To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Susan Marie Cevasco entitled "Intrinsic Motivation in Adolescent Male Athletes: The Perceived Effects of a Win at all Costs Attitude." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Human Performance and Sport Studies.

Patricia A. Beitel
Dr. Patricia A. Beitel, Major Professor

We have read this thesis
and recommend its acceptance:

Dennie Kelley
Dr. Dennie Kelley

Ralph Jones
Dr. Ralph Jones

Accepted for the Council:

Associate Vice Chancellor and
Dean of The Graduate School

INTRINSIC MOTIVATION IN ADOLESCENT MALE ATHLETES: THE PERCEIVED EFFECTS OF A "WIN AT ALL COST" ATTITUDE

A Thesis
Presented for the
Master of Science
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Susan Marie Cevasco
August 1998

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my appreciation to the members of my committee for all of their assistance and guidance. I would like to thank all of my past coaches who made my athletic experiences positive and beneficial.

I would also like to thank and dedicate this thesis to my family and friends whose unending support and encouragement are what made this all possible for me.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine if the "win at all cost" attitude was detrimental to adolescent male athletes' perceptions of their sport experiences when used by their coaches as the leadership style. There were 47 male athletes in this study who ranged in age from ten to thirteen years from a town located in central New Jersey. The athletes were required to have participated in at least one organized sport for no less than one season. Sixteen athletes had personal experiences with win at all cost coaches and thirty-one of them did not.

The survey consisted of 25 Likert scale questions and one short answer question. The same analysis was used to obtain the results for every survey question, i.e., frequency of responses reported in percentages. Crosstabs were also calculated for each survey question based on those who had win at all costs (WAAC) coaches and those who did not.

The conclusion was drawn that the use of the win at all cost attitude by a coach has either a detrimental effect or no effect, but definitely does not have a positive effect on a young athlete's perception of his sport experience. No athlete wanted to endure the experiences associated with this coaching style, whether they already had or not. Those who had experienced it wanted it to stop, and those who had not experienced this attitude wanted to avoid it.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
1.	INTRODUCTION	1
	Statement of Purpose	4
	Definitions of Terms	5
	Assumptions	6
	Scope of the Study	6
	Significance of the Study	7
2.	REVIEW OF LITERATURE	8
	Athlete Motivation	9
	Leadership Behaviors	24
3.	METHODS	41
	Description of Subjects/Entities	41
	Rationale	42
	Overview of Scheduling	44
4.	RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	46
	Demographics	47
	Research Question 1 - What motivates a young male athlete?	47
	Research Question 2 - What inspires young male athletes to want to win?	52
	Research Question 3 - What influence or affect do coaches, parents, and significant others have on an athlete's motivation?	56
	Research Question 4 - What affects do positive, negative, or no feedback have on an athlete's motivation?	64
	Research Question 5 - Is an athlete's motivation dependent upon the type of leadership style his coach uses?	76
5.	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS	88
	Summary	88
	Conclusions	92
	Implications	93
REFERENCES		95
APPENDIXES		98
	Appendix A. Letter to the Ministers	99
	Appendix B. Parental Consent Form	100
	Appendix C. Athlete Informed Consent	101
	Appendix D. Survey	102
VITA		104

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE PAGE

1. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when parents yell at them after making a mistake 48

2. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning receiving encouragement after a mistake is made 50

3. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes liking the way the coach runs the team 51

4. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning the coach listening to what the players think 54

5. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes getting themselves mentally prepared before a game 55

6. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning if the coach should yell when the team loses 57

7. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when parents or friends came to watch 59

8. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when team loses 60

9. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when given a pep-talk before a game 61

10. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether players should help the coach make the decisions 63

FIGURE PAGE

11. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when they lose and coach says it is OK 66

12. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when coach compliments a good play 67

13. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when coach yells after making a mistake 68

14. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether athletes would treat players same as coach does if they were in charge 70

15. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes getting really excited before a game 71

16. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether parents and friends watching affects athletes' play 73

17. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning something nice being said after a good play 74

18. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether coach would get mad if the athletes made a suggestion 75

19. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when they lose and parents say it is OK 77

20. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when people said nice things after a good play 79

FIGURE PAGE

21. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings about the way coach runs team 80

22. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether it cheers the athletes up when someone says something nice after making a mistake 82

23. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether athletes' are proud of themselves when team wins 83

24. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether it is right to yell at someone if they make a mistake 85

25. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether athletes were still proud of themselves when team loses 86

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Adolescence is a very impressionable time in a person's life. The experiences that happen during these years usually affect the opinions, performances, ideas, and assumptions that a person holds and develops well into adulthood. This is true for adolescent athletes also. Therefore, it is important to pay close attention to how our children are taught and coached during these vulnerable ages. That is why it is important to know if the "win at all cost" attitude has an affect on their motivation. A person's ability to create his/her own motivation is essential in life. Parents want to know if their young athletes can be affected by exposure to an overly competitive environment before it is too late, so they can do something to avoid it.

Many studies have been conducted on the related topics of motivation and leadership of athletes, which lead to the need for this study. When a comparison is made among some of the past studies, several similar conclusions are found. One is that adult female athletes tend to have higher levels of motivation than males. A couple of studies (Fortier, Vallerand, Briere, & Provencher, 1995; Henschen, Edwards, & Mathinos, 1982) conclude that college and high school female athletes have more intrinsic motivation to accomplish things than male athletes and greater achievement motivation than

nonathletic females. So there is something inside the female athlete that gives them strong driving power. More research should be done to explore the male perspective of motivation since most of these types of studies find information about the female perspective. Another conclusion that is made more than once is that competitive athletes tend to have less intrinsic motivation. Their motivation is mostly external coming from focusing on winning and receiving material rewards (Robinson & Carron, 1982; Fortier, Vallerand, Briere, & Provencher, 1995). It is also common to see that positive feedback has an affect on athletes. It tends to increase intrinsic motivation and in turn makes athletes want to remain on their teams (Robinson & Carron, 1982; Vallerand, 1983). A few similar conclusions about attributes are made. It is found that attributes, positive or negative, have a serious affect on motivation (Leith, 1989; Vallerand, 1983). The conclusion that athletes' perceptions of their coaches and the coaches' self-perceptions differ from each other is reached by several groups of researchers (Bird, 1977; Serpa, Pataco, & Santos, 1991; Salminen & Liukkonen, 1996). A final common conclusion is that, for the most part, emotional and empathetic coaches are preferred by athletes, and in turn increase the possibility of greater success for the athletes (Bird, 1977; Black & Weiss, 1992). From all of the common conclusions about motivation and leadership behavior, one

can assume that the two topics are closely related.

In contrast with the common conclusions, only a couple of contradicting conclusions occur in the comparison of these same articles, and they are among the leadership studies. One set of conflicting conclusions deals with different perceptions of coaches and athletes on leadership behavior. As stated in the previous paragraph, Bird (1977) as well as Black and Weiss (1992) conclude that the athletes' and coaches' views on the perception of the coach and coaching style greatly differ. However, Salminen and Liukkonen (1996) concluded that female coaches and coaches of individual sports, such as track and field and gymnastics, have a more realistic view of themselves and their perceptions are not different from the perceptions of the athletes.

The other set of conflicting conclusions had to do with preferred leadership behavior. Most studies indicated that athletes prefer democratic behavior (a relationship or people oriented behavior). However, Serpa, Pataco, and Santos (1991), as well as Black and Weiss (1992) concluded that training and instruction (a task-oriented behavior) is greatly preferred among experienced athletes. Even with all the research that has been done, definite circumstances have still not been identified to explain an athlete's preference of coaching style.

Quite a few open ended questions like this one are left

unanswered by the studies in the review. One unanswered speculation is whether or not positive feedback affects adult or professional athletes as it does the younger athletes (Vallerand, 1983). A second question concerns whether athletes' self-determination plays a mediating role between competition and motivation (Fortier, Vallerand, Briere, & Provencher, 1995). As for the leadership section of the review, there is also a question left unanswered. It is how leadership behaviors, and in turn athletic satisfaction with the leader's behavior, affect the actual performance (Chelladurai, 1984). These are all relevant questions that should be investigated by future researchers.

Athletes' motivation, in some ways, may link to the type of leadership to which they are exposed. Coaches' and parents' attitudes may make the difference between a positive or negative sport experience for the adolescent athlete. Therefore, it is important for coaches to be aware of the leadership style that is best used with young athletes. The coaches' leadership and the athletes' motivation are closely related, this study will provide evidence on how directly related the relationship is and what affects it has on the adolescent athletes' experiences.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study is to determine if the "win at all cost" attitude is detrimental to adolescent male athletes' perceptions of their experiences when used by

their coaches as the leadership style. Some underlying questions that this study includes are:

1. What motivates a young male athlete?
2. What inspires young male athletes to want to win?
3. What influence or effect do coaches, parents, and significant others have on an adolescent male athlete's motivation?
4. What effects do positive, negative, or no feedback have on an adolescent male athlete's motivation?
5. Is an adolescent athlete's motivation dependent upon the type of leadership style his/her coach uses?

Definitions of Terms

Adolescent: a person during the time of life between puberty and maturity; a youth or juvenile.

Affect: to have the power to cause results; to evoke a strong mental or emotional response from; to have an impact on, to impress, or to inspire.

Athlete: someone who takes part in a formalized, organized, competitive sport that involves action, coaching, and a formal competitive schedule.

Detrimental: damaging, harmful.

Feedback: a response; informal criticism given in response to something.

Influence: power to affect or stir emotions in others; have an impact on; sway someone's opinion or view.

Leadership style: different processes of inspiring or

influencing people to perform a task competently and enthusiastically; examples are autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, training and instruction.

Motivation: to provide with or affect as an inner drive or impulse; cause encouragement.

Intrinsic motivation: motivation coming from within an individual.

Assumptions

There are a few assumptions that must be made in order to make this study possible. The most pressing assumption is that all of the subjects in this study answered the survey questions honestly. Since the sample was taken from one geographic area, another assumption was that one can generalize the results for athletes in other locations. Also dealing with the sample was the assumption that the athletes of this age and location have had varied coaching experiences from one another.

Scope of the Study

The actual number of subjects in the study depended on how many students volunteered. The goal was to have forty to sixty athletes participate in the study. The sample as a whole was from the same geographic area. The subjects were males from a town in the central New Jersey area, ages 10-13. The sample consisted of athletes from various sports. However, they preferably played team sports as opposed to individual sports. Each subject received the same survey to

complete. The survey was designed to examine the motivations, inspirations, and influences of adolescent male athletes. Overall, the results could only extend as far as the adolescents are in touch with their feelings and understand the different possible scenarios.

Significance of the Study

In general, the people who benefit the most from a study like this one are the young athletes of the future. If this study finds that an overly competitive environment has a negative affect on male athletes' sport experiences, then this knowledge can help such situations to be avoided in the future. Athletic experiences should be positive and should build character. However, it is not only up to the athlete to make this happen. The quality of an athletic experience greatly rests on the shoulders of the coaches, leaders, and teachers of the athletes. Hopefully the conclusion of this study causes an increase in the number of positive youth sport experiences, which in turn, can lead to more positive life experiences.

This study also has a significant impact on the sport managers and administrators of youth leagues. These are the people who need to observe the coaching styles within their leagues and ensure that positive methods are used with the athletes.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this literature review is to determine to what degree the leadership of athletes and their motivation are related to each other. The leadership behavior of a coach has certain effects on an athlete, and some of these influences overlap with the causes of the motivation and demotivation of athletes. Another purpose of this review is to exhibit many of the studies that have been done on the leadership of athletes and many have also been done about the motivation of athletes, but more studies need to be done on directly linking the two together. The connection between leadership and motivation is implied when both topics are studied, however, hard evidence of this should also be produced on paper.

This review includes only refereed journal articles from the 1980's and 1990's. There is, however, one article from 1977 by Bird, but it is a classic whose implications can still be used in the 1990's. In general, the articles are from the early 1980's and all of the 1990's to date. There is approximately an even split in the number of articles from the two decades. The review covers these articles in chronological order within two categories, athlete motivation and leadership behaviors. Each category includes one review article and five research articles. Then the commonalities and conflicts of these articles are

reviewed in the summary portion of the paper.

Athlete Motivation

Review Article

Leith (1989), University of Toronto, reviewed previous research relevant to causal attribution and the motivation that follows in sport and then analyzed this research to define the actions that the coach/practitioner should take. The article examined seven different synopses: (a) egocentricity, (b) affect, (c) past experience, (d) expectancy, (e) sex differences, (f) age differences, and (g) the nature of the sport task. This research also took into consideration the fact that an athlete tries to understand the reasons for his/her successful and failed performances.

The first synopsis Leith (1989) covered is egocentricity and causal attributions, which indicated that athletes tend to attribute successful outcomes to personal (internal) factors and blame unsuccessful outcomes on environmental (external) factors. Three implications made for the coach/practitioner were to encourage the athlete to continue to train hard despite whatever the outcome, to help the athlete attribute the outcome to factors that he/she has control over, and to teach the athlete to use the oppenent's egocentric nature to his/her own advantage.

The second synopsis Leith (1989) discussed was affect and causal attributions. It stated that the prime/shame and

satisfaction/dissatisfaction that an athlete feels are directly related to whether the athlete attributes internal or external factors for the outcome. Two implications were made, to teach the athlete that the effort made to win is more important than winning itself, and to avoid blaming luck or poor officiating for a loss to the athlete.

Leith (1989) then examined the synopsis of past experience and causal attributions. This explained that an athlete's past experiences influence to what he/she attributes present outcomes. The implication made for the coach was to be aware of possible learned helplessness in an athlete and to always focus on the internal attributes.

Leith's (1989) fourth synopsis was expectancy and causal attributions. The principle suggested that an athlete who attributes a positive outcome to stable factors has a greater expectancy for future success, but when stable factors are attributed to a negative outcome the athlete tends to have a lower expectancy for future success. Three different actions suggested that the coach take were to clearly communicate the message that failure can be avoided through effort, to help the athlete/team define success in realistic terms, and to keep the athlete focused on task-related factors instead of custom-made excuses.

The fifth synopsis Leith (1989) presented concerned sex differences and causal attributions. Females' attributions are different as they tend to have lower expectations for

success than males. It was recommended that a coach teach attributional retraining to these females. Females should be taught to emphasize effort and ability and pay less attention to luck and task difficulty.

The next synopsis Leith (1989) presented was the relationship of age and causal attributions. The attribution process changes with age. It is not until about the age of twelve that children realize that ability plays such a large role in the outcomes of their performances. Three implications made for the coach were to emphasize skill and technique learning to a young athlete, to avoid any attributional training before the age of twelve, and to show a young athlete that he/she can be expected to do well and have success due to participation.

Leith's (1989) final synopsis was the nature of sport task and causal attribution. The relationship between outcomes and attributions vary with sport task. For example in strength and fitness related activities, unsuccessful outcomes are attributed to lack of ability. The implication made was to push for more effort in training to convince the athlete that his/her ability will improve.

A general conclusion made by Leith (1989) was that the social involvement in perceiving the reasons behind winning or losing can lead to attributions that are either helpful or harmful to an athlete's motivation. The coach needs to know each athlete on an individual basis and fully

understand the attributional process in order to use causal attributions as motivators and not demotivators.

Research Articles

Henschen, Edwards, and Mathinos (1982) conducted a study to investigate the differences between female high school track and field athletes and nonathletes on their achievement motivation and sex-role orientation. They hypothesized that there would not be any significant differences.

Henschen, Edwards, and Mathinos (1982) randomly selected six high schools from the three major districts in and around Salt Lake City, Utah. Only five high schools consented. There were 67 female high school track and field athletes selected from the team and 67 nonathletes selected from required physical education classes.

Henschen, Edwards, and Mathinos (1982) conducted this study using quantitative research. Results indicated that achievement motivation and sex-role orientation (dependent variables) were effected by whether the subject was an athlete or nonathlete (independent variables). A 2 x 4 analysis of variance was calculated in order to evaluate the differences in achievement motivation (athletes and nonathletes) and four groups that represented sex-role orientation (masculine, feminine, androgenous, and undifferentiated).

Henschen, Edwards, and Mathinos (1982) gave each of the

subjects the same two questionnaires. One was the Bem Sex-role Inventory, which evaluated the sex-role orientation. The other was the Mehrabian Scale of Achieving Tendency, which indicated the achievement motivation. The 2 x 4 analysis of variance and discriminant analysis were conducted to evaluate the data.

Henschen, Edwards, and Mathinos' (1982) results showed that sex-role orientation and athletic status were independent of each other ($p > .05$). There was a significant difference between the achievement motivation of athletes and nonathletes ($p < .01$), which showed that the athletes had a higher level.

Overall, Henschen, Edwards, and Mathinos (1982) concluded that the female athletes had greater achievement motivation than the nonathletic females. This could be attributed to the fact that track and field provides an environment where one needs to achieve. The fact that the environment has no males in it could also add to the higher level of motivation. Further research should be done to see if track and field appeals to women of differing sex-role orientations because it was unclear why there were no uniquely masculine or feminine or androgynous females.

Robinson and Carron (1982) conducted a study to discover the motivational and situational factors that effect an athlete's decision to either continue to participate on a sport team or drop out. The subjects for

this study were categorized as starters, survivors, and dropouts. A starter was an athlete who consistently participated, a survivor was an athlete who was on the team but did not really play in games, and a dropout was a person who withdrew from the team.

Robinson and Carron's (1982) sample was composed of 98 high school football players who were put into one of the three categories. The breakdown worked out to be 33 starers, 39 survivors, and 26 dropouts. The dropouts left the team on their own volition after preseason practice had started.

Robinson and Carron (1982) examined how personal factors and situational factors differed among the starters, survivors, and dropouts. The personal and situational factors were subdivided into the general categories of trait factors, socialization factors, attitudes toward sport, sportsmanship and communication factors, group cohesion factors, and leadership factors. A three-staged, multiple discriminant function analysis was used in examining the data.

Robinson and Carron (1982) used several questionnaires in this study to collect the data. The coaches of the teams supplied the names of athletes who would fit into the three categories (starters, survivors, and dropouts). The same questionnaires were given to all of the athletes. The Sport Competition Anxiety Test was used to measure competitive

trait anxiety. A slightly modified version of the Lynn Scale was used for achievement motivation. Self-motivation of the subjects was determined with the Self-Motivation Inventory. A modified version of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory was used to asses the subjects' self-esteem. The five point Likert scale was used to determine the attributes made by the subjects about their sports success. Selected questions from the Gould and Martens Youth Opinion Questionnaire were used to determine how the athletes viewed their coaches' attitudes about competitive sport. The Leadership Scale for Sports was used to discover preferences of coaching behaviors. And finally, Robinson and Carron (1982) used a slightly modified version of the Sport Cohesiveness Questionnaire to measure perceived group cohesion.

Robinson and Carron's (1982) significant results were in the form of standardized discriminant function coefficients, which were determined in the third phase of the multiple discriminant function analysis. The three measures of group cohesion were among the most heavily weighted variables. Sense of belonging (-.508) and enjoyment derived (-.425) indicated the level of involvement the subject felt within the team. The importance of these factors explained why people who feel a weak involvement dropout. The third cohesion measure, team closeness (.515), evaluated the level of closeness felt

within the team as a whole. In this case, however, the dropouts tended to perceive the team as closer than the starters and survivors. The two other factors that were significant in discriminating among the three groups were the opinion that beating the opposition was most important (.490) and the idea that participation improves physical fitness (-.307).

Robinson and Carron (1982) concluded that people tend to drop off of a team if they are not given positive feedback, appreciated, or recognized. Another reason participants dropped out was due to the excessive desire to win that has been brought out in competitive sports. This attitude limits the enjoyment an athlete can get from the experience, and unhappy participants tend to dropout. Robinson and Carron (1982) were uncertain about whether the findings could be generalized for females, different age groups, and different sports activities. However, due to the nature of the discriminating variables that were used, they felt the results were generalizable. Although, further research should be done to prove or disprove this opinion.

Vallerand (1983) conducted a study to evaluate the relationship between the amount of positive verbal feedback given and the resulting intrinsic motivation of male hockey players relating to a hockey-relevant task. This study was conducted in a way that the results could be generalized for all sports.

Vallerand's (1983) sample was composed of 50 French-speaking male elite hockey players. The age range was 13 to 16 years. The athletes were randomly assigned to one of five situations; they received either no verbal feedback ,or verbal feedback after every four trials (PF6), two trials (PF12), two successive trials but not on the third (PF18), or every trial (PF24).

Vallerand's (1983) purpose was to determine how intrinsic motivation and feelings of competence (dependent variables) were effected by the different amounts of positive verbal feedback (independent variables). One-way analyses were performed to evaluate the data.

Vallerand (1983) used a task and two questionnaires to collect the data. The task consisted of 24 slides showing a hockey player holding a puck in different situations. The subjects would verbally choose to shoot, pass, or skate. This task assessed the athlete's decision-making ability. One of the questionnaires used was the Mayo Task Reaction Questionnaire (TRQ). It indicated the level of intrinsic motivation. The second questionnaire was made up of three questions scored on a 7-point scale. The questions evaluated the athlete's feelings of competence, perceptions of the truthfulness of Vallerand's feedback, and degree of involvement in the task. Subjects in the control group were told not to talk to Vallerand, while the others were told Vallerand would act as a coach and tell them how they were

doing. So subjects in the control group were not told anything during the experiment, while the others were provided with positive feedback depending on their grouping (PF6, 12, 18, or 24).

Vallerand's (1983) results indicated that the positive verbal feedback significantly effected the level of intrinsic motivation; the one-way analysis indicated a main effect for feedback ($p < .001$). The positive feedback also greatly effected the athlete's feelings of competence ($p < .002$). However, no difference existed among the four groups of feedback receivers for either variable. And the correlation done between the two measures of intrinsic motivation and feelings of competence showed they had an effect on each other ($p < .001$).

Overall, Vallerand (1983) concluded that positive feedback increased the athlete's intrinsic motivation and feelings of competence, no matter what the amount of feedback was. The effect of positive feedback could rely on the quality and not the quantity of the messages. Further research should be done to test if these conclusions hold true for athletes of different ages, sexes, and levels of ability.

Ryan (1989) conducted a study to examine the effect that athletic participation had on a student's satisfaction with college, motivation to finish the bachelor's degree, interpersonal skills, and leadership ability. The study

also included a test of a hypothesis that the effects of participation in intercollegiate sports were positive, negative, or neutral.

Ryan's (1989) sample was composed of a portion (192,248) of the college freshman population in the fall of 1981. The group was surveyed by the Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP). The CIRP then administered Student Information Forms (SIFs) randomly to a number of the students (11,862) through participating institutions. The participating institutions (368) were composed of two and four year colleges and universities, both public and private.

Satisfaction, motivation to earn a college degree, interpersonal skills, and leadership skills were each measured on a five point Likert scale (Ryan 1989). Multiple regression analyses were done for each dependent variable. Fifty independent variables categorized under student characteristics, institutional characteristics, in-college experiences, and demographics were used as predictors to help analyze the data. However, the participation in athletics was the focus of this study.

Ryan (1989) had the CIRP give surveys in the fall of 1981. The data were then compiled, summarized, reported, and entered into computer files. Four years later a Follow-Up Survey (FUS) was mailed out to each student who had filled out the questionnaire as a freshman. The response

rate of the Follow-Up Survey was about 32% (3,800) of the original sample. About 31% (1,150) of the FUS respondents had participated in intercollegiate athletics. The data used in this study were taken from the conclusion of the 1985 FUS.

Ryan's (1989) results indicated that the motivation to earn a college degree turned out to have a great deal to do with a student's major. Therefore, students who have an undeclared major tend not to be as motivated to complete their degree. Participation in athletics had a slightly significant effect on student motivation ($p < .05$). It seemed that athletic participation filled the gap as a motivator for an undeclared major. Interpersonal and leadership skills were positively effected by the participation in sports ($p < .001$). Both skills were well developed due to some of the goals of athletics (development of confidence, cooperation, and independent thinking). And finally, participation in athletics also had a significantly positive effect on a student's satisfaction with college ($p < .001$). This was accredited to the fact that athletes have more contact with a variety of school personnel and students, they spend more time on campus, and athletics can provide them with a positive balance between physical and mental exertion.

Ryan (1989) concluded that participation in intercollegiate athletics had an effect on a high level of

satisfaction with college, motivation to earn a degree, and the development of interpersonal and leadership skills. The results were modest when compared to all the other factors that can effect a student's experiences, however, the students have benefitted from sports. Future research could be done on the effects of sport type, scholarship status, competitive level, or revenue earning of the sport within the grouping of sport participation. It was also suggested that more environmental variables are studied to see if the positive effects from sport participation could be reproduced through participation in other college activities.

Fortier, Vallerand, Briere, and Provencher (1995) conducted a study to examine the relationships between competitive and recreational sports and intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation. The hypothesis made in relation to this was that competitive athletes experience less intrinsic motivation than recreational athletes. A second purpose of this study was to evaluate gender differences in athletes' motivational structure. The hypothesis made in respect to this was that female athletes would show more self-determined motivation than male athletes.

Fortier, Vallerand, Briere, and Provencher's (1995) sample included a total of 399 French-Canadian athletes from two Montreal Junior Colleges. The breakdown was 220 competitive intercollegiate athletes (146 males and 74

females) and 179 recreational intramural athletes (77 males 102 females). The average age of the athletes was 19, and they had between one and eighteen years of sport experience. The athletes participated in badminton, basketball, volleyball, and soccer.

Fortier, Vallerand, Briere, and Provencher (1995) conducted the study using quantitative research. It showed how certain motivation, intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation were effected by gender and sport structure, recreational and competitive. A 2 (sports structure) x 2 (gender) x 7 (type of motivation) analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to evaluate the data. The number of years of sport experience was used as a covariate. And the repeated measures were performed on the motivation variable.

Fortier, Vallerand, Briere, and Provencher (1995) used the same procedure for all of the subjects. Each athlete was administered a questionnaire in a group setting before his/her scheduled activity time (before scheduled practices for competitive athletes and before free gym time for recreational athletes). The questionnaire took around 15 minutes to complete. It was the French version of the Sport Motivation Scale. This questionnaire included seven motivational subscales; three for intrinsic, three for extrinsic, and one for amotivation.

Fortier, Vallerand, Briere, and Provencher's (1995) results showed a significant interaction between the sport

structure and motivational type (p = .001). Four of the motivational subscales exhibited significant differences (p < .05) between competitive and recreational sports. Competitive athletes displayed less intrinsic motivation and more identified regulation and amotivation. A significant interaction was also found between gender and motivational type (p = .001). Four of the motivational subscales again showed significant differences (p < .05). Female athletes had higher levels of intrinsic motivation but lower levels of external regulation and amotivation. There was, however, no significant interaction between gender and sport structure.

Overall, the data supported the two hypotheses. Fortier, Vallerand, Briere, and Provencher (1995) concluded that competitive athletes showed less intrinsic motivation to accomplish things and less intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation than recreational athletes. This was probably due to competitive sports focusing more on winning something extrinsic, while recreational sports play more for fun. Future studies should be done to see if athletes' feelings of self-determination play a mediating role between competition and sport motivation. In relation to the second hypothesis, Fortier et al. (1995) concluded that female athletes showed more intrinsic motivation to accomplish things, more identified regulation, less external regulation, and less amotivation than male athletes.

Another idea for future research would be to conduct a similar study, but use athletes from highly different sport structures, instead of the same environment.

Leadership Behaviors

Review Article

Chelladurai (1990), faculty of physical education at the University of Western Ontario, wrote an article to review literature on the multidimensional model and the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS). Combined, these instruments make up one of the main approaches taken to research sport leadership. Chelladurai (1990) first defined the multidimensional model and then the LSS. The article went on to examine the reliability, validity, and future use of the LSS, and also examined the research and predicted future for the multidimensional model.

Chelladurai explained that in the multidimensional model the characteristics of the situation, leader, and member directly effects the leadership behavior (required, actual, and preferred) which in turn influences the performance and satisfaction of the group and its members. Required leader behavior is set by the situational characteristics. In other words, the structure of the organization and the environment demand certain behavior from the leader. However, the situation alone does not cause certain behavior. The member characteristics also influence the required behavior. If a member does not have

the ability, experience, or disposition to make judgement decisions about a situation, the leader must decide for him/her. The leader behavior preferred by the members is dependent upon the characteristics of those members. Their personal views of achievement, competence, and need for affiliation effects what they want from the coach in the way of guidance, support, etc. The actual leader behavior is strongly influenced by the personal characteristics of the coach. However, the situational requirements and the athletes' preferences also influence the actual behavior. Chelladurai (1990) explained that the equality of the required, preferred, and actual behavior then affects the overall performance and satisfaction.

Chelladurai (1990) wrote about some suggested adjustments that might be made to the multidimensional model in the future. There has been some criticism of the use of discrepancy scores relating to the three states of leader behavior. The components of the discrepancy score are perceptions and preferences. When both of these are supplied by the same athlete, his/her perceptions tend to dominate the relationship. This does not provide as good of an explanation of the variance in athletes' satisfactions as is possible. So researchers should be cautious in their use of discrepancy scores, or they may even want to use something else, such as the perceived leadership scores. Another suggestion stated by Chelladurai (1990) was to have

the subjects state the difference between preferred and perceived leadership behaviors instead of giving two separate scores.

Chelladurai (1990) proceeded to cover the Leadership Scale for Sports. The LSS went through a few phases of development before the final scale was set. In the second stage the five dimensions of leader behavior were discovered. They could be used in all different sets of data. The first dimension is training and instruction, which focused on improving performance and teaching skills. The next dimension is democratic behavior, which allows more participation of the athletes in decision making. Another dimension was autocratic behavior, which is independent decision making and stresses personal authority. Yet another dimension was social support, which deals with a concern for the welfare of the athletes and the overall atmosphere. The final dimension was positive feedback, which recognizes and rewards good performance. These dimensions are used with the various items (40 in the final scale) to measure perceptions and preferences of leadership behavior. The items are rated with responses of always, often, occasionally, seldom, and never. After analyzing the ratings the concluding behavior is determined. Chelladurai (1990) said that so far the LSS has also been translated into the Finnish, Japanese, Portuguese, and Swedish languages.

Chelladurai (1990) discovered that the Leadership Scale for Sports was not supported in two studies. Because of this, there were certain considerations that must be kept in mind when using the LSS. The LSS is best utilized when a confirmatory analysis is used with it. This analysis would be "of item-to-total correlations or the more rigorous confirmatory factor analysis." (339) Item-to-total correlations focus on the extent to which the set of data matches the prestated subscale. And the confirmatory factor analysis would also supply estimates of the extent to which the data replicated the hypothesis. Another improvement that Chelladurai (1990) stated could be made when using the LSS in order to avoid false data collection is to elaborate the context of the items. Making the situation surrounding the behavior clearer would help in rating the frequency of specific leadership behavior. Finally, something that might want to be researched in the future is changing the basis for the items in the LSS from modified business and industry concepts to those based on experiences and ideas of coaches and athletes.

A final general implication made by Chelladurai (1990) was that more variables may need to be added to studies of sport leadership in the future. Recently, the suggestion has been made that some members within the sport group could be used as a substitute for the leader. The definition of leadership can very from group to group. So some group

properties such as antecedent, consequent, or moderating variables of leadership may choose to be added.

Research Articles

Bird (1977) conducted a study to test how a team's success and skill level effected the cohesion of the team and the leadership style of the coach. Similar research has been done before, however, this study included the coaches' perspectives. The hypotheses stated that a successful team perceives themselves to be more cohesive and is coached by a task-oriented individual.

Bird's sample was composed of female volleyball players and coaches from Division I and Division II teams within the Southern California Women's Intercollegiate Athletic Conference. The teams that were chosen were the two most successful and the two least successful from each NCAA Division. This broke down to a sample consisting of 71 players and eight coaches.

Bird measured how cohesion and leadership style (dependent variables) were effected by team success and level of skill (independent variables). A 2 X 2 X 2 (respondents x team success x division level) multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used in order to analyze the data. The MANOVA that was used consisted of two levels of respondents; players and coaches (different participants), winners and losers (team success), and Division I and Division II (skill level).

Bird used the same assessment instruments for both the players and coaches. The Group Atmosphere Scale was used to measure cohesion. This scale estimated how accepted the coaches feel and how much cohesion the players feel they have. The coaches' raw scores and an average of the players' scores were then used in the analysis. The Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) method was used to rate the leadership style. This scale compared the coaches' opinions of themselves with the players' opinions of the coaches. However, Bird applied different versions of the LPC to players and coaches. The players were to evaluate their coach's style, while the coaches were to identify "the person with whom you can work least well." (220)

Bird discovered that only the difference in participants
($p < .014$) and team success ($p < .048$) had main effects. Skill level did not have a significant main effect. There was a significant difference of opinion between coaches and players on the effects of leadership style ($p < .008$). The success of a team had a significant effect on how the players and coaches viewed the cohesion of a team ($p < .014$).

Overall, Bird observed that the coaches saw themselves as task-oriented, while the players saw them to be more socioemotional. However, it did seem to depend on the Division. The Division I players of the winning teams saw

their coaches as socioemotional, and the players of the losing teams saw their coaches as task-oriented. As for Division II, the opposite applied. Winning teams felt their coaches were task-oriented, and losing teams felt their coaches were socioemotional. The author implies that these results may have occurred because players on competitive teams may already be task-oriented and therefore need a more emotionally focused coach. While more non-competitive players need a coach who will push the winning factor. Bird concluded that the best coaching style is dependent upon the skill level or competition level of the players.

Chelladurai (1984) conducted a study to examine the effects of task type on the relationship between the preferred/perceived leadership and the athlete's satisfaction. The five dimensions of leadership used were training and instruction, democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, social support, and positive feedback. And the four facets of satisfaction that were measured were satisfaction with individual performance, satisfaction with team performance, satisfaction with leadership, and satisfaction with overall involvement.

Chelladurai's (1984) sample consisted of varsity athletes from Canadian Universities. The breakdown was 87 basketball players from ten teams, 52 wrestlers from four teams, and 57 track and field athletes from six teams. However, not all of the athletes were used in the data

collection due to uncompleted tests.

Chelladurai(1984) showed the relationship between the leadership behaviors and the satisfaction facets. The behaviors were separately considered for each of the three variable groups; interdependent (basketball), independent (wrestling), and closed independent (track and field).

Chelladurai (1984) evaluated the coaches leadership behaviors using the Leadership Scale for Sports. The three task (variable) groups were determined with hierarchical multiple regression analyses on the basis of task dependence and variability. The four facets of satisfaction were each measured by a single question with a seven choice alternative. These tests and questionnaires were administered in a group setting.

Chelladurai's (1984) results were categorized by the satisfaction facets. When a behavior had a negative effect, more of it increased the level of satisfaction. And if the effect was not negative, less of it was needed to raise the level of satisfaction. Chelladurai (1984) found a significant relationship between satisfaction with leadership and all five of the leadership behaviors for basketball (training and instruction, autocratic, and positive feedback $p < .001$) (Social support and democratic behavior $p < .01$). All of the behaviors had a negative effect except for autocratic. For wrestling, training and instruction and social support were significantly and

negatively relative to satisfaction with leadership (training and instruction $p < .001$, social support $p < .05$). And as for track and field, only training and instruction was significantly and also negatively related to satisfaction ($p < .01$). There was no relation between satisfaction with individual performance and the discrepancies in leadership for any of the sports. Positive feedback was significantly and negatively related to the satisfaction with team performance for basketball ($p < .001$). For wrestling, training and instruction ($p < .01$), democratic ($p < .01$), and social support ($p < .05$) are all negatively relative to satisfaction with team performance. None of the behavior scores were related to satisfaction with overall involvement for basketball. Only training and instruction was negatively and significantly related ($p < .001$) to satisfaction for wrestling. And as for track and field, social support was negatively significant ($p < .05$) and democratic was significant ($p < .05$) to satisfaction with overall involvement.

Chelladurai (1984) concluded that the effects of discrepancy in training and instruction was similar in all three task groups. When the athletes perceived an emphasis by the coach on training and instruction, their satisfaction with leadership increased. Although satisfaction with individual performance was unrelated to the discrepancies in leadership behavior, satisfaction with team performance was

related for all three sports. Further research should be done using a psychometrically refined scale so that more facets of satisfaction can be measured. Additional research could also be done to relate the leadership variables and the satisfaction measures to some evaluation of actual performance.

Serpa, Pataco, and Santos (1991) conducted a study to examine the most used and least used leadership styles from the athletes' perception, the most and least used leadership style from the coach's self-perception, and the relationship between the two. These three ideas were the basis for the three hypotheses that were formed.

Serpa, Pataco, and Santos' (1991) sample was composed of 87 male athletes from 7 of the 9 senior teams that participated in the 1988 national men's world handball championship. Two of the teams were not used because of insufficient responses. The sample also included the seven male coaches of the teams.

Serpa, Pataco, and Santos (1991) ranked the five leadership behaviors; training-instruction, democratic, autocratic, social support, and rewarding (dependent variables) among the coaches and athletes of the seven international handball teams (independent variables). Averages were computed for each behavior in order to rank the data. A statistical comparison was then done with a one way ANOVA.

Serpa, Pataco, and Santos (1991) used the same questionnaire for each subject. The Leadership Scale for Sports was used for both the coaches and athletes. Although, the coaches were given the self-perception of behavior version instead of the perception of behavior version that was given to the athletes. The LSS was composed of 40 items scored on a five point scale.

Serpa, Pataco, and Santos' (1991) results showed that the training-instruction dimension of leadership was the most considered by athletes (2.12 average) and coaches (1.65 average). This means that this behavior is "often" verified. The second highest ranked dimension was the reward behavior (2.57 athlete average, 2.08 coach average). Serpa, Pataco, and Santos also analyzed the differences between the first placed team and last placed team. According to the athletes of these teams there was a significant difference ($p = .05$) between them for democratic, autocratic, social support, and rewarding behaviors. However, there was only a significant difference ($p = .05$) for the democratic behavior between the two teams according to the coaches' perceptions.

Overall, Serpa, Pataco, and Santos (1991) concluded that a task-oriented behavior was evident in all cases among coaches and athletes. That was why the training-instruction and rewarding dimensions scored higher than a human interaction dimension like social support. There were large

discrepancies in the values and behavioral dimensions when the coaches' and athletes' perceptions were compared. All three of the hypotheses were confirmed: "(1) the predominant dimension of the coach's behavior is that of training and instruction and the least frequent is the democratic one, (2) there are considerable differences between the behaviors of the best and worst teams, and (3) there are differences between the athletes' perception and the coach's self-perception." (86)

Black and Weiss (1992) conducted a study to see which perceived coaching behavior, praise, instruction, and criticism, are related to motivational indicators like competence, enjoyment, and effort in competitive swimmers. Two hypotheses were formed about this study. One was that athletes who perceive their coach to give more frequent praise and information after desirable performances will have high perceptions of success, competence, enjoyment, and effort and will have low perceptions of pressure. The other hypothesis was that athletes who perceive their coach to give more frequent general encouragement and information after undesirable performances will have high perceptions of success, competence, etc. and will have low perceptions of pressure.

Black and Weiss' (1992) sample consisted of 312 competitive swimmers from 11 United States Swimming registered teams. The breakdown was 144 male and 168 female

athletes who ranged from 10 to 18 years of age. The athletes were then divided into three age groups: 10-11 years (121), 12-14 years (108), and 15-18 years (83).

Black and Weiss (1992) examined how perceived coaching behaviors (praise, information, encouragement, encouragement and information, and criticism) and motivational variables (perceived success, perceived competence, challenge motivation, enjoyment, choice, and effort) (dependent variables) were effected by gender and age (independent variables). An initial 2 x 3 (gender x age) MANOVA was conducted to see if gender and age effected all variables. After it was determined that both age and gender were significant, multivariate multiple regression analyses were performed to assess the data.

Black and Weiss (1992) used different methods to evaluate each category. Perceived coaching behavior was determined by a modified Coaching Behavior Assessment scale that consisted of 10 categories of coaching behaviors related to desirable and undesirable performances. Self-perceptions of ability were measured using a modified athletic competence subscale and two questions about perceived success rated on a 5-point Likert scale. Motivation was evaluated with the Motivational Orientation in Sport Scale and the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory.

Black and Weiss' (1992) results showed a significant effect for females ($p < .0001$), "indicating that the

perceived coaching behaviors were predictive of the set of motivational indicators." (317) The males also felt higher levels of perceived competence, success, and preference for challenging activities due to perceived praise and encouragement ($p < .005$). There were no significant results for the 10-11 year old category. The 12-14 year old category was effected by encouragement and information ($p < .01$). And the 15-18 year old category was effected by information, praise, and encouragement ($p < .005$).

Overall, Black and Weiss (1992) concluded that the first hypothesis was strongly or partially supported. The gender and two older age group categories who perceived more information and praise after desirable performances scored higher levels of perceived success and competence, preference for challenging activities, and perceptions of enjoyment and effort. The second hypothesis was also strongly or partially supported. Swimmers who perceived themselves as more successful and competent, preferred optimally challenging activities, and enjoyed their sport experiences associated their coaches to be more likely to give encouragement and information after undesirable performances. Further research should be done to examine the influence of significant others and psychological development on the children's sport experiences.

Salminen and Liukkonen (1996) conducted a study to examine the relationship between a coach and an athlete and

how it relates to the behavior of a coach in a training session. The atmosphere of a training session can be greatly influenced by a coach's leadership style.

Salminen and Liukkonen's (1996) sample consisted of 68 Finnish coaches and 400 of their athletes. The breakdown of the coaches was 41 males and 27 females from various sports. As for the athletes, there were 265 boys and 135 girls ranging from 9 to 18 years of age.

Salminen and Liukkonen (1996) first examined how the five different dimensions of perceived coaching behaviors, instruction, democracy, autocracy, social support, and rewarding are effected by the respondent (coach or athlete), the gender of the coach, and the sport (individual or team). This was done using the Leadership Scale for Sports. Then they ranked the differences between the evaluated styles and the actual observed behaviors. This was done in a table using the Spearman ranking correlation.

Salminen and Liukkonen (1996) had the coaches fill out a self-rating version of the LSS, while the athletes used the regular LSS to rate the leadership style of their coach. The actual behavior of the coaches was videotaped. Their behavior was recorded every six seconds for 15 minutes at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of the training session. The videotape was analyzed using an observational system. This system used by Salminen and Liukkonen (1996) was made up of six coaching behavior clusters (primary

coaching, affective, indirect, direct, positive, and negative) and four coaching style ratios (primary coaching/affective, direct/indirect, primary coaching/monitoring, and positive/negative).

Salminen and Liukkonen (1996) discovered that the most significant differences between the coaches' and athletes' views were that the coaches saw themselves as more socially supportive ($p < .001$) and more rewarding ($p < .001$) than the athletes did. The dimension of democracy ($p < .01$) was the most significant difference of opinion when based on gender. The female coaches' perceptions of themselves were closer to the athletes' than the males' for this dimension. The same was true when based on sport. The coaches of individual sports viewed themselves more similarly to the athletes' views than the coaches of team sports for democracy ($p < .05$)

Salminen and Liukkonen's (1996) results showed that coaches' and athletes' perceptions of leadership behavior significantly differed. The coaches tended to evaluate themselves in a more positive light than the athletes did. The female coaches had a more realistic opinion of their behavior in training group than the males did. And the coaches' and athletes' ratings were more alike in individual sports than in team sports. Salminen and Liukkonen (1996) said that this is probably due to the fact that coaches have a better chance to observe and cater to an athlete's

individual needs. They can get to know the athlete more personally than a coach dealing with a group setting. In conclusion, the results indicated that the relationship between a coach and an athlete is based on emotion. A coach who takes the opinions and feelings of an athlete into consideration tended to have the best relationships. And a final implication was that the democratic behavior was so important because of the "increasingly democratic environment for adolescents in both homes and schools." (65)

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

The purpose of this study was to determine if the "win at all cost" attitude was detrimental to adolescent male athletes' perceptions of their experiences when used by their coaches as the leadership style. In general, this chapter provides a description of the process of this study from start to finish. It describes the sample in detail and how the data were collected from them. The rationale behind all decisions related to this study is also explained, as well as the overview of the schedule for data collection.

Description of Subjects/Entities

The 40-60 subjects in this study were male athletes who ranged in age from ten to thirteen. They were obtained from the Methodist and Catholic churches in a town located in the central New Jersey area. The subjects must have participated for at least one season in one or more organized sports, including both recreational (non-school associated) sports and school sports.

After consent was given by the ministers (Appendix A), the parents of the athletes (Appendix B), and the athletes themselves (Appendix C) the data were obtained through a survey (Appendix D) administered to the athletes. Each subject was requested to honestly answer the 25 question survey about his sport experiences. The survey was in the form of a five point Likert scale.

Rationale

It was important for a study like this to be done because the youth are the future, and they need to be protected at this impressionable age. All of the articles that were in the review of literature were based on motivation and leadership. These topics were used for the foundation of the research because determining what affected one's motivation and how young athletes liked to be coached was the first step to improve the situation. In order to give people what they need, it is necessary to first know what they want.

Some of the subjects involved in the study were going to have to answer the survey based on memories while others were answering according to what was presently occurring in their sport. This was the case because athletes from a variety of sports were going to be used, not just athletes from the sport in-season when the survey was given. A Likert scale was used as the basis for the survey because it provided a basis for more reliable analysis and results. The survey consisted of twenty-five questions created specifically for this study.

The survey questions had been constructed to find an answer to each of the underlying research questions. All of the survey questions offered five Likert scale choices for answers. Another way that helped get reliable results was to have the subjects complete the survey in a comfortable,

familiar environment. That was why the athletes had the choice to have the survey administered to them in their church after mass or to take the survey home to complete it.

However, before the survey could be administered to the subjects it needed to be evaluated in two ways. The first was the validity check. The survey was given to four sport administration graduate students who were studying topics that had some dimension of similarity to this one. The survey was read by each graduate student, and for every survey question they tried to match it to one of the corresponding research questions. A percentage was then computed for each survey question to determine the percentage of agreement of the test development format. The results of the computations for the majority of the survey questions produced a 75% match. Those few questions that received less than a 75% match were then modified for the final version of the survey.

The second evaluation of the survey was for reliability. Four graduate students each completed the survey one time. Then a week later they completed the survey again. Both sets of the students' answers were then cross checked for the consistency of the answers; the percentage of repeatability. The first set and second set of answers were compared for each student. Then for each student a percentage was calculated for an exact match between the pairs of answers, pairs that were only one point

away from each other, two points away, etc. The results for the reliability check were promising. The students' pairs of answers exactly matched each other 96%, 88%, 80%, and 72% of the time, respectively. No one had any pairs of answers that were more than two points away from each other, and that, along with a variance of one point, only happened a small percentage of the time. After these two checks, validity and reliability, were completed, the survey was ready to be administered to the actual subjects participating in the study.

Overview of Scheduling

The data were collected during a two week period in the summer of 1998. A letter was sent to the ministers of the Methodist and Catholic churches which asked for their permission to use their churches to locate volunteers to take part in the study (Appendix A). The volunteers' parents had to first read the letter that included the consent form (Appendix B). After the parents' consent form had been signed, the survey was either immediately administered personally by me or at the volunteers' homes by their parents. The survey came with a cover sheet that explained the reasoning behind the study and the directions needed to complete the survey (Appendix C). Each subject was asked to read each survey question carefully and to answer honestly. The survey could be completed in about ten minutes. The subjects did not write their names on the

surveys, therefore the data were all completely confidential.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to determine if the "win at all cost" attitude is detrimental to adolescent male athletes' perceptions of their experiences when used by their coaches as the leadership style. This chapter reported the results obtained from the surveys and the interpretation of their impact. The demographics of the subjects are presented first. This is followed by the results and discussion concerning each of the five research questions (Chapter 1). The same analysis was used to obtain the results for every survey question, i.e., frequency of responses reported in percentages. Crosstabs were also calculated for each survey question based on those who had win at all costs (WAAC) coaches and those who did not. As a whole the patterns of responses did not significantly vary between these two groups of athletes. However, there were differences in patterns of responses found in the neutral, positive extreme, and negative extreme. These differences are reflected in the WAAC Group x Question figures within the chapter. The figures compared the percent of respondents between the group of athletes with WAAC coaches (Yes) and the group without WAAC coaches (No). The discussion sections include both the conclusions drawn from examining the span of survey questions for the respective research question and the relationship between these

findings and other literature.

Demographics

The survey was completed by 47 subjects. These subjects were all between the ages of 10 and 13 and had participated in at least one organized sport for no less than one season. The average age of the subjects was 11.7 years. Sixteen of the subjects (34%) had a personal experience with a win at all cost (WAAC) coach, while thirty-one of them (66%) did not. Of those athletes who had a win at all cost (WAAC) coach, the average number of seasons they had that coach was 2.44. However, the number of seasons ranged from one to ten.

The subjects participated in a variety of different sports. The distribution of the forty-seven subjects among the different sports they played are as follows; 33 baseball, 27 soccer, 21 basketball, 6 hockey, 3 swimming, 3 tennis, 2 football, 2 golf, 2 skiing, 1 lacrosse, and 1 volleyball.

Research Question 1 - What motivates a young male athlete?

There were three of the survey questions that applied to this area. These questions were 5, 18, and 23 (Appendix D).

Results

Question 5 asked how it makes the athlete feel when his parents yell at him after he makes a mistake. Most of the athletes (87.2%) either felt bad or very bad (Figure 1).

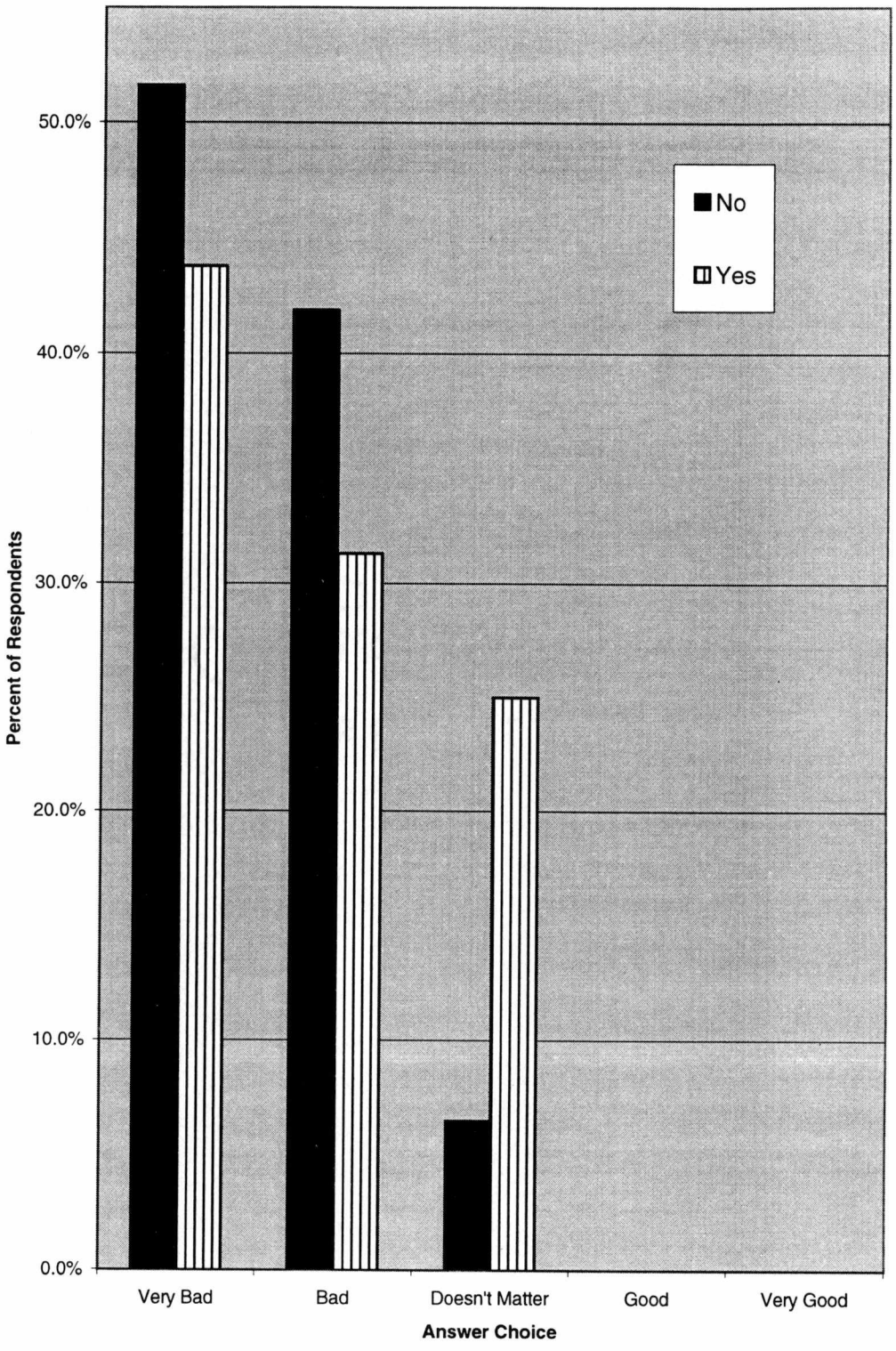

Figure 1. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when parents yell at them after making a mistake.

All of the other responses were neutral. The most frequent response (48.9%) was that it made them feel very bad when they were yelled at. The two groups, win at all cost coaches and no WAAC coaches, had a similar distribution of answers, although approximately 25% of those with a WAAC coach indicated that parental yelling at mistakes does not matter.

Question 18 asked if the athlete agreed that someone should say something encouraging to him after he made a mistake in order to make him feel better (Figure 2). The answers selected covered all five choices. However, only approximately 14.9% of the no WAAC coach group disagreed. Just over 6% of both athletes with WAAC coaches and without WAAC coaches strongly disagreed. It was only 12.9% of the athletes with no WAAC coach group that disagreed. Most of the athletes, about an even number of both athletes with WAAC coaches and without WAAC coaches, agreed (25%, 32.3%) or strongly agreed (31.3%, 29%) that something encouraging should be said after a mistake was made (Figure 2). Once again, many athletes (37.5%) with WAAC coach were neutral about receiving encouragement after mistakes.

Question 23 asked if the athlete liked the way his coach ran the team (Figure 3). Again the answers varied from disagreeing to strongly agreeing, but only the athletes with no WAAC coach (6.4%) disagreed. Most athletes (55.3%) said that they strongly agreed with the way their coach ran

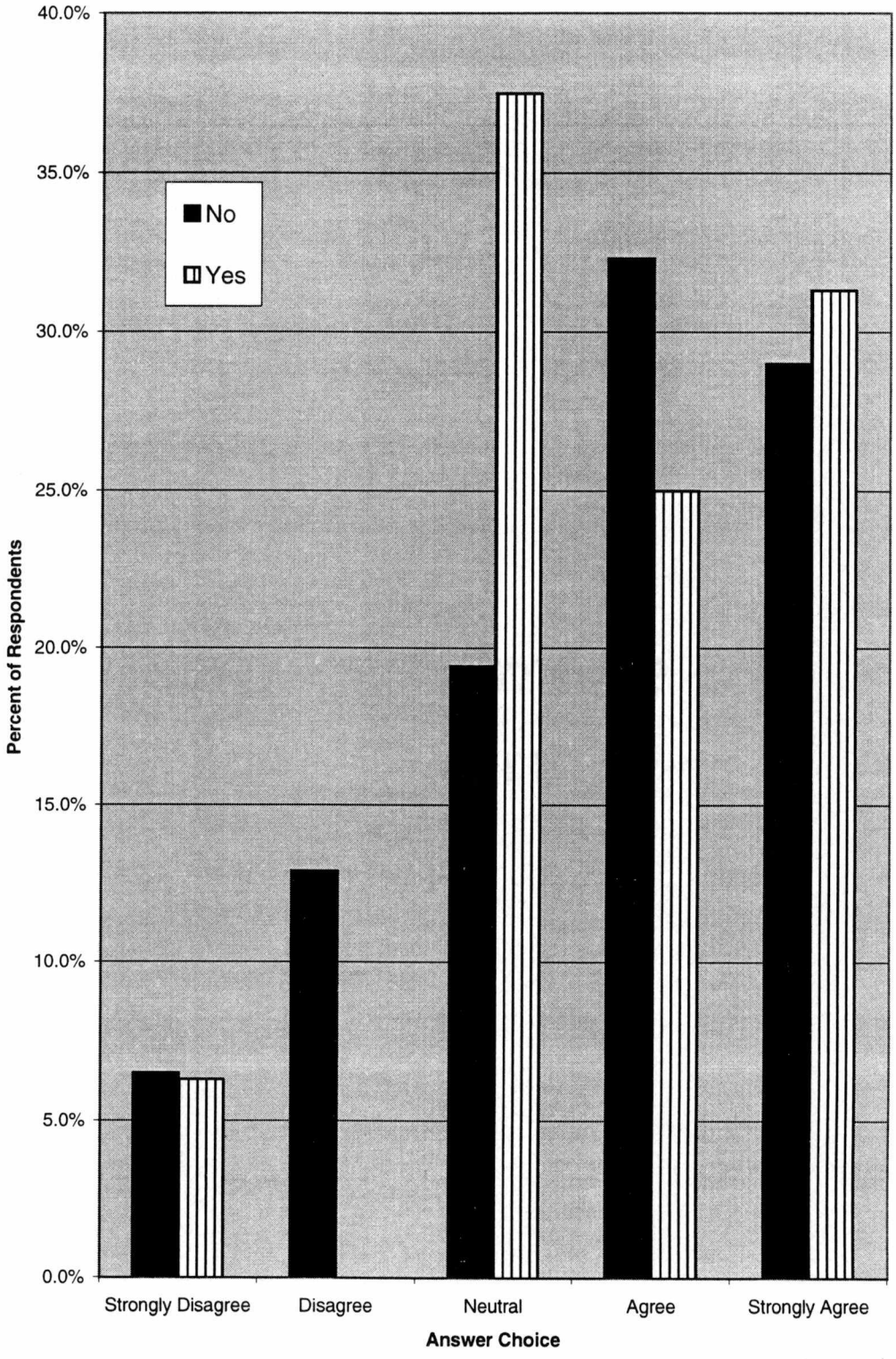

Figure 2. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning receiving encouragement after a mistake is made.

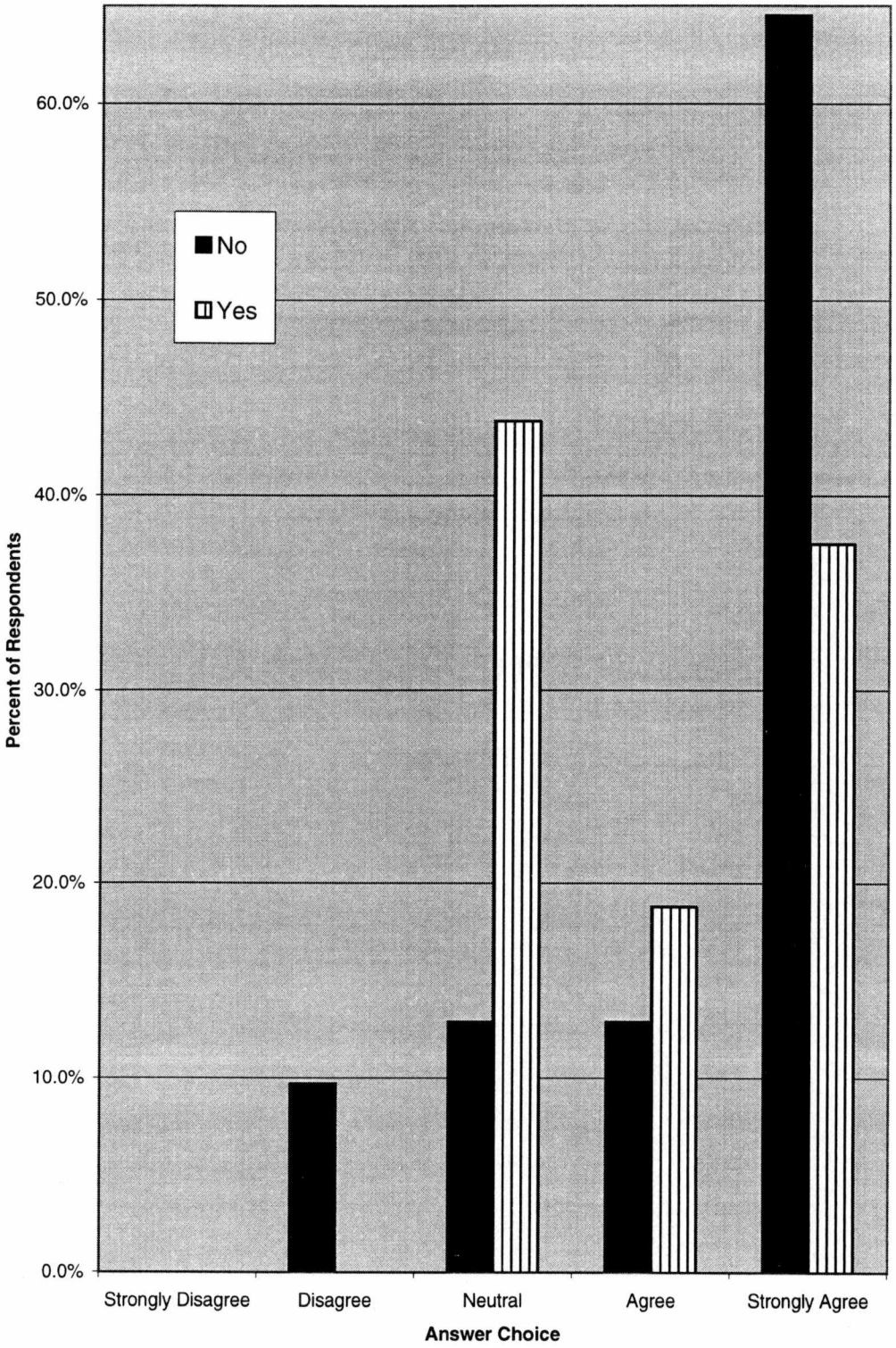

Figure 3. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes liking the way the coach runs the team.

the team. There were several more athletes without WAAC coaches (77.4%) who agreed or strongly agreed than those with WAAC coaches (56.3%). An even larger difference occurred within the neutral choice, except this time the athletes with WAAC coaches outnumbered the ones without.

Discussion

The data from the three survey questions indicated that other people do have an influence on a young male athlete's motivation. His parents and coach contributed to what it is that motivated him. It seemed the athletes with no WAAC coaches agreed more with the way their coach ran the team and in turn these coaches were a greater influence on the athletes than the WAAC coaches were on their athletes. These findings coincided with the conclusions found in previous studies and also created a new one. The finding regarding the athletes' reactions to their parents yelling at them after a mistake was made was something that had not been investigated before. Feedback and other people's opinions given to an athletes had an influence on them and their motivation (Black & Weiss, 1992; Vallerand, 1983). Most athletes seemed to listen to the feedback and took it under advisement for future situations.

Research Question 2 - What inspires young male athletes to want to win?

Three survey questions corresponded to this research question. These questions included 14, 19, and 25 (Appendix D).

Results

Question 14 asked whether the athlete agreed that his coach is open to listening to what the players think (Figure 4). The subjects' answers ranged from one end of the spectrum to the other, but only 12.5% of the athletes with WAAC coaches strongly disagreed and 16.1% of athletes without WAAC coaches disagreed. Approximately 60% of both groups of athletes agreed or strongly agreed that their coach is open to their ideas (Figure 4). More of these athletes were from the no WAAC coaches group than the WAAC coaches group. The reverse was true of the agree category.

Question 19 asked if the athlete agreed that he gets himself mentally prepared and excited before a game (Figure 5). Although the answers varied, 70.2% of them were positive choices. The most frequent response (51.6%) for the athletes with no WAAC coach was that the athletes strongly agreed that they get themselves mentally prepared for a game. As for the athletes with WAAC coaches, their most frequent response (43.8%) was that they agreed. While the choice of strongly agree was chosen by a fairly high number of both groups of athletes, the agree answer choice was not chosen by many athletes without WAAC coaches (Figure 5). Only the athletes with WAAC coaches strongly disagreed (6.3%) and only the athletes without WAAC coaches disagreed (12.9%).

Question 25 asked the athlete if he agreed that his

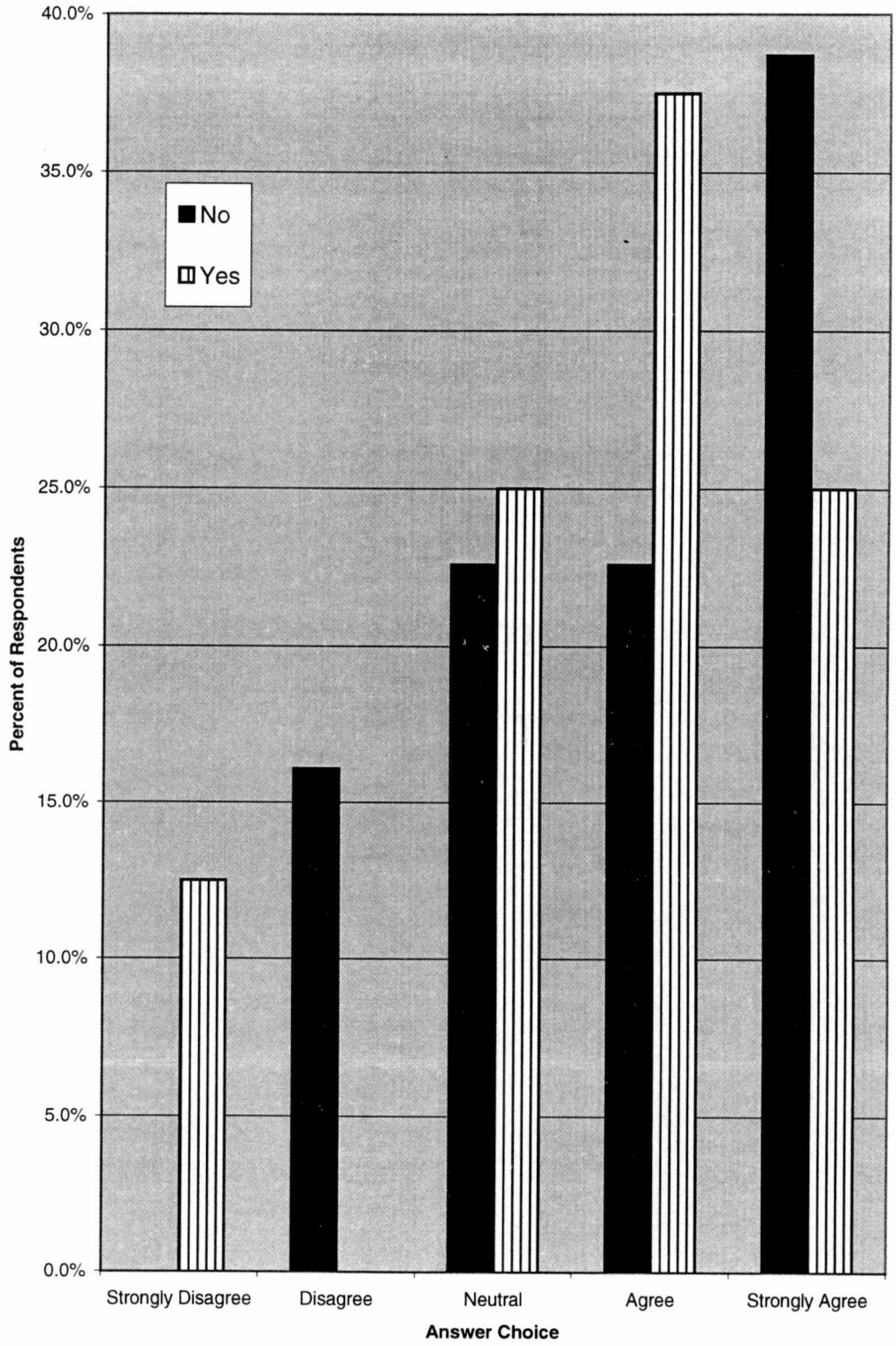

Figure 4. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning the coach listening to what the players think.

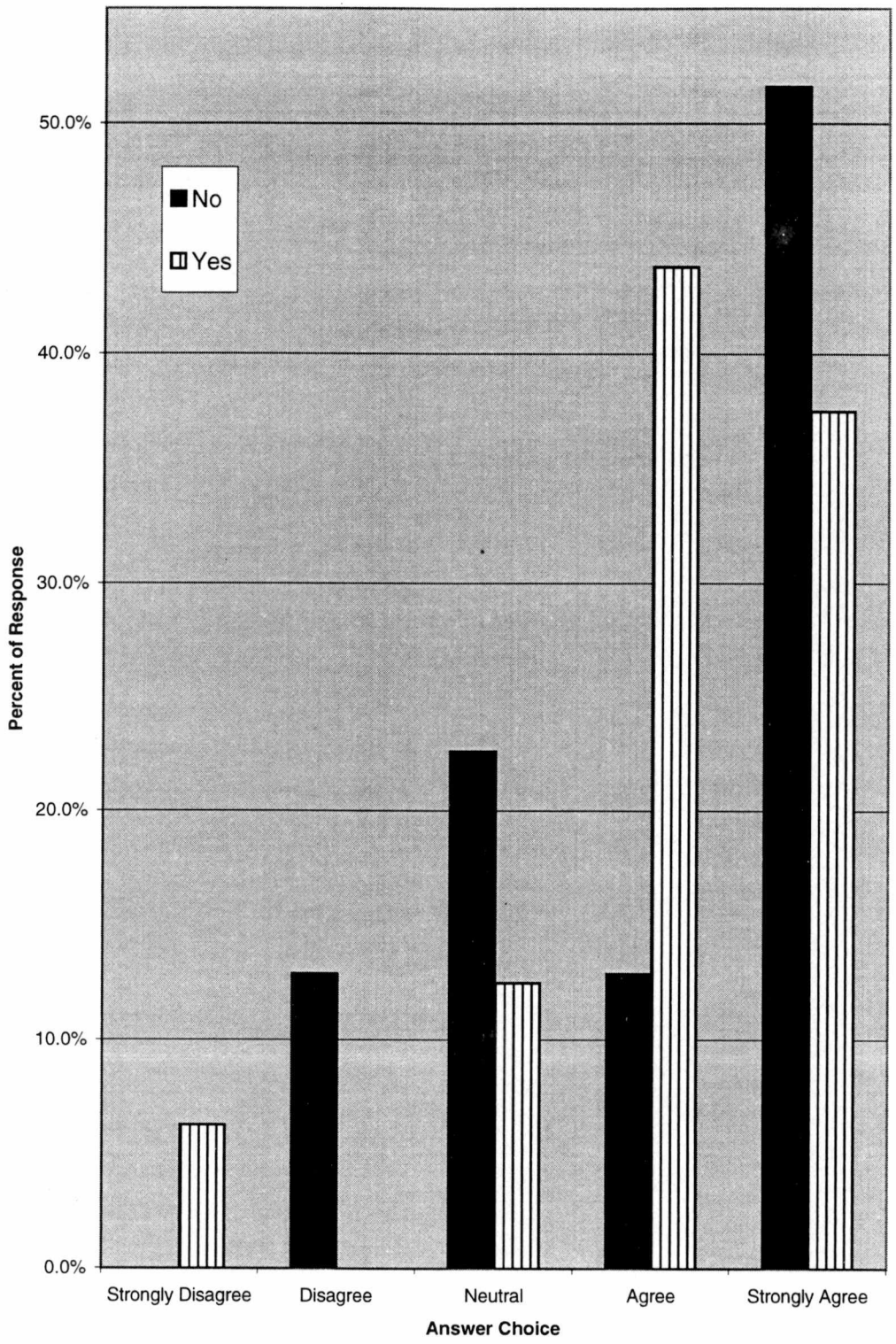

Figure 5. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes getting themselves mentally prepared before a game.

coach should yell if the team lost (Figure 6). Only 4.3% of the subjects chose to agree with this question. The choices of strongly disagree or disagree received most of the selections at 80.8%. The singular choice with the highest frequency of selection for both groups was that the athletes strongly disagreed that the coach should yell after a team loss (Figure 6). However, although almost 20% more of the no WAAC coach group strongly agreed than the athletes with WAAC coaches (Figure 6).

Discussion

The results indicated that the athlete himself and positive reinforcement of others are what inspire young male athletes to want to win. The athletes indicated that they can inspire themselves. As expressed from both athletes with WAAC coaches and no WAAC coaches, the positive reinforcement from the coach helped to inspire the athletes to win because the players would want to avoid getting yelled at, as reflected in the data. However, if needed, most athletes could create their own inspiration. These findings agreed with those of some of the literature reviewed for this study that showed that positive feedback helped athletes to both perform and feel better (Black & Weiss, 1992; Robinson & Carron, 1982; Vallerand, 1983).

Research Question 3 - What influence or effect do coaches, parents, and significant others have on an athlete's motivation?

There were four survey questions that were designed to

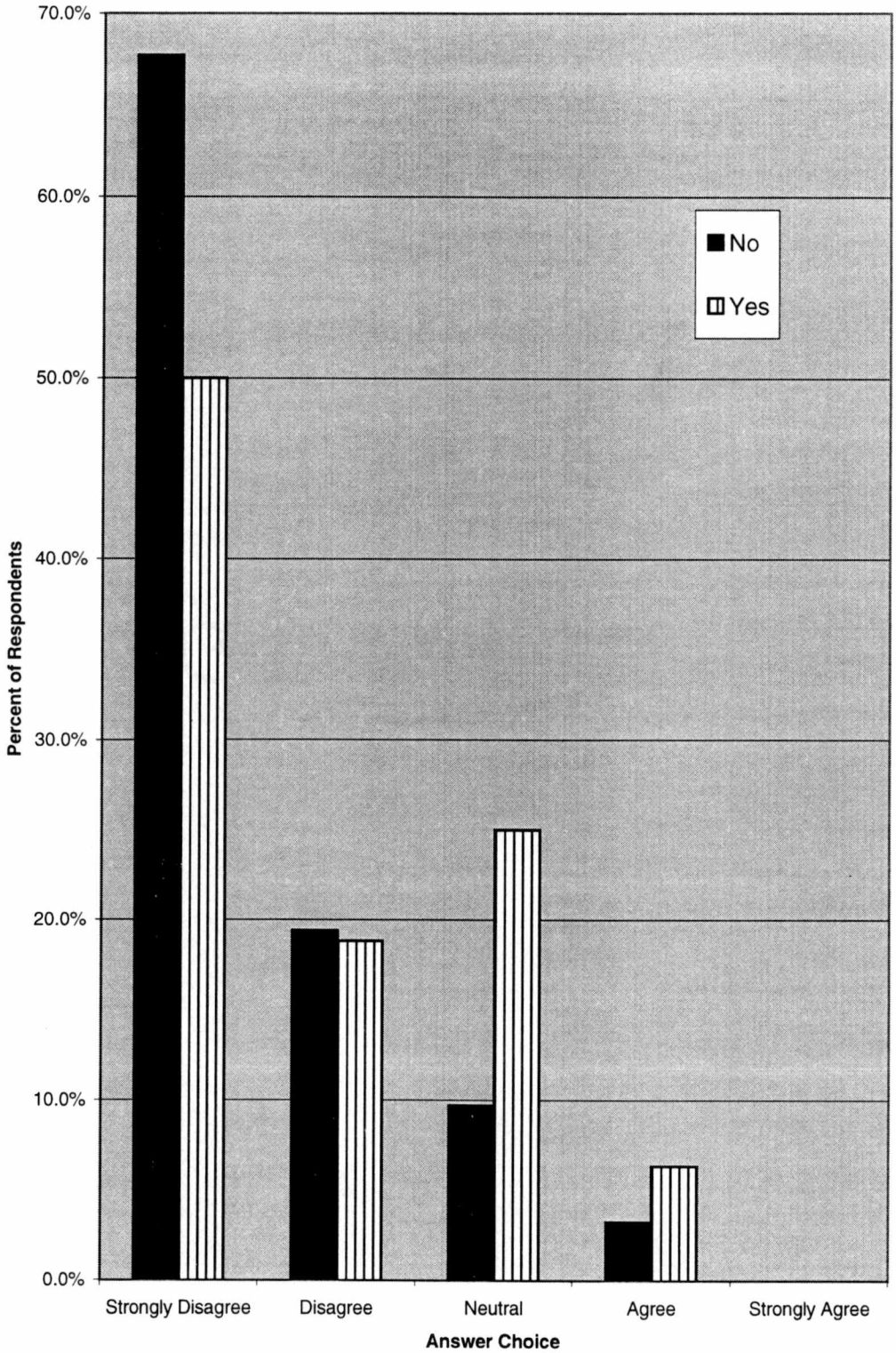

Figure 6. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning if the coach should yell when the team loses.

provide information regarding the influence of others on athlete motivation. They included survey questions 2, 6, 10, and 11 (Appendix D).

Results

Question 2 asked how it made the athlete feel when his parents or friends came to watch him play (Figure 7). A few of the subjects said that it did not make a difference to them if people were there to watch, but the rest (85.1%) chose positive answers. The most frequent choice for both groups was that it made the athletes feel very good when friends and family came to watch them play (Figure 7). Less than 20% of each group responded to the neutral choice, and none felt bad or very bad when parents or friends came to watch them play.

Question 6 asked how it made the athlete feel when his team lost (Figure 8). Most of the athletes without WAAC coaches felt bad or that it did not matter when their team lost (45.2% and 41.9%, respectively). High percentages of the athletes with WAAC coaches felt very bad (31.3%), bad (31.3%), and that it did not matter (37.5%) when their team lost. Only approximately 10% of the no WAAC coach athletes felt very bad.

Question 10 asked how it made the athlete feel when someone gave him a pep-talk before a game (Figure 9). Most of the athletes with WAAC coaches (37.5%) felt very good after a pep-talk, while most of the athletes with no WAAC

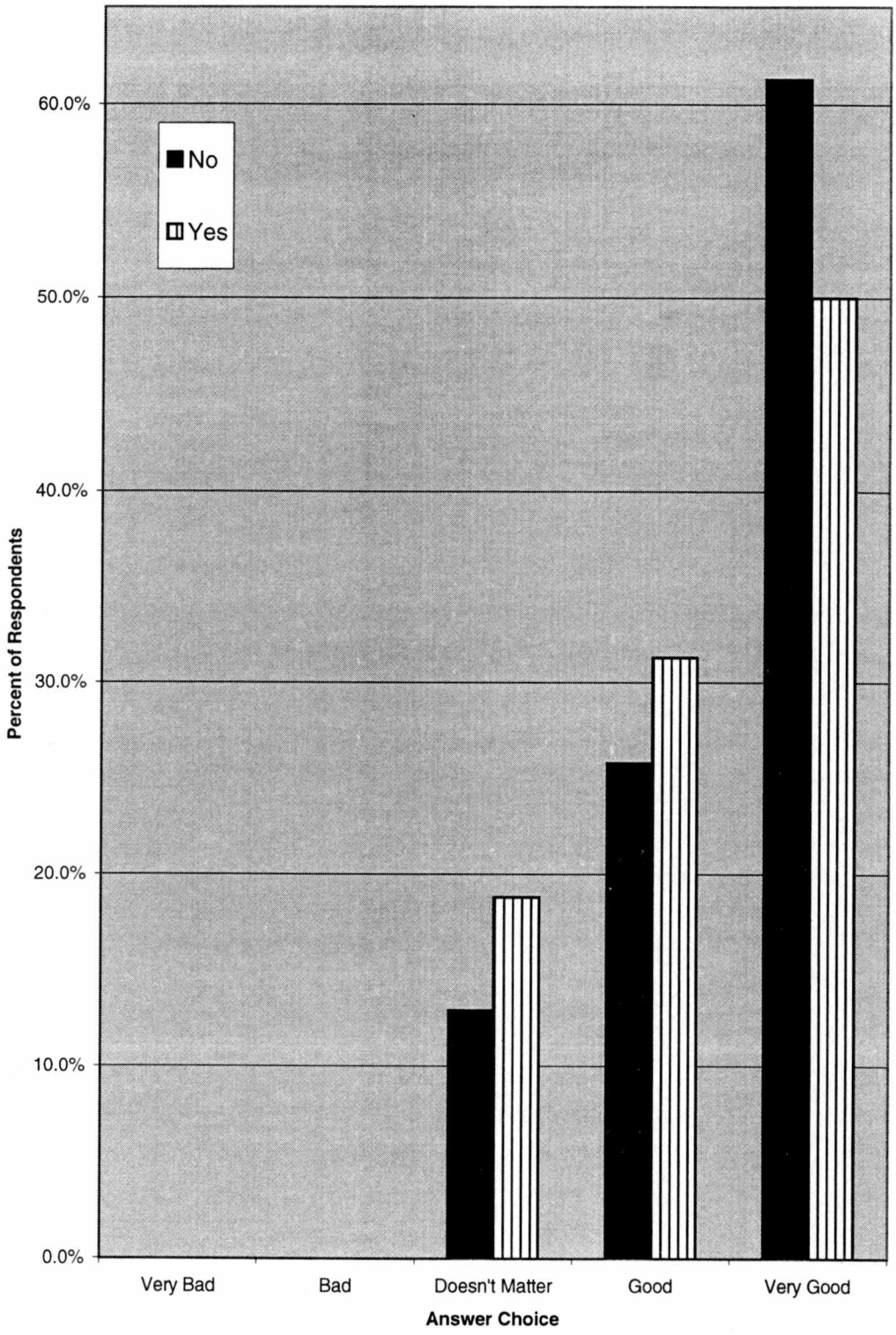

Figure 7. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when parents or friends came to watch.

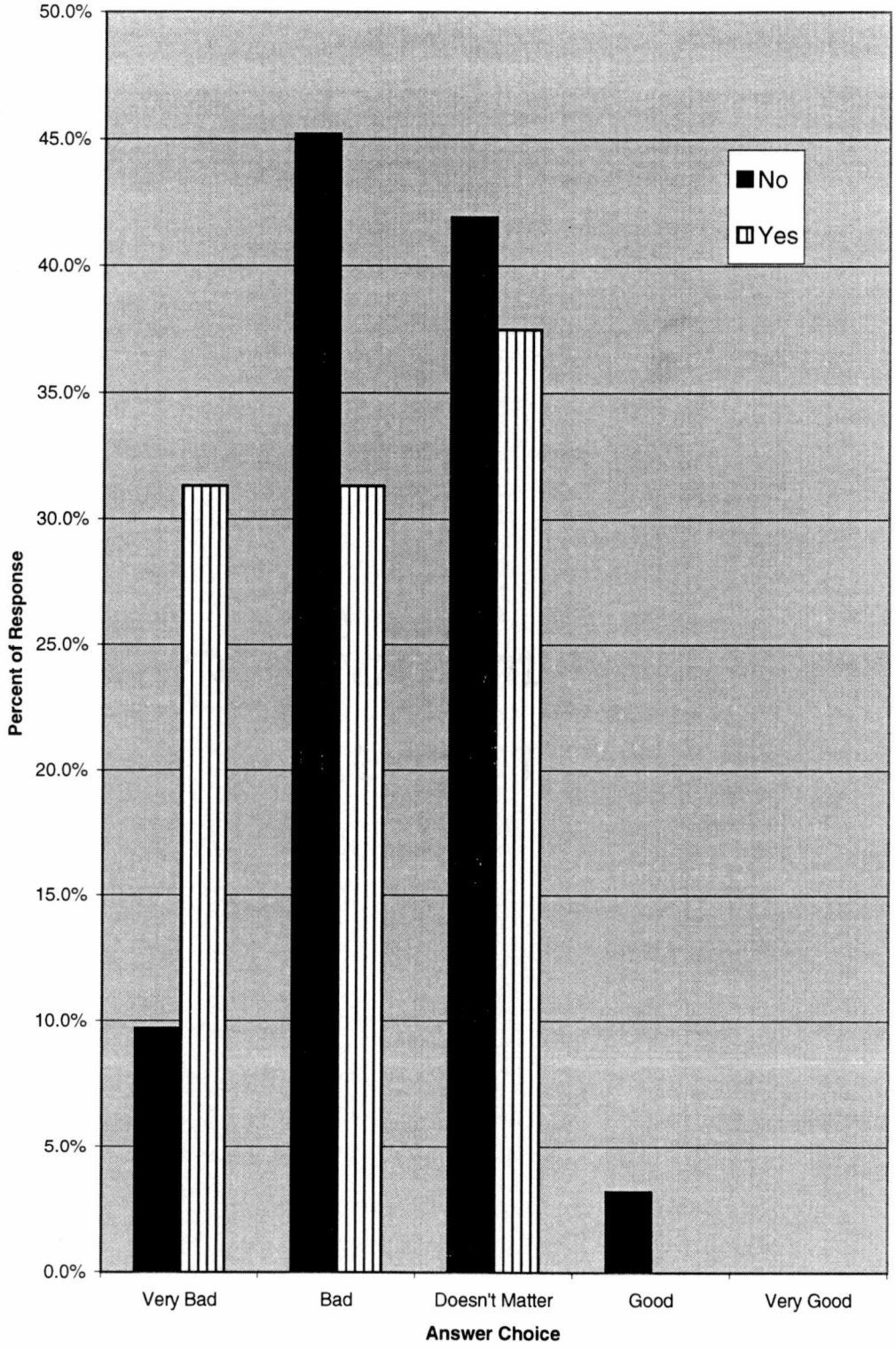

Figure 8. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when team loses.

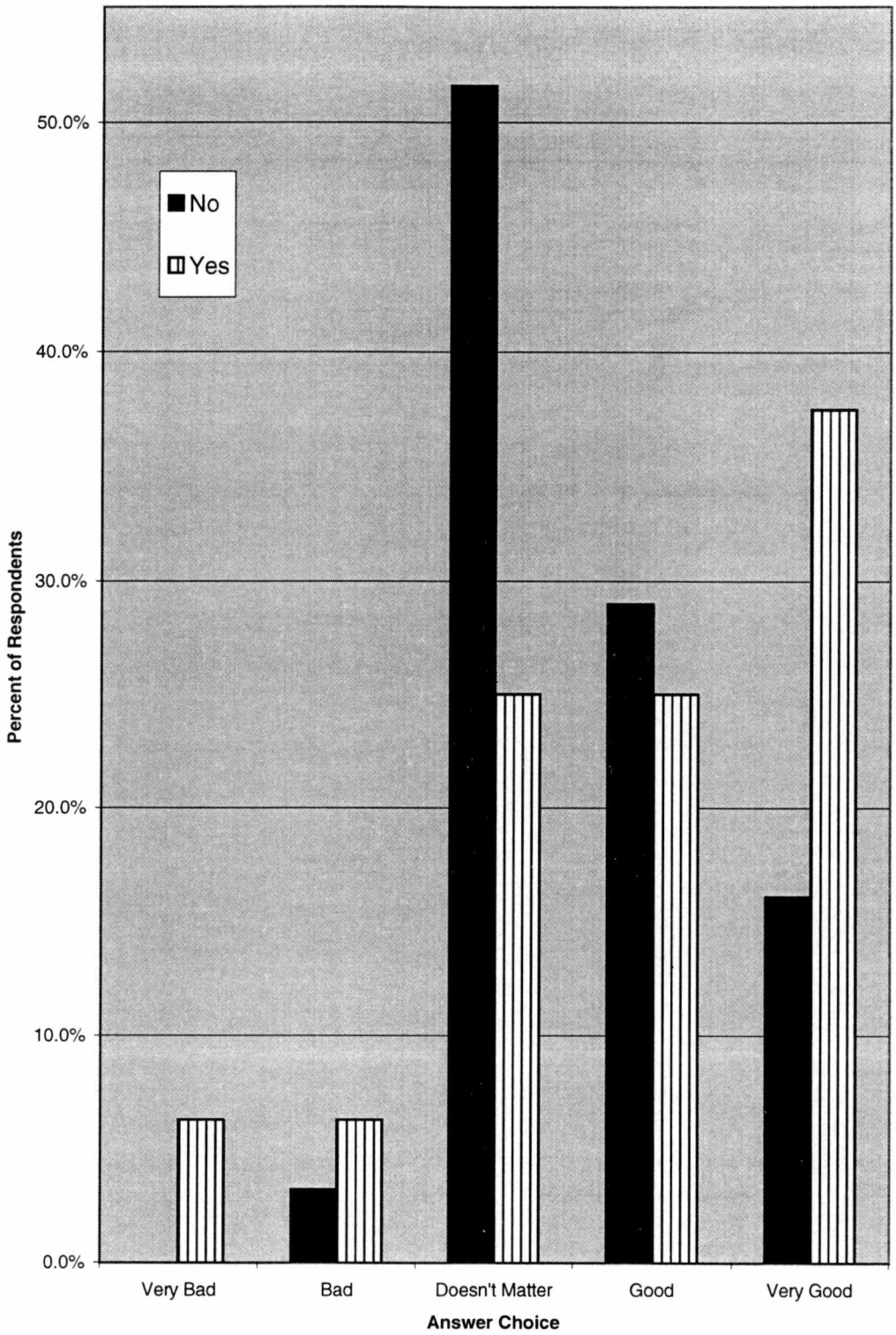

Figure 9. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when given a pep-talk before a game.

coach (51.6%) felt that it did not matter. There was a large difference between the WAAC coach group and no WAAC coach group in the very good category. Several more athletes with WAAC coaches felt very good when given a pep-talk (Figure 9). A similar difference was found in the neutral category, except in this case there were more athletes without WAAC coaches. However, it should also be noted that some of the athletes who had a win at all cost coach felt bad (6.3%) or very bad (6.3%) after one of their coach's pep-talks.

Question 11 asked if the athlete agreed that his coach should let the players help to make the decisions (Figure 10). High percentages of athletes with WAAC coaches strongly agreed (31.3%), agreed (25%), and were neutral (31.3%). While the athletes with no WAAC coach had very different opinions. Approximately 40% of these athletes disagreed, 25% were neutral, and 30% agreed. There was an extremely uneven distribution between the WAAC coaches group and no WAAC coaches group for the strongly agree and disagree choices. Several more athletes with WAAC coaches strongly agreed than those without. And many more athletes without WAAC coaches disagreed than those with WAAC coaches (Figure 10).

Discussion

The data from the four survey questions indicated that coaches, parents, and significant others have an important

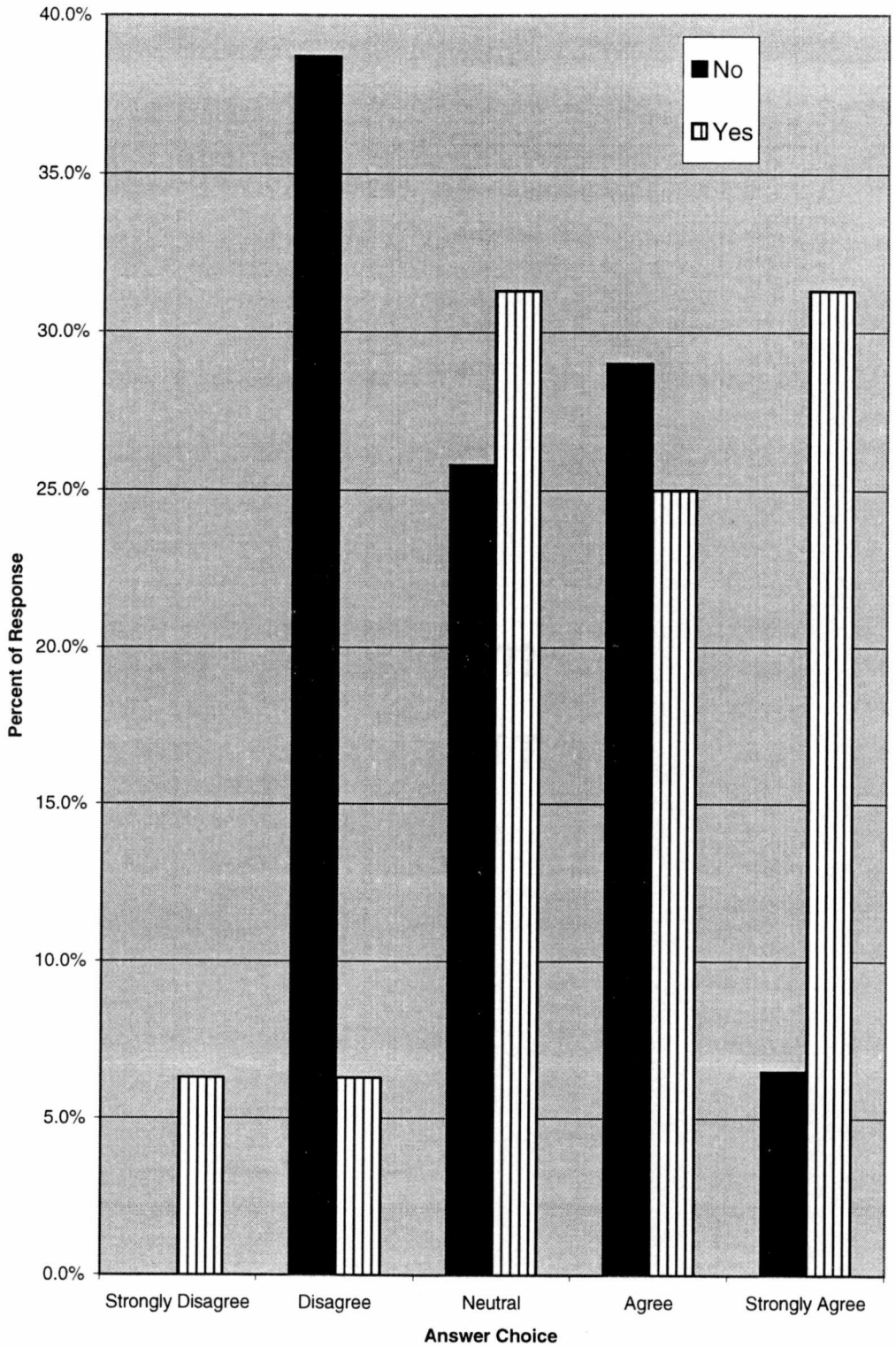

Figure 10. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether players should help the coach make the decisions.

influence on an athlete's motivation. The athletes felt better when family or friends came to watch them play, and if someone pumped up their excitement before a game, especially those with WAAC coaches. The athletes without WAAC coaches did not seem to care if they heard a pep-talk before a game. Since most of the subjects did not like to lose, those influential people who attended the game could help them deal with their emotions if the team were to lose. Athletes with WAAC coaches tended to feel respected when the coaches let them assist in making decisions. It can be concluded that the athletes with WAAC coaches wanted to change the way decisions were made. Most of the athletes without WAAC coaches, on the other hand did not think they should help make decisions because they apparently approved of the way their coach made the decisions. It could also be concluded that the coaches had an influence on the athletes because, if they did not, the athletes would not feel such respect from simply being heard in the decision making process. There needs to be more literature on this subject. There were no similar studies found in reviewing information for this topic.

Research Question 4 - What effects do positive, negative, or no feedback have on an athlete's motivation?

There were eight survey questions linked to this research question. They were survey questions 1, 8, 9, 12, 13, 16, 17, and 21 (Appendix D).

Results

Question 1 asked how the athlete felt when he lost and his coach said it was OK (Figure 11). The range of the answers covered the scale from one end to the other, but good and very good were chosen more often by the group with no WAAC coach. The most frequent single answer for both groups was actually neutral. However, of the WAAC coach athletes approximately 30% said they felt good or very good and less than 20% felt bad or very bad when their coach said it was OK that they lost. In contrast almost 40% of the no WAAC coach athletes felt good or very good and approximately 25% felt bad or very bad.

Question 8 asked how it made the athlete feel when his coach complimented him after he made a good play (Figure 12). Every single selection was some variation of a positive answer choice. The majority of both groups (approximately 80%) said they felt very good if their coach complimented a good play. The alternative of good received almost 20% of the responses from both groups. The distribution between the two groups was symmetrical.

Question 9 asked how it made the athlete feel when his coach yelled at him after he made a mistake (Figure 13). There were no selections for either of the positive choices. The majority of the athletes in both the WAAC coach and no WAAC coach groups (58.1% and 50%, respectively) said they felt very bad when their coach yelled after making a

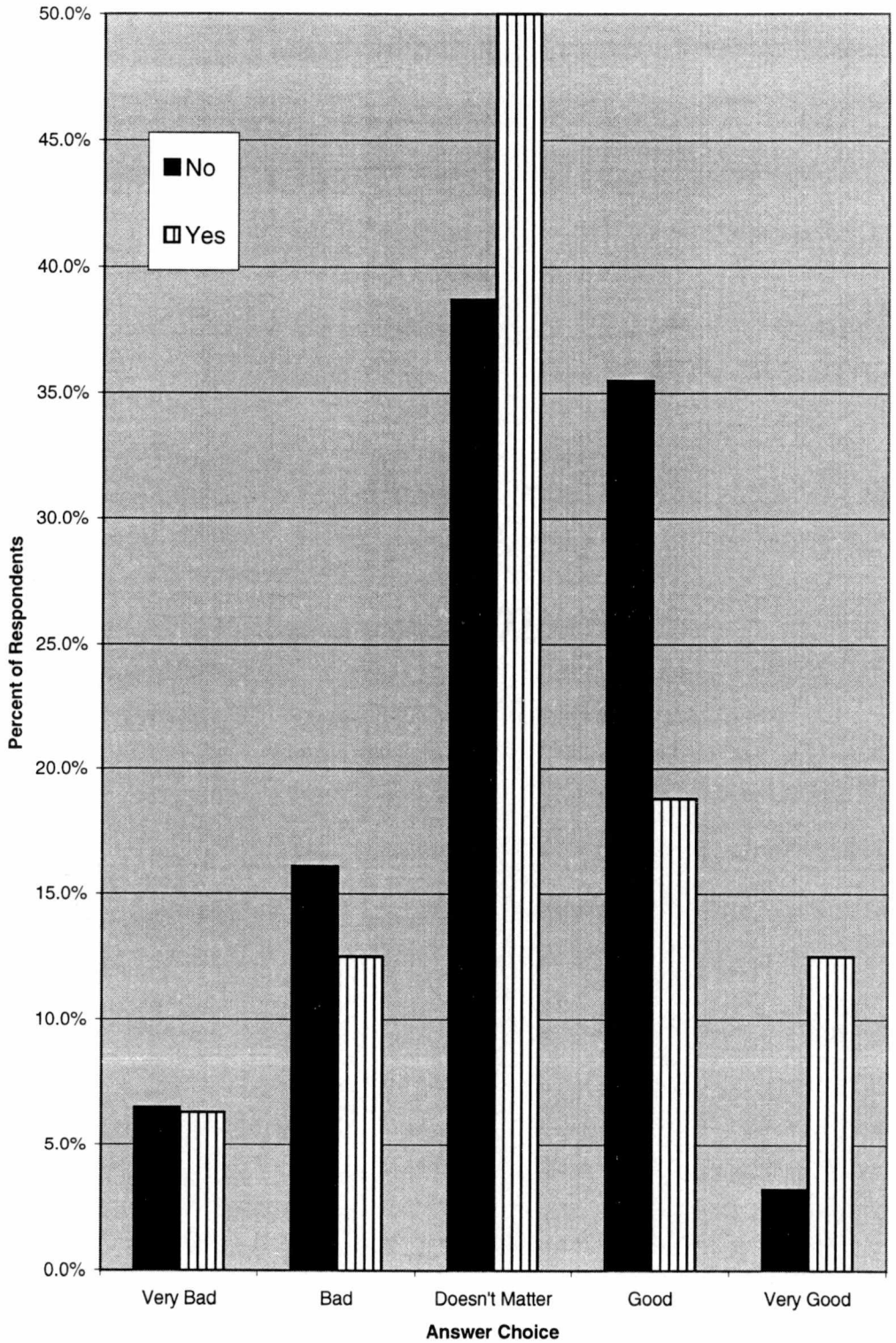

Figure 11. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when they lose and coach says it is OK.

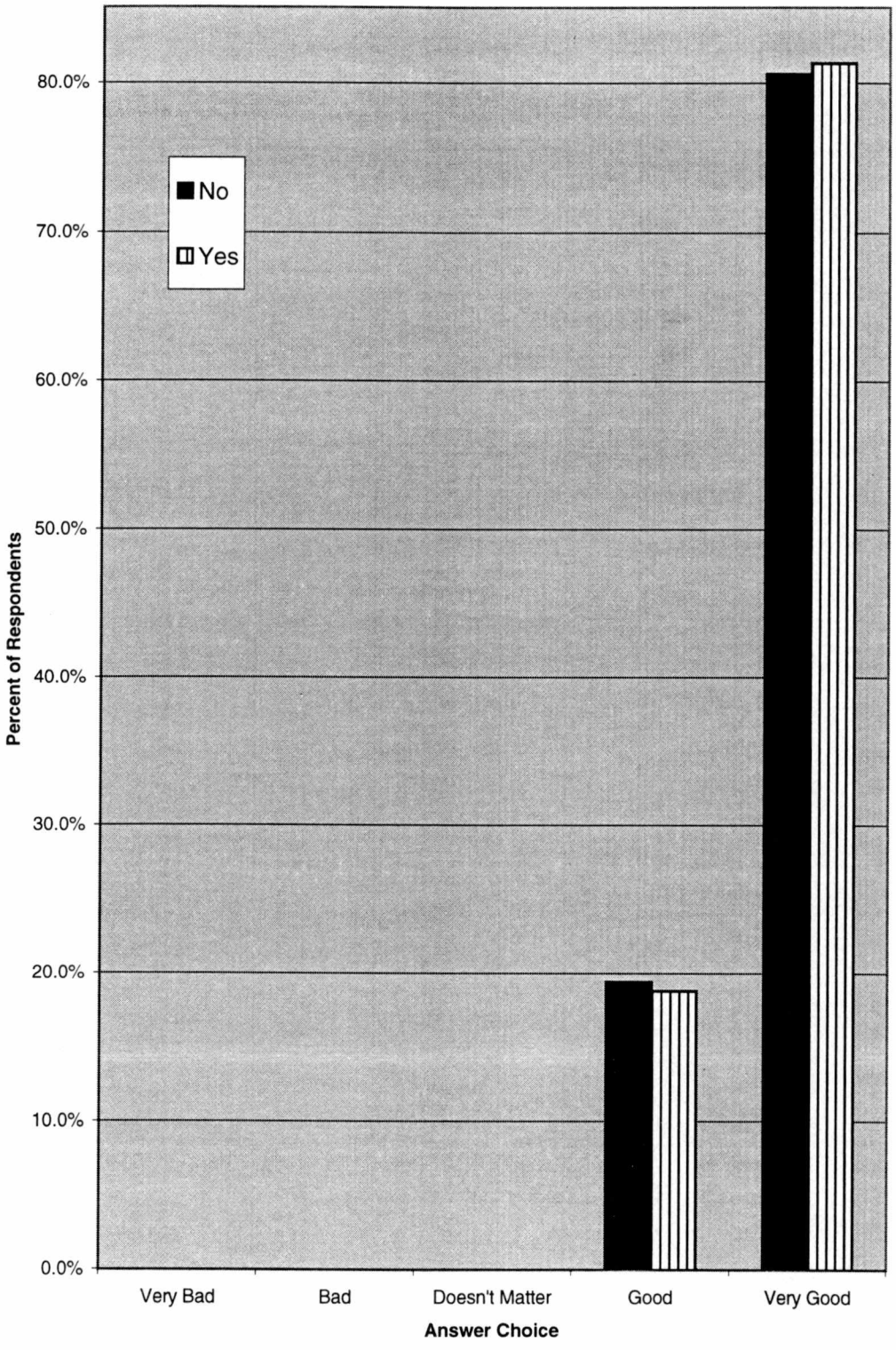

Figure 12. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when coach compliments a good play.

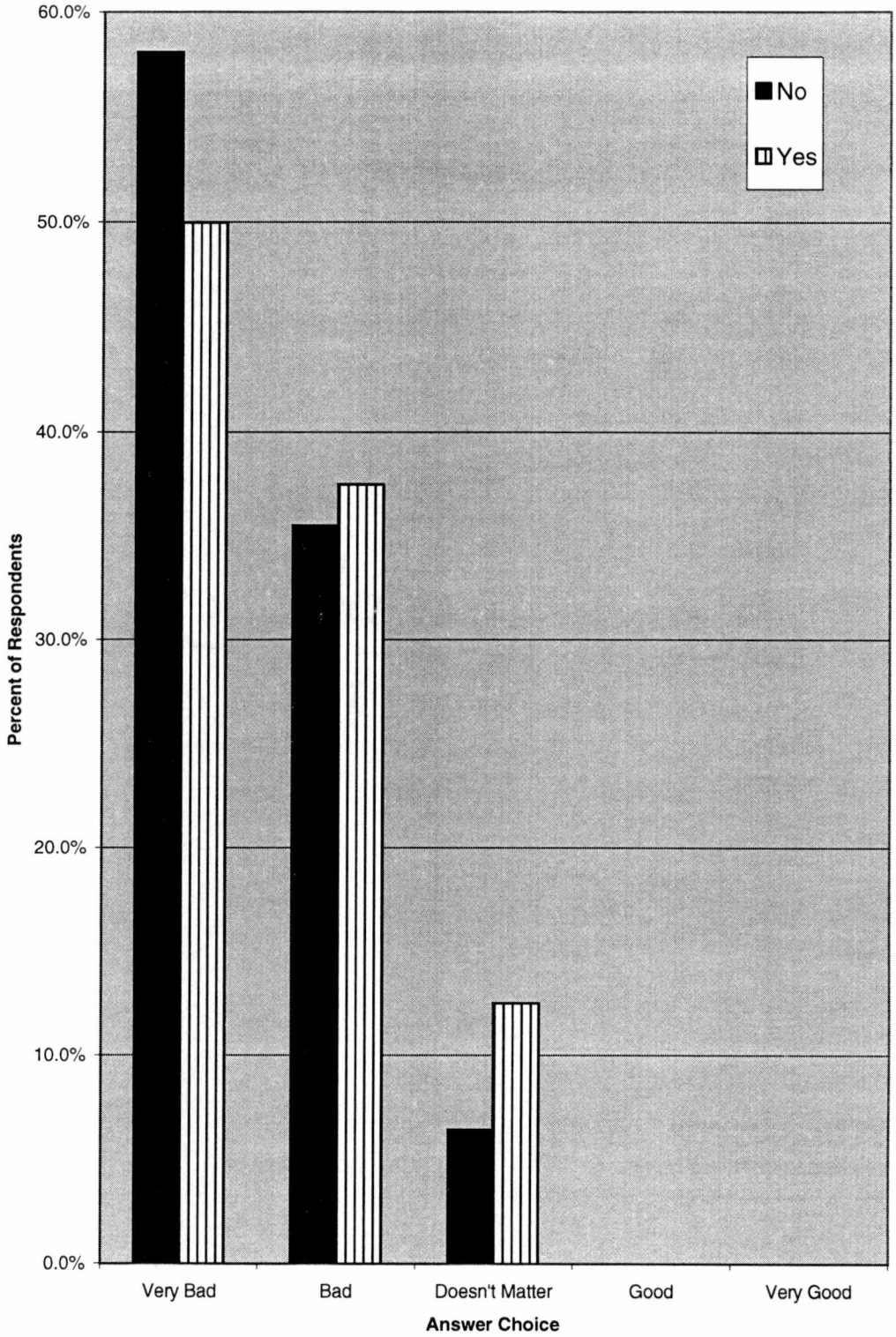

Figure 13. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when coach yells after making a mistake.

mistake. The percentages within the WAAC coaches group and no WAAC coaches group were very similar (Figure 13).

Question 12 asked if the athlete agreed that he would treat the players on his team the way his coach does if he were in charge (Figure 14). The choices for this question ranged from one end of the spectrum to the other. Most of the WAAC coach athletes (37.5%) agreed that they would treat their players the same as their coach. However, a fairly high percentage (25%) of those athletes were neutral on the subject. As for the no WAAC coach athletes, they had strong opinions on the subject. The same number of these athletes (32.3%) agreed and strongly agreed. There were more athletes with WAAC coaches (18.8%) who disagreed than those without WAAC coaches (9.7%). However, 12.9% of the athletes without WAAC coaches strongly disagreed.

Question 13 asked if the athlete gets really excited before a game (Figure 15). Although all the answer choices were selected, again the positive choices were selected more frequently. The majority of both groups of athletes strongly agreed that they get really excited before a game. There were several more athletes with WAAC coaches (43.8%) who agreed than athletes without WAAC coaches (only 16.1%). And only athletes without WAAC coaches disagreed and strongly disagreed that they get really excited (Figure 15).

Question 16 asked if the athlete agreed that if his parents or friends did not come to watch him play it would

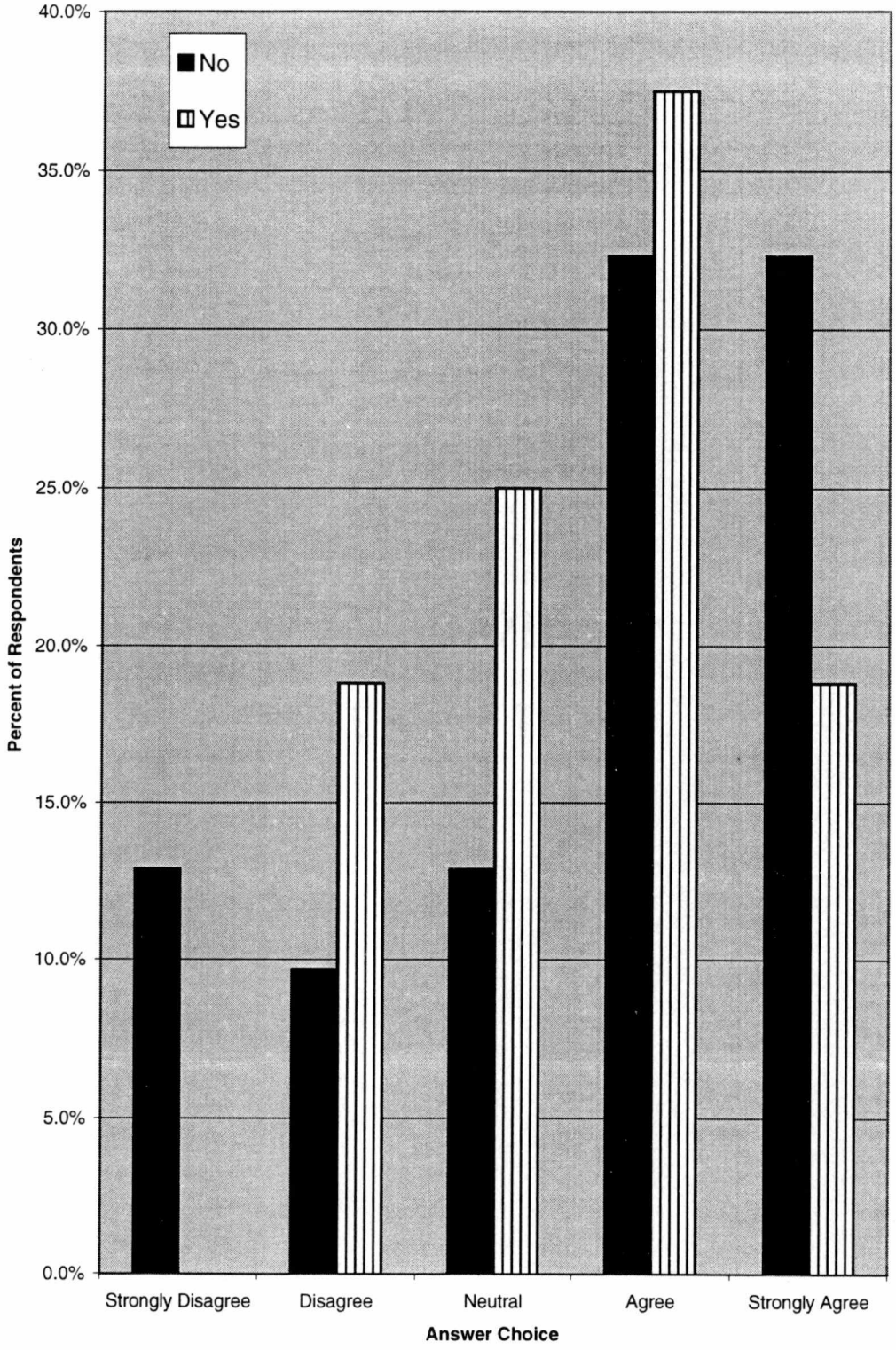

Figure 14. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether athletes would treat players same as coach does if they were in charge.

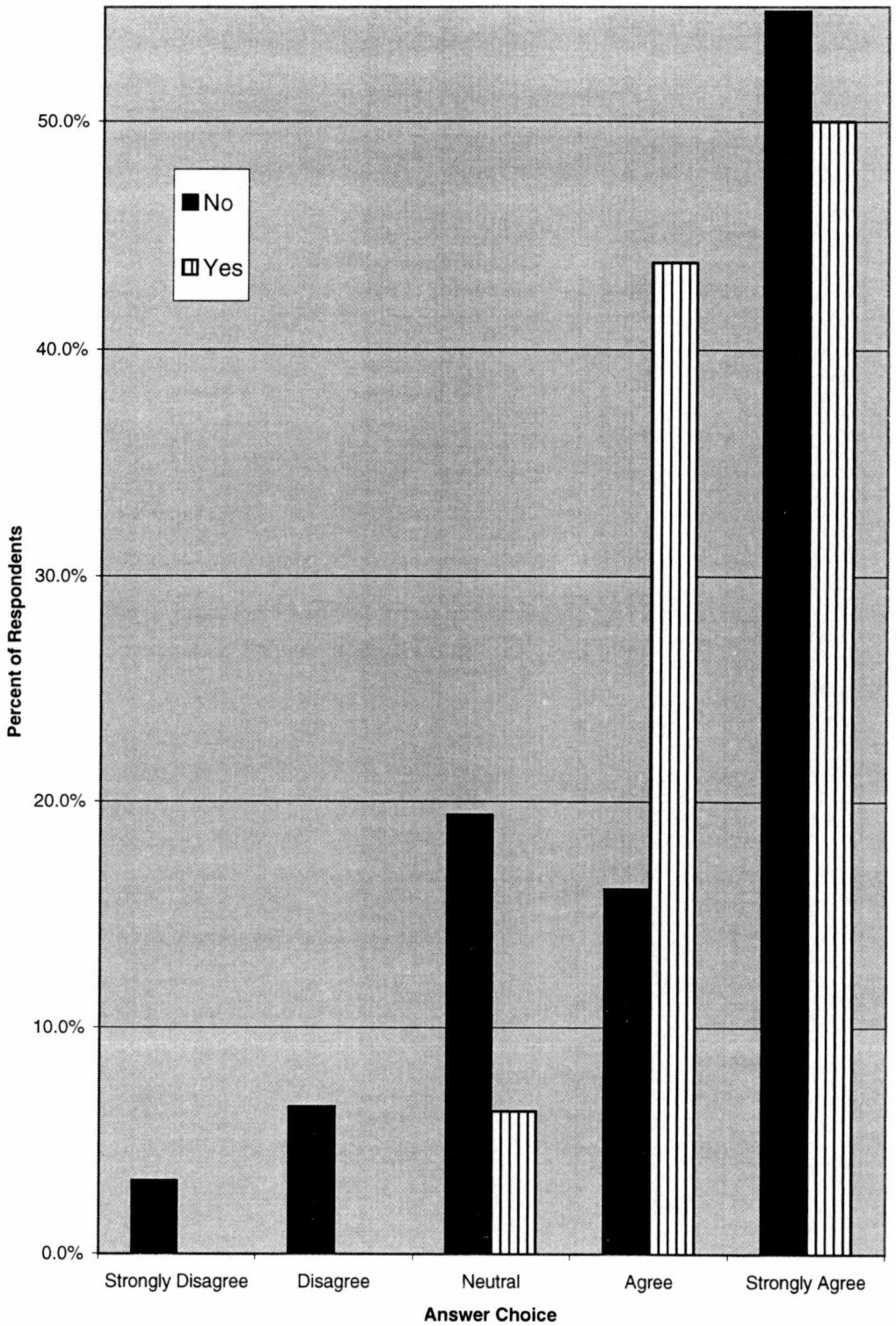

Figure 15. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes getting really excited before a game.

affect the way he played (Figure 16). More than 80% of athletes with WAAC coaches disagreed or strongly disagreed that parents and friends coming to watch affected their play. Only 50% of athletes with no WAAC coaches felt similarly. However, when comparing the positive and negative selections for both groups, there were more athletes who disagreed or strongly disagreed that their play would be affected if no one came to watch than those who disagreed (Figure 16).

Question 17 asked if the athlete agreed with the idea that someone should say something nice to him after he made a good play (Figure 17). For this question, there were no negative responses for either group of athletes. Most of the athletes (approximately 40%) for both groups strongly agreed that something nice should be said after making a good play. While 31.3% of athletes with WAAC coaches agreed, only 22.6% of the athletes without WAAC coaches agreed. More of these athletes were neutral on the subject than agreed with it (Figure 17).

Question 21 asked if the athlete agreed that his coach would get mad at him if he made a suggestion to him (Figure 18). These answers returned to ranging in selection. The most frequent response for the athletes with no WAAC coach (45.2%) was strongly disagree. For both groups of athletes the negative selections were chosen more frequently than the positive ones (Figure 18). However, there were some

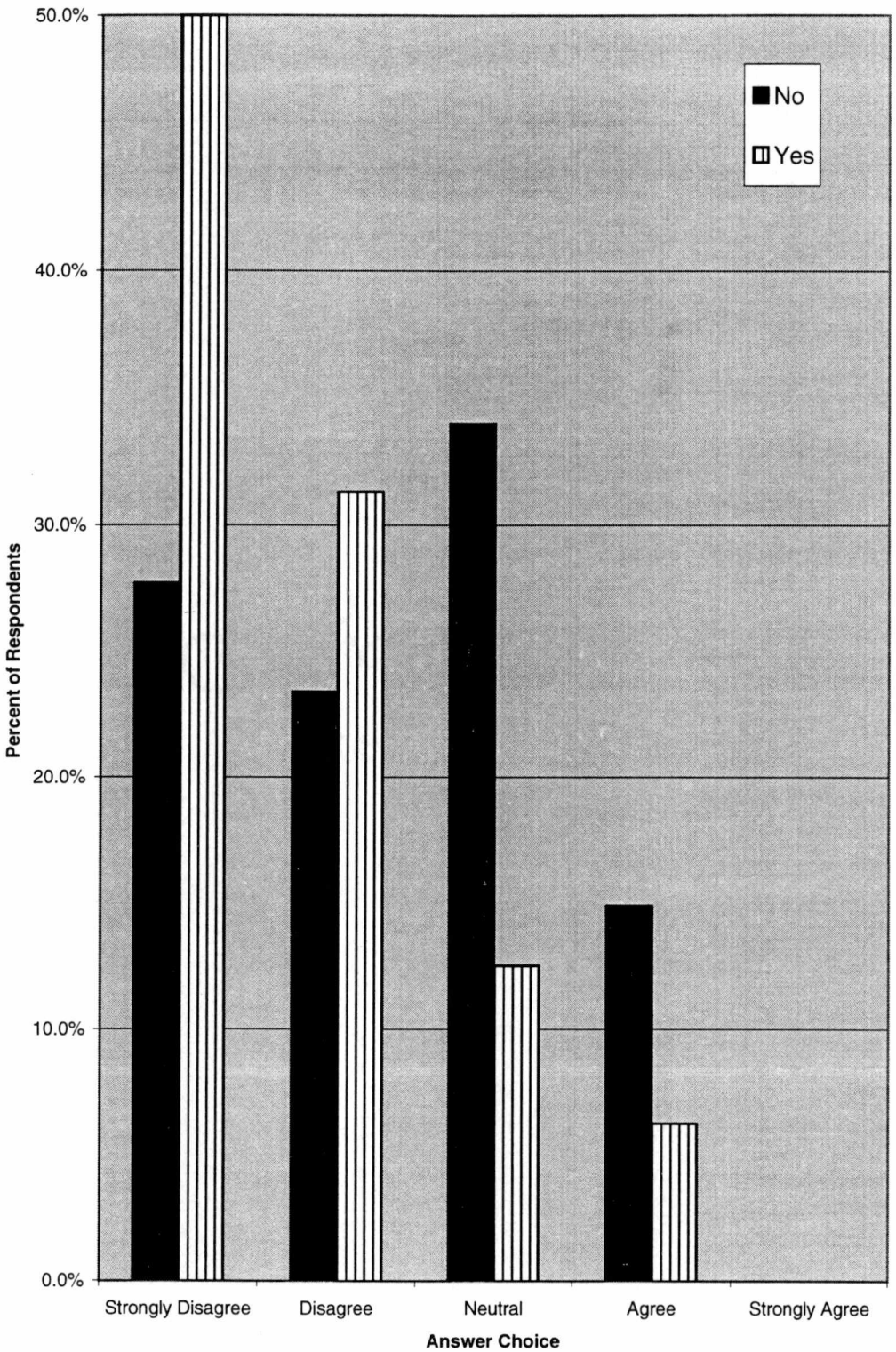

Figure 16. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether parents and friends watching affects athletes' play.

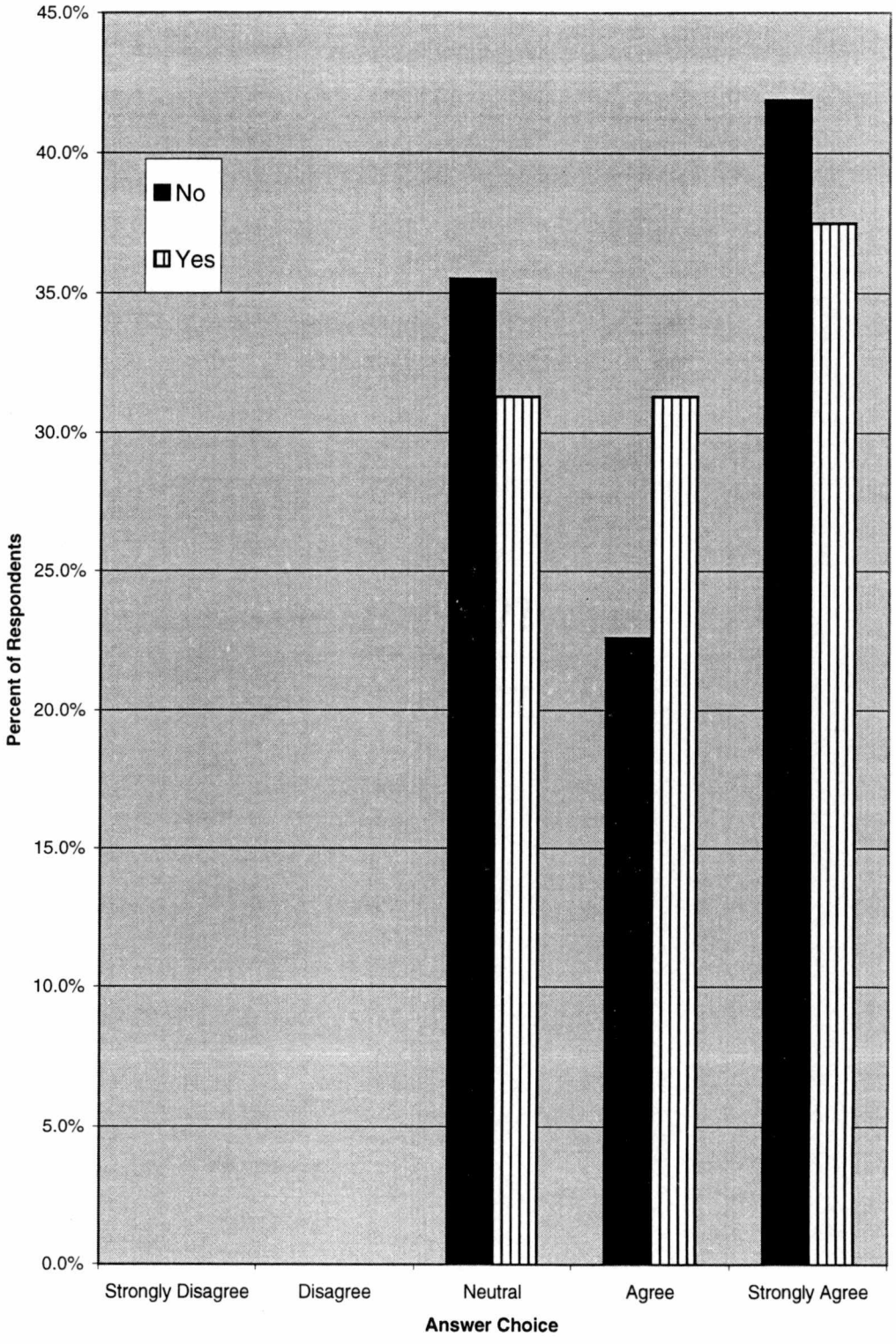

Figure 17. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning something nice being said after a good play.

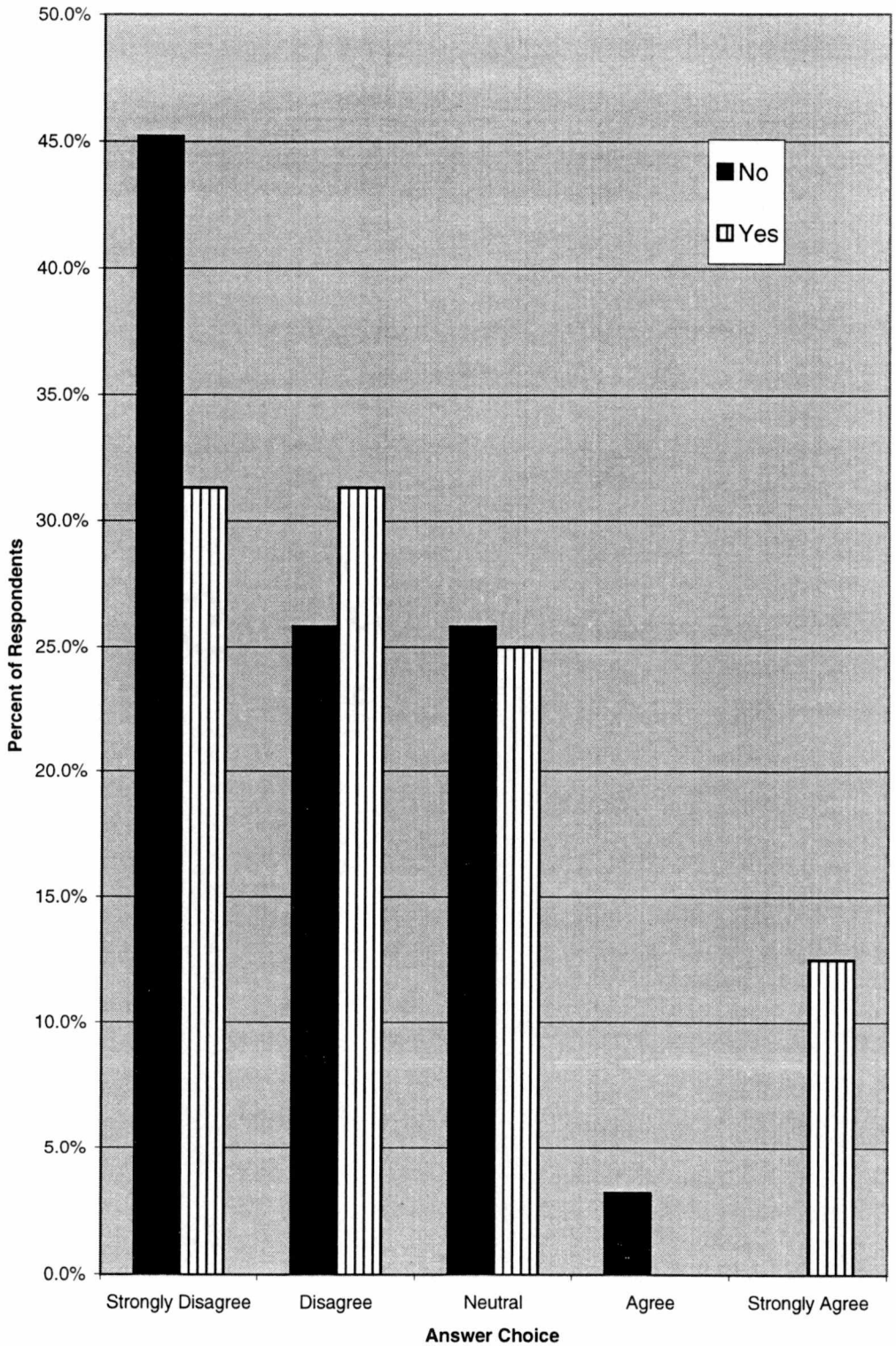

Figure 18. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether coach would get mad if the athletes made a suggestion.

athletes who had a win at all costs coach (12.5%) who strongly agreed that the coach would get mad.

Discussion

The data from these survey questions strongly indicated that feedback had a great impact on a young athlete. Positive reinforcement seemed to be something all the subjects wanted and needed, while negative feedback seemed to only discourage the athletes made them feel bad. Young athletes both with WAAC coaches and without definitely seemed to need some form of feedback, and positive feedback seemed to be preferred. These findings coincided with previous studies that have been conducted on the effects of varying amounts and styles of feedback, some of which were reviewed in preparation for this study (Black & Weiss, 1992; Robinson & Carron, 1982; Vallerand 1983). These studies also found that positive feedback was preferred by athletes.

Research Question 5 - Is an athlete's motivation dependent upon the type of leadership style his coach uses?

There were seven Likert scale survey questions that corresponded to this area of the study. They were questions 3, 4, 7, 15, 20, 22, 24. The short answer question at the end of the survey should also be applied to this research question (Appendix D).

Results

Question 3 asked how the athlete felt when he lost and his parents said it was OK (Figure 19). The selections for this questions ranged from very bad to very good. There

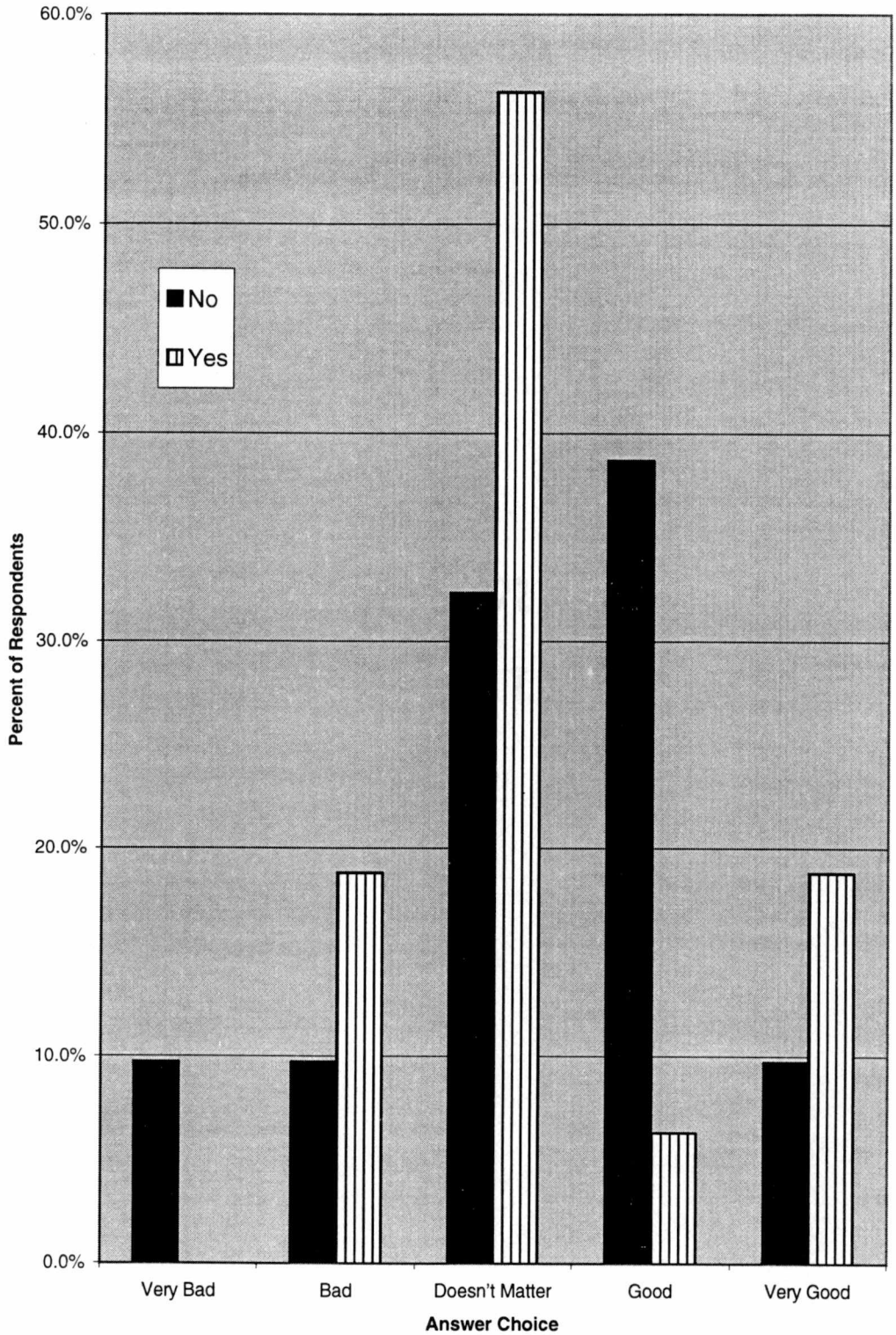

Figure 19. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes'' feelings when they lose and parents say it is OK.

were many more athletes with WAAC coaches (56.3%) who responded neutral than athletes without WAAC coaches (32.3%). The most frequent response for athletes with no WAAC coach was that they felt good when their parents said it was OK when the team lost. Although 18.8% of athletes with WAAC coaches felt very good, the same amount also felt bad. Athletes without WAAC coaches were the only ones who felt very bad (Figure 19).

Question 4 asked how the athlete felt when people said nice things to him after he made a good play (Figure 20). Every response for this question was a variation of a positive one. The majority of the athletes from both the no WAAC coach group (83.9%) and the WAAC coach group (81.3%) felt very good, and the rest felt good when something nice was said after a good play was made (Figure 20). The percentages within the two groups were almost the same.

Question 7 asked how the athlete felt about the way his coach ran the team (Figure 21). Although the answers ranged across the scale, most athletes without WAAC coaches (45.2%) felt very good and those athletes with WAAC coaches (50%) felt good about the way their coach ran the team. However, it should be noted that many athletes without WAAC coaches (35.5%) felt good and 43.8% of athletes with WAAC coaches felt very good. The only athletes who felt bad or very bad were those with no WAAC coach (Figure 21). An explanation as to why the athletes with WAAC coaches felt good about the

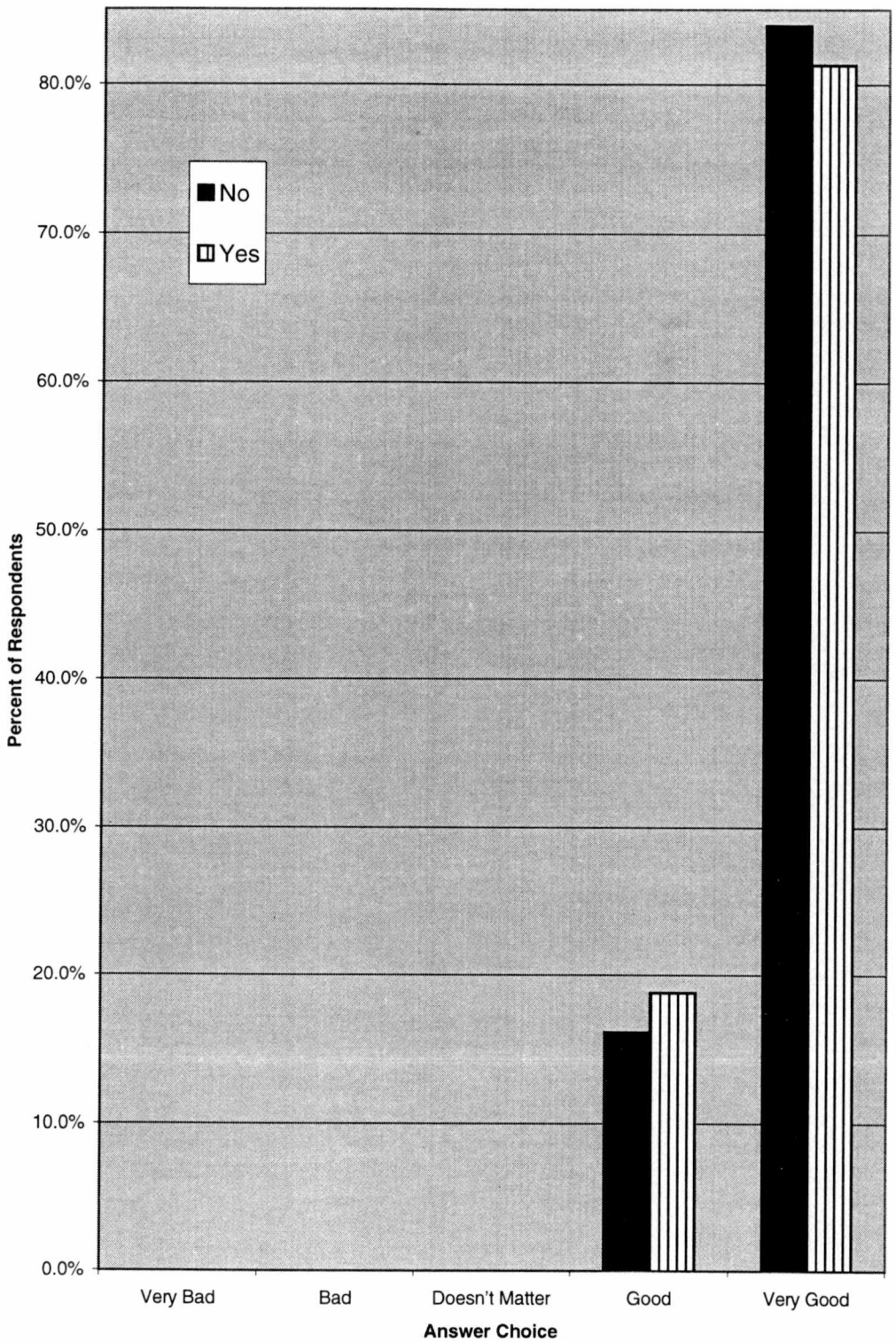

Figure 20. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings when people say nice things after a good play.

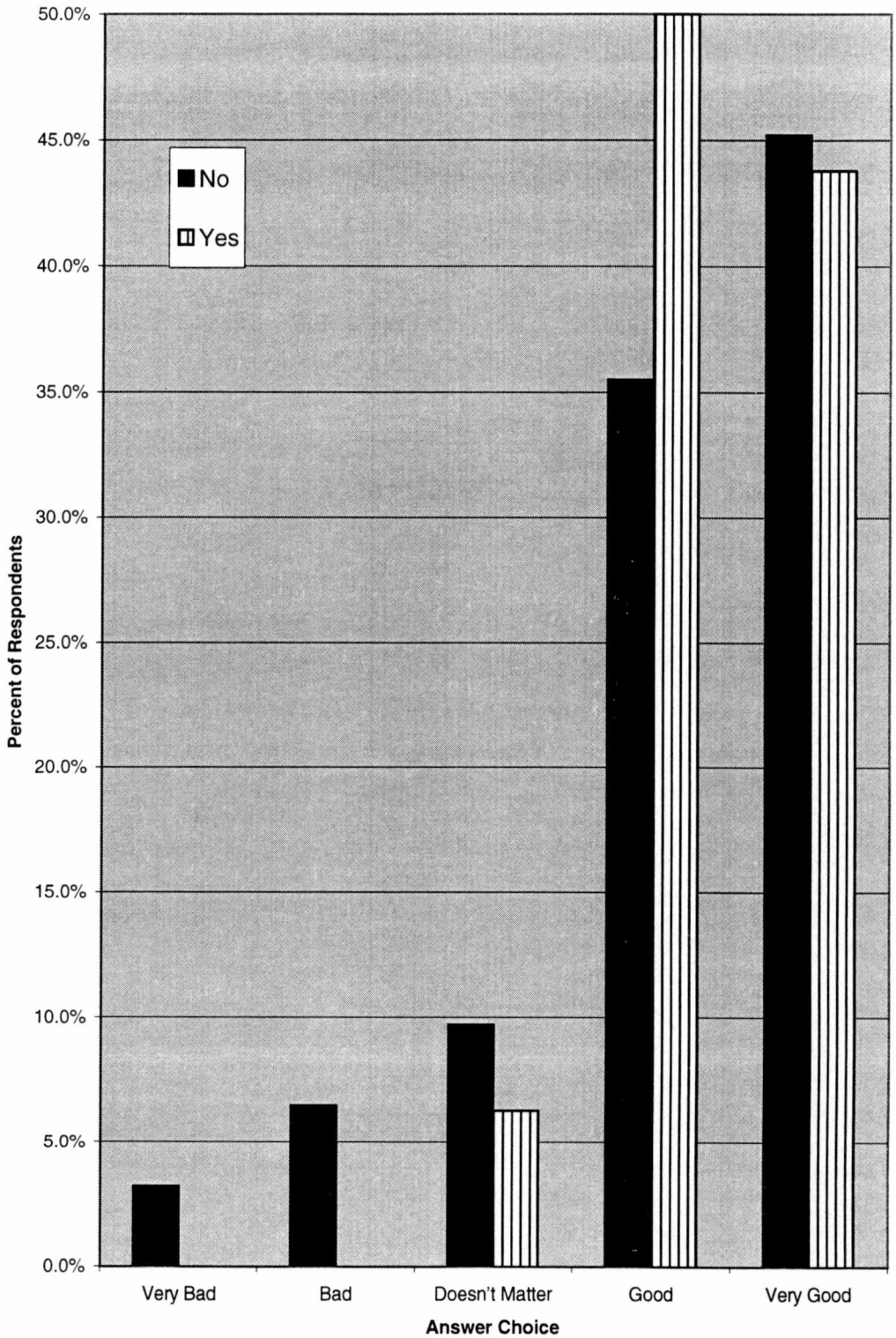

Figure 21. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning athletes' feelings about the way coach runs team.

way their coach ran the team was that they were not aware of the more positive coaching styles that their coach could used with them.

Question 15 asked if the athlete agreed that it cheered him up when someone said something nice to him after he made a mistake (Figure 22). The most frequent response for athletes without WAAC coaches (35.5%) was agree, while a number of them also strongly agreed (25.8%) and were neutral on the subject (29%). Most athletes with WAAC coaches (31.3%) either strongly agreed or were neutral that it cheered them up when someone said something nice after a mistake was made. Some of the athletes from both groups also disagreed or strongly disagreed (Figure 22).

Question 20 asked if the athlete agreed that he was proud of himself when his team won a game (Figure 23). None of the negative selections were chosen for this question by either group. The majority of the athletes of both groups strongly agreed that they were proud of themselves when their team won. There were, however, many more athletes without WAAC coaches (64.5%) who strongly agreed than athletes with WAAC coaches (43.8%). The choice of agree was also chosen frequently by the two groups. The rest of the responses were neutral. The neutral and agree categories had a fairly even distribution between the two categories (Figure 23).

Question 22 asked if the athlete agreed that it was

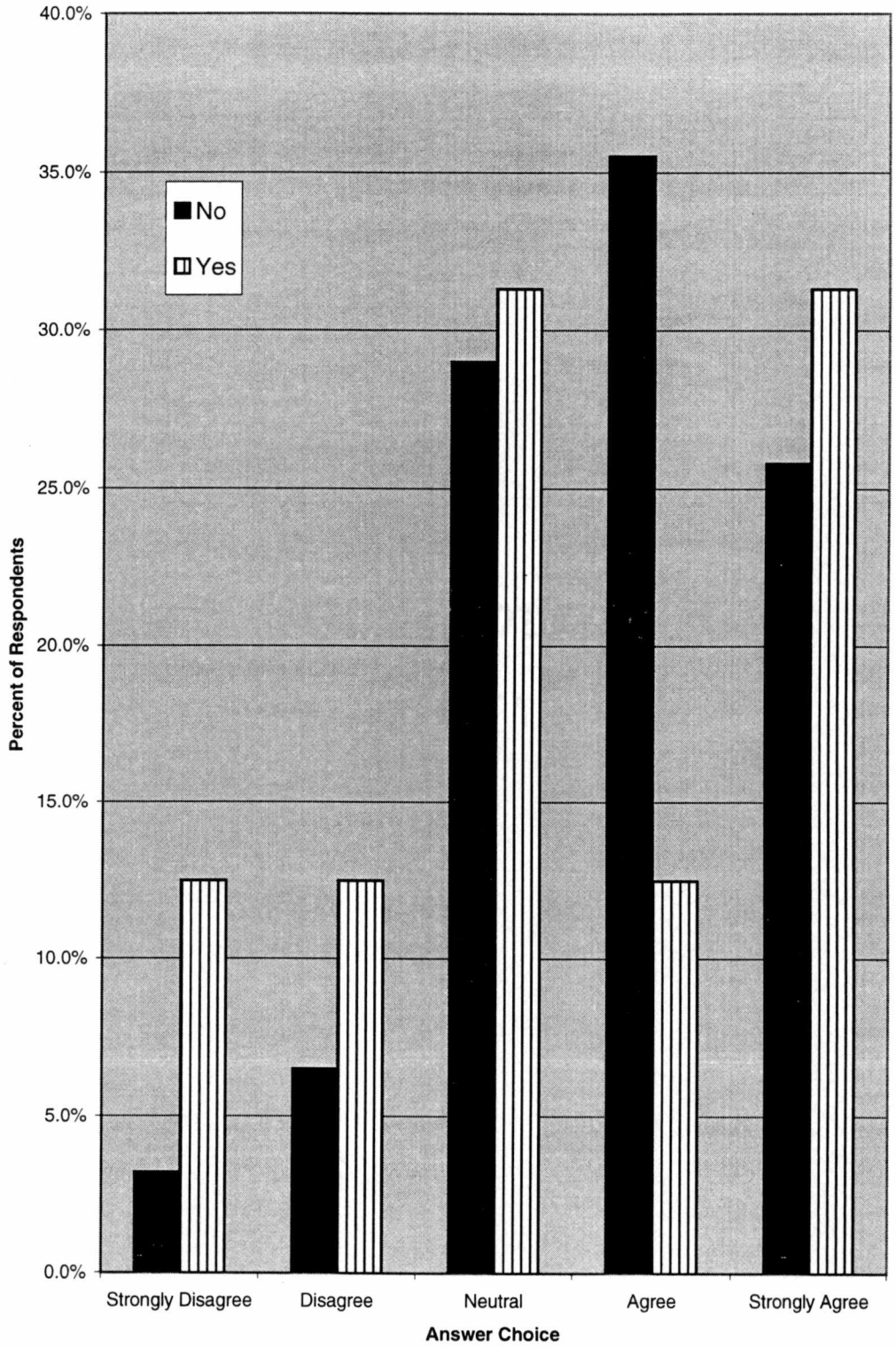

Figure 22. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether it cheers the athletes up when someone says something nice after making a mistake.

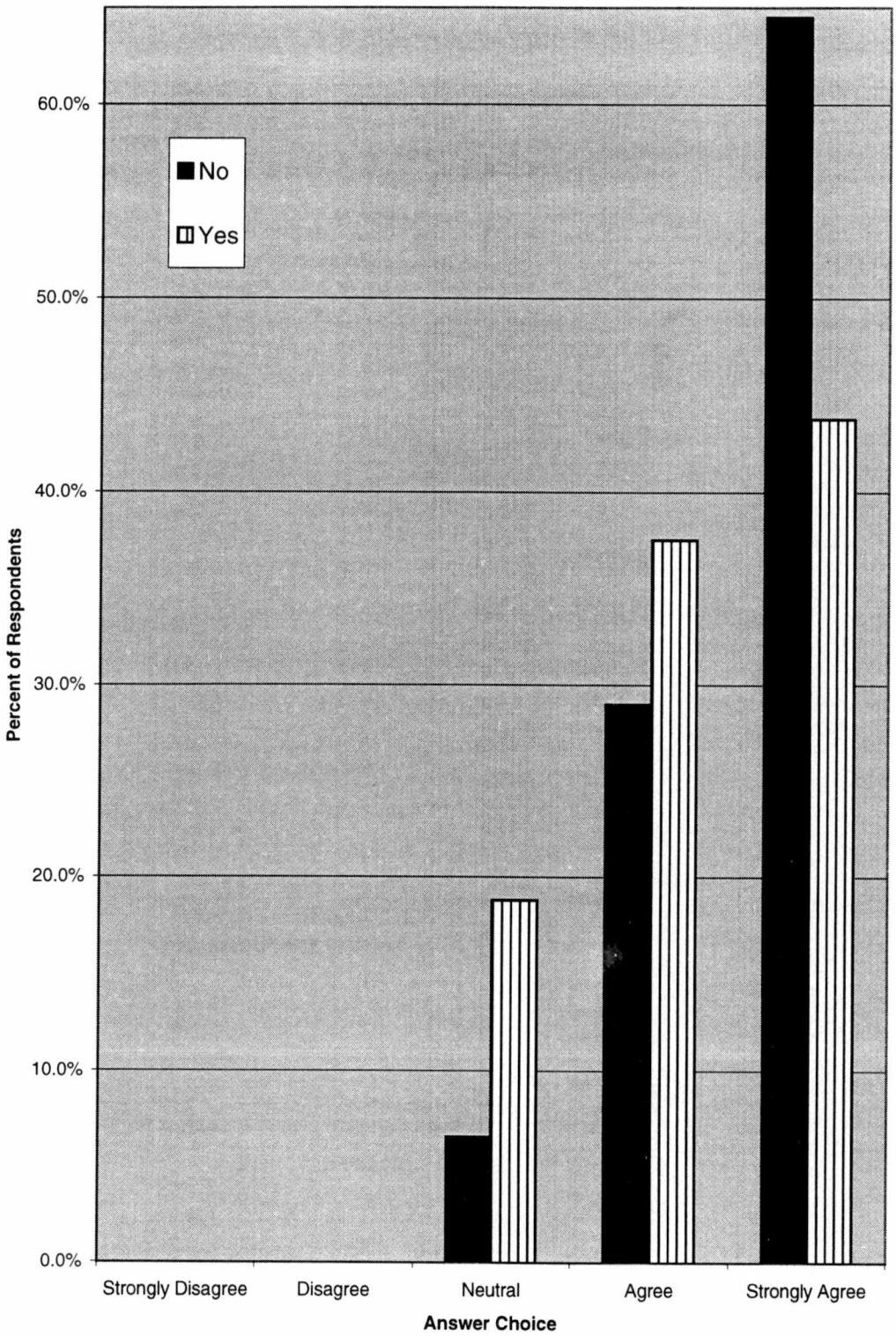

Figure 23. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether athletes are proud of themselves when team wins.

right to yell at someone when they made a mistake (Figure 24). Only a small percentage of the responses were agree, while the other responses were either neutral or negative. Most athletes without WAAC coaches (71.0%) strongly disagreed. The most frequent response for athletes with WAAC coaches (37.5%) was both strongly disagree and disagree. This shows a strong partiality to the negative answer choices. However, it should be noted that the small percentage of athletes who agreed that it was right to yell at someone for making a mistake were those who had a win at all costs coach (6.3%).

Question 24 asked if the athlete agreed that he was still proud of himself and the way he played even if his team lost (Figure 25). The most frequent response for athletes without WAAC coaches (38.7%) was agree, while neutral (29%) and strongly agree (22.6%) were also chosen frequently. Following a similar pattern, most athletes with WAAC coaches (25%) either strongly agreed, agreed, or were neutral that they were still proud of themselves when the team lost. Small percentages of both groups also disagreed or strongly disagreed (Figure 25).

The short answer question asked how the athlete thought a coach should treat his players. In general, the same few concepts appeared repeatedly in the athletes responses. Athletes from both groups felt that their coaches should treat all players equally, with respect and encouragement,

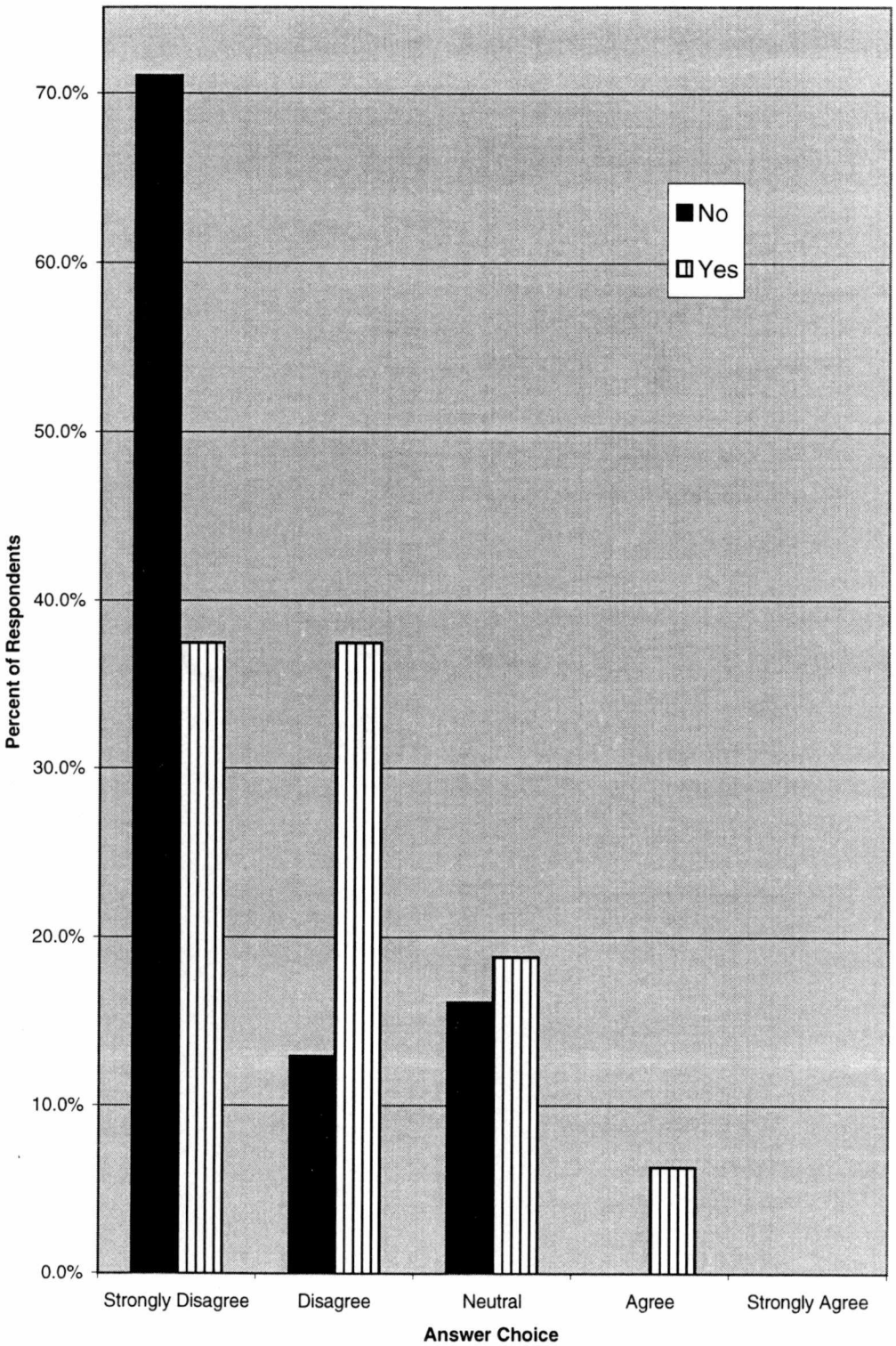

Figure 24. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether it is right to tell at someone if they make a mistake.

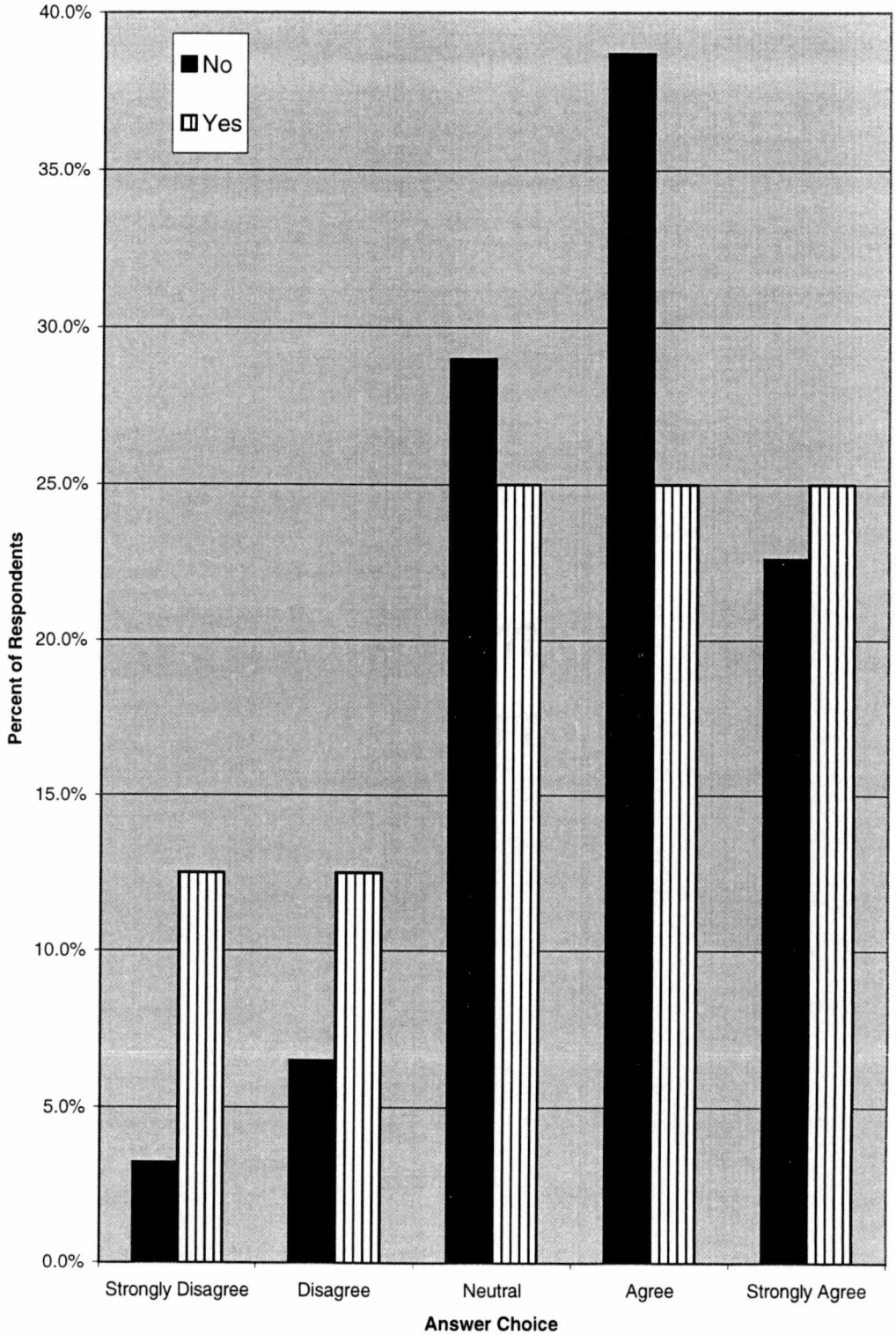

Figure 25. A comparison between WAAC coach and no WAAC coach experiences concerning whether athletes were still proud of themselves when team loses.

and also take their suggestions under advisement.

Discussion

The data from the Likert scale survey questions indicated that the coach's leadership style played a significant role in the athlete's motivation. However, for some it was not completely dependent upon their coach because they were able to motivate themselves. Coaches with the win at all cost attitude could not motivate their athletes because some of their athletes felt they deserved to get yelled at if they made a mistake and they were not proud of themselves if the team lost. The responses from the survey short answer question generally indicated that the athletes wanted to have fun, to be respected, and to be treated fairly. All of the responses were contradictory to the qualities and practices displayed by a win at all costs coach. These findings agreed with most of the previous studies conducted on similar topics about how coaching styles affect the athletes (Black & Weiss, 1992; Chelladurai, 1984; Fortier, Vallerand, Briere & Provencher, 1995). Some new discoveries were also uncovered. There should, however, definitely be more literature and research on such an important area.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine if the "win at all costs" attitude was detrimental to adolescent male athletes' perceptions of their sport experiences when used by their coaches as the leadership style. The study also included five underlying research questions. The first was what motivated a young male athlete. The second was what inspired young male athletes to want to win. The third question was what influence or effect the coaches, parents, and significant others had on an adolescent male athlete's motivation. The fourth was what effects positive, negative, or no feedback had on an adolescent male athlete's motivation. And the fifth and final question was whether an adolescent athlete's motivation was dependent upon the type of leadership style his/her coach used. What could be learned from coaching styles could help prevent or avoid future negative effects from the win at all cost attitude on adolescent athletes' sport experiences. Experiences that athletes had as a youth assist in molding and shaping their views in the future.

There were 47 male athletes in this study who ranged in age from ten to thirteen years. The athletes were required to have participated in at least one sport for no less than one season. Some of the subjects involved in the study

based their answers on memories, while others answered according to what was presently occurring in their sport. This was because the athletes from a variety of sports were going to be used, not just from sports which were in-season at the time of data collection. The different sports that the subjects had played were baseball, basketball, soccer, football, skiing, lacrosse, tennis, volleyball, swimming, hockey, and golf. The athletes were obtained from the Methodist and Catholic churches in a town located in the central area of New Jersey. They volunteered to complete the survey and each of them had parental consent. Sixteen of the athletes had personal experiences with win at all cost coaches and thirty-one of them did not.

A twenty-five question survey created specifically for this study was used to obtain the data. The questions were generated to find answers to each of the underlying research questions. The survey as a whole was evaluated by means of two tests before it was actually administered to the volunteers. It was first subjected to a validity check to determine the percentage of agreement of the test development format. Then the consistency of the survey answers were evaluated through a reliability check. After the two tests were completed the survey was ready to be administered to the actual subjects.

The volunteers' parents first read a letter that included the consent form (Appendix B). After the parents'

consent form had been signed, the survey was either immediately administered personally by the researcher or at a later time in the volunteers' homes by their parents. The survey was composed of twenty-five questions in the form of five point Likert scales. Completion of the survey took approximately ten minutes and the subjects did not put their names on the surveys, thus ensuring their confidentiality.

The results were categorized by demographics and research questions. The three survey questions used for the first research question indicated that other people do have an influence on a young male athlete's motivation. It seemed the athletes without win at all cost (WAAC) coaches agreed more with the way their coach ran the team and in turn these coaches influenced the athletes more than the win at all cost coaches did. Those athletes exposed to win at all cost (WAAC) coaches seemed to be influenced more by their parents than their coach.

There were three survey questions also linked to the second research question which revealed that the athlete himself and positive reinforcement were what inspired these young male athletes to want to win. Both athletes with and without WAAC coaches agreed on the concept of positive reinforcement. The four survey questions associated with the third research question disclosed that coaches, parents, and significant others have an important influence on an athlete's motivation. Athletes with win at all cost (WAAC)

coaches especially felt better when family or friends came to watch them play and someone pumped up their excitement before a game.

There were eight survey questions that were affiliated with the fourth research question which indicated that feedback had a great impact on young athletes. Positive reinforcement seemed to be something all the subjects, with or without WAAC coaches, wanted and needed. The final research question had seven of the Likert scale survey questions that corresponded to it and the one short answer question from the survey. The results from the Likert scale questions indicated that the coach's leadership style played a significant role in the athlete's motivation. The type of role was dependent upon the leadership style. Those coaches with the win at all cost attitude had more of a negative effect than a positive one on the athletes' motivation. However, for some athletes their motivation was not completely dependent upon their coach because they were able to motivate themselves.

The responses from the survey short answer question generally indicated that the athletes wanted to have fun, to be respected, and to be treated fairly. All of the responses described characteristics that were contradictory to those qualities and practices that would be displayed by a win at all costs coach.

Conclusions

The conclusion was drawn that the use of the win at all cost attitude by a coach has either a detrimental effect or no effect but definitely not a positive effect on a young athlete's motivation and perception of his sport experience. The results reflected that those athletes who had personal experiences with a win at all cost coach expected and in turn accepted more negative behaviors and situations than those athletes who were not exposed to that form of coaching. The athletes exposed to WAAC coaches were under the impression that it was alright to yell and at times it was the deserved response. These types of concepts are what significantly effect an athlete's sport experience for life. Another important finding in this study was that athletes with WAAC coaches strongly believed that they should help in the decision making process for the team, while the athletes without WAAC coaches did not necessarily need to offer their opinions. The athletes without WAAC coaches agreed with their coaches' philosophies and decisions, so they did not feel they had to change the decision making process because from their perception nothing wrong with their coaches' decisions.

Those athletes who did not have experiences with a win at all cost coach knew that positive reinforcement was a more effective correctional method than yelling. Their answers were based on qualities and experiences that they

would not want to encounter. The athletes who had been exposed to win at all cost coaches on the other hand, answered the survey questions based on first hand experiences and their feelings generated from those experiences. In either case the results uncovered the same negative feelings toward the win at all cost coaching attitude.

No athlete wanted to endure the experiences associated with this coaching style, whether they already had or not. Those who had experienced it wanted it to stop, and those who had not experienced the WAAC approach wanted to avoid it.

Implications

There are some areas associated with this study that should be investigated further, as well as, unanswered questions that were raised. It has not yet been determined if athletes' preferences of coaching style change with age, skill level, experience, or the relationship among these factors. Researchers should also study the possibility of significant others having a greater influence than their coaches on adolescent athletes' sport experiences as a whole. There are also implications created from this study that can be put to use by future researchers. Researchers should try to include as much contextual and background information as possible in their questions. This ensures that the subjects have a full understanding of what is being

asked, and in turn will avoid any unintentional false data.

Another insinuation is that further research of a topic could and should always be done on a wider sample of groups in order to back up the previous conclusions. Different age, sex, and skill level groups would be important to study as well as different geographical regions. A third recommendation is that studies should try to be designed to allow the results to be generalized for as many possible subjects and situations. And a final implication is that research studies should be seen as stepping stones or building blocks. New research needs to be done to narrow down and specify the information of previous studies. New studies that build on the conclusions of past studies should be done periodically to maintain a current perspective.

Researchers are not the only group that shoulder the implications from studies like this one. Parents, teachers, and coaches should all be aware of the detrimental effects the win at all cost attitude can have on young athletes. The sport managers and administrators of youth leagues should also be aware of these effects. These are the individuals who structure the learning environment and experience for the young impressionable athletes. Lessons that are possibly carried and used by the athletes for the rest of their lives. This is possibly the most important implication of all for it is this which directly affects the young athletes of today and those of years to come.

REFERENCES

REFERENCES

Bird, A.M. (1977). Team structure and success as related to cohesiveness and leadership. Journal of Social Psychology, 103(2), 21-223.

Black, S.J., & Weiss, M.K. (1992). The relationship among perceived coaching behaviors, perceptions of ability, and motivation in competitive age-group swimmers. Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 14(3), 309-325.

Chelladurai, P. (1984). Discrepancy between preferences and perceptions of leadership behavior and satisfaction of athletes in varying sports. Journal of Sport Psychology, 6(1), 27-41.

Chelladurai, P. (1990). Leadership in sports: a review. International Journal of Sport Psychology, 21(4), 328-354.

Fortier, M.S., Vallerand, R.J., Briere, N.M., & Provencher, P.J. (1995). Competitive and recreational sport structures and gender: a test of their relationship with sport motivation. International Journal of Sport Psychology, 26(1), 24-39.

Henschen, K.P., Edwards, S.W., & Mathinos, L. (1982). Achievement motivation and sex-role orientation of high school female track and field athletes versus nonathletes. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 55(1), 183-187.

Leith, L.M. (1989). Causal attribution and sport behavior: implications and practitioners. Journal of Sport Behavior, 12(3), 213-225.

Robinson, T.T., & Carron, A.V. (1982). Personal and situational factors associated with dropping out versus maintaining participation in competitive sport. Journal of Sport Psychology, 4(4), 364-378.

Ryan, F.J. (1989). Participation in intercollegiate athletics: affective outcomes. Journal of College Student Development, 30(2), 122-128.

Salminen, S., & Liukkonen, J. (1996). Coach-athlete relationship and coaching behavior in training sessions. International Journal of Sport Psychology, 27(1), 59-67.

Serpa, S., Pataco, V., & Santos, F. (1991). Leadership patterns in handball competition. International Journal of Sport Psychology, 22(1), 78-89.

Vallerand, R.J. (1983). The effect of differential amounts of positive feedback on the intrinsic motivation of male hockey players. Journal of Sport Psychology, 5(1), 100-107.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

LETTER TO THE MINISTERS

May, 1998

Dear (Minister's Name) :

My name is Susan Cevasco and I am a graduate student at the University of Tennessee in the Sport Management program. As part of my M.S. degree I have chosen to do a thesis entitled Intrinsic Motivation in Adolescent Male Athletes: The Perceived Affects of a "Win at all Cost" Attitude. Essentially, the thesis deals with motivational affects that the "win at all cost attitude" has on male adolescent athletes and their perceptions of their experiences when used by their coaches as the leadership style. Hopefully the results of this study will help explain the athletic experiences that young athletes have. I am writing to you in hopes you can help me identify possible subjects for my sample in the study.

I would appreciate it if you would give me your permission to use your church as a source for my voluntary sample group. I need male volunteers between the ages of 10-13 who have participated in some organized sport for at least one season. I will require one of the volunteers' parents to review the survey and sign a consent form prior to his/her son's participation in the study. The adolescent volunteer would need to complete a 25 question survey. The adolescents will not include their names on the survey, so their answers and identities will be completely confidential and there will be no foreseeable risks or discomfort for the participant. I was hoping to administer the survey at a table in the lobby of your church following the weekend masses. The survey should only take about ten minutes to complete.

If you have any questions please contact either me or my advisor at the phone number or address listed below. Thank you for your time. Again any assistance you can give me would be much appreciated.

Sincerely,

Susan M. Cevasco
M.S. Candidate

Patricia Beitel
Advisor and Professor

Sport & Physical Activity Unit
1914 Andy Holt Avenue
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville
Knoxville, TN 37996-2200
(423) 974-8171 or 974-1277

I hereby give consent for Susan Cevasco to contact our parishioners and to administer her research survey in my church.

Signature_____

APPENDIX B

PARENTAL CONSENT FORM

May, 1998

Dear Parent:

My name is Susan Cevasco and I am a graduate student at the University of Tennessee in the Sport Management program. As part of my M.S. degree I have chosen to do a thesis entitled Intrinsic Motivation in Adolescent Male Athletes: The Perceived Affects of a "Win at all Cost" Attitude. Essentially the thesis deals with the motivational affects that the "win at all cost attitude" has on male adolescent athletes and their perceptions of their experiences when used by their coaches as the leadership style. The answers to the survey will provide information about the athletes' feelings about the "win at all cost" attitude, their motivation, and their perceptions of their experiences with their coaches. Hopefully the results of this study will help to explain the athletic experiences that young athletes have. All I would need your son to do is answer a 25 question survey (attached) that should only take about ten minutes. No names will be written on the survey, therefore everything is completely confidential and there will be no foreseeable risks or discomforts for your son. However, before I can have your son complete the survey I need your consent. I appreciate any cooperation I can have on this.

If you have any questions or concerns please contact either me or my advisor at the phone number or address listed below. Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

Susan M. Cevasco
M.S. Candidate

Patricia A. Beitel
Advisor and Professor

Sport & Physical Activity Unit
1914 Andy Holt Avenue
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville
Knoxville, TN 37996-2200
(423) 974-8171 or 974-1277

I hereby give consent for my son(s), _____, to participate in this research study by answering the survey.

Signature_____Home Phone_____

APPENDIX C

ATHLETE INFORMED CONSENT

Title - Intrinsic Motivation in Adolescent Athletes: The Perceived Affects of a "Win At All Cost" Attitude

This survey is being used to collect data for a thesis I am doing at the University of Tennessee. I am a graduate student in sport administration working on my M.S. degree. The basis of the thesis is a study that will examine the motivation and feelings of young male athletes. The actual title of the thesis is Intrinsic Motivation in Adolescent Athletes: The Perceived Affects of a "Win at all Cost" Attitude. So your answers to these questions will provide information about your feelings about the "win at all cost" attitude, your motivation, and your perceptions of your experiences with you coaches. Hopefully the results of this study will help other young athletes have a positive sport experience.

The survey consists of 25 questions. It should only take about 10 minutes to complete. Do not write your name on the survey so we can keep your names and answers completely confidential. This way there are no foreseeable risks or discomforts for you. Read each question carefully and answer honestly. To answer the questions, select one of the five choices and circle it.

Your parents and your priest have given permission for you to participate if you are willing, but remember, this survey is completely voluntary. So if you change your mind about participating at any time just let me know. If you have any questions or need to contact me or my advisor for any reason, we can be reached at the phone number or address listed below.

Thank you for your participation in this study.

Susan M. Cevasco
M.S. Candidate

Patricia A. Beitel
Advisor and Professor

Sport & Physical Activity Unit
1914 Andy Holt Avenue
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville
Knoxville, TN 37996-2200
(423) 974-8171

COMPLETING THIS SURVEY INDICATES THAT I HAVE YOUR CONSENT TO BE A PARTICIPANT IN THIS STUDY.

APPENDIX D

SURVEY

Title - Intrinsic Motivation in Adolescent Athletes: The Perceived Affects of a "Win At All Cost" Attitude

Demographics

1. Age:_____
2. Competitive sport(s) you play:_____
3. Have you ever had a coach that believed in winning at all cost?_____
4. If so, for how many seasons did you have a coach like this?_____

Survey

Please read each question carefully. Then circle one of the number answer choices for each question.

1 = very bad
2 = bad
3 = doesn't matter
4 = good
5 = very good

1. How does it make you feel when you lose and your coach says it is OK?	**1 2 3 4 5**
2. How does it make you feel when your parents or friends come to watch you play?	**1 2 3 4 5**
3. How does it make you feel when you lose and your parents say it is OK?	**1 2 3 4 5**
4. How does it make you feel when people say nice things to you after you make a good play?	**1 2 3 4 5**
5. How does it make you feel when your parents yell at you after you make a mistake?	**1 2 3 4 5**
6. How does it make you feel when your team loses?	**1 2 3 4 5**
7. How do you feel about the way your coach runs the team?	**1 2 3 4 5**
8. How does it make you feel when your coach compliments you after you make a good play?	**1 2 3 4 5**
9. How does it make you feel when your coach yells at you after you make a mistake?	**1 2 3 4 5**
10. How does it make you feel when someone gives you a pep-talk before a game?	**1 2 3 4 5**

Survey

Please read each question carefully. Then circle one of the number answer choices for each question.

1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neutral
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

	SD		N		SA
11. Your coach should let the players help to make the decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
12. If you were in charge of the team you would treat the players the way your coach does.	1	2	3	4	5
13. You get really excited before a game.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Your coach is open to listening to what the players think.	1	2	3	4	5
15. It cheers you up when someone says something nice to you after you make a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
16. If your parents or friends did not come to watch you play it would effect the way you play.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Someone should say something nice to you after you make a good play.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Someone should say something encouraging to you after you make a mistake to make you feel better.	1	2	3	4	5
19. You get yourself mentally prepared and excited before a game.	1	2	3	4	5
20. You are proud of yourself when your team wins a game.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Your coach would get mad at you if you made a suggestion to him.	1	2	3	4	5
22. It is right to yell at someone when they make a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
23. You like the way your coach runs the team.	1	2	3	4	5
24. You are still proud of yourself and the way you played even if your team loses.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Your coach should yell if the team loses.	1	2	3	4	5

***On the back please write how you think a coach should treat the players.**

VITA

Susan Marie Cevasco was born in Trenton, New Jersey on September 12, 1975. She attended Montgomery High School in central New Jersey where she played eleven varsity seasons of soccer, basketball, and softball from which she earned several sportsmanship awards. She also received conference and county recognition in softball. She graduated in June of 1993.

She then entered Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania. In May of 1997 she received a Bachelor of Science degree in Accounting and Business Administration. In August of 1997 she entered The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, and in August of 1998 received a Master of Science degree in Sport Administration.