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PHILLIPS, JAMES HAROLD

A COMPARISON OF PARENTAL ATTITUDES TOWARD COMPETITION IN YOUTH
SPORTS IN RELATION TO THE SEX OF THE PARTICIPANT AND THE SELECTED
SPORT

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro

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A COMPARISON OF PARENTAL ATTITUDES TOWARD COMPETITION
IN YOUTH SPORTS IN RELATION TO THE SEX OF
THE PARTICIPANT AND THE SELECTED SPORT

by

James H. Phillips

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Doctor of Education

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Approved by


Dissertation Adviser

APPROVAL PAGE

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The purpose of this research was to ascertain if differences existed in the attitudes of the parents of male and female youth sport participants toward intensive competition in youth sports. The sports of basketball, baseball, and swimming were studied.

The subjects were 288 randomly selected parents of youth sport participants in the Harrisonburg and Staunton, Virginia area youth sport programs. The sample was composed of 123 fathers and 165 mothers. The parents who responded were related to 144 boys and 144 girls. Parents of basketball participants who responded numbered 95, baseball parent respondents numbered 92, and swimming parent respondents numbered 101.

A 25-item Likert-type attitude scale, which was an adaption of Cobb's (1971) adaption of Scott (1953), was used to measure parental attitudes toward youth sport competition. Descriptive data of the parents and children were obtained from a questionnaire which accompanied the attitude scale.

Analysis of variance procedures for both raw and factor scores were used to compare the parents' attitude scores based on the sex of the child, the relationship of the parent to the child, and the sport of the child. After a significant F was found in the analysis of variance of factor scores for the sports, Fisher's Protected Least Significant Difference multiple comparisons procedure was utilized to discover which sports were statistically different.

The results of the analyses indicated that: (a) parents of youth sport participants in the three sports studied generally possess

favorable attitudes toward youth sport competition, (b) parents of male participants did not have different attitudes than parents of female participants, (c) attitudes of fathers of youth sport participants were not statistically different than attitudes of mothers of youth sport participants, (d) attitudes of fathers of male participants did not differ statistically from those attitudes of mothers of male participants, (e) attitudes of fathers of female participants were not found to be statistically different from the attitudes of mothers of female participants, and (f) using the ANOVA based on factor scores, the parents' attitude scores were statistically different for the main effect sport. Fisher's Protected LSD multiple comparisons procedure was utilized. Only one statistically different sports comparison was discovered. This difference existed among parents of baseball participants and those of swimming participants. Parents of swimming participants had more favorable attitudes toward youth sport competition than parents of baseball participants.

Within the limits of this study the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Parents of youth sport participants generally possess favorable attitudes toward youth sport competition for the three sports studied.
2. Parents of youth swimming participants hold more favorable attitudes toward youth sport competition than parents of youth baseball participants.
3. Neither the sex of the child nor the relationship of the parent to the child effect the attitudes of parents toward youth sport competition.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Youth sport leagues are experiencing a tremendous growth in both male and female participation. Today over 17 million boys and girls participate in over 50 sports organized by schools and a host of community and national youth sport agencies (Martens, 1978).

Children are not only entering sports in greater numbers but also entering sports at increasingly earlier ages. Parents may enter their children in competitive swimming at age three, ice hockey or go-cart racing at age four, and baseball, soccer, basketball, tennis, and bowling at age six (Martens, 1978). Many of these children have become involved in sports for the reason one eight-year-old boy gave, "I don't know... my dad just joined me up" (Orlick & Botterill, 1975, p. 67).

The desirability of highly organized sports for children has become a major controversial issue. Proponents of youth sports argue that youth sports promote skill development, cooperation, discipline, fair play, a good time, and are an excellent way to learn the rules and tools of life. Opponents feel that youth sports are overemphasized, potentially physically hazardous and emotionally stressful. They also feel that youth sports promote improper values and that parents and coaches are too domineering.

Excessive parental involvement is one of the most criticized aspects of youth sports (Horn, 1977; Bryn, 1974; Tutko & Bruns, 1976a;

Schwertley, 1970). Vince Leah, sportswriter, commented on youth sports:

I don't know exactly why, but everytime grown men get seriously interested in kid's sports and try to promote it and improve it, they end up teaching the youngsters adult sins and adult anxieties of the kind that make ulcers. (Orlick & Botterill, 1975, p. 95)

Parental attitudes and encouragement have been found to be a major influence on a child's competitiveness in sport (Smith, 1974; Horn, 1977). There have been many instances in which parents and coaches have bent rules, were violent, shown a lack of respect for officials and demonstrated other questionable behavior (Underwood, 1975). Studies (Nelson, Gelfrand, & Hartmann, 1969; Bandura, 1969) have concluded that adult models, whatever their behavior, play a major role in determining the nature of children's responses to frustration induced by competition. These parental attitudes and behavior often serve as the children's role models, and these behaviors are transmitted to the child. A recent study (Caldwell, 1977) of youth football players indicated that 50% of the players thought their adult coaches yelled too much, and 36% rated their coaches as poor losers and examples.

Scott (1953) conducted a study to determine the attitudes of parents, teachers, and public school administrators toward intensive elementary athletic competition. Parents were the most favorable of the groups surveyed with 78% supporting competition in the elementary schools. Skubic (1956) investigated parental attitudes toward Little League baseball and found that most parents felt baseball competition was a positive factor in their son's life.

The majority of studies with subjects younger than 12 years of age investigated the effects of organized baseball programs (Ash, 1978).

The literature is virtually silent on the impact of other types of youth sport programs. This could be an especially important variable, since some studies (Lynn, Phelan, & Kiker, 1969; Lakie, 1962) have shown that psychological and personality differences are dependent on whether the athletic competition was team or individual.

Ash (1978) reports that there is a paucity of research on young female sport participants. Although few studies have involved females, 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; Green-dorfer & Lewko, 1978). In the past, American society had considered athletics as a male oriented pursuit (Gerber, et al., 1972). However, there has been evidence of recent changes in female athletes' roles and the attitude toward those roles (Maggard, 1978). Because of this change and the aforementioned research gaps, the major concern of this investigation was centered on parental attitudes toward youth sports as to the sex of the child participant and the sport in which the child was involved.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine the attitudes of parents toward competition in youth sport programs. The primary questions were:

1. Do the parents of male participants have different attitudes toward youth sport competition than parents of female participants?
2. Do fathers of youth sport participants have different attitudes toward youth sport competition than mothers of youth sport participants?

3. Do the fathers of male participants have different attitudes toward youth sport competition than the mothers of male participants?

4. Do the fathers of female participants have different attitudes toward youth sport competition than the mothers of female participants?

5. Are there differences in parental attitudes toward youth sport competition in the different sport activities of basketball, baseball, and swimming?

Definitions

Attitudes: "The ideas or feelings one may have about something as a result of past experiences, or as a result of imaginative likes or dislikes" (Johnson & Nelson, 1969, p. 296).

Participants: Those children engaged in youth sport programs in the area of Staunton and Harrisonburg, Virginia.

Youth sport competition: A program which follows a regular schedule of games or meets between teams in the surrounding area which culminate in championship play-offs (Scott, 1953).

Parent: Adults who reside in the home of the child and who serve in the role of mother or father (Maggard, 1978).

Assumptions of the Study

Certain assumptions were made in this study:

1. Parents responded to the attitude scale according to their true feelings.

2. The attitude scale used in the study was reliable and valid.

3. The use of random sampling techniques in the selection of the subjects disallowed for the bias selection of certain segments of

society as to class, cultural, and religious elements.

4. Parents have attitudes toward sport competition that they may transmit in the home environment.

5. Children in the home may be influenced by their parent's attitudes.

6. Parents responded to the attitude scale according to the sport and the child indicated.

Scope of the Study

This study was concerned with parental attitudes toward competition in youth sports. The study attempted to determine if parental attitudes differed as to sex of the participant, relationship of the parent to the child, and in relation to the sports of basketball, baseball, and swimming. The Attitude Scale For Youth Sport Competition, an adaptation of Cobb's (1971), was used to measure the parents' attitudes toward competition in youth sport programs. A Likert procedure was used to measure attitudinal responses to each inventory statement. The attitude scale provided a measure of whether the parents had a favorable or an unfavorable attitude toward competition in youth sport programs.

The subjects were randomly selected from the youth sport rosters of the Harrisonburg and Staunton, Virginia areas. Because of a paucity of female baseball participants and swimming participants the parents of all children participating in these two sports were included in the study. Contact with the subjects was made by mail. Telephone contact was used as a follow-up procedure. The responses that were received from the parents were analyzed for differences that existed in parents'

attitudes as to sex of the child, sport of the child, and relationship of the parent to the child.

This study was delimited by certain factors:

1. The nature of the research was delimited by time. Specifically the data were collected during the youth sport seasons in the months January to July 1979.

2. The results of the study may have been influenced by the geographic and socioeconomic region in which the sport programs were located.

3. The results of the study may have been biased by the type of attitude scale used, by testing conditions, and the selection of the subjects. Therefore, no attempt was made to generalize the results of the study to anything other than the geographic area and the sports studied.

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

Significance of the Study

It is quite possible that organized childrens athletics has had as large an impact on family structure and behavior as any other societal event in the past three decades, and yet this factor has been largely overlooked by psychologists and educators. (Ash, 1978, p. 176)

Investigations of the past have found parental attitudes to be a significant influence on youth sport participants (Smith, 1974; Watson, 1974; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1976). There appears to be general agreement that an individual's attitude is determined to some degree by the attitude of parents, cultural background, and past experiences (Cobb, 1971).

Martens (1975) stated that competitive situations affect different individuals in different ways, depending upon the experiences they have had with competition throughout their lives. Therefore, it is important to study the determinants and consequences of intensive competition during the developmental stages of life.

Few reported studies have dealt with the young female athlete. There has also been a lack of research as to the comparisons of different sport programs. This study may make a contribution to the literature by providing some insights into parental attitudes in these two areas. A unique feature of this study is that comparisons of parental attitudes are made among sports as well as between the sexes.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Literature related to the study of attitudes is prolific. This fact necessitated focusing the attention of this review of literature upon the background and development of the attitude scale utilized in this research and on parental attitudes and their influence on athletics. The major divisions of the review are: (a) scale development and background, (b) parental influence and athletic participation, (c) parental attitudes toward sport and competition, and (d) suggested guidelines for the parental role.

Scale Development and Background

Serious attempts to "scale" attitudes began almost fifty years ago (Kenyon, 1969). Two principle methods for constructing scales to measure attitudes were developed by Thurstone and Chave (1929) and Likert (1932). These researchers found that by collecting several statements about the psychological object in question, a scale could be formed which measured the degree of affect, usually with satisfactory reliability (Likert, 1932). Both scales are rather similar in form and require responses to sets of statements about the particular subject, belief, idea, prejudice or whatever is being investigated (Adams, 1963). One contrast is that the Likert approach allows the respondent more choices than the "agree" or "disagree" of the Thurstone scale (Maggard, 1978). Respondents to a Likert scale are asked to indicate to what

extent they agree or disagree with each statement and may answer with "strongly agree", "agree", "no opinion", "disagree" or "strongly disagree". However, a number of comparative studies involving the Thurstone and Likert techniques have shown that the two scales give practically the same results (Wear, 1951).

Most of the early (1930-1950) attitude studies in physical education were of the questionnaire type in which subjects checked likes or dislikes of activities, of features of the program, or of certain administrative practices (Wear, 1951). However, some early studies used the Thurstone manner to study attitudes toward intercollegiate athletics (Stalnaker, 1933), attitudes of college women toward physical activity as a means of recreation (Moore, 1941), and the relation between success in physical education and selected attitudes expressed by high school girls (Carr, 1945).

It was not until the early 1950's that physical educators began to use widely the Likert (1932) or Thurstone and Chave (1929) techniques to develop attitude scales and measure attitudes accordingly. The University of Iowa designed several attitude scales which resulted in research projects which used the Likert (1932) or Thurstone and Chave (1929) technique. Studies by Wear, 1951; McCue, 1953; Scott, 1953; McGee, 1956 were among these. The attitude scale designed by McCue (1953) was the genesis of The Attitude Scale For Youth Sport Competition.

McCue's (1953) purpose in developing an attitude scale was to develop a procedure which would make possible an objective and reliable assessment of individual and group attitudes toward intensive competition

in athletics for high school boys and college men. In preparing items for the scale, McCue interviewed thirty-five persons regarding their ideas about athletic competition. Those interviewed represented various points of view and included students, instructors, administrators, parents, skilled athletes, coaches, ministers, and doctors. As a result of those interviews 145 statements which pertained to intensive competition in athletics were prepared. The Likert (1932) procedure of presenting the items to a group of respondents was used to obtain relevant and internally consistent items. Respondents were first to make a judgement as to the favorability or unfavorability expressed by the item. Secondly, the respondents were requested to state their own personal willingness to accept or reject the item. Respondents included 24 graduate students and 23 staff members from the University of Iowa Department of Physical Education. Ambiguous items and items of duplication were discarded reducing the number of items from 145 to 77. A product moment correlation of .93 was obtained for total scores.

Scott (1953) revised McCue's scale so that it would be applicable to elementary school competition. Elementary school was defined as the fourth through the sixth grade for Scott's study. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient computed between the first and second administration of the revised attitude scale was 0.90.

Cobb (1971), in reviewing attitude scales to be used in a study of parental attitudes toward elementary athletic competition, decided on a revision of the Scott (1953) Attitude Inventory. The revision was done because of the extensive length and apparent duplication of some

of the items of the original attitude scale. This revision was done by a panel of four persons: a parent, a Little League coach, a college teacher, and an elementary physical education teacher. This revision resulted in a reduction in the items from 79 to 25.

To meet the needs of the present study, which involved parents' attitudes toward nonschool youth sport competition, a further revision was necessary. Cobb's (1971) twenty-five items were revised to show a youth sport competition emphasis rather than an emphasis on elementary school competition. This revision, The Attitude Scale For Youth Sport Competition, was tested for reliability and had a correlation coefficient of 0.83.

Summary

Many of the early attitude scales lacked sophistication in their construction and scoring. Therefore, early attitude researchers Thurstone and Chave (1929) and Likert (1932) developed more reliable and valid scales to measure attitudes.

The McCue (1953), Scott (1953), and Cobb (1971) attitude scales used the Likert procedure to measure attitudinal responses to each inventory statement. The weights for each item are then totaled to determine an individual subject's score. From this score an individual could be classified as to favorableness or unfavorableness regarding the topic under study.

As McCue (1953) suggested, her scale would, with slight revisions, be applicable to athletic competition at various age levels. These revisions have occurred in several research attempts in studying parental attitudes toward athletic competition.

Parental Influence and Athletic Participation

Snyder and Spreitzer (1973) have stated that the family is the most potent of all socialization institutions. Theoretically a child can be socialized into sports in the same manner that the child assimilates a religious or political orientation. There also appears to be general agreement that an individual's attitude is determined to some degree by the attitudes of his parents (Cobb, 1971).

Orlick and Botterill (1975) stated that parents are often responsible for determining whether or not a youngster goes out for a sport. Many children become involved in sports for the reason, as explained by one eight year old boy, "I don't know...my dad just joined me up" (Orlick & Botterill, 1975, p. 67). These researchers felt that parents often have the greatest impact on children's behavior by providing both a model and reinforcement for desirable behavior. It was the belief of Orlick and Botterill that children learn more from their parents' behavior than from what their parents say. Orlick and Botterill (1975) also concluded that many parents are not aware of the kinds of experiences their children are having nor what their children are feeling because parents seldom, if ever, sit down and talk to their children.

Sports psychologist Vander Velden (Bryn, 1974) felt children who play organized sports experience other kinds of pressure from their parents besides the pressure to win. A young athlete is often a status symbol for the parents if the child is a star. Velden (Is The Boom, 1974) felt parents go through an "ego extension" wherein those parents who failed to fulfill their own dreams of grandeur on the playing field try to do this vicariously through their children.

Parents are often unaware of the pressure they put on their children to participate in youth sports. Horn (1977) reported that in interviews with 365 parents of youth league football players, none felt they had pressured their sons to join the league. But 25% of the players and 33% of the coaches said the youngsters' participation was the direct result of parental urging.

Martin (1978) also used an interview technique to survey the attitudes toward sport by fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students and their parents. Comparisons were made between children who participated in the intramural basketball program and those children who did not participate. Martin found that 83% of the participants' parents and 77% of the non-participants' parents encouraged their child to get involved in sports. When children were asked if they thought their parents wanted them to participate in sports, the responses were slightly different from those of their parents. Ninety-one percent of the participants and 89% of the non-participants felt their parents wanted them to participate in sports. Child participants (91%) and non-participants (86%) overwhelmingly felt that it would make their parents happy if they were good at sports.

A positive evaluation of sport by the parent often is transferred to the child and encourages the development of sport interests in the child (Pudelkiewicz, 1970). Pudelkiewicz looked at the conveyance of sport values across three generations of families. He found that there can be a complete transfer of values across all three generations of a family. The following values were among those most frequently transferred;

a positive attitude for sport, an awareness of the need for sport, and the advantages stemming from participation in sport.

The effect of family influence as a predictor of sports involvement was analyzed by Snyder and Spreitzer (1973). They found for both sexes, that parents' interest in sport showed a positive relationship to the respondents' present sport involvement. There was also a tendency for the like-sexed parent to have more influence on the respondents behavioral involvement than the opposite-sexed parent. The researchers concluded that sports involvement apparently begins in childhood and is reinforced by parental encouragement.

Spreitzer and Snyder (1976) in a follow-up analysis of family influence and sports involvement found the father's interest in sports was more influential than the mother's interest in sports for both sexes. Also, parental encouragement concerning sports is more important for women than men. Malumphy (1970) reported that family support may be even more essential for the female athletes than male athletes since such support is a major factor in college women continuing to participate in sport activities.

In related research, Kenyon and McPherson (1973) examined the psychosocial factors influencing college tennis and ice hockey players to become involved in sport. Their research reinforced the idea that interest in sport was initially aroused within the family, and mainly by the father. In several cases, the parents were still actively involved in sport as participants and thus served as role models.

Watson's (1974) study, which involved family organization and youth sport programs, indicated that children perceive their parents as

being an important reference group. He also found that parents with children involved in community youth sport programs share a more intensive involvement in the community and place a high value on the participation of their children in community activities.

Research involving high school girl athletes participating in gymnastics, track and field, and basketball indicated that socialization into sport begins in childhood and continues into high school with considerable encouragement from significant others (Snyder & Spreitzer, 1976). This study found mothers were less likely to provide encouragement for their daughters who were participating in basketball in contrast to their participation in gymnastics or track. This finding may have been a function of the early social attitudes which suggested that basketball for girls was less socially acceptable than the other sports. The contact sports have often been considered undesirable for female participants.

Kay, Felker, and Varoz (1972) designed a study to test relationships among self concept, sports abilities, personal sport interests and parental sports interests. Subjects for the study were 406 seventh, eighth, and ninth grade boys. Results suggested that the subjects' interest in sports was based on physical abilities and possibly sport interests shared with parents. This finding supported an earlier Felker and Kay (1971) study which found a significant relationship between personal interest and father's interests in sports. This conclusion supports the contention that the interest in sport that develops within a child results from the sport interest shown by the parents.

In another related study which involved 95 children ages 8-13, Greendorfer and Lewko (1978) explored the role significant others play in influencing children's active sports involvement. Results indicated that sex differences occur in children's socialization into sport. The results suggested that fathers, peers, and teachers are significant predictors of boys' sport involvement, whereas only fathers and peers influence girls' sport participation. Furthermore, the father emerged as the most significant family member influencing sport involvement of boys and girls. The role of the mother and that of siblings was not significant for either sex.

Summary

Evidence from the studies dealing with parental influence on the sports involvement of their children reveals that parents seem to play a major role in developing sport interests in their child. Parental encouragement and sport interest have been reported as the most frequent significant variables in a child's sport involvement. Research also indicates that this parental influence and interest may be tempered by the sex of the child participant, by the sex of the parent, and by the sport involved.

Parental Attitudes Toward Sport and Competition

A very early attempt to study parental attitudes toward athletics was done by Stalnaker (1933). The study dealt with attitudes toward intercollegiate athletics. Attitudes from various groups of people associated with the University of Minnesota were measured with a Thurstone-

type attitude scale. Groups studied in order of favorability toward athletics were: athletes, parents of athletes, undergraduates, newspaper editors, general public, alumni, parents of nonathletes, high school executives, graduate students, faculty, and college presidents. All groups were favorable in their attitudes toward athletics with athletes and their parents ranking one and two.

Scott (1953) revised the McCue (1953) scale for utilization in measuring attitudes toward intensive competition in athletic games at the elementary school level. Comparisons were made of the attitudes of three selected populations, parents, teachers, and administrators. Respondents totaled 1,099, which included 357 parents, 508 teachers, and 234 administrators. The following findings resulted from the analysis of the data: (a) a majority of all three populations tended to be favorable toward intensive competition at the elementary level, (b) statistically significant differences were found in the attitudes of the three groups; seventy-eight percent of the parents favored competition at the elementary level, sixty-eight percent of teachers and fifty-five percent of administrators had favorable attitudes toward competition at the elementary level. (c) men indicated a more favorable attitude than women, and (d) individuals who had experience with competition expressed greater favorability than those with no experience.

In a closely related study and one of the few involving girl subjects, McGee (1956) compared the attitudes of school administrators, teachers, coaches, and parents toward competition for high school girls. Once more, parents were found to have the most favorable attitudes.

Administrators and teachers were much less favorable to intensive competition than were parents and coaches. Also, indications were that parents of athletes had more favorable attitudes than the parents of nonathletes.

Several other studies have also compared attitudes of parents of athletes and parents of nonathletes. In comparing attitudes of parents of athletes and parents of nonathletes toward physical activity, Dowell (1973) found no significant differences in their attitudes toward physical activity. The study did find that athletes possessed more favorable attitudes toward physical activity than nonathletes. Subjects for this research were college students who had or had not participated in athletics in high school.

Lohrberg's (1974) research had similar findings. Comparisons were made between the attitudes of students, parents, coaches, and faculty members toward interscholastic athletics. Parents were found to have favorable attitudes, but no difference was evident between the parents of athletes and the parents of nonathletes.

Parental attitudes toward the values of interscholastic athletics was the concern of Maggard's (1978) study. Again, parents of athletes were compared with those of nonathletes. His findings differed from those of Lohrberg (1974) and Dowell (1973) in that parents of athletes were found to possess more favorable attitudes toward athletics than parents of nonathletes. Results also indicated that neither the sex of the parent nor the sex of the child had an effect on the attitude scores of the parents. Another finding indicated that parents who had

participated in interscholastic athletics had more favorable attitudes than the parents who had not participated. This finding reinforced a contention of Scott's (1953) earlier research.

Skubic's (1956) study involved the attitudes of players and parents toward Little and Middle League competitive baseball. Most parents approved of their son's participation and felt the Little League program was a positive factor in contributing to their son's development. Some of the boys were adversely affected by the competition, but the majority were not. As a part of the study, parents made several suggestions to improve the game. The most frequently mentioned were: to play every boy in each game, recruit better coaches, eliminate parental influence in the games, shorter training seasons, less emphasis on winning, less publicity and spectator pressure, and for 8-12 year olds the use of a softball rather than a baseball. Players also felt everyone should play in each game, and the majority felt badly if that did not occur. Fine's (Hotchkiss, 1978) three year study of Little League baseball also found that parents were generally satisfied with the program, and one of the biggest concerns was whether their son got to play enough.

Orlick (1973) interviewed mothers of nonparticipants and mothers of participants in youth sports. He found that over 80% of the mothers expressed a strong dislike for the winning emphasis, the pressure, and the competitiveness in children's sport. Mothers felt that the emphasis should be on fun and enjoyment, along with giving each child an equal opportunity to play. This study also supported the contention that basic orientation toward sports experience is established early in life.

Many children had been "turned on" or "turned off" to sports by ages eight or nine. This finding magnifies the importance of early positive exposure to sports.

Cobb (1971) used a revision of the Scott (1953) Attitude Scale and the Bowman (1958) Attitude Inventory and measured attitudes of parents and their sixth grade children toward elementary athletic competition and elementary physical education. The results found no evidence of a significant difference between the attitudes of the parents toward elementary physical education and elementary athletic competition. A statistically significant difference appeared in comparing the attitudes of mothers of sons and mothers of daughters in the area of elementary athletic competition. Mothers of daughters were more in favor of athletic competition than were mothers of sons. Cobb (1971) reasoned that this difference might possibly be due to the fact there is little opportunity for girls in the geographic area studied (Texas) to participate in elementary athletic competition. Because of this, it was suggested that mothers of girls would have had less opportunity to see any possible negative effects that elementary athletic competition could have on their daughters.

Summers (1977) used the original Scott (1953) instrument to study parental attitudes of boys aged 6-9 who participated in youth soccer leagues. The study revealed that both male and female parents held positive attitudes toward intensive competition in youth soccer leagues. Additional analysis of the data revealed that the attitudes of parents of boys six and seven years of age did not differ significantly from those attitudes held by parents of eight and nine year old boys.

Since motor ability is related to sport, several studies which examined parents' attitudes toward physical education and the motor ability of their children were included. Bowman (1958) developed an attitude scale and attempted to determine the relationship between student and parent attitudes and skills of fifth grade children. She found no consistent pattern of relationship existed between the attitudes of parents and the scores of pupils in motor performance and activity inventories.

A similar study by Zeller (1968) found differing results from those of Bowman (1958). Zeller (1968) measured parental attitudes toward physical education to determine if any relationship existed between parental attitude and physical performance. Findings indicated that parental attitudes, parental participation in physical activity, and student participation in physical activity tended to be highly correlated and consistent within families. Zeller (1968) also found that parents with highly skilled children had significantly more favorable attitudes toward physical education than parents with less skilled children.

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

Summary

Parents generally have had favorable attitudes toward competition and their children's participation in sport. The de-emphasis of winning

and allowing each child to play seem to be the most frequently stated desires of parents. Studies that have compared the attitudes of parents of athletes with parents of nonathletes have resulted in contradictory findings as to differences. Conflicting research has also been the case in comparing parental attitudes and their child's physical prowess.

Suggested Guidelines for the Parental Role

The long-held maxim that organized sports are automatically a good thing for children has become debatable. Many critics (Tutko & Bruns, 1976a; Horn, 1977; Knox, 1972; Underwood, 1975) feel that the main culprit and biggest problem in youth sports are parents and adults who frequently push children too hard and put tremendous pressure on them. Critics argue that these pressures have not only caused physical injury, but emotional abuse to the young athletes (Is The Boom, 1974; Robbins, 1969). Tutko (1976) stated that this abuse coupled with the built-in pressure of competitive sports, can cripple a child's psychological growth. Because children have virtually no control in organized youth sports it is up to parents, coaches, and concerned adults to create a positive atmosphere for the games children play.

The philosophy of "child first, winning second" is a very important guideline, but also very difficult for adults to implement (Martens & Seefeldt, 1979). Orlick and Botterill (1975) have written that as long as we keep in mind that the outcome of the child is infinitely more important than the outcome of the game, we will be well on our way toward what is best for children. If parents adhere to the philosophy of "child first, winning second," most youth sport programs could be beneficial to the participants.

Orlick and Botterill (1975) stated that recognizing the tremendous importance of sport being fun for children could be the most significant factor in making parents a more effective and positive influence on children. Tutko and Bruns (1976b) suggested that most children take up a sport just to be with their friends and have fun. Horn's (1977) report supported this contention with interviews of 531 players, 95% of whom said they were more interested in having fun than winning.

The American Alliance For Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance has developed and endorsed a Bill of Rights For Young Athletes (Thomas, 1977). It is suggested that if parents were aware of these rights and let them serve as a guide for their child, youth sports might have a positive aura. These rights include: opportunity to participate in sports regardless of ability level, to participate at a level commensurate with each child's developmental level, to have qualified adult leadership, to participate in safe and healthy environments, to share in the leadership and decision making of sport participation, to play as a child and not as an adult, to have proper preparation for participation in the sport, to have an equal opportunity to strive for success, to be treated with dignity by all involved, and to have fun through sports.

Orlick and Botterill (1975) suggested six important processes in which parents, coaches, and other leaders can involve themselves in order to improve sports for children. Parents can:

Establish a base and determine the kinds of behavior you truly consider desirable. Do so specifically with definite examples in mind. Insure that you are, or that you project, an example of desirable behavior.

Provide opportunities for the child to determine the kinds of behavior he or she truly considers desirable.

Directly reinforce or acknowledge "anything that looks like" or approximates the kind of behavior considered desirable.

Directly discourage, or fail to acknowledge and accept, "anything that looks like" or approximates behavior considered undesirable.

Seek out and pursue indirect ways of insuring the promotion of desirable values and behavior. (p. 135)

Every Kid Can Win (Orlick & Botterill, 1975) also includes a section on the conduct of parents and spectators toward players, opponents, and officials. Generally it is suggested that parents encourage rather than criticize, remember that humans are subject to error, and treat others as they themselves would like to be treated.

Tutko and Bruns (1976b) have indicated that parents and coaches should keep children's sports fun, be agonizingly patient, reward effort rather than performance, and remember that the aim is simply to introduce the child to the sport in a noncompetitive environment where fundamentals can be learned.

Martens (1978) has written that parents have a number of responsibilities in ensuring that their children's involvement is safe, beneficial, and enjoyable. These responsibilities include: to find out what their children want from sports participation, to provide a supportive atmosphere that is conducive to their children's participation, to set limitations on their children's participation, to determine when the children are ready to begin competing, to insure that conditions for playing are safe, to protect their children from abusive coaches, to help their children develop realistic expectancies of their capabilities in sports, to help their children interpret the experiences associated with competitive sports, and to discipline their children.

Summary

Parents and other adults greatly influence the sports experiences of young children. Whether children continue with sports or "drop out" is often a result of the initial exposure to sport (Orlick & Botterill, 1975). Therefore if a positive result is anticipated, it is very important that adults attempt to make sport experiences positive. This can be enhanced by placing and continuing the emphasis on the child first. To achieve positive results it is suggested by many critics that parents should strive to be positive behavior models and reinforce the desired behavior of their children. Communication with the child to find out needs and interests is another step suggested for parents if specific results are desired. "For a lot of kids winning isn't everything--being able to take part and have fun means much more" (Orlick & Botterill, 1975, p. 31).

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to compare parental attitudes toward competition in youth sport and to determine if these attitudes differed as to the sex of the participant. The study was also designed to ascertain if parental attitudes differed in relation to the sports of basketball, baseball, and swimming.

Sources of Data

Instruments

Attitude scale. The instrument used for measuring parental attitudes was the Attitude Scale For Youth Sport Competition. This scale was an adaption of Cobb's (1971) adaption of the Scott Attitude Scale For Elementary School Athletic Competition (Scott, 1953). Because of the extensive length (79 items) and duplication of various items, Cobb (1971) reduced the original Scott Scale to a more manageable 25 items.

Since the nature of this investigation was to study nonschool youth sports, this investigator further adapted Cobb's adaption to include the youth sport emphasis (a copy of this instrument may be found in Appendix C).

The list of 25 statements was formulated in either positive or negative terms. The list of statements was rated as to either positive or negative in relation to competition in youth sports by a panel of

five judges. The panel consisted of two professors in physical education, a graduate student specializing in the study of elementary physical education and two recreation directors of youth sports. The panel was in perfect agreement on all but two of the 25-items (see Appendix A, Table 9).

The test-retest method of establishing reliability was applied to the scale. The scale was administered on December 11, 1978 and again on December 18, 1978 to 25 adults in an Accounting class at UNC-Greensboro. The correlation of the two sets of scores produced a .83 coefficient (see Appendix B for raw scores of test-retest group).

A Likert (1932) procedure was used to measure attitudinal responses to each inventory statement. Questionnaires were scored according to a five alternative Likert procedure. The alternatives were: (a) Strongly agree, (b) Agree, (c) No opinion, (d) Disagree, and (e) Strongly disagree. The scoring of the attitude scales was based on the weights of 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, or 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 depending on whether the items were formulated in either positive or negative terms.

Background information. A questionnaire was constructed requesting general information of the parent such as occupation, number of children in family, educational background, organized sport background, and present physical activities engaged in (a copy of the questionnaire may be found in Appendix C). This information was sought in order to analyze important parts of the data and as an aid in answering subquestions of the study as to how organized sport background of the parents related to the sport in which their child was engaged.

Selection of Subjects

Parents of youth sport participants in the Harrisonburg and Staunton, Virginia area were selected as subjects. The study was done during three different youth sport programs. The programs were basketball, baseball, and swimming. Permission was obtained from the various youth sport agencies to obtain the names, ages, addresses, and phone numbers of children participating in the programs. Permission was sought and obtained from Mr. Lee Forrester and Ms. Cindy Ring to use their youth basketball rosters to select subjects for the study. Mr. Ken Bosserman and Mr. Lee Forrester approved the use of youth league baseball rosters to obtain baseball subjects for the study. Permission was granted by Mr. Stan Detamore, Ms. Beth Stockwell, Mr. J. J. Bean, Ms. Alexander Tucker, and Ms. Nancy Taylor to select swimming subjects from their youth swimming team rosters.

The male and female participants were selected from the sport rosters in the age range of nine to twelve. Once a child was selected as a participant for a particular sport, that child was no longer included in the random sample of any other sport(s). Also if brothers or sisters were competing in the same sport, then only one name was retained on the sport roster.

The sample consisted of 80 sets of parents for each sport studied. These were equally divided between male and female youth sport participants. Potential subjects were numbered consecutively, and 40 corresponding numbers were drawn from a random numbers table (Roscoe, 1975). These numbers were matched with numbers assigned on the sport rosters.

The individuals identified by this procedure were the subjects for the selected sports. This random numbers method of selection was used for subject selection for all sports except for girls who played baseball and girls and boys who swam. There were only 36 girl participants in baseball and 40 boy and 40 girl participants in competitive swimming; therefore, all were included in the study.

Selection of Communities

The communities were selected because of the accessibility to the investigator and the presence of the youth sport programs to be studied.

Selection of Sports

These sports were selected for the comparison of attitudes toward the different sports of basketball, baseball, and swimming. An important factor was to select sports with both male and female youth participants. Another factor in sport selection was to use sports in which comparisons could be made between team and individual sports.

Collection of Data

Initial Contact

A letter was printed on the front of each attitude scale which briefly described the study and asked that the parents complete and return the attitude scale regarding their child's participation in the sport under study (a copy of the letter may be found in Appendix D).

The attitude scales were distributed to the parents by mail. The selected parents were sent a set of questionnaires. Each parent's

attitude scale was mailed separately and contained a self-addressed stamped envelope for the convenience of the subjects.

Follow-up Procedures

Parents who had not returned the attitude scales were contacted by the investigator with a follow-up telephone call seven to ten days after the attitude scales were distributed. The phone call was made to see if subjects had received the attitude scales and if the investigator could be of any assistance or answer any questions as to the purpose of the study (see Appendix E for follow-up telephone call).

Those subjects without phones or who had unlisted numbers were contacted with a follow-up post card asking if they had received the attitude scale and asking them to contact the investigator if assistance was needed (see Appendix E for follow-up post card).

Analysis of Data

Responses were analyzed at the Computer Center at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. A trained key punch operator entered the information from the attitude scales on computer cards. Using the SAS statistical package, the raw attitude scores were analyzed according to the questions within the statement of the problem utilizing analysis of variance. A factor analysis of the data revealed that the first principle component explained a much larger portion of the variability of the attitude scores than the other factor components (see Appendix G for factor pattern). Factor scores were then computed using the weight of each item in the first principle component. Analysis of variance

procedures were then utilized for the obtained factor scores. Fisher's Protected Least Significant Difference multiple comparisons procedure was utilized to determine where differences existed after obtaining a significant F from the analysis of variance. The .05 level of confidence was adopted 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 toward youth sport competition. In order to answer the questions posed in the study regarding attitudinal differences, several analysis techniques were used. Descriptive information on the parents and children is presented first. Analysis of relevant data to the questions posed in the study are then presented. All data are presented in Appendix F.

Descriptions of Subjects

Parents who participated in the study were selected on the basis of their child's participation in youth sport competition. Questionnaires and attitude scales were sent to 40 sets of parents of both male and female participants for each sport studied except for the baseball program, in which only 36 females participated. A total of 472 questionnaires were mailed to 236 sets of parents. Returned questionnaires totaled 312 or 66%. However, only 288 or 61% of the returned questionnaires could be included in the analysis because 24 returned questionnaires were incomplete. Completed attitude scales were received from 165 mothers and 123 fathers. Questionnaires which concerned male participants totaled 144 as did those for female participants. Table 1 presents a description of organized sport

background, present physical activities, and number of physical activities participated in by those subjects completing the questionnaires.

Table 1
Descriptive Data for Parents

Organized Sport Background			Present Physical Activity			# of Physical Activities			
Have You Participated at Some Level?	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	Do You Participate Now?	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	Listed Activities of Current Participants	#	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	239	83	Yes	174	60		1	50	29
No	16	6	No	114	40		2	46	26
Blank	33	11					3	49	28
							4	25	14
							5	3	2
							7	1	1
							$\bar{X} = 2.36$		

Subjects who had previous participating experience at some level in organized sport totalled 239 or 83%. An examination of the present physical activity status of the subjects found that 60% engage in some form of physical activity. Those subjects that are involved in physical activity listed an average of 2.36 activities.

The frequency distributions displayed in Table 2 provided information on the number of children in the subjects' families and the ages of the youth sport participants included in the study.

Table 2
Descriptive Data for Children in Families

Number of Children in Family			Ages of Children		
Number	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	Age	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>
One	14	5	9	38	13
Two	118	44	10	95	33
Three	79	29	11	81	28
Four	51	19	12	74	26
Five	8	3			
Nine or more	1	0			
$\bar{X} = 2.7$			$\bar{X} = 10.7$		

Families with two children most frequently represented the subjects in the study. The majority of the families, 92%, had either two, three, or four children (see Table 2). The study was limited to youth sport participants aged nine to twelve. The largest frequency of participants were 10 years old with the mean age being 10.7 years of age.

Analysis of Parental Attitudes Toward
Youth Sport Competition

The parents in the study completed a Likert-type attitude scale adapted from Scott (1953) for use in this study, which dealt with parental attitudes toward youth sport competition. According to the scoring system established for the scale, the higher the numerical

score the more favorable the attitude toward youth sport competition. The lowest possible score a subject could have made was 25; and the highest score attainable was 125. The parents' scores in the study ranged from a low of 50 to a high of 123 (see Appendix F, Tables 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16 for raw scores). A parent's attitude was rated either favorable, unfavorable, or neutral toward youth sport competition. If a parent responded to the 25-item Likert scale in such a manner that his/her average response was weighted three, corresponding with "no opinion," then his/her score would total 75 for the 25 items and be considered neutral toward youth sport competition. If the parent obtained a score of 76 or above, then he/she had favorable attitudes toward youth sport competition. A score of 74 or below indicated the parent had an unfavorable attitude toward youth sport competition. Frequencies and percentages of favorable and unfavorable parental attitudes by sport are presented in Table 3.

Youth sport competition was viewed favorably by 88% of the parents surveyed (see Table 3). Youth swimming competition had the highest percentage, 94%, of parents view it as favorable. Eighty-seven percent of basketball parents and 81% of baseball parents responded favorably toward youth sport competition in those activities (see Table 3). Fifteen percent of the fathers were unfavorable to youth sports while only 8% of the mothers had unfavorable attitudes toward youth sport competition.

For analysis the parents were grouped and compared according to several variables. The groupings and comparisons were completed

Table 3
 Percentages of Parents' Youth Sport Attitudes
 As to Favorable or Unfavorable

	Sport							
	Basketball		Swimming		Baseball		Total	
	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>
Favorable								
Mothers	45	47	59	58	45	49	149	52
Fathers	38	40	36	36	29	32	103	36
Unfavorable								
Mothers	3	3	4	4	6	7	13	5
Fathers	6	6	2	2	10	11	18	6
Neutral								
Mothers	2	2	0	0	1	1	3	1
Fathers	1	1	0	0	1	1	2	1
	95	33	101	35	92	32	288	100

according to: (a) the sport of the child participant, (b) the sex of the child, and (c) the relationship of the parent to the child. The collected data were analyzed by analysis of variance for raw scores and principle component factor scores, and Fisher's Protected Least Significant Difference multiple comparisons procedure. Each question posed in the statement of the problem was answered in the order of presentation.

Parents' Scores Based on the Sex of the Child

The first question presented in the study asked if the parents of male participants had different attitudes toward youth sport competition than the parents of female participants. Table 4 contains the mean attitude scores of the parents of male athletes and the parents of female athletes.

The parents of male participants, with a mean score of 86.89, composed 50% of the population of the study while the parents of female participants, mean score 88.74, accounted for the other 50% of the population (see Table 4). An analysis of the main effect of sex of the child in the analysis of variance presented in Table 5 resulted in an F value of 1.99 with a significance level of $> .05$.

Table 4

Mean Attitude Scores of Parents Grouped by Sex of Child and Parent

Parents											
Group	n	\bar{X}	%	Group	n	\bar{X}	%	Group Totals	n	\bar{X}	%
Male Participants	144	86.89	50	Female Participants	144	88.74	50	Parents	288	87.82	100
Fathers-Male Participants	62	85.88	22	Fathers-Female Participants	61	88.87	21	Fathers	123	87.36	43
Mothers-Male Participants	82	87.66	28	Mothers-Female Participants	83	88.65	29	Mothers	165	88.16	57

The fathers of youth sport participants had a mean score of 87.36 and represented 43% of the population while the mothers of youth sport participants had a mean score of 88.16 and represented 57% of the population. There was little difference in the mean scores of the two groups and therefore the analysis of variance did not approach an acceptable level of significance (see Table 5). Table 5 indicated that the F value of the main effect of parents' relationship to the child was 0.20 with a significance level $> .05$. Thus, the answer to question two was that there was no significant difference between attitudes of fathers of youth sport participants and mothers of youth sport participants.

Parents' Scores Based on Relationship of the Parent to Male Participants

The determination of differences in attitudes between the fathers of male participants and the mothers of male participants was the focus of the third question. The mean scores of the fathers of male participants and the mothers of male participants are presented in Table 4.

The fathers of male participants had a mean score of 85.88 and represented 22% of the subjects while the mothers of male participants had a mean score of 87.66 and represented 28% of the subjects. Although there was a small difference in the mean scores of the two groups, the analysis of variance indicated no statistical significance at the .05 level (see Table 5). It is indicated in Table 5 that the F value of the interaction of the main effect of

Therefore, it was concluded that there was no significant difference between parental attitudes regardless of the sex of the child. The mean scores of each group (see Table 4) showed that parents of female participants have slightly more favorable attitudes than the parents of male participants.

Parents' Scores Based on Relationship
of the Parent to the Child

To determine if significant differences existed between the attitudes of fathers of youth sport participants and those attitudes of mothers of youth sport participants was the focus of the second question. The mean scores for parental attitudes grouped by parental relation to the child are presented in Table 4.

Table 5

ANOVA of Parents' Raw Attitude Scores Grouped
by Sport, Sex of the Child,
and the Sex of the Parent

Source	<u>df</u>	Type III <u>SS</u>	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
Parent	1	27.21	0.20	.65
Sex of Child	1	276.73	1.99	.16
Parent/Sex of Child	1	102.88	0.74	.39
Sport	2	785.03	2.83	.06
Parent/Sport	2	382.76	1.38	.25
Sex of Child/Sport	2	502.86	1.81	.17
Parent/Sex/Sport	2	101.18	0.36	.69

the parents' sex and the main effect of the sex of the child was 0.74 with a significance level $>.05$. The difference between the groups did not reach the acceptable level of statistical significance. It was concluded that fathers of male participants do not have different attitudes toward youth sport competition than the mothers of male participants.

Parents' Scores Based on Relationship of the
Parent to Female Participants

The possibility of differences in attitudes between the fathers of female participants and the mothers of female participants was the fourth question for which an answer was sought. The mean scores of the fathers of female participants and the mothers of female participants are presented in Table 4.

The fathers of the female participants had a mean score of 88.87 and represented 21% of the subjects while the mothers of female participants had a mean score of 88.65 and represented 29% of the population. There was virtually no difference in the mean scores of the two groups, and therefore the analysis of variance indicated that no difference in the populations tested existed (see Table 5). It is indicated in Table 5 that the F value of the interaction of the main effect of the parents' sex and the main effect of the sex of the child was 0.74 with a statistical significance level of $>.05$. Thus, the answer to question four was that there is no difference in youth sport attitudes between the fathers of female participants and the mothers of female participants.

Parents' Scores Based on Sport of the Child

To determine if significant parental attitudinal differences existed among the sports participated in by the children was the fifth question. The mean scores for parental attitudes grouped by sport are presented in Table 6.

The parents of basketball participants had a mean attitude score of 88.09 and represented 33% of the subjects. Parents of baseball participants had a mean attitude score of 85.82 and represented 32% of the subjects while the parents of swimming participants represented 35% of the subjects and had a mean score of 89.38. Although there were differences in the mean scores of the three sports, the analysis of variance indicated no statistical significance at the .05 confidence level (see Table 5). Upon examination, Table 5 indicated that the main effect, sport of the child participant had an F value of 2.83 and a p value of .06. Therefore, based on the results of this analysis, the differences among the scores of the sports were not significant. However, by converting raw attitude scores to factor scores, a significant difference was found (see Table 7). The reasoning which sponsored this further analysis was that a factor analysis of the data revealed that the first principle component of the attitude analysis explained a much larger portion of the variability of the attitude scores than the other factor components. The factor score was then computed by the amount or weight of each item in the first principle component. The weights for each item were used in conjunction with the individual's

Table 6

Mean Attitude Scores of Parents Grouped
by Sport and Sex of Child

Parents											
Sport	<u>n</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>	<u>%</u>	Sport	<u>n</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>	<u>%</u>	Sport	<u>n</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>	<u>%</u>
Basketball	95	88.09	33	Baseball	92	85.82	32	Swimming	101	89.38	35
Mother-Male	24	88.71	29	Mother-Male	28	87.32	34	Mother-Male	30	87.13	37
Father-Male	21	87.81	34	Father-Male	21	83.29	34	Father-Male	20	86.55	32
Mother-Female	26	88.19	31	Mother-Female	24	87.33	29	Mother-Female	33	89.87	40
Father-Female	24	87.63	39	Father-Female	19	84.47	31	Father-Female	18	95.16	30

Table 7
ANOVA of Parents' Principle Component Factor
Attitude Scores Grouped by Sport, Sex of the
Child, and Sex of the Parent

Source	<u>df</u>	Type III <u>SS</u>	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
Parent	1	14.46	0.33	.57
Sex of Child	1	80.48	1.81	.18
Parent/Sex of Child	1	35.56	0.80	.37
Sport	2	274.59	3.09	.05
Parent/Sport	2	126.70	1.43	.24
Sex/Sport	2	133.92	1.51	.22
Parent/Sex/Sport	2	22.85	0.26	.77

responses to each attitude item to convert raw scores to factor scores. This procedure was completed for each attitude item and parent response. An analysis of variance was then computed using the factor scores (see Table 7). Parents of baseball participants had a mean factor score of -1.110772, basketball a mean factor score of -0.002195, and swimming had a mean factor score of 1.035764 (see Table 8). Examination of Table 7 revealed that the sport of the child participant had a F value of 3.09 with a significance level of $\leq .05$. Therefore, the answer to question five was that there was a significant difference among the mean factor scores of the sports.

Fisher's Protected Least Significant Difference multiple comparisons procedure was utilized to find out how the sports differed (see Table 8).

Table 8

Results of Fisher's Protected Least Significant Difference Multiple Comparison Procedure of Mean Parents' Principle Component Factor Scores Based on Sport of Child

Sports	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>	LSD	Diff
Baseball	92	49	6.6638	-1.100772	1.91	1.10
Basketball	95	51		-0.002195		
Basketball	95	48	6.6638	-0.002195	1.91	1.04
Swimming	101	52		1.035764		
Baseball	92	48	6.6638	-1.100772	1.88	2.14*
Swimming	101	52		1.035764		

*Significant at .05 level. To be a significant difference, Diff must be greater than LSD.

Baseball and swimming mean factor scores were found to be different at the .05 level of statistical significance. The mean factor scores of swimmers' parents were more favorable than mean factor scores of parents of baseball participants. The other sport comparisons of baseball to basketball and basketball to swimming did not meet the accepted statistical significance criteria.

Discussion

The results of the analysis of parents' scores added some support to the conclusions of previously reported studies and refuted other studies. The results of this study concurred with earlier research by Scott (1953), Cobb (1971), Summers (1977), Skubic (1956), and Martin (1978) that parents generally have favorable attitudes toward sport competition for children.

Scott (1953) found that 78% of parents surveyed were favorable toward intensive competition toward elementary school athletics. The present study found that 88% of the parents had favorable attitudes toward youth sport competition. This quantitative difference may have been caused by the fact that the present study only included parents of participants while the Scott (1953) study did not distinguish between parents of participants and nonparticipants. Another possible reason of the different results is that just as participation by children has increased tremendously, parents' attitudes have become more favorable over the last quarter of a century.

Pudelkiewicz (1970) has written that a positive value of sport is often transferred to the child and encourages the development of sport interests in the child. Martin (1978) indicated that a large majority of parents liked sports and that 83% of the parents of child participants in intramural basketball and 77% of the parents of non-participants encouraged their children to become involved in sport. However, 91% of the child participants and 89% of the child non-participants perceived that their parents wanted them to participate

in sports. These findings are supported by Horn (1977) when he stated that parents are often unaware of the pressure they put on children to participate in youth sports. Orlick and Botterill (1975) concluded that many parents were not aware of the kinds of experiences their children are having nor what their children are feeling, because parents seldom, if ever, sit down and talk to their children. The transference of sport values from generation to generation along with lack of communication between parent and child and lack of parental insight with regard to their child's feelings may partially explain the overall favorable attitudes toward sport competition for children. The favorable attitudes toward sport by parents may have been pre-existent and not a result of their child's experiences in sport. Another possible explanation for the overall favorable attitudes toward sport felt by most parents is that present day society has become increasingly "sport conscious" and so concerned with winning that they may lack concern or are unaware of possible detrimental effects intense competition could have on participants.

Studies by Spreitzer and Snyder (1976), Greendorfer and Lewko (1978), and Kenyon and McPherson (1973) have proposed that the father is a key factor in the sports interests and sport involvement of the child. Greendorfer and Lewko (1978) further concluded that the father was the key factor in the sports involvement and interest for both boys and girls, and the role of the mother is not significant for either boys or girls. This was contrary to the findings 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. Maggard's (1978) results were contradictory to both the Greendorfer and Lewko (1978) and Snyder and Spreitzer (1973) studies. Maggard (1978) concluded that neither the sex of the child nor the relationship of the parent to the child had an effect on the attitude scores of parents. McGee's (1956) investigation was also contradictory to the Greendorfer and Lewko (1978) findings. McGee (1956) found no evidence of significant differences in attitudes of fathers of female high school athletes and mothers of female athletes. The present study concurred with the conclusions of Maggard (1978) that there were no significant differences based on the sex of the child or the relationship of the parent to the child and also agreed with McGee's (1956) finding. This lack of significant differences in parents' scores based on sex of the child and relationship of the parent to the child may be due to an increasingly apparent non-sexist view of athletic participation by parents. Sport attitudes toward female involvement are changing, and parents tend to perceive their children as young athletes regardless of the sex of the child.

Greendorfer and Lewko (1978) indicated that parents hold different perceptions regarding the importance of sport participation for their sons and daughters. Parents tended to encourage their sons to participate in more active pursuits outside the home while daughters are reinforced for engaging in less active pursuits closer to home. Contrary to this finding was one by Cobb (1971) which

found that mothers of girls had significantly higher attitudes toward elementary school athletic competition than mothers of boys. Summers (1977), using the original Scott (1953) scale, in a study of parental attitudes toward young soccer participants, found that mothers of eight and nine year old males had significantly more positive attitudes toward elementary school athletic competition than did the fathers of male participants. Maggard (1978) found that mothers of athletes had slightly more favorable attitudes toward interscholastic athletics than the fathers of athletes. Although the differences were not significant, the present study found that mothers' attitudes toward youth sport competition were more favorable than fathers' attitudes and also that parent attitudes for female participants were more favorable than parent attitudes for male participants. This lends credence to Malumphy's (1970) study which reported that family support may be more essential for female athletes than male athletes since such support is a major factor in females continuing to participate in sport activities. Certainly a child's father has been an important factor in a child's sport involvement, but it appears that mother's attitude toward sport values and participation has also been of importance. The role change of the American female may have been influenced by litigation allowing girls to participate in Little League baseball (Dworkin, 1974; Say it ain't, 1974) and pursue other sport involvement, implementation of Title IX guidelines, and media coverage of female athletes as role models. This change in attitudes by females and about female participation in sports may have influenced the findings indicated by the analysis of variance of the present study.

The results of the present study indicated that the sport of the child participant was a significant variable as it related to parental attitude scores. Although no specific research was found on parental attitudes toward various sports the following studies touched on this facet of attitude. Lynn, Phelan, & Kiker (1969) and Lakie (1962) found that personality and psychological differences of athletes may depend on whether the athletic competition was team or individual. Snyder and Spreitzer (1976) found that mothers were less likely to provide encouragement for their daughters participating in basketball in contrast to their participation in gymnastics and track. The present study found a significant difference in the attitudes of parents of swimming participants and parents of baseball participants. However, there were very little differences in the mean attitudes of mothers toward their daughters' participation in basketball, baseball, and swimming. The differences between sport in this study may be the result of the unique characteristics of each sport, the manner in which the various programs are conducted, the emphasis placed upon the program, and/or the leadership of the program.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this research was to discover whether differences existed in the attitudes of the parents of youth sport participants toward intensive competition in youth sports. The sports of basketball, baseball, and swimming were utilized. The subjects, selected by random sampling, were 288 parents of youth sport participants in the Harrisonburg and Staunton, Virginia area youth sport programs. The parents which responded were related to 144 boys and 144 girls. The sample was composed of 123 fathers and 165 mothers. Parents of basketball participants who responded numbered 95, baseball parent respondents numbered 92, and swimming parent respondents numbered 101. The sampling of the parents was conducted with the permission and cooperation of the local youth sport program directors.

The subjects' attitudes were measured by a Likert-type attitude scale which was an adaption of Cobb's (1971) adaption of Scott (1953) for use in this study. Descriptive data of the parents and children 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 according to: (a) the sex of the child, (b) the relationship of the parent to the child, and (c) the sport of the child. Analysis of variance procedures for both

raw and factor scores were used to analyze these three main effects. The comparisons resulted in the finding of some differences in the attitudes of the parents.

After a significant F was found in the analysis of variance of factor scores for the sports, Fisher's Protected Least Significant Difference multiple comparisons procedure was utilized to discover which sports were significantly different.

Results

The analysis of the collected data provided the following results which were used to answer the five questions posed by the study.

Question One: Do the parents of male participants have different attitudes toward youth sport competition than parents of female participants?

The analysis of the parents' attitude scores, when comparisons were based on sex of the child, showed that no significant statistical differences existed between the parents of male participants and the parents of female participants.

Question Two: Do fathers of youth sport participants have different attitudes toward youth sport competition than the mothers of youth sport participants?

When the attitude scores of fathers and mothers of participants were compared and analyzed it was found that, although there were slight differences in the mean scores of the two groups, those differences were not statistically significant. Contrary to popular belief, the mothers of youth sport participants had a higher mean attitude score than the fathers of youth sport participants.

Question Three: Do the fathers of male participants have different attitudes toward youth sport competition than the mothers of male participants?

Mothers of male participants had a more favorable mean attitude score than the fathers of male participants, but the difference between the scores was not statistically significant.

Question Four: Do the fathers of female participants have different attitudes toward youth sport competition than the mothers of female participants?

The difference in the mean scores of these two groups was virtually nonexistent. Therefore, there were no statistically significant differences.

Question Five: Are there differences in parental attitudes toward youth sport competition in the different sport activities of basketball, baseball, and swimming?

Although there were differences in the raw mean attitude scores of the three sports, the analysis of variance indicated no statistical significance. However, when factor scores were analyzed, a significant difference was found to exist. Using a multiple comparison procedure, the attitudes of parents of baseball participants and the attitudes of parents of swimming participants were found to be statistically different. The parents of swimming participants had statistically more favorable attitudes toward youth sport competition than parents of baseball participants. Parents of swimming participants had slightly more favorable attitudes toward youth sport competition than parents of basketball

participants, whereas the parents of basketball participants had more favorable attitudes toward youth sport competition than parents of baseball participants. Neither of these two differences were statistically significant.

Conclusions

Within the limits of this study the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Parents of youth sport participants generally possess favorable attitudes toward youth sport competition for the three sports studied.
2. Parents of youth swimming participants hold more favorable attitudes toward youth sport competition than the parents of baseball participants.
3. Neither the sex of the child nor the relationship of the parent to the child effect the attitudes of parents toward youth sport competition.

Recommendations

The results of the present study which found that parents of swimming participants had more favorable attitudes toward competition than parents of baseball participants answered a question of the present study, but also created a new question. Was this difference due to the unique and inherent characteristics of the sports studied or some other factor? The present study has shown a difference does exist, but it will be the focus of future studies to determine what characteristics of specific sports cause parents to view some sports more favorably than others.

Another area of investigation could be the comparison of the attitudes of the youth sport participants with the attitudes of their parents. Orlick and Botterill (1975) have done some initial research in this area, but further investigation may determine if parents are aware of their child's feelings and experiences which result from youth sports. This type of investigation may also lend insight as to which parent, like-sex or opposite-sex, does indeed influence the sport interest and involvement of the child or whether it is a combination of the parents influence.

A longitudinal research study that compared childrens' and parents' attitudes toward sport competition as the child moves through youth sports leagues, junior high school athletics, senior high school athletics, and college athletics may prove interesting. Such a study might investigate if attitudes change at various age levels and whether or not the success or failure of the child at the different levels of competition influence parental attitudes.

Another area of investigation might involve the attitudes toward sports of coaches, parents, professional athletes, and young athletes themselves. Some people feel that the coach is a very significant factor in the development of the child's attitude and continued interest and participation in sport. Professional athletes' attitudes toward youth sports, their experiences as young athletes, and changes they would like to see in present youth sport programs could provide interesting information. Parents may listen more intently to the ideas of professional athletes rather than the advice of educators and physicians.

The educators and physicians have long pointed out problems in youth sports and thus may have disenchanted parents who were enthusiastic about sport.

Attitude comparisons could be made between parents and young participants who are involved in upper level national competition and parents and young athletes who did not advance beyond local competition. Such a study might provide knowledge as to whether parents of highly skilled athletes have different attitudes than parents of average or low skilled children.

Comparison of parents and childrens' attitudes toward participation in established youth sport programs, such as Little League and Pop Warner, with parents and childrens' attitudes toward participation in leagues which further modify rules and equipment to make the game more enjoyable and success-oriented would also be an interesting comparison. Children have indicated that they would like sports scaled down to their level and have made suggestions to improve their experiences in youth games and sports (Orlick & Botterill, 1975).

Future research studies should continue to investigate the changing sex roles and their influences with regard to sports involvement and interests.

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APPENDIX A

Judges Evaluations of
Attitude Statements

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE PANEL OF JUDGES.

The following statements are items for an attitude scale that will attempt to measure parents' attitudes toward youth sport competition. Please read each statement and indicate in the appropriate space whether you feel the statement is a positive or negative statement regarding youth sport competition. Sincere thanks for your time and effort.

ATTITUDE SCALE FOR YOUTH SPORT COMPETITION

Pos. Neg.

- | | | |
|-------|-------|---|
| _____ | _____ | 1. Participation in youth sport competition gives most children a sense of good sportsmanship. |
| _____ | _____ | 2. Participation in youth sport competition trains children to become better players for the high school interscholastic program. |
| _____ | _____ | 3. Participation in youth sport competition develops physical fitness in most children. |
| _____ | _____ | 4. Athletic competition in youth sport leagues presents no greater danger of accidents than other phases of daily living. |
| _____ | _____ | 5. Most participants in youth sport competition are happier and better adjusted than nonparticipants. |
| _____ | _____ | 6. Youth sport competition encourages better performance from all children because everyone wants to "make the team." |
| _____ | _____ | 7. After children have participated in youth sport competition they are more likely to want to participate in sports for the rest of their lives. |
| _____ | _____ | 8. Participation in youth sport competition teaches most children to get along with people in the game situation and in many other aspects of life. |
| _____ | _____ | 9. Winning and losing while participating in youth sport competition helps to prepare most children for the competition they meet in daily living. |

Pos. Neg.

- | | | |
|-------|-------|---|
| _____ | _____ | 10. Youth sport competition is an illustration of the tendency to force children into adult patterns of behavior without concern for their emotional or physical development. |
| _____ | _____ | 11. The experience of participating in youth sport competition develops many children as leaders. |
| _____ | _____ | 12. Youth sport competition is exploitation of children for the satisfaction of the adult audience. |
| _____ | _____ | 13. The excitement of the spectators is an emotional strain for many of the participants in youth sport competition. |
| _____ | _____ | 14. The skilled child needs youth sport competition in order to stimulate and develop physical skill further. |
| _____ | _____ | 15. Some coaches will take the chance of playing a child without knowing the child's health status. |
| _____ | _____ | 16. Participation in youth sport competition gives most children an enjoyment of participating in activity. |
| _____ | _____ | 17. Youth sport participants tend to value accomplishment only if it is recognized publicly with prizes and similar awards. |
| _____ | _____ | 18. Youth sport competition promotes a desire for greater athletic skill in younger boys and girls who admire well-known players. |
| _____ | _____ | 19. Youth sport competition seldom equips a child with recreation skills for later life. |
| _____ | _____ | 20. Most highly skilled children get more fun from youth sport competition than any other type of physical activity. |

Pos. Neg.

- ___ ___ 21. Youth sport competition stimulates most children to give their best possible performance.
- ___ ___ 22. Participation in youth sport competition often causes children to lose interest or "burn out" emotionally toward later sport participation.
- ___ ___ 23. Youth sport competition enables most children to work off emotional tension.
- ___ ___ 24. Youth sport competition teaches most children to win without boasting in public.
- ___ ___ 25. Youth sport competition gives many children a feeling of inferiority if beaten often.

Table 9
Judges' Evaluations of Statements

#	pos.	neg.	#	pos.	neg.
1	5	0	14	5	0
2	4	1	15	0	5
3	5	0	16	5	0
4	5	0	17	0	5
5	5	0	18	5	0
6	5	0	19	0	5
7	5	0	20	4	1
8	5	0	21	5	0
9	5	0	22	0	5
10	0	5	23	5	0
11	5	0	24	5	0
12	0	5	25	0	5
13	0	5			

APPENDIX B

Reliability of the Scale

Table 10
Raw Scores of Test-Retest Group

Subjects	T1	T2
1	85	92
2	60	60
3	103	95
4	85	85
5	92	88
6	86	85
7	81	76
8	91	89
9	91	95
10	85	91
11	90	92
12	106	97
13	85	99
14	102	98
15	92	93
16	104	100
17	101	92
18	80	90
19	92	95
20	95	92

Table 10 (Continued)

Subjects	T1	T2
21	103	101
22	96	94
23	84	85
24	89	87
25	88	86

APPENDIX C

Attitude Scale For Youth Sport Competition
and Background Information

ATTITUDE SCALE FOR YOUTH SPORT COMPETITION*

Youth Sport Competition, for the purpose of this study, will be defined as: A program which follows a regular schedule of games between teams in the surrounding area which culminate in championship play-offs. There are no correct or incorrect answers and all answers will remain confidential. Please indicate your own opinion by placing a check (✓) in the appropriate column. Please respond to all statements and check only one answer per statement.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NO OPINION	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1. Participation in youth sport competition gives most children a sense of good sportsmanship.	---	---	---	---	---
2. Participation in youth sport competition trains children to become better players for the high school interscholastic program.	---	---	---	---	---
3. Participation in youth sport competition develops physical fitness in most children.	---	---	---	---	---
4. Athletic competition in youth sport leagues presents no greater danger of accidents than other phases of daily living.	---	---	---	---	---
5. Most participants in youth sport competition are happier and better adjusted than non-participants.	---	---	---	---	---
6. Youth sport competition encourages better performance from all children because everyone wants to "make the team."	---	---	---	---	---
7. After children have participated in youth sport competition they are more likely to want to participate in sports for the rest of their lives.	---	---	---	---	---

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NO OPINION	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
8. Participation in youth sport competition teaches most children to get along with people in the game situation and in many other aspects of life.	---	---	---	---	---
9. Winning and losing while participating in youth sport competition helps to prepare most children for the competition they meet in daily living.	---	---	---	---	---
10. Youth sport competition is an illustration of the tendency to force children into adult patterns of behavior without concern for their emotional or physical development.	---	---	---	---	---
11. The experience of participating in youth sport competition develops many children as leaders.	---	---	---	---	---
12. Youth sport competition is exploitation of children for the satisfaction of the adult audience.	---	---	---	---	---
13. The excitement of the spectators is an emotional strain for many of the participants in youth sport competition.	---	---	---	---	---
14. The skilled child needs youth sport competition in order to stimulate and develop physical skill still further.	---	---	---	---	---
15. Some coaches will take the chance of playing a child without knowing the child's health status.	---	---	---	---	---
16. Participation in youth sport competition gives most children an enjoyment of participating in activity.	---	---	---	---	---
17. Youth sport participants tend to value accomplishment only if it is recognized publicly with prizes and similar awards.	---	---	---	---	---

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NO OPINION	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
18. Youth sport competition promotes a desire for greater athletic skill in younger boys and girls who admire well-known players.	—	—	—	—	—
19. Youth sport competition seldom equips a child with recreation skills for later life.	—	—	—	—	—
20. Most highly skilled children get more fun from youth sport competition than any other type of physical activity.	—	—	—	—	—
21. Youth sport competition stimulates most children to give their best possible performance.	—	—	—	—	—
22. Participation in youth sport competition often causes children to lose interest or "burn out" emotionally toward later sport participation.	—	—	—	—	—
23. Youth sport competition enables most children to work off emotional tension.	—	—	—	—	—
24. Youth sport competition teaches most children to win without boasting in public.	—	—	—	—	—
25. Youth sport competition gives many children a feeling of inferiority if beaten often.	—	—	—	—	—

*Adapted from Scott's Attitude Scale For Elementary School Athletic Competition

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please provide the following data. No name is required and all information will remain confidential. Please respond to the statements with your child, which meets the sex and age characteristics indicated below, in mind. Also keep in mind the sport your child is now competing in, which is also indicated below.

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Age</u>		<u>Sport</u>
<u>Male</u>	<u>Eight</u>	<u>Twelve</u>	<u>Soccer</u>
<u>Female</u>	<u>Nine</u>	<u>Thirteen</u>	<u>Basketball</u>
	<u>Ten</u>	<u>Fourteen</u>	<u>Swimming</u>
	<u>Eleven</u>		<u>Baseball</u>

GENERAL INFORMATION

Person filling out scale: Mother Father Other
 Occupation: _____
 Number of children in family: _____

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND OF PARENT

Name of high school attended: _____
 Name of college(s) or vocational schools attended:
 1. _____
 2. _____

ORGANIZED SPORTS BACKGROUND OF PARENT

Please indicate the age of participation and the sport programs you have participated in by placing a check (✓) in the appropriate row or column. You may have more than one check in a row or column.

	Pre- high school	High school	After high school
Varsity	___	___	___
Intramural	___	___	___
City recreation programs	___	___	___
Others	___	___	___
None	___	___	___

PRESENT PHYSICAL ACTIVITY

Do you participate in some type of physical activity now?
 If answer is "yes" please list activities:
 1. _____ 3. _____
 2. _____ 4. _____

APPENDIX D

Letter to Parents

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO PARENT

Dear Parent,

The recent increase in participation has led many parents, coaches, and professionals to question the desirability of our children participating in youth sport competition. Do these competitive situations have a positive or adverse effect on our children? In helping answer this question I am conducting an attitudinal study on competition in youth sport leagues.

I would greatly appreciate your completing the following attitude scale so as to obtain a valid response as to how parents associated with the Harrisonburg and Staunton Youth Leagues feel about competition for their children. IT IS VERY IMPORTANT THAT YOU COMPLETE THE SCALE WITHOUT CONSULTATION WITH ANYONE ELSE. You may compare answers with your husband/wife after completing the scale if you wish.

There are no correct or incorrect answers to these statements. I simply want your personal opinion about each statement. Please indicate your own opinion by placing a check (✓) in the appropriate column. Only check one answer per statement. All responses will remain confidential.

Please return the completed scale as soon as possible. A self-addressed stamped envelope is enclosed for your convenience. Thank you for your participation in this study. The results will be forwarded to the Harrisonburg and Staunton Youth Leagues for your information.

James H. Phillips
Dept. of Physical Education
James Madison University
Harrisonburg, Va. 22801
(703) 433-8616

APPENDIX E

Methods of Data Collection

FOLLOW-UP TELEPHONE CONVERSATION

Hello, may I speak to _____? My name is Jim Phillips, and I recently mailed you an attitude scale concerning your son/daughter (child's name) participation in the youth sport (specific sport) program. I am calling to see if you received the attitude scale and if I can answer any questions you may have. Thank you for your cooperation.

FOLLOW-UP POST CARD

Dear _____,

I recently mailed you an attitude scale concerning your son/daughter (child's name) participation in the youth sport (specific sport) program. If you did not receive this attitude scale or if you have any questions please call me at 433-8616. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Jim Phillips

APPENDIX F

Raw and Factor Scores
of Parents

Table 11
 Raw and Factor Scores of Parents of
 Male Basketball Participants

Subject ^a	Raw Score	Factor Score	Subject	Raw Score	Factor Score
1 (Mo)	105	8.266	21 (Mo)	123	18.576
2 (Mo)	86	0.262	22 (Mo)	84	-1.124
3 (Mo)	87	0.103	23 (Mo)	78	-4.077
4 (Mo)	89	1.315	24 (Mo)	91	1.407
5 (Mo)	76	-5.608	25 (Fa)	68	-11.487
6 (Mo)	89	0.945	26 (Fa)	100	6.235
7 (Mo)	95	3.232	27 (Fa)	102	8.792
8 (Mo)	83	-1.729	28 (Fa)	78	-5.235
9 (Mo)	90	0.887	29 (Fa)	89	1.226
10 (Mo)	87	-0.404	30 (Fa)	93	1.356
11 (Mo)	87	-0.866	31 (Fa)	106	9.870
12 (Mo)	90	2.562	32 (Fa)	88	1.829
13 (Mo)	99	4.841	33 (Fa)	92	2.400
14 (Mo)	65	-14.672	34 (Fa)	88	-0.557
15 (Mo)	75	-6.659	35 (Fa)	92	2.007
16 (Mo)	90	0.120	36 (Fa)	100	6.182
17 (Mo)	96	3.718	37 (Fa)	77	-8.165
18 (Mo)	90	1.317	38 (Fa)	76	-5.656
19 (Mo)	84	-1.284	39 (Fa)	97	4.773
20 (Mo)	90	0.655	40 (Fa)	74	-8.903

Table 11 (Continued)

Subject ^a	Raw Score	Factor Score	Subject	Raw Score	Factor Score
41 (Fa)	75	-8.352	44 (Fa)	100	6.151
42 (Fa)	97	4.343	45 (Fa)	55	-18.656
43 (Fa)	97	4.301			

^aLetters in parentheses indicate the relationship of the parent to the child, Mo=Mother and Fa=Father.

Table 12
 Raw and Factor Scores of Parents of
 Female Basketball Participants

Subject ^a	Raw Score	Factor Score	Subject	Raw Score	Factor Score
1 (Mo)	98	4.915	21 (Mo)	104	9.870
2 (Mo)	95	4.359	22 (Mo)	98	5.248
3 (Mo)	96	3.861	23 (Mo)	82	-3.576
4 (Mo)	98	5.647	24 (Mo)	93	2.766
5 (Mo)	92	2.383	25 (Mo)	103	6.961
6 (Mo)	76	-4.993	26 (Mo)	88	-1.003
7 (Mo)	98	4.884	27 (Fa)	79	-2.321
8 (Mo)	81	-4.279	28 (Fa)	103	6.766
9 (Mo)	91	2.229	29 (Fa)	97	4.796
10 (Mo)	76	-5.956	30 (Fa)	70	-9.978
11 (Mo)	72	-7.682	31 (Fa)	107	10.989
12 (Mo)	99	5.808	32 (Fa)	91	1.755
13 (Mo)	86	-0.981	33 (Fa)	100	7.467
14 (Mo)	67	-12.718	34 (Fa)	53	-20.509
15 (Mo)	87	-0.377	35 (Fa)	76	-5.830
16 (Mo)	80	-4.887	36 (Fa)	57	-17.087
17 (Mo)	93	2.722	37 (Fa)	84	-1.942
18 (Mo)	65	-13.109	38 (Fa)	77	-7.222
19 (Mo)	100	6.838	39 (Fa)	83	-4.799
20 (Mo)	75	-7.910	40 (Fa)	90	1.113

Table 12 (Continued)

Subject ^a	Raw Score	Factor Score	Subject	Raw Score	Factor Score
41 (Fa)	96	5.751	46 (Fa)	89	6.475
42 (Fa)	106	9.867	47 (Fa)	94	3.390
43 (Fa)	86	-2.097	48 (Fa)	92	2.079
44 (Fa)	100	5.518	49 (Fa)	91	2.882
45 (Fa)	83	-1.574	50 (fa)	89	-0.711

^aLetters in parentheses indicate the relationship of the parent to the child, Mo=Mother and Fa=Father.

Table 13
 Raw and Factor Scores of Parents of
 Male Swimming Participants

Subject ^a	Raw Score	Factor Score	Subject	Raw Score	Factor Score
1 (Mo)	78	-5.137	21 (Mo)	88	1.621
2 (Mo)	105	9.985	22 (Mo)	87	-0.031
3 (Mo)	84	-1.664	23 (Mo)	62	-14.456
4 (Mo)	89	0.887	24 (Mo)	82	-4.042
5 (Mo)	103	8.614	25 (Mo)	97	5.316
6 (Mo)	87	0.287	26 (Mo)	50	-22.971
7 (Mo)	83	-2.320	27 (Mo)	90	1.421
8 (Mo)	98	5.941	28 (Mo)	84	-1.264
9 (Mo)	90	1.243	29 (Mo)	82	-1.931
10 (Mo)	96	3.974	30 (Mo)	93	3.993
11 (Mo)	55	-18.790	31 (Fa)	102	6.485
12 (Mo)	100	5.518	32 (Fa)	100	7.031
13 (Mo)	92	4.724	33 (Fa)	87	1.027
14 (Mo)	99	5.630	34 (Fa)	96	5.907
15 (Mo)	81	-3.042	35 (Fa)	91	2.257
16 (Mo)	90	2.372	36 (Fa)	79	-4.210
17 (Mo)	103	8.641	37 (Fa)	103	9.682
18 (Mo)	77	-7.016	38 (Fa)	91	2.152
19 (Mo)	94	4.205	39 (Fa)	97	5.260
20 (Mo)	95	3.813	40 (Fa)	80	-3.431

Table 13 (Continued)

Subject ^a	Raw Score	Factor Score	Subject	Raw Score	Factor Score
41 (Fa)	90	1.133	46 (Fa)	83	-2.363
42 (Fa)	69	-12.400	47 (Fa)	51	-21.502
43 (Fa)	79	-4.355	48 (Fa)	84	-2.437
44 (Fa)	102	8.210	49 (Fa)	84	-1.264
45 (Fa)	86	-0.462	50 (Fa)	77	-5.196

^aLetters in parentheses indicate the relationship of the parent to the child, Mo=Mother and Fa=Father.

Table 14

Raw and Factor Scores of Parents of
Female Swimming Participants

Subject ^a	Raw Score	Factor Score	Subject	Raw Score	Factor Score
1 (Mo)	78	-4.069	21 (Mo)	95	2.852
2 (Mo)	86	1.062	22 (Mo)	89	1.820
3 (Mo)	98	5.844	23 (Mo)	91	1.307
4 (Mo)	93	2.973	24 (Mo)	116	14.324
5 (Mo)	89	-0.248	25 (Mo)	88	1.376
6 (Mo)	83	-2.586	26 (Mo)	101	6.541
7 (Mo)	82	-3.571	27 (Mo)	94	3.870
8 (Mo)	91	1.121	28 (Mo)	87	-0.202
9 (Mo)	89	1.269	29 (Mo)	78	-4.764
10 (Mo)	85	-1.464	30 (Mo)	85	-1.032
11 (Mo)	66	-9.459	31 (Mo)	80	-5.834
12 (Mo)	92	2.273	32 (Mo)	106	10.702
13 (Mo)	98	5.152	33 (Mo)	94	3.659
14 (Mo)	85	0.139	34 (Fa)	80	-4.558
15 (Mo)	85	-1.513	35 (Fa)	90	1.045
16 (Mo)	89	0.491	36 (Fa)	99	5.987
17 (Mo)	92	1.685	37 (Fa)	108	11.505
18 (Mo)	102	7.497	38 (Fa)	93	2.719
19 (Mo)	99	6.421	39 (Fa)	81	-2.548
20 (Mo)	83	-3.763	40 (Fa)	83	-3.050

Table 14 (Continued)

Subject ^a	Raw Score	Factor Score	Subject	Raw Score	Factor Score
41 (Fa)	79	-6.242	47 (Fa)	90	1.393
42 (Fa)	110	11.687	48 (Fa)	86	-0.285
43 (Fa)	103	7.707	49 (Fa)	99	5.564
44 (Fa)	95	3.467	50 (Fa)	111	13.056
45 (Fa)	108	11.516	51 (Fa)	81	-1.191
46 (Fa)	117	15.922			

^aLetters in parentheses indicate the relationship of the parent to the child, Mo=Mother and Fa=Father.

Table 15

Raw and Factor Scores of Parents of
Male Baseball Participants

Subject ^a	Raw Score	Factor Score	Subject	Raw Score	Factor Score
1 (Mo)	103	9.199	21 (Mo)	78	-6.508
2 (Mo)	90	1.490	22 (Mo)	66	-11.904
3 (Mo)	92	2.773	23 (Mo)	87	-0.431
4 (Mo)	82	-2.113	24 (Mo)	73	-8.164
5 (Mo)	85	-1.341	25 (Mo)	71	-9.710
6 (Mo)	103	10.005	26 (Mo)	79	-5.111
7 (Mo)	99	6.091	27 (Mo)	84	-1.757
8 (Mo)	101	8.503	28 (Mo)	85	-2.379
9 (Mo)	94	4.610	29 (Fa)	93	2.986
10 (Mo)	90	0.921	30 (Fa)	86	-0.924
11 (Mo)	91	0.858	31 (Fa)	102	9.713
12 (Mo)	81	-5.122	32 (Fa)	101	6.293
13 (Mo)	100	6.665	33 (Fa)	85	-1.598
14 (Mo)	87	-1.145	34 (Fa)	82	-3.238
15 (Mo)	105	9.977	35 (Fa)	94	3.919
16 (Mo)	73	-6.876	36 (Fa)	94	2.545
17 (Mo)	78	-5.991	37 (Fa)	79	-4.604
18 (Mo)	94	3.982	38 (Fa)	54	-20.531
19 (Mo)	73	-9.194	39 (Fa)	95	3.749
20 (Mo)	101	6.592	40 (Fa)	98	7.015

Table 15 (Continued)

Subject ^a	Raw Score	Factor Score	Subject	Raw Score	Factor Score
41 (Fa)	90	1.062	46 (Fa)	84	-1.371
42 (Fa)	72	-9.073	47 (Fa)	62	-15.760
43 (Fa)	97	6.537	48 (Fa)	78	-5.700
44 (Fa)	64	-14.523	49 (Fa)	68	-10.096
45 (Fa)	71	-11.228			

^aLetters in parentheses indicate the relationship of the parent to the child, Mo=Mother and Fa=Father.

Table 16

Raw and Factor Scores of Parents of
Female Baseball Participants

Subject ^a	Raw Score	Factor Score	Subject	Raw Score	Factor Score
1 (Mo)	79	-4.220	21 (Mo)	90	0.798
2 (Mo)	103	8.004	22 (Mo)	97	4.483
3 (Mo)	78	-4.790	23 (Mo)	100	5.518
4 (Mo)	92	1.840	24 (Mo)	101	7.156
5 (Mo)	84	-1.240	25 (Fa)	89	0.953
6 (Mo)	85	-0.377	26 (Fa)	90	1.156
7 (Mo)	94	3.710	27 (Fa)	93	2.792
8 (Mo)	85	-1.820	28 (Fa)	85	-1.566
9 (Mo)	88	1.650	29 (Fa)	85	-0.264
10 (Mo)	91	1.774	30 (Fa)	72	-10.122
11 (Mo)	81	-4.415	31 (Fa)	87	0.295
12 (Mo)	85	-2.066	32 (Fa)	91	1.527
13 (Mo)	76	-5.309	33 (Fa)	95	4.358
14 (Mo)	87	-0.294	34 (Fa)	87	-0.829
15 (Mo)	100	6.940	35 (Fa)	82	-3.472
16 (Mo)	88	1.016	36 (Fa)	73	-8.259
17 (Mo)	75	-7.789	37 (Fa)	64	-13.099
18 (Mo)	74	-8.168	38 (Fa)	75	-8.763
19 (Mo)	78	-5.194	39 (Fa)	59	-16.805
20 (Mo)	85	-1.368	40 (Fa)	97	5.749

Table 16 (Continued)

Subject ^a	Raw Score	Factor Score	Subject	Raw Score	Factor Score
41 (Fa)	89	0.996	43 (Fa)	88	-0.073
42 (Fa)	104	9.224			

^aLetters in parentheses indicate the relationship of the parent to the child, Mo=Mother and Fa=Father.

APPENDIX G**Factor Pattern of Attitude
Scale Items**

Table 17
Factor Pattern of Attitude
Scale Items

Item No.	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
1	.588	-.140	.180	-.430	.134	-.005
2	.524	-.226	-.297	-.015	.139	-.239
3	.594	-.127	-.328	-.291	.020	-.275
4	.402	.105	.110	.097	.044	.561
5	.549	-.194	.398	.153	-.132	-.219
6	.492	-.250	.265	.048	-.128	-.304
7	.558	-.248	-.029	.255	.322	-.276
8	.670	-.110	.156	-.319	-.190	.009
9	.638	-.127	.185	-.306	-.030	.268
10	.584	.444	-.280	-.004	-.192	-.013
11	.556	-.357	-.017	.127	-.154	.011
12	.526	.511	-.352	.162	-.079	.118
13	.454	.492	.251	.090	.007	-.135
14	.478	-.319	-.170	.313	-.285	.027
15	.341	.339	.205	.069	-.285	.217
16	.598	-.089	-.205	-.119	.003	.158
17	.398	.343	.091	-.051	.462	.113
18	.346	-.345	-.200	.193	.517	.281
19	.541	.290	-.396	-.091	-.167	-.165
20	.219	-.238	.039	.685	-.109	.092

Table 17 (Continued)

Item No.	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
21	.602	-.211	-.037	-.081	.176	.165
22	.537	.417	-.055	.195	.174	-.184
23	.532	-.102	-.085	.030	-.227	.210
24	.558	.003	.468	-.033	-.015	-.003
25	.295	.436	.328	.194	.236	.172