PARENTAL ATTITUDES TOWARD THE VALUES OF INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS

by

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The purpose of this investigation was to ascertain whether or not differences existed between the attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics of parents of athletes and parents of nonathletes. Analysis of the main problem included a comparison of parents based on (a) the athletic status of the child, (b) the sex of the parent, (c) the sex of the child, (d) the parents' athletic background, (e) the percentage of children participating in athletics, and (f) the number of children participating in athletics.

One hundred and forty-seven randomly selected male and female parents of junior high school age children in the eight junior high schools of the Greensboro City School System were the subjects of the study. One group, designated as athletic, consisted of 47 mothers and 48 fathers. A second group, nonathletic, was composed of 22 mothers and 30 fathers. The parents represented 66 male athletes, 29 female athletes, 39 male nonathletes, and 13 female nonathletes.

A Likert-type attitude scale consisting of 46 items was developed for use in the study. Demographic data descriptive of the parents was obtained through the parents' completion of a questionnaire which accompanied the scale.

A 2 x 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance was used to compare the parents' scores based on the athletic status of

the child, the sex of the parent, and the sex of the child. The athletic backgrounds of the parents were compared by *t* tests. One-way analyses of variance were used to compare the parents' scores based on the percentage and number of children participating in athletics.

The results of the analysis indicated that: (a) the parents of athletes did have more favorable attitudes than the parents of nonathletes, (b) neither the sex of the parent nor the sex of the child had an effect on the attitude scores of the parents, (c) the parents who had participated in interscholastic athletics had more favorable attitudes than the parents who had not participated, and (d) the attitude scores of the parents increased as the percentage and number of children in the family who participated in athletics increased.

Within the limits of the study the conclusions drawn were:

1. Parents of children who participate in interscholastic athletics hold more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of nonparticipants.

2. Neither the sex of the parent nor the sex of the child interacted with the attitudes of parents toward the values supported by interscholastic athletics.

3. The higher the number and percentage of children of a family participating in athletics, the more favorable the attitudes of parents.

4. Participation in interscholastic athletics is associated with favorable attitudes toward the values derived from interscholastic athletics.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

During the adolescent stage of development, a youth is confronted with many situations which involve making decisions. In many instances, these decisions will have little effect on important aspects of the youth's future life; therefore, they can be made without much serious contemplation. However, there may be some situations confronting a youth which require much thought because of their potential effect on his future.

To participate or not to participate in interscholastic athletics may well be one of the important decisions that needs to be faced. The decision made regarding athletic participation can have an effect on the future life of the youth. An adolescent who chooses to participate in interscholastic athletics encounters many experiences that the nonparticipant will not meet. This youth, also, will be viewed from a different perspective than that applied to the nonparticipant. Responsibilities and pressures characteristic of athletics will have to be faced (Tutko & Bruns, 1976). The experiences encountered may be important determinants in the selection of vocational and economic goals in adulthood.

What the youth decides is a function of many influences. Studies of the antecedents of sport and athletic participation cite the importance of previous sport experience, self-perceived athletic ability, body size, financial status, perceived sex roles, accessibility of opportunity, and parental attitudes as being related to the long-term pursuit of sport and athletics (Kay, Felker, & Varoz, 1972; Kenyon & McPherson, 1974; Sutton-Smith, Roberts, & Kozelka, 1963). Although the identification of the most important variable contributing to long-term participation has not been made, the central role the attitude of parents toward athletics plays as a determinant has been noted by several investigators of the motivations for sport and athletic involvement (Orlick & Botterill, 1975; Pudelkiewicz, 1970; Schafer, 1972; Smith, 1974; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1976; Steinhaus, 1973; Zeller, 1968).

The effect of parental influence can be seen not only in the child's decision to participate in athletics, but also in the child's behavior in athletics. Smith (1975) found a positive relationship between the child's perception of parental approval of violence in hockey and the amount of violence that the child exhibited in hockey games. Smith (1974) noted that the child's perception of parental attitudes does not always correspond with the actual feelings of the parents. In most cases, the child's perception is an exaggeration of the parents' feelings.

The behavior of the child in perceived accordance with parental attitudes is due, most likely, to many of the informal social and tangible rewards which the parents bestow for success in athletics (Tutko & Bruns, 1976). Although the Smith (1975) study emphasized the child's perception of the parents' attitude, it also served to support the premise that parents assume a central role in helping to develop and reinforce the behavior directions of their child.

The child does not always receive a positive orientation toward athletic participation. Parents who feel that athletics are harmful may attempt to direct their child's interest toward other activities (Steinhaus, 1973). The sex of the child also may evoke a different trend in the parents' guidance. Although few studies have been directed toward the female, it is quite clear from the research which does exist that, generally, male children have been encouraged to participate in athletics, while female children have been discouraged (Orlick & Botterill, 1975). American society has, over the past fifty years, considered athletics as a male-oriented domain (Gerber, Felshin, Berlin, Wyrick, 1972). Until recent years, the female in American society has not been given the sanction or the opportunity to participate in athletics (Harris, 1973). The sex role expectations for the female have not included participation in athletics (Phillips, 1972). Therefore, the female has not

had role models to provide behavior patterns to follow or with whom to identify (Orlick & Botterill, 1975). Due to the lack of approval and encouragement of female athletics, a double standard has existed. There has been outright approval of athletics for males but resistance toward approval of athletics for females (Zoble, 1972). Higdon and Higdon (1967) found that parents would give a blanket approval for their son but for their daughter, they would approve participation in only the sports that have been regarded as feminine.

The attitudes toward athletic participation which parents hold, and the consequent differentiation by sex, may reflect the widespread acceptance of the reputed benefits of athletics. Narrowly viewed, these benefits appear to favor the male. For example, it is frequently stated that athletics build character, increase muscular strength, create respect for authority, and develop masculinity (Tutko & Bruns, 1976). In 1954, the Educational Policies Commission stated that "participation in sound athletic programs, we believe, contributes to health and happiness, physical skill and emotional maturity, social competence and moral values" (Educational Policies Commission, 1954, p. 18). The benefits of athletics viewed from the Commission's perspective should be applicable to females as well as males.

Not all observers of the athletic scene however, agree that the outcome of athletics reflects the ideal contributions as outlined by the Commission (Edwards, 1972; Meggyesy, 1971;

Schafer & Arms, 1972). With the disagreement about outcome, with the emergence of athletic experience at earlier and earlier ages, and with the advent of the female into full athletic participation, parental attitudes toward the consequences and values which are attributed to athletics should be examined. The examination of the parents' attitudes should be direct rather than through the perceptions of their children. Further, the participation by both the female and the male children of the parents holding particular attitudes needs to be investigated. There are, as Snyder and Spreitzer (1976) have said, many unanswered questions regarding parental attitudes and the role that they play in influencing a child to pursue athletics. When parental attitudes and child participation are viewed together, some indication of the role that attitudes play may emerge. The major problem of this investigation, therefore, is centered about parental attitudes toward the values to be found in sport and the interaction of these attitudes with participation in interscholastic athletics by their children.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine the attitudes of parents toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics. Within the broad problem, specific questions posed were:

1. Do the parents of athletes have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from

interscholastic athletics than the parents of nonathletes?

2. Do the male parents of athletes have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the female parents of athletes?

3. Do the male parents of nonathletes have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the female parents of nonathletes?

4. Do the parents of male athletes have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of female athletes?

5. Do the parents of male athletes have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of nonathletes?

6. Do the parents of females have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of males?

7. Do the parents of female athletes have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of female nonathletes?

8. Do the parents who have participated in interscholastic athletics have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents who have not participated?

9. Do the parents of families with a higher percentage of children participating in interscholastic athletics have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of families with a lower percentage of children participating?

10. Do the parents of families where more than one child has participated in interscholastic athletics have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of families with only one child participating or parents of families that do not have children participating?

Definitions

Athlete: A student who was on a Greensboro Junior High School interscholastic athletic team during the 1976-1977 school year was referred to as an athlete in the study.

Nonathlete: A student who was enrolled in a Greensboro Junior High School during the 1976-1977 school year but who did not participate as a member of an interscholastic athletic team was referred to as a nonathlete in the study.

Attitude: The definition that was created by Allport (1937) was used in the study. Allport defined attitude as "a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related" (Allport, 1937, p. 48).

Values: The definition of values created by Morris (1954) was used in the study. Morris defined values as "behaviors of organisms in which they show preference for one object or objective rather than another" (Morris, 1954, p. 9).

Parent: An adult who lived in the home of the child and who served in the role of either mother or father was referred to as the parent in the study.

Assumptions of the Study

The following assumptions were made:

1. Parents have attitudes toward sports which they may verbally and nonverbally transmit in the home environment.

2. Children in the home are influenced by the parents' attitudes.

3. The population of subjects for the study was a valid representation of the Greensboro, North Carolina community reflecting various class, cultural, and religious elements of the residents of the city.

4. Subjects in the study responded to the attitude scale according to their true feelings.

5. The subjects of the study were able to differentiate among the levels of sport competition and thus could respond to athletics rather than to physical activity in general.

Scope of the Study

This study was concerned with the attitudes of parents of junior high school students toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics. The study attempted to determine if differences existed between the attitudes of parents of athletes and the parents of non-athletes. No attitude scale that specifically measured parental attitudes toward athletics was found; thus, a 46-item Likert-type scale was constructed especially for use in this study.

The subjects of the study were selected randomly from either the Greensboro School Administration's composite mailing list or from the interscholastic athletic team rosters of the eight junior high schools of Greensboro, North Carolina. The eight schools and a random-sampling technique were used in an attempt to insure a cross-cultural representation of subjects. Contact with the subjects was made primarily by mailings. Telephone contact was used in the later stages of the follow-up procedures. The responses that were received from the parents were analyzed for differences that existed among the groups of parents.

The study had the following limitations:

1. The sample involved only 147 parents.

2. A widely accepted statement of the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics did not exist in the literature; thus, a composite set extracted from diverse sources was incorporated in the constructed scale.

3. The analysis of the data was limited to the techniques of comparative statistics.

4. The study had the recognized limitations of descriptive investigations which must rely on questionnaires administered through the mail.

Significance of the Study

Past studies have demonstrated that when an individual has been reinforced in sports pursuits by "significant others", they are likely to continue to participate in sports (Pudelkiewicz, 1970; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1973; Spady, 1970). Previous studies of parental attitudes suggest that the positive or negative feelings of parents toward sport may be a significant determinant of continued participation by children (Gras, 1976; Steinhaus, 1973). Most of the investigators, however, have not observed the problem directly by assessing parental attitudes; rather, they have relied on the child's perception of the adult's feelings about sport (Kay, Felker, & Varoz, 1972; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1976). Many of these observations have pertained only to the male. Within the investigations already completed, parental attitudes were undifferentiated as to those held by the male and those held by the female parent. Yet there is evidence (Speitzer & Snyder, 1976) to suggest that a parent of the sex opposite that of a youth may be the one whose feelings about sport is most often referred to by the adolescent. There is a

need for expanded study of both male and female athletes and their parents in order for future insight to be gained regarding attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics.

Many of the attitude studies referred to have applied assessment tools which emphasized feelings about sport participation in general. Few of these studies have been concerned with the identification of the values which interscholastic athletics are reported to support and the assessment of the feelings of parents about these values. There is a need, then, to expand observations related to parental attitudes, particularly about the values in sport, to include both the female and male participant and both the male and female parent.

This study may make a contribution to the literature which focuses on the process of socialization into sport and particularly on the potential role of the parent in this process. A unique feature of this contribution is that the results of the measurement of parents' actual attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics will be provided along with the results of the investigation of differences, if they exist, between the attitudes of parents of athletes and the attitudes of parents of nonathletes.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The store of literature pertinent to the study of attitudes in general and to attitudes related to aspects of physical education in particular is immense. This fact, coupled with the central concern of this investigation, required focusing the attention of the review of literature upon various methods of attitude scale construction and the attitudes of parents toward interscholastic athletics. The major divisions of the review are: (a) measurement of attitudes, (b) parental influence, (c) parental influence and athletic participation, (d) parental attitudes toward interscholastic athletics, and (e) parental attitudes toward the female athlete.

Measurement of Attitudes

There are basically three methods that have been used to develop attitude scales. One of the earliest techniques was devised by Bogardus (1925) to measure social distance. Social distance refers to the degrees and grades of understanding and feeling that people experience for each other. This method asks the subject to respond to another person or to a group of people on the basis of seven factors determined by the researcher. The response of the subject provides an

indication of the subject's feelings for the person or the group evaluated. The range of responses may vary from "I would not want them in my country" to "I would accept them in my family by marriage." This form of measurement may be given to either individuals or groups of individuals.

The technique of equal-appearing intervals, developed by Thurstone (1928), is one of the most widely used approaches. Thurstone developed a scale using principles and methods which could be used to measure attitudes toward a variety of topics. Attitude has been defined by Thurstone as "the sum total of a man's inclinations and feelings, prejudices or bias, preconceived notions, ideas, fears, threats, and convictions about any specified topic" (Thurstone, 1928, p. 535). Thurstone's procedure was to present the subject with a list of statements which had been judged to be statements reflecting a range of opinions about the topic under study. Following Thurstone's plan, the researcher elicits approximately 100 opinion statements from sources, independent of a proposed study's population, in order to generate a list of statements. Judges are then directed to categorize the statements as favorable, unfavorable, or neutral. A "category frequency" is tabulated for each statement. Scale of values of the individual statements are then determined.

Respondents to the scale are asked to read each statement and answer with a plus (+) if they agree and a minus (-) if they disagree. The attitude scale score is determined

by a summation of the scale values of the statements endorsed. The score can then be plotted on a frequency distribution and descriptions can be made concerning the population.

The third basic measurement style is the one developed by Likert (1932). This method has aspects that are similar to Thurstone's technique. Likert's creation uses statements that the subject has to respond to in degrees of agreement or disagreement. In contrast to Thurstone's method, Likert's approach allows the subject more choices than "agree" or "disagree." Respondents to a Likert scale may answer with "strongly agree", "agree", "undecided", "disagree", or "strongly disagree." In constructing the scale, a list of statements are composed that reflect either favorable or unfavorable attitudes toward the topic being studied. This list consists of a larger number of statements than will be used in the actual finished scale. These statements are then given to a panel of judges which is asked to indicate whether the statements are favorable or unfavorable. The judges are asked also to edit the statements and to review them for clarity and ambiguity.

Once the statements have been reviewed and rated as being favorable or unfavorable, the scoring can be determined. The investigator has to decide to use either five or seven response categories. The extreme response can be prefixed either by "very strongly" or by "strongly." The decision must then be made as to the method by which the scoring will

be handled. The highest or lowest weighting may be assigned to the most favorable responses. Either is acceptable as long as conformity is maintained throughout the scale. If five responses are being used, usually the score of five is given for the most favorable response, four for the next favorable, three for the undecided response, two for the unfavorable response, and one for the most unfavorable response. For unfavorable statements, the scoring is reversed.

To obtain an individual subject's score, the weights for each of the responses are totaled. If the favorable statements have been weighted with the higher weights, a person with a high total is considered to have a favorable attitude toward the topic being studied. This scoring procedure has come to be known as the method of summated ratings. Likert recommends that the scale be validated by administering the scale to a test group followed by an item analysis to determine the difference between attitudes of subjects responding favorably and attitudes of subjects responding unfavorably.

The generating of attitude statements is one of the most important steps in developing a scale. Both Likert (1932) and Thurstone (1928) touched upon guidelines for developing sound attitude statements. Many of the studies dealing with attitude scale construction have found the criteria as outlined by Wang (1932) to be a beneficial resource (Edginton, 1968; Kenyon, 1968; Lakie, 1964; Wear, 1955). The extensive criteria, developed by Wang, for the writing

of attitude statements include the points that a statement must be: (a) debatable, (b) short, (c) only one thought, (d) clear-cut, direct, and (e) representative of a conviction. In order to arrive at such a statement, he felt the sentence should be written in such a way that it is susceptible to only one interpretation. It should be one sentence only, with no more than 15 words included. The style should be simple, clear, and interesting. Suggestive items such as "only", "merely", or "just" should be avoided. These criteria have been credited with being extremely helpful in designing attitude statements.

The widespread usage of both the Likert and the Thurstone methods of attitude scale construction has generated some concern about which of the two approaches is best. Edwards and Kenney (1946) made a comparison of the two methods. In making their comparison, they created two attitude scales concerning the same topic. One scale used the Thurstone method, the other used the Likert method. From the comparison, four conclusions were drawn. It was decided that the process of using the judges group, as Thurstone recommends, was not an important factor in determining the scale values of the statements. A second conclusion was that the scale constructed using the Likert method produced higher reliability coefficients with fewer items than the scale created by the Thurstone method. The third point made by the comparison was that the Likert technique was less time consuming and less laborious

than the Thurstone technique. The final note regarding the study was that scores from the two scales were comparable and when the scores were statistically compared, the reliability coefficient was very high.

Barclay and Weaver (1962) also compared the Likert and Thurstone methods. Two of their findings support Edwards and Kenney's (1946) conclusions. Barclay and Weaver found that it required 43.2 percent more time to construct a Thurstone-type scale than it did to construct a Likert-type scale. They also found a higher reliability with the Likert type scale than with the Thurstone type scale.

The Likert method for attitude scale construction has been widely used by researchers in physical education. One of the first scales that received a great deal of attention and use was created by Wear (1951) to measure attitudes of college students toward physical education. Several investigators (Broer, 1955; Brumbach & Cross, 1965; Wear, 1951) have demonstrated the 40-item instrument to be both valid and reliable. The Wear scale has been used to measure attitudes of both males and females. Broer (1955) used the scale with college women, while Brumbach (1965) and Campbell (1968) have investigated the attitudes of college men.

Kenyon (1968) adapted the Likert technique to design an 84-item attitude scale divided into six subscales. This instrument has been applied to both college women and men to measure attitudes about the various dimensions of physical education.

Investigators in physical education have not restricted themselves to measurement of college-age students only. Edgington (1968), for example, created a scale valid for the high-school-age group. Attitude scales have also been developed for measurement of elementary-age children (Mason & Ventre, 1965) and for high school girls (Carr, 1945; Drinkwater, 1960).

Summary

A problem that has existed has been the development of many scales highly similar in composition. Often the statements have been identical. There also have been duplications of studies for the same group of subjects. Researchers have not felt content to use scales that have previously been applied, but have attempted to create new scales which duplicate the ones in existence. The completed research in the area of attitude measurement indicates that: (a) the Likert and Thurstone methods have been widely accepted as qualified means for measuring attitudes, (b) the comparison of the two methods has led to preference of the Likert method over the Thurstone method, and (c) the Likert method has been widely used by physical educators for the measurement of students' attitudes toward physical education.

Parental Influence

A review of the literature dealing with the influence of parents upon the child reveals that several assumptions

have been derived from completed studies. These assumptions are: (a) the parent is a major source of influence in the decision-making processes of the child, (b) the parent realizes the effect of his/her influence upon the child and, therefore, uses that influence to direct the behavior of the child, (c) parental influence occurs in periods of intimate interaction between the parent and the child, and (d) a similarity of the educational goals of the child and parent may occur, not due to direct influence by the parent, but due to shared common experiences and the socioeconomic status of the parents.

Kerckhoff and Huff (1973) investigated parent-child relationships in an attempt to determine what affects the transmission of the parents' goals to the child. An initial point made by their study indicated that there can be a similarity of educational goals without actual parental influence. The parent and child may develop goals independently due to similar external influences such as socioeconomic status and shared common experiences. The study reported that too often assumptions about parent-child agreement have been made without considering such external influences. The study questioned also whether or not inferences about parental influence should be made when that inference is drawn between the child's perceptions of the parents' goals and the actual goals of the parents.

Kerckhoff and Huff (1973) attempted to provide an answer to this question when they compared 9th- and 12th-grade boys'

expressed educational goals, the boys' perceptions of their parents' goals, and the actual goals of the parents. The results of the research indicated that sons tend to perceive agreement in educational goals even when they have inadequate information about their parents' goals. The researchers also found that there was evidence of direct goal transmission between older sons and parents. Younger sons were more likely than the older sons to use the father as a model when stating educational goals. Sons, also, usually perceive greater agreement with fathers and less with mothers even though they have less actual agreement. Boys apparently interact less with the father than with the mother but identify more with the father. The study assumed that boys who interacted more with fathers would have more accurate reports of the father's goals. The investigators reported that if the study had found actual agreement between the child's perception of the parents' goals and the parents' goals, then the assumption could have been made that perceived agreement with parental goals and actual agreement are the same; therefore, one could be a proxy for the other. Kerckhoff and Huff (1973) concluded that parents vary in the extent to which they influence the child's educational goals. They concluded further that no evidence was found to support the hypothesis that parent-child agreement varies with the quality of the parent-child relationship.

In contrast to the Kerckhoff and Huff investigations (1973), Chalpusky and Coles (1976) found an agreement between parental expectations, the children's perception of these expectations, and the importance of this congruence on the student's achievements and attitudes toward school. It appeared that parental expectations concerning both how far in school a parent wants a child to go and how good a student the parent wants the child to be can influence the child's attitudes. The researchers stated that the length of schooling did not need to be communicated to the students as much as the concern for the quality of the work.

Parental influence has been found to be an important variable in many areas relating to a child's growth and development as well as areas relating to education. Bilby (1973) studied the effect that parental influence has on the concept that children have of their abilities and competencies as students. Fifth and sixth graders were given the Michigan Self-Concept of Abilities Scale and asked also to report how they regarded themselves as students. The parents of the children were interviewed to obtain their views of the children's abilities as students. Through a comparison of the children's reports, their Self-Concept of Abilities scores, and the parents' concepts, support was found for the assumption that parents' evaluations are crucial in shaping the child's self-concept behavior with regard to his competence as a student.

Parents have been found to be a source of influence with regard to the child's educational plans and objectives. Werts and Watley (1970) sampled college freshmen who were grouped according to their father's occupation. The researchers were interested in determining if the student's achievements correlated with skills that would be used in the father's occupation. The student's achievements were classified either as scientific, artistic, oral leadership, musical, or literary. The results indicated that the sons and daughters excelled in the skills that the father used in his occupation. The investigator concluded that development of a child's talent was influenced by the talent possessed by the father.

Combined family influence has been found to be one of the strongest predictors of good grades. Cottle (1968) studied a number of variables to determine what could be considered to be a strong predictor of educational attainment. The population of the study consisted of men and women at the United States Naval Training Center. The variables investigated were: (a) the subjects' intelligence scores, (b) aptitude scores, (c) high school grades, (d) scores from a family perception attitude scale, (e) scores from a sexual identification scale, (f) scores from a social role preference scale. The subjects' intelligence scores and grades were found to be the best predictor of future success while the perception of the family was found to be a strong predictor of high grade attainment. Several important points

were drawn from the data. The child's perception of the parents' influence reflects a combination of both parents' and other family members' influence. It appears that the influence cannot be assessed completely by objective means because much of the parental-family influence is recalled and perceived subjectively. These subjective types of experiences become the source for the development of characteristics such as belief systems, esteem, and sexual identity which ultimately take part in the formation of a person's intelligence, aptitude, and future success.

The education of the parents and the occupation of the father have been found to influence educational expectancies of adolescents. Rehberg and Westly (1967) studied male high school sophomores. They developed a model of causal sequence with regard to children's orientation toward education. The model states that the father's education is a partial determinant of his occupation and, therefore, of the social status of the family. The model shows that paternal education and occupation influence the adolescent's educational expectancies through encouragement. The study also reported that the larger the family, the greater the reduction not only of the frequency of encouragement, but also of the amount and effectiveness of parental encouragement.

Sewell and Shah (1968) have added support to the concept that the parents' education is influential in the child's college plans. In their study, the results indicated that

the father's education has a slightly stronger effect than the mother's education on the male's perception of parental encouragement. For the female, the mother's and father's education have almost an equal effect.

Several studies have contradicted research that has placed importance on the influence of the parents' education. Burlin (1976) investigated the relationship of parental education, maternal work, and occupational status with regard to occupational aspirations. The study concluded that the educational level and occupational status of parents do exert a strong influence but that the socioeconomic status of the parents is more influential than the educational level of the parents.

Harrison (1969) studied the relationship of educational and occupational aspirations to school performance and socioeconomic status. The subjects of the study were middle-and lower-class, successful and unsuccessful, tenth-grade students. The analysis of the data showed differences between the social classes. The middle-class students expected additional schooling and higher status position attainment. Harrison stated that the cumulative effect of the obstacles created by the status positions of the parents cannot be completely overcome by successful performance in schools. Parents may influence lower-class students to tone down their aspirations toward a reality level.

The question of whether parents or peers have the most influence on the adolescent youth has generated considerable research, and has provided varied conclusions. Picou and Carter (1976) compared the influence of peers with the influence of parents. The study concluded that for high school students, the parents seem to have more influence than the students' peers with regard to life's aspirations. Kandil and Lesser (1969) found in a study of high school students and their mothers that the parental desires for children are more direct determinants of the child's educational plans than the socioeconomic status. Consideration was given to the fact that the parents' aspirations may be determined by the parents' position in society. The study also investigated the role of peers in influencing educational plans. The results indicated that the influence of peers increases with the intimacy of the friendship. Kandil and Lesser also found that adolescents who tend to disagree with their parents' view of educational plans also tend to disagree with their peers.

McDill and Coleman (1965) investigated the effects of family and peer influences on changes in college plans of high school students. The findings of the study are contradictory to previous studies. The results of McDill and Coleman's study indicate that the peer group has more influence than the parent. They found that by the end of the senior year the prestige of the adolescent peers in the

school system contributes more to variation in the stated college plans than the parents. Utech and Hoving (1969) have written that conformity to the advice of parents decreases with age while the social reinforcement value of peers increases with age.

Summary

The completed research has attempted to establish that the adolescent child can be influenced in decision-making processes by parents and peers. In early adolescence, the parent appears to be more influential than the child's peer but as the child grows older, the peer group is more often consulted than the parents. Studies have investigated several variables related to parental influence and have reported that the parents' socioeconomic status, educational, and occupational levels all affect the adolescent in decisions related to educational plans.

The tendency in studies has been to use predominantly male subjects and to group the mother and father, rather than treating the parents as separate subjects. Research is needed that takes into account the sex of the child as well as the sex of the parent. Previous studies have also indicated that the parent is aware of the influential impact that can be exerted upon the adolescent and therefore, uses that influence to direct the adolescent's behavior. This assumption has not been supported or directly investigated by these studies. The completed research makes apparent the complexity of studying parental influence which appears

to have involved a number of variables which cannot be teased out by surface examination only.

Parental Influence and Athletic Participation

Based upon supportive evidence (Bilby, 1973; Cottle, 1968; Werts & Watley, 1970) that has been presented regarding the hypothesis that parents are influential in a child's selection of educational goals, researchers have attempted to study the role that the parent plays in a child's decision concerning athletic participation. Several studies have concluded that parents and family are important sources of influence for the child.

Snyder and Spreitzer (1973) have written that the family is the most powerful of all socialization institutions, and that a child can be socialized into sport in much the same manner as the child is given a religious or political orientation. The sport socialization process begins in early childhood and continues into high school with considerable encouragement from significant others (Snyder & Spreitzer, 1976). Pudelkiewicz (1970) states that a human being is integrated into the family, and takes over the customs and ways of thinking that have been accepted by the family; therefore, a positive evaluation of sport by the parent gives rise to sport interests among children.

Pudelkiewicz (1970) has looked at the conveyance of sport values across three generations of families. Through his work he has found that there can be a complete transfer

of values across all three generations of a family. The values that most frequently are transferred are a positive attitude for sport, an awareness of the need for sport, and the advantages stemming from participation in sport.

The discovery of the value transfer has led Pudelkiewicz to create several hypotheses. Pudelkiewicz (1970) began with the supposition that the stronger the sport traditions in the family, and the more positive the approach to the values connected with sport, the stronger the need is for the parents to implement these values in the educational model. A second hypothesis was that the greater the number of rival values, and the weaker the influences of the parents, the greater the chance is of a disappearance of sport values in the family, despite existing sport traditions. The third hypothesis stated that in a community where sport values are widely accepted, the parents will find it easier to put into practice their sport values in the child's orientation. A fourth concern was that the more difficult the material conditions of the parents, the smaller the chance that they will develop sport interests among children. Pudelkiewicz's concluding hypothesis, and one of the most significant, stated that a positive evaluation of the values of sport by all members of the family favors the internal integration of the family into the realm of sports. It is this concept of encouragement and high regard for sport within the family that has caught the attention of other researchers.

A positive linear relationship has been found to exist between parental encouragement and adolescent sport involvement (Snyder & Spreitzer, 1973). The encouragement from parents appears to be more frequent and sincere for those children who have previously participated in sports than those children who have not participated. Steinhaus (1973) has proposed that children whose parents encourage physical achievement and who acknowledge and approve it are more likely to become athletes than the children of parents who do not allow their children to be involved in any physical activity which might be the least bit dangerous. While many researchers have dealt only with parental encouragement, Steinhaus (1973) has looked at the other end of the continuum, which is represented by parental disapproval. He writes that parents who are anxious about the risk of sport involvement tend to scold the child when the child attempts sport related activities. As a result of this negative reinforcement the child may tend to avoid sport participation.

The effect of parental encouragement or disapproval also appears to have varying impact upon different sexes. Spreitzer and Snyder (1976) have found that parental encouragement seems to be more important for girls than for boys. In a study of children and familial involvement, they found that explicit parental encouragement regarding sport involvement was reported to make a significant contribution to the sport involvement of girls but not for boys. It was further

found that a father's interest in sports was more influential than the mother's interest in sport for both boys and girls. In the same study, Spreitzer and Snyder (1976) presented a causal chain illustrating the parental influence upon sport involvement of children. Within their causal chain construction, three points were developed. First, explicit parental encouragement showed a significant path to participation for both boys and girls. Secondly, parents who were interested in sport tended to encourage their offspring to participate in sport. Such encouragement increased the likelihood of a youth's participation in sport. The third point noted was that neither the father's or mother's personal interest in sport showed a statistically significant path toward the son or daughter's participation as a youth.

Kay, Felker, and Varoz (1972), in studying the effect of sport interests and abilities upon the self-concept of junior high school boys, found evidence to conclude that a boy's interest in sport is based upon an interest in sport that is shared with a parent and upon his own physical abilities. The results of this study led them to conclude that the similarity of sport interests between the parent and the child appears to be related to the child's self-concept. It would then seem apparent that the parents' interest in sport may indeed have some effect upon the child. The interest in sport that develops within a child may result from the sport interest shown by the parent or from actual imitation of a sport role model.

According to Spreitzer and Snyder (1976), the acquisition of sport roles basically results from exposure to role models and reinforcement from significant others such as parents. Gras (1974) supports this notion with his findings that children will admit to having sport models. He found the children's first choice of a model was a national sport idol, and their second choice was either a coach or physical education instructor. The interesting finding was that the children's third choice was their parents. When the same group of children was asked who was glad of their achievements and who showed appreciation and interest in their participation in sport, parents were ranked first, by a large margin, ahead of instructors. Gras stated that the parents' recognition of the children's achievements in sport may be a very important factor in determining whether or not the interest in sport by the children is long term. The recognition of achievement may be manipulated also by parents for reasons other than continuing the child's interest.

A study of American Little League Baseball families has provided a different insight into the area of achievement recognition. Watson (1974) found that children appear to adopt a status of central importance, not only because of parental interest in their development but also due to the contact the children enable their parents to maintain with the value system of the surrounding community. Furthermore, the greater the achievements of the child, the more esteem

the parents receive. Watson (1974) reported that the clear distinction between families involved and those not involved appears to hinge upon the factor of whether the parent considers the successful development of the children within a highly sophisticated community setting to be important. Due to the esteem a child's success in athletics may bring to the parents, the parents may attempt to influence the child's decision regarding athletic participation.

Summary

A review of the studies dealing with parental influence as it relates to a child's involvement in athletics reveals that the parent seems to play a very important part in the sport socialization process of the child. Parental encouragement, approval, and interest in sport have been reported to be influential variables that affect the child's involvement in sport.

Parental Attitudes Toward Interscholastic Athletics

One of the first attempts at determining parental attitudes toward athletics was undertaken by Stalnaker (1933). In a study dealing with attitudes toward intercollegiate athletics, he attempted to compare, by using a Thurstone-type attitude scale, the attitudes of various groups of people associated with the University of Minnesota. His groups included lettermen, parents of athletes, general public, alumni, faculty, university administrators, graduate and undergraduate students. The results of his study showed an

overall favorable attitude by all groups. When the groups were ranked by their degree of favorableness, the parents of athletes had the second highest rank. The parents were surpassed only by the lettermen group.

The parents of athletes were a part of a study conducted by Lohrberg (1974). In an analysis of attitudes toward interscholastic athletics, Lohberg compared the attitudes of groups of students, parents, coaches, and faculty members. The results of the study indicated that the coaches had the most favorable and most significantly different attitudes. The parents were considered also to have favorable attitudes. No difference was found between the parents of athletes and the parents of nonathletes. The study did provide an interesting finding in that individuals in the upper social positions were significantly less positive in their attitudes toward interscholastic athletics than those in the middle or lower social positions.

Cratty (1973) has written that "attitude, rather than income, seems to be the most important factor in the family situation that propels a child toward or away from formal or informal participation in sports" (Cratty, 1973, p. 211). He has developed a schematic design that portrays the importance of the influence of positive parental attitudes toward sports upon the child's performance in sports. According to this design, there is a direct line between positive parental attitudes toward sports and positive attitudes toward sports

by the child. Cratty postulates, then, that the positive attitudes held by the child lead to sports participation.

There have been several studies which have examined parents' attitudes toward physical education. Conjectures may be made from the conclusions of such studies about attitudes toward athletics. Zeller (1968) presented a group of parents with a questionnaire that dealt with the parent's opinion about physical activity. She also gave the children of the parents a battery of skills tests. A comparison was then made between the results of the skills tests and the opinions of the parents. The results indicated that there was a high positive correlation between the parents' favorable opinions and their children's performance scores. There was a positive correlation between the favorable attitude of the parent and the amount of time that a child spent in physical activity. In addition, the study found that parents with highly skilled children had significantly more favorable attitudes than parents with less skilled children.

Melcher (1975), in a similar study, compared parental attitudes toward physical activity with motor ability scores of their daughters. The parents' attitudes were measured by using Kenyon's (1968) scale. Melcher found that the extent of the father's attitude was more related to the daughter's motor ability than was the mother's attitude. The results indicated that the father's, mother's, and daughter's attitudes toward physical activity were very similar.

The attitudes of athletes' parents toward physical activity have been also compared to the attitudes of parents of nonathletes. Dowell's (1973) study of parents' attitudes toward the concept of physical activity found that although the athletes in the study were more physically fit and possessed more favorable attitudes toward physical activity than nonathletes, their parents did not possess more favorable attitudes toward physical activity than the parents of nonathletes.

Summary

Evidence from completed research has not always supported the popular thought that parents of athletes have more positive attitudes toward sport than the parents of nonathletes. Although parental attitudes have been regarded as a major source of influence upon the child's decision to participate in athletics, only a few researchers have attempted to measure these attitudes toward athletics. The concept that parental attitudes are important determinants in the child's regard for athletics has not been questioned. It appears rather, that it has been accepted as a given truth that children whose parents have positive attitudes toward athletics will participate more frequently and have more favorable attitudes than children of parents with less favorable attitudes. Repeatedly, throughout the literature, statements are made that refer to the influence of the parents' attitudes upon the child, but the statements are made without adequate support for the conclusions.

The research attempts that have been made have been content to report that a certain number of parents have favorable or unfavorable attitudes (Dowell, 1973; Lohberg, 1974; Stalnaker, 1933). Further, the investigations have dealt with sport or athletics in a very general way, and they have not delineated the level with regard to whether the concept measured refers to a YMCA sports activity or interscholastic athletic competitions. The research, for the most part has failed to make in-depth comparisons of parents' attitudes to determine if there are differences between groups of parents that could contribute to the participation or nonparticipation of their child in sport.

Parental Attitudes Toward the Female Athlete

Historically, the female has received neither the approval nor the respect for athletic participation that has been given to the male athlete. The female has been taught through society disapproval, role models, and nonreinforcement behaviors of parents that being athletic is not desirable for the female (Moore, 1977; Orlick & Botterill, 1975). Interest by a female in participating in athletics has often been blocked by these pressures, and by the realization that her involvement in athletics may cause her femininity to be questioned. It has only been within recent years that new perspectives of the female have allowed her to overcome many of the social barriers to engaging in athletic competition without fear of being considered a social outcast.

A recent study by Kingsley, Brown, and Seibert (1977) that dealt with the social acceptance of female athletes, did not find evidence to support the belief that a woman involved in the traditionally masculine athletic pursuits is viewed more negatively than a woman who is engaged in the more traditionally feminine sports.

Cheska (1970) listed twelve reasons as to why recent years have witnessed an increase in female participation rates. Three of Cheska's reasons are pertinent to this discussion. These reasons are: (a) increases in equal educational opportunities, (b) the emancipation of the woman politically, socially, economically, and sexually, (c) and changes in attitudes toward the human body as an instrument of expression. Considering that all of the social barriers that have existed for the female athlete are reflections of attitudes that are held for the woman and specifically for the woman athlete, it would appear that a combination of the last two of Cheska's reasons could be considered especially significant. Changes that may have occurred in attitudes toward the female and the female athlete may have been the chief catalyst in leading to an increase in female participation rates.

As the role of the athlete has become more accepted, the role of the parents as supportive influences has been the subject of several investigations. Greendorfer (1975) reported that the family, particularly the parents, are a

source of primary influence upon the female's decision to participate in sports. The importance of supportive parents also has been recognized by Huey (1975) who has credited her athletic prowess to the praise and encouragement given to her by her parents.

Attempts have been made to determine which parent has the most influence on the female. In a study designed to provide this type of information, Berlin (Gerber et al., 1974) asked a group of female athletes to place in rank order the people who had influenced them to participate in sports. The father of the athlete was reported consistently to be the most influential person. These findings were supported by Snyder and Spreitzer (1976) who also found the fathers to be the most influential person. In the same study, it was determined that mothers were more likely to encourage participation by their daughters in gymnastics than basketball. The researchers decided this was an indication of the traditional delineation of sports.

The attitudes of parents have been determined to play a very important role in the female's interest in sport. Birrell (1972) has written, from results of a study dealing with the influence of family factors on the choice of sports by women, that parents' attitudes, as perceived by women, have a greater influence on the female's choice of sports than the parents' participation in sport. Several other studies have investigated the relationship between parental

attitudes and female participation in competitive activities. McGee (1956) and Sheriff (1969) compared parents' attitudes with other groups of individuals. Sheriff compared parents' attitudes toward female competition with the attitudes of male and female teenagers. The results indicated that the parents and teenage girls had the most favorable attitudes. McGee compared the attitudes of school administrators, teachers, coaches, and parents toward competition for girls. She reported that the parents had the most favorable attitude. Her results indicated that parents whose daughter participated in athletics had slightly more favorable attitudes than the parents of nonathletes.

Summary

The completed research indicates that the attitudes of parents toward athletics may influence a female's decision regarding athletic participation. It appears that a female is more likely to participate in athletics if her parents: (a) have favorable attitudes toward athletics, (b) provide encouragement to the daughter, (c) support the daughter's athletic interest, and (d) show an interest in sports.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to compare the attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics of parents of athletes and parents of non-athletes.

Sources of Data

Instruments

Although there have been scales to measure attitudes toward athletics and physical education created in many studies, these instruments were not considered appropriate for determining parental attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics. The development of a Likert-type scale which would include statements relative to the values supported by interscholastic athletics had to be constructed.

Attitude scale. The construction of the scale consisted of several steps including: (a) a review of the literature dealing with attitude scale construction, (b) the creation of a list of attitude statements, (c) the selection of a panel of judges to critique the statements, (d) the submission of the statements to the panel of judges, (e) the creation of an original draft of the scale according to the

recommendations of the judges, (f) the administration of the scale to a pilot group, (g) a second administration of the instrument to the pilot group, (h) the testing of the scale for validity and reliability, and (i) the revision of the scale based upon the results of the tests.

A literature review (Beisser, 1967; Edwards, 1973; Orlick & Botterill, 1975; Tutko & Bruns, 1976) was undertaken to determine what values had been associated with athletics and the types of effective statements that had been generated (Edgington, 1968; Kenyon, 1968; McGee, 1956). Wang's (1932) recommendations for writing attitude statements were followed. Particular attention was given to the content, clarity, length, and direction of the statements. The information obtained through the review of literature resulted in the development of 80 statements. (See Appendix A for list of statements.)

Members of the Physical Education faculty at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro who were considered to have expertise and experience in either attitude scale construction or athletics were selected to be judges for the statements. The five judges were asked to read the statements and react to each one regarding: (a) the appropriateness of the statement as an attitude, (b) the statement's reflection of a favorable or an unfavorable attitude toward the value of interscholastic athletics, (c) the context of the statement, (d) the grammatical construction of the

statement, (e) spelling errors in the statement, and (f) the statement's representation of a value derived from interscholastic athletics. (See Appendix A for instructions to the judges.)

For a statement to be considered acceptable for use in the scale at least three of the five judges had to agree upon the worth of the statement. The review of the judges resulted in the elimination of 16 of the 80 original statements. These statements were dismissed from consideration either because of poor construction, or because the statement failed to elicit agreement among the judges. The judges considered 32 of the remaining statements to be favorable and 32 to be unfavorable. (See Appendix A for Table 13, judges' evaluations of statements.)

Five categories of responses were used with each statement. These categories ranged from "strongly agree" to "agree", and from "undecided" to "disagree" and "strongly disagree." Responses which indicated agreement with the favorable statement were weighted higher than the responses which indicated agreement with the unfavorable statements. An example of a favorable statement was "A healthy relief of tension is provided through participation in interscholastic athletics." The response of "strongly agree" to this statement received a score of 5; the "agree" response was given a 4, a 3 to "undecided", a 2 to the "disagree" response, and a 1 to the "strongly disagree" response. An example of an unfavorable statement was "Racial prejudice continues to

exist in interscholastic athletics." The response of "strongly agree" to this statement received a score of 1; the "agree" response was given a 2, a 3 to "undecided", a 4 to the "disagree" response and a 5 to the "strongly disagree" response. (See Appendix A for original draft of attitude scale.)

Following the editing suggestions of the judges, the scale was revised and directions for completing it were added. The instrument was given then to a test group to establish validity and reliability. Twenty parents between 38 and 55 years of age, were requested to respond to the scale. The parents selected met the following criteria: (a) were representative of the age group of the actual subjects, (b) had children in the Greensboro School System, (c) were accessible and available to the researcher.

Following the first presentation of the scale, Likert's (1932) method was used to determine the validity of the statements. In accordance with Likert's recommendations, scores of the subjects falling in the top 10% of the group's scores were compared with the scores of the subjects falling in the bottom 10% of the group's scores. The responses for each statement were compared to determine if there were differences in the responses of the two groups at the extremes of the range of scores. A summation of the top group's responses to each statement and a summation of the bottom group's responses were completed. The difference between

the two sums was determined and then divided by the number of subjects in each group. The resulting quotient was the critical feature of the method. Likert recommends that a statement project a 1.0 or better quotient to be accepted as a valid and differentiating statement. The results of the validity test indicated that 19 of the statements did not differentiate; thus, they were deleted. (See Appendix B for Table 14, discrimination quotients.)

The test-retest method of establishing reliability was applied to the scale. The second administration of the scale was given three weeks after the initial administration to control for the memory factor. After eliminating the 19 invalid statements, the scales of the first administration were rescored. Although the total score for each subject decreased, the range and order of the subjects' scores did not change. The nondifferentiating statements were eliminated from the scale before it was given to the subjects for the second presentation. Following the return and scoring of the instrument, the adjusted scores of the first administration and the scores of the second were used to determine reliability. The correlation of the two sets of scores produced a .96 coefficient. (See Appendix B for Table 15, raw scores of test-retest group.)

Therefore, by submitting the scale to the review of judges, to a pilot group, to a test of validity, and to a test of reliability, a valid and reliable instrument resulted. (See Appendix C for final attitude scale.)

Questionnaire. A questionnaire requesting demographic information relative to the number of children in the family, the children's athletic participation, the age, educational level, marital status, and athletic background of parents was developed to accompany the attitude scale. (See Appendix C for questionnaire.) Information such as the number of children in the family, the children's athletic participation, and the parents' athletic participation was sought in order to analyze important parts of the data and to aid in answering several subquestions of the study. The age, educational level, and marital status of the parents were requested to be used to help describe the subjects and for discussion purposes.

Selection of Subjects

Parents of junior high school students of Greensboro, North Carolina were selected as subjects. Permission was sought (see Appendix D for letter to superintendent) and obtained from the Superintendent of Schools (see Appendix D for letter of permission) to obtain names of the parents from the records of the school. Subjects for the study were identified from among lists of the athletic rosters of the junior high schools or the school administration's composite mailing list. The study began in the fall of the year; therefore, to avoid exclusion of a student from the athletic population, the athletic rosters of the year previous to that of the study were used. Such a procedure assured that

all of the school's athletes' parents had an opportunity to be chosen as subjects for the study. The composite mailing list of the previous school year was used, also, to assure consistency with the athletic group lists. The subjects who composed the athletic group were chosen from the athletic rosters while the subjects for the non-athletic group were drawn from the composite mailing list.

In order to have two separate pools of names and to prevent a student from being drawn from both pools, certain precautions were taken. First, the school's athletic rosters were combined to form one master list. Students whose names appeared on two athletic team rosters were listed only once on the master athletic list. The use of the composite mailing list permitted identification of students with the same last name who appeared on the athletic team rosters, as being brothers and sisters. If brothers and sisters appeared on the athletic rosters, only one name was listed on the master athletic roster. The next step consisted of eliminating the names of the students that appeared on the master athletic list from the composite mailing list. The composite mailing list was used also to provide mailing addresses for the athletic group subjects.

After deleting the athletes' names, the nonathlete subjects were chosen from a master composite mailing list that was a combination of all the junior high school lists. The composite mailing list was an IBM printout that provided each

school's enrollment by grade, by alphabetical order, and by full name and address of each student. Brothers and sisters were identified so that only one name represented a family.

Once the student sample was drawn, the parents' names were acquired from the census file. Neither the athletic rosters nor the composite mailing list provided those names; therefore, the census file kept by the School Administration had to be consulted. The file permitted the identification of both two-parent and one-parent families.

Once a master athletic roster list and a master composite mailing list had been established and checked for duplication, the subjects for the study were chosen using the random numbers sampling technique. The subjects in the athletic pool were numbered consecutively from 1 - 878, and the subjects in the nonathletic pool were numbered consecutively from 1 - 2478. Two hundred numbers were drawn from a random numbers table. The numbers were matched with numbers in the athletic pool. The individuals identified by the procedure became the subjects for the athletic group. Following the same method, 200 different numbers were drawn from a random numbers table, then matched with numbers from the nonathletic master list to form the nonathletic subjects group. If a number chosen from the random numbers table did not match a number in the pool, another number was chosen from the table.

Collection of Data

Initial Contact

A letter briefly explaining the study and requesting the randomly selected parents to consent to participate in the study, was mailed to 200 subjects; 100 to the parents of athletes group and 100 to the parents of nonathletes. This allowed 100 parents to remain in each group to be used as alternates in the event that all of the initial sample did not respond. (See Appendix D for letter to parents.) The subjects were asked to return a post card, enclosed with the letter, indicating whether or not they would participate. (See Appendix D for post card.) Prior to the mailing, a list was made of all of the subjects selected to be used in the study. Each time a subject was sent materials by the investigator or materials were returned to the investigator, a dated entry was made next to the subject's name. If the parents agreed to participate, two copies of the attitude scale and questionnaire were sent to each set of two-parent families. Also, a self-addressed stamped envelope was provided for return of the information. Only one copy of each item was sent to single-parent families. If the subject returned the card checked "no" for participation, another subject was randomly selected from the pool of 100 remaining subjects. The newly selected subject was then contacted using the same mailing procedures.

Follow-up Procedures

If the initial post card had not been returned after three weeks from the date of the initial mailing, a double post card was sent as a follow-up to the subject. (See Appendix E for follow-up post card #1.) One half of the double post card contained a reminder relating to the fact that the subject had not returned a post card; the other half of the double post card was identical to the card contained in the initial mailing. If the subjects did not return the follow-up post card within two weeks after the second mailing, these subjects were dropped from the study. Replacements were drawn randomly from the original pool.

The parents who agreed to participate in the study, but who after three weeks had not returned the scales and questionnaires, were sent a post card reminding them to return the materials. (See Appendix E for participant reminder card.) If, after an additional three weeks, the subjects had not returned the scales and questionnaires, a second set of materials and a six-week reminder card (see Appendix E for six-week reminder card) were sent to these parents. Throughout the collection process a total of 200 subjects from each group was contacted. During the collection process, no attempt was made to solicit the return of the blank questionnaires or scales from those subjects not responding.

The final step in the follow-up collection process consisted of making a telephone call to those subjects who had

agreed to participate but had not responded after receiving a second set of materials and a six-week reminder. The brief telephone contact included only the request to complete and return all materials. (See Appendix E for notes of telephone conversation.)

The follow-up process was concluded three weeks after the telephone calls had been made. The process of collection covered a consecutive period of 24 weeks, beginning in October and concluding at the end of February. Although the number of responses which was proposed initially for the study was not achieved, the decision was made to proceed with the investigation. A determining factor in this decision was that the SAS and SPSS programs of statistical treatment of the data would not be affected by the uneven sample size.

Analysis of Data

The SAS and SPSS statistical packages were used to analyze the data. The statistical treatment of the data was completed in the Computing Center of the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. A 2 x 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance was used to provide answers to the first seven questions posed in the study. These questions pertained to the interaction of the sex of the child, the sex of the parent, and the athletic participation of the child with the attitude score of the parent. A *t* test was used to provide an answer to question eight which required an analysis of the differences

in the attitude scores of parents who had participated in athletics and those who had not participated. A one-way ANOVA was used to analyze the data for questions nine and ten. Question nine was concerned with establishing the difference in the participation rate in athletics of the children whose parents had favorable attitudes and the children whose parents had unfavorable attitudes. Question ten dealt with whether or not there was a difference in the attitudes of the parents who had more than one child participating in athletics and the parents who had only one child participating or those parents who had no children participating. The .05 level of confidence was adopted by the study as the acceptable level of significance.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purpose of this study was to determine if differences existed in the attitudes of parents of athletes and the parents of nonathletes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics. In order to obtain answers to the questions posed in the study regarding attitudinal differences, several techniques of analysis were used. Demographic information on the parents is presented first. Data relevant to the questions posed in the study are presented last.

Descriptions of Subjects

Parents who participated in the study were selected on the basis of whether or not their child of junior high school age was a participant or a nonparticipant in interscholastic athletics. Parents, who responded from the original pool of 400 subjects, represented 105 junior high school boys and 42 junior high school girls. Completed attitude scales and questionnaires were received from 78 fathers and 69 mothers. Table 1 presents a frequency of age, marital status, and educational level of subjects completing the questionnaire.

Table 1

Descriptive Data for Parents

Ages			Educational Level			Marital Status		
Ages	n	%	Level	n	%	Status	n	%
30-35	9	6	Up to 8th	2	1	Married	144	98
36-40	35	24	Some H.S.	6	4	Divorced	2	1
41-45	50	34	H.S. Grad.	38	26	Separated	1	1
46-50	33	23	Some College	41	28			
51-55	18	12						
55-60	2	1	College Grad.	38	26			
$\bar{X}$ = 43			Masters	17	12			
			Ph.D.	5	3			

Although the subjects ranged in age from 31 to 56 years, the majority could be grouped within the age range of 36-50 years. The mean age of the parents was 43 years (see Table 1). The percentage of subjects having some form of educational experience past high school graduation was 69%, while 15% of the subjects had educational experience past an undergraduate college degree. An examination of the marital status and educational level of the parent, Table 1, indicates that the majority, 98%, of the subjects were married and over half, 54%, had attended college.

The frequency distributions displayed in Table 2 provided an overview of the size of the subjects' families and the number of their children who were participating in some form of athletics.

Table 2

Descriptive Data for Children in Families

Number in Family Participating in Athletics			Number in the Family		
Number	n	%	Number	n	%
Zero	37	26	One	3	2
One	43	29	Two	55	37
Two	44	30	Three	41	28
Three	18	12	Four	28	19
Four	5	3	Five	7	5
Five or more	0	0	Six	1	1
			Seven	10	7
			Eight	2	1
$\bar{X}$ = 1.6			$\bar{X}$ = 3		

The family with two children most frequently represented the subjects in the study. The majority of the subjects, 84%, had either two, three, or four children (see Table 2). An examination of the subjects' families, with regard to the number of children in the family who participated in athletics,

Table 2, revealed that families with either one or two children participating represented 59% of the families. Table 2 shows that although the average number of children in a family was three, the average number participating was 1.6. Twenty-six percent of the families had no children participating.

Analysis of Parental Attitudes Toward Interscholastic Athletics

The parents in the study completed a Likert-type attitude scale, developed especially for the study, that dealt with the perceived values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics. According to the scoring system established for the scale, the higher the numerical score the more favorable attitude toward the values supported by interscholastic athletics. The lowest possible score a subject could have made was 45; while the highest score attainable was 225. The parents' scores in the study ranged from a low of 119 to a high of 207 (see Appendix F for Tables 16 and 17).

The parents were grouped and compared according to several variables. The groupings and comparisons were completed according to: (a) the athletic status of the junior high school child, (b) the sex of the child, (c) the sex of the parent, (d) the athletic background of the parent, (e) the number of children in the family, and (f) the percentage of children in the family participating in athletics. The collected data were analyzed by a 2 x 2 x 2 factorial

analysis of variance, two one-way analyses of variance, and several *t* tests. Each question posed in the statement of the problem was answered in the order of presentation.

Parents' Scores Based on Athletic Status of the Child

The first question presented in the study asked if the parents of athletes had more favorable attitudes toward the values derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of nonathletes. Table 3 contains the mean attitude scores of the parents of athletes and the parents of nonathletes.

Table 3

Mean Attitude Score of Parents Grouped by Athletic Status and Sex of the Child

Parents							
Group	*n*	$\bar{X}$	%	Group	*n*	$\bar{X}$	%
Athletes	95	164.73	65	Nonathletes	52	157.75	35
Male Children	105	161.87	71	Female Children	42	163.23	29
Male Athletes	66	163.78	45	Male Nonathletes	39	158.64	27
Female Athletes	29	166.89	20	Female Nonathletes	13	155.07	8

The parents of athletes, with a mean score of 164.73, composed 65% of the population of the study while the parents of nonathletes, mean score 157.75, accounted for 35% (see Table 3). An analysis of the main effect of athletic status of the child in the 2 x 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance, presented in Table 4, resulted in an F value of 4.44 with a significance level of < .05.

Table 4

ANOVA of Parents' Attitude Scores Grouped by Athletic Status, Sex of the Child, and the Sex of the Parent

Source	df	Type IV SS	F value	p
Athlete	1	1581.88	4.44	.03
Parent's Sex	1	147.83	.41	.52
Sex of Child	1	.92	.00	.95
Athlete/Parent	1	923.41	2.59	.10
Athlete/Sex	1	278.99	.78	.37
Parent/Sex	1	1217.39	3.42	.06
Athlete/Sex/Parent	1	418.96	1.18	.28

Therefore, there was a significant difference between the two groups of parents. The mean scores of each group (see Table 3) show that the parents of athletes had more favorable attitudes toward the values derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of nonathletes.

Parents' Scores Based on Sex of the Parent and Athletic Status of the Child

The determination of differences in attitudes existing between the male parents and female parents of athletes was the focus of the second question. The mean scores of the male and female parents are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Mean Attitude Score of Male and Female Parents Grouped by Athletic Status of the Child

Male Parents				Female Parents			
Group	n	$\bar{X}$	%	Group	n	$\bar{X}$	%
Athletes	48	162.64	33	Athletes	47	166.87	32
Non-athletes	30	159.23	20	Non-athletes	22	155.72	15
Totals	78	161.33	53	Totals	69	163.31	47

The female parents of athletes had a mean score of 166.87 (Table 5) and represented 32% of the subjects while the male parents of athletes represented 33% of the subjects and had a mean score of 162.64. Although there was a difference in the mean scores of the two groups, the factorial analysis indicated a lack of significance at the .05 confidence level (see Table 4). An examination of Table 4 indicated that the main effect, sex of the parent, had a F value of .41 with a

significance level of > .05. The F value of the interaction of the main effect of the parents' sex and the main effect of the athletic status of the child was 2.59 with a significance level > .05 (see Table 4). Based on the results of the analysis, the difference between the scores of the two groups was not considered significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, question two was answered. The male parents of athletes did not have more favorable attitudes than the female parents of athletes.

Parents' Scores Based on Sex of the Parent and Nonathletic Status of the Child

Question three asked if the male parents of nonathletes had more favorable attitudes than the female parents of nonathletes. As shown in Table 5, the male parents of nonathletes had a mean attitude score of 159.23 and represented 20% of the subjects, while the female parents of nonathletes had a mean score of 155.72 and represented 15% of the subjects. The ANOVA analysis of the scores indicated that the F value of the main effect, sex of the parents, was .41 with a significance level > .05. This indicated that the difference between the groups was nonsignificant at the .05 level of confidence. As shown in Table 4, the F value of the interaction of the main effect of the parents' sex and the main effect of the athletic status of the child was 2.59 with a significance level > .05. As a result the difference between the groups was considered nonsignificant at the .05 level of

confidence. Thus, question three could be answered. The male parents of nonathletes did not have more favorable attitudes than the female parents of nonathletes.

Parents' Scores Based on the Sex and Athletic Status of the Child

The parents of male athletes and the parents of female athletes were compared in order to answer question four, which asked if the parents of male athletes had more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by interscholastic athletics than the parents of female athletes. An examination of Table 3 indicated that the parents of male athletes represented 45% of the subjects and had a mean attitude score of 163.78. The parents of female athletes made up 20% of the subjects and had a mean score of 166.89. The analysis of the interaction of the main effects of sex of the child and the athletic status of the child (see Table 4) indicated that the F value of the interaction was .78 with a significance level of $> .05$. Although differences existed in the mean scores of the groups, those differences were not significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, the sex of the child who was an athlete could not be regarded as being related to a difference in the attitude scores. The probability of this difference occurring by chance would be .37 (see Table 4). Thus, parents of male athletes could not be considered to have more favorable attitudes than the parents of female athletes.

Parents' Scores Based on the Sex and Nonathletic Status of the Child

Question five asked if the parents of male athletes had more favorable attitudes toward the values derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of nonathletes. Referring to Table 3, it may be seen that the parents of male athletes constituted 45% of the study's population while the parents of nonathletes made up 35% of the subjects. A comparison of the mean scores of the two groups indicated that the parents of male athletes had a score of 163.78 and the parents of nonathletes had a score of 157.75. In order to determine if the difference between the means of the two groups was significant, an analysis of the interaction of the two main effects, athletic status of the child, and sex of the child, had to be conducted. Table 4 presented the results of the analysis which indicated that the F value of that interaction was 1.18 with a significance level > .05. Therefore, the difference was not significant at the .05 level of confidence. The answer to question five was that the parents of male athletes did not have more favorable attitudes than the parents of nonathletes.

Parents' Scores Based on the Sex of the Child

The third main effect of the study was analyzed to provide an answer for question six which asked if the parents of females had more favorable attitudes than the parents of males. An examination of Table 3 indicated that the subject

population was composed of 71% parents of males and 29% parents of females. The parents of males had a mean attitude score of 161.87 and the parents of females had a mean score of 163.23 (see Table 3). Although the parents of females had a slightly higher mean attitude score, the difference between the groups, as reported in Table 4, was not significant at the .05 level. The F value of the main effect, sex of the child, was .00 with a significance level > .05. Therefore, the difference that occurred between the groups was considered nonsignificant at the .05 level of confidence. Consequently, question six was answered. The parents of females did not have significantly more favorable attitudes than the parents of males.

Parents' Scores Based on the Athletic Status of the Female Child

The focus of question seven was the determination of whether or not the parents of female athletes had more favorable attitudes than the parents of female nonathletes. Table 3 provided a comparison of the mean attitude scores of the two groups of parents. The parents of female athletes had a mean score of 166.89 while the parents of female nonathletes had a mean score of 155.07. The parents of female athletes was a slightly larger group, 20% of the subjects, than the parents of female nonathletes group, 8% of the subjects. An analysis of the interaction of the main effects, sex of the child and athletic status, in Table 4 shows a F value of .78

with a significance level > .05. Thus, the differences between the two groups was not significant at the .05 level. The parents of female athletes did not have more favorable attitudes than the parents of female nonathletes.

Parents' Scores Based on Parents' Athletic Participation

The eighth question posed in the study asked if the parents who had participated in interscholastic athletics had more favorable attitudes than the parents who had not participated. The parents were grouped according to their participation or nonparticipation at various educational levels and compared using *t* tests. The purpose of the analysis of the parents' scores was to compare the athletic participants with nonparticipants at various levels, not to compare the various levels against one another. The composition of the participant and nonparticipant groups changed at each level. A subject may have been in the participant group at one level and the nonparticipant group at another level. Therefore, each of the *t* tests should be regarded as a separate analysis. The means, standard deviations, and *t* values are presented in Table 6.

An examination of Table 6 shows that the parents were compared according to the categories of "any level", "present time", and levels of education. The "at any level" category showed that 67% of the parents had participated at some level of athletics. The mean attitude score for this group was

Table 6

Results of t Tests of Parents' Attitude Scores Based on Parent Athletic Participation

Level of Participation	Groups	n	%	$\bar{X}$	SD	t value	df	2 tail prob
Junior High School	Ath.	57	39	166.24	16.48	2.03	145	.04
	Nonath.	90	61	159.74	20.33			
Senior High School	Ath.	68	46	166.51	16.47	2.54	145	.01
	Nonath.	79	54	158.60	20.56			
College	Ath.	20	20	165.85	17.36	2.03	99	.04
	Nonath.	81	80	159.62	20.01			
Present	Ath.	71	49	166.00	16.22	2.32	145	.02
	Nonath.	76	51	158.77	21.01			
At Any Level	Ath.	98	67	164.80	17.46	2.31	145	.02
	Nonath.	49	33	157.18	21.39			

164.80, whereas for the 33% who had not participated, the score was 157.18. The standard deviation of the scores for the participants' group was 17.46 while the nonparticipants' group scores had a standard deviation of 21.39. Although the standard deviation for both the participant and nonparticipant group appeared large, the deviation of the participant group suggests that it was more homogeneous in attitudes than the nonparticipant group was. The t-test analysis showed the mean difference to be significant at the .02 level of confidence. As a result, question eight can be answered. Parents who had participated in interscholastic athletics held more favorable attitudes than those parents who had not participated.

The t-test analysis, Table 6, conducted to answer question eight also provided comparisons of parents when grouped by participation at the junior high school, senior high school, and college level. The greatest amount of parental athletic participation occurred at the senior high school level where 46% of the parents participated. The mean score of the high school participants was 166.51 while the nonparticipants' score was 158.60. The difference between the mean scores of the two groups was found to be significant at the .01 level of confidence. Although the percentage of participation at the junior high school, 39%, and college levels, 20%, was less than at the high school level, 68%, differences in the attitude scores of the parents who participated and those who did not, was significant at the .05 level of confidence at both the

junior high and college levels. The mean score of the high school participants was 166.51, while the nonparticipants had a score of 158.60. The college athletic participants had a mean score of 165.85, whereas the college nonparticipants' score was 159.62.

A further examination of Table 6 indicated in the category of "Present" that 49% of the parents participated in some form of athletic activity at the time the study was conducted. These parents had more favorable attitudes than the 51% who were not participating in some athletic endeavor at the time of the study. A comparison of the mean scores of the two groups indicated that the athletic participants' score was 166.00 and the nonparticipants' score was 158.77. The t-test comparison proved that the difference in their scores was significant at the .02 level of confidence.

Parents' Scores Based on Percentage of Children Participating in Athletics

A one-way analysis of variance was applied to the parents' attitude scores that were grouped according to the percentage of children in the family who participated in athletics. The parents were placed in one of six groups (see Table 7). Group I represented 0% of children participating; Group II, 1-25%; Group III, 26-50%; Group IV, 51-75%; Group V, 76-99%; and Group VI, 99-100%. The means and standard deviations of the groups are summarized in Table 7.

Table 7

Mean Attitude Score of Parents Grouped by Percentage of Children Participating in Athletics

Group	n	%	$\bar{X}$	SD
I: 0%	37	25	154.94	23.53
II: 1-25%	10	7	157.80	20.66
III: 26-50%	48	33	162.43	18.45
IV: 51-75%	29	20	165.37	12.51
V: 76-99%	0	0	0	0
VI: 100%	23	16	171.69	14.71

The descriptive statistical information that was needed to answer question nine, which asked if the attitudes of parents of families with a high percentage of children participating in athletics were more favorable than the attitudes of parents of families with a low percentage of children, may be seen in Table 7. By an observation of the range of mean scores of the groups, it appeared that as the percentage of children participating increased, the amount of the attitude score increased. Group I, which represented families without an athletic participant, had the lowest mean score, 154.94. Group VI, which represented families with 99-100% of the children participating, had the highest, 171.69. Table 7 also showed a corresponding decrease in the standard deviation

of the groups as the percentages and mean scores increased. The standard deviation of the scores of Group I were 23.53, while the standard deviation of Group VI's scores was 14.71. Therefore, the scores of Group VI appeared to be more homogeneous than the scores of Group I. The one-way analysis of variance, as shown in Table 8, confirmed that a statistically significant difference did exist between the groups.

Table 8

ANOVA of Parents' Scores Based on Percentage of Children Participating in Athletics

Source	df	SS	MS	F ratio	F prob.
Between Groups	4	4509.57	1127.39	3.27	.01
Within Groups	142	48942.86	344.66		
Total	146	53452.44			

The one-way analysis of variance of the parents' scores when grouped according to the percentage of children in the family participating in athletics produced an F value of 3.27 with a significance level < .05.

Although the one-way analysis of variance verified that differences existed among the groups, a Duncan Multiple Range Test was applied to the means of the six groups to determine where the differences in the groups could be found. The results of the Duncan Test are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Duncan Multiple Range Test Results of Parents' Scores Based on Percentage of Children Participating in Athletics

Group	Mean	Group I 154.95	Group II 157.80	Group III 162.44	Group IV 165.38	Group VI 171.69
I	154.95	———	2.85 (13.38)	7.49 (8.23)	10.43* (10.27)	16.74* (10.91)
II	157.80		———	4.64 (12.85)	7.58 (13.88)	13.89 (15.13)
III	162.44			———	2.94 (8.75)	9.25 (9.54)
IV	165.38				———	6.31 (10.28)

*$p < .05$

Note. Group V could not be included in the Duncan Test since none of the subjects could be categorized in Group V.

The Test is based on the comparison of the difference between two means to an established critical difference. The critical difference indicates the smallest value that can exist between the two means for the groups to be considered significantly different. The numbers that are enclosed by parentheses in Table 9 are the critical differences for each of the group comparisons. If the numerical difference between two groups exceeded the critical difference value, the groups were considered to be significantly different

from one another. An examination of Table 9 shows that significant differences at the .05 level of confidence could be found between Group I, with a mean score of 154.95, and Groups IV and VI, with mean scores of 165.38 and 171.69 respectively. Further examination of Table 9 showed that Group I, with a mean of 154.95, was very similar to Groups II and III, which had mean scores of 157.80 and 162.44 respectively. The Duncan Test provided verification that the parents of families with more than 50% of the children in the family participating in athletics had more favorable attitudes than the parents of families with less than 26% of the children in the family participating in athletics.

Parents' Scores Based on the Number of Children Participating in Athletics

Comparisons of the parents' attitude scores, based on the number of children in the family that participated in athletics were made also. The groups were: Group I, those parents with more than one child and more than one child participating; Group II, those parents with more than one child but with only one child participating; Group III, those parents with one child and with one child participating; Group IV, those parents without any children participating in athletics. A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to determine if differences existed among the groups. A summary of the means resulting from the analysis is presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Mean Attitude Score of Parents Based on Number of Children Participating in Athletics

Group Number	n	%	$\bar{X}$	SD
I	67	46	166.80	13.25
II	41	28	159.56	19.47
III	2	1	201.00	8.48
IV	37	25	154.94	23.53

An examination of Table 10 provided information related to question ten, which asked if there were differences in the attitudes of parents based on the number of children in the family who participated in athletics. The mean scores of the groups, displayed in Table 10, indicated that Group III, which represented the parents of an only child who was an athlete, had the highest mean score, 201.00, but also had the lowest percentage of subjects, 1%. The magnitude of the group mean score of Group III might be expected due to the low number of subjects in that category. Group I had the next highest mean score, 166.80, and the highest percentage of subjects. By comparing the standard deviations of Group I, 13.25, with Group II, 19.47, and Group IV, 23.53, it appeared that the scores of Group I were less variable than the scores of Group II and Group IV. The results of the analysis of

variance, presented in Table 11, revealed that a significant difference did exist among the groups.

Table 11

ANOVA of Parents' Scores Based on Number of Children Participating in Athletics

Source	df	SS	MS	F ratio	F prob.
Between Groups	3	6664.15	2221.38	6.78	.003
Within Groups	143	46788.28	327.19		
Total	146	53452.43			

The one-way analysis of variance of the parents' scores when grouped according to the number of children in the family participating in athletics produced an F value of 6.78 (see Table 11). Based on the F value, it was determined that the differences that were found between the mean scores of the groups were significant at the .01 level of confidence.

In order to determine which groups were responsible for the difference, a Duncan Multiple Range Test was applied to the mean scores of the groups. The results of the Duncan Test are presented in Table 12.

The Duncan Test results displayed in Table 12, indicated that Group III, which represented families with an only child who participated in athletics, was significantly different from the other three groups. As shown in Table 10, the mean

score of Group III, 201.00, was considerably higher than the other three mean scores. Therefore, although the critical difference was higher for Group III than for the other groups, the numerical difference was also larger.

Table 12

Duncan Multiple Range Test Results of Parents' Scores Based on Number of Children Participating in Athletics

Group	Mean	Group IV 154.95	Group II 159.56	Group I 166.81	Group III 201.00
IV	154.95	———	4.61 (9.27)	11.86* (8.93)	46.05* (28.28)
II	159.56		———	7.25* (7.01)	41.44* (28.38)
I	166.81			———	34.19* (25.54)

*$p < .05$

Group I, which represented families with more than one child participating from a multichild family, was significantly different from Groups II and IV. Group I had a mean score of 166.81, whereas Group II had a mean score of 159.56 and Group IV had a mean score of 154.95. Based on the results of the ANOVA and the Duncan Test, question ten was answered. Parents of families with more than one child participating

or with an only child participating had more favorable attitudes than the parents of families without children participating, or parents of families with only one of many children participating.

Discussion

The results of the 2 x 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance of the parents' scores added both support and opposition to the conclusions of previously reported studies. Although the results of this study supported Stalnaker's (1933) conclusion that there was a difference in the attitudes of parents of athletes and parents of nonathletes, it refuted Dowell's (1973) and Lohberg's (1974) conclusions that differences in attitudes did not exist between the two groups. The results of the present study concurred with one of the findings of the McGee (1956) investigation; namely, that the parents of female athletes had slightly more favorable attitudes than the parents of nonathletes. It appears that, although 22 years have passed since the McGee study, the attitude trend may not have changed.

Consistently throughout the results of the 2 x 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance, the parents of the female athlete and particularly the mothers of the female athlete had the highest mean attitude score. Several studies (Greendorfer & Lewko, 1978; Kingsley, Brown, & Seibert, 1977) have proposed that the father is a key factor in the sport socialization process of the child. Although the role of

the father may be considered important, it appears that as the role of the female in American society continues to change, the mother of the female may become as important as the father, if not more important. The change in attitudes toward female athletic participation may be reflected in the high regard shown by the mothers of female athletes for the values supported by interscholastic athletics.

When the parents were compared according to their sex, their child's sex, and the child's athletic status, the group with the highest mean score was the mothers of female athletes. The implementation of Title IX guidelines and the increase in the media's presentation of new and old female sports role models may be considered important variables in the increase in athletic participation by females. It also may be possible that a change in the attitudes of the mothers of female athletes may have been an important variable that has been overlooked. A change in the traditional attitudes by parents toward the values derived from interscholastic athletics may be the reason for the lack of an overall significant difference in the results of the 2 x 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance.

Based on the results of completed studies it could be expected that the sex of the child and the sex of the parent would have an effect on the attitude scores. Greendorfer and Lewko (1978) have summarized that parents hold different perceptions regarding the importance of sport participation

for their sons and daughters. Parents tend to encourage males to participate in more active pursuits outside the home while females are reinforced for engaging in more sedentary activities closer to home. Further, Greendorfer and Lewko have concluded that the father is the most significant influence regarding sport participation for both boys and girls and that the role of the mother is not significant for either boys or girls. These findings are in contrast to the reported conclusions of Snyder and Spreitzer (1973) which indicated that there was a tendency for like-sex parents to have greater influence on sport involvement than the opposite-sex parents. The results of the present study are contradictory to the conclusions of both the Greendorfer and Lewko (1978) and the Snyder and Spreitzer (1973) studies. The results of the analysis of the present study indicated that only the athletic status of the child, not the sex of the child or the sex of the parent, had an effect on the attitude scores of the parents. The lack of significant differences in the parents' scores when they were compared based on the sex of the child and the sex of the parent may be attributed to a nonbiased view of athletic participation by the parents.

In the past, certain writers (Meggyesy, 1971; Scott, 1971; Shaw, 1972) have proposed that insight into interscholastic athletics results in a change of attitudes, from a positive to a negative viewpoint. The results of this study did

not concur with such a point of view. The parents in this study who had the opportunity to have insight into interscholastic athletics, either as a past participant or as a parent of an athlete, had the most favorable attitudes toward interscholastic athletics. The implication is that insight into interscholastic athletics may result in a favorable attitude toward the values derived from interscholastic athletics.

A favorable attitude by the parents may have had an effect on the child. Pudelkiewicz (1970) has written that a positive approach toward sport by parents is an important factor in the development of an interest in sport by children. Gras (1974) also has proposed that the parent can be a sports role model for a child. Given these two points, the results of the study could support the conclusion that children of parents who participated in athletics might have demonstrated a greater interest in athletics than the children of parents who did not participate in athletics. The children of past athletic participants could have been influenced not only by the positive, favorable attitude of the parent but also might have used the parent as a sports role model.

The comparison of the parents' attitude scores based upon the number and percentage of children participating in athletics also provided interesting results. In both comparisons, the scores of the parents appeared to increase as the number and percentage of children participating in athletics increased. An examination of the mean scores of the various

groups indicated that the group with the highest number or percentage of children participating in athletics had significantly higher attitude scores than the groups of parents with either a lower number or percentage of children participating in athletics. The high number or percentage of participating children may have been due to a preexisting favorable attitude by the parents that influenced the children to participate in athletics. Spreitzer and Snyder (1976) have written that parents who have an interest in sports tend to encourage their offspring to participate in sports. There may have been a reciprocal process present whereby the children's interest and involvement in athletics led to favorable attitudes by the parents. Watson (1974) indicated that a child's success in athletics provides a certain degree of esteem for the parents in the community setting. Therefore, it would seem logical to conclude that participation in athletics by an older child could lead to favorable attitudes by the parents and subsequent parental influence over a younger child's decision regarding athletic participation. The higher attitude scores might also have been attributed to a combination of these two factors. The parents may have had a favorable attitude that led to the child's participation which, in turn, led to an increase in the favorability of the parents' attitudes.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this investigation was to ascertain whether differences existed in the attitudes of the parents of athletes and the parents of nonathletes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics. The subjects, selected by random sampling for the study, were 147 parents of junior high school students in the Greensboro, North Carolina Public School System. The parents represented 105 boys and 42 girls. The sample was composed of 78 fathers and 69 mothers. The sampling of the parents was conducted with the permission and cooperation of the Greensboro City School Administration.

The subjects' attitudes were measured by a Likert-type attitude scale which was designed for use in the study. Demographic data, descriptive of the parents, were obtained from a questionnaire which accompanied the attitude scale. The process of data collection was by mail and telephone.

The parents' attitude scores were compared with regard to: (a) the athletic status of the child, (b) the sex of the parent, (c) the sex of the child, (d) the parents' athletic background, (e) the percentage of children in the

family participating in athletics, and (f) the number of children in the family participating in athletics. The comparisons resulted in the discovery of both significant and nonsignificant differences in the attitudes of the parents.

A 2 x 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance was used to analyze the three main effects: (a) athletic status of the child, (b) sex of the parent, (c) sex of the child, and the interaction of the main effects.

A portion of the questionnaire, which was supplied to the parents with the attitude scale, asked for information concerning the parents' involvement in athletics. Based upon the information from the questionnaire, the parents were grouped according to their athletic involvement and *t*-test comparisons were made. The parents were placed, also, in one of five categories that represented the percentage of children in their family that participated in athletics. The groups were compared using a one-way analysis of variance. Furthermore, the parents were categorized according to the number of children in the family that participated in athletics. A one-way analysis of variance was applied to these groups to determine if differences existed.

Results

The analysis of the collected data provided the following results which were used to answer the ten questions posed in Chapter I.

Question One: Do the parents of athletes have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of nonathletes?

The analysis of the parents' attitude scores, when comparisons were based on the athletic status of the child, showed that significant differences existed at the .05 level between the parents of athletes and the parents of nonathletes. The parents of athletes had more favorable attitudes than the parents of nonathletes.

Question Two: Do the male parents of athletes have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the female parents of athletes?

When the attitude scores of mothers and fathers of athletes were compared and analyzed it was found that, although there were differences in the mean scores of the two groups, those differences were not statistically significant at the .05 level. Contrary to popular thought in this area, the mothers of athletes had a higher mean attitude score than the fathers of athletes.

Question Three: Do the male parents of nonathletes have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the female parents of nonathletes?

Although the fathers of nonathletes had a slightly higher mean attitude score than the mothers of nonathletes,

the difference between the attitudes of the two groups of parents was not statistically significant at the .05 level.

Question Four: Do the parents of male athletes have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of female athletes?

The comparison of the attitude scores of the parents of male athletes and female athletes did not indicate a significant difference at the .05 level between the two groups of parents. The mean attitude scores of the groups showed that the parents of female athletes had slightly more favorable attitudes than the parents of male athletes.

Question Five: Do the parents of male athletes have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of nonathletes?

The parents of male athletes did have a more favorable mean attitude score than the parents of nonathletes, but the difference between the scores was not statistically significant at the .05 level.

Question Six: Do the parents of females have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of males?

When the subjects of the study were divided and compared according to the sex of their junior high school age child, the results showed that the parents of females had a slightly higher mean attitude score but again, the difference was

not great enough to be statistically significant at the .05 level when compared to the attitudes of the parents of males.

Question Seven: Do the parents of female athletes have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of female nonathletes?

A statistically significant difference at the .05 level was not found when the parents were compared based on the sex and athletic status of their children.

Question Eight: Do the parents who have participated in interscholastic athletics have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents who have not participated?

The comparison of the attitudes of parents who had participated in athletics and the parents who had not participated resulted in the determination of significant difference at the .05 level between the groups of parents.

Question Nine: Do the parents of families with a higher percentage of children participating in interscholastic athletics have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of families with a lower percentage of children participating?

The analysis of the attitudes of parents according to the percentage of children participating in athletics indicated that significant differences at the .05 level existed between the groups of parents.

Question Ten: Do the parents of families where more than one child is or has participated in interscholastic athletics have more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of families with only one child participating or parents of families that do not have children participating?

The analysis of the parents when grouped according to the number of children in the family participating in athletics, indicated significant differences existed at the .01 level between the groups.

Conclusions

Within the limits of the analysis applied in the study the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Parents of children who participate in interscholastic athletics hold more favorable attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics than the parents of nonparticipants.

2. Neither the sex of the parent nor the sex of the child interacted with the attitudes of parents toward the values supported by interscholastic athletics.

3. The higher the number and percentage of children of a family participating in athletics, the more favorable the attitudes of parents.

4. Participation in interscholastic athletics is associated with favorable attitudes toward the values derived from interscholastic athletics.

Recommendations

The establishment of the fact that parents of athletes have more favorable attitudes than the parents of nonathletes answered a question of the study but also created new questions. Did the parents have favorable attitudes prior to their child's participation in athletics or did the parents' attitudes become more favorable after their child's involvement in athletics? The present study determined that there were differences in the attitudes of the two groups of parents, but it did not determine how the difference in attitudes fits into the causal chain of youth's involvement in athletics. The present study took a major first step toward inquiry into that sequence of events. That step was the establishment of the existing difference. It will be the task of future studies to use this information to determine which comes first, favorable parental attitudes or athletic participation by children.

The subjects of this study were parents of junior high school age children. Consideration should be given to the replication of this study, not only with parents of high school and college age students, but particularly with the parents of youth sport age children. Limiting the study to only parents of youth sport age children would be of value. It would be interesting to determine if the parents of children, below the age of 13, have similar or different attitudes than the parents of junior high, senior high, or

college age children. As a longitudinal study, the comparison of the youth sport children's parents' attitudes prior to junior high school, during junior high school, and at the end of junior high school, might prove to be enlightening. Further, it would be interesting to determine if the children of parents who had high attitude scores prior to junior high school, participated in athletics with greater frequency in junior high school than the children of parents with lower attitude scores prior to the students' enrollment in junior high school.

Another area for investigation could be the attitudes of the mother and father of the same family. In the present study, each parent was treated as an individual subject. A comparison of the attitude scores of the husband and wife, including an analysis of the difference between the scores, might provide insight into the total influence of parents upon the child. Comparisons could also be made of sets of paired parents to determine if a relationship exists between the compatibility of the two parents' scores and their child's involvement in athletics. The application of statistical treatments, such as discriminate analysis and multivariate analysis of variance, would help to define the location of the differences between the various groups.

The attitude of the child toward interscholastic athletics has received attention in previous studies. An area that had not been investigated is the relationship, if

any, that exists between the attitude score of the parents and the child. If the parents do have an influence upon the child, then it would seem reasonable to assume that the scores of the parents and the child would be similar. It would also be interesting to compare the scores of the parents and the child with regard to the sex of the child and the sex of the parent. Snyder and Spreitzer (1973) have written that the child may be more influenced by the like-sexed parent. The investigation to determine if a child has an attitude more similar to the same-sexed parent or to the opposite-sexed parent could add to the information regarding the influence of the sex of the parent on the sport socialization process of the child.

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APPENDIX A

Construction of the Attitude Scale

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE PANEL OF JUDGES

The following statements are items for an attitude scale that will attempt to measure parents' attitudes toward the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics. The scale will be developed using the Likert technique of attitude scale construction. Please read each statement and indicate in the appropriate space whether you feel the statement is a positive or negative statement regarding the values supported by and derived from interscholastic athletics. If you feel the statement is inappropriate for the intended scale, please draw a line through it. It would be greatly appreciated if you would make notation of any spelling, grammatical or contextual revisions that are needed. When you have finished your evaluation of the statements, either drop them in my mailbox or give me a call and I will pick them up. Sincere thanks for your time and effort.

ATTITUDE STATEMENTS* PROVIDED TO PANEL OF JUDGES

Pos.	Neg.	
____	____	*1. Involvement in sports is beneficial because physical fitness is developed.
____	____	2. As a member of an athletic team, a person learns to sacrifice individual goals for the overall good of the team.
____	____	3. Being a member of an athletic team is one of the best ways to learn to work with others for a common goal.
____	____	*4. Sport participation enables a person to learn to display aggression in an acceptable manner.
____	____	*5. Athletes usually make higher grades while participating on an athletic team than when they are not participating on an athletic team.
____	____	*6. Experience in sports can be an asset in gaining esteem in society.
____	____	7. The values that are gained through interscholastic sports outweigh the financial costs.
____	____	8. Participation in interscholastic athletics allows minority groups to advance up the social ladder.

*Statement deleted due to judges' evaluation.

Pos. Neg.

____ ____ *9. Participation in interscholastic athletics develops leadership.

____ ____ *10. Participation in interscholastic athletics develops mental alertness.

____ ____ 11. Interscholastic athletic participation promotes a well-balanced outlook on life's values.

____ ____ *12. Interscholastic athletics are an integral part of the educational system.

____ ____ *13. Interscholastic athletics provides an opportunity to learn to follow rules.

____ ____ 14. A child from a low-income family has the same opportunity to make an athletic team as a child from a high-income family.

____ ____ 15. The involvement of parents in events associated with athletics strengthens the relationship between the parent and the child.

____ ____ *16. Through athletic participation a person is able to realize the capabilities and limitations of the human body.

____ ____ 17. A person with a high need for achievement can find a way to satisfy that need through participation in an athletic program.

____ ____ 18. Society needs opportunities for athletic participation because athletic participation teaches many of the rules of society.

Pos. Neg.

___ ___ 19. Interscholastic athletics is an important part of a community because it brings many facets of the community together in support of a common goal.

___ ___ 20. Interscholastic athletics has enabled many misdirected youths to redirect their energies into more worthwhile activities.

___ ___ 21. Interscholastic athletics requires time that could be better spent on academics.

___ ___ 22. The injuries that occur in interscholastic athletics often physically disable a child for a lifetime.

___ ___ 23. The emotional scars suffered through interscholastic athletics are of a higher incidence than the physical scars.

___ ___ 24. For every athletic success story there are ten stories of disappointment.

___ ___ 25. Athletic participation develops inflated perceptions of the value of physical attributes.

___ ___ 26. Athletic participation makes the athlete put more value on being muscular than on being a "brain."

___ ___ 27. Agressive instincts and behavior are encouraged by interscholastic athletics.

___ ___ 28. Society places too much importance on participation in interscholastic athletics.

Pos. Neg.

____ ____ 29. If the money that was spent by athletics were redirected to other programs, the educational system would be much stronger.

____ ____ 30. The leadership in interscholastic athletics is self-serving and more concerned with personal records than with the true development of each athlete.

____ ____ 31. Racial prejudice continues to exist in interscholastic athletics.

____ ____ 32. A young person's character is often corrupted through interscholastic athletic experiences.

____ ____ 33. The values of athletics are actually propaganda which is used to justify athletics in the educational system.

____ ____ 34. Increased intramural programs could better serve the student body than an interscholastic athletic program.

____ ____ 35. Interscholastic athletics promotes spectatorship rather than active participation.

____ ____ 36. Many parent-child relationships are ruined because the parent demanded too much of the child as an athlete.

____ ____ 37. Interscholastic athletics allows parents to live out their dreams through their child.

____ ____ 38. An athlete from an upper-class family gets more attention from the coaches than an athlete from a lower-class family.

Pos. Neg.

____ ____ 39. In recent years sportsmanship has taken a back seat to "win at all costs" efforts in interscholastic athletics.

____ ____ 40. The world of interscholastic athletics does not provide a valid representation of the values of the real world.

____ ____ 41. Interscholastic athletic competition causes separation within communities.

____ ____ *42. A prospective athlete from an upper class family is chosen for the team because of the financial support that the family can give to the coach or the athletic program.

____ ____ 43. Interscholastic athletics does very little to enhance the feminine image for girls.

____ ____ 44. Women should be satisfied in the role of cheerleader in interscholastic athletics.

____ ____ 45. Interscholastic athletics teaches the child how to get around the rules instead of obeying them.

____ ____ 46. The competition for a starting position on a team causes friends to become jealous of each other.

____ ____ *47. Being popular and being an athlete in school go together.

Pos. Neg.

____ ____ *48. Teachers give additional help to athletes because the athlete has an extra-heavy load to carry during the season.

____ ____ *49. The reason athletes always have better grades during the season is because if they don't have good grades they are not allowed to stay on the team.

____ ____ 50. Interscholastic athletics has allowed discipline to erode.

____ ____ 51. A coach can not teach discipline and fundamentals at the same time.

____ ____ 52. By participating on an athletic team a child may get to travel to places that otherwise he/she would not have the opportunity to visit.

____ ____ 53. Being tested in game situations develops character in an athlete.

____ ____ 54. Having to perform in a game before a crowd teaches the athlete how to control emotions.

____ ____ 55. Participation in athletics by females helps to build their image of themselves.

____ ____ 56. Through athletics a girl can learn that she is just as capable in physical activities as boys.

____ ____ 57. Being in front of a crowd during a game develops confidence in the athlete.

Pos. Neg.

___ ___ 58. Having been an athlete is one of the best characteristics that a person can have on a personal resumé.

___ ___ 59. Interscholastic athletics provides a recreational activity not only for the athletes but also for other members of the student body.

___ ___ 60. Athletic programs are important because they create community interest in the school.

___ ___ 61. One of the highest contributions interscholastic athletics makes is the tearing down of racial barriers and the development of interracial friendships.

___ ___ *62. In interscholastic athletics the only "color" that is important is the school color.

___ ___ 63. One of the values of interscholastic athletics is the fact that through competition the child is forced to make quick decisions.

___ ___ 64. Membership on an athletic team teaches a child the quality of loyalty.

___ ___ 65. Friendships that are developed through athletics often last for a lifetime.

___ ___ 66. Having to accept decisions made by game officials teaches the child respect for authority.

___ ___ 67. Many children possess leadership qualities. Interscholastic athletics provides a place where those qualities are brought out and developed.

Pos. Neg.

___ ___ 68. Interscholastic athletics provides an opportunity for a child to experience the feeling of accomplishment that comes from working hard to achieve a goal.

___ ___ 69. Through the interaction that results from being a member of a team, a child has the opportunity to learn about segments of society other than his/her own.

___ ___ 70. Participation in interscholastic athletics teaches a child that sometimes the outcome of a game is not dependent upon the amount of effort that was put into it.

___ ___ 71. A child can learn how to accept victory and defeat by participating in interscholastic athletics.

___ ___ *72. Junior high and high school children have a higher regard for a male peer if he is an athlete rather than a brilliant student.

___ ___ 73. If a girl participates in interscholastic athletics she lessens her chances of being attractive to boys.

___ ___ *74. Many of the skills and activities learned through interscholastic athletics can be continued throughout life and help to keep the person in good health.

Pos. Neg.

___ ___ 75. Through athletics a person faces situations that demand that the person use some of the inner fortitude that is normally not used in everyday life.

___ ___ 76. Participation in interscholastic athletics enables a person to acquire an appreciation for skilled graceful human movement in everyday life, in art, and in sports.

___ ___ 77. A person can gain an understanding of the abilities and contributions of others for a group effort through interscholastic athletics.

___ ___ 78. Success in athletics may cause a person to raise his/her level of aspiration.

___ ___ 79. A healthy relief of tension is provided through participation in interscholastic athletics.

___ ___ 80. Situations that are encountered in games provide a person with the opportunity to be creative.

Table 13

Judges' Evaluations of Statements*

#	pos.	neg.	delete	#	pos.	neg.	delete
* 1	2	2	1	22		5	
2	5			23		5	
3	2	1	2	24		5	
* 4	2	1	2	25		5	
* 5	2	2	1	26		4	1
* 6	2	2	1	27		4	1
7	5			28	1	5	
8	5			29		4	1
* 9	2	2	1	30		5	
*10	1	1	3	31		5	
11	4	1		32		5	
*12	2	2	1	33		5	
*13	2	2	1	34		5	
14	4	1		35		4	1
15	5			36		5	
*16	1	2	2	37		5	
17	4		1	38		4	1
18	5			39		5	
19	3	1	1	40		3	2
20	5			41		5	
21		5		*42		2	3

Table 13 (Continued)

#	pos.	neg.	delete	#	pos.	neg.	delete
43		5		*62	2	1	2
44		5		63	5		
45		5		64	5		
46		5		65	5		
*47	2	2	1	66	5		
*48	1	1	3	67	5		
*49	1	2	2	68	5		
50		5		69	5		
51		5		70	5		
52	5			71	5		
53	5			*72	2	1	3
54	2	2	1	73		5	
55	5			*74	2	1	2
56	5			75	3		2
57	5			76	3	1	1
58	5			77	5		
59	5			78	5		
60	5			79	5		
61	5			80	5		

*Statement deleted due to judges' evaluations

ORIGINAL DRAFT OF ATTITUDE SCALE*

THE VALUES OF INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS

This is an attitude scale concerning the values of interscholastic athletics. Please read each statement and then indicate to the left of each statement whether you strongly agree, (SA); agree, (A); are undecided, (UD); disagree, (D); or strongly disagree, (SD). There are no correct or incorrect responses; all that is being examined is your feelings about the values of interscholastic athletics.

SA	A	UD	D	SD	
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	1. Success in interscholastic athletics causes athletes to raise their level of aspiration in other areas.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	*2. If a girl participates in interscholastic athletics she lessens her chances of being attractive to boys.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	3. A healthy relief of tension is provided through participation in interscholastic athletics.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	4. The athlete encounters situations in interscholastic athletics that allow the athlete to be creative.

*Statement deleted from scale based on the results of the test of validity.

SA	A	UD	D	SD	
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	*5. A coach can not teach discipline and skill fundamentals at the same time.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	6. Athletic competition between schools within the same community causes dissension instead of a uniting of the community.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	7. The competition for a starting position on a team causes friends to become jealous of each other.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	8. Through interscholastic athletics an athlete gains an understanding of the abilities and contributions of others for a group effort.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	9. Participation in interscholastic athletics enables an athlete to acquire an appreciation of skilled graceful human movement in everyday life, in art, and in sports.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	10. Interscholastic athletics teaches the athlete how to get around the rules instead of how to obey them.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	11. In interscholastic athletic competition an athlete faces situations that demand the use of inner fortitude.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	*12. Women should be satisfied with the role of cheerleader in interscholastic athletics.

SA A UD D SD

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 13. An athlete learns to treat victory and defeat as the same by participating in interscholastic athletics.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *14. Interscholastic athletics have allowed discipline to erode.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *15. The world of interscholastic athletics does not provide a valid representation of the real world.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *16. Participation in interscholastic athletics teaches an athlete that the outcome of a contest does not depend upon the amount of effort expended.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 17. Through the interaction of being on an interscholastic team, an athlete learns about segments of society other than his/her own.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 18. Interscholastic athletics does very little to enhance the feminine image of girls.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 19. Interscholastic athletics provides an opportunity for an athlete to experience the feeling of accomplishment that comes from working hard to achieve a goal.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 20. In recent years sportsmanship has taken a back seat to win-at-all costs efforts in interscholastic athletics.

SA A UD D SD

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *21. An athlete from an upper-class family gets more attention from the coaches than an athlete from a lower-class family.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 22. Interscholastic athletics provides an opportunity for the leadership qualities of an athlete to be displayed.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 23. Interscholastic athletics allows parents to live out their dreams through their child.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 24. Having to accept decisions made by game officials teaches the athlete respect for authority.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 25. Interscholastic athletics promotes spectatorship rather than active participation.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 26. Membership on an interscholastic athletic team enables a boy or girl to learn the real meaning of loyalty.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 27. Interscholastic athletic coaches put the health of the athlete above all else.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 28. Participation in interscholastic athletics tears down racial barriers by developing interracial friendships.

SA A UD D SD

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 29. Increased intramural programs could better serve the student body than an interscholastic program.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 30. Demanding too much of a child as an athlete can ruin a parent-child relationship.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 31. The values of athletics are actually propaganda that is used to justify interscholastic athletics in the educational system.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *32. Interscholastic athletic programs are important because they create community interest in the school.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 33. Interscholastic athletics provides a recreational activity not only for the athlete but also for other members of the student body.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 34. A young athlete's character is corrupted through interscholastic athletic experiences.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 35. Having been an athlete is one of the best characteristics that a person can have on a personal resumé.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 36. Racial prejudice exists in interscholastic athletics.

SA A UD D SD

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 37. The leadership in interscholastic athletics is self-serving and more concerned with personal records than with the development of the athlete.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 38. Girls who participate in interscholastic athletics are not as feminine as girls who do not participate in interscholastic athletics.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 39. Performing in front of a crowd during a game develops confidence in the athlete.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *40. Through interscholastic athletics girls can learn that they are just as capable as boys are in physical activities.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 41. If the money that was spent by interscholastic athletics were redirected to other programs, the educational system would be stronger.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 42. Society places too much importance on participation in interscholastic athletics.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 43. Being tested in game situations develops character in an athlete.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *44. Aggressive instincts and behavior are encouraged by interscholastic athletics.

SA A UD D SD

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *45. By participating on an interscholastic team a boy or girl may get to travel to places that otherwise he/she would not have the opportunity to visit.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 46. Interscholastic athletic participation makes the athlete put more value on being muscular than on being a "brain."

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 47. Interscholastic athletic participation develops inflated perceptions of the value of physical attributes.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 48. Participation in interscholastic athletics by females helps to build their image of themselves.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *49. Interscholastic athletics offers a way for misdirected youths to redirect their energies into worthwhile activities.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 50. Society needs opportunities for interscholastic athletic programs because athletic participation teaches many of the rules of society.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *51. Interscholastic athletics requires time that could be better spent on academics.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *52. For every athletic success story there are ten stories of disappointment.

SA A UD D SD

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *53. A person with a high need for achievement can find a way to satisfy that need through participation in an interscholastic athletic program.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 54. The involvement of parents in athletic associated events strengthens the relationship between the parent and the child.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 55. The risk of injury resulting from participation in interscholastic athletics is greater than the value that is obtained from that participation.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *56. A person who fails to achieve success in interscholastic athletics has a very low concept of himself/herself.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *57. A boy or girl from a low income family has the same opportunity to make an athletic team as a boy or girl from a high income family.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 58. The emotional scars suffered through interscholastic athletics are of a higher incidence than the physical scars.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) *59. Participation in interscholastic athletics allows minority groups to advance up the social ladder.

SA	A	UD	D	SD	
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	60. Interscholastic athletic participation promotes a well-balanced outlook on life's views.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	61. The primary reason for participation in interscholastic athletics is to learn how to be a winner.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	*62. Boys who do not participate in interscholastic athletics are not as masculine as boys who do participate in interscholastic athletics.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	63. The values that are gained through interscholastic athletics outweigh the financial costs.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	64. As a member of an athletic team, a person learns to sacrifice individual goals for the overall good of the team.

APPENDIX B

Measures of Validity and Reliability of the Scale

Table 14

Discrimination Quotients for Attitude Statements

Statement	Quotient	Statement	Quotient	Statement	Quotient
1	1.3	23	1.6	*44	.3
* 2	---	24	1.6	*45	.3
3	1.3	25	3.0	46	2.0
4	2.0	26	2.6	47	2.0
* 5	---	27	1.3	48	1.3
6	1.6	28	1.3	*49	.3
7	1.0	29	2.0	50	2.3
8	1.0	30	1.3	*51	.3
9	2.6	31	1.0	*52	-.3
10	1.3	*32	.6	*53	---
11	1.3	33	1.0	54	1.0
*12	---	34	1.0	55	1.3
13	2.0	35	1.6	*56	.6
*14	.3	36	1.0	*57	---
*15	-1.0	37	2.6	58	1.3
*16	-.6	38	1.0	*59	-.3
17	2.0	39	1.0	60	2.3
18	1.3	*40	---	61	1.0
19	1.6	41	1.3	*62	.6
20	1.3	42	2.3	63	1.0
*21	.6	43	2.6	64	1.6
22	1.6				

*Statement deleted due to results of validity measurement

Table 15

Raw Scores of Test-Retest Group

Subjects	T1	T2
1	184	177
2	183	174
3	181	168
4	170	170
5	168	171
6	168	178
7	166	166
8	165	174
9	165	163
10	161	164
11	158	155
12	155	153
13	149	142
14	148	168
15	143	154
16	127	128
17	127	132
18	125	131
19	123	134
20	84	90

APPENDIX C

Final Attitude Scale and Questionnaire

FINAL DRAFT OF ATTITUDE SCALE

NAME_____

THE VALUES OF INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. The following attitude scale deals with the value of interscholastic athletics. The term, interscholastic athletics, refers to organized athletic competition between elementary, junior high, or high schools. Please read each statement and then, by placing a check mark in the appropriate bracket, indicate whether you strongly agree, (SA); agree, (A); are undecided, (UD); disagree, (D); or strongly disagree, (SD) with each statement. Please indicate a response for each statement. There are no correct or incorrect responses; all that is being examined are your feelings about the values of interscholastic athletics. When each parent has completed an attitude scale and a questionnaire, please mail them to Bob Maggard using the enclosed envelope.

SA	A	UD	D	SD	
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	1. Success in interscholastic athletics causes athletes to raise their level of aspiration in other areas.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	2. A healthy relief of tension is provided through participation in interscholastic athletics.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	3. The athlete encounters situations in interscholastic athletics that allow the athlete to be creative.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	4. The athletic competition between schools within the same community causes dissension instead of a uniting of the community.

SA	A	UD	D	SD	
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	5. The competition for a starting position on a team causes friends to become jealous of each other.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	6. Through interscholastic athletics an athlete gains an understanding of the abilities and contributions of others for a group effort.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	7. Participation in interscholastic athletics enables an athlete to acquire an appreciation of skilled graceful human movement in everyday life, in art, and in sports.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	8. Interscholastic athletics teaches the athlete how to get around the rules instead of how to obey them.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	9. In interscholastic athletic competition an athlete faces situations that demand the use of inner fortitude.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	10. An athlete learns to treat victory and defeat as the same by participating in interscholastic athletics.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	11. Through the interaction of being on an interscholastic team, an athlete learns about segments of society other than his/her own.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	12. Interscholastic athletics does very little to enhance the feminine image of girls.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	13. Interscholastic athletics provides an opportunity for an athlete to experience the feelings of accomplishment that come from working hard to achieve a goal.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	14. In recent years sportsmanship has taken a back seat to win-at-all costs efforts in interscholastic athletics.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	15. Interscholastic athletics provides an opportunity for the leadership qualities of an athlete to be displayed.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	16. Interscholastic athletics allows parents to live out their dreams through their child.

SA	A	UD	D	SD	
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	17. Having to accept decisions made by game officials teaches the athlete respect for authority.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	18. Interscholastic athletics promotes spectatorship rather than active participation.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	19. Membership on an interscholastic athletic team enables a boy or girl to learn the real meaning of loyalty.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	20. Interscholastic athletic coaches put the health of the athlete above all else.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	21. Participation in interscholastic athletics tears down racial barriers by developing interracial friendships.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	22. Increased intramural programs could better serve the student body than an interscholastic athletic program.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	23. Demanding too much of a child as an athlete can ruin a parent-child relationship.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	24. The values of athletics are actually propaganda that is used to justify interscholastic athletics in the educational system.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	25. Interscholastic athletics provides a recreational activity not only for the athlete but also for other members of the student body.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	26. A young athlete's character is corrupted through interscholastic athletic experiences.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	27. Having been an athlete is one of the best characteristics that a person can have on a personal resume.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	28. Racial prejudice exists in interscholastic athletics.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	29. The leadership in interscholastic athletics is self-serving and more concerned with personal records than with the development of the athlete.

SA A UD D SD

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 30. Girls who participate in interscholastic athletics are not as feminine as girls who do not participate in interscholastic athletics.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 31. Performing in front of a crowd during a game develops self-confidence in the athlete.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 32. If the money that was spent by interscholastic athletics were redirected to other programs, the educational system would be stronger.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 33. Society places too much importance on participation in interscholastic athletics.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 34. Being tested in game situations develops character in the athlete.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 35. Interscholastic athletic participation makes the athlete put more value on being muscular than on being intelligent.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 36. Interscholastic athletic participation develops inflated perceptions of the value of physical attributes.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 37. Participation in interscholastic athletics by females helps to build their image of themselves.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 38. Society needs opportunities for interscholastic athletic programs because athletic participation teaches many of the rules of society.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 39. Interscholastic athletics requires time that could be better spent on academics.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 40. The involvement of parents in athletic associated events strengthens the relationship between the parent and the child.

( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) 41. The risk of injury resulting from participation in interscholastic athletics is greater than the values that are obtained from that participation.

SA	A	UD	D	SD	
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	42. The emotional scars suffered through interscholastic athletics are of a higher incidence than the physical scars.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	43. Interscholastic athletic participation promotes a well-balanced outlook on life's views.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	44. The primary reason for participation in interscholastic athletics is to learn how to be a winner.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	45. The values that are gained through interscholastic athletics outweigh the financial costs.
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	46. As a member of an athletic team, a person learns to sacrifice individual goals for the overall good of the team.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PARENTS

Please complete the following questionnaire and return it with the attitude scale.

NAME_____AGE___SEX_____MARITAL STATUS_____

BRIEFLY DESCRIBE YOUR OCCUPATION _____

HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL LEVEL COMPLETED _____

NUMBER OF CHILDREN _____PLEASE LIST THEIR NAMES, AGES, AND SEX.

_____

_____

_____

_____

ARE YOUR CHILDREN INVOLVED IN EITHER AN INTERSCHOLASTIC (JUNIOR OR SENIOR HIGH), INTERCOLLEGIATE (COLLEGE), OR A RECREATION SPONSORED ATHLETIC PROGRAM? YES__NO__ IF YOU ANSWERED YES, WHAT IS THE NAME OF THE CHILD, THE SPORT, AND AT WHAT LEVEL?

CHILD'S NAME SPORT/SPORTS LEVEL

_____

_____

_____

_____

DID YOU PARTICIPATE IN INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL? YES__NO__

IF YES, WHICH SPORT/SPORTS?_____

DID YOU PARTICIPATE IN INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS IN HIGH SCHOOL? YES___NO___

IF YES, WHICH SPORT/SPORTS?_____

DID YOU PARTICIPATE IN INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS IN COLLEGE YES___NO___

IF YES, WHICH SPORT/SPORTS?_____

DO YOU REGULARLY PARTICIPATE IN SOME TYPE OF ATHLETIC ACTIVITY AT THE PRESENT TIME? IF YES, WHAT TYPE OF ACTIVITY/ACTIVITIES?

_____

WHAT PERCENT OF YOUR LEISURE TIME IS SPENT AS A SPORT SPECTATOR?_____

IS THIS TIME SPENT EITHER AS AN ACTIVE SPECTATOR AT SPORTING EVENTS OR AS A PASSIVE SPECTATOR THROUGH TELEVISION?
ACTIVE____PASSIVE____BOTH____

APPENDIX D

Requests for Permission to Conduct Study and for Subjects' Participation

LETTER TO THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

September 5, 1977

Mr. Fred Cundiff, Superintendent
Greensboro City Schools
712 North Eugene Street
Greensboro, North Carolina 27412

Dear Mr. Cundiff:

During a recent conversation with Mr. Lem Cox, he suggested I contact you regarding approval to use School Administration records for my doctoral dissertation research. I am presently a graduate student in the School of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. I am working on an Ed.D. degree in the Psycho-Social Aspects of Sport and Physical Education. My proposed research is concerned with parental attitudes toward interscholastic athletics. I would like to use the School Administration's composite mailing list and athletic rosters of all of the junior high schools.

Given your permission, I would sample 200 parents from both the composite list and the athletic rosters. I would then send each subject a letter of introduction requesting their participation in the study. Those parents who agree to participate would then be asked to complete and return an attitude scale and questionnaire. I am enclosing a copy of the scale and questionnaire for your examination.

I am completely willing to share the results of the study with the School Administration. Your consideration of this request is greatly appreciated. If I can answer any further questions please contact me.

Sincerely,

Bob Maggard
903 Winterlochen Drive
Greensboro, North Carolina 27410

GREENSBORO PUBLIC SCHOOLS
DRAWER V
GREENSBORO, N. C. 27402

LEM COX DIRECTOR
HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SAFETY

September 12, 1977

MEMO TO: Mr. Fred Cundiff

FROM: Lem Cox Lem

RE: Research Project - UNC-G Staff Member

I have talked with Mr. Bob Maggard and feel that I can help him with the research project that he is interested in doing with the Greensboro junior high schools. It would require Mr. Maggard using our eligibility list and also working with the student records here at the Administration Building to get a sampling of names.

If the above meets with your approval, I will follow-up with Mr. Maggard and help in securing the necessary names needed for the project. After securing the information, he assures me that we will have first access to the information and that it would be helpful as we look at our athletic programs.

As soon as I hear your reply, I will follow-up on continuing the project.

9-12-77

LC:blh

Lem, This is fine. Thanks for your assistance.

Fred

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO PARENTS

903 Winterlochen Drive
Greensboro, North Carolina 27410
October 3, 1977

Dear

The purpose of this letter is to ask you to participate in a study that deals with the attitudes of parents toward the values of interscholastic athletics. Participation in the study would consist of each parent answering a questionnaire and responding to an attitude scale. The questionnaire is relatively short and is concerned mainly with your own athletic background. The attitude scale consists of a series of statements that you are asked to respond to with regard to how you feel about the values of interscholastic athletics. It will take approximately twenty minutes of your time to complete both the questionnaire and the attitude scale.

If you agree to participate, the materials will be mailed to you. No personal contact is required or will occur. All information that is gathered from the scale and questionnaire will be kept confidential, and at no time or under any circumstances will the names of parents be used.

A postal card has been enclosed in this letter for your convenience in responding. If you are willing to be a part of this study, please mark the agree response on the enclosed card. Upon receipt of the card, I will send you the questionnaire and the attitude scales. If you do not wish to be a part of the study, then mark the no response on the card and return it to me; you will not be contacted again.

I hope you will decide to participate in the study for without your participation the study can not be undertaken. Your cooperation in returning the postal card, regardless of your decision will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Bob Maggard
Graduate Student
University of North Carolina
at Greensboro

POST CARD INFORMATION ENCLOSED WITH LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

_____ Yes, I will participate.

_____ No, I do not wish to participate.

_____
Name

_____
Address

APPENDIX E

Methods of Data Collection

FOLLOW-UP POST CARD #1 INFORMATION

A couple of weeks ago, you received a letter asking you to participate in a research study concerning parents' attitudes toward interscholastic athletics. As of this date, I have not received a post card from you indicating whether you will or will not be a part of the study. It would be greatly appreciated if you would return the attached card even if you do not want to participate.

Thank you,

PARTICIPANT REMINDER POST CARD INFORMATION

Several weeks ago you returned a post card indicating that you would participate in a research study dealing with interscholastic athletics. Upon receipt of your post card, I mailed you two questionnaires and a return envelope. As of this date, I have not received your completed questionnaire. Your participation is essential for the completion of the study. Therefore, if you can find time to complete and return the materials, it would be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Bob Maggard

SIX WEEK REMINDER CARD INFORMATION

Dear Mr. & Mrs. _____,

Several weeks ago you returned a post card and indicated that you would be willing to participate in a research study dealing with attitudes toward inter-scholastic athletics. Upon receipt of that card, you were sent a set of attitude scales and questionnaires. As of this date, I have not received a return from you. I realize that in the Thanksgiving-Christmas confusion your set of materials may have been misplaced or lost. Therefore, I have enclosed a second set of materials. Your participation is greatly needed and will be appreciated very much.

Sincerely,

Bob Maggard

NOTES OF TELEPHONE CONVERSATION WITH SUBJECTS

Hello, may I speak to _____. My name is Bob Maggard and I am a graduate student at UNC-G. Several weeks ago, I mailed you a letter and some information regarding a research study that I am conducting. You returned a post card to me indicating that you would participate as a subject for the study. Since I have not received a response from you, I thought I would call to see if you are still willing to participate in the study. If you are and if you still have a set of the study's materials, please take a few minutes to complete them and return them to me.

Thank you.

APPENDIX F

Raw Attitude Scores of Parents

Table 16

Raw Scores of Parents of Athletes

Subject	Score	Subject	Score	Subject	Score
1	195	23	177	45	171
2	191	24	176	46	170
3	188	25	176	47	169
4	187	26	176	48	169
5	187	27	176	49	169
6	186	28	176	50	168
7	186	29	175	51	168
8	185	30	174	52	167
9	184	31	174	53	167
10	184	32	174	54	165
11	183	33	174	55	165
12	183	34	174	56	164
13	182	35	172	57	164
14	180	36	172	58	164
15	180	37	172	59	164
16	179	38	172	60	163
17	179	39	172	61	163
18	179	40	172	62	162
19	179	41	171	63	162
20	178	42	171	64	161
21	178	43	171	65	160
22	177	44	171	66	158

Table 16 (Continued)

Subject	Score	Subject	Score	Subject	Score
67	158	77	150	87	138
68	158	78	147	88	133
69	157	79	146	89	133
70	155	80	145	90	132
71	154	81	144	91	132
72	154	82	144	92	132
73	154	83	144	93	131
74	154	84	142	94	130
75	153	85	140	95	119
76	151	86	139		

Table 17

Raw Scores of Parents of Nonathletes

Subject	Score	Subject	Score	Subject	Score
1	207	19	170	36	145
2	187	20	167	37	141
3	186	21	166	38	140
4	185	22	166	39	140
5	182	23	164	40	139
6	180	24	163	41	138
7	180	25	162	42	137
8	179	26	162	43	129
9	177	27	161	44	129
10	177	28	161	45	128
11	177	29	161	46	128
12	176	30	160	47	128
13	176	31	159	48	127
14	174	32	158	49	126
15	174	33	157	50	123
16	174	34	155	51	123
17	172	35	146	52	119
18	171				