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Female Athletes' Goal Orientation, Perceptions Of The Motivational Climate, And The Likelihood To Aggress In A Team Environment

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Female Athletes' Goal Orientation, Perceptions of the Motivational Climate, and the Likelihood to Aggress in a Team Environment

(TITLE)

BY

Lauren Rippy

THESIS

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF

Master of Science in Physical Education

IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY
CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS

2004

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between female athletes' goal orientation and perceptions of motivational climate upon the likelihood to aggress in team sports. Female lacrosse (N=79) and softball (N=56) athletes from high school, collegiate, and post-collegiate levels were examined on their goal orientation, perceptions of motivational climate, and the intent to commit injurious acts. Athletes were assessed on perceptions of motivational climate (Perceived Motivational Climate in Sports Questionnaire; PMCSQ; Duda, Seifriz, & Chi, 1992), goal orientation (Task and Ego Sport Questionnaire; TEOSQ; Duda & Nicholls, 1989), and moral reasoning in sport (Continuum of Injurious Acts; CIA; Bredemeier, 1985). After categorizing athletes into high and low goal orientation, a one-way ANOVA was performed with goal orientation as an independent variable on aggressive tendencies to examine whether females with higher ego orientation could be more likely to legitimize aggression. To test whether less experienced athletes would be more likely to legitimize injurious acts and whether high-contact athletes would be more likely to legitimize injurious acts, a 2 x 2 ANOVA (experience x sport type) was performed on CIA scores. ANOVA procedures were also used to determine whether athletes differed in their legitimacy perceptions across motivational climate profiles. Finally, hierarchical regression analyses were performed in order to determine whether athlete experience, reason for playing, goal orientation, and perception of the motivational climate were predictive of athletes' likelihood to aggress in their sport as measured by the CIA. Results indicated that there were no differences in a performance climate versus a mastery climate on the likelihood to aggress. Additional results revealed that athletes who did not possess strong attitudes toward sport, were more

likely to adopt the predominant attitude of the coaching climate in regards to sportsmanship like behavior. Furthermore, results indicated that sport experience did not influence moral behavior but, sport type did. Lacrosse athletes displayed lower moral reasoning in that they reported a greater likelihood to aggress as indicated by their CIA scores. While none of the predictors in the regression analysis significantly predicted CIA scores in lacrosse, age, task orientation and mastery climate perceptions were predictive of likelihood to aggress in softball players.

ACKNOWLEDMENTS

A sincere thank you goes to Dr. William Russell, who patiently guided me through the research and thesis process. I would also like to thank Dr. Phyllis Croisant, for her statistical wizardry, and Dr. Scott Crawford for his insight into human nature.

A special thank you goes to all of the cooperating coaches for their assistance and allowing me access to their athletes for this study.

Finally, I would like to thank my husband, Jim Bosak, for encouraging me to follow my heart. Without your support, I would not have been able to tackle graduate school.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Instances of players fighting with each other as well as fans and referees (Lefebvre, Leith, & Bredemeier, 1980), indicates an aggressive style of play that affects game outcomes, while decreasing the quality of the game. Thus, understanding motivation in sport is critical to enhancing sport participation, sportsmanship and social development. Previous literature within sport psychology and sport sociology has debated whether sport develops character or "characters" (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). Character is defined as the possession of those personal qualities or virtues that facilitate the consistent display of moral actions (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995, p.192). They further state that the four virtues consist of compassion, fairness, sportsmanship and integrity. In many professional sport situations, a dichotomy is drawn between athletes who embrace virtue and moral decision-making and those athletes who turn sports into a vehicle for promoting personal agendas and egocentrism. Prime examples of both scenarios are Kurt Warner and Emmit Smith versus "Prime Time" Deon Sanders, Pete Rose and Mike Tyson. Warner and Smith are ethically grounded individuals that value hard work, education and religion, all positive aspects of life. Conversely, Deon Sanders, Pete Rose and Mike Tyson tend to exploit themselves for the sole purpose of recognition and money. These individuals are infamous for garnering negative public relations because to them, negative public relations are good public relations. As professionals,

these individuals have experienced various levels of competition and sport culture influences like motivational climate, peers and society. While it may be argued that these athletes have chosen their paths of moral conduct, others might say that their paths have been chosen for them as a direct result of the accumulation of negative outside influences. Nonetheless, it is the responsibility of teachers, coaches and parents to positively influence athletes at any level and ultimately the onus resides within the athlete to conduct oneself in a moral, upstanding manner.

Shields and Bredemeier (1995), along with other researchers (i.e. Roberts, 2001) suggest that competitive sport is a culture that stresses the socialization process of personal development toward appropriate moral behaviors. More specifically, sport is thought to provide a framework for the moral development of participants where peer status and peer acceptance can be established, developed and enhanced (Evans & Robert, 1987; Fox, 1988; Kavussanu & Roberts, 2001; Lemyre, Roberts, & Ommundsen, 2002). Additionally, sport is often advocated as a vehicle for learning such virtues as fairness, self-control, courage, persistence, loyalty and teamwork (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995; Weiss & Bredemeier, 1990, Lemyre et al, 2002).

In contrast, Kleiber and Roberts (1981) argue that sport promotes destructive and antisocial behavior. According to Leonard (1972, p. 175) "If competitive sports builds character, it is character fit for a criminal." Bredemier (1985), Silva (1983), and Smith (1976) support the notion of sport as a socialization process that is supportive of an increased acceptance of aggression. More specifically, Silva (1983) provided early evidence and examined the role of sport socialization on the perceived legitimacy of rule-violating sport behavior. Females who played for 10 years or less, either in non-contact

or contact sports, perceived fewer rule-violating behaviors as legitimate than did non-sport participants. Additionally, Shields, Bredemeier, Gardner, and Bostrom (1995) looked at leadership, cohesion and team norms regarding cheating and aggression in a baseball and softball setting and found that women more than men, embraced collective norms that mitigate against tactics that might lead to pain or injury.

Stephens & Bredemeier (1996) suggest that other variables such as peer norms can create a moral atmosphere for more negative judgments about aggression. Additionally, Shields and Bredemeier (1995) examined the moral atmosphere of sport that involves a "bracketed morality" that legitimizes a temporary, non-serious suspension of the usual moral obligations to equally consider the needs of all persons.

The media plays a role in our society and has the potential to influence societal thoughts and attitudes (Bryson, 1987; Fink, 1998). Because the media potentially has an impact, it could be an essential tool in shaping female athletes moral reasoning. In a study conducted by Sage (1998), it was suggested that by watching televised sport, young athletes may learn that cheating and violating basic codes of moral conduct are often acceptable. With the recent increase of sport channels, there are a multitude of opportunities for individuals to view sports. In one study (Smith, 1978) it was found that one third of 604 young male ice hockey players learned and used illegal hits by watching professional hockey. Similarly, Mugnot & Feltz (1984) found that youth league and high school male football players learned aggressive sport acts by observing college and professional football. Additionally, with the increasing number of women watching sports coupled with the lack of female sports broadcasts, more women are watching men play sports (Fink, 1998). Duncan, Messner and Williams (1990) found that women's

sports received five percent of the television air time while men's sports received 92 percent. The excessive coverage of men's sports over women's sports might account for young female athletes picking up more aggressive sport tendencies due to the lack of positive role modeling.

Over the past thirty years women's sports have grown mostly in part to Title IX (Berlow, 1994). This legislation has paved the way for many young aspiring female athletes to challenge themselves in the realm of sport. In the amateur arena there is USA Hockey, USA Soccer and USA Lacrosse, just to name a few. Then there is the development of the professional leagues for soccer and basketball where female role models such as Lisa Leslie and Mia Hamm have inspired young girls to achieve their dreams. As a result of the increased opportunity of professional women's sports, there has been a greater influx of opportunity in both female amateur and youth sport settings. According to the National Federation of State High School Associations, young women accounted for 42 percent of all high school athletes in 2000-01, up from seven percent in the pre-Title IX era (1971), indicating an 847 percent increase in female athletics in thirty years.

While female sports have progressed over thirty years, hurdles remain (Secor, 2003, p.114). One of the hurdles is sportsmanship. In the sport of lacrosse, there have been incidences of ball and stick injuries to the eye area that can leave lasting and permanent damage (Ford, 2003). As a lacrosse referee, coach and player, I have witnessed several instances of unsportsmanlike conduct on the field. Most often, incidents occurred as a result of a large goal differential in big-games, usually near the end of playing time when athletes are tired. To encourage good sportsmanship, US

Lacrosse has partnered with the Positive Coaching Alliance and uses their motto, "Honor the Game," which simply means give respect to the players, coaches, umpires, opponents, and fans (US Lacrosse). The spirit of sport should supercede any personal needs or motives and the competitive aspect of sport should not be compromised. The development of women's professional sports allows young female athletes to identify with professional female role models. Even though these opportunities are growing, the professional sports world is still consumed with athletic aggressiveness, and masculine and violent contact sports such as hockey and football. These sports are capable of shaping the perceptions of moral behavior at a younger age. Other influences that may support negative moral behaviors in sport are parents and coaches. According to Shields and Bredemeier (1995, p.192), parents and coaches can foster values like authoritarianism and performance that can emphasize negative moral behavior. White (1996) found that female volleyball players' perceptions of what their parents prefer and consider to be important in the learning of physical skills was related to the athletes' dispositional goal orientations. This is important in the overall scheme of sport because negative attitudes portrayed by parents and coaches can encourage dangerous play and highly inappropriate values and attitudes on the playing field (Berlow, 1994) and can limit or decrease the development of sportsmanship and moral reasoning that young athletes apply to their sport.

Achievement Goal Theory

Current approaches to achievement motivation suggest that variations in behavior, attitudes and knowledge in achievement situations rely on individual preferences and situational variables (Newton & Duda, 1999). According to Roberts (2001, p.10)

Achievement Goal Theory assumes that the individual is an intentional, goal-directed organism that operates in a rational manner and that achievement goals govern achievement beliefs and guide subsequent decision-making behaviors in achievement contexts. Achievement Goal Theory also proposes that behavior is a function of an individual's goal orientation, perceived ability, and their explanation for success or failure at a task or skill. Additionally, achievement goals reflect individual investment of personal resources such as time, effort, and talent. According to Dweck (1986) and Nicholls (1989), achievement goal theory assumes that both the characteristics of the individual and the situation interact to affect the state of goal involvement. According to Nicholls (1989), two dispositional goal perspectives have been identified, primarily task and ego, which explain how people judge success and define competence within a given performance domain (i.e. academia, athletic). Duda proposes (1983) these goal orientations broadly characterize personal dispositions that athletes bring to athletic situations that result in personal definitions of success and failure.

It is thought that outcome orientations (ego) are those dispositions in which success is based on normative comparison while self-referent (task) orientations are those dispositions in which success hinges on improving individual performance (Duda, 1983; Nicholls, 1984, 1989; Ames, 1992). Additionally, these goal perspectives or orientations have been found to be independent of one another (Nicholls, 1989) and individuals can vary in degree to which they are task- and ego-oriented. A predominantly task-oriented environment exists when athletes perceive that improvement, hard work and helping teammates to succeed is reinforced. Individuals high in task-orientation tend to approach sport with a focus on improving skill, trying hard and achieving personal mastery. Thus,

the task oriented individual aims to achieve mastery through exerting maximal effort. Moreover, individuals who perceive themselves as having higher task-orientation levels view achievement activity as an end in itself (Duda et al, 1991). Within the sport context, a high level of task orientation is necessary for developing team cohesion and reinforcing positive sport values and attitudes (Duda et al, 1991). A study conducted by Dunn and Dunn (1999) examined goal orientations in elite male youth hockey players and found those with higher task orientation had greater respect for social conventions in hockey, as well as a higher respect for rules, officials and a personal commitment to participation than players with lower levels of task orientation.

An ego-oriented environment exists when athletes perceive that poor performance and mistakes will be punished, that high ability players are rewarded and that competition between players is encouraged (Newton & Duda, 1998). Subsequently, individuals who tend to approach sport with the goal of demonstrating superior normative ability are described as predominantly ego-oriented. Individuals who perceive themselves to have higher ego-orientation levels participate in achievement activities as a means to some end (Duda, Olson, Templin, 1991). This "win at all cost" attitude and the need to demonstrate superiority may validate an ego-oriented individual to legitimize injurious acts. Individuals with a higher ego orientation and a lower level of perceived competence, are thought to be more susceptible to the stress and anxiety of competition (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1998). Roberts (1992) provided further insight that winning and losing in sport situations are highly unstable and relatively uncontrollable objective demands, thus creating a negative affective state in the athlete's mind. Shields and Bredemeier (1995) explored youth soccer and found that the best predictor of players'

self-described likelihood to engage in unfair game tactics (i.e. cheating, lying) was their belief about the likelihood that teammates would play unfair. Additionally, Sheilds and Bredemeier (1995) suggested that over time, members will develop collective norms about appropriate behaviors on the part of group members.

Individuals who focus on themselves with skill development, will tend to comply more with rules and emphasize fair play. Evidence that supports task-oriented athletes display higher moral development levels than ego-oriented athletes can be seen in a study conducted by Dunn & Dunn (1999), which looked at the relationship between goal orientation and perceptions of athlete aggression in elite youth hockey and found that regardless of ego orientation, low task orientation was more motivationally detrimental to several sportsmanship dimensions. In a recent study, Fry (2003) examined the motivational responses of tennis players in relation to their goal orientations and perceptions of the motivational climate. Specifically, positive perceptions of a task-involving climate and negative perceptions of an ego-involving motivational climate predicted players' attitudes toward sportsmanship, their instructor, and fellow players. This finding indicates that perceptions of the motivational climate are important and can affect athletes' attitudes toward sport.

The term "motivational climate" refers to the situational goal structure occurring in a given situation that is created by a coach or teacher (Ames & Archer, 1988; Roberts, 2001). Through specific performance or outcome measures, coaches choose to reward and focus on desired behaviors. A climate which emphasizes skill mastery, learning or improvement is considered mastery-oriented, which tends to link with a task-oriented goal disposition. Thus, a task-oriented coach will encourage personal improvement,

focus on player effort, and reward mastery attempts when learning new sport skills. Conversely, an environment that stresses social comparison, normative feedback or ability, reinforces a performance-oriented climate and aligns with an ego-oriented goal disposition (Brunel, 1999). Therefore, an ego-oriented coach will reward player ability, winning outcomes, and will punish mistakes regardless of effort, while ignoring relative athlete effort and persistence if they are not tied to desirable outcomes. Dispositional goal orientations are critical components in the sport culture and are key motivation factors in why athletes participate in sport. According to Newton and Duda (1999) motivational climate is the strongest predictor of enjoyment/interest and pressure/tension. Similarly, a study conducted by Walling, Duda, and Chi (1993) on adolescent athletes demonstrated that the interaction between one's perception of motivational climate and goal orientation may influence his/her motivation.

Another variable in contemporary goal perspective frameworks is contextual and related to the characteristics of an environment that make it more likely to be task/and or ego involved. Although the literature acknowledges the motivational significance of objective facets of a situation (Nicholls, 1989), emphasis on the subjective appraisal of the environment has been greater as achievement goal frameworks stress the "meaning" of achievement experiences to individuals (Ames, 1992). In particular, Ames (1992) has used the term "perceived motivational climate" to refer to individuals' composite views concerning situationally emphasized goal structures operating in an achievement setting (Roberts, 2001, p.144). Situational cues strongly in favor of either a performance or mastery-oriented climate disposition may be overridden and homogeneity among athletes may result (Treasure, & Roberts, 1998). If the perceived motivational climate is not

either high mastery or high performance oriented, then the athletes will tend to align their disposition to those of their peers.

Research has indicated that examination of both goal orientation and athletes' perception of the motivational climate are important in determining maladaptive motivational patterns in general, and therefore may be more significant in determining, from an interactional perspective, the likelihood of maladaptive patterns as they applied to moral development and sportsmanship.

Recently sport psychologists have focused on achievement goals as they relate to sportsmanship. Kavussanu & Roberts (2001) examined the role of achievement goals on indices of moral functioning, unsportsmanlike acts, & legitimacy of injurious acts in basketball. They found that male athletes reported higher ego orientation, lower task orientation, lower levels of moral functioning & greater approval for unsportsmanlike behaviors. For their female sample, higher ego orientation was related to lower levels of judgment and indices of moral functioning and greater acceptance of injurious acts. In a similar study, Duda, Olsen & Templin (1991) sought to determine the relationship of task and ego goal orientation to sportsmanship attitudes and aggression legitimacy attitudes. Their results found that a low-task orientation and high-ego orientation corresponded to an endorsement of unsportsmanlike play and ego orientation positively related to the rating of aggressive acts as more legitimate. Yet another study by Dunn & Dunn (1999) looked at the relationship between goal orientations, perceptions of athlete aggression, and sportsmanship among elite youth ice hockey players. Their analysis revealed that regardless of ego orientation, athletes' low task orientation was more motivationally detrimental to players' respect for personal commitment to hockey participation and for

social conventions in hockey, thereby stating that task orientation appears to be the critical motivational factor in determining players' sportsmanship. According to Shields and Bredemeier (1995, p.188) "Sportsmanship involves an intense striving to win combined with a commitment to the play spirit of sport, such as that ethical standards will take precedence over strategic gain when the two conflict." In essence, it relays the importance of task orientation in building sport morality and implies that the coach can remain competitive while building a mastery climate.

Aggression and Moral Behavior in Sport

According to Silva (1980), aggressive behavior can be broken down into two categories (1) hostile aggression and (2) instrumental aggression. Hostile aggression is an action aimed toward harming the target for the sake of injury and there is malicious intent behind the behavior. Instrumental aggression is behavior directed at the target for a purpose other than injury itself. Instrumental aggression is usually allowed to some degree in contact sports however, acts that appear hostile in nature are often rule-violations (Ryan et al, 1990). In other words, acts of hostile aggression usually surface out of frustration and are viewed as personal (i.e. vendetta). Whereas the major focus of instrumental aggression is the intent to harm an opponent but, the goal is some other non-injurious objective (i.e. to win, to gain psychological advantage). Since intent often becomes difficult to ascertain, a lesser role of officials is to asses and evaluate the intent behind aggressive athletic behaviors.

Moral reasoning and the legitimacy to commit injurious acts may also be influenced by gender (Bredemeier, 1982; Duda Olson & Templin, 1991; Ryan, Williams & Wimer, 1990) and skill level (Ryan et al, 1990; Hyde, 1984), but athletes' dispositional

goal orientation (Duda et al 1991; Dunn & Dunn, 1999; Kavussanu & Roberts, 2001) and moral atmosphere (Stephens & Bredemeier, 1996) are also likely to influence athletes' perceptions of and attitudes toward aggression within sport. Specifically, Duda et al (1991) indicated that a low task orientation and high ego orientation corresponded with an endorsement of unsportsmanlike play. In addition, ego orientation positively related to the rating of aggressive acts as more legitimate and males were found to foster more unsportsmanlike attitudes. Dunn and Dunn (1999) recently supported this goal orientation relationship to aggressive tendencies in that, when examining sportsmanlike behaviors in hockey players, regardless of athletes' ego orientation, low task orientation was more motivationally detrimental to several sportsmanship dimensions. Finally, Stephens and Bredemeier (1996) have noted the importance of environment and social learning theory with their results examining females' judgments of aggression in soccer indicated that young athletes' aggressive behavior was related to their team's moral atmosphere, including team aggressive norms, players' perceptions of these norms, and coach characteristics. Similarly, Silva (1983) found that potentially injurious sport acts were rated significantly less legitimate by females than males, and by those who participated at lower levels of organized sport than those who participated at higher levels. Moreover, Silva (1983), Allison (1982), and Bredemeier (1985), have found that the likelihood to commit injurious acts was inversely related to sport experience.

To date, there have been no studies examining the central Achievement Goal Theory constructs of goal orientation and perceptions of motivational climate and their influence on attitudes toward aggression and moral reasoning within a team sport context. Since this theory addresses important personal and environmental factors of motivation

within sport, it is important to investigate whether these variables influence sportsmanship.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between female athletes' dispositional goal orientations (task and ego) and their attitude toward moral behavior as measured by legitimizing injurious acts in female sports of softball and lacrosse. A second purpose was to analyze the athletes' perceptions of the motivational climate (mastery or performance) and their attitudes toward moral behavior by legitimizing injurious acts in softball and lacrosse. A third purpose was to examine whether this relationship differed as a function of experience within a particular sport (Silva, 1983). The fourth purpose was to determine if the relationship between goal orientation and motivational climate differed as a function of the female sport event (contact vs. non-contact).

Hypotheses

Previous research by Dunn and Dunn (1999) indicated that high ego-oriented athletes were more inclined to approve aggressive behaviors than those with low ego orientation. Conversely, players with higher levels of task-orientation had higher sportsmanship levels. Additionally, Duda, Olsen, and Templin (1991) indicated that a low task orientation and high ego orientation resulted in endorsement of unsportsmanlike play and cheating. Also, an ego orientation has been shown to be positively related to perceived legitimacy of aggression in sport. Therefore, the first hypothesis was that

female athletes with greater levels of ego goal orientation will be significantly more likely to legitimize injurious acts in their sport.

Based on previous sport relationships regarding motivational climate and affective outcomes (Newton & Duda, 1999), the second hypothesis was athletes who perceive a higher performance motivational climate would be significantly more likely to indicate the intent to commit injurious acts than athletes who perceive a higher mastery motivational climate.

In previous research (Shields et al, 1995; Silva, 1983), experienced participants became less concerned with fairness and more concerned with winning. Additionally, Shields and Bredemeier (1995) stated over time, groups develop collective norms regarding cheating and aggression. Conversely, Ryan, Williams and Wimer (1990) found that female non-participants accepted a greater number of rule-violating behaviors as legitimate. Due to varying literature findings, no directional hypothesis was posited. Instead, it was hypothesized that athletes with greater sport experience in would display significantly different attitudes toward injurious acts in their sport compared to less-experienced athletes in that sport.

Since previous aggression research (Bredemeier, Weiss, Shields and Cooper (1986) has found athletes in high contact sports endorse higher aggression and lower moral reasoning, it was hypothesized that female athletes in a team sport involving a higher level of physical contact (lacrosse) would be significantly more likely to legitimize injurious acts within their sport as opposed to female team sport athletes participating in a non-contact sport (softball). Thus the two sports were chosen because of the probability that there would be different levels of aggression opportunities across the sport events.

Rationale

Women have been discriminated against in American sports for decades and according to Berlow (1994), it was not until World War II that women's roles in sports began to change. Our society began to accept women's rights to work and participate in sport both for pleasure and competition (Berlow, 1994). In 1972, amendments to the Education Act brought about Title IX, which gave women equal access to sport funding (Berlow, 1994). Since the enactment of Title IX, there have been unprecedented opportunities for females in sport at the amateur level as well as the professional level. According to the most recent research from the NCAA (2003), women's participation rates in collegiate sports have almost doubled since 1989-90. In 1981-82 there were approximately 74,000 female athletes within the association as compared to 170,000 male athletes. Another census (2001-02) revealed there were approximately 155,000 female athletes and approximately 212,000 male athletes. Even though there remains a large gender discrepancy, there has been an increase in female participation in the last twenty years. This revolution clearly provides beneficial opportunities that were not previously available to young women (US Department of Education, 1997). Administrators have recognized the need to provide resources to improve the number and quality of athletic events and opportunities for females at all levels of participation (Young, 1986). However, little has been done to evaluate coaching styles, and team and individual dynamics for female athletes. If sport is to be viewed as a vehicle for learning virtues such as fairness, self-control, courage, persistence, and loyalty (Shields & Bredemier, 1998) the motivational environment needs to be structured so that it fosters a

positive, progressive atmosphere for developing young athletes who are both mastering skills and moral development.

This area of study is important because a player's goal orientation significantly relates not only to achievement motivation (Roberts, 2001), but also to level of sportsmanship (Fox, Goudas, Biddle, Duda & Armstrong, 1994). A player's task orientation is the primary motivator in determining a player's sportspersonship level (Dunn & Dunn, 1999). Additionally, achievement goal theorists Ames (1992) and Nicholls (1989), suggest that children's goal orientations can be effected by the methodical and persistent messaging of outside influences including parents, teachers and coaches. In a sport setting, the coach has a powerful effect on his or her athletes (Ryan, Williams, and Wimer, 1990) and it is necessary, especially as athletes develop, in athletic skills and attitudes toward their sport, to give them a positive "character building" experience in sport (Ryan et al, 1990). A coach should reinforce developing attitudes toward sportsmanship and moral reasoning and de-emphasize normative comparison (Dunn & Dunn, 1999) and "winning at all cost" attitudes (Duda, Olson, Templin, 1991).

The more we understand sport aggression and athlete motivation, the better prepared we will be to apply strategies to combat destructive behaviors and keep sport clean, fun and competitive for all to enjoy.

Delimitations

The scope of this study was limited to examining perceived athlete goal orientations (task and ego), perceived motivational climate orientations, attitudes toward moral behavior and levels of experience in female athletes in softball and lacrosse. This sample was limited to college and high school team sports in the Midwest that were

geographically and logistically available to the investigator. As such, the influence of experience and achievement goal variables (goal orientation and motivational climate) cannot be generalized to other female sports or to other geographic regions where player experience background and competitiveness (i.e. lacrosse) may have differed. For example, it may be argued that East Coast lacrosse teams maintain different motivational climates because they are more competitive, coaches have more experience, and players may play for different reasons. Participants were college female athlete teams and included athletes from Eastern Illinois University, Lake Land College, University of Illinois and various high school teams from the Chicago metropolitan area such as, Barrington, Lake Forest, Glenbrook South, and Hinsdale Central.

Definition of Terms

Goal Orientation

Nicholls (1984) purports that goal orientations are ways in which individuals judge their competence and define success in a given situation. The two main goal orientations are task-orientation and ego-orientation.

Task-Orientation

People who are primarily task-oriented define success in terms of effort and personal improvement (Duda, 1989). A task-oriented coach will emphasize individual development, the "part to whole" theory, and striving.

Ego-Orientation

Individuals who are primarily ego-oriented define success in terms of comparison (Duda, 1989). Ego-oriented individuals lay emphasis on being better than everyone on the team. A coach who emphasizes an ego-oriented climate may encourage competition between team members, and offer rewards for good performances and punish poor performances.

Performance Climate

According to Ames and Archer (1988) and Brunel (1999), a performance climate is a situational goal structure that emphasizes learning, improvement, or effort and fosters task involvement.

Mastery Climate

Describes a situational goal structure that focuses on social comparison, normative feedback or ability, students are more likely to display ego involvement (Ames & Archer, 1988; Brunel, 1999).

Athletic Aggression

According to Shields and Bredemeier (1995, p.184), athletic aggression is commonly defined as the action initiated with the intent to cause pain or injury. More specifically, athletic aggression is the intentional infliction of serious injury and injurious acts causing less serious harm but occurring outside of the rules or expectations of peers (Shields & Bredemeier, 1985).

Structural Development Approach

According to Piaget, the structural development approach is a belief that knowledge is constructed out of one's interactions with the physical and social environment (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995, p.31).

Likelihood to Commit Injurious Acts

According to Feshbach (1971), the perceived legitimacy of an injurious act is dependent on moral judgments together with contextual understandings of normative behaviors and fair play.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

There has been extensive research done regarding achievement goal orientations and motivation, however, less research has examined the relationship between perceptions of the motivational climate and one's tendency to commit injurious acts. It is necessary to examine goal orientations, perceptions of the motivational climate, motivation, moral development, and aggression, and how they might affect one's attitude toward committing injurious acts.

Goal Orientation

The Achievement Goal Theory holds that personal goals influence how people think, feel and act in achievement situations such as sports (Duda, Chi, Newton, Walling & Catley, 1995). It is assumed in a sports setting that the two dominant achievement goals are ego and task orientation. When in a state of task involvement, perceptions of sport ability are self-referenced and the focus is on improvement and learning (Duda et al. 1995). In a state of ego involvement, focus is on demonstrating one's athletic ability while outperforming others and evaluation of individual success is based on normative, social comparison (Duda et al. 1995). In understanding goal orientation, it is necessary to look at the Achievement Goal Theory, more specifically, the interaction between goal perspectives and the motivational climate. The two predominant characterizations of the motivational climate are mastery and performance. Looking at each climate individually is necessary in seeing how they affect one's goal orientation.

Achievement Goal Theory

Achievement goal theory assumes that the individual is goal-driven and rational and that they intend to succeed (Roberts, 2001; Nicholls, 1984). According to Maehr and Nicholls (1980), the first step toward understanding achievement behavior is to recognize that success and failure are psychological states of mind based on the individual's interpretation of his/her striving. Successful attributes may be determined by high effort and ability and negative outcomes may be attributed to low ability, low effort or laziness. Success however, is measured differently for everyone, where some may perceive success as winning and failure as losing.

How an athlete defines success and his or her level of competence plays an important role in the Achievement Goal Theory. According to Nicholls (1989), children pass through four developmental levels during their understanding of the concepts of luck, ability and task difficulty. Generally as one develops, one determines their competence based on ability (Roberts, Treasure, & Balague, 1997). An athlete's development of the idea of ability is a process of differentiating through various perceptions of luck, difficulty of the task, and the effort needed from ability (Nicholls, 1984). Nicholls (1989, 1984) contends that there are two concepts of ability in achievement settings, undifferentiated and differentiated. An undifferentiated concept of ability means an individual does not separate ability from effort, where as a differentiated concept of ability, the individual distinguishes between the two (Nicholls, 1989, 1984). Furthermore, Nicholls (1978, 1976, Nicholls & Miller, 1983) argued that children begin with an undifferentiated conception of ability and are unable to distinguish luck, task

difficulty and effort from ability. Based on this perspective, children associate ability with learning through effort. Thus, athletes will perceive that greater effort at a motor skill will result in more learning and greater success, regardless of the athletes current ability or the complexity of the sport task.

Nicholls (1984) identifies achievement behavior that utilizes the undifferentiated concept of ability as task involvement and achievement behavior that utilizes the differentiated concept of ability as ego involvement. Nicholls (1984) and Roberts (2001) argue that two achievement goals, namely task and ego, exist in achievement settings and are determined by both dispositional and situational influences. Goal orientations are derived from the Achievement Goal Theory and consist of task- and ego-orientation. A task-involved individual generally focuses on personal skill development and are primarily concerned with the success of the collective team. Conversely, an ego-involved individual typically focuses on outperforming his/her teammates and defines success through ability.

Task Orientation

According to Duda and Nicholls (1992), task orientation reflects success that is centered on personal improvement and skill mastery. Based on Nicholls and colleagues (1985) work, task orientation is strongly related with education as an end in itself and that education is being socially committed, having commitment to learning and mastering material. Additionally, Duda (1989) argues that a task goal perspective should foster integrity and respect, enhance self-esteem and teach people to give their best in any sport situation. Task oriented individuals are great team advocates, prioritizing team goals over personal goals. Treasure and Roberts (1994) suggested that task orientation was

likely to provide adaptive cognitive and affective patterns in sport. Seifriz, Duda, and Chi (1992) examined the relationship of perceived motivational climate to intrinsic motivation and beliefs about success. It revealed that effort was the only significant predictor of success in task oriented individuals. A study conducted by Ntoumanis and Biddle (1998) looked at the relationships of achievement goal orientations and perceived motivational climate to perceptions of the intensity and direction of competitive state anxiety in a sample of University athletes representing various team sports. They found that perceptions of a performance climate were associated with ego orientation, and perceptions of a mastery climate were linked to task orientation.

Ego Orientation

Duda (1983) defines athletes with an ego orientation as those who base success on normative comparisons, and learning and personal skill development is not needed to improve (Chi & Duda, 1995). In other words, these individuals view ability as capacity. One's ability is fixed and practice will not improve performance. It is even better if she/he outperforms the others with less required effort. According to Givvin (2001), little effort is used in achieving success because they only attempt those tasks in which they will succeed. Challenges are foreign and therefore are avoided. In addition, ego orientation has been linked to the belief that external factors such as luck, illegal advantages, and superior athletic ability are causes of success in sport (Newton & Duda, 1993). According to Duda (1989), sports should increase one's social status and teach people how to survive and excel compared to others.

Ego-oriented individuals believe that success is based on ability, and if they are lacking ability they can harbor the belief that they will never be successful. It is

important to note that individuals with a dominant ego orientation, especially those with perceptions of low ability, may generate negative outcomes in achievement settings. These individuals are thought to be more susceptible to the stress and anxiety related to competition (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1998). More specifically, they display less effort, less persistence in the face of failure and are more likely to drop out of sport. In effect, it is a downward spiral. They feel incompetent and develop low self-perception, which can lead to increased anxiety (Nicholls, 1989). This could lead to ego-oriented individuals doubting themselves causing them to become angry when success is not achieved (White & Zellner, 1996).

Duda (1989) examined male and female athletes to determine if there was a relationship between task and ego orientation and the perceived purpose of sport. She found that ego orientation was positively correlated to the belief that the purpose of sport was pure competition, to obtain a high status career, increase self-esteem and for socially getting ahead. Primarily, athletes with higher ego orientation were involved with sport for more extrinsic reasons.

In addition to the popular achievement goal theory of task and ego orientation being the primary goal orientations, Dweck (1986, 1999) holds an opposing view of dispositional goal orientations. She describes two goals, performance and learning. Performance goals are similar to Nicholls' concept of an ego goal orientation and the learning goal is similar to task orientation. Dweck also contends that performance and learning goals are pitted against each other as opposed to be orthogonal. However, the importance of Dweck's work is the understanding that individuals aim to have their ability be valued by peers and they want to learn new things. The difference among

individuals is how much they value each goal and the priority they place on the individual goals (Roberts, 2001).

Goal Profiles

According to Nicholls (1989), individuals differ in their proneness to task and ego involvement. Using this theory as a basis, Nicholls (1989) further contends that task and ego orientation are orthogonal and not bipolar, more specifically, individuals possess both orientations only varying in degree, thus forming goal profiles. Goal profiles are applied to examine efforts of both goal orientations with the athlete's focus of interest in mind. According to Duda (2001, p.139), there are four classifications of profiles: high task/high ego, high task/low ego, low task/high ego, and low task/low ego. As an example of the goal profile approach, Lemyre and colleagues (2002) examined the contributors of goal orientations and influences of perceived ability as a moderating factor in predicting sportsmanship in competitive youth soccer. They argued that whenever a player is trying to demonstrate mastery of a skill, the individual is expected to (a) display adaptive achievement behavior, (b) exert effort, (c) select moderately challenging tasks, (d) be intrinsically interested in the task, (e) display sustained or improved performance, and (f) persist in the face of failure. When ego involvement prevails and doubts about one's competence exist, a maladaptive pattern of achievement is expected. Soccer players within the Lemyre et al (2002) study who were high in ego orientation and high in task orientation only partially endorsed low sportsmanship. Perceived ability was shown to be a significant factor in that players high in ego orientation and low in perceived ability expressed the lowest respect for rules and officials, and endorsed cheating to achieve outcome goals. In contrast, players high in

perceived ability and low in ego orientation expressed the highest level of respect for rules and officials. They concluded that being high or low in ego orientation had a significant effect on sportsmanship.

Knowing and understanding these classifications will help in determining how to properly motivate athletes. High task/high ego individuals are extremely motivated. Michael Jordan is a perfect example of a high task/high ego athlete. Jordan gracefully demonstrated his competitive edge while maintaining respect for the rules and the players of the game. A high task/low ego individual places great emphasis on perfecting skills and contributing to the team. A low task/high ego individual constantly compares him or herself to others based on ability, when in reality, their ability is not as high as the others'. A low task/low ego individual is less concerned with demonstrating ability and usually posses a lower self-esteem. The low/low profile is different from the others, in the fact that they do not define sport success with reference to learning and exerting effort or outdoing others and are at greater risk for suffering from amotivation.

Motivational Climate

The Achievement Goal Theory states that perceived causes of success will vary depending on how the athlete perceives their motivational climate. Literature suggests that the motivational climate is a critical part of the sport process because it can influence an individual's motivational development and because it can influence the athlete's dispositional goal orientation over time. Ames (1992) has identified two main climates as mastery and performance. A mastery climate embraces self-improvement and high effort regardless of the game outcome. Conversely, a performance climate rewards demonstrated superiority in comparison to other students.

Treasure and Roberts (1998) looked at the relationship between female adolescents' achievement goal orientations, perceptions of the motivational climate, and beliefs about success and sources of satisfaction in basketball. They surveyed 274 females ranging in age from 10-18 years who were participating in a basketball camp using measures of success perceptions (POSQ) and motivational climate (PMCSQ). Canonical correlations revealed that when perceiving the motivational climate to be mastery oriented, the athletes thought effort was a significant cause of success. This outcome supports the Achievement Goal Theory that when a mastery oriented climate is present, individuals will believe that success is a result of trying hard (Treasure & Roberts, 1998; Seifriz, Duda, & Chi, 1992). A significant outcome of this study came from the interaction of task orientation and a mastery oriented climate. Success and satisfaction was expressed in the interaction of a task goal orientation and a mastery oriented climate. Another significant finding was that even individuals who were not strongly task-oriented were still positively affected by the mastery climate. Treasure and Roberts (1998) also found that when the motivational climate was perceived to be performance oriented, the individuals believed that that deception and normative ability were the causes of success.

A study by White (1996) examined female volleyball players and their goal orientation in relation to their perceptions of the motivational climate initiated by the parents. White found that when parents emphasized success without effort, athletes displayed a higher ego orientation. She also found that individual perceptions of a climate fostered by parents that focused on learning/enjoyment were higher in task orientation. This study indicated that the female volleyball players' perceptions of what

their parents considered to be important in the learning of physical skills was related to dispositional goal orientation. In a recent study, Fry (2003) examined the motivational responses of tennis players in relation to their goal orientations and perceptions of the motivational climate. The results suggested that positive perceptions of a task-involving climate and negative perceptions of an ego-involving motivational climate predicted players' attitudes toward sportsmanship, their instructor and fellow players. Attitudes toward tennis were predicted by task orientation and perceptions of the climate were most strongly related to attitudes.

Goal Perspectives and Perceived Motivational Climate

Past literature suggests that the promotion of a task-oriented motivational climate is related to greater team satisfaction (Walling, Duda & Chi, 1993) and enjoyment (Seifriz, Duda, Chi 1992). Conversely, an ego-oriented climate has been associated with performance anxiety (Walling, Duda & Chi, 1993). A mastery climate is one that is thought to encourage positive affect toward a situation where as a performance climate encourages normative or other-referenced standards of success. Seifriz, Duda, & Chi, (1992) studied 105 male high school varsity basketball players using the PMCSQ. Additionally, Walling, Duda & Chi (1993) examined construct & predictive validity of the PMCSQ. Treasure & Roberts, (1998) examined the relationship between female adolescents' achievement goal orientations, perceptions of the motivational climate and beliefs about success and sources of satisfaction in basketball. It was found that cues from the motivational climate are known to influence one's type of goal orientation. It can however, vary from one socialization situation to another (home, classroom, sport) – (Roberts, Spink & Pemberton, 1999). The motivational climate forms a safety net for

athletes and increased exposure to a specific motivational climate may alter or influence an athlete's own dispositional goal perspective.

Evaluation is one of the most salient features of any achievement context. It is a complex issue because it holds so many ramifications. How is one going to evaluate the students and how will the students perceive the meaning of the evaluative information. Slight variances in the delivery can sway student motivation. Evaluation systems that emphasize social comparison and normative standards of performance evoke ego involvement that focuses students on evaluating their ability compared to their peers. This could be damaging to the student's self-worth (Covington, 1984) and perceived ability (Nicholls, 1989). Comparison is not inherently negative, unless the comparison outcome becomes emphasized (Jagacinsi & Nicholls, 1987).

Research suggests that the pace of instruction and the time allotted for completing specific tasks affect students' motivation (Ames, 1992; Epstein, 1988). The issue of time is critical in a physical education setting. Ames (1992) suggests the instructor should critically evaluate the time to task ratio and allow students sufficient time to complete a task. The same is true when coaching. When developing new plays, drills, etc., a coach should assure that the athletes have enough time to prepare before administering a test situation.

Research from the achievement goal perspective purport that in order to foster adaptive achievement, the instructor/coach should guide the student /athletes to focus on personal improvement.

Goal Perspectives and Athlete Motivation

Research suggests that the examination of goal perspectives will also provide insight into the variations in intrinsic motivation observed in achievement settings such as sports (Dweck, 1985; Nicholls, 1989). Intrinsic motivation refers to motivating from within one's self as opposed to extrinsic motivation that refers to seeking outside sources for motivation (e.g. coach approval, rewards). A task-involved goal perspective is assumed to positively relate to intrinsic motivation while an ego-involved goal perspective positively relates to extrinsic motivation (Dweck, 1985; Nicholls, 1989).

Goal perspectives theory holds that, whether a person is in a state of task or ego involvement in a specific situation, it is a function of environmental factors and individual differences. Nicholls (1989) suggests that social evaluation, normative feedback and testing important skills are likely to evoke ego involvement. Situations marked by emphasis placed on learning and personal improvement tend to result in a state of task involvement (Nicholls, 1989). There are variations of multiple involvement, one can exhibit high task/high ego, low task/low ego or a combination of both (e.g. high in one area and low in the other). According to Steinberg, Singer and Murphey (2000), more recent evidence has shown that individuals who possess a high task/high ego multiple goal-orientation, find achievement success and a significant increase in persistence.

Newton and Duda (1999) examined the interaction between perceptions of the motivational climate, dispositional goal orientations, and perceived ability from junior female volleyball players. The results showed that the motivational climate was the strongest predictor of effort and importance. Specifically, high task-oriented volleyball

players were able to maintain their belief in the utility of effort independent of the level of task involvement perceived to be manifested in the motivational climate. Additionally, low task-oriented players participating on a team that was not characterized as task-involving placed less emphasis on the belief that effort was a precursor to success. This study indicates that situational goal perspectives predict variation in motivation-related indices. Brunel (1999) conducted a similar study using Physical Education classes to look at the relationship of the perceptions of the motivational climate and goal orientation to indices of intrinsic/extrinsic motivation. Results indicated that students who perceived their class climate as emphasizing mastery were more likely to feel self-determined. It was also determined that perceptions of the motivational climate was a better predictor of all indices of motivation than goal orientation. Basically, the influence of the class or team environment is so strong and in some cases, overpowering to individual goal orientation.

Motivation Theories

Self-Determination Theory

Deci and Ryan (1985) suggest that attitudes work in concert with goals and that they may help explain athlete motivation. The self-determination theory is based on three psychological needs – the need for competence, autonomy, and relatedness. Competency is the foundation for achievement goals and fuels the process of visualizing successful objectives. The need for autonomy is the driving force for the formation of motives (Roberts, 2001). When the need for autonomy is satisfied, athletes have "freedom of choice" and they are more likely to be regulated by intrinsic measures. Since athletes' behavior is more autonomous, they conform to more task-like behavior. When the need

for autonomy is not satisfied, "freedom of choice" is not an option. Therefore, behaviors are more likely to be extrinsic and externally referenced like those of an ego oriented individual. The need for autonomy in achievement settings may reinforce motivationally adaptive and task oriented behaviors.

Social Learning Theory

Social learning theorists focus on the learning principles that define how behavior is acquired, maintained, modified or extinguished through interact of the social environment (Shield & Bredemeier, 1995). Under this theory it is assumed that, (a) all moral behavior is learned, (b) individuals are pliable and can change their disposition with age, and (c) morality is socially defined and therefore is culturally relative. According to Bandura (1991), individuals make moral judgments based on experience and cognitive competence, and judgments can change over the course of time based on our interaction with social influences. The social learning theory is important in achievement settings because as it suggests, behavior is modeled. Influences such as coaches, peers and parents can adversely affect a motivationally adaptive behavior pattern.

Interactionist Approach

Athlete's cognitive and affective responses in achievement settings vary as a function of individual differences in goal orientation and as a function of perceptions of the motivational climate (Treasure & Roberts, 1995). Is has been suggested that an interactionist approach combines the two types of variables and provides a more complete understanding of athlete's behaviors (Treasure & Roberts, 1998). According to research, an interactionist approach suggests that dispositional goal orientations may be

determined "a priori" or before adopting a particular goal in which an athlete displays a behavior pattern (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). For example, in a physical education class where students were given a choice between a task and ego goal, students' predisposition toward one of these goals should stand-fast, unless situational cues are strongly in favor of one over the other. In that case, the stronger goal disposition would win out. A study conducted by Seifriz, Duda, & Chi (1992) examined the degree to which intrinsic motivation and attributional beliefs, were a function of perceptions of the motivational climate, dispositional goal orientation, or a combination of the two variables in high school male basketball players. They found that attributional beliefs were best predicted by an individual's goal orientation. Specifically, a task orientation predicted beliefs that effort equals success and an ego orientation predicted beliefs that ability causes success. Perceptions of the motivational climate as well as goal orientation predicted intrinsic motivation. While perceptions of the motivational climate and dispositional goal orientation emerged as predictors of enjoyment, goal orientation was a significant predictor of effort and perceived ability (Seifriz et al, 1992). Individual goal dispositions may be affected by the motivational climate.

Level of Competition

There is discussion whether or not age and level of competition influence how athletes establish their goals. It has also not been proven whether experience level plays a role in determining task and ego orientation, or whether an athlete changes his/her goal structure over time. To determine these outcomes, there would need to be a longitudinal study. White and Duda (1994) suggested that those in higher levels of competitive sport should be more ego oriented than those involved in a less competitive team. However,

the more skillful the athlete becomes, the better chances he/she has of developing high ego orientation without the maladaptive effects related to the high level of perceived ability.

In a study looking at 230 male and female elite sport athletes, Ommundsen and Roberts (1996) reached a conclusion based on goal orientations and perceived purposes of training in elite athletes. They administered the POSQ that had been developed as a measure to examine task and ego goal perspectives. The results of this study confirm that elite athletes view the purpose of their involvement in sport as corresponding to their achievement goal perspectives. High task orientation scores were not associated with those who participated in sport for reasons of socializing with friends and others. Additionally, high task scores did not proved that sports were viewed as a means to attain a higher social status (Ommundsen & Roberts, 1996). On the other hand, ego oriented athletes and team sport athletes viewed social status as the primary purpose for their sport involvement. This study confirms the research of others on the relationship of ego and task orientations and purposes of sport.

White and Zellner (1996) looked at athletes of several different age levels. They included 251 athletes, specifically high school varsity athletes, NCAA Division I intercollegiate athletes, and individuals that were in organized college-age recreational sports. All athletes were given the TEOSQ to determine if there were any differences in goal orientation involvement. The data concluded that high school athletes scored higher in ego orientation than the intercollegiate athletes. Furthermore, college-aged recreational males compared to intercollegiate males and high school females reported that effort led to success in sport. These results contradict other findings that state with

increased experience, athletes have lower moral reasoning. This study suggests that there are noticeable differences between athletes of different competitive levels.

Based on experience, collegiate athletes should be higher in ego orientation than high school athletes (White & Duda, 1994). The more proficient an athlete becomes, the better chances an individual has of developing high ego orientation without the maladaptive effects related to the high level of perceived ability.

Moral Development

Moral education in sport focuses on the process of judging, caring and acting or reacting to situations where an individual's welfare is at stake (Arnold, 2001). In this scenario, sport mimics life by providing similar situations in which moral or immoral decisions must be made consistently. Therefore, sport is an excellent vehicle for developing moral behaviors.

Moral Development in Sport and Physical Activity

Although there are differing views about how character and sportsmanlike attitudes develop, the structural-developmental approach focuses on how psychological growth and developmental changes in a child interact with environmental experiences to shape moral reasoning (Weiss & Bredemeier, 1991) for structural development. According to Haan (1983), moral reasoning within the context of the structural-developmental approach is defined as the decision process by which the rightness or wrongness of a course of action is determined. In contrast, moral development is the process of experience and growth through which a person develops the capacity to reason.

According to Bredemeier (1985), structural developmentalists systematically employ techniques to explore developing individuals' construction of moral reasoning. Haan's (1977, 1978, 1983) model of moral development explains the processes employed in determining appropriate behavior for specific action content. Haan's model consists of a five –level characterization of one's ability to engage in differentiated dialogical processes to achieve intersubjective "moral balance" concerning respective rights and obligations. Development moves from an assimilative orientation (Levels one & two) in which moral behaviors are egocentrically constructed through an accommodative orientation (Levels three & four) characterized by the subordination of personal interests and needs of others, until equilibrium is reached at Level five. Haan, (1978) and others (Kohlberg, Kauffman, Scharf, & Hickey, 1975; Turiel, 1983) suggest that different forms of "person-context" interactions promote the development of situationally appropriate reasoning patterns (Bredemeier, 1985). In the context of sport however, actions are "framed" differently than everyday life (Bateson, 1955; Goffman, 1974) and, starting about the sixth grade, sport participants' and nonparticipants' moral reasoning about hypothetical sport-specific situations become increasingly more egocentric than their responses to daily life situations (Bredemeier, 1985; Bredemeier & Shields, 1984).

In a relevant study, Shields, Bredemeier, Gardner and Bostrom (1995) investigated moral action in sport using a structural development tool and a social cognitive tool. Among their findings, they indicated several key points relating aggression and moral development in attitudes: (a) There is an inverse relationship between athletic aggression and moral reasoning maturity (Bredemeier, 1994; Bredemeier & Shields, 1984, Shields et al, 1995); (b) there is a negative relationship

between moral reasoning maturity and athletes' legitimacy judgments regarding athletic aggression (Bredemeier, 1985; Bredemeier, Weiss, Shields & Cooper, 1987) (c) Children's participation in high-contact sports is associated with less mature moral reasoning and greater self-reported tendencies to aggress (Bredemeier, Weiss, Shields & Cooper, 1986); and (d) both athletes and non-athletes use patterns of moral reasoning that appear to diverge structurally when making judgments about sport versus non-sport moral issues (Bredemeier & Shields,1984). According to Duda, Olsen, and Templin (1991), support for this relationship stems from the theory that sport experiences are cognitively distinguished from daily life and that sport participants bracket their moral consideration of competitive sport interactions by using "game reasoning", which transforms egocentricity into an appropriate structure for moral thought and action.

Social learning theorists have revealed many of the interpersonal and situational factors that moderate the learning and expression of athletic aggression. Yet, because social learning theorists focus primarily on the overt behavior and environmental contingencies, athletic aggression has often been reduced to an operationally defined response, commonly defined as the initiation of an attack with the intent to injure in the sport realm, a social constructivist approach may be used to investigate aggression as a moral issue (Bredemeier, 1985).

Webb (1969) conducted a study that supported evidence for the socialization process that occurs in sport that leads athletes to increasingly prioritize victory over fair play (Shields, Bredemeier, Gardner & Bostrom, 1995). The main concept of this literature is that when athletes are developing their skills and experiences, there is an emphasis on fair play however, over time as the athlete matures, there is a greater

emphasis placed on victory. Ego-oriented outcome measure relates to the notion that athletes who have played their sport for longer show a lower level of moral development. According to Duda, Olsen, and Templin's (1991) study, as the level of play became more competitive, there was a decreased emphasis placed on sportsmanlike play. Additional studies have shown that sport participants become less concerned with fair play and are more concerned about winning as they increase the number of years involved in competitive athletics (Blair, 1985; McIntosh, 199; Sage, 1980; and Webb, 1969). In this study, it is crucial to analyze personal and environmental variables in sport because both are linked in achievement goal theory. Additionally, it is important to note socialization is a universal problem. Both men and women are influenced by their moral atmosphere as well as group collective norms (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). No one, especially in the lower levels, wants to isolate themselves from their peers and will compromise his/her moral values just to be accepted by the "masses."

Athletic Aggression

Instances of players fighting with each other and players fighting with fans, depicts a more aggressive style of play that can affect game outcomes, decrease the quality of play, and can often lead to unnecessary injuries (Lefebvre, Leith, Bredemeier, 1980). Achievement goals influence individuals' perceptions of what is acceptable in achievement environments (Nicholls, 1989). Recent studies report an increase in interpersonal aggressive acts in competitive situations. There is considerable support for the idea of an in-sport socialization process occurs that tends to legitimize illegal or extralegal aggression, particularly in contact sports (Bredemeier, 1985; Silva, 1983; M.D. Smith, 1974, 1979, 1983; Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). It has also been found that

athletes with more mature moral reasoning are less approving of aggressive tactics than those with less mature moral reasoning (Bredemeier, 1985; Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). Stephens and Bredemeier (1996) also found that female youth soccer players were more likely to aggress as a result of the motivational climate rather than individual goal orientation.

Duda et al (1991) examined the relationship of a task and ego goal orientation to sportsmanship attitudes and perceptions of the legitimacy of aggressive acts using high school basketball players. Findings indicated a low task orientation and high ego orientation corresponded to an endorsement of unsportsmanlike play and even cheating. Ego orientation positively related to the rating of aggressive acts as more legitimate.

Bredemeier and colleagues (1986) studied girls and boys in grades four through seven to determine the relationships betweens sport involvement variables (participation and interest) and areas of children's morality (reasoning maturity and aggression tendencies). Results revealed that boys' participation and interest in high contact sports and girls' participation in medium contact sports (highest level of contact experience reported) were positively correlated with less mature moral reasoning and greater tendencies to aggress. Additionally, it was purported that sport interest predicted reasoning maturity and aggression tendencies better than sport participation. It is important to note that the degree of contact in a sport may indicate a low moral development in adolescents.

Sportsmanship

Competitive sport offers an important context for the moral development of young participants where status, acceptance, and confidence can be established and

developed (Kavussanu & Roberts, 2001; Roberts & Treasure, 1995; Lemyre et al., 2002). Additionally, sport offers a vehicle for learning life skills like coalition building, negotiating moral challenges, and virtues as diligence, equality, and valor (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995; Lemyre et al, 2002). Within the context of life skills, it could be said that sportsmanship is most commonly witnessed, whether it is poor sportsmanship like a cheap shot or good sportsmanship when athletes congratulate each other after a game. Sportsmanship according to Feezell (1986) "is a mean between excessive seriousness, which misunderstands the importance of the play-spirit, and an excessive sense of playfulness, which might be called frivolity and which misunderstands the importance of victory and achievement when play is competitive (p.12)." Ultimately, the function of sportsmanship is to maximize the enjoyable game experience for all participants (Lemyre et all, 2002). According to Shields and Bredemeier (1995, p.188), a true test of sportsmanship is taking an ethical action that does not risk competitive success is right but not particularly noteworthy. Sportsmanship includes striving for victory without taking away an unfair advantage from an opponent. With an increasing emphasis on "winning at all cost", some of the ideals of sportsmanship have been muddied (Vallerand & Losier, 1994). Therefore, Vallerand and Losier (1994) developed a multidimensional concept of sportsmanship to delineate from aggression. The dimensions include a commitment toward sport participation, respect for social conventions, respect and concern for rules and officials, and a true respect and concern for the opponent.

Lemyre and colleagues (2002) conducted a study that examined the contribution of goal orientations and the influence of perceived ability as a factor in predicting sportsmanship in competitive youth soccer. Results support that high task-oriented

participants consistently endorsed sportsmanship. It was also found that participants who were high in both ego and task orientation only partially endorsed low sportsmanship. Similarly, Dunn and Dunn (1999) examined the relationship between goal orientations, perceptions of athletic aggression and sportsmanship among elite male youth ice hockey players. Findings indicated that high ego-oriented athletes were more inclined to approve of aggressive behaviors than those with low ego orientation. In addition, players who had higher levels of task orientation had higher levels of sportsmanship. However, regardless of ego orientation, low task orientation was more motivationally detrimental to sportsmanship.

Another study conducted by Silva (1983) examined male and female athletes and non-athletes' acceptance of rule violating behaviors. Results indicated that male respondents rated rule violating behaviors significantly more acceptable than females. It was also shown that an in-sport socialization process that legitimizes rule violating behavior.

Understanding sportsmanship and moral development is enhanced with the recent move to link them with achievement goals (Duda, Olson, & Templin, 1991; Dunn & Dunn, 1999; Kavussanu & Roberts, 2001). The achievement goal approach suggests that individuals in achievement settings seek to demonstrate ability and competence (Nicholls, 1989). More specifically, achievement goals guide decision-making and behavior in achievement contexts. Another possible influence on behavior and attitudes is the perception of the motivational climate, and social learning theorists (Bandura, 1991) would contend that a primary mission of learning is through modeling. Since coaches have such an influence on behavior and attitudes of their athletes, motivational climates

established by coaches may easily foster moral development of athletes. The type of behavior the environment reinforces, whether it is mastery or performance, can affect an individual's behavior (Walling, Duda & Chi, 1993). Thus it is important to look at all of these variables together.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between female athletes' goal orientations (task and ego), their perception of motivational climate (mastery or performance), and their attitude toward moral behavior as measured by their intent to commit injurious acts in their sport. A second purpose was to examine whether this relationship differed as a function of sport experience. A third purpose was to determine whether this relationship between goal orientation and motivational climate on intent to commit injurious acts differed as a function of sport-type (non-contact versus contact).

Participants

Softball athletes were obtained for a non-contact sport category and consisted of Eastern Illinois University (n=16), Lake Land College (n=12), Glenbrook South High School (n=16), and Lincoln College (n=12). Lacrosse athletes were obtained for the contact sport category and consisted of the University of Illinois (n=12), University of Chicago (n=17), Naval Academy (n=17), Chicago Club (n=16), Barrington High School (n= 5), Hinsdale Central High School (n= 7), and Lake Forest Highs School (n=9). Prior to administering the surveys, each athlete signed an informed consent stating that they understood the purpose of the survey as well as signifying their participation was completely voluntary. In an attempt to obtain accurate and reliable results regarding

athletes' appraisal of their team motivational climate, all athletes were surveyed mid –to-late season.

Instrumentation

Three questionnaires were included in the assessment packet that examined the psychological constructs of interest and were preceded by a demographic data sheet. Written consent (Appendix A) was obtained prior to subject participation. Athletes were informed that they could withdraw at any time and their participation was strictly voluntary. Furthermore, they were reassured that their responses would be kept confidential.

Demographic/psychographic information was requested from all participants (Appendix B). The reason for obtaining demographics was to collect information regarding age, sport, years of experience, and reasons for sport participation.

Athletes' Perceptions of the Motivational Climate

Perceptions of the motivational climate was assessed through the Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire (PMCSQ), which is the premiere scale developed to assess the motivational climate by Duda and colleagues (e.g., Seifriz, Duda, & Chi, 1992; Walling, Duda, & Chi, 1993; Newton, 1994). Specifically, the PMCSQ (Appendix C) is a 40 item questionnaire hierarchically ordered to assess the perceived motivational climate in terms of two higher ordered factors, namely mastery and performance, and six lower order factors, three assessing the mastery oriented and three the performance oriented nature of the achievement context. Mastery oriented characteristics consist of items reflecting an emphasis on effort and cooperation (e.g. "Giving it your all in practice", "Helping others to learn skills"); improvement and doing

one's best (e.g. The coach emphasizes skill mastery and personal best); and the perception that every player has an important role on the team (e.g. In order to be successful the coach stresses every player has to do her part on the field). Performance oriented characteristics consist of items reflecting the perception of rivalry/competition among teammates (e.g. "The coach recognizes players who outplay other teammates", "The coach rewards star players"); and the perception that mistakes were punished (e.g. The coach got mad when players made mistakes).

Recently, researches developed the PMCSQ-2 (Newton, Duda and Yen, 2000) and its psychometric properties are being examined. Evidence was provided for its concurrent validity. However, since the development of the PMCSQ-2 is ongoing, the decision was made to examine task and ego orientation motivational climates using the original scale.

Dispositional Goal Orientation

Dispositional achievement goal orientation was determined by responses to the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) (Duda & Nicholls, 1992). The TEOSQ (Appendix D) is a 13-item scale consisting of seven task and six ego items. In this instance, each participant will respond to the stem "I feel most successful in sport when. . ." Each item is rated on a five point Likert scale anchored by strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The psychometric validity of the TEOSQ has been demonstrated by Duda (1992) as well as obtaining acceptable reliability and validity with similar age athletes in previous sport studies (Treasure & Roberts, 1994a, 1994b; Roberts, Treasure & Balague, in press). In a recent study by Ntoumanis and Biddle

(1998), the internal reliability coefficients were satisfactory, with an alpha = .84 for the task subscale and an alpha = .85 for the ego subscale.

Legitimacy of Aggressive Behaviors

Athletes' perceptions regarding the legitimacy of deliberately injuring an opponent (through physical or nonphysical aggression) was assessed using sport specific revisions; CIA - lacrosse (Appendix E) and CIA – softball (Appendix F) that parallel Bredemeier's (1985) original Continuum of Injurious Acts (CIA). In the original version of the CIA, Bredemeier (1985) provided respondents with a set of six situations describing athletes' behaviors that were intended to intimidate or injure an opponent. Scenarios presented in the original CIA were designed to assess model attitude regarding various behavioral scenarios of different injurious acts. Since the original CIA was not sport-specific to softball and lacrosse, the survey was manipulated to reflect the nuances and authentic game situations of lacrosse and softball, and to enhance the content validity and sport specificity of the assessment. In the development phase of the CIA, each item was modified so that it accurately depicted a controversial example of the behavioral situation that was specific to that sport. After the initial scale revisions for the CIA-softball and CIA-lacrosse were made, items were content analyzed and revised based on consultation with experts within both sports.

In this survey, players were presented with questionnaires (CIA – softball; CIA – lacrosse) containing six randomly ordered game scenarios, describing injurious acts that a player might intentionally direct at an opponent during competition. Various scenarios ranging in progressive severity include: (a) verbal intimidation of an opponent; ((b) physical intimidation of an opponent through the use of a physical tactic that does not

result in injury; (c) an illegal action to the opponent that forces the injured player to miss the next few minutes of the game; (d) an illegal action to the opponent that forces the injured player to miss the next game; (e) an illegal action to the opponent that forces the injured player to miss the rest of the season; (f) an illegal action to the opponent that renders the injured player permanently disabled. The CIA-softball (Appendix D) and CIA-lacrosse (Appendix E) provided respondents with a set of instructions that indicated six scenarios of varying severity that were sport specific and could feasibly occur at some point within that sport-specific competition. Participants responded on a Likert scale the degree to which she approved of the behavior (1= strongly disapprove to 5=strongly approve). Therefore, consistent with previous literature using the CIA (Duda, Olsen & Templin, 1991), female athletes scoring higher on the measure were those athletes who had a greater likelihood to commit injurious acts in their sport, and were characterized as lower in their moral sport development.

Procedures

Before collecting data, the principal investigator contacted athletic administrators and coaches to seek prior approval to perform the survey. Proper written consent was obtained from participants who were minors. Participation in the project was voluntary and prior to administering the questionnaire, all participants were told that all information would remain confidential. After permission from athletic administrators and coaches was obtained, athletes were met during a practice while no coaches were present to have athletes complete the questionnaire. Prior to filling out the questionnaire, the purpose of the study was explained and participants signed informed consent. Questionnaires were coded in order to guarantee participant anonymity. Questionnaire packets began with a

demographic section followed by the TEOSQ, PMCSQ and CIA (softball or lacrosse) in a counterbalanced order to avoid response bias. To control for possible time-of-season variations that might influence athletes' perceptions of coach and motivational climate, all athletes were assessed approximately mid to late season so that perceptions of the motivational climate were solid for all participants.

Lacrosse was chosen because of the researcher's affiliation with the sport. As a player, coach and official, I have noticed the increase in aggressive acts and was concerned about the intent to injure players. Understanding why some athletes display amoral actions was the impetus behind the study in efforts to keep the sport of lacrosse safe for all. Softball complimented lacrosse because the seasons run concurrently, while also adding a different level of contact to study.

Data Analysis

In order to examine the first hypothesis that female athletes with higher ego orientation was significantly more likely to legitimize injurious acts in their sport, a one-way ANOVA was performed with goal orientation (task, ego) as the independent variable and athletes' aggressive tendencies (Continuum of Injurious Acts scores) as the dependent variable. Because previous achievement goal theory research has indicated a "goal-profile" approach as more valid means to examine achievement motivation constructs and their outcomes (Williams, 1999), a median-split technique was used to categorize athletes' task and ego scores on the TEOSQ as high or low. Then, athletes' goal profiles were categorized into four separate profiles; high task/high ego, high task/low ego, low task/ high ego, low task/low ego. This allowed for the determination of whether CIA scores were significantly different across the goal orientation profiles.

In order to test the second hypothesis that less experienced athletes would be less likely to legitimize injurious acts, and the fourth hypothesis that athletes in high-contact sports would be more likely to legitimize injurious acts than non-contact athletes a 2x2 (experience x sport) ANOVA was performed using total scores from the CIA as the dependent variable. ANOVA interaction effects provided information on whether sport experience and sport type variables proved significant interactive effects on likelihood to aggress, while the ANOVA main effects provided direct tests of significance for the aforementioned hypothesis.

In order to test the third hypothesis that female athletes who perceive their climate as performance oriented will be more likely to legitimize injurious acts than athletes with a mastery climate perception, a median split technique was used to categorize athletes' motivational climate perceptions (mastery, performance) into high and low within each category to create four perceptual categories (high performance/high mastery, high performance/low mastery, low performance/high mastery, low performance/low mastery). A one-way ANOVA was then performed to determine whether athletes differed in their legitimacy perceptions across these four motivational climate profiles.

Finally, two separate hierarchical regressions were performed on the data in order to determine whether the variables of sport experience, reason for playing, goal orientation, and perception of the motivational climate were predictive of athletes' likelihood to aggress in their sport as measured by the CIA. Two separate regressions were calculated (one for lacrosse and one for softball). Since previous literature suggests that experience in a particular sport can affect a players attitude, sport experience was

entered into the first model, while the second model entered all other variables while controlling for sport experience.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The aim of this study was to examine the relationship between female athletes' dispositional goal orientations (task and ego) and their attitude toward moral behavior as measured by legitimizing injurious acts in female sports of softball and lacrosse. As such, one purpose was to analyze the influence of females' goal orientations and motivational climate on the likelihood to aggress as measured by the Continuum of Injurious Acts (CIA) (Bredemeier, 1985). A second purpose was to examine whether this relationship differed as a function of sport experience. A third purpose was to determine whether likelihood to aggress differed as a function of the sport type (contact vs. non-contact). Finally, an additional purpose was to examine the variables of age and experience, within the context of achievement goal theory to determine whether these variables were predictive of likelihood to aggress across sport.

Participant Characteristics

The final response for this study included 135 female athletes from lacrosse (N = 79) and softball (N = 56) teams in Illinois. Of this total sample, 37 athletes were assessed from high school athletics while 98 athletes comprised female college athletes. Descriptive statistics for overall data and for sport category are displayed in Table 1. The mean age for participants was 19.37 (SD=2.75) and on average, athletes had over eight years experience (M=8.27, SD=4.64) within their sport. Softball players had more

Table 1.

Means and Standard Deviations for Descriptive Statistics

Variable	**Lacrosse (N = 79)**	**Softball (N = 56)**
Age	M = 19.37	M = 8.48
	SD = 2.75	SD = 2.00
Years	M = 8.27	M = 10.91
	SD = 4.65	SD = 2.72
Performance	M = 54.90	M = 62.02
	SD = 13.06	SD = 9.76
Mastery	M = 73.43	M = 68.88
	SD = 10.52	SD = 11.14
Ego	M = 2.60	M = 2.80
	SD = 0.91	SD = 0.93
Task	M = 4.26	M = 4.18
	SD = 0.60	SD = 0.52
CIA	M = 13.30	M = 12.39
	SD = 4.15	SD = 4.88

playing experience (M=10.91) than lacrosse players (M=6.39). Overall means indicated that athletes in the sample perceived a relatively greater mastery climate (M=75.43) than performance climate (M=54.90) and were relatively greater in dispositional task orientation (M=4.26, SD=.60) than ego orientation (M=2.59, SD=.91). Since CIA scores are interpreted by evaluating higher scores as reflective of overall higher likelihood to aggress, means for the total sample indicated a relatively low likelihood to aggress within their sport (M=13.30, SD=4.15), with lacrosse players demonstrating a higher likelihood (M=13.95) than softball players (M=12.39).

The correlation matrix (see Table 2) revealed one predictor variable that was statistically related to moral reasoning: athletes' age ($r = .19$, $p<.05$). The correlation matrix also revealed several other correlations that were consistent with previous research in achievement goal theory. Specifically, ego orientation was significantly correlated with perceptions of a performance climate ($r = .40$, $p< .001$). Also, performance climate perceptions showed a negative relationship to task orientation ($r = -.23$, $p<.05$) and mastery climate was significantly correlated to task orientation ($r = .51$, $p<.001$). Finally, perceptions of mastery (M=75.43) and performance (M=54.90) climates were negatively associated with each other ($r =-.48$, $p<.001$) and were relatively greater in dispositional task orientation (M=4.26, SD=.60) than ego orientation (M=2.59, SD=.91).

Goal Orientation Profiles and Likelihood To Aggress in Sport

One purpose of the study was to determine whether female athletes' likelihood to aggress differed as a function of goal orientations and performance climates. Median cutoffs were calculated for goal orientations and performance climates in order to categorize data to be analyzed within an ANOVA format. The median split for task

Table 2.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Study Variables in the Regression Analysis

			Intercorrelations						
Variable	**M**	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1. CIA	13.30	4.14	---						
2. Age	19.37	2.75	.19*	---					
3. Experience	8.26	4.64	-.11	.35**	---				
4. Ego	2.60	.91	.13	-.15	.08	---			
5. Task	4.26	.60	-.00	-.04	-.15	.13	---		
6. Perform	54.90	13.05	.03	-.05	.21*	.40**	-.23*	---	
7. Mastery	73.43	10.51	.13	-.02	-.24	-.02	.51**	-.48**	---

N = 135

* $p < .05$

** $p < .001$

Note: CIA = Continuum of injurious acts scores; Ego = ego orientation; Task = task orientation; Performance = performance climate; Mastery = mastery climate.

orientation was 4.29, while the median split for ego orientation was 2.50; the median split for mastery climate was 74, and the median split for performance climate was 55. This allowed for a 4-way ANOVA with two levels (high/low) on each of the four independent variables of task orientation, ego orientation, mastery climate and performance climate. Results of the overall model were significant, F (15,119) = 2.34, p<.001. More specifically, results indicated a significant ego orientation by performance climate interaction, F (1,134)=6.01, p=.02 and a significant ego orientation by mastery climate interaction, F (1,134)=11.49, p=.0009. Significant ANOVA interactions are displayed in Figures 1 and 2. A follow-up one-way ANOVA for ego orientation and performance climate was also significant, F(1.67)=4.84, p<.03. Follow-up Tukey's HSD was significant, 2.82 (df=131), p<.05 and indicated that in the low performance climate, high ego-oriented athletes were significantly more likely to aggress (M=14.55) than low ego- oriented athletes (M=12.41), whereas in high performance climates, there were no differences in likelihood to aggress across ego orientation.

A follow-up ANOVA was significant for ego orientation and mastery climate interaction, F(1.67)=12.63, p=.0007. Follow-up Tukey's HSD test was significant, 2.83 (df=131) and indicated that in low mastery climate conditions, athletes with high ego orientation displayed significantly greater likelihood to aggress (M=14.75) than athletes low in ego orientation (M=11.33), whereas in high mastery climates, there were no differences in likelihood to aggress across ego orientation levels.

Experience and Sport Type Differences on Likelihood to Commit Injurious Act

Two additional purposes of this project were to (a) determine whether less experienced athletes would be less likely to legitimize injurious acts and (b) whether

Figure 1.

Ego Orientation X Performance Climate Interaction on CIA Scores

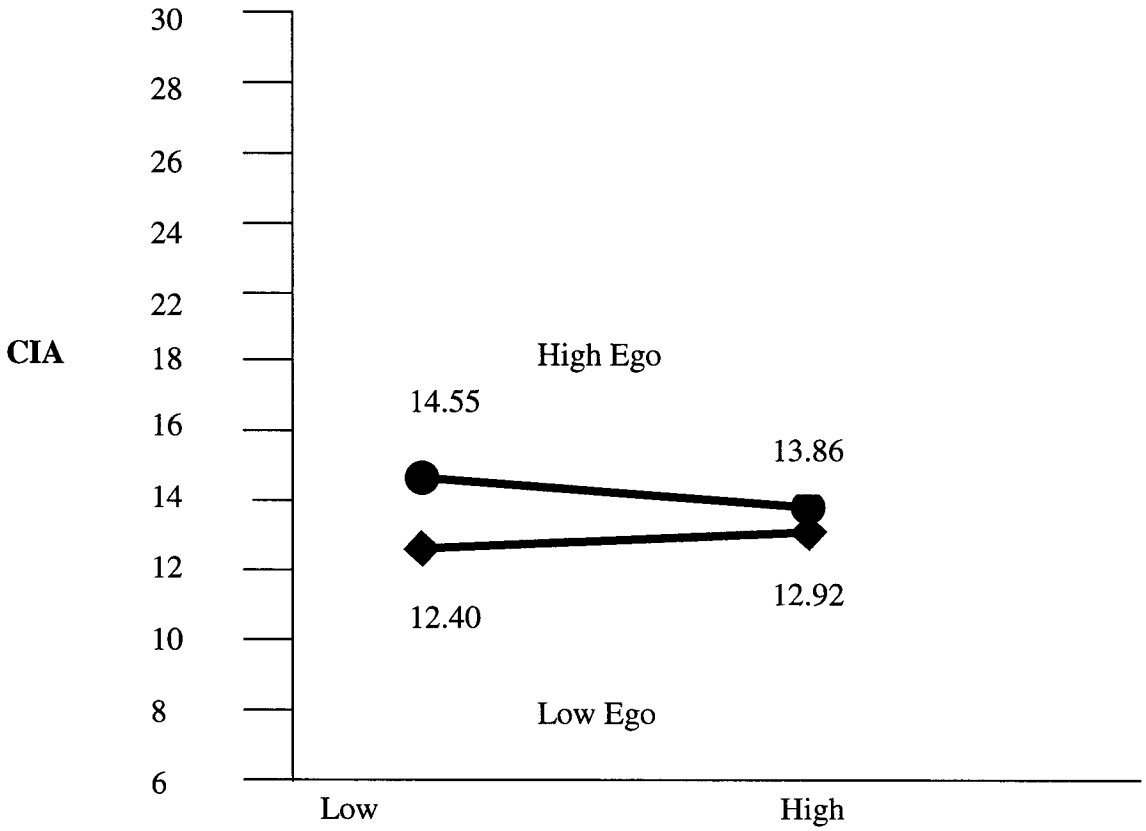
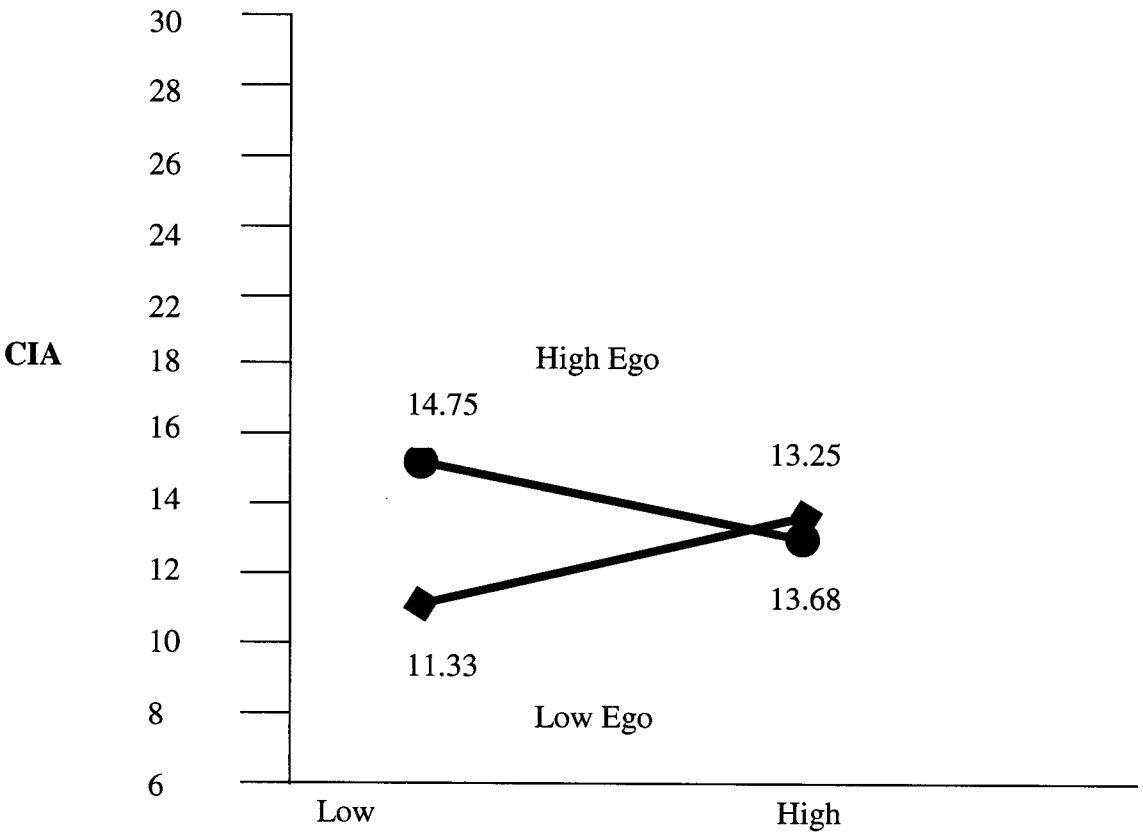


Figure 2.

Ego Orientation X Mastery Climate Interaction on CIA Scores



lacrosse players (high contact) would be more likely to legitimize aggression than softball players (low contact). In order to provide a simultaneous analysis of the two hypotheses, a 2 x 2 (experience by sport type) ANOVA was performed on CIA scores as the dependent variable. Results of the experience x sport type interaction were non-significant, $F(3,134)=2.26$, $p=.08$. However, there was a significant main effect for sport, $F(1,134)=4.75$, $p<.05$. The follow-up Tukey's HSD test (studentized range) was significant, 2.80 (df=131), $p<.05$ and indicated that lacrosse athletes reported a significantly greater likelihood to aggress (M=13.95) compared to softball players (M=12.39). The main effect for experience level was non-significant, $F(1,134)=.46$, $p=.50$.

Likelihood to Aggress Across Motivational Climate

In order to test whether female athletes who perceived their climates as performance oriented would be more likely to legitimize aggression, a median split technique was also used to categorize athletes' climate perceptions into four categories (low mastery/low performance; low mastery/high performance; high mastery/low performance; or high mastery/high performance). The rationale for this analysis is similar to goal orientation profiles in that, according to Achievement Goal Theory, motivational climate perceptions are orthogonal and should be considered together rather than in isolation. That is, a coach could be perceived by an athlete to focus on athlete effort, skill improvement and development (mastery) while the same time perceiving the coach to also establish a competitive environment (performance). This categorization then allowed for a one-way ANOVA using the four motivational climate profiles as independent variables and CIA scores as the dependent variable. Results of the one-way

ANOVA were non-significant, $F(3,134)=.64$, $p=.59$, indicating that athletes were not different in their likelihood to aggress across these motivational climate profiles.

Influence of Age, Experience, Goal Orientation, and Motivational Climate On Likelihood to Aggress Across Sport

To determine whether age, playing experience, or dispositional goal orientation or perceived motivational climate were important in predicting moral reasoning in female athletes across the two sports, both a bivariate correlation and a multiple regression were used.

Regression Results for Softball

Using a multiple regression, CIA scores were regressed on the linear combination of age, experience, ego orientation, task orientation, mastery climate, and performance climate. The full model equation containing these six variables accounted for 47% of the variance in moral reasoning, $F(6,49) = 7.26$, $p<.001$, adjusted $R^2 = .41$.

Beta weights (standardized multiple regression coefficients) and uniqueness indices were reviewed to assess the relative importance of the six variables in the prediction of moral reasoning as measured by the CIA. The uniqueness index for a given predictor is the percentage of variance in the criterion accounted for a given predictor is the percentage of variance in the criterion accounted for by that predictor, beyond the variance accounted for by the other predictor variables. Beta weights and uniqueness indices are presented in Table 3. The Table shows that age, task orientation, and mastery climate displayed significant beta weights.

Table 3.

Indices Predicting Moral Reasoning in Softball

Predictor	Beta Weights [a]		Uniqueness Index [b]	
	Beta	T [c]	U	F [d]
Age	.64	4.83**	0.253	63.25**
Experience	-0.16	-1.22	0.016	4.00*
Ego Orientation	0.21	1.9	0.039	9.75*
Task Orientation	-0.43	-3.53*	0.135	33.75*
Performance Climate	0.08	0.68	0.005	1.25
Mastery Climate	0.42	3.31*	0.119	29.75*

[A] Beta weights are standardized multiple regression coefficients obtained when CIA scores were regressed on all six predictors.

[B] Uniqueness indices indicated the percentage of variance in CIA scores accounted for by a given predictor variable beyond the variance accounted for by the other five predictors.

[C] For t-tests that tested the significance of the beta weights df=128.

[D] For F tests that tested the significance of the uniqueness indices, df=1,128.

The largest beta weight was demonstrated by age (B=.64, p<.001), followed by beta weights for task orientation (B=-.43, p<.05) and mastery climate (B=.42, p<.05). While the coefficients for age and task orientation were in the hypothesized direction, the coefficients for mastery climate were not in the expected direction. The findings regarding uniqueness indices matched those for beta weights in that age, task orientation, and mastery climate displayed significant indices. Athlete age accounted for approximately 25% of the variance in moral reasoning, beyond the variance accounted by the other five predictors, F(1,128) =63.25, p<.001. In addition, task orientation accounted for 14% of the variance in moral reasoning above other predictors, F (1,128) =33.75, p<.05. Finally, mastery climate perceptions accounted for approximately 12% of unique variance in moral reasoning, F(1,128) =29.75, p<.05. In contrast, experience accounted for only 2% of the unique variance in moral reasoning (F(1,128) =4.00, p<.05) and ego orientation accounted for only 4% of the unique variance in moral reasoning F(1,128) =9.75, p<.05.

Regression Results for Lacrosse

Using multiple regression, CIA scores were also regressed on the linear combination of age, experience, ego orientation, task orientation, mastery climate, and performance climate for lacrosse. The full model containing these six variables accounted for only 6% of the variance in moral reasoning and was non-significant, F (6,72) =.79, p=58, adjusted R^2 =-.02.

Beta weights (standardized multiple regression coefficients) and uniqueness were reviewed to assess the relative importance of the size variables in the prediction of moral reasoning as measured by the CIA. Beta weights and uniqueness indices are presented in Table 4. The Table shows that none of the predictors contained significant beta weights. Thus, none of the predictor variables significantly predicted moral reasoning for this sample of lacrosse athletes.

Table 4.

Indices Predicting Moral Reasoning in Lacrosse

Predictor	Beta Weights [a]		Uniqueness Index [b]	
	Beta	T [c]	U	F [d]
Age	0.03	0.19	0.001	0.25
Experience	-0.16	-1.00	0.013	3.25
Ego Orientation	0.09	0.66	0.006	1.5
Task Orientation	0.13	0.94	0.006	1.5
Performance Climate	0.11	0.69	0.006	1.5
Mastery Climate	-0.08	-0.52	0.004	1.00

[A] Beta weights are standardized multiple regression coefficients obtained when CIA scores were regressed on all six predictors.

[B] Uniqueness indices indicated the percentage of variance in CIA scores accounted for by a given predictor variable beyond the variance accounted for by the other five predictors.

[C] For t-tests that tested the significance of the beta weights df=128.

[D] For F tests that tested the significance of the uniqueness indices, df=1,128.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between female athletes' dispositional goal orientations (task and ego) and their attitude toward moral behavior as measured by legitimizing injurious acts in female sports of softball and lacrosse. As such, one purpose was to analyze the influence of females' goal orientations and motivational climate on the likelihood to aggress as measured by the Continuum of Injurious Acts (CIA). A second purpose was to examine whether this relationship differed as a function of sport experience. A third purpose was to determine whether likelihood to aggress differed as a function of the sport type (contact vs. non-contact). Finally, an additional purpose was to examine the variables of age and experience, within the context of achievement goal theory to determine whether these variables were predictive of likelihood to aggress across sport.

The first hypothesis that high ego-oriented athletes would be more likely to aggress than low ego-oriented athletes was supported. Results of the 4-way ANOVA specifically indicated that it was only under conditions in which athletes did not have a strong sense for either a performance or mastery climate that ego-oriented athletes were more likely to aggress. This provides support for Achievement Goal Theory because these results imply that when environmental aspects (coaching climate) are not perceived strongly, the athletes' personal goal disposition will be the main factor in determining moral reasoning and likelihood to aggress within that athlete's sporting event. This result

supports research conducted by several researchers (Dunn and Dunn, 1999; Duda et al, 1991) that showed athletes with low task orientation were more motivationally detrimental to several sportsmanship dimensions. The implications of this would lead to greater acceptance of intentionally injurious acts and lower moral decision-making behavior.

The second hypothesis that athletes in performance oriented climates would be more likely to aggress than athletes in mastery climates was not supported. The one-way ANOVA results on motivational climate profiles on CIA scores indicated no differences across these combinations. These results support a recent study by Lemyre et al (2002), who found that a combination of high ego-orientation and low task-orientation were important predictors of sportsmanship while motivational climate was not indicative of sportsmanship behaviors. In other words, high ego-orientation without high perceived ability can indicate a likelihood to aggress. However, an athlete high in ego-orientation and low in task-orientation can possess an adaptive pattern if the athlete's ability is also high. These results in conjunction with the first results, revealed that athletes' goal orientation appears to be relatively more important in determining whether they decide to aggress in their sport. A possible reason for the lack of support can be attributed to the geographic nature of the study as well as the competitive level tested. Results might have differed if higher Division I teams were secured for the study. Division I play is characterized as being more competitive, involving athletes with a superior level of experience and a greater competitive edge. Division I play also has a battle for scholarships, playing time and an intense rivalry with opponents. All of these

characteristics may influence one's reasons for participation as well as one's dispositional goal orientation.

The third and forth hypotheses were combined in the 2 x 2 ANOVA (sport type x experience). There was partial support because while experience level per se, did not influence moral behavior, sport type did. These results supported findings from Bredemeier et al (1986), and Dunn and Dunn (1999) indicating that high contact sport athletes' participation is associated with less mature moral reasoning and greater self-reported tendencies to aggress. A possible reason for this is that aggression is condoned in higher contact sports like hockey and lacrosse, and therefore in higher contact sports there is a peer norm that supports this type of reasoning and behavior (Bredemeier et al, 1986; Dunn and Dunn, 1999).

Finally, a regression analysis was done to determine if the variables of age, experience, goal orientation, and performance climate were predictive of likelihood to aggress in softball and lacrosse. None of these variables were significant in predicting CIA scores with lacrosse athletes, but the regression indicated that for softball players, the variables of age, task variation and mastery climate were predictive of aggression likelihood. Specifically, beta weights from Table 3 indicated that softball players who were more likely to commit injurious acts were older, had less task orientation, and perceived a greater mastery climate. These results supported research by Dunn and Dunn (1999), Bredemeier and colleagues (1986), Treasure and Roberts (1998), and Seifriz et al (1992). Specifically, more experienced athletes who are older are typically in a competitive sport model that stresses winning. When winning becomes a priority, experienced athletes exhibit lower moral reasoning levels and will more likely approve

using aggressive behaviors to win. Additionally, regardless of ego-orientation, low task-orientation is considered the critical motivational factor in determining athletes' sportsmanship level (Dunn & Dunn, 1999). In the current study, regardless of ego orientation, athletes who perceived themselves to be lower in task-orientation, also condoned unsportsmanlike behavior. This is critical to note because task-orientation is linked to perceived ability and if an athlete perceives herself to be low in task-orientation, she also perceives herself to be low in ability.

Limitations

Within the current study, there were several limitations. The first limitation was the possibility of a sampling bias due to the limited geographical samples. Softball has become a very mainstream sport in the United States where as lacrosse is still growing from the epicenter of Maryland. With a high concentration of extremely experienced lacrosse athletes on the East-coast, the Midwest is still gaining in popularity. This unbalanced representation may have affected some of the results. For instance, in a competitive sport model, reasons for participation, game outcome, jockeying for scholarships as well as playing time, might influence athletes' level of moral reasoning.

Another limiting factor may be the level of competitive athletes surveyed. Again, the level of high school play for the sport of lacrosse is more accelerated on the East-coast as opposed to in the Midwest. Additionally, results may be skewed because competitive, Division I schools were not included in the study. Having access to larger schools might have shown more significant results in the areas of perceptions of the motivational climates as well as individual achievement goal orientations. Access to more competitive Division I schools may be characterized by a greater number of highly

competitive, ego-oriented athletes who may play for more extrinsic as opposed to more intrinsic reasons. Additionally, "reasons for participation" was originally to be included as a variable for analysis but, it was dropped because virtually the entire sample indicated that they participated in sport for fun.

Within Achievement Goal Theory there is a construct of perceived ability. One reason for lack of support for hypotheses may have been that ego orientation does not necessarily have a detrimental effect upon performance-related variables. Rather, evidence suggests that it is the combination of ego orientation with low perception of competence that leads to such effects.

Lastly, instrumentation might be a limiting factor. The CIA test has not established validity and reliability standards as of yet. The current study modified the original interview version with a similar sport specific model for athletes to answer situational questions. In both the original and modified versions of the CIA, questions focused on fictitious athletes committing unsportsmanlike behaviors as opposed to addressing these situations in first person. If the questions were directed toward the individual taking the test, results might have indicated a greater significance placed on extrinsic motivating factors. Therefore, interpretation of the results could be skewed by legitimacy judgments, which were differentially influenced by non self-involvement.

Recommendations

For future studies, I recommend including a larger sample size of team-oriented sports while incorporating a range of competitive levels. For example, I would make sure to test Division I, II, and III programs that represent competitive programs in their sport. Testing competitive teams may provide more valid results. Additionally, I would suggest

who participate at a higher level of competitive sport where winning becomes more salient should be more ego-oriented than sport participants involved in a less competitive atmosphere. Additionally, current results support Dunn and Dunn's (1999) findings that regardless of ego-orientation, low levels of task-orientation are more indicative of lower moral reasoning. If the motivational climate is not perceived to be strong in either mastery or performance, then the athlete's dispositional goals will supercede environmental perceptions of the team climate, as in the case with the softball scores.

Competitive sport offers an important framework for social and moral development for young participants where peer acceptance and self-worth can be established (Lemyre et al, 2002). It has also been posited that sport is a vehicle for learning cooperative skills, moral decision-making, and virtues such as fair play and persistence (Kavussanu & Roberts, 2001; Roberts & Treasure, 1995). Despite this popular belief that sport builds character, it has been challenged by contemporary cheating scandals that sport promotes antisocial behavior (Lemyre et al, 2002).

Based on the current findings, it is clear that perceptions of the motivational climate have an influence in shaping athlete's moral development. It is obvious that athletes who are high in ego-orientation and low in task-orientation are more likely to possess maladaptive behaviors (Dunn & Dunn, 1999; Kavussanu & Roberts, 2001).

Given the results of this study, if female athletes are to value positive attitudes towards sportsmanship and moral reasoning, coaches should attempt to reinforce the importance of task-oriented goals in competitive environments (Dunn & Dunn, 1999). For example, a coach should reinforce and reward skill mastery, trying hard, teamwork, and personal competition. By shifting the focus from winning as an outcome to process

incorporating some sort of team/coach observation to go hand in hand with the written survey. Combining these two approaches would allow the researcher to observe the interaction between the coach and athlete in a more natural, real-world setting. Of course there will have to be a rubric devised in order to ensure objectivity on the part of the researcher.

Conclusion

The current study found two significant results. The first finding supported Achievement Goal Theory research in that if the motivational climate is not strongly represented, either performance or mastery, the dispositional goals of athletes will take over. In other words, if athletes are high in ego-orientation and the motivational climate is not perceived high in mastery or performance, the athlete will be more likely to aggress in a sporting event. The role of a coach is to provide positive guidance and endorse cohesion, if individual athletes start doing their own thing, one of two things will happen. One, the teams will become disjunctive and ultimately frustrated because of the lack of unity. Secondy, the "Lord of the Flies" syndrome will happen where athletes regress into maladaptive behavior patterns promoting destructive and antisocial behavior. Neither scenario is conducive to the sport socialization process of athletes.

The second significant finding also supported the Achievement Goal Theory. Despite finding no specific variable that predicted likelihood to aggress in lacrosse, there were significant variables that predicted likelihood to aggress in softball (age, task-orientation, and mastery climate). Specifically, athletes who were older, possessed lower task-orientation and perceived a higher mastery climate were more likely to aggress. Current results substantiated White and Duda's (1994) findings that predicted athletes

as an outcome, a coach emphasizes hard work and personal development. Even though these are individualistic goals in nature, working on personal goals will allow each team member to contribute her talents to benefit the group as a whole.

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Appendix A –

INFORMED CONSENT

Athlete Survey

Investigator: Lauren Rippy
Eastern Illinois University
Dept. of Physical Education
630.234.8137

Thesis Advisor: Dr. William Russell
Eastern Illinois University
1010 McAfee Gym
217.581.2418

Study Description

This project is being undertaken by Lauren Rippy to examine the relationship of female athletes' attitudes about sport in a contact and non-contact team environment.

Your participation in this study would involve the completion of the attached questionnaire.

Consent:

1. I hereby consent to take part in research conducted by Lauren Rippy.
2. I understand the purpose of this project is to examine the athlete's perceptions of the motivational climate and my goal orientation.
3. There is no reasonable basis for expecting my participation in this research to expose me to serious risk or discomfort.
4. There is no other way to obtain this data for this research project.
5. Participation is voluntary and I may refuse participation at any time; my data will also remain anonymous.
6. My questions about this project have been answered.

If you volunteer to participate, please sign below and detach top sheet from the questionnaire.

Volunteer _____ Date _____

Appendix B –

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET

Personal Athlete Information Sheet

1. What is your age?
    a. 14 – 17 years
    b. 18 – 22 years
    c. 23 – 27 years
    d. 28 years +

2. How many years have you been playing competitively on a structured team?
    _____

3. Why do you play your sport? (please circle the one that most closely applies)
    a. For fun
    b. To stay in shape
    c. To win
    d. To socialize
    e. Other, _____

Appendix C –

PERCEIVED MOTIVATIONAL CLIMATE IN SPORT QUESTIONNAIRE

The Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire

The following questions ask you about how you perceive your involvement with your current sport. Please take a moment to think about what it is like to be involved in this sport through the season and answer the questions below. Please answer honestly, as there is no right or wrong answer. Strongly disagree (SD) = 1, strongly agree (SA) = 5.

On this Team	SD				SA
1. Players feel good when they do better than their teammates in a game.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Players often do extra work after practice to improve their skills.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Players are punished when they make a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Trying hard is rewarded.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The coach feels good about us only when we beat the other team.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The coach makes sure players improve on the skills they're not good at.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The only thing that matters is winning.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The coach is happy as long as we try hard.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The only way players get playing time is if they have talent.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The focus is to improve each game.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Players are taken out of the game for mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Players are rewarded when they work hard.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Playing better than teammates is important.	1	2	3	4	5
14. It's important to keep trying even though you make mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Coach gives most of his/her attention to the "stars".	1	2	3	4	5
16. Even if we lose, coach feels good about us when we play.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Doing better than the others is important.	1	2	3	4	5
18. The most important thing is how you play the game (not winning or losing).	1	2	3	4	5
19. Teammates compete against each other for playing time.	1	2	3	4	5
20. The coach tries to find out what skill each player wants to improve on.	1	2	3	4	5
21. The coach favors some players over others.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Players work hard because they want to learn new things about this sport.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Everyone wants to be the high scorer.	1	2	3	4	5
24. As long as players try hard, they won't get yelled at.	1	2	3	4	5

25. The most important thing is the final score.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Players are encouraged to work on their weaknesses.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Being "number one" is what counts.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Everyone feels like she has an important role on the team.	1	2	3	4	5
29. It is important to show the coach that you are better than the rest.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Players sometimes get to choose the skills they want or need to work on.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Players always want to know everyone else's game "stats".	1	2	3	4	5
32. The coach wants us to try new skills.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Only the top players "get noticed" by the coach.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Mistakes are part of learning.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Players are afraid to make mistakes	1	2	3	4	5
36. Players like playing against good teams.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Only a few players can be "stars"	1	2	3	4	5
38. Most of the players get to play in the games	1	2	3	4	5
39. Players are encouraged to outplay their own teammates.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Coach wants us to learn how to solve problems on our own.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D –

TASK AND EGO ORIENTATION IN SPORTS QUESTIONNAIRE

Task and Ego Orientation In Sport Questionnaire

Please read each of the statements listed below and indicate how much you personally agree with each statement by circling the appropriate response. When do you feel most successful in sport?

I feel most successful in sport when. . . . . .

	SD				SA
1. I'm the only one who can do the play or skill.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I learn a new skill and it makes me want to practice more.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I can do better than my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The others can't do as well as me.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I learn something that is fun to do.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Others mess up and I don't.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I learn a new skill by trying her.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I work really hard.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I score the most points/goals/hits, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Something I learn makes me want to go and practice more.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I'm the best.	1	2	3	4	5
12. A skill I learn really feels right.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I do my very best.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix E –

CONTINUUM OF INJURIOUS ACT – LACROSSE

Continuum of Injurious Act – Lacrosse

Listed below are a number of statements describing various situations that sometimes occur during competition. Imagine that each statement describes your behavior during an important end-of-season game. Please read each statement and indicate how much you personally approve or disapprove of the behaviors described.

A) In the state finals with less than 2 min to go, the score is tied. Player A is running toward the goal unopposed. To prevent an almost certain goal, the goalie from team B steps out of the goal circle (blocking the free space to goal) and gives a forceful body check, which send player A in the air. As a result of the check, player A lands on her back and is permanently disabled as a result of the fall.

Strongly disapprove				**Strongly approve**
1	2	3	4	5

B) Player A who is the quickest and strongest player on team A, keeps scoring goals all day long. Player B is getting frustrated. The next time player A has the ball, player B intentionally trips player A. Player A lands awkwardly and ends up fracturing her ankle and is out for the rest of the season.

Strongly disapprove				**Strongly approve**
1	2	3	4	5

C) Player A is going to goal, player B while marking player A, gives several quick checks in an attempt to dislodge the ball. The last "ditch effort" check makes contact with player A's face giving her a cut above the eye. Because of the swelling, player A is not able to return to the game however, is able to practice the next day.

Strongly disapprove				**Strongly approve**
1	2	3	4	5

D) Player A has a free position on the 8M arc. On the whistle, player B moves in to prevent player A from getting a shot off by checking the top hand of the shooter (player A). The check causes player A to bleed, sending her out of the game to seek medical attention. Player A then returns to the game after a couple of minutes

Strongly disapprove				**Strongly approve**
1	2	3	4	5

E) Player A is running down the field with the ball. In an attempt to intimidate player A, player B steps in her path to goal without giving her time to change direction. Contact is made and player A loses the ball.

Strongly disapprove				**Strongly approve**
1	2	3	4	5

F) Player A is running midfield with the ball. Player B steps up to mark her and play defense. Since player A has good stick skills and is quick, player B resorts to verbal intimidation and taunting with her stick. Mind you no contact has been made.

Strongly disapprove				**Strongly approve**
1	2	3	4	5

Appendix F –

CONTINUUM OF INJURIOUS ACT – SOFTBALL

Continuum of Injurious Act – Softball

Listed below are a number of statements describing various situations that sometimes occur during competition. Imagine that each statement describes your behavior during an important end-of-season game. Please read each statement and indicate how much you personally approve or disapprove of the behaviors described.

A) It's the last inning in the final game of the season. There are two outs with the winning run rounding 3rd base. To prevent an almost certain victory for team A, the catcher from team B stands up to knock over the runner. As a result of the hit, the runner lands on her back and is permanently disabled as a result of this fall.

Strongly disapprove				**Strongly approve**
1	2	3	4	5

B) The first baseman has been standing in front of the bag all day. The runner at first leads off, as to send a message to the first baseman, the runner dives head first into the knee of the first baseman, the runner's helmet hits the first baseman in the knee. As a result of the collision, the first baseman receives an ACL tear and is out for the rest of the season.

Strongly disapprove				**Strongly approve**
1	2	3	4	5

C) At last bat, player A hit a home run. Player A is up to bat again and the pitcher wants to prevent another home run. The pitcher winds up and delivers a pitch hitting the batter in the face. As a result of the hit, player A receives a broken nose and is out for the game.

Strongly disapprove				**Strongly approve**
1	2	3	4	5

D) Runner A steals second base and in an attempt to send a message to the shortstop (get out of the way), spikes her in the process. As a result of the injury, the shortstop has to leaves the game to get butterfly stitches before she can return.

Strongly disapprove				**Strongly approve**
1	2	3	4	5

E) Runner A is coming home and the catcher blocks the plate without the ball, intentionally forcing contact.

Strongly disapprove				**Strongly approve**
1	2	3	4	5

F) Both team A and B have played each other this season and it was a heated and close game. This time, team A starts chanting insults and obscenities in an attempt to catch team B off guard.

Strongly disapprove				**Strongly approve**
1	2	3	4	5