive socialization experience as a painful experience occurring during interaction with others which turns people away from particular behaviors, prolonged lines of action, or results in negative attitudes. With regard to the socialization into sports or out of a sports situation, an aversive socialization experience may cause the person to reject sports roles and values and adopt alternative lines of action.

Much of the research which has investigated non-participants has focused on the affective element of non-participation--how the condition of non-participant can have damaging affects for individuals. Novak (1976) claims that failure to succeed or participate in sports can be psychologically damaging, especially in a society which places a high level of importance on sports and sports participation. Novak implies in his work that non-participation is a form of deviance in our society and that non-participants are labeled as deviants. This negative label then influences individual self-perceptions.

Other research has focused on the potential tragedies

which may result due to the non-participant being labeled deviant. The 14 year old in Detroit who chased a star athlete through the halls of his school and shot him (Lipman Report, 1988), is an example of such a tragedy. The report attributed this action to a non-athlete who was jealous of the attention received by athletes and who was frustrated by his inability to obtain such attention. Pease, Locke, and Burlingame (1971), in an attempt to understand the consequences of non-participation, studied athletes who were either cut from an athletic team or who quit the team. As a result of this study the researchers concluded that non-participants' self-esteem and self perception was subjected to considerable amounts of stress. The researchers claimed that this stress was a function of individuals need for social approval and their perception that athletic participation is necessary for social approval.

One of the first researchers to investigate seriously the processes of sport termination and non-participation was Donald Ball (1976). Ball utilized Garfinkle's (1956) description of a degradation ceremony and Goffman's (1952) discussion of the cooling-out process in his explanation of aversive socialization as a factor conducive to sport termination. Ball stated that people may reassess their identities as athletes and possibly be driven away from sports because of a degrading experience which they encountered on the playing field or in the gym class. The non-athletic identity which results is reinforced by others

via a cooling-out process.

Other researchers have focused on non-participants by asking what factors encourage athletes to continue participating in sports. According to Snyder and Spreitzer (1983) the more rewarding sports involvement is, the more likely a person will continue to participate in sports and to maintain a positive attitude toward sports. Following are five categories of rewards which Snyder and Spreitzer said are conducive to commitment to sport.

1. Intrinsic enjoyment
2. Anticipation of extrinsic rewards
3. Satisfaction flowing from approval by significant others
4. Avoidance of negative sanctions
5. Identity anchored in sports

Spreitzer and Snyder (1983) also pointed out the distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic reward as factors which may act to maintain people's commitment to sport. It was pointed out that each type is more powerful than the other depending on the circumstances. Along these same lines Ogilvie (1979) found that children who engage in sports for intrinsic rewards were more likely to continue their involvement in sports than were individuals who participate to receive extrinsic rewards.

Leonard and Schmitt (1987) utilize Becker's (1960) concept of "side bet" to offer a possible explanation of

people's commitment to sport. Becker (1960) claims that people's commitment to an activity may be due to their belief it is the "right" thing to do and because they fear punishment from the group which they identify with if they do not remain committed to the activity. Becker also wrote that often times commitment to the activity is the only line of action available to the individual because of what he referred to as a "side bet." The term "side bet" refers to investments individuals have made which are not directly related to the original activity but where the success of the investment depends on commitment to the original activity.

According to Leonard and Schmitt (1987), however, a person's commitment to sport may be a function of other investments. For example, high school students may only be playing football so their fathers will buy them a car, or baseball players may only be playing baseball because of the prestige they obtain from this line of action. Hence it is not the sport which is attracting the individual, but it is the rewards--which could be thought of as a return on an investment--contingent on his or her participation in the sport.

Another factor which has been offered as an explanation of people's termination of sports involvement or reluctance to become involved is the professionalization of amateur sports. Professionalization of sport refers to the increasing formality and seriousness of the athletic

competition, and is indicated by such slogans as "winning isn't everything, it is the only thing" which is sometimes heard on little league fields. According to Brower (1979) the increased pressure placed on young athletes in a professionalized sports setting takes the pleasure away from sports participation and may result in children who no longer participate in sports.

Albinson (1979) focused on the professionalized attitudes of volunteer coaches who coach at the elementary and youth levels, a time when commitments are being made and athletic identities are being formed. Albinson's findings indicate that many of these volunteer coaches do have attitudes which show a high level of professionalization. Based on Albinson's findings the assumption could be made that many youth are terminating sports because of the professionalized attitudes of volunteer coaches.

#### Comments On Past Research

Researchers studying socialization into sport have arrived at some definite conclusions about the process of socialization into sport, but these conclusions are questioned by some researchers (Hasbrook, 1982; Fishwick & Greendorfer, 1983). These researchers, and others, claim that the findings of past research is tainted by several errors in methodology and theory. Hasbrook (1982) is an advocate of studying socialization into sport as a reciprocal process where children are not seen as the

passive targets of social influence but also influence the agents which influence them. Fishwick and Greendorfer (1987) agrees with Hasbrook and also claim that past methodological and theoretical approaches are inappropriate for studying socialization as a reciprocal process. Fishwick and Greendorfer have also criticized past research on the grounds that the sampling frames utilized are biased in the direction of the elite, white, male athlete while disregarding the relevant socialization experiences of non-athletes, non-elite athletes, female athletes, and athletes of different racial and ethnic groups.

Research on socialization out of sport is scarce. The small amount of work which has been done consists mostly of theoretical statements about the nature of commitment to sports or have discussed the negative effects of non-participation. Research on the socialization out of sport needs to go beyond armchair theorizing and subject some of these ideas to empirical testing. This research especially needs to focus on the effect of aversive socialization experiences on individual's decisions to participate in sports.

This study will attempt to build on and go beyond past research which has studied socialization into and out of sport by addressing some of the deficiencies of past research in these areas. This research will focus on the socialization experiences, with regard to sport participation, for both male and female participants and for

male and female non-participants who either never participated or terminated participation at some point in their life. It is hoped that this approach will serve to correct some of the sampling problems of past research which has focused on white, elite, male athletes.

This research will also be based on the theory of symbolic interaction. Although there may be some problems with the link between theoretical framework and methodology, by utilizing this theoretical framework the present study will acknowledge the hypothesized reciprocal nature of socialization into or out of sport.

This research will also go beyond past research by incorporating a variable representing aversive socialization experiences into a model of sport participation and termination. Path analysis will be utilized to test the theoretical model. In the following chapter the methods utilized in this research will be discussed in detail.



## CHAPTER IV

### RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

#### Objectives

As previously stated this research will attempt to go beyond past research which has studied socialization into and out of sport to emphasize termination of involvement in formal, competitive sports.

A theoretical path model was constructed and path analysis was utilized for the calculation of path coefficients, separately for male and female subjects. In effect this research will test two theoretical path models--one for males and one for females.

Independent variables in these path models include family sports involvement, early encouragement from others, early perceived ability, early aversive socialization experiences, recent encouragement from others, recent perceived ability, and recent aversive socialization experiences. All of these variables are placed in a time-ordered model to predict the dependent variable--level of sport termination. The following research questions will be addressed.

1. What is the nature of the relationship between each of the socialization variables and the dependent variable, level of termination, for males and females? (direction and strength of relationship)

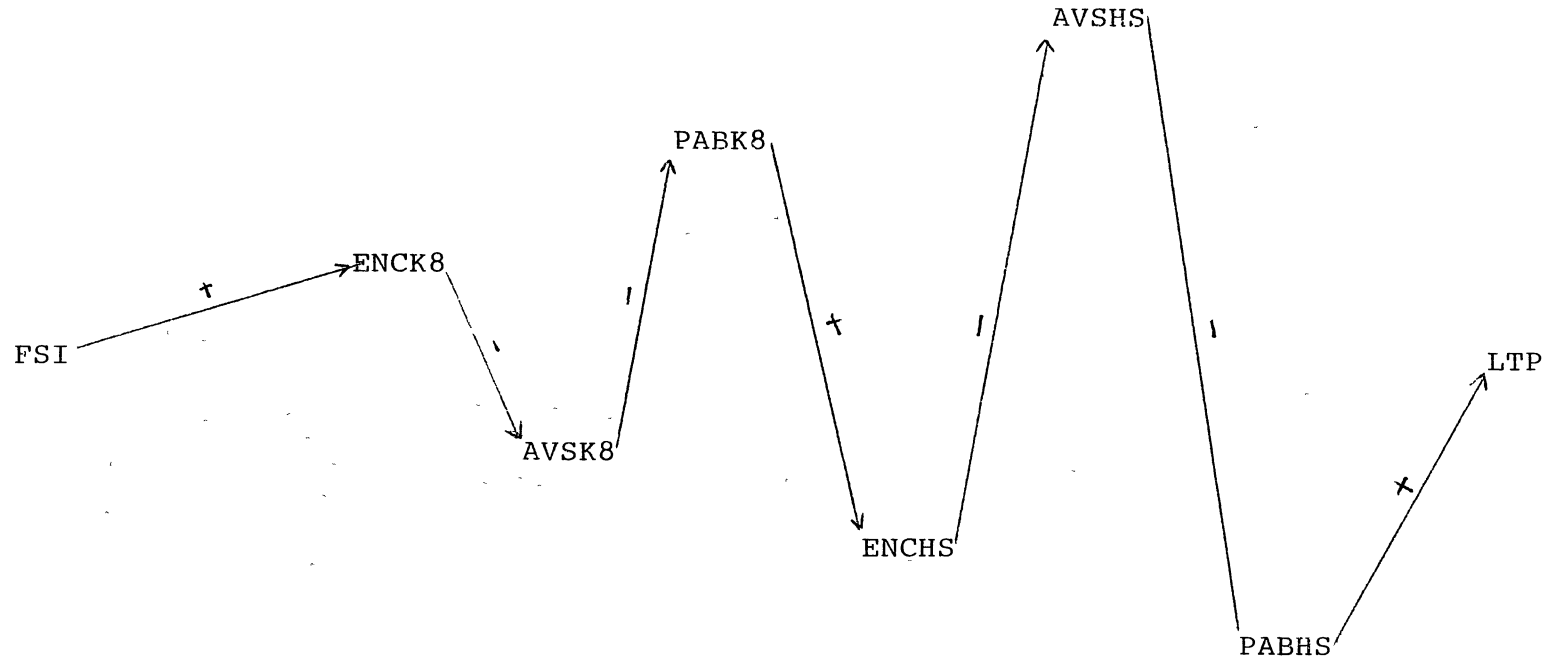


Figure 1. Hypothesized Model of Socialization Into or Out of Sport

- FSI = Family Sports Involvement
- ENCK8 = Encouragement From Others While in Grades K-8
- AVSK8 = Aversive Socialization Experiences While in Grades K-8
- ENCHS = Encouragement From Others While in High School
- PABK8 = Perceived Ability While in Grades K-8
- AVSHS = Aversive Socialization Experiences While in High School
- PABHS = Perceived Ability While in High School
- LTP = Level of Sport Participation or Termination

2. How do the socialization variables fit together in a path model to explain level of sport termination or participation? Based upon the empirical tests of these models do the socialization experiences differ for males and females?
3. Are the socialization experiences of individuals who continue to participate in sports significantly different than those same experiences of individuals who terminate their participation. And are there differences between socialization experiences by level of termination?

Simple analysis of variance will be utilized for research question #3, to determine if the socialization experiences, with regard to the socialization variables, of people who terminate their sports involvement at various levels with those who maintain their participation in sports.

### Methodology

#### Research Design

The research design utilized in this research is similar to the design which Campbell and Stanley (1963, p. 6) refer to as the "one-shot case study." Data were gathered at one point in time with the assumption being that previous experiences effected the individual's attitude at the time the data were reported. A survey was employed for the collection of data. Although the survey method of data gathering has many limitations, this method is widely used in the social sciences and behavioral sciences; and if care is taken it can be successfully utilized.

## Subjects

Subjects for this research were 504 college students enrolled in introductory sociology courses at a large mid-western university. Besides being an easily accessible group it is assumed that most of these subjects, the majority of which are 18 and 19 years old, have had the opportunity for a recent experience in a competitive sports setting. It is expected that this characteristic of subjects will result in data more valid than data which would be gathered from an older sample whose experiences in a competitive sport setting are farther in their past. Because of the focus of this study--termination from competitive sports by the sub-elite athlete--the ideal group of subjects may be those which would result from a multistage cluster sampling of high schools and high school students, but time, money, and problems of parental consent make the acquisition of such a sample impractical.

The sample which was obtained is composed of an almost equal number of males (47.4%) and females (52.6%). The sample was however biased in terms of racial and ethnic composition. The majority of the subjects were white (89.7%). The distribution of social classes, as measured by parent's annual income, approximated a normal distribution which was slightly skewed toward the higher income groups. Only 2.8 percent of the sample reported parent's annual income of less than 10,000 dollars, 6.7% reported annual income for parents of between

Table 1

Sample Characteristics

Variable	Male (n=239)	Female (n=265)	Total (n=504)	Percent of Total
<b>Race:</b>				
Black	8	9	17	3.4
Hispanic	4	2	6	1.2
Native American	10	4	14	2.8
White	451	207	244	89.7
Asian	10	4	14	2.8
Other	---	1	1	0.2
No Response	---	---	1	0.2
<b>Income Category:</b>				
Less than \$10,000	6	7	13	2.8
10,000-19,999	16	15	31	6.7
20,000-29,999	30	32	62	13.3
30,000-49,999	59	85	144	31.0
50,000-99,999	91	78	169	36.3
100,000 or more	26	20	46	9.9
No Response	---	---	39	7.7
<b>Home Town Size:</b>				
Less than 2,500	29	41	70	14.0
2,500-24,999	56	73	129	25.8
25,000-99,999	71	77	148	29.6
100,000 or more	81	72	153	30.6
No Response	---	---	4	0.8
<b>Area of Education:</b>				
Agriculture	10	---	10	2.0
Arts and Sciences	60	121	181	36.0
Business	117	80	197	39.2
Education	10	10	20	4.0
Engineering	22	5	27	5.4
Home Economics	3	26	29	5.8
Health & P.E.	7	7	14	2.8
Other	9	16	25	5.0
No Response	---	---	1	0.2
<b>Age:</b>				
Under 20	165	201	366	72.6
20-29	72	53	125	24.8
30 and Over	2	11	13	2.6

Table 1 (continued)

Variable	Male (n=239)	Female (n=265)	Total (n=504)	Percent of Total
Level of Sports Termination:				
Never Participated	7	34	366	72.6
Terminated Grades K-8	21	74	95	18.9
Terminated in High School	42	44	86	17.1
Terminated after High School	28	41	69	13.7
Participate in College	141	72	213	42.3

10,000 and 19,999 dollars, 13.3% for 20,000 to 29,999, 31% for income between 30,000 and 49,999, 36.3% for parental income between 50,000 and 99,999, and 9.9 percent reported their parents had an annual income of over 100,000 dollars. The sample is for the most part equally distributed with regard to rural\urban composition. See Table 1 for a more specific description of sample characteristics.

#### Nominal Definition of Variables

This research involves nine variables. The nominal definitions of these variables are presented below.

1. Family Sport Involvement (FSI)--subject's knowledge of parent's and sibling's level of past and present sport participation, and level of athletic success achieved by parents and siblings.
2. Encouragement From Others While in Grades K through 8 (ENCK8)--subject's perception of the level of encouragement to participate in sports they received from parents, peers, and coaches while in grades kindergarten through eighth grade.
3. Encouragement From Others While in High School (ENCHS)--subject's perception of the level of encouragement for sport participation they received from parents, peers, and coaches while in high school (grades nine through twelve).
4. Aversive Socialization Experiences While In Grades K through eight (AVSK8)--subject's experiences while in a sports or physical education setting which they perceived to be abusive or painful while in grades kindergarten through eighth grade.
5. Aversive Socialization Experiences While In High School (AVSHS)--subject's experiences while in a sports or physical education setting which they perceived to be abusive or painful while in high school.
6. Perceived Athletic Ability While In Grades K through

eight (PABK8)--subject's perception of their athletic ability when they were in grades kindergarten through eighth grade.

7. Perceived Athletic Ability While In High School (PABHS)--subject's perception of their athletic ability when they were in high school.
8. Level of Termination and Participation (LTP)--the point at which subjects terminated participation in organized sports. (Although organized sports was not a variable, a definition of how this term was used in this research is necessary. Organized sports were defined as competitive sports, either individual or team, in which competition takes place within a league or association and where won and loss records or standings were recorded.)
9. Gender of Subject (SEX)--sex, male or female, reported by the subject.

#### Operationalization and Instrumentation

The survey instrument used for this research was made up of seven Likert scales and one Guttman scale as well as using several fixed response questions to obtain demographic information. The Likert scales were used to measure family sport involvement (FSI), encouragement from others to participate in sports while in grades kindergarten through eighth grade (ENCK8), encouragement from others to participate in sports while in high school (ENCHS), perceived athletic ability while in grades kindergarten through eighth grade (PABK8), perceived athletic ability while in high school (PABHS), aversive socialization experiences in grade kindergarten through eighth grade (AVSK8), and aversive socialization experiences while in high school (AVSHS). The Guttman scale was used to measure level of sport termination



(LTP). Reliability of all Likert scales was assessed statistically via Cronbach's alpha (Nunnally, 1967, pp. 210-211) and the construct validity of the scales was assessed using factor analysis. The survey instrument was also pretested using two different pretest formats. One pretest involved the in depth critic of the questionnaire by two subjects who had characteristics similar to the population being studied. The other pretest procedure involved administering the instrument to a group of 95 students enrolled in an introductory sociology course. The results of this pretest procedures indicated that the survey instrument was easy to understand and complete.

Family Involvement Scale. The Family Involvement Scale (alpha = .67) was an attempt to operationalize the variable, family sports involvement. This scale was made up of twelve items which asked respondents to agree or disagree on a five-point scale, with statements made about the past and present athletic activities of their siblings and parents (see Table 2). Factor analysis on these items yielded a factor structure of four factors having eigenvalues greater than unity; and all but three of the 12 items displayed a minimum loading of .40 on the first unrotated factor. This factor explained 24% of the variance of the 12 items. Orthogonal rotation of the 4 factors yielded a factor containing the three items concerned with the father's involvement, one with three items concerning the mother's involvement, a third

Table 2

Factor Loadings On Family Involvement Scale

Items	Mean	Unrotated First Factor	Factors Rotated Orthogonally			
			I	II	III	IV
1. When my father was in high school he participated in sports.	3.54	.64	.10	.01	<u>.87</u>	.13
2. My father currently participates in a sports or physical fitness activity.	2.58	.55	.03	.11	<u>.71</u>	.07
3. When my mother was in high school she participated in sports.	2.56	.47	.03	-.03	.03	<u>.89</u>
4. My mother currently participates in a sports or physical fitness activity.	2.17	.44	-.02	.12	.18	<u>.52</u>
5. I have a brother who participates in sports.	2.98	.24	<u>.92</u>	-.05	.10	.01
6. I have a brother who participated in in sports.	2.81	.16	<u>.86</u>	-.04	-.01	-.01
7. I have a sister who participates in sports.	2.29	.57	-.09	<u>.90</u>	.07	.12
8. I have a sister who participated in sports.	2.26	.41	-.04	<u>.83</u>	.01	-.06

Table 2 (Continued)

Items	Mean	Unrotated First Factor	Factors Rotated Orthogonally			
			I	II	III	IV
9. My father was a very good athlete	3.45	.65	.07	.03	<u>.88</u>	.12
10. My mother was a very good athlete.	2.57	.54	.01	.04	.07	<u>.91</u>
11. I have a brother who is a very good athlete.	3.04	.23	<u>.94</u>	-.08	.11	.01
12. I have a sister who is a very good athlete.	2.36	.61	-.04	<u>.92</u>	.10	.13

involving brother's activity and the last concerning the sister's. All items, however, were treated as one scale measuring overall family sport involvement (see Table 2).

Encouragement K-8 Scale. The encouragement in grades K-8 scale contained 18 items and is made up of items regarding the subject's perception of the level of encouragement to participate in sports which they received from family, peers, and coaches while they were in kindergarten through eighth grade (see Table 3). These 18 items had an average correlation of .42 generating an alpha of .93. Factor analysis of these items again yielded four factors with all items having a loading of at least .43 on the first unrotated factor. This factor explained 47% of the variation of the 18 items. Rotation of the four factors again yielded groupings of items for father, mother, coaches, and peers; but all items were used as a single scale for this research (see Table 3).

Encouragement High School Scales. The encouragement in high school scale was composed of 15 items and is similar to the encouragement K-8 scale (see Table 4). These 15 items had an average interitem correlation of .56 generating an alpha of .95. Factor analysis of these items resulted in four factors with all items having a minimum loading of .62 on the first unrotated factor which explained 59% of the variation in the 15 items. Although three subscales emerged when the factor structure was rotated the

Table 3

Factor Loadings On Encouragement K-8 Items

Items	Mean	Original Unrotated First Factor	Final Unrotated First Factor	Factors Rotated Orthogonally			
				I	II	III	IV
1. My father encouraged me to participate in sports.	3.23	.77	.77	<u>.72</u>	.30	.17	.29
2. My mother encouraged me to participate in sports.	3.12	.72	.73	.34	.33	.52	.31
3. My father believed that it was important to attend sports events in which I was participating.	3.56	.69	.69	<u>.81</u>	.04	.27	.11
4. My mother believed that it was important to attend sports events in which I was participating.	3.75	.65	.65	.43	.05	.68	.09
5. My father bought me sports equipment.	3.55	.75	.76	<u>.76</u>	.23	.26	.09
6. My mother bought me sports equipment.	3.49	.68	.69	.36	.22	.68	.06

Table 3 (continued)

Items	Mean	Original Unrotated First Factor	Final Unrotated First Factor	Factors Rotated Orthogonally			
				I	II	III	IV
7. My father told his friends about my athletic achievements.	3.32	.80	.80	.66	.40	.32	.03
8. My mother told her friends about my athletic achievements.	3.56	.75	.75	.31	.49	.61	.01
9. My father attempted to teach me proper sports techniques.	3.14	.69	.69	<u>.79</u>	.16	.12	.15
10. My mother attempted to teach me proper sports techniques.	2.06	.43	.43	.03	.09	<u>.71</u>	.11
11. My mother would have been disappointed if I did not participate in sports.	1.84	.49	.48	.02	.18	.29	<u>.85</u>
12. My father would have been disappointed if I did not participate in sports.	2.27	.59	.58	.49	.21	-.04	.76
13. My father told me that I was a good athlete.	3.36	.80	.80	.63	.50	.25	.03

Table 3 (continued)

Items	Mean	Original Unrotated First Factor	Final Unrotated First Factor	Factors Rotated Orthogonally			
				I	II	III	IV
14. My mother told me that I was a good athlete.	3.58	.77	.77	.38	.57	.53	-.01
15. My peers encouraged me to participate in little league sports.	3.44	.71	.71	.27	<u>.70</u>	.20	.20
16. My peers would have been disappointed if I did not participate in sports.	2.82	.56	.56	.16	.63	.01	.43
17. Coaches encouraged me to participate in sports.	3.63	.71	.71	.18	<u>.81</u>	.21	.14
18. In physical education classes or in practice coaches showed much interest in me.	3.43	.64	.63	.14	<u>.82</u>	.15	.09
19. My hometown was supportive of sports.	4.31	.35	---	---	---	---	---
20. My school was supportive of sports.	4.45	.29	---	---	---	---	---

Table 4

Factor Loadings On Encouragement High School Items

Items	Mean	Original Unrotated First Factor	Final Unrotated First Factor	Factors Rotated Orthogonally			
				I	II	III	IV
1. My father encouraged me to participate in sports.	2.82	.82	.82	.57	.44	.42	---
2. My mother encouraged me to participate in sports.	2.76	.80	.80	.55	.51	.27	---
3. My father believed it was important to attend sports events in which I was participating.	3.27	.70	.71	<u>.83</u>	.09	.25	---
4. My mother believed it was important to attend sports events in which I was participating.	3.42	.68	.69	<u>.83</u>	.15	.11	---
5. My father told his friends about my athletic accomplishments.	3.13	.81	.82	<u>.80</u>	.30	.25	---
6. My mother told her friends about my athletic accomplishments.	3.24	.80	.80	.77	.40	.10	---



Table 4 (continued)

Items	Mean	Original Unrotated First Factor	Final Unrotated First Factor	Factors Rotated Orthogonally			
				I	II	III	IV
7. My father believed that sports achievement was more important than academic achievement.	1.34	.38	---	---	---	---	---
8. My mother believed that sports achievement was more important than academic achievement.	1.20	.35	---	---	---	---	---
9. My father would have been disappointed if I did not participate in sports.	2.08	.66	.66	.23	.25	<u>.87</u>	---
10. My mother would have been disappointed if I did not participate in sports.	1.87	.63	.62	.19	.28	<u>.83</u>	---
11. My father told me that I was a good athlete.	3.16	.79	.81	<u>.76</u>	.36	.18	---
12. My mother told me that I was a good athlete.	3.32	.79	.81	.74	.46	.06	---

Table 4 (continued)

Items	Mean	Original Unrotated First Factor	Final Unrotated First Factor	Factors Rotated Orthogonally			
				I	II	III	IV
13. My peers encouraged me to participate in high school sports.	3.30	.80	.80	.35	<u>.78</u>	.18	---
14. My peers believed that sports achievement was more important than academic achievement.	2.42	.39	---	---	---	---	---
15. My peers would have been disappointed if I did not participate in sports.	2.50	.73	.73	.17	.68	.47	---
16. Coaches encouraged me to participate in sports.	3.16	.83	.83	.31	<u>.86</u>	.20	---
17. In practice or physical education classes coaches showed interest in me.	3.15	.82	.82	.35	<u>.82</u>	.17	---
18. Coaches would have been disappointed if I did not participate in sports.	2.81	.80	.80	.23	<u>.82</u>	.32	---

Table 4 (continued)

Items	Mean	Original Unrotated First Factor	Final Unrotated First Factor	Factors Rotated Orthogonally			
				I	II	III	IV
19. My hometown was supportive of sports.	4.39	.30	---	---	---	---	---
20. My school was supportive of sports.	4.49	.26	---	---	---	---	---

Note. After rotating only three factors emerged. The column for the fourth factor was inadvertently included in the table.

15 items were treated as a single scale (see Table 4).

Perceived Ability Scales. The perceived athletic ability while in grades K-8 scale ( $\alpha=.86$ ) was made up of three items. The items were statements about perceived athletic ability while in grades kindergarten through eighth grade, with which the subjects are to agree or disagree on a five-point scale. Only one factor emerged with a minimum loading of .82 and explained 77% of the variation in the three items (see Table 5).

The perceived ability while in high school scale ( $\alpha=.90$ ) was similar to the K-8 scale with the addition of one item (see Table 6). Factor analysis of these four items also yielded one factor with a minimum loading of .81, and 78% of the variation in these four items was explained by the factor (see Table 6).

Aversive Socialization Scales. The aversive socialization experiences while in grades K-8 scale ( $\alpha=.86$ ) was composed of four items. Only one factor was generated here, and it had a minimum loading of at .76. This factor explained 69% of the variation in these four items (see table 7).

The aversive socialization while in high school scale ( $\alpha=.92$ ) had the same items with the time frame changed to high school. One factor emerged for the high school items with a minimum loading of .81. This factor explained 72% of the variation in the four items.

Table 5

Factor Loadings on Perceived AbilityK-8 Items

Items	Mean	Loadings
1. I thought that I was a good athlete.	2.36	.92
2. I believed that I could become a better athlete.	3.63	.82
3. My peers believed that I was a good athlete.	4.13	.91

Table 6

Factor Loadings on Perceived AbilityHigh School Items

Items	Mean	Loadings
1. Thought that I was a good athlete.	3.40	.92
2. I believed that I could become a better athlete.	4.00	.81
3. I was an important part of my high school varsity team.	2.90	.85
4. My peers believed that I was a good athlete.	3.30	.94

Table 7

Factor Loadings For AversiveSocialization K-8 Items

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Items	Mean	Original Factor Loadings	Final Factor Loadings
1. Coaches made me do things I did not want to do.	2.79	.35	---
2. Coaches made fun of my athletic ability.	1.44	.76	.76
3. My peers made fun of my athletic ability.	1.53	.84	.84
4. I was treated badly by coaches because I was not a good athlete.	1.33	.84	.86
5. I was treated badly by my peers because I was not a good athlete.	1.32	.84	.86

---

Table 8

Factor Loadings On AversiveSocialization High School Items

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Items	Mean	Original Factor Loadings	Final Factor Loadings
1. Coaches made me do things I did not want to do.	2.24	.46	---
2. Coaches made fun of my athletic ability.	1.30	.82	.81
3. I was treated badly by coaches because I was not a good athlete.	1.23	.86	.86
4. My peers made fun of my athletic ability.	1.26	.85	.87
5. I was treated badly by my peers because I was not a good athlete.	1.17	.84	.86

---

Level of Termination Scale. A Guttman scale was used to determine the level subjects terminated participation in organized sports. This scale was composed of four yes or no items in order of level of sports termination and one likert type item which allows the identification of participation at the highest level (see Appendix A, items 79-81b, and item 89). The first no or never response was considered to be indicative of the point at which the individual terminated participation in organized sports, generating the five levels of termination--never participated to continuing to participate in college.

Measurement of Demographic Items. Data for the demographic items were obtained using several fixed response items. See Appendix A, items 1-2, and items 6-9.

### Procedure

The survey instrument was administered to subjects in the fall semester of 1988. Prior to administering the survey a brief, nonleading statement was made about the study, and subjects were informed that their participation was voluntary and that all responses would be anonymous. The survey required approximately twenty minutes to complete and was filled out in one period of an introductory sociology class.



### Data Handling and Analysis

Before statistical analyses could be conducted on the data the data were coded numerically and entered into the IBM mainframe maintained by the University Computer Center. The data entry process was completed by me and an aide who was paid according to the number of questionnaires he entered.

Once the data were entered the reliability of the data entry process was assessed by taking a random sample of all data records. This random sample contained 10 (2%) of the 504 records contained in the dataset. The data contained in these ten records were then compared, by hand, to the questionnaire from which these data originated. Of 1250 possible errors which could have occurred in these 10 records none were found. From this process it was concluded that the error rate for the data entry process was less than the 0.5% traditionally allowed.

Once the validity of the data was established statistical analyses proceeded. Statistical procedures utilized in the analysis of these data included Pearson's  $r$ , path analysis, and simple analysis of variance, as well as a variety of descriptive statistics. To insure the computer hardware and software were processing data as intended, several calculations were performed by hand and the results of these calculations were compared to the results of the calculations performed by the computer. No calculation errors were detected.

### Limitations of This Research

Regardless of the level of care taken when doing social research there are bound to be some limitations and problems with the research. Below are several areas in which this research was limited.

External Validity. Because it cannot be assumed that this sample is representative of some larger population of college students the findings from these data will not be generalized to any larger population. But the findings will hopefully provide a better understanding of socialization into sport by looking at a convenience sample of students who have characteristics which have not been represented in the samples utilized in other studies of socialization into or out of sport.

Causality. Causality cannot be assumed in this research because of the imprecise time ordering of the independent variables, and the assumed reciprocal nature of the socialization process. But it is hoped that any relationships identified between the variables will offer a better understanding of socialization into or out of sport.

Measurement and Content Validity. Although Cronbach's alpha and the factor analysis of each scale indicate that each scale was acceptable one major problem exists. This is the problem of past recall, many of the items

in each scale asked the subject to recall past events. It is assumed that the practice of asking subjects to recall past experiences or events is problematic and may result in some measurement error. It is also felt that the measurement of the aversive socialization variables was not adequate. In future research more time will need to be spent operationalizing aversive socialization experiences. The aversive socialization scales may be made more efficient by insuring that the subjects are able to distinguish between normal aversive experiences, and aversive experiences which may lead to their termination of sports participation.

## CHAPTER V

### RESEARCH FINDINGS

#### Identification of Issues

As mentioned in chapter IV there were three objectives this research intended to address. The first of these objectives was to understand the statistical relationships between the variables in the model. A second objective was to understand how these variables fit together in a path model to explain participation in sports or termination of sports involvement. The final objective was to determine whether the socialization experiences--as indicated by scores on the socialization variables--of individuals who continue to participate in sports were significantly different than those experiences of individuals who terminate their participation. Each of the objectives mentioned above also has as a sub-objective a comparison of male and female sports involvement or termination.

#### Relationship Between Socialization Variables

The relationship between all socialization variables included in the model of sport termination was measured using zero-order Pearson correlations. This measure will

allow some understanding of the strength of each relationship and the direction of each relationship. Zero-order correlations were calculated for the total sample, for males, and for females.

### Zero Order Correlations

Correlations For Total Sample. The zero-order correlations between the socialization variables for the total sample indicated statistically significant relationships ( $p < .05$ ) between most of the variables. Of the 28 correlations only 3 (10.7%) were not significant at the .05 level. The correlations which were not significant were between family sports involvement (FSI) and aversive socialization while in high school (AVSHS), between encouragement while in grades K-8 (ENCK8) and AVSHS, and between AVSHS and level of termination (LTP).

Although the remainder of the variable pairs were statistically significant, not all of the relationships exhibited exceptionally strong relationships. The most substantial relationships were between the encouragement variables (ENCK8, ENCHS), perceived ability while in grades K-8 (PABK8), perceived ability while in high school (PABHS), and level of termination. Pearson correlation coefficients between the aforementioned variables ranged between +0.50 and +0.81, all indicating strong, positive relationships (see Table 9).

The correlations between the socialization variables

and LTP were all significant except 1. The correlation between AVSHS and LTP ( $r = -.06$ ) was not significant. The remaining variables did exhibit statistically significant correlation coefficients. The correlation between FSI and LTP was a low positive correlation ( $r = .22, p < .05$ ). The correlations between encouragement variables (ENCK8, ENCHS) and LTP were moderate positive correlations. The correlation between ENCK8 and LTP was  $.50$  ( $p < .05$ ) and the correlation between ENCHS and LTP was  $.66$  ( $p < .05$ ). The correlations between the perceived ability variables (PABK8, PABHS) and LTP were also moderate, positive correlations. Between PABK8 and LTP the Pearson correlation was  $.51$  ( $p < .05$ ), the correlation between PABHS and LTP was  $0.72$  ( $p < .05$ ). The aversive socialization variables (AVSK8, AVSHS) were both negatively correlated with LTP. These relationships were not very strong but the correlation between AVSK8 and LTP ( $r = -.12$ ) was significant at the  $.05$  level. Refer to Table 9 for a complete listing of all correlation coefficients between all variables.

Correlations for Males and Females. For males and females the relationships between the socialization variables were very similar. The difference between males and total sample was found in the relationships between the aversion variables (AVSK8, AVSHS) and the perceived ability variables (PABHS, PABK8) and encouragement variables (ENCK8, ENCHS). In the total sample these relationships were

Table 9

Zero Order Correlation Matrix, Means and Standard  
Deviations For Total Sample, Males, and Females

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Mean	S D
Total Sample (N = 504)										
1 FSI	1 00	0 36*	0 32*	-0 10*	-0 06	0 24*	0 29*	0 22*	2 73	0 73
2 ENCK8		1 00	0 78*	-0 14*	-0 06	0 62*	0 58*	0 50*	3 17	0 98
3 ENCHS			1 00	-0 14*	-0 10*	0 54*	0 81*	0 66*	2 90	1 12
4 AVSK8				1 00	0 69*	-0 18*	-0 22*	-0 12*	1 41	0 66
5 AVSHS					1 00	-0 10*	-0 19*	-0 06	1 24	0 55
6 PABK8						1 00	0 64*	0 51*	3 78	1 01
7 PABHS							1 00	0 72*	3 40	1 25
8 LTP								1 00	3 63	1 40
Males (N = 239)										
1 FSI	1 00	0 27*	0 24*	-0 15*	-0 08	0 13*	0 19*	0 17*	2 72	0 69
2 ENCK8		1 00	0 80*	-0 16*	-0 11	0 51*	0 53*	0 46*	3 41	0 85
3 ENCHS			1 00	-0 21*	-0 17*	0 46*	0 77*	0 61*	3 22	1 04
4 AVSK8				1 00	0 67*	-0 29*	-0 38*	-0 26*	1 46	0 70
5 AVSHS					1 00	-0 18*	-0 30*	-0 15*	1 29	0 59
6 PABK8						1 00	0 61*	0 44*	4 03	0 86
7 PABHS							1 00	0 65*	3 78	1 11
8 LTP								1 00	4 15	1 17
Females (N = 265)										
1 FSI	1 00	0 45*	0 42*	-0 04	-0 03	0 34*	0 39*	0 30*	2 75	0 76
2 ENCK8		1 00	0 74*	-0 16*	-0 07	0 64*	0 56*	0 45*	2 96	1 05
3 ENCHS			1 00	-0 12*	-0 08	0 54*	0 81*	0 63*	2 60	1 11
4 AVSK8				1 00	0 70*	-0 15*	-0 14*	-0 06	1 37	0 64
5 AVSHS					1 00	-0 08	-0 17*	-0 07	1 20	0 52
6 PABK8						1 00	0 62*	0 49*	3 55	1 09
7 PABHS							1 00	0 71*	3 06	1 27
8 LTP								1 00	3 16	1 42

Note FSI=Family Sports Involvement  
 ENCK8=Encouragement While In Grades K-8  
 ENCHS=Encouragement While In High School  
 AVSK8=Aversive Socialization Experiences While In Grades K-8  
 AVSHS=Aversive Socialization Experiences While In High School  
 PABK8=Perceived Ability While In Grades K-8  
 PABHS=Perceived Ability While In High School  
 LTP=Level of Termination

\*p < .05

not significant at the .05 level but were statistically significant for males. The correlations between these variables indicate a slight negative relationship between the AVSHS and the variables PABK8, PABHS, and ENCHS, these same negative correlations are found between AVSK8 and the variables ENCK8, ENCHS, PABK8, PABHS, and LTP.

For females the correlations between FSI and the other model variables were substantially higher than the same correlations for males. Also for females, the correlations between the aversive socialization variables (AVSK8, AVSHS) were not as strong as the same correlations for males. When looking at the correlations between the socialization variables and LTP, the major difference appears to also be in the correlations between FSI and LTP and the aversive socialization variables (AVSK8, AVSHS) and LTP. The correlation between FSI and LTP was substantially stronger for females ( $r = .30$ ) than for males ( $r = .17$ ). For males there is a much stronger relationship between the aversive socialization variables and LTP than for females. See Table 9 for a complete listing of correlations for total sample, male, and females. These correlations will be discussed in depth in Chapter VI.

#### Relationship of Variables in Path Models

Path analysis was used to determine how the socialization variables fit together to explain sports



involvement and termination of sports involvement. The seven socialization variables included in the basic model are family sports involvement (FSI), encouragement from others while in grades kindergarten through eighth grade (ENCK8), aversive socialization experiences while in grades K-8 (AVSK8), perceived athletic ability while in grade K-8 (PABK8), encouragement from others while in high school (ENCHS), aversive socialization experiences while in high school (AVSHS), and perceived athletic ability while in high school (PABHS). All of these variables are in the model predicting level of sports termination (LTP). Three path models involving the previously mentioned eight variables were tested; a model for total sample, for males, and for females.

#### Complex Model

The seven variables combined in a model for the total sample explained 54% of the variation in the dependent variable. This was compared to the seven variables explaining 46% for the male model and 52% for the female model. Each model explained a substantial amount of variation in the dependent variable. But in each model, most of the explained variation in LTP was explained by PABHS.

Concerning the total sample the zero-order correlation ( $r = .22$ ) between FSI and LTP was explained primarily by three indirect paths. The direct path ( $P = -.002$ ) between

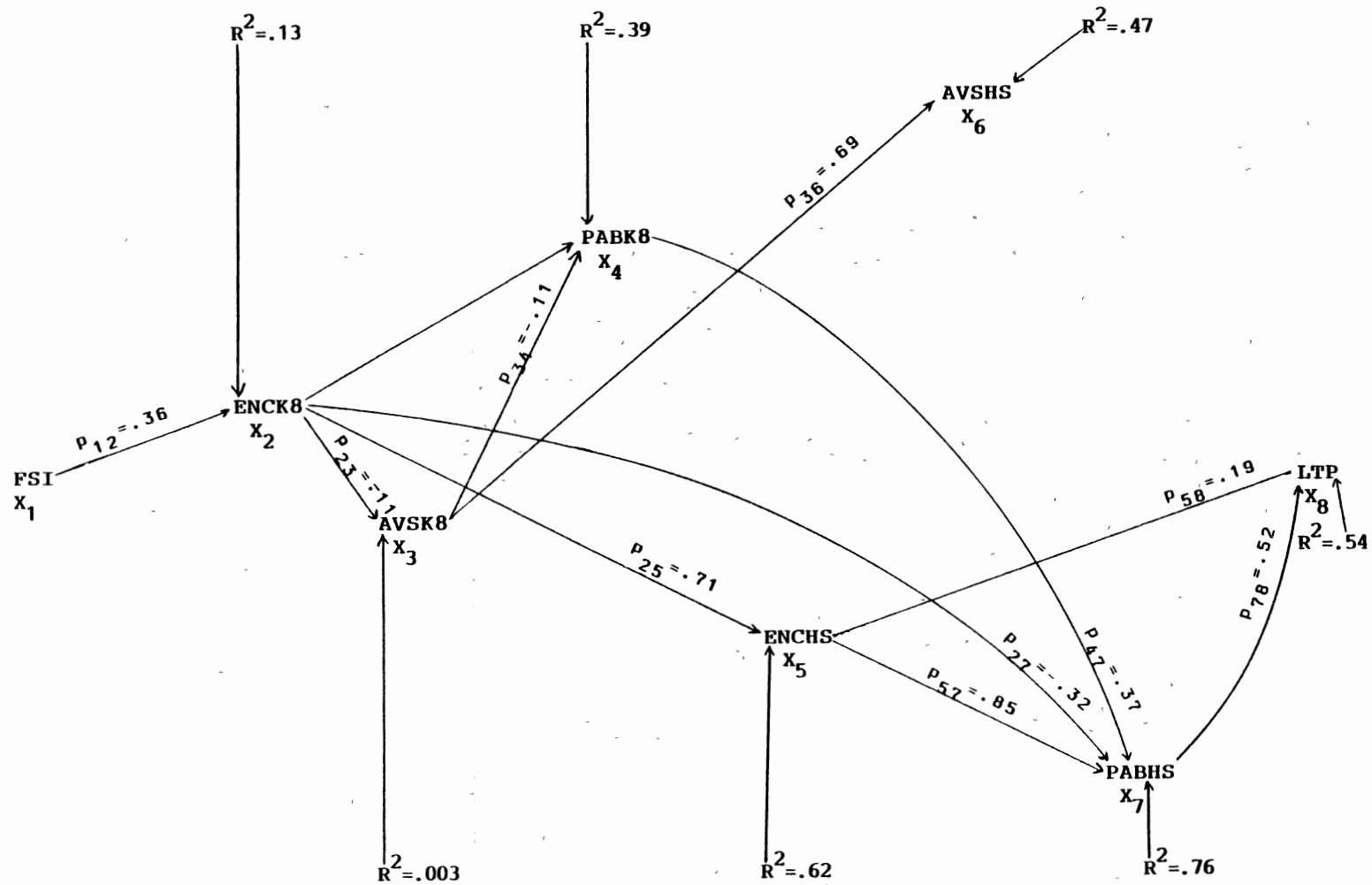


Figure 2. Complex Model for Total Sample With All Path Coefficients Greater Than  $\pm .099$

FSI and LTP was not substantial. The indirect paths which explained most of the zero-order correlation were FSI--->ENCK8--->ENCHS--->PABHS--->LTP (0.12), FSI--->ENCK8--->ENCHS--->LTP (0.05), and FSI--->ENCK8--> PABK8--->PABHS--->LTP (0.04). When the correlation is reconstructed from paths in the above indirect paths all but one one hundredth of the correlation was accounted for.

In the male and female models, the zero-order correlations were also explained by the direct path and the indirect paths mentioned above. For males the original correlation ( $r = .17$ ) was explained by the same indirect paths, but it should also be pointed out that the direct path itself explained a substantial portion of the original zero-order correlation (0.03). The indirect path FSI--->ENCK8--->ENCHS--->PABHS--->LTP accounted for 0.07 units of the original correlation, the path FSI--> ENCK8--->ENCHS--->LTP explained .06 of the correlation, and the final path mentioned above, FSI--->ENCK8--->PABK8--->PABHS--->LTP was responsible for only 0.01 units of the zero-order correlation.

For females the zero-order correlation between FSI and LTP was a relatively strong 0.30. When this correlation was broken down into its path components, the majority of the correlation was accounted for by the direct path and the same three indirect paths for males. The direct path only accounted for 0.01 units of the correlation when the other variables in the model were controlled. The indirect path

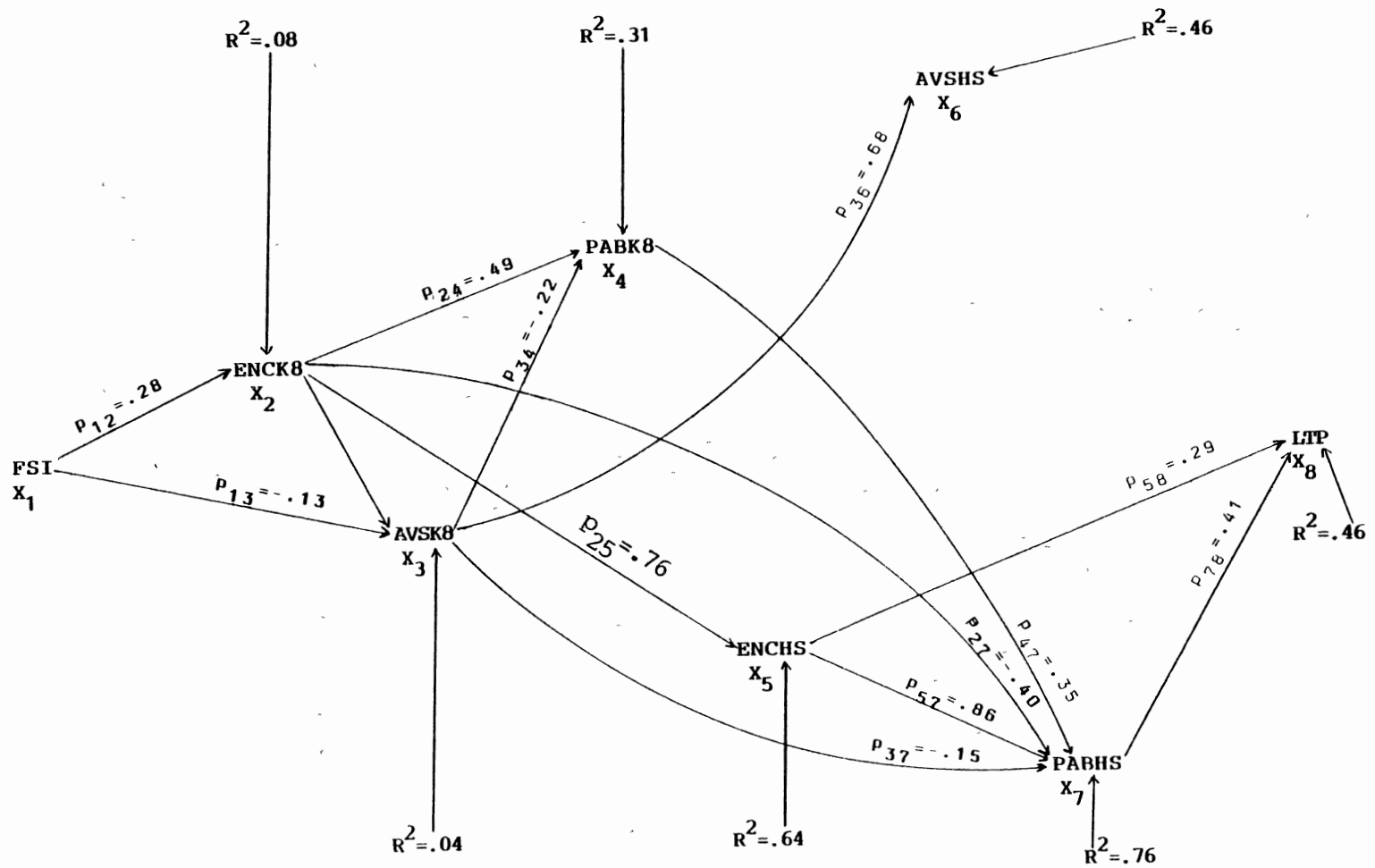


Figure 3. Complex Model for Males With All Path Coefficients Greater Than  $\pm .099$

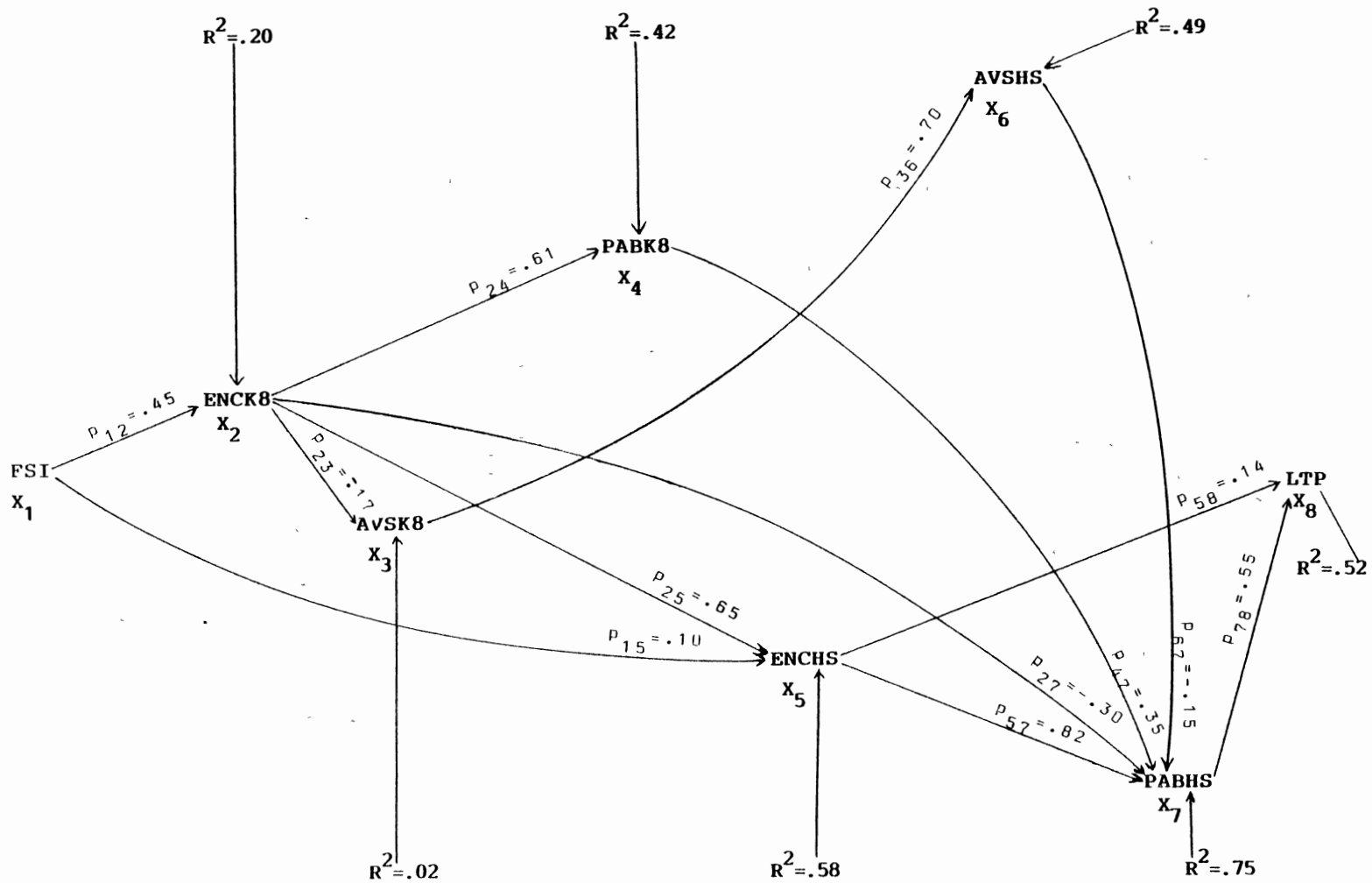


Figure 4. Complex Model for Females With All Path Coefficients Greater Than  $\pm .099$

FSI--->ENCK8--->ENCHS--->PABHS---LTP was responsible for the most substantial portion of the zero order correlation, 0.13 units, much more than the same path accounted for in the male sample. The path FSI--->ENCK8--->ENCHS--->LTP accounted for only 0.04 units of the zero-order correlation. The other path which explained a considerable portion of the correlation was the path FSI--->ENCK8--->PABK8--->PABHS-->LTP. This path accounted for .05 units of the correlation. The remaining seven units of the zero-order correlation were explained by the remainder of the indirect paths, no one of which accounted for a substantial portion of the correlation.

#### Parsimonious Model

When viewing the three models in their entirety it was evident that certain variables were the most important for explaining an athletes level of sport termination (LTP). It was also evident that there were no true independent variables in the model, each of them were strongly related to the others, as evidenced by the zero order correlations between all of the socialization variables. Figures 5, 6, and 7 are more parsimonious models of socialization into sport (all path coefficients less than  $\pm .10$  were suppressed). In these models the aversive socialization variables were left out completely. It is not necessarily that aversive socialization does not play a role in people's decision to participate in sports, but as operationalized

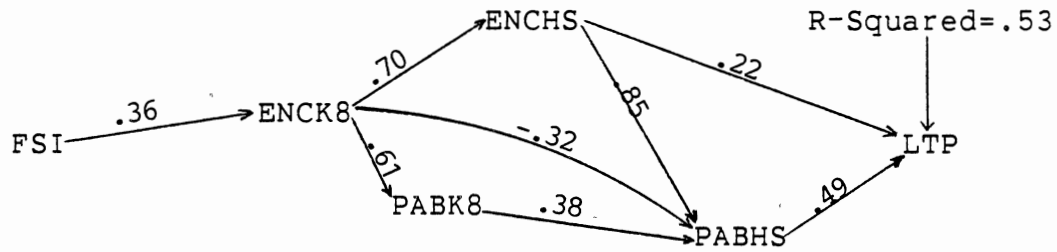


Figure 5. Parsimonious Model For Total Sample

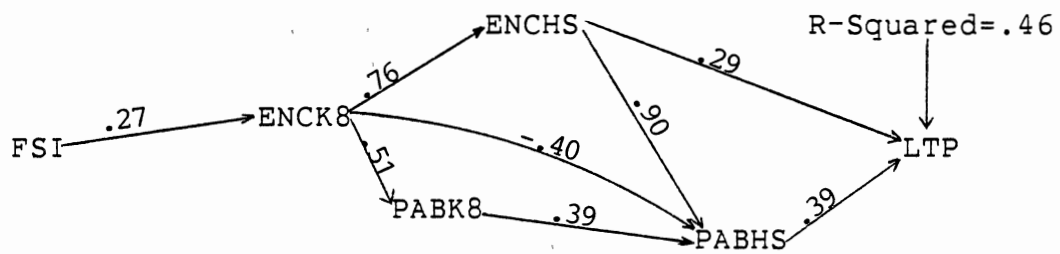


Figure 6. Parsimonious Model For Males

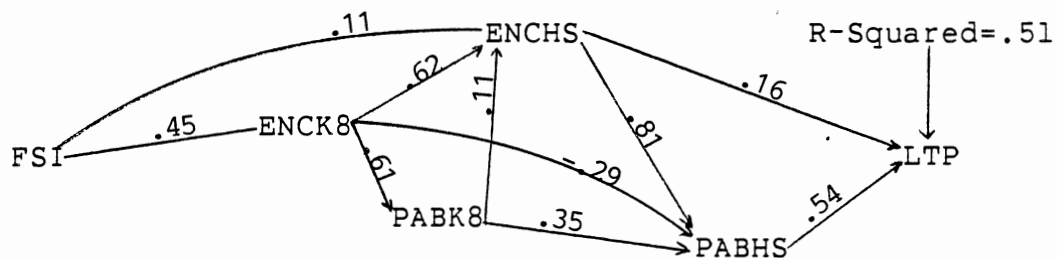


Figure 7. Parsimonious Model For Females

for this study their contribution was negligible.

Although the aversive socialization variables were not included in the parsimonious models, these models still explained a considerable amount of the variation in the dependent variable. This model for the total sample still explained 53% of the variation, compared to 54% for the more complex model; the parsimonious model for males explained 46% of the variation; and the parsimonious model for females still explained 51% of the variation. As evidenced by the amount of variation explained, the removal of the aversive socialization variables did not decrease the explanatory power of the models.

#### Simple Model

A third set of path models was also examined. These path models, for total sample, males, and females, were basically the same as the parsimonious models above, but the variable perceived ability while in grades kindergarten through eighth grade was omitted. Even though this variable was excluded the models still retained substantial explanatory power as indicated by the amount of variation explained in the dependent variable, level of termination (LTP).

This model, referred to as the simple model, for the total sample explained 53% of the variation in LTP, compared to 54% in the complex model. For males this model accounted for 45% of the variation in the dependent



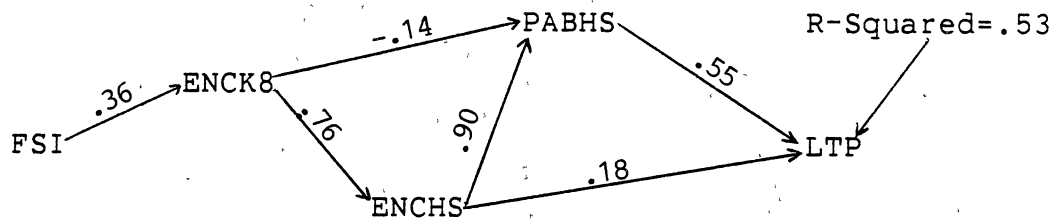


Figure 8. Simple Model For Total Sample

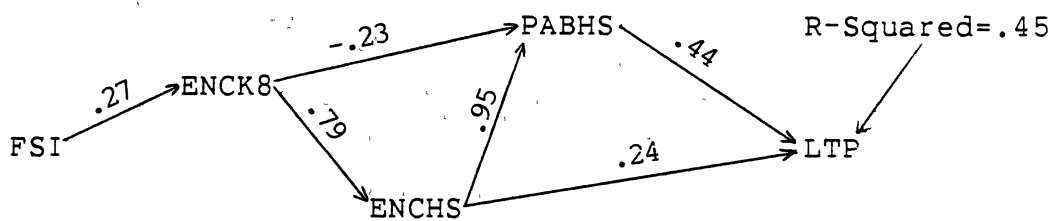


Figure 9. Simple Model For Males

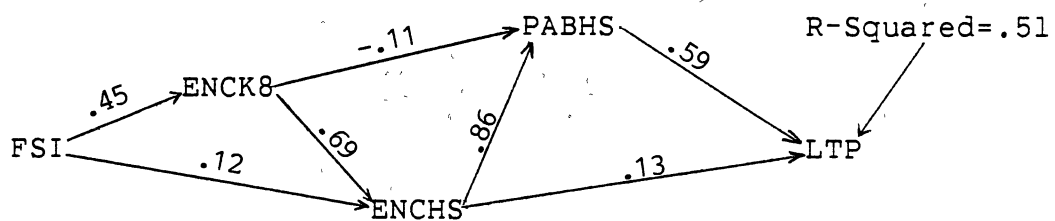


Figure 10. Simple Model For Females

variable, and for females it accounted for 51%. This indicates that perhaps only family sport involvement (FSI), encouragement from others at a young age and while in high school (ENCK8, ENCHS) and perceived athletic ability while in high school (PABHS) may be the most important variables for explaining people's decision to remain involved in organized, competitive sports.

#### Comparison of Socialization Experiences

A final objective of this research was the comparison of the socialization experiences of individuals who terminated sport participation at different levels. Five levels of termination were examined, all of which were different levels of the variable Level of Termination (LTP). Level 1 terminators are those who never participated in organized sports. Level 2 refers to subjects who terminated involvement while in primary school. Those who terminated while in high school are described as Level 3 terminators. Level 4 terminators are the subjects who maintained involvement throughout high school but terminated their involvement in organized sports while in college. The subjects who continued their involvement while in college are referred to as level 5 terminators.

The socialization variables were the same variables which comprise the complex path model: family sports involvement (FSI), encouragement from others while in grades kindergarten through eighth grade (ENCK8), encouragement

from others while in high school (ENCHS), perceived athletic ability while in grades kindergarten through eighth grade (PABK8), perceived athletic ability while in high school (PABHS), aversive socialization experiences while in grades kindergarten through eighth grade (AVSK8), and aversive socialization experiences while in high school (AVSHS).

Seven one-way Analyses of Variance, one for each socialization variable by LTP, were used to determine if significant mean differences existed between levels of termination. The null hypothesis tested in each case was that the population mean of the dependent variable was equal across all levels of LTP. If the null hypothesis was rejected, the Tukey honestly significant different test was used to identify which pairs of means were significantly different.

#### Results of Seven ANOVAs for Total Sample

All null hypotheses for the seven ANOVAs were rejected when looking at the total sample (See Table 10). The Analysis of Variance for FSI by LTP ( $F = 6.77, p < .05$ ) was significant. This indicated that the means for FSI was different for at least two levels of LTP. Tukey's honestly significant difference test revealed that the difference, at the .05 level of significance, occurred between level 1, those who never participated in sports ( $x = 2.37$ ) and level 4, those who terminated in college ( $x = 2.83$ ) and between level 1 and level 5, those who maintained participation in

college ( $x = 2.88$ ). (See Tables 11 and 12 for a listing of means and Tukey results for total sample.)

Simple Analysis of Variance for ENCK8 by LTP was also significant ( $F = 48.41$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Tukey's HSD revealed that all pairs of means were significantly different ( $p < .05$ ) except for level 2 vs. level 3 and level 3 vs. level 4.

Similarly encouragement in high school (ENCHS) by level of termination showed significance ( $F = 96.43$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Tukey's HSD revealed significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) between all pairs of means except level 1 vs. level 2 and level 4 vs. level 5.

The null hypothesis of perceived ability in K-8 by level of termination was also rejected ( $F = 55.38$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). The Tukey test revealed significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) between all pairs of means except level 2 vs. level 3, level 3 vs. level 4, and level 4 vs. level 5.

Perceived ability in high school was significant across all levels of termination as well ( $F = 140.42$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Again most of the mean pairs were significantly different. According to the Tukey procedure the only pairs which were not significant were level 1 vs. level 2 and level 4 vs. level 5.

Aversive socialization in K-8 also showed significant differences across all levels of termination ( $F = 3.92$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). It is interesting to note, however, that while other variables exhibited a linear increase across levels of termination AVSK8 showed a curvilinear relationship across

Table 10

F-Ratios For All Socialization Variables by  
Level of Termination, for Total Sample, Males,  
and Females

Variable	N	F-Ratio	R-Square
Total Sample			
FSI	504	6.77*	0.05
ENCK8	504	48.41*	0.28
ENCHS	502	96.43*	0.44
PABK8	504	55.38*	0.31
PABHS	502	140.42*	0.53
AVSK8	503	3.92*	0.03
AVSHS	500	2.72*	0.02
Males			
FSI	239	2.09	0.03
ENCK8	239	19.37*	0.25
ENCHS	239	36.61*	0.38
PABK8	239	16.53*	0.22
PABHS	239	45.00*	0.43
AVSK8	239	6.38*	0.10
AVSHS	238	2.03	0.03
Females			
FSI	265	6.78*	0.10
ENCK8	265	21.90*	0.25
ENCHS	263	43.68*	0.40
PABK8	265	28.66*	0.31
PABHS	263	73.35*	0.53
AVSK8	264	0.68	0.01
AVSHS	262	1.23	0.02

\*p < .05

Table 11

Means on Socialization Variables by Level  
of Termination, For Total Sample, Males,  
and Females

LTP	Variable						
	FSI	ENCK8	ENCHS	PABK8	PABHS	AVSK8	AVSHS
	Total Sample						
Level 1	2.37	1.76	1.66	2.20	1.90	1.39	1.20
Level 2	2.58	2.81	1.92	3.44	2.24	1.53	1.30
Level 3	2.63	3.10	2.51	3.65	2.85	1.59	1.39
Level 4	2.83	3.25	3.28	3.99	4.00	1.29	1.14
Level 5	2.88	3.61	3.59	4.22	4.23	1.33	1.20
	Males						
Level 1	2.37	1.64	1.53	2.43	2.18	1.71	1.42
Level 2	2.43	2.69	1.90	3.44	2.39	1.81	1.42
Level 3	2.62	3.20	2.61	3.69	2.92	1.80	1.48
Level 4	2.84	3.53	3.40	4.26	3.95	1.22	1.17
Level 5	2.78	3.65	3.65	4.26	4.30	1.34	1.23
	Females						
Level 1	2.37	1.79	1.69	2.15	1.85	1.32	1.16
Level 2	2.62	2.84	1.93	3.43	2.20	1.46	1.26
Level 3	2.64	3.01	2.43	3.61	2.79	1.40	1.31
Level 4	2.84	3.06	3.19	3.83	4.04	1.34	1.12
Level 5	3.08	3.55	3.47	4.14	4.10	1.30	1.15

Table 12

Levels of LTP Exhibiting Significant Mean Differences, For Total Sample, Males, and Females

FSI	ENCK8	ENCHS	PABK8	PABHS	AVSK8	AVSHS
Total Sample						
1-4	1-2	1-3	1-2	1-3	3-4	3-4
1-5	1-3	1-4	1-3	1-4	3-5	
2-5	1-4	1-5	1-4	1-5		
	1-5	2-3	1-5	2-3		
	2-4	2-4	2-4	2-4		
	2-5	2-5	2-5	2-5		
	3-5	3-4	3-5	3-4		
	4-5	3-5		3-5		
Males						
	1-2	1-3	1-2	1-4	2-4	
	1-3	1-4	1-3	1-5	2-5	
	1-4	1-5	1-4	2-4	3-4	
	1-5	2-3	1-5	2-5	3-5	
	2-4	2-4	2-4	3-4		
	2-5	2-5	2-5	3-5		
	3-5	3-4	3-4			
		3-5	3-5			
Females						
1-5	1-2	1-3	1-2	1-3		
2-5	1-3	1-4	1-3	1-4		
3-5	1-4	1-5	1-4	1-5		
	1-5	2-3	1-5	2-3		
	2-5	2-4	2-5	2-4		
	3-5	2-5	3-5	2-5		
		3-4		3-4		
		3-5		3-5		

Note. All pairs listed are significant,  $p < .05$ .

LTP; i.e., means increase from level 1 through level 3 and then decreased in level 4 but increased again in level 5. Consequently the Pearson correlation coefficient between AVSK8 and LTP was  $-.12$ . The Tukey HSD test revealed that significant differences at the  $.05$  level existed only between level 3 vs. level 4, and between level 3 vs. level 5.

Aversive socialization in high school was again significant ( $F = 2.72, p < .05$ ). And it also showed the same curvilinear pattern found for AVSK8. The Tukey test identified significant differences ( $p < .05$ ) between level 3 vs. level 4--the point where the mean dropped.

#### Results of Seven ANOVAs for Males.

The results for the Analyses of Variance for males was slightly different. The null hypothesis for the Analysis of Variance for FSI by LTP was retained. There were no pairs significantly different at the  $0.05$  level of significance. The Analysis of Variance for AVSHS by LTP also did not reveal any differences significant at the  $0.05$  level.

The remainder of the ANOVAs were significant. ENCK8 was significant across all levels of LTP ( $F = 19.37, p < 0.05$ ). A Tukey revealed that all mean pairs were significantly different except level 2 vs. level 3, level 3 vs. level 4, and level 4 vs. level 5. These findings were similar to the findings for the total sample except that



level 4 and level 5 were significantly different in the total sample.

The null hypothesis of ENCHS by LTP was also rejected ( $F = 36.61, p < .05$ ). Tukey's HSD test revealed significant differences between all mean pairs except level 1 vs. level 2 and level 4 vs. level 5.

Similar results were found for PABK8 ( $F = 16.53, p < 0.05$ ). But in addition to level 1 vs. level 2 and level 4 vs. level 5, level 2 vs. level 3 also did not exhibit significant differences at the .05 level. Comparing these findings to the findings for the total sample revealed that there was actually more significant mean pairs for males than for the total sample. When examining the total sample level 3 vs. level 4 was not significant.

For perceived ability in high school the null hypothesis was also rejected ( $F = 45.0, p < .05$ ). Significant mean differences between pairs were identified between level 1 vs. level 4, level 1 vs. level 5, level 2 vs. level 4, level 2 vs. level 5, level 3 vs. level 4, and level 3 vs. level 5. The only difference between males and total sample was that level 1 vs. level 3 was also significantly different at the .05 level for the total sample.

Aversive socialization while in grades kindergarten through eight was also significant across all levels of LTP ( $F = 6.38, p < .05$ ). It should also be pointed out that the same curvilinear relationship identified for this variable

in the total sample was evident for males. Tukey's HSD test revealed significant differences at the .05 level between level 2 vs. level 5, level 2 vs. level 4, level 3 vs. level 4, and level 3 vs. level 5.

#### Results Of Seven ANOVAs for Females.

For females all null hypotheses were rejected except two. The null hypotheses for AVSK8 and AVSHS were retained, there was no statistical evidence that aversive socialization experiences differed across levels of LTP for females. But it should be pointed out that when viewing the means for AVSK8 and AVSHS by level of LTP, the same curvilinear relationship, noticed in the total sample and males was also evident for females but is different in nature--for females it peaked and continued down for AVSK8.

Unlike the male sample, FSI was significant for females ( $F = 6.78, p < .05$ ), showing more similarities with the total sample. The use of the HSD test revealed significant mean differences between level 1 vs. level 5, level 2 vs. level 5, and level 3 vs. level 5.

The remainder of the ANOVAs for females were surprisingly similar to the results of the ANOVAs for males. There were some substantive differences in explained variation and in the mean pairs between which significant differences occurred, but for the most part the F-Ratios are similar for males and females.

The null hypothesis for ENCK8 by level of LTP was

rejected at the .05 level ( $F = 21.90$ ). Tukey's test showed significant differences between all mean pairs except level 2 vs. level 4, level 2 vs. level 3, level 3 vs. level 4, and level 4 vs. level 5. The only difference between males and females when looking at the mean pairs which were significantly different was the fact that level 2 vs. level 4 was significantly different for males while not significant for females.

The F-ratio for ENCHS by level of LTP was 43.68 which led to the rejection of the null hypothesis at the .05 level. Significant differences between mean pairs, as indicated by Tukey's HSD test, were all pairs except level 1 vs. level 2 and level 4 vs. level 5. These were the same pairs found not to be significantly different in the male sample.

The null hypothesis for PABK8 by LTP was also rejected. The F-Ratio of 28.66 was statistically significant at the 0.05 significance level. Tukey's HSD showed significant differences between level 1 vs. level 2, level 3, level 4, and level 5, level 2 vs level 5, and level 3 vs. level 5. For females, not as many pairs were significantly different as there were for males. For males level 2 vs. level 4 and level 3 vs. level 4 were also significant.

Perceived ability while in high school also showed significant ( $p < .05$ ) differences across levels of LTP. The F-ratio of 73.35 lead to the statistical rejection of the null hypothesis. The HSD test identified significant

differences between all mean pairs except level 1 vs. level 2 and level 4 vs. level 5. For males there were not as many mean pairs which were statistically significant.

#### Conclusion For ANOVAs

With each ANOVA, R-Squared, the amount of explained variation was also calculated. This statistic allowed the researcher some idea as to the power of the socialization variable for explaining LTP. For the total sample, males, and females the socialization variable which appears to have had the most explanatory power was PABHS. This variable explained 53% of the variation in LTP for the total sample, 43% for males, and 53% for females. The variable with the next most explanatory power, as measured by explained variation, was ENCHS. This variable explained 44% of the variation in LTP for the total sample, 38% for males, and 40% for females. Again this statistic allowed the researcher to draw some conclusions about the relative importance of each variable for explaining LTP. These findings were consistent with findings from the zero-order correlation and path analysis; all three statistical procedures point toward PABHS and ENCHS as being the most important variables for explaining LTP.

#### Summary of Findings

The findings which resulted lend support to past research which has studied sport participation. But there

were some noteworthy findings. It does appear that there were some differences between the socialization experiences of males and females. When looking at the ANOVA results for family involvement by level of termination it appeared that family involvement was a better predictor of female sports participation. For males, the null hypothesis that means of family involvement are equal across all levels of termination was retained, while for females the hypothesis was rejected. Also, the zero order correlation between family sports involvement and level of termination was substantially stronger for females ( $r = .30$ ); the male correlation was only .17.

Another difference between males and females appeared to be the influence of aversive socialization experiences. For males the difference across levels of termination was significant at the .05 level, while a test of the hypothesis on the female sample resulted in no significant differences. The correlations between the aversive socialization variables (AVSK8, AVSHS) and level of termination (LTP) was also much stronger for males. The correlation between aversive socialization while in grades K-8 and LTP was  $-.26$  for males, while it was only  $-.06$  for females. This indicates that males may be more likely to terminate because of aversive socialization experiences.

One other difference between the findings for males and females was the means associated with each variable. The means for each variable were consistently higher for males.

Although these differences may not be statistically significant (no tests were performed to identify whether the differences were significant) the findings may represent some qualitative difference in the experience of males and females with regard to socialization into sport or termination of sport participation. For example, males may actually receive more encouragement to participate in sports than females.

Path analysis of the complex model for total sample, males, and females, revealed three indirect paths which may be the most useful for explaining the original zero-order correlation between family sports involvement and level of termination. These indirect paths also supported past research which suggests that sport participation or termination is a function of family involvement, encouragement from others, and perceived ability.

The first of these three indirect paths was family sports involvement (FSI) predicting encouragement from others while in grades K-8 (ENCK8), which predicts encouragement received while in high school (ENCHS), which then acts as a predictor of perceived ability while in high school (PABHS); perceived ability while in high school then predicts level of sport termination (LTP). The second important indirect path is the same, but perceived ability while in high school is not included. In this indirect path LTP is predicted by encouragement while in high school. The final important indirect path was FSI predicting ENCHS which

then acts as a predictor of perceived ability while in grades K-8 (PABK8); PABK8 then predicts PABHS which then predicts LTP.

Also when viewing the tests of the total model for males and females, it appeared that the model may be somewhat better for explaining female sport participation or termination. The seven socialization variables in the complex model for females combined to explain 52% of the variation in LTP, while the same model for males only explained 46% of the variation.

Another interesting finding was the explanatory power the model retained even after dropping the aversive socialization variables. In this "parsimonious" model 51% of the variation in LTP was explained for females, and 46% for males--neither a significant drop off from the complex model. This indicated that perhaps aversive socialization, as measured in this study, was not important in predicting level of termination. In the "simple" model where one more variable (PABK8) was dropped from the model, 51% of the variation was still explained for females and 45% for males.

Although the aversive socialization variables did not contribute to the explanatory power of the theoretical models there remain some interesting findings associated with these variables. One of these findings was the curvilinear relationship represented in the tables of means. While the other variables showed a linear increase in means across level of termination, the aversive socialization

variables, for males, increased from level one through level 3 but decreased from level 3 to level 4 and then increased from level 4 to level 5. For females the means for the aversive socialization variables peaked at either level 2 or level 3 and decreased throughout the remainder of the levels. In chapter 6 these findings will be discussed.



## CHAPTER VI

### CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

#### Introduction

It has been assumed in this study that people are not born athletes but become athletes via the socialization process and that the socialization process is a process of interaction. Along the same lines this research has assumed that people do not maintain participation in sports because of an innate desire to achieve in the arena of athletic competition. But this desire itself is a product of social interaction.

The above assumptions are by no means original. Several researchers have empirically tested the first assumption (Kenyon & McPherson, 1973, 1974; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1976). But much of the existing research has failed to appreciate the complexity of the process of socialization into sports and sports termination. Past research has insisted on using theoretical and methodological approaches which tend to over simplify the socialization process. Another problem with past research on this topic has been the sample; past findings have been to a large extent based on samples of elite athletes or samples which have been composed exclusively of males

(Fishwick & Greendorfer, 1987).

Although past research has had its limitations there were some interesting findings and suggestions for further research. Much of this past research has concluded that participation in sports is a function of peoples' interaction with others; more specifically participation has been viewed as a function of encouragement from others which enhances peoples' athletic abilities which then may be conducive to participation in sports (Kenyon & McPherson, 1973, 1974; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1976, 1983; McPherson, 1978, 1981, 1982; Gregson and Colley, 1986; Greendorfer, 1979). Several researchers have suggested that there may also be differences between the socialization experiences of males and females (Greendorfer, 1979; Lewko and Greendorfer, 1982; McElroy, 1983).

The present study has attempted to build on the past work of the researchers mentioned above by incorporating some of the variables found to be significant predictors of sport participation into a theoretical model of participation and termination for males and females, and then utilizing path analytic techniques to test empirically the models. This model begins with family sports involvement which is viewed as a variable positively affecting level of encouragement received by the target of the socialization process. Level of encouragement, in turn, positively influences perceived ability. Aversive socialization experiences, on the other hand, are viewed as

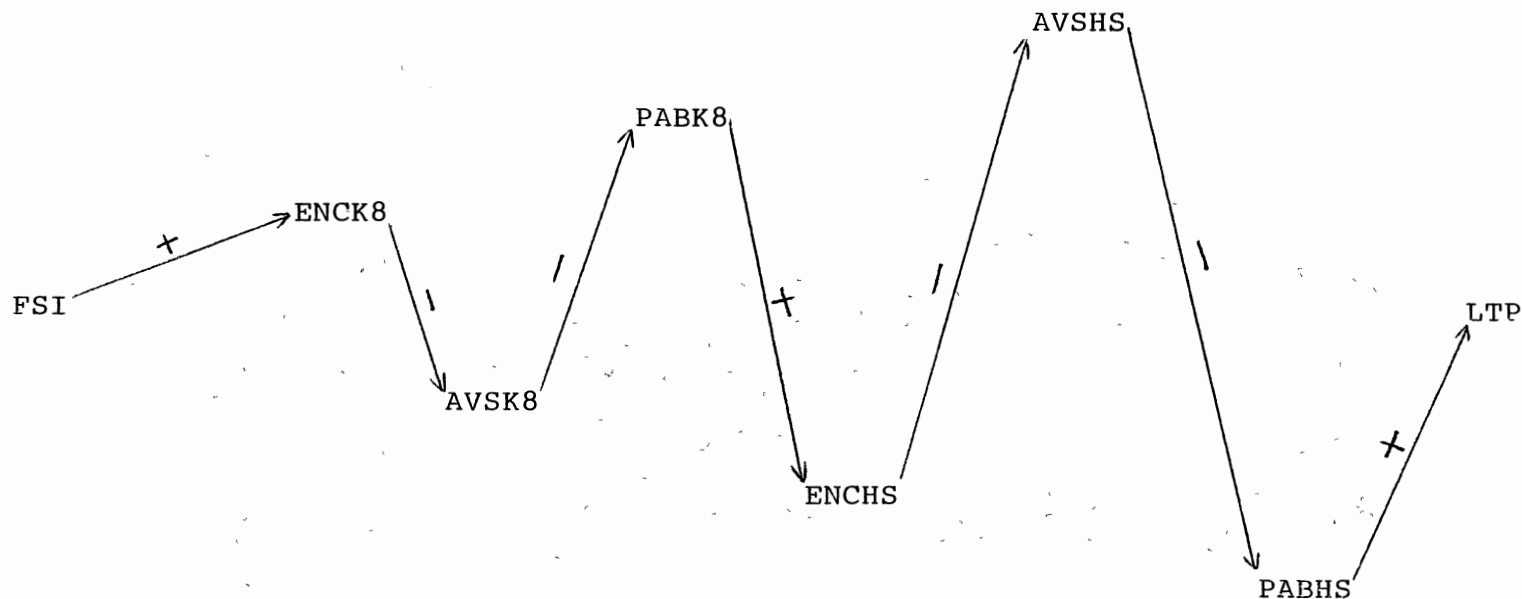


Figure 11. Hypothesized Model of Socialization Into or Out of Sport

FSI = Family Sports Involvement  
 ENCK8 = Encouragement From Others While in Grades K-8  
 AVSK8 = Aversive Socialization Experiences While in Grades K-8  
 PABK8 = Perceived Ability While in Grades K-8  
 ENCHS = Encouragement From Others While in High School  
 AVSHS = Aversive Socialization Experiences While in High School  
 PABHS = Perceived Ability While in High School  
 LTP = Level of Sport Participation or Termination

an intervening variable between encouragement from others and perceived ability. Other statistical techniques utilized in the study include simple analysis of variance, the Tukey procedure, and Pearson's zero-order correlation. The bottom line of this research has been to enhance the understanding of socialization into and out of sport.

#### Summary of Findings

The findings which resulted lend support to past research which has studied sport participation. But there were some noteworthy findings. It does appear that there were some differences between the socialization experiences of males and females. When looking at the ANOVA results for family involvement by level of termination it appeared that family involvement was a better predictor of female sports participation. For males, the null hypothesis that means of family involvement are equal across all levels of termination was retained, while for females the hypothesis was rejected, meaning that more involvement by family members may result in more involvement for female subjects. Also, the zero order correlation between family sports involvement and level of termination was significantly stronger for females ( $r = .30$ ); the male correlation was only .17.

Another difference between males and females appeared to be the influence of aversive socialization experiences. For males the difference across levels of termination was

significant at the .05 level, while a test of the hypothesis on the female sample resulted in no significant differences. The correlations between the aversive socialization variables (AVSK8, AVSHS) and level of participation was also much stronger for males. The correlation between aversive socialization while in grades K-8 was  $-.26$  for males, while it was only  $-.06$  for females. This indicates that males may be more likely to terminate because of aversive socialization experiences.

Another difference between the findings for males and females was the means associated with each variable. The means for each variable were consistently higher for males. Although these differences may not be statistically significant (no tests were performed to identify whether the differences were significant) the findings may represent some qualitative difference in the experiences of males and females, with regard to socialization into sport or termination of sport participation. For example, males may actually receive more encouragement to participate in sports than do females. And also may have a higher level of perceived ability.

Path analysis of the complex model; for total sample, males, and females, revealeds three indirect paths which may be the most useful for explaining the original zero order correlation between family sports involvement and level of termination. These indirect paths also supported past research which suggests that sport participation or

termination is a function of family involvement, encouragement from others, and perceived ability.

FSI-->ENCK8-->ENCHS-->PABHS-->LTP

FSI-->ENCK8-->ENCHS-->LTP

FSI-->ENCK8-->PABK8-->PABHS-->LTP

Figure 10. Substantial Indirect Paths

Also when viewing the tests of the total model, for males and females, it appeared that the model may be better for explaining female sport participation or termination. The seven socialization variables in the complex model for females combined to explain 52% of the variation in level of termination, while the same model for males explained somewhat less of the variation (46%).

Another interesting finding was the explanatory power the model retained even after dropping the aversive socialization variables. In this "parsimonious" model 51% of the variation in LTP was explained for females, and 46% for males--neither a significant drop off from the complex model. This indicates that perhaps aversive socialization, as measured in this study, is not important in predicting level of termination. In the "simple" model where one more variable (perceived ability while in grades K-8) was dropped

from the model, 45% of the variation was still explained for males, and 51% for females.

Although the aversive socialization variables do not contribute to the explanatory power of the theoretical models there remain some interesting findings associated with these variables. One of these findings is the curvilinear relationship represented in the tables of means. While the other variables show a linear increase in means across level of termination, the aversive socialization variables, for males, increase from level one through level 3, but decrease from level 3 to level 4 and then increase from level 4 to level 5. For females the means for the aversive socialization variables peak at either level 2 or level three and decrease throughout the remainder of the levels.

In the remainder of the paper these findings will be discussed, and suggestions will be made for future research on this topic.

#### Interpretation

As previously mentioned the findings from this research lend support to past research which has suggested that sport participation or termination is a function of interaction with others. More specifically it supports the idea that sport participation or termination is a function of perceived athletic ability, and perceived athletic ability is a function of encouragement from others.

It was noted in the findings that family involvement seemed much more important for predicting female involvement in sports. This finding could be attributed to females having a closer bond to family members than males. This is consistent with the conclusions of McElroy (1983) and others who claim that females are more likely to be influenced by the family, while the peer group has a greater influence on male involvement in sports.

Another possible explanation of this finding could lie in the larger society, and society's overall acceptance of women in sports. Society now accepts women in sports, at least much more so than it has in the past. This acceptance may result in family members encouraging their daughters and sisters to participate in sports. The family may be responding to the informal norms and values of the larger society by transmitting these informal norms and values to their daughter's and sister's.

This relationship between family involvement and female sport involvement may also be due to females needing an extra push to become involved in athletics. Males have sports stars, other sports related media figures, and a structure of informal norms at the macro level to encourage them to participate and maintain participation in sports--an athletic father or mother may not be as necessary for them to become involved in sports or to maintain participation. Whereas the only influence, and perhaps the most important, females may have is a father, mother, sister, or brother who



participated in sports and encourage them to do likewise. It should be pointed out that the zero-order correlation between family sports involvement and encouragement from others while in grades K-8 is substantially stronger for females ( $r = .45$ ) than for males ( $r = .27$ ) indicating that female athletes may be receiving more encouragement from family members than males.

Female sports are not the media event which male sports are. Rarely do we see womens' basketball or softball on television, and females do not have the sports role models which males have--a Florence Griffith Joyner only comes along every few years. It could be argued that Steffi Graf is a female role model whose name is constantly in the News, but compare her exposure to that received by a Joe Montana, Michael Jordan, or Will Clark. Womens' sports are also still looked upon as minor league compared to mens' sports, again suggesting that potential female athletes may need greater encouragement from family members in order for sports involvement to be rewarding for them.

Another major difference between males and females seems to be the effect of aversive socialization experiences on peoples' decision to maintain participation in sports. For males the findings indicate that there may be a greater likelihood that males rather than females will terminate participation in sports because of some aversive socialization experience. This is interesting because overall males compared to females, are more likely to

maintain participation as long as they are eligible. In the sample of males obtained in this study 59% maintained their participation in sport through the highest level (still participating in college), while only 27% of the female sample maintained their participation in college.

The relationship between aversive socialization experiences and female level of termination could be due to females terminating for reasons other than aversive socialization experiences. Another portion of the survey instrument, not mentioned in the methods section, was two open-ended questions asking subjects why they did or did not continue to participate in sports. A casual glance at these responses reveal that females are much more likely to say they quit sports because of academics, band, or some other extracurricular activity.

For females, all of these responses are acceptable motives for terminating sports participation. Because females for the most part are not expected to participate in sports. Our society is much more likely to approve of a female who does not participate in sports, than a male who does not participate in sports. For this reason females may have an easy exit from the world of competitive sports. But males are expected to participate in sports; band, academics, and FFA are often not acceptable reasons for not participating in sports. Males responses to the open ended questions normally eluded to factors beyond their control as reasons for the termination; i.e. "I had to work, my family

needed the money," or "I had a bad knee, the doctor would not let me." Another class of motives given by the terminator involved aversive socialization experiences, "the coach was a jerk," or "only the rich kids get to play."

Pressure to compete in athletics may be placed on males by the values and informal norms of our society as transmitted to them by significant others and by the media. In a sense males in the U.S. may have only one alternative for extracurricular activity--sports. Perhaps because of this pressure there are males who participate in sports long beyond the point they really want to, and some sort of serious (as perceived by the athlete) aversive situation must occur before they will terminate involvement. In the case of female participation, they may need extra encouragement from the family to overcome societal forces inhibiting their sport participation. Perhaps males need an extra push, in the form of an aversive socialization experience, to overcome the societal pressures which "trap" them in an athletic role.

The discussion above concerning why people quit sports leads to the alternative question: Why do people continue to participate in sports? For males there is the obvious social pressure to participate, as transmitted to them by peers, family, coaches, and the larger society as a whole. For females it is not that simple; there are other factors perhaps more important. The findings of this research indicate that perceived athletic ability may also play a

major role in sport participation and the maintenance of this participation for both males and females. If people define themselves as an athlete with the potential to excel in athletics, they are more likely to maintain that participation. It could be argued that even the athlete who encounters many aversive socialization experiences, perhaps even serious injury, will maintain participation in sports if they perceive themselves to have above average athletic ability.

But as stated in the opening paragraph of this chapter many sociologists view sport participation as a product of social experience. So what social forces result in the formation of the psychological construct of perceived ability? The findings from this research indicate that perceived ability may be the result of encouragement from others. The zero-order correlations and the path coefficients between the encouragement variables at both levels (ENCK8, ENCHS) and the perceived ability variables at both levels (PABK8, PABHS) are very strong, positive relationships (the negative path coefficients between ENCK8 and PABHS is due to multicollinearity present among the variables in the path model). These relationships lend support to the claim that perceived ability is the result of encouragement from others. But these relationships do not necessarily mean that a causal relationship exists between the two sets of variables.

One issue which has not been addressed is the relative

explanatory power of the female vs. male models of sport participation or termination. As indicated in the findings summary the theoretical model appears to be a better predictor of female sports participation. This could be due to the relationship between the family involvement and level of termination for females. As noted above family involvement seems to have a greater influence on females than males. If this is the case the inclusion of this variable in the model would effect the overall explanatory power of the model. It may be advantageous, and perhaps even necessary, in future research to develop separate models for males and females, with separate variables. It is evident that there may be some substantive differences between male and female socialization into and out of sport, especially with regard to family involvement in sports.

#### Conclusions

This research has supported the findings of past research, and done so with a sample which obtains data from both participants and non-participants, males and females, and athletes of various skill levels. It appears that the level at which people terminate sport involvement is to some extent a function of perceived ability; and perceived ability, in turn, is function of encouragement from others. For females it also seems that family sports involvement is an important influence on their decision to participate in sports. For males, however, aversive socialization may be

an important factor effecting their decision.

One issue which was not addressed in this research to the extent which it should have been is theory. As stated in Chapter III much of the past research has used a linear theoretical approach which may not be appropriate for the study of socialization. Socialization is a complex phenomenon which needs to be addressed with a theoretical approach which acknowledges this complexity. Symbolic interaction may be just the theoretical approach which is needed, but the methodology used in this research did not fully exploit this theory's potential for analyzing reciprocal relationships among variables.

The relationships between perceived ability while in grades K-8 and perceived ability while in high school and the relationship between encouragement while in grades K-8 and encouragement while in high school gave some indication of the reciprocal nature of the socialization process. But these reciprocal relationships are not easily apparent. It is thought that future research in the area of socialization into sport should divorce itself from the one-shot case study approach.

I would contend that the best approach for studying the reciprocal relationships involved in the sport socialization process may be a longitudinal approach, or at least a study which involves fieldwork over a substantial period of time. This approach when triangulated with a quantitative approach allows the researcher to obtain both quantitative and

qualitative data from both the agents of socialization as well as the target of the socialization. Obtaining data from both the agent and target is important because the agent, his or her self, invariably becomes the target of socialization at some point in the target-agent relationship.

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APPENDIX

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

STUDENT ATTITUDE INVENTORY

YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THIS RESEARCH IS VOLUNTARY AND ALL RESPONSES WILL BE KEPT ANONYMOUS

- 1 SEX  
 1 Male  
 2 Female
- 2 RACE\ETHNICITY  
 1 Black  
 2 Hispanic  
 3 American Indian  
 4 White  
 5 Asian  
 6 Other \_\_\_\_\_
- 3 HOW MANY YOUNGER BROTHERS OR SISTERS DO YOU HAVE?  
 Brothers                 Sisters  
 1 none     1 none  
 2 one       2 one  
 3 two       3 two  
 4 three     4 three  
 5 four      5 four
- 4 HOW MANY OLDER BROTHERS OR SISTERS DO YOU HAVE?  
 brothers                 sisters  
 1 none     1 none  
 2 one       2 one  
 3 two       3 two  
 4 three     4 three  
 5 four      5 four
- 6 DATE OF BIRTH         -      -       
   mo    day    yr
- 7 WHAT IS YOUR PARENTS ANNUAL INCOME?  
 1 less than \$10,000  
 2 \$10,000 - \$19,999  
 3 \$20,000 - \$29,999  
 4 \$30,000 - \$49,999  
 5 \$50,000 - \$99,999  
 6 \$100,000 or more
- 8 WHAT IS THE POPULATION OF YOUR HOMETOWN  
 1 less than 2,500  
 2 2,500 - 24,999  
 3 25,000 - 99,999  
 4 100,000 or more
- 9 IN WHAT AREA OF EDUCATION ARE YOU INVOLVED?  
 1 Agriculture  
 2 Arts and Sciences  
 3 Business  
 4 Education  
 5 Engineering  
 6 Home Economics  
 7 Health, Physical Education, and Leisure  
 8 Other \_\_\_\_\_

PLEASE CIRCLE THE NUMBER WHICH YOU FEEL BEST REPRESENTS YOUR POSITION FROM NEVER TO VERY FREQUENTLY

- |    |   |           |                    |
|----|---|-----------|--------------------|
|    | NEVER   |           | VERY<br>FREQUENTLY |
|    |   | -----     |                    |
| 10 | When my father was in high school he participated in sports               | 1 2 3 4 5 |                    |
| 11 | My father currently participates in a sports or physical fitness activity | 1 2 3 4 5 |                    |

	NEVER				VERY FREQUENTLY	
12	When my mother was in high school she participated in sports	1	2	3	4	5
13	My mother currently participates in a sports or physical fitness activity	1	2	3	4	5
14	I have a brother who participates in sports	1	2	3	4	5
15	I have a brother who participated in sports	1	2	3	4	5
16	I have a sister who participates in sports	1	2	3	4	5
17	I have a sister who participated in sports	1	2	3	4	5

	STRONGLY DISAGREE				STRONGLY AGREE	
18	My father was a very good athlete	1	2	3	4	5
19	My mother was a very good athlete	1	2	3	4	5
20	I have a brother who is a very good athlete	1	2	3	4	5
21	I have a sister who is a very good athlete	1	2	3	4	5

ON THE FOLLOWING ITEMS PLEASE REFER TO YOUR EXPERIENCES WHILE IN GRADES KINDERGARTEN THROUGH EIGHTH

WHILE IN GRADES K-8

	STRONGLY DISAGREE				STRONGLY AGREE	
22	I thought that I was a good athlete	1	2	3	4	5
23	I believed that I could become a better athlete	1	2	3	4	5
24	My peers believed that I was a good athlete	1	2	3	4	5
25	My father encouraged me to participate in little league sports	1	2	3	4	5
26	My mother encouraged me to participate in little league sports	1	2	3	4	5
27	My father believed that it was important to attend sports events in which I was participating	1	2	3	4	5
28	My Mother believed that it was important to attend sports events in which I was participating	1	2	3	4	5
29	My father bought me sports equipment	1	2	3	4	5
30	My mother bought me sports equipment	1	2	3	4	5
31	My father told his friends about my athletic achievements	1	2	3	4	5
32	My mother told her friends about my athletic achievements	1	2	3	4	5

WHILE IN GRADES K-8
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	STRONGLY DISAGREE			STRONGLY AGREE	
	1	2	3	4	5
33 My father attempted to teach me proper sports techniques	1	2	3	4	5
34 My mother attempted to teach me proper sports techniques	1	2	3	4	5
35 My mother would have been disappointed if I did not participate in sports	1	2	3	4	5
36 My father would have been disappointed if I did not participate in sports	1	2	3	4	5
37 My father told me that I was a good athlete	1	2	3	4	5
38 My mother told me that I was a good athlete	1	2	3	4	5
39 My peers encouraged me to participate in little league sports	1	2	3	4	5
40 My peers would have been disappointed if I did not participate in sports	1	2	3	4	5
41 Coaches encouraged me to participate in sports	1	2	3	4	5
42 In physical education classes or in practice coaches showed much interest in me	1	2	3	4	5
43 My hometown was supportive of sports	1	2	3	4	5
44 My school was supportive of sports	1	2	3	4	5
45 Coaches made me do things I did not want to do	1	2	3	4	5
46 Coaches made fun of my athletic ability	1	2	3	4	5
47 My peers made fun of my athletic ability	1	2	3	4	5
48 I was treated badly by coaches because I was not a good athlete	1	2	3	4	5
49 I was treated badly by my peers because I was not a good athlete	1	2	3	4	5

ON THE FOLLOWING ITEMS PLEASE REFER TO YOUR EXPERIENCES WHILE IN HIGH SCHOOL (GRADES 9-12)

WHILE IN HIGH SCHOOL
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	STRONGLY DISAGREE			STRONGLY AGREE	
	1	2	3	4	5
50 I thought that I was a good athlete	1	2	3	4	5
51 I believed that I could become a better athlete	1	2	3	4	5
52 I was an important part of my High School varsity team	1	2	3	4	5
53 My peers believed that I was a good athlete	1	2	3	4	5



WHILE IN HIGH SCHOOL
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		STRONGLY DISAGREE			STRONGLY AGREE	
		1	2	3	4	5
54	My father encouraged me to participate in High School sports	1	2	3	4	5
55	My mother encouraged me to participate in High School sports	1	2	3	4	5
56	My father believed it was important to attend sports events in which I was participating	1	2	3	4	5
57	My mother believed it was important to attend sports events in which I was participating	1	2	3	4	5
58	My father told his friends about my athletic accomplishments	1	2	3	4	5
59	My mother told her friends about my athletic accomplishments	1	2	3	4	5
60	My father believed that sports achievement was more important than academic achievement	1	2	3	4	5
61	My mother believed that sports achievement was more important than academic achievement	1	2	3	4	5
62	My father would have been disappointed if I did not participate in sports	1	2	3	4	5
63	My mother would have been disappointed if I did not participate in sports	1	2	3	4	5
64	My father told me that I was a good athlete	1	2	3	4	5
65	My mother told me that I was a good athlete	1	2	3	4	5
66	My peers encouraged me to participate in high school sports	1	2	3	4	5
67	My peers believed that sports achievement was more important than academic achievement	1	2	3	4	5
68	My peers would have been disappointed if I did not participate in sports	1	2	3	4	5
69	Coaches encouraged me to participate in sports	1	2	3	4	5
70	In practice or physical education classes coaches showed much interest in me	1	2	3	4	5
71	Coaches would have been disappointed if I did not participate in sports	1	2	3	4	5
72	My hometown was supportive of sports	1	2	3	4	5
73	My school was supportive of sports	1	2	3	4	5
74	Coaches made me do things I did not want to do	1	2	3	4	5

WHILE IN HIGH SCHOOL
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	STRONGLY DISAGREE				STRONGLY AGREE
75 Coaches made fun of my athletic ability	1	2	3	4	5
76 I was treated badly by coaches because I was not a good athlete	1	2	3	4	5
77 My peers made fun of my athletic ability	1	2	3	4	5
78 I was treated badly by my peers because I was not a good athlete	1	2	3	4	5

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS WITH A YES OR NO RESPONSE  
(Organized sports will be defined as any team sport or individual sport which had a coach, or participated in a competitive league )

79 Have you ever participated in organized sports?

\_\_\_\_\_ 1 yes

\_\_\_\_\_ 2 no

80 While you were in grades K-8 did you participate in organized sports?

\_\_\_\_\_ 1 yes

\_\_\_\_\_ 2 no

81 While you were in high school did you participate in organized sports?

\_\_\_\_\_ 1 yes

\_\_\_\_\_ 2 no

If yes, did you continue to participate throughout your High School years?

\_\_\_\_\_ 1 yes

\_\_\_\_\_ 2 no

PLEASE CIRCLE THE NUMBER WHICH YOU FEEL BEST REPRESENTS YOUR POSITION FROM NEVER TO VERY FREQUENTLY

	NEVER				VERY FREQUENTLY
82 I participated in High School varsity sports	1	2	3	4	5
83 While in High School I participated in sports for fun and exercise	1	2	3	4	5
84 While in High School I participated in <u>team</u> sports which were not school sponsored (church league, American legion, city league, etc )	1	2	3	4	5
85 While in High School I participated in <u>individual</u> sports which were not school sponsored (Tennis, Swimming, etc )	1	2	3	4	5

	NEVER				VERY FREQUENTLY	
		1	2	3	4	5
86	In High School I enrolled in physical education classes which were not required for graduation	1	2	3	4	5
87	In college I participate in University varsity sports	1	2	3	4	5
88	In college I participate in intramural sports	1	2	3	4	5
89	While in college I participate in team sports that are in no way connected to the University (Church leagues, Industrial leagues, etc )	1	2	3	4	5
90	While in college I participate in individual sports (golf, racquet ball, etc ) for fun and exercise	1	2	3	4	5
91	In college I enroll in physical education classes which are not required for graduation	1	2	3	4	5
92	I watch sports on television	1	2	3	4	5
93	I attend live sports events	1	2	3	4	5

ON THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS PLEASE MARK THE OPTION WHICH BEST REPRESENTS THE NUMBER OF HOURS SPENT AS A PARTICIPANT IN A SPORTS OR PHYSICAL FITNESS ACTIVITY

- 94 In High School, how many hours per week did you spend involved in a sport or physical fitness activity?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1 none
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2 more than 0 but less than 1 hour
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3 1 to 3 hours
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4 3 to 6 hours
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5 more than 6 hours
- 95 While in College, how many hours per week do you spend involved in sports or physical fitness activities ? (not including required classes)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1 none
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2 more than 0 but less than 1 hour
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3 1 to 3 hours
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4 3 to 6 hours
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5 more than 6 hours
- 96 How many hours per week do you presently spend as a sports spectator?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1 none
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2 more than 0 but less than 1
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3 1 to 3 hours
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4 3 to 6 hours
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5 more than 6 hours

CIRCLE THE NUMBER WHICH YOU BELIEVE BEST DESCRIBES YOU WITH REGARD TO THE ADJECTIVE OPPOSITES

97	Masculine	1	2	3	4	5	Non-Masculine
98	Feminine	1	2	3	4	5	Non-Feminine
99	Competent	1	2	3	4	5	Incompetent
100	Success	1	2	3	4	5	Failure
101	Valuable	1	2	3	4	5	Worthless
102	Confident	1	2	3	4	5	Unconfident
103	Athletic	1	2	3	4	5	Non-athletic

PLEASE CIRCLE THE NUMBER WHICH YOU FEEL BEST REPRESENTS YOUR POSITION FROM STRONGLY DISAGREE TO STRONGLY AGREE

		STRONGLY DISAGREE			STRONGLY AGREE	
104	I feel that I have a number of good qualities	1	2	3	4	5
105	I am able to do things as well as most other people	1	2	3	4	5
106	I have a high opinion of myself	1	2	3	4	5
107	I wish that I could be different	1	2	3	4	5
108	Sports are not particularly important for the well being of society	1	2	3	4	5
109	If more people were involved in sports we would not have much trouble with drugs	1	2	3	4	5
110	Sports are valuable because they help youngsters become good citizens	1	2	3	4	5
111	The emphasis that sports places on competition causes more harm than good	1	2	3	4	5
112	Coaches place too much emphasis on winning	1	2	3	4	5
113	I dislike coaches	1	2	3	4	5
114	Sports are valuable because they teach youngsters respect for authority	1	2	3	4	5
115	Sports are valuable because they contribute to the development of patriotism	1	2	3	4	5
116	Sports are valuable because they teach youngsters self-discipline	1	2	3	4	5
117	Sports are valuable because they provide an opportunity for individuals to get ahead in the world	1	2	3	4	5
118	Sports are a good way for me to relax	1	2	3	4	5
119	For me, sports are pretty much a waste of time	1	2	3	4	5

- |     |  | STRONGLY<br>DISAGREE |   |   | STRONGLY<br>AGREE |   |
|-----|--|----------------------|---|---|-------------------|---|
| 120 | Sports promote the development of fair play  | 1                    | 2 | 3 | 4                 | 5 |
| 121 | Sports participation is a way of getting together with friends and having a good time  | 1                    | 2 | 3 | 4                 | 5 |
| 122 | Sports are part of a well-rounded person   | 1                    | 2 | 3 | 4                 | 5 |
| 123 | Sports are a source of little or no satisfaction in my life  | 1                    | 2 | 3 | 4                 | 5 |
| 124 | Sports help me to get away from the worries and pressures of the day   | 1                    | 2 | 3 | 4                 | 5 |
| 125 | Please describe the reasons why you continued to participate in high school sports <u>or</u> why you terminated your participation in high school sports |                      |   |   |                   |   |

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- 126 If you did not participate in high school sports, please describe the reasons why you did not

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THANK YOU FOR  
YOUR HELP

VITA <sup>2</sup>

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