

ABSTRACT

DIAZ, STEPHANIE MARY CEROW. The Effects of High School Soccer Competitive Team Selection on Athletic Identity, Expectations for Success and Subjective Task Value. (Under the direction of Judy C. Peel).

The purpose of this research was to examine the relationship between athletic identity and two variables from the expectancy-value theory, expectations for success and subjective task value, in the context of high school soccer competitive team selection. The quantitative research design integrated historical and emerging theoretical perspectives on identity development in an effort to add insight to the relationships between the theoretical perspectives. The quasi-experimental research design included the self-administration of paper and pencil questionnaires on three occasions over the course of approximately four weeks. Males and females competing for selection to their high school soccer teams in Central Florida comprised the study sample. Significant positive correlations were found between participants' athletic identity, expectations for success and subjective task value throughout competitive team selection. Participants' athletic identity remained relatively stable over time; yet, significant increases in expectations for success and significant decreases for subjective task value were detected. Additional findings were: the varsity's athletic identity and expectations for success were significantly higher than junior varsity and not selected groups; the female junior-varsity's subjective task value was significantly lower than female-varsity and male-junior varsity groups; seniors reported higher expectations for success than freshmen; the upper division reported higher expectations for success than the lower division, whereas, the lower division reported higher subjective task value than the

upper division. In consideration of the study's limitations, recommendations for the field and for future research are provided. The findings provide a basis to forge an empirical connection between the construct of athletic identity and the expectancy-value theory model of achievement-related behavior in a sports domain. Moreover, the lack of significant gender differences may indicate that socially supportive environments may foster female athleticism, including confirmation of athletic identity and sport-related expectations for success.

The Effects of High School Soccer Competitive Team Selection on Athletic Identity,
Expectations for Success and Subjective Task Value

by
Stephanie M. Cerow Diaz

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
North Carolina State University
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management

Raleigh, North Carolina

2008

APPROVED BY:

Robert W. Wade

Heidi L. Grappendorf

Judy C. Peel
Chair of Advisory Committee

Amy G. Halberstadt

DEDICATION

To my husband, Manny A. Diaz, II, and our boys, Colin M., Gavin M. & Manny A. III.

To my parents, Richard and Liz, Eddie and Joan, and my brother, Michael.

To all of my coaches and teammates, players and their parents.

BIOGRAPHY

Stephanie Mary Cerow was born February 3rd, 1973 in Rockville Centre, New York. Raised in sunny Florida, her affection for sports was apparent at an early age. In 1995, Stephanie obtained her Bachelors of Science from the College of Business and in 2000 added her Masters of Science from the College of Education at The Florida State University. Stephanie worked as a special events and catering coordinator prior to graduate school. While in graduate school, she worked for the prestigious FSU Alumni Association as a program coordinator and for FSU Athletics as a senior accountant. After graduation, Stephanie worked for several years as a teacher, athletic director and coach for a private Catholic school in Durham, North Carolina. She was awarded the April Heinrich's Nike-U.S. Soccer Scholarship for her work in promoting youth soccer for girls. It was her experience as a coach and athletic director that prompted Stephanie to pursue her Ph.D. in Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management at North Carolina State University in Raleigh. While working to complete her degree, she has worked as a faculty member for both the NCSU PRTM Department and Middle Tennessee State University's Health and Human Performance Department. She has participated in a variety of capacities on grant funded programs including the National Football League and National Recreation and Park Association's Fun First! Initiative and the Professional Golf Association's Golf for Business and Life program. Stephanie obtained her U.S. Soccer National Youth Certificate and is presently coaching for the Murfreesboro Soccer Club. Currently, she serves as the Assistant

Director for The Center for Sport Policy and Research (CSPR) and assists local sports organizations with grant writing and development initiatives.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank God and his son, Jesus Christ, for their grace and patience. For all that has been given, withheld, withdrawn, permitted, prevented, forgiven, and prepared; for the direction and purpose provided in my life; and for the love and service I may return for my many blessings. Thank you.

I am humbled by the incredible amount of people that have helped to make this audacious dream a reality. To my committee chair, advisor and mentor, Judy Peel: you truly represent prayers answered. I could not have finished this without you, your willingness to believe in me, and your commitment to seeing us succeed. You have taught me the importance of collegiality, cooperative effort, character, patience, persistence and perseverance. Thank you Dr. Peel!

To my committee members, Heidi Grappendorf, Robb Wade and Amy Halberstadt, for seeing me through to the end. Your support and guidance has been extraordinary. Dr. Halberstadt, I especially want to thank you for your role in my graduate studies. You will never know the extent that you have positively impacted my education personally and professionally. To Beth Wilson, whose professionalism and leadership throughout my graduate studies has provided me with a trusted and respected role model to endeavor to live up to. To Colby Jubenville for believing in me and providing me a place to exercise my knowledge and continue my pursuit of understanding sport and its role in life. To Missy Brock for picking me up when I didn't know where up was; you are truly a special person.

To my fellow graduate students (now all Ph.D.'s) for their advice, humor, and acceptance: David Cardenas, Brian and Jerusha Greenwood, Mike Naber, and Barbi Honeycutt.

To the many professors that have inspired my studies and provided me with opportunities to exercise my opinions and analyze my positions, and for the knowledge and insight that I have gained as a result of our rich discussions: Dr. Burton, Dr. Attarian, Dr. Dannels, Dr. DeCuir-Gunby, Dr. Wellman, Dr. Goode, Dr. Cunningham, Dr. Crow, Dr. Von Diether, Dr. Doyle, and Dr. Thompson.

To the staff across NCSU's campus for their professionalism and promotion of higher education: Erica Cutchins, Debra Hurst, Anju Singh, Debra Paxton, Joanne Urbanski, Karen Ciccone, Mimi Riggs and Marihelen Stringham; To the girls on my soccer, volleyball and basketball teams for teaching me about what is important in youth sports! To my (American) football family for their encouragement and prayers over the years: the NCSU and MTSU coaches, wives, and the players; and to my assistants for their support during this project: Allison Reynolds and Mike Riazzi; Melissa Johnson and Mike Gaudy; Kevin Glines and Tom Armstrong.

To my family and close friends for their prayers, encouragement, and support throughout my struggle toward completion – this is for you all: the Cerow, Berrios, Diaz, Gaudy, Knap, Johnston, Kelleher, Mann, Springer, Smith, Gates, Hofbauer, Mangus, Sales, Stockstill, Watts, and Coll Families - Godspeed you all!

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

High school sports have a significant presence in the discretionary activity choices of youth in the U.S. In fact, participation in high school sports has increased for the 18th consecutive year (NFHS, 2008). According to the National Federation of State High School Associations' annual athletics participation survey, overall participation reached 7.3 million students, representing 54.2 % of all enrolled high school students (NFHS, 2008). In many cases, high schools employ rigorous competitive team selection processes to select sport participants for various levels of play. Whereas one purpose of these tryouts is providing students with access to sport participation, some suggest that high school sports may not actually be equally open to all (Guest & Schneider, 2003; McEwin & Dickinson, 1996; Videon, 2002). Nevertheless, participation in high school sports may provide adolescents with enhanced opportunities for positive developmental outcomes and the competitive team selection process itself may serve as a catalyst for greater examination of one's identity.

Scholars and youth policy advocates support high school athletic programs for their potential to serve youth as productive and constructive use of discretionary time and for promotion of positive developmental outcomes (Fredricks & Eccles, 2006). Specifically, sports can provide adolescents with opportunities to exercise their emerging identities through exploration of social networking and engagement in behaviors that may ultimately influence their life course (Eccles, Templeton, Barber, & Stone, 2003). Therefore, emerging athletic identities may provide salient sources of referent information (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993) from which adolescents may shape future educational and occupational goals

(Eccles, Templeton et al., 2003; Wigfield & Wagner, 2005). For example, Eccles and Barber's (1999) research indicated that activity-based identities, *jocks* and *princesses*, provide youth with social scripts that are representative of school and community values. These social scripts serve to manage and modify the behavior associated with adolescents' different roles. Role identities have important implications for developing competencies and motivation (Wigfield & Wagner, 2005), as well as having a lasting effect on future endeavors (Eccles and Barber, 1999; Wigfield & Wagner, 2005).

Historically, sport participation research has focused on determining positive versus negative outcomes relating to participation or non-participation in sport (Barber, Stone, Hunt, & Eccles, 2005; Eccles, Barber, Stone, & Hunt, 2003; Mahoney, Harris, & Eccles, 2006). Generally, this line of research has promoted sport participation as offering a variety of benefits (Marsh, 1993; Seefeldt & Ewing, 1997) that may be promotive and protective in nature, such as peer group affiliation, school connectedness, and academic achievement (Barnett, 2006; Broh, 2002; Eccles, Barber et al., 2003; Fredricks & Eccles, 2006; Hansen, Larson, & Dworkin, 2003; Marsh, 1993; Marsh & Kleitman, 2003; Videon, 2002). However, a variety of risk factors were also found to be associated with sport participation, including the promotion and encouragement of participants in delinquent behavior (Barber et al., 2005; Hansen, et al., 2003; Miller, Melnick, Farrell, Sabo & Barnes, 2006) and concerns for burnout and injury as a result of developmentally inappropriate misuse or overuse (Anderson, 2003; Kontos & Malina, 2003; Seefeldt & Ewing, 1997).

Recently, scholars have shifted research orientations focusing on the outcomes of non- vs. participation toward those focusing on determining developmental outcomes derived from participation (Eccles, 2005b; Mahoney, Larson, Eccles, & Lord, 2005; Roth, 2006). Specifically, researchers are seeking to determine whether a variety of discretionary activities enhance participant development of age-appropriate tasks (Mahoney et al., 2005). Adolescent developmental tasks, according to Eccles, Templeton et al. (2003), were organized from physical, psychological, and social domains and categorized into intellectual, psychological and social assets (see Appendix A for complete list). Originally derived from Erikson's (1968) theory of adolescent identity development, the assets were refined from literature examining issues of well-being for youth during adolescence and emerging adulthood. Some examples include having a "strong sense of being connected to and valued by (one's) school," gaining "confidence in one's ability to accomplish goals," and achieving a "coherent and positive personal and social identity" (p.399). Eccles, Templeton et al. (2003) hypothesized that the greater the acquisition of these assets, the greater the potential for enhancing adolescent coping and functioning throughout adolescence, and optimizing successful transitioning to adulthood.

Due to its organization as a voluntary discretionary activity, sport participation may increase opportunities for acquiring developmental assets and for refining emerging adolescent identity. High school sports can promote greater expression and exploration of adolescent identity than required academic and possibly even non-academic activities (Barber, Stone, et al., 2005). Exploration of one's identity through sport participation may be

one of the most important elements, if not the most important element, that sport may offer youth (Barber, Stone, & Eccles, 2005; Barber, Stone, et al, 2005).

There are many recent efforts by scholars investigating adolescent sports participation and attainment of developmental assets in the literature (Barber, Stone, & Eccles, 2005; Barber, Stone, et al., 2005; Horn, 2004; Mahoney et al., 2005; Mahoney, Harris, & Eccles, 2006; Weiss & Raedeke, 2004; Weiss & Williams, 2004). Research findings report participation benefits include (a) academic and psychological adjustment (Fredericks & Eccles, 2006; Marsh & Kleitman, 2003), (b) positive postsecondary outcomes (Barber, Stone, & Eccles, 2005; Marsh & Kleitman, 2003), (c) reduced risk for considering suicide (Sabo, Miller, Melnick, Farrell, & Barnes, 2005), (d) greater identification with one's school (Barnett, 2006, in press; Fredericks & Eccles, 2005; Marsh, 1993; Marsh & Kleitman, 2003), (e) decreased depression (Fredericks & Eccles, 2005), (f) general well-being (Barber, Stone, & Eccles, 2005), and (g) development of salient identities (Barber, Stone, & Eccles, 2005; Dworkin, Larson, & Hansen, 2003; Fredericks & Eccles, 2006; Sabo et al., 2005; Shaw, Kleiber, & Caldwell, 1995).

The acquisition of developmental assets, such as positive identity development, through sport participation should be a paramount objective for athletic programs (Barber, Stone, et al., 2005). By choosing to participate in sports, adolescents actively engage in identity exploration and affirmation (Barber et al., 2005), a condition that Erikson (1968) claimed to be critical in promoting positive identity development. Barber, Stone et al. (2005) posited that sport participation may promote positive development through two mechanisms:

identity pursuit and affirmation, and peer group norm-sharing. Through participation in (high school) sports one's identity may be validated, confirming and supporting self-concept, and thereby promoting psychological well-being and attachment (to the school). Conversely, when sport participation opportunities are lacking or deficient, identity exploration and affirmation remain errant, and opportunities for social networking may also be lost (Barber, Eccles, & Stone, 2001; Barber, Stone et al., 2005).

Although high school athletic programs are choice-driven, not all team and individual sports are organized as equally open to participants (McNeal, 1998). More often than not, the greater the competitive prowess of a team or athletic program, the more exclusive it is; thereby reducing or limiting participation opportunities and the likelihood of deriving developmental benefits through sports. Some high school sports, likely due to supply-demand and funding issues, are constructed as competitive, selective, and in some instances, highly exclusive (Barnett, 2006; in press). Gaining access to organized team sports is generally achieved through participation in a competitive team selection process, whereby aspiring athletes are measured through talent evaluation or identification protocol. In some cases adolescents may eliminate themselves because of the competitive team selection process, while others may pursue it due to perceptions of exclusivity.

Whereas discretionary sports participation promotes self-assessment of talents, values and interests (Muuss, 1996), the definitive nature of the competitive team selection process may intensify this effect. Adolescents will incorporate feedback from a variety of sources regarding their performance, skills, abilities and expectancies, and interpretations of the

competitive team selection experience, to formulate self-perceptions and shape their self-concept. These interpretations and perceptions may be influential in determining their future behavior (Eccles et al., 1983).

The expectancy-value theory model provides a framework for understanding differences in achievement-related behavior. Specifically, adolescents' perceptions of ability, expectations for success, and subjective task value have been determined as highly influential in directing behavior choices (Eccles, Adler, Futterman, Goff, Kaczala, Meece et al., 1983). In essence, adolescents' decisions to compete for sport selection is directly contingent upon their self-concept of ability, value of participation, and reasonable expectations for success. Although research utilizing expectancy-value theory has largely been rooted in academic domains (Eccles, Wigfield, & Schiefele, 1998), it has met success in sport and physical activity domains (Deeter, 1989, 1990, Eccles & Harold, 1991, Papaioannou & Theodorakis, 1996, & Stephens, 1998, as cited in Weiss & Ferrer-Caja, 2002), provides an appealing construct to examine sport related behavior due to its consideration of developmental context (Eccles & Harold, 1991; Weiss & Ferrer-Caja, 2002), and the opportunity to extend the model and define its relationship with other constructs remains wide open (Weiss & Williams, 2004).

Examining identity issues in the context of competitive team selection within the framework of expectancy-value theory would be well matched with Brewer's (1991) athletic identity construct. Derived from the multidimensional model of self-concept (Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976), athletic identity is defined as the strength and exclusivity

associated with one's role as an athlete (Brewer, 1991). The more salient the athletic domain, the greater its influence on an individual's global self-concept (Harter, 1999). For many adolescents, high school sports is a highly salient domain and may be a central, if not the central source for self-worth, self-definition (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993), and behavior referent information across time and social context (Stryker & Serpe, 1982).

Participation in sport competitive team selection may provide a significant challenge for adolescents navigating the path toward identity development, particularly when experiences prompt changes in self-perceptions of ability, expectancies and task value, such as selection or elimination from sport. Deriving the benefits of having an athletic identity remain contingent upon sustained sport participation; yet the risks, such as role engulfment, identity conflict, and transitioning issues (Adler & Adler, 1991; Murphy, Petitpas, & Brewer, 1996; Tasiemski, Kennedy, Gardner, & Blaikley, 2004), may be exacerbated by the competitive team selection process and its outcomes.

Barber, Stone et al. (2005) proposed that a "synergistic system" connecting (adolescents') "activity involvement with identity exploration and peer group composition" (p.186) may enhance positive developmental outcomes when a synthesis of activity participation, identity adoption, and peer connectedness exists. Examination of participation in sport competitive team selection process may yield useful information regarding acquisition of adolescent developmental assets, such as the exploration, confirmation or disconfirmation of (athletic) identity.

Significance of the Research

Eccles and Harold (1991) described the expectancy-value theory model as being amenable to sport and physical activities; particularly because the predictive component relies heavily on individual choice and adolescents' differences in beliefs, self-perceptions, and social experiences. Sport is rooted in competitive and achievement oriented behavior with outcomes that heavily reflect on their participants. Investigating achievement-related behavior as it relates to identity development within the scope of well-being is essential for understanding the contribution that sports may have in the total development of adolescents.

In light of the importance placed on the acquisition of intellectual, psychological, and social assets, for successful coping and transitioning during and after adolescence, it would be advantageous to explore the competitive team selection process further. The systematic screening of aspirant athletic participants dictates who is provided developmental opportunities through sport. Consequently, a greater examination of the competitive team selection process and its influence on athletic identity, expectation for success, and subjective task value is warranted.

The Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS) has been the most widely used instrument for measuring athletic identity (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001); however, the potential contribution it may provide for the examination of emerging adolescent identities has been limited in the literature (Grove et al., 2004; Ryska, 2002). Investigating adolescent athletic identity, a subdomain of the multidimensional model of self-concept (Shavelson et al., 1976), may provide insight into the construction, confirmation or destruction of domain-

specific identity, specifically one's athletic-domain self-concept. Furthermore, this line of research could highlight potential positive and negative consequences associated with an athletic identity. In consideration of the potential influence that athletic identity may have on achievement-related behavior (i.e. performance, expectations for success, and subjective task value) and total development (i.e. identity development and sport-related asset acquisition), it is necessary to further analyze processes relating to athletes' formulations of self-perceptions; particularly when domain self-perceptions are salient and may be of great consequence to physical health and psychological development of the individual.

Competitive team selection processes are, by design, utilized to evaluate and identify talent, resulting in the selection, placement, or elimination of participants. The literature abounds with positive outcomes associated with participation (Barber et al., 2005; Eccles & Barber, 1999; Mahoney et al., 2006) and research has long pointed out the implications of negative effects for those eliminated from participation (Lipsyte, 1979; McEwin & Dickinson, 1996; McEwin & Dickinson, 1997), but few efforts have been made to document them (Barnett, 2006) and the outcomes for participants remains ambiguous (Grove, Fish, Eklund, 2004). Competitive team selection processes may prompt adolescents to disengage, decrease school connectedness, promote role confusion, decrease athletic identity and overall self-concept; and may inhibit healthy physical maturation and positive psychological identity development. There is little understanding of the effects of the actual process itself on the emerging identities of adolescents. Since competitive team selection processes are so prevalent in organized sports, it would be beneficial for coaches, athletic administrators,

parents, and participants to gain insight regarding the implications of this practice on athletic identity. This enhanced insight would enable stakeholders to consider policy revisions with consideration of the needs of adolescent athletes in mind.

Research Purpose

High school sports participation provides adolescents with opportunities for exercising their emerging identities and promotes evaluation of one's skills, talents, values, interests and social position (Erikson, 1968; 1970; Barber et al., 2005). Empirical studies examining participation in organized discretionary activities have provided consistent and strong evidence of a positive link between participation and developmental outcomes (Mahoney et al., 2006). One aspect of high school sport participation that has been largely overlooked in the literature is the competitive team selection process, and its role in influencing adolescent athletic identity. Therefore, the purpose of this research was to examine the relationship between athletic identity and two variables from expectancy-value theory, expectations for success and subjective task value, in the context of high school soccer competitive team selection. The quantitative research design integrates historical and emerging theoretical perspectives on identity development in an effort to critically examine the phenomena linking high school sport participation to adolescent athletic identity development. The research questions guiding this study and the answers thereto will provide greater insight into the interrelatedness and interdependency of adolescents' emerging identities and their participation in high school sport competitive team selection procedures.

Research Questions

Deductive research orientations are typically associated with positivist and quantitative approaches and test existing theory on the basis of research questions generated by the investigator (Gratton & Jones, 2004). The use of research questions provided this study with a framework that focused and guided the investigation. The predictive nature of the expectancy-value theory model allowed for the testing of several research questions relating to the context of high school sports participation. Participants completed the paper and pencil self-administered questionnaires three times over the course of four weeks. Overall, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between athletic identity and two variables of the expectancy-value theory, expectations for success and subjective task value, in the context of high school soccer competitive team selection. Critical examination of this topic was conducted with the following research questions (RQ):

RQ1: What relationship exists between athletic identity, expectation for success, and subjective task value before, during and after high school soccer competitive team selection?

RQ2: Do athletic identity, expectations for success, and subjective task value vary significantly according to high school soccer competitive team selection outcomes?

RQ3: Do athletic identity, expectations for success, and subjective task value vary significantly according to high school soccer competitive team selection participants' gender?

RQ4: Do athletic identity, expectations for success, and subjective task value vary significantly according to high school soccer competitive team selection participants' year or division in school?

Insight gained from the examination of these research questions will provide future researchers investigating related topics in sport and physical activity domains with a greater awareness of the potential relationships between these constructs.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of clarification, the following definitions were used:

Adolescent. Youth at the age of puberty to around 18 (Erikson, 1968).

Athletic Identity. “The degree of importance, strength, and exclusivity attached to the athlete role that is maintained by the athlete and influenced by environment” (Cieslak, 2005; p.39).

Competitive Selection Process/Competitive Team Selection. The process by which individuals seek to participate in an activity through a tryout and evaluation period with the ultimate decision to allow them to participate is made by others (Barnett, 2006).

Deselection. Elimination from a competitive sport team as a result of being “cut” due to voluntary or involuntary conditions; whereby the athlete has prior experience participating in the sport on a team (Taylor & Ogilvie, 1994).

Expectations for Success. Self-perceptions of ability and likelihood of success related to a task or activity (Eccles, Wigfield, Schiefele, 1998).

Identity. "...with reference to parts of a self composed of the meanings that persons attach to the multiple roles they typically play in highly differentiated contemporary societies" (Stryker & Burke, 2000; p. 284).

Identity Salience. "The probability that an identity will be invoked across a variety of situations, or alternatively across persons in a given situation" (Stryker & Burke, 2000; p.286).

Non-selection. Elimination from a competitive sport team as a result of the competitive team selection process; whereby the athlete has never been a part of the sport team and being eliminated leaves them with no opportunity for participation (Munroe, Albinson, & Hall, 1999).

Selection. Successfully making a competitive sport team during the competitive team selection process.

Self-Concept. Self-descriptions rather than self-evaluation (Fox, 1998), it is "a person's self-perceptions formed through experience with and interpretations of his or her environment," (Shavelson et al., 1976; p. 411) and provides a framework akin to identity (Fox, 1998).

Social Identity. "The extent to which an individual perceives him/herself as an athlete from a social standpoint" (Ryska, 2002; p. 113).

Subjective Task Value. The value assigned to a specific task, as determined by *attainment value* (importance of doing well), *intrinsic/interest value* (enjoyment of the task),

utility value (usefulness of the task for future goals), and *perceived cost* (measure of what one gives up to engage in the task) (Eccles et al., 1998).

Talent Identification. The process of identifying current or prospective players' potential for future performance during a variety of free play, practice or game situations, or through formal tryouts or elite training camps. It may include a variety of measurements to assess "physical, physiological, psychological and sociological attributes as well as technical abilities, either alone or in combination" (Williams & Reilly, 2002, p. 658).

Summary

Adolescents' participation in high school sports, a discretionary choice activity for the majority of enrolled high school students, may provide increased opportunities for achieving developmental tasks associated with adolescence. Identity development may be considered the chief developmental task for the adolescent stage. While research has documented the potentially significant positive impact of sport participation on the developmental outcomes of adolescents, limited research has examined the effects of competitive team selection processes on emerging adolescent athletic identity. Additional research is needed to add insight into this issue. The expectancy-value theory provides a new and useful construct for examining changes in athletic identity due to its predictive component and the nature of sport participation as a discretionary choice activity.

A more extensive evaluation of the competitive team selection process must be undertaken to permit youth sport advocates to promote sport participation as enhancing positive developmental outcomes. Inclusion of the expectancy-value theory provides an

opportunity for connecting constructs which are inherently linked through achievement related behavior in sport: expectations for success, subjective task value and athletic identity in the context of competitive team selection.

A review of the relevant literature follows this chapter to provide a theoretical framework for identity development, high school sport, competitive team selection, athletic identity, and expectancy-value theory.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this research was to examine the relationship between the construct of athletic identity and two variables of expectancy-value theory, expectations for success and subjective task value, in the context of high school soccer competitive team selection. The popularity of high school sports is evidenced by annual increases in the number of adolescents choosing to participate in a wide variety of individual and team sports for their high school (NFHS, 2008). Proponents of high school sports provide empirical evidence attesting to the benefits accrued to students participating and competing for interscholastic athletic programs (NFHS, 2008; FHSAA, 2007). Independent empirical investigations led by scholars and educational policy-makers have also documented a myriad of benefits accruing to sport participants (Barber, Stone, & Eccles, 2005; Barber, Stone, Hunt, & Eccles, 2005; Duda & Ntoumanis, 2005; Eccles, Barber, Stone, & Hunt, 2003; Ewing, Gano-Overway, Branta, & Seefeldt, 2002; Fredericks & Eccles, 2006; Mahoney, Larson, Eccles, & Lord, 2005; Marsh & Kleitman, 2003; Seefeldt & Ewing, 1997). However, critics of interscholastic sports negate the degree to which these benefits are actually derived from sport participation itself (Fredericks & Eccles, 2006; Larson, 2000; Miller et al., 2005). In addition, research findings have highlighted the potential for negative outcomes resulting from sport participation (Eccles & Barber, 1999; Jackson, Keiper, Brown, Brown & Manuel, 2002; Klein & Sorenson, 2002; McPherson, 2002; Messner & Stevens, 2002; Smoll & Smith, 1996; Young, 2002). Whereas dissenting opinions are offered regarding the potential for positive and negative effects, this research instead focused on the competitive team selection

process and its role in developmental outcomes associated with adolescence, specifically identity development. Investigating the role of high school competitive team selection as a context for adolescent identity development would further current developmental theory and provide useful information in the administration of interscholastic sports.

To examine the relationships between variables, the research was framed by two theoretical perspectives; the multidimensional model of self-concept and the expectancy-value theory. The multidimensional model of self-concept is considered a useful and reliable framework for analyzing global and domain specific self-concept across academic and non-academic domains (Brewer, 1991; Fox, 1998, 2002; Harter, 1999; Horn, 2004a; 2004b; Shavelson et al., 1976). Examination of athletic identity, as it relates to achievement related behavior has not been conducted in any great detail. The Eccles et al. expectancy-value model, an achievement-related behavior theory, provides a good fit for examining adolescent domain-specific athletic identity due to its predictive component which relies heavily on discretionary participation (Eccles & Harold, 1999; Weiss & Ferrer-Caja, 2002; Weiss & Williams, 2004). Whereas expectancy-value theory has been tested rigorously by Eccles and colleagues in contexts that combined academic and physical activity domains (Barber, Eccles, & Stone, 2001; Eccles et al., 1983; Eccles & Barber, 1999; Eccles & Harold, 1991), it remains a relatively new framework in strictly physical activity domains (Weiss & Williams, 2004).

The review of literature was organized in the following sections: identity development during adolescence, athletic identity, expectancy-value theory model of

achievement-related behavior: expectations for success and subjective task value, the competitive team selection process, and research methods approach to examining athletic identity.

Identity Development during Adolescence

Mitchell (1992) defined adolescence as the “age when identity assumes its adult outlines, when it becomes noticeably less childlike and when it attains the strength and autonomy we associate with adult character” (p.123). Scholars agree that identity development is a paramount objective associated with adolescent transformation; however, the path to positive identity development remains dynamic, subject to situational and contextual variables. Hall’s (1916, as cited in Muuss, 1996) description of the process as being wrought with “storm and stress” was matched by Anna Freud’s (1958, as cited in Muuss, 1996) remark that “the upholding of a steady equilibrium” during the adolescent period would be, by itself, abnormal. Yet, not all scholars agree that adolescence is such a turbulent time. Dusek and Flaherty (1981), through empirical analysis, concluded that “the person who enters adolescence is basically the same as that who exits it” (p.39). Despite these and other recent empirical findings which support a modified perception of the adolescent storm-and-stress analogy (Arnett, 1999), the popular portrayal of conflicted teens persists in the media today (Wigfield & Wagner, 2005). While the debate surrounding the extent to which adolescents are transformed and the degree to which the transformation is stressful continues, scholars agree that adolescence is a time for experiencing achievement,

gaining a sense of identity, and acquiring developmental tasks for successful coping and transition to adulthood (Eccles, Templeton, Barber, & Stone, 2003).

Erikson's theory of identity development (1968) provided a significant contribution for examining adolescent identity development. His characterization of adolescents being simultaneously confronted with a physiological revolution and psychological crisis, of ego-identity versus role-confusion, promoted identity development as the chief outcome associated with adolescence. Engaging in identity exploration through contexts that involve mediating a variety of demands from one's family, peers, community, school and discretionary pursuits may promote opportunities for trying on roles and identities in search of that which best answers the question, "Who am I?" Knowing who you are as an individual, how you will fit in as a member of society, ultimately, answering the question of ego-identity is the goal of identity development. Erikson (1970) described identity as:

A subjective sense as well as an observable quality of personal sameness and continuity, paired with some belief in the sameness and continuity of some shared world image. As a quality of unself-conscious living, this can be gloriously obvious in a young person who has found himself as he has found his communality. In him we see emerge a unique unification of what is irreversibly given--that is, body type and temperament, giftedness and vulnerability, infantile models and acquired ideals--with the open choices provided in available roles, occupational possibilities, values offered, mentors met, friendships made, and first sexual encounters (p.12).

As adolescents seek to resolve their personal identity conflict they do so with a variety of factors contributing to the process. These include shifting away from a dependency on parents to peers for social support and identity referent information; pressures for conformity and peer loyalty; increased preoccupation with others perceptions; physiological changes

associated with puberty, thoughts of fidelity, emerging emotional competence, and consideration of future vocation (Erikson, 1968).

Erikson postulated that adolescents must independently, actively and persistently pursue the identity that most defines who they are and wish to be as an individual and as a member of society, resulting in a personal philosophy of life. Failure to resolve this conflict may result in self-doubt, role diffusion, and role confusion. However, Erikson did not view identity development as an established or achieved component of self; rather, he philosophized that identity would remain dynamic over time, influenced by the roles, and situational and societal demands placed on the individual throughout their life cycle.

Modern perspectives on identity pay particular attention to situational and societal demands on an individual's identity. Stryker and Burke's (2000) *structural symbolic interactionism* focuses on understanding how social structures influence self and how the self affects behaviors. The authors described individuals' multiple identities as "parts of a self composed of the meanings that persons attach to the multiple roles they typically play" (p.284). In other words, these social roles are the expectations attached to positions within one's network, such as athlete and student. Adolescents seeking to define and describe themselves live within "specialized networks of social relationships through roles that support their participation in such networks" (p.285). High school represents a specialized network where adolescents engage in social relationships, role-play, and seek support for emerging identities. Shavelson et al.'s (1976) multidimensional model of self-concept provides a framework for organizing and categorizing the multiple identities of adolescence.

Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton's Multidimensional Self-Concept Model

The Shavelson et al. (1976) multidimensional self-concept model provides for a visual and structural rendering of an individual's self-concept system. Self-concept was described by Shavelson et al. as an organized, multi-faceted, hierarchal, stable, developmental, evaluative and differentiable construct. Their model, engineered to accommodate multiple domains and subdomains in a hierarchal format (see Figure 2.1), organized individuals' perceptions and categorizes their unique experiences. Global self-concept is positioned at the top of the model representing a cumulative assessment of salient domain-specific perceptions of self (Horn, 2004). The subsequent levels are comprised of academic and non-academic self-concept domains (e.g. social, emotional and physical domains), greater domain specificity and task ability evaluations (e.g. math, geometry). These identities are constructed for distinct components of the self, resulting in multiple roles and identities, some of which may relate and others more disparate (Royce, Gebelt, & Duff, 2003). For example, one may have an academic identity that is categorically and distinctly different from their athletic identity. Therefore, structured identities make up the larger construct of an individual' self-concept (Cieslak, 2004) and the self is a multifaceted social construction dependent upon environmental factors (Royce et al., 2003).

Additionally, as adolescents increase in age and experience, their self-concept becomes increasingly differentiated (Shavelson et al., 1976). Due to increased cognitive abilities adolescents are better able to articulate their place in society and the environment,

evaluate experiences, and formulate self-perceptions, giving rise to a more multi-faceted hierarchal self-concept system.

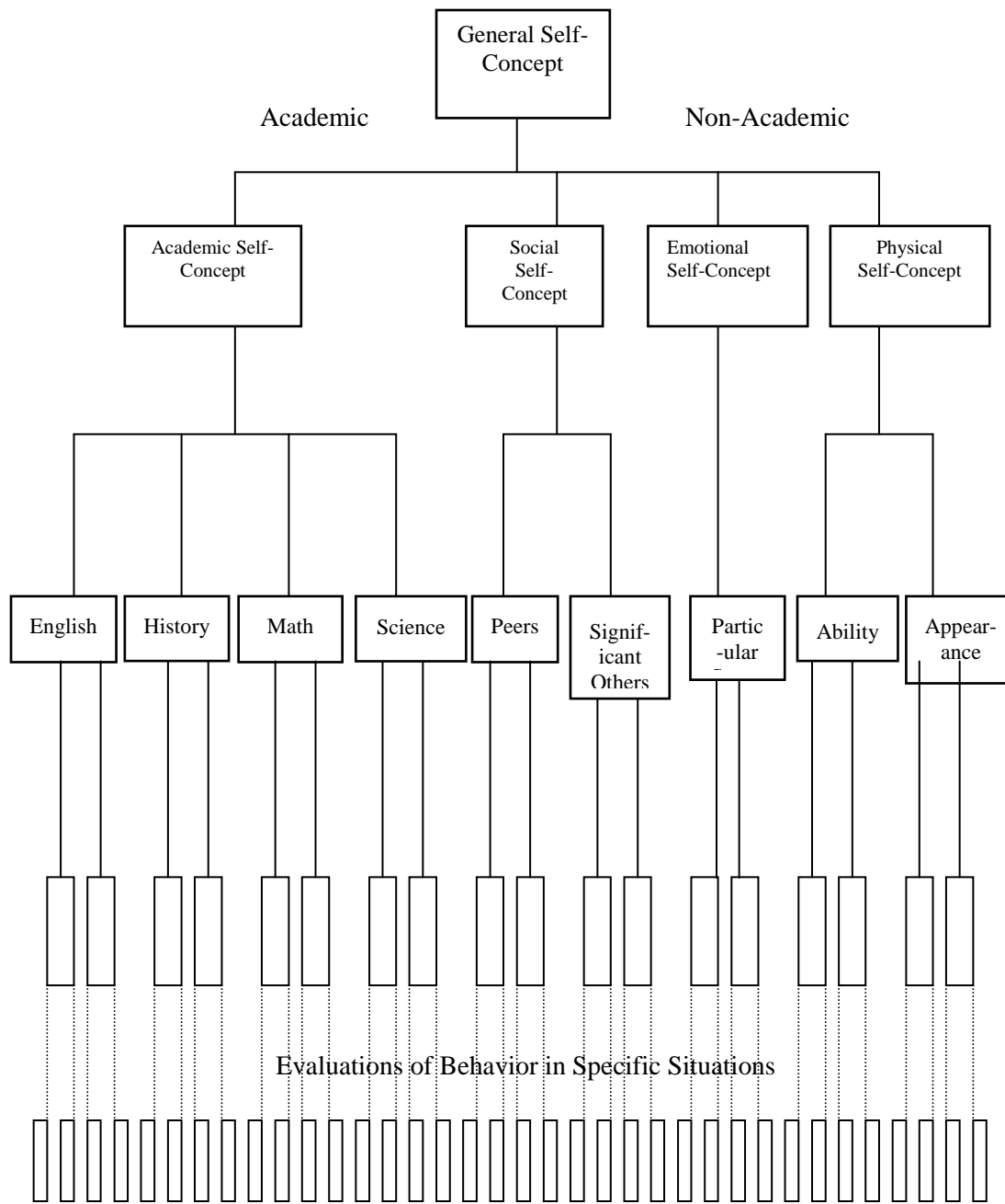


Figure 2.1 Shavelson et al.'s (1976) Multidimensional Model of Self-Concept

The salience of domains will vary according to domain-specific self-evaluations, accounting for the component of the model that gives rise to an individual's description of self. Situation specific evaluations may be made in regards to absolute ("ideal") and relative ("peers") standards or in relation to perceived evaluations of "significant others." The evaluative component, regarding personal characteristics, attributes, and abilities, defines (e.g. "who am I?") and describes (e.g. "what am I?") one-self. The multidimensional self-concept model may be able to explain or predict an individual's behavior across a variety of settings and situations, particularly when social contexts are considered (Royce et al., 2003) and salient domains are relied upon for behavior cues (Shavelson et al., 1976; Stryker & Burke, 2000).

Empirical analysis of the multi-dimensional self-concept model revealed that domain specific interventions directly influenced self-assessments relating to the targeted domain (Horn, 2004) and that considerable variability existed for measures within individuals and between individuals, as well as within and across domains (Harter, 1999). In addition, the summation of domain scores is not representative of overall self-concept. According to Horn (2004), theorists hypothesize that global self-concept is representative of scores across several, but not all domains, and is determined by those domains that are most salient to the individual. These findings highlight the unique, intricate and complex self-concept system employed by individuals for articulating self-perceptions that arise from dynamic environmental factors and may remain susceptible to situational and context specific variables.

Table 2.1

Age-Related Subdomains in Harter's (1999) Self-Perception Instrument

<i>Middle to Late Childhood</i>	<i>Adolescence</i>	<i>College Years</i>
Scholastic Competence	Scholastic Competence	Scholastic Competence Intellectual Ability Creativity
Athletic Competence	Job Competence Athletic Competence	Job Competence Athletic Competence
Physical Appearance	Physical Appearance	Physical Appearance
Peer Acceptance	Peer Acceptance Close Friendships Romantic Relationships	Peer Acceptance Close Friendships Romantic Relationships Relationships with Parents
Behavioral Conduct	Conduct/Morality	Morality
Global Self-Worth	Global Self-Worth	Sense of Humor Global Self-Worth

Nine domains specific to adolescence were organized to reflect developmental changes (see Table 2.1). The addition of three subdomains emphasizing social competence (Close Friendships and Romantic Relationships) and autonomy (Job Competence) are characteristic of adolescence (Erikson, 1968). Although a wide variety of domains may increase and decrease in saliency throughout one's life, self-perceptions in physical and athletic domains remained prevalent across the entire life cycle (Harter, 1999). With approximately 54.2 % of high school students competing on high school sports teams (NFHS, 2008), increased opportunities for skill mastery, peer group connectivity, autonomy,

and the development of salient identities may prompt adolescents to consider athletics as highly salient domains and consequential to their identities. However, while participation in athletics neither indicates athletic domain saliency nor conveys high identification with an athletic role (Brewer et al., 1993), the self-referent information (e.g. identity cues) gained through sport participation during childhood and adolescence may remain influential throughout one's life cycle. Brewer et al.'s athletic identity construct may provide greater insight into the strength and exclusivity that adolescents attach to their role as high school athletes.

Athletic Identity

The multidimensional model of self-concept provides a useful framework for domain specific investigations, such as athletic identity (Brewer et al., 1993). Athletic identity was originally defined by Brewer (1991) as the degree with which one identifies with the athlete role. Attempts to modify the definition include Good, Brewer, Petitpas, Van Raalte, and Mahar (1993) changing "the degree which..." to "the strength and exclusivity of..." (p.3) and Lantz and Schroeder (1999) incorporating self-concept within the original definition (Brewer, 1991) as "one aspect of the self-concept and the degree..." (p.547). However, Cieslak's (2005) extension of the definition to reference the environmental influence, describing athletic identity as "the degree of importance, strength, and exclusivity attached to the athlete role that is maintained by the athlete and influenced by environment" (p.39) is perhaps most representative of the context and social implications with which the athlete role

is played out. Moreover, his definition most closely relates to the literature presented in this chapter urging attention to context and social influence on identity.

Adolescents' search for identity promotes exploratory behavior which leads many to choose participation in athletics. Athletic participation can provide one with opportunities for making assessment of one's talents, values, interests, and place in social networks (Eccles, Barber, Stone, & Hunt, 2003). The inherent sociability of adolescence plays a key role in identity development because of its continuous, dynamic, bi-directional and transactional influence on self-perceptions (Li, 2006). Ultimately, adolescents will choose those roles, attributes, and behaviors most reflective of who they wish to be described and viewed (Duda, 1998). Because adolescence is such an overtly social time, often wrought with a strenuous search for a meaningful self-concept, certain roles may become more salient than others. For many adolescents, participating in athletics may be a central source for self-worth and self-definition (Brewer et al., 1993). The more adolescents commit to their athletic role for identity referent information, the more likely they will display that identity across time and context (Stryker & Serpe, 1982).

Self-concept has been discussed as being a multi-dimensional hierarchal construct consisting of a variety of domains and subdomains according to developmental factors. The importance that adolescents assign to specific domains (e.g. athletics) determines the extent to which their self-perceptions of competence influence their global self-concept (Harter, 1990). Being low in competence in a domain that is considered to be unimportant will typically not influence self-concept; however, exhibiting low competence in a highly salient

domain may greatly influence self-concept. Brewer et al. (1993) explained that “the self-esteem, affective and motivational status of an individual who highly values participation in sport and/or exercise are thought to be strongly influenced by outcomes (e.g. successes, failures) in the athletic domain” (p.238). Brewer et al. (1993) further stipulated that a highly salient athletic identity may serve as one’s *Hercules’ muscle* or *Achilles’ heel*. That is, the level of importance placed on athletic involvement and the acute awareness of athletic domain self-perceptions may prove beneficial, but may also be a liability for the athlete.

Brewer’s (1991) conceptualization of athletic identity as having both cognitive and social components provides the individual with important self- and social-referent information. The cognitive component provides a framework for organizing self-referent information which athletes draw on for mediation and regulation of behavior thought to be consistent with their role as athletes. Essentially, athletes’ interpretations of life experiences are made in relation to their affect on athletic status (Brewer et al., 1993).

The social component considers significant others’ (i.e. parents, peers, teachers, coaches, etc.) value judgments as potentially affecting the salience of one’s athletic identity (Brewer, 1991). This aspect, Brewer noted, is consistent with Cooley’s notion of the looking-glass self, whereby individuals draw their sense of self from others’ perceptions and appraisal. The notion that the athletic role is a social concept is “revealed in the assertion that individuals may be making a social statement about themselves simply by choosing to participate in a particular sport” (Brewer et al., 1993; p.239). Furthermore, strength of

athletic identity prompts one to seek relationships where similar value is placed on the athlete role and its social reference (Horton & Mack, 2000).

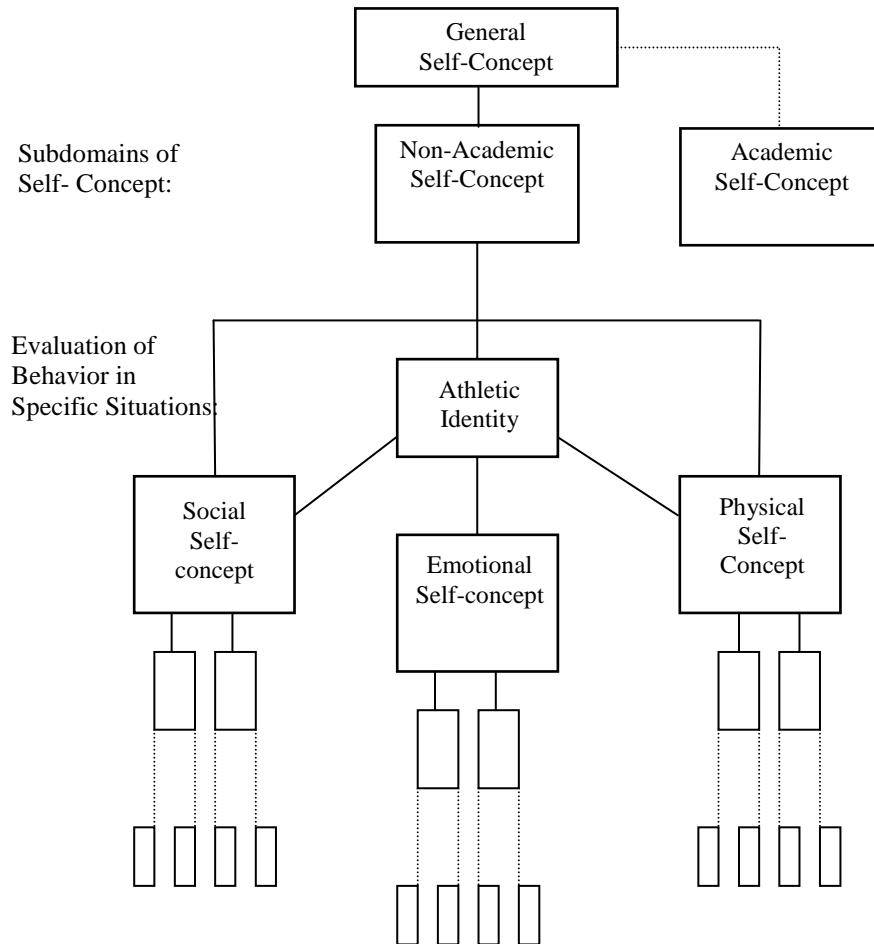


Figure 2.2 A possible representation of a self-concept system and athletic identity

Shavelson et al.'s model provided a hierarchal multidimensional format for investigating domains and subdomains of general self-concept. The literature has provided information relevant to an investigation focused on one domain of the self-concept model,

athletic identity, which is configured in the non-academic side of the self-concept model (see Figure 2.2). Whereas the global model assumes relative stability at the general self-concept level, the lower levels remain subjective to external forces and change over time. The development of an athletic identity was discussed as the result of importance being placed on the athletic domain, specific to participation and the role as an athlete. Relevant research examining domain specific athletic identity as it may relate to adolescent developmental outcomes is provided in the next sections according to competitive team selection outcomes, gender and year in school.

Athletic Identity and Competitive Team Selection Outcomes

Grove et al. (2004) conducted a longitudinal field study to examine self-protection and self-enhancement strategies of athletes vying for selection on state all-star teams. The sample ($n = 47$) consisted of female high school aged ($M = 16.83$) athletes in three sports, basketball ($n = 17$), field hockey ($n = 18$), and volleyball ($n = 12$). Participants completed measures for athletic identity (AIMS, Brewer et al., 1993) on three occasions. These were (1) during all-star training/before cuts, (2) day of selection/after selection announcement, and (3) 14 days after selection. Changes in athletic identity over time were analyzed for those selected versus those not selected. As hypothesized, athletes not selected experienced decreased athletic identity scores; however, selected athletes reported no change. Grove and colleagues stipulated that changes in athletic identity provided “evidence that self-protection processes might be operating (within the) context, but (that) no evidence to support the

possible operation of self-enhancement processes (existed)” (p. 78). They philosophized further that it was:

difficult to determine the extent to which concerns for public vs. private identity protection might have contributed to the observed decrease in AIMS scores for the athletes who were not selected. On the one hand, these changes could have been influenced by a desire to reduce dissonance.... On the other hand, they might have been influenced by a desire to publicly categorize oneself as less committed to the athlete role and thereby discount ability as an explanation for the negative outcome in the eyes of external observers (p.79).

Their findings support previous research by Brewer, Shelby, Linder, and Petitpas (1999) regarding decreased athletic identity as a result of dissatisfaction with one’s performance. They concluded that diminished athletic identity illustrated “the malleability of self-structures in response to loss” (p.157). It is plausible that the decrease in athletic identity in Grove et al’s investigation could have been due to both self-protection processes and decreased identification with the athletic role because of elimination from participation.

Athletic Identity and Gender

Gendered orientations to children’s socialization into sport may affect their athletic identity construction. Research has shown that males consistently report significantly higher athletic identity than females (Brewer et al., 1993; Good et al., 1993; Krylowicz, 1999; Weichman & Williams, 1997), however, as level of athletic ability (Albion & Fogarty, 2005) and social support (Mignano, Brewer, Winter, & Van Raalte, 2006) increase this difference may diminish.

Brewer et al. (1993) examined the athletic identity of college students in three studies ($N_1 = 243$; $N_2 = 449$; $N_3 = 90$). Results from the first study indicated that males,

significantly more so than females, identified with their athletic roles. Brewer et al. postulated that the results were indicative of greater emphasis in American culture on sport for males than is found for females. Additionally, AIMS scores were related to increases in level of athletic involvement. Results of the second study lend support to the findings in study one. The third study provided an additional measurement of male athletic identity but with a sample of collegiate football players, whereas the first two studies were representative of college students participating in an introductory psychology course. The athletic identity scores of the college football players revealed a substantially higher mean score ($M = 51.08$) than the previous two studies for male college students ($M1 = 38.95$ & $M2 = 31.09$) and provided support for the findings in study one, in which mean AIMS scores increased with level of involvement in athletics.

Two studies followed Brewer et al. providing support for gender differences in athletic identity. Males reported higher athletic identity than females in an investigation of the relationship between athletic identity and sport performance with a sample of collegiate swimmers (females $n = 28$ and males $n = 22$) (Antshel, 1995, as cited in Cieslak, 2004). The second study examined male and female high school athletes' ($n = 378$) athletic identity and expectations for athletic involvement after high school (Weichman & Williams, 1997). These findings revealed significant gender differences for athletic identity scores (males $M = 49.7$ and females $M = 47.1$)

Lantz and Schroeder (1999) conducted research to examine the relationship between athletic identity and masculine and feminine roles. The sample ($n = 409$) consisted of 296

university students (males $n = 111$ and females $n = 185$) and 113 student-athletes (males $n = 62$ and females $n = 52$) representing individual and team sports, revenue and non-revenue sports, and contact and non-contact sports. Participants completed measures for Athletic Identity (AIMS, Brewer et al., 1993) and Bem's Sex Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem, 1971). As hypothesized, higher athletic identity was associated with more masculine roles and lower athletic identity was associated with more feminine roles. Additional results were that highly identified athletes defined themselves as more masculine while low athletic identified non-athletes described themselves as more feminine. Their results mimic historical societal ideologies that sports employ gendered masculine schemas.

Royce et al. (2003) examined athletic identity and masculine and feminine associations with the athlete role in a mixed methods study. A sample ($N = 565$) consisting of male and female college students ($n = 383$) and student-athletes ($n = 182$) completed questionnaires regarding their attitudes toward and perceptions of athletes and sports. The findings indicate that collegiate female athletes are perceived as feminine and are respected by males and females, athletes and non-athletes alike. However, the results also indicated that non-athletes perceived female athletes as less feminine than did the athletes, and in general males perceived female athletes as less feminine than did women. While current policies and shifting societal perceptions for female athletic participation have afforded females greater athletic opportunities, traditional stereotypes seem to persist amongst non-athlete populations (Royce et al. 2003) and these perceptions and attitudes may serve to suppress female athletic identities.

Albion and Fogarty (2005) investigated athletic identity and career decision-making of young elite athletes. The sample consisted of elite high school athletes on scholarship with the Australian Institute of Sport ($N = 272$). Study findings revealed that males ($n = 115$) and females ($n = 110$) reported similar athletic identity ($M = 37.41$). At elite levels of play, social support, and the perception of *eliteness* may be perceived and celebrated by significant others and within one's social network as acceptable, prompting increased identification with the athlete role across gender.

Mignano and colleagues (2006) investigated the saliency of athletic identity as a condition of the environmental influences that women's and co-educational colleges provide. The athletic identities (AIMS; Brewer and Cornelius, 2001) of intercollegiate female athletes competing for women's and co-educational athletic teams ($N = 145$) were examined. Female student-athletes at women's colleges reported higher athletic identity than women at co-educational colleges. The authors contend that the environment at women's colleges were more supportive and less susceptible to societal pressure to conform to feminine stereotypes. Another reason may be the early socialization of boys into athletic domains and the lack of emphasis for girls (Berryman, 1996; Wiggins, 1996). The mere presence of the co-educational context may serve to reinforce this early socialization.

In summary, the research findings indicate that athletic identity has been mediated by traditionally gendered approaches to child-rearing and societal perceptions of acceptable roles for males and females, thereby restricting identification within athletics. The findings support previous research in which high-school students selected gender-stereotyped

descriptions for themselves (e.g. boys chose “jock” most often whereas girls selected “princess”) (Eccles & Barber, 1999). However, this may be a temporal phenomenon, as more girls are being socialized into athletics since the passage and enforcement of Title IX. These empirical studies indicate that males report higher athletic identity than females, with less significant differences found in elite levels of play and within socially supportive environments for female sport participation.

Athletic Identity & Academic Year in School or Competitive Level of Play

Research examining athletic identity and academic year in school has provided mixed results. Brewer et al. (1993) reported that AIMS scores of college students were significantly and negatively correlated with year in school. They stipulated that students increasing age and exposure to a myriad of opportunities, promoted decreases in the exclusivity of athletic identity. This was in contrast to findings by Adler and Adler (1991), who determined that intercollegiate basketball players increased their role saliency with age. The authors contend that these athletes were experiencing *role engulfment* in which one role becomes the primary source for identity. Brewer and colleagues (1993) reported significant effects for athletic identity scores and the level of athletic involvement (e.g. non-athletes, recreational/fitness athlete, intramural/local/regional athlete, and intercollegiate/national athlete). Additionally, athletic identity scores increased as a function of level of play for both males and females. The difference in the two findings was likely due to sampling and types of competitive play level.

Weichman and Williams' (1997) examined high school athletes' athletic identity and academic year in school and competitive level of play. Their findings revealed a trend for athletic identity scores with regard to academic year in school and level of play. Athletes reported increases in athletic identity through the first three years of high school (e.g. freshmen to sophomore to junior years) with decreases reported in the final year (e.g. senior year). The impending conclusion of high school athletics may prompt seniors to shift their perspectives into life after high school. Additional findings revealed that athletic identity scores strengthened in relation to competitive level of play (e.g. Freshmen, $M = 46.1$ to Junior Varsity, $M = 48.2$ to Varsity, $M = 49.4$). Varsity rosters typically represent a combination of sophomores ($M = 48.4$), juniors ($M = 50.2$), and seniors ($M = 48.2$), and it is likely that the reduced AIMS scores reported for seniors was negated by the juniors on the team. Senior athletes' divestment of athletic identity may indicate the influence of social and situational factors in identity development (Brewer et al., 1993).

Lamont-Mills and Christensen (2006) examined the relationship of athletic identity and three levels of competitive sport participation. Participants were categorized as either being elite ($n = 23$ males, $n = 28$ females), recreational ($n = 57$ males, $n = 61$ females), or non-participants ($n = 11$ males, $n = 34$ females) across nineteen different individual and team sports. Participants' athletic identity scores were analyzed according to competitive level of play and gender. Results revealed athletic identity positively correlated with increases in competitive level of play. In addition, significant gender differences were reported with males in each grouping reporting higher athletic identity than their female counterparts.

Based upon the research presented, academic year in school and competitive level of play were determined to be related to athletic identity. The data suggest that increases in age, academic standing, and competitive experience, will result in increases in athletic identity for sport participants. However, this increase plateaus at or around completion of the schooling years, where opportunities for elite and highly competitive levels of play decrease. The diminishment of athletic identity to a more stable measure into and throughout adulthood may be more compatible with the increased number of domains within ones' self-concept system.

Expectancy-Value Theory

In an effort to better understand why gender differences existed amongst children of similar ability (in math) for motivational/attitudinal achievement-related behavior, Eccles et al. (1983) developed a comprehensive model of achievement behavior incorporating psychological and developmental components. Their multidimensional expectancy-value model included multiple antecedents of achievement behavior (see Figure 2.3). The model's configuration was described as being:

built on the assumption that it is not reality itself (i.e., past successes or failures) that most directly determines children's expectancies, values, and behavior, but rather the interpretation of that reality. The influence of reality on achievement outcomes and future goals is assumed to be mediated by causal attributional patterns for success and failure, the input of socializers, perceptions of one's own needs, values, and sex-role identity, as well as perceptions of the characteristics of the task (p.81).

These factors, when taken together, determine the level of expectancy and value that individuals will associate with a particular task. The model's predictive component suggests that task value and expectancy will directly influence the individual's activity choice, effort,

and performance (i.e. the achievement-related behavior). For example, if a child believes that he is very good at math, that he will do well in math, and has parents that place high importance on math, then the prediction is that he will continue to exert effort and persistence in math related tasks. The child will not only complete his math-related tasks, but may also seek out further participation opportunities in math-related activities (i.e. Math, Science Club, etc.).

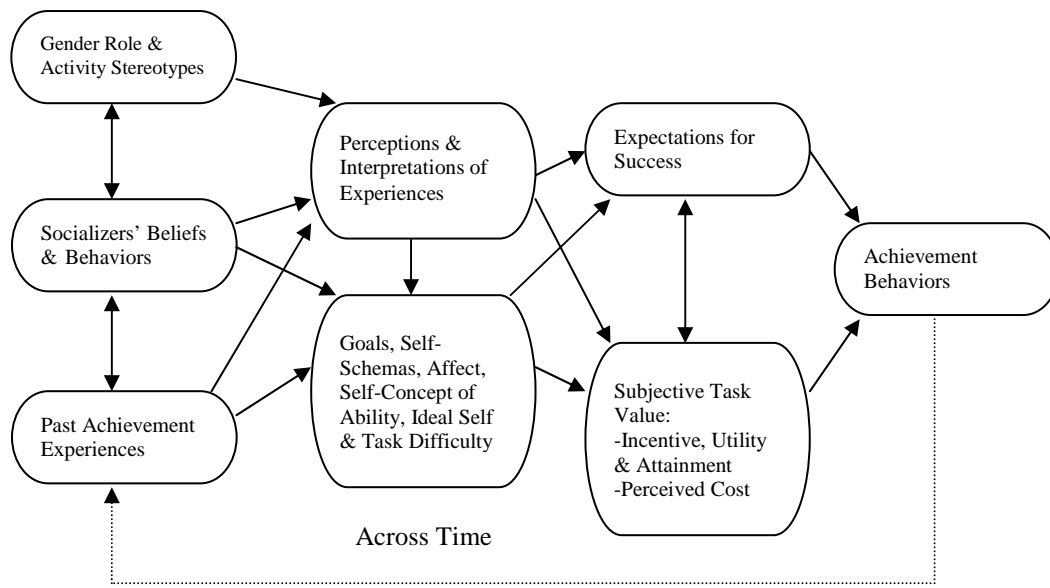


Figure 2.3 Expectancy-Value Theory: A Model of Achievement-Related Behavior

Note. Adapted from Eccles et al. (1983), Eccles & Harold (1991), and Fredricks & Eccles (2004)

Expectations for success. Expectancy-value theory posits that achievement-related behaviors are directly influenced by expectations for success and subjective task value. Expectations for success represent self-perceptions of ability and the likelihood of success

related to a task or activity. Expectancies make a substantial contribution to understanding achievement-related behavior choices and gender-related differences (Eccles et al., 1983; Eccles & Harold, 1991; Wigfield et al., 1997). Several factors contribute to expectations for success, including: subjective task value; the child's perceptions and interpretations of experiences; goals, self-schemas, and affect; gender role and activity stereotypes; socializers' beliefs and behaviors; and past achievement experiences. Empirical research studies have indicated that youth aged 6-18 may not be able to differentiate between self-concept of ability and expectancies, therefore, the two have been regarded as empirical equals in subsequent investigations (Eccles, O'Niell, & Wigfield, 2005; Eccles & Wigfield, 1995; Eccles, Wigfield, Harold, & Blumenfeld, 1993).

Subjective task value. The second major determinant in achievement-related behavior is subjective task value. Task value is the measure of importance associated with being successful at a particular task. It is largely determined by the extent to which the task will meet personal needs or confirm self-beliefs and includes four motivational components: attainment value, interest value, utility value, and perceived cost (Eccles, 2005a)

Attainment value is the importance that an individual attaches to a task or activity-as it relates to one's self-schema or competence in a domain (Eccles et al., 1983; Eccles & Harold, 1991). For example, if a child values their identity as an athlete, they will set goals related to their sport and seek opportunities for meeting their goals. Interest value refers to the immediate satisfaction derived from the engagement in a task or activity (Eccles et al., 1983; Eccles & Harold, 1991). Interest value is essentially the intrinsic value associated with

participation in a given task (e.g. how much one enjoys the activity). Utility value is the degree to which the task aids in the fulfillment of future goals or in other aspects of one's life (Eccles et al., 1983; Eccles & Harold, 1991). The measure of the usefulness of a particular academic subject is relevant to its value (i.e. physics for an aspirant chemical engineer). Finally, perceived cost describes the personal expense (i.e. time, energy, effort, opportunity) associated with participating in one activity rather than another (Eccles et al., 1983; Eccles & Harold, 1991). Each of the four motivational components contributes uniquely to one's achievement-related behavior (Eccles, 2005a).

Similar to expectations for success, the model accounts for several antecedents to subjective task value. Most directly influencing subjective task value are the perceptions and interpretations of past achievement experiences, as well as the child's self-schema and affect. The child's interpretations of past experiences, whether positive or negative, will directly influence the task value (Eccles et al., 1983). For example, a child falls soon after lacing up his roller skates for the first time, hurting his ankle. The interpretation of his initial attempt to participate in the activity is likely to be quite negative in comparison to a child who enjoys success their first time.

Measuring achievement behaviors has been assessed through the choice to participate in a given activity and the time devoted to it; the quality and persistence of the effort put forth and the outcome associated with the performance (Cox & Whaley, 2004). In organized sport settings, where participation is voluntary, rather than mandatory, one would expect that the task value and expectations for success would be greater for those making the choice to

participate. The child's decision would likewise be made in consideration of past achievement experiences, within their goal orientation, in accordance with their self-schema, including their gender stereotypes, and within the framework of their socializers' beliefs and behaviors (see Figure 2.3).

While Eccles et al. have been prolific in testing the relationships of the variables in the expectancy-value theory model, the research has largely been performed in the academic domain. A survey of the literature for the use and applicability of the expectancy-value theory framework in a strictly physical activity setting reveals few empirical studies. Those that have tested or reviewed the expectancy-value theory model support its suitability to sport and exercise psychology research (see Weiss & Feerer-Caja, 2002 and Weiss & Raedeke, 2004 for a review). Of those studies employing the expectancy-value theory framework, focus has been on examining the predictive component of the model (Deeter, 1989, 1990; Eccles & Harold, 1991; Papaioannou & Theodorakis, 1996; Stephens, 1998); gender differences as a function of expectancies, value, and achievement behavior (Clifton & Gill, 1994; Eccles & Harold, 1991; Jacobs & Eccles, 1992; Lirgg, 1991, 1994); sources of subjective value toward sport involvement (Stuart, 2003); and the parental influence on self-perceptions, subjective value, and physical activity behavior (Brustard, 1993, 1996; Dempsey, Kimiecik, & Horn, 1993; Kimiecik & Horn, 1998). Recently, Cox and Whaley (2004) examined task value, expectations for success and identity on athletes' achievement behaviors and Guillet, Sarrazin, Fontayne, and Brustard (2006) investigated gender-role orientations on female athletes' sport participation in a stereotypical masculine activity. The

potential of the expectancy-value theory in testing various components of the physical activity domain is just beginning to unfold (Weiss & Raedeke, 2002) and the door remains virtually wide open for future investigations (Weiss & Ferrer-Caja, 2002). Overall, the suitability of the model has been established for application to the sport and physical activity settings (Deeter, 1989, 1990; Lirgg, 1991; Papaioannou & Theodorakis, 1996; Stephens, 1998; Weiss & Ferrer-Caja, 2002).

Expectancy-Value Theory Applied in School Physical Activity/Sports Domain

Eccles and Harold (1991) tested the expectancy-value model's applicability to strictly physical activity domains by examining gender differences in the sport participation of elementary school-aged children transitioning to junior high school. The sample ($N_1 = 3000$ and $N_2 = 875$) was part of a larger longitudinal examination (See the Michigan Study of Adolescent and Adult Life Transitions MSALT for a review) of achievement-related gender differences in academic and activity related domains. The first study was a two year longitudinal study examining the transition from elementary to junior high school. Participants completed measures for self-concept of ability, perceived task value, and free time involvement in a variety of domains (e.g. math, language, arts, and sports) before and after their transition. These scales have been determined to be reliable and valid in other empirical studies by Eccles and colleagues (1983; 1987).

Empirical analysis revealed that boys rated themselves significantly more able than girls in sports and the magnitude of this difference was significantly greater than the gender differences found for the other domains. Furthermore, boys rated sports as more important,

useful and enjoyable than did the girls, and this was reflected in the significant level of involvement for boys in sport. The authors noted that boys and girls both reported more sports involvement than academic-domain related involvement. Path analysis confirmed Eccles and Harold's hypothesis that gender differences in time spent on sport would be mediated by "gender differences in adolescents' ability self-concepts and in the value they attach to sport competence" (p.23). Moreover, the correlations (for both genders) between self-concept of ability and the importance of doing well in sport were found to be larger than the other activity domains. Findings from the first study indicated that the model is highly applicable and useful in examinations focusing on discretionary activities.

The second study ($N = 875$) in this investigation was designed to examine how and when the differences found in the first study emerged. The results overwhelmingly point to the emergence of gender differences in the sport domain as early as grade one, and the size difference remained similar through fourth grade. Interestingly, the girls reported feeling the least competent in the sport domain and having the least use for it, whereas, sports represented the domain that boys reported greatest ability in and found it to be quite useful. While both boys and girls reported liking sports more than their academic subjects, boys enjoyed sports more, and placed significantly more importance on succeeding in sports than did the girls (Eccles & Harold, 1991).

Eccles and Harold hypothesized that "boys and girls (may) already (be) socialized to have gender role appropriate self-perceptions and values" (p.26) by grade one. The school, parents, peers, and the media may also play a role in the differences measured. It may be that

the child's own "perceptions of their ability might be their internalization of gender-role stereotypes" (p.27). In fact, a positive correlation existed between girls' beliefs and a negative correlation between boys' beliefs about gender-role stereotyping in sports and their own sport ability evaluations. That is, the more boys saw sports as masculine, the greater their ability self-perceptions, whereas, girls view of sports as appropriate for females resulted in high ability assessments (Eccles & Harold, 1991).

Several notable conclusions from the MSALT longitudinal studies regarding gender and sport involvement were made. First, the Eccles et al. expectancy-value theory model is a good fit for sport and physical activity related domains due to its reliance on choice. Second, gender differences in the attitudes of children emerged as early as grade one and were quite strong and consistent throughout the elementary school years. Last, gender differences may be less aptitude related and more a result of gender-role socialization.

Cox and Whaley (2004) conducted research to examine Eccles et al. expectancy-value model in a competitive sport context. The sample ($N = 189$) consisted of male ($n = 90$) and female ($n = 99$) high school varsity basketball players from 18 teams ranging in age from 14 to 19 years. Participants completed measures for expectations for success, interest value, attainment value, and utility value from the Self- and Task-Perception Questionnaire (Eccles & Wigfield, 1995), basketball identity (Kendzierski, Furr, Schiavoni, 1998) and cost (Raedeke, 1997), while coaches completed measures for athletes effort and persistence with a modified version of the Teacher Rating of Academic Achievement Motivation (TRAAM; Stinnett, Oeheler-Stinnett, & Stout, 1991). Although no significant gender differences

emerged, the findings did reveal significant relationships amongst the variables of identity, expectations for success, and subjective task value, providing support for the inclusion of self-schema in the model and highlighting the important contribution it makes to *other self- and task beliefs*. Their results support previous research in that ability perceptions and interest were the strongest predictors for achievement-related behaviors (Eccles & Harold, 1991).

Barnett (2006, in press) examined the effects of extracurricular activity tryouts on the personal, social and school identity of high school girls. One hundred and seventy three aspiring cheerleaders and dancers competed for selection on their high school teams. A mixed methods research design was employed to assess the implications of the outcomes for successful and unsuccessful girls. The first study ($N=173$) employed a quantitative design with several scales to assess the girls mood/emotional state, general feelings about self and school, absenteeism/truancy, drug/alcohol use, classroom attendance and performance, and individual characteristics (Eccles et al., 2003; Harrison & Narayan, 2003; Larson & Richards, 1994). Participants completed the questionnaires over eight intervals, twice prior to the tryouts and six times afterward. The second study utilized a qualitative methods approach to explicate the meanings associated with the quantitative findings from study one. Thirty-six girls participated in ($n=18$ successful and $n=18$ unsuccessful girls) in-depth interviews immediately after hearing the outcome and again two months later.

Empirical analysis revealed increased investment and arousal, and significant decreases in girls' feelings about themselves during tryouts. The author suggested that the

competitiveness associated with the tryouts likely promoted effort and persistence, with nervousness and self-doubt arising from peer comparison and prospects of failure.

Significant differences between the successful and unsuccessful groups were detected after selection for subjective state, classroom performance, attendance/truancy, and feelings about self and school. These negative effects persisted for the unsuccessful girls two months later.

The qualitative study highlighted the dichotomous affect that team selection had for the two groups. Successful girls' reactions included general elation, identity affirmation (e.g. as cheerleaders and dancers), and increased awareness and emphasis on their school and social identity. On the other hand, unsuccessful girls' reported depression, lowered self-worth, role-confusion, and decreased identification with the school and greater community. They specifically questioned their existence with rhetorical statements that included, "who am I" and "where do I belong?" Most dreaded facing friends and family, and feared being pitied.

While Barnett collected measures for several of the expectancy-value theory variables, she did not report individual scores for the measures of self-concept of ability, expectations for success, and subjective task value. She neither discussed the implications that these measures may have played in the outcomes associated with the selection process. The congruence or incongruence amongst these variables may have added insight into understanding the girls' reactions to the news of their selection status. The extent to which the girls emphasized the value of selection would have served as an indicator of their reactions to the outcome.

Expectancy-Value Theory, Gender, and Year in School

Three studies derived from the MSALT longitudinal investigation on adolescent life transitions examined variables from the expectancy-value theory model of achievement-related behaviors in academic and non-academic domains across grades one through twelve. The first of these studies conducted by Wigfield, Eccles, MacIver, Reuman, and Midgley (1991) examined self-esteem and self-concepts of ability during the transition to junior high school. Sixth graders ($N = 1,850$) were administered questionnaires four times over two years, twice prior and twice after the transition, in order to assess within year and across year changes for self-esteem (General Self-worth Scale; Harter's, 1982) and self-concepts of ability for sports, math, English and social activities (Eccles et al., 1983).

Statistical analysis revealed that students' self-concept of their sports ability declined significantly overall, but started prior to the transition to junior high school. Interestingly, a slight increase in self-concept of sports ability was reported during the seventh grade. Boys reported significantly higher ability self-concepts and liking for sports than did the girls. Declines (in the sports domain) were not attributed to academic transitions, rather, Wigfield et al. hypothesized that sport-related decreases (e.g. self-concepts and liking) may have been due to increased selectivity and competitiveness on the part of community sports programs associated with this age group. Overall, young adolescents experiencing transitions from elementary to junior high school reported decreased self-esteem and self-concepts of ability in all four domains; however, as they settled into their new school, self-esteem increased and not all decreases could be linked to academic-related changes (Wigfield et al., 1991). In

addition, while gender differences were evident, these did not increase over the four occasions for the study.

The next study ($N = 615$) was conducted by Wigfield, Eccles, Yoon, Harold, Arbreton, Freedman-Doan and Blumenfeld (1997) to determine if longitudinal changes occurred in elementary school children's competence beliefs and subjective task value in academic and non-academic domains. Measures for competence beliefs and subjective task value were completed by the children, while parents and teachers completed individual measures for students' competence.

The findings of the study illustrated that children's competence beliefs and subjective task value generally decline during the middle childhood years. However, over time, they became more stable, related more positively to one another, and more closely reflected the competence evaluations of their parents and teachers. While both boys and girls reported sports as the domain of most interest, significant gender differences were detected as early as first grade for competence beliefs and subjective task value. These gender differences were evident in boys reporting significantly more competence in, and usefulness and importance for sport than the girls did. Their finding supports Eccles & Harold's (1991) notion that early adoption of gender-role socialization contributes to competence beliefs and task value at early ages (Eccles & Harold, 1991). Although these differences were present at the earliest grade level, the magnitude of gender differences did not change over time.

The third study extended the examination of children's self-perceptions of competence and subjective task value in achievement domains with a sample ($N = 761$) from

grades one through grade twelve (Jacobs, Lanza, Osgood, Eccles, & Wigfield, 2002).

Additional measures were completed to assess cognitive ability (Slossen Intelligence Test-Revised; Slossen, Nicholson, & Hibpshman, 1999) and motor proficiency (Bruininks-Osersky Test of Motor Proficiency) in each of the domains (e.g. sports, math, and language arts). The use of hierarchical linear modeling was employed in order to describe changes in domain self-concept, examine effects of changes over time in each domain, and describe gender differences.

The results indicated that children's competence beliefs and subjective task value for all domains decreased significantly over the years. At or around grade six, sports competence decreased at an accelerated rate and this trend continued throughout the high school years. Males consistently reported significantly more competence in sports than did females, and the size of these differences were maintained over time. However, while a significant gender difference for the rate of change for sports subjective task value was found, the size difference between males (higher) sport subjective task value and females was negligible by grade twelve. This was due in part to an accelerated rate of decline for males sport subjective task value and females decline in sport subjective task value plateauing with even a slight increase at the end of grade twelve.

Jacobs and colleagues rationalized that adolescents' declining self-concepts of ability and subjective task value (e.g. in the sports domain) were "reality-based and inevitable" due to the nature of sport being a skill-based domain that generates awareness of others' abilities and one's place in the "pecking order" (p.522). In addition, through increased competitive

play and competition for team selection, fewer children are chosen for teams as they age and progress through school.

In summary, the findings from the three studies indicated that significant gender differences were detected as early as first grade for sport domain competence beliefs and subjective task value. Children's competence beliefs and subjective task value generally declined during the middle childhood years becoming more stable and relating more positively to one another, as well as more closely reflecting the competence evaluations of their parents and teachers. At or around approximately grade six, competence beliefs and subjective task value for all domains begin to decrease significantly. This was particularly true for sports competency and was evident through high school. The magnitude of gender differences in competency beliefs did not change over time (e.g. males reported higher scores), however, the difference between males and females for sport subjective task value became negligible by grade twelve.

Competitive Team Selection Process

Lipsyte (1979) philosophized that competitive team selection was akin to a sort of social Darwinism. The process, he explained, involved the winnowing of worthy athletes possessing future competitive greatness from unworthy athletes. Selected athletes, he postulated, would “drop away from other social and intellectual pursuits” (p.18) in order to focus more directly on athletics, while those eliminated are marked as failures. Lipsyte argues that elimination from sport during adolescence occurs at a critical time in their lives when “they are most confused about their bodies and their relationships with their peers”

(p.18). Since Lipsyte's opinion was published, almost thirty years ago, the psychological implications of the competitive team selection process and adolescent development are yet to be fully examined.

Competitive team selection (e.g. tryouts) is defined in the literature as a process involving aspirant participants partaking in a tryout and evaluation period whereby the ultimate decision of participation rests in the hands of others (Barnett, 2006). Three outcomes resulting from competitive team selection are discussed in the literature: selection (e.g. positive outcome), deselection and non-selection (e.g. negative outcomes). Being "cut" from the team through deselection is defined as eliminating athletes that were previously part of an athletic team (Taylor & Ogilvie, 1994), while non-selection is elimination of potential athletes, those never having been part of a team and have no future opportunity for participation (Munroe, Albinson, & Hall, 1999). One practice not discussed in the literature is the method which utilizes competitive team selection formats for talent identification/evaluation rather than for *cutting*. Evaluation-based competitive team selection places athletes on teams according to skill level within a tiered-system (e.g. junior varsity team, varsity, etc.). While placement would constitute selection, athletes may perceive individual outcomes as either selection or elimination-based if personal goals were not met. This may be the case for high school competitive team selection should athletes of all grades compete simultaneously.

Research efforts that have sought to illuminate the aftermath of competitive team selection outcomes have yielded mixed results. While those selected for participation have

generally yielded positive outcomes (Barnett, 2006, in press; Grove et al., 2004), those involuntarily eliminated have reported positive and negative psychological reactions (Barnett, 2006, in press; Grove et al., 2004; Munroe et al., 1999).

Munroe and colleagues (1999) utilized a modified version of the Conceptual Model of Adaptation to Retirement Among Athletes for a qualitative investigation of 12 female college freshmen athletes experiencing non-selection from varsity athletics. Team and individual sports were represented in the sample and interviews took place within the first week of notification and again four months later. The women reported initial perceptions to non-selection negatively, reporting uncertainty for the future, feelings of disappointment and regret, and lowered perceptions of athletic identity. However, these perceptions became more positive over time. At the follow-up interview non-selected athletes reported more positive perceptions regarding the non-selection experience, including less disappointment and regret, more alternative behaviors, increased expectations, involvement in athletics at a lower level, and less negative perceptions of self as a non-athlete. Their positive adaptation to disengagement paralleled Taylor and Ogilvie's (1994) five step model of adaptation to athlete retirement, which hypothesizes either quality transition or a retirement crisis. Munroe et al. (1999) suggested that altered perceptions of the experience, exploration and engagement in new roles and participation in sport at lower levels may have assisted in the transition from athletic team membership.

Barnett (2006, in press) and Grove et al.'s (2004) examination of psychological effects of selection or elimination were discussed previously in this chapter. Their work

documented the positive and negative psychological implications of being chosen or not being chosen for an activity (e.g. cheer or dance) or sport (i.e. all-star team). In summary, their findings illustrated that competitive team selection outcomes may yield a wide range of effects for those selected and eliminated, including academic performance, psycho-emotional outcomes, school identity/connectedness, self-concept and athletic identity. Moreover, elimination from sport may promote premature disengagement from an active lifestyle during adulthood (McEwin & Dickinson, 1996; McEwin & Dickinson, 1997). Few efforts have sought to document the psychological effect of the competitive team selection process and the extent of these outcomes on youth remains unclear (Barnett, 2006, in press; Grove et al., 2004; Munroe et al., 1999). Kontos and Malina (2003) warned about escalating competitive formats for entry into athletics:

The vast majority of young athletes (may be) eliminated from further involvement in sport and (that) the subsequent numbers of participants (will) continue to dwindle as the level of competition and selectivity increase” (p.249)...As a result, “youth sports likely lose more talented athletes to exclusionary practices of “cutting” and “tryouts” (p.250).

In summary, competitive team selection processes are, by design, exclusionary practices aimed at selecting individuals who best meet the criteria for achieving team goals. Research findings suggested that selected athletes experience increased developmental opportunities for positive personal, social, school and athletic identities; increased likelihood for life-long participation, fun, skill acquisition, physical health and fitness; and enhanced opportunities for socialization (Barnett, 2006, in press; Ewing & Seefeldt, 1989; Grove et al., 2004; Munroe et al., 1999). Eliminating outcomes may prevent youth from achieving the

physical and psychological benefits associated with sport participation. Moreover, findings revealed that exclusionary practices that initiate transition from sport may promote negative psychological outcomes including retirement crisis, identity crisis, and self-protection processes (Barnett, 2006, in press; Grove, Lavalley, & Gordon, 1997; Grove et al., 2004; Munroe et al., 1999).

Research Methods Approach

Since 1920 the National Federation of State High Schools has been charged with administrating and promoting high school organized sports as a developmentally and educationally appropriate use of adolescents' discretionary time (NFHS, 2007). Yet, the field of research focused on organized sports as a context for development is regarded in the literature as a relatively new area of investigation (Eccles, 2005b). Policy-makers and youth development program administrators have prompted much of the recent surge in scientific inquiry to garner public support and determine a course of action for appropriating time, attention, and funding of their activities (Eccles & Templeton, 2002; Larson, 2000; Larson, Eccles, & Gootman, 2004). While the awareness of pre-existing publicly-funded physical activity programs as contexts for development presently reside on the sideline of research agendas, budget constraints and the threat of elimination of physical activity programs may elicit administrators to reconsider the role of high school athletic departments in promoting developmental outcomes.

Study designs investigating developmental outcomes of organized sports have been presented in the review of literature as employing a variety of research methods, including

quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods approaches, and other designs. Nau (1995) suggested the use of mixed methods approaches to “produce a final product that highlights the significant contributions of both (quantitative and qualitative methods)” (p.1). Henderson, Ainsworth, Stolarczyk, Hootman and Levin (1999) warned that in-depth interviews (e.g. qualitative methods) may not be reflective of the sample, while descriptive statistics (e.g. quantitative methods) may not explicate the meanings associated with the data. The contribution of both quantitative and qualitative data can provide information regarding the bigger picture of the issues investigated (Henderson et al., 1999). However, utilizing mixed methods may not be the best approach either. In Eccles (2005b) opinion:

The best methods for studying the impact of organized activity experiences on human development depend on several factors. Most importantly, the best method depends on the question being asked...and on the nature of the “thing” being studied (p.367).

Furthermore, Gratton and Jones (2004) postulated that the objectives of the investigation should also help to determine the methods chosen for an investigation.

This study sought to describe the relationship between athletes seeking selection to their high school soccer team through a competitive team selection process and individualized variables associated with developmental outcomes (e.g. athletic identity, expectations for success, and subjective task value). Through the use of quantitative quasi-experimental survey methods this study examined a variety of research questions regarding the impact of competitive team selection on athletic identity, expectations for success, and subjective task value in an effort to take the first step toward validating the inferential conclusions drawn from the data.

Summary

The review of literature summarized pertinent theoretical perspectives for adolescent identity development, athletic identity and the expectancy-value theory model of achievement-related behavior as the theoretical framework which guided this research on adolescent athletic identity. Organized high school sports were examined as contexts for exploring new identities or affirming existing identities. Through examination of the expectancy-value theory and research relating to achievement-related behavior in various adolescent domains, a theoretical connection was forged between athletic identity, expectancy-value theory, specifically the variables expectations for success and subjective task value, and adolescent discretionary activity choices. A quasi-experimental quantitative research methods design was employed to explicate the relationships of these variables further.

The purpose of the research was to examine the relationship between the athletic identity construct and two variables of the expectancy-value theory, expectations for success and subjective task value, in the context of high school competitive team selection. The research integrated both historical and emerging theoretical perspectives on identity development in an effort to critically examine the phenomena linking organized sport participation to adolescent identity development. By incorporating the athletic identity construct within the expectancy-value theory framework in the context of competitive team selection the research provided greater insight into the interrelatedness and interdependency of adolescents' emerging identities and organized sports participation outcomes.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of athletic identity and two variables from the expectancy-value theory, expectations for success and subjective task value, in the context of high school soccer competitive team selection. A quantitative methods approach was employed in an effort to add insight to the relationships between these theoretical perspectives. The quasi-experimental research design included the self-administration of paper and pencil questionnaires on three occasions over the course of the competitive team selection process. This chapter details the methodology for the investigation, including a description of the participants, data collection procedures, the measures and the data analysis strategy.

Participants

Sampling Procedure

A criterion sampling method was employed to determine the specific sport type and the high schools from which participation in this study would be sought. Judgmental sampling, also referred to as purposive sampling (Miller & Salkind, 2002), is a nonprobability sampling technique allowing the researcher to set the criterion for being included in the study and to seek out a sample meeting those criteria (Patton, 2002). The researchers' knowledge of the population, its elements, available information, and the nature of the investigation determine the selection of a subgroup representative of the population to be examined (Miller & Salkind, 2002). One drawback of the nonprobability sampling technique is that it does not allow for computation of sampling errors and biases; however,

when probability sampling is not possible and when errors are not serious, the conclusions indicated from the data are recognized as generalizable to the total population being investigated (Miller & Salkind, 2002).

Criteria for this study were determined by previous research that focused on participation in youth sports and activities (Barnett, 2006, in press; Grove et al., 2004; Munroe et al., 1999), as well as the research questions that guided this investigation. Criteria for inclusion in the study limited the population to sanctioned boys and girl's high school team sports competing within the same season (i.e. fall, winter, etc.) and requiring participation in a competitive team selection process. In addition, it was a priority for potential subgroup high schools to employ similar competitive team selection procedures and to also provide historical evidence of fielding teams at both the junior varsity and varsity level. Finally, subgroup high schools within geographic proximity of each other were sought to allow the researcher the opportunity to reasonably administer and coordinate the data collection based on predetermined timelines for competitive team selection, training, and competition (e.g. state high school activity association calendars for each sport).

Study Subgroup

The Florida High School Athletic Association (FHSAA) is recognized by the Florida Legislature as the governing body for the state's interscholastic athletic programs (FHSAA, 2007). The current membership of approximately 670 public, private, and parochial schools are eligible to participate in 15 FHSAA sanctioned sports over three predetermined seasons (see Appendix B). Applying the criteria to the list of sanctioned FHSAA sports yielded two

different simultaneously occurring team sports, soccer and basketball. While most high schools typically require participation in a competitive team selection process and often field teams at both the junior varsity and varsity level for these sports, some offer freshmen-only basketball in accordance with annual interest. Due to the inconsistency in high school basketball programming, soccer was selected as the focus for the investigation.

Brevard County resides within the Central Florida area, a relatively compact county containing 15 public and 5 private high schools. School demographic profiles, including enrollment, stability ratings, minority enrollment, and English language learners were considered in the preliminary qualifying of schools for the study subgroup, in addition to aforementioned criteria. When school demographic profiles proved dissimilar or information and evidence about a school was unavailable, it was eliminated from consideration.

Four FHSAA member schools in Brevard County were identified for possible inclusion in the study subgroup. Each school was contacted to seek further information to warrant their selection, invitation, and participation in the investigation. Personal communication determined that each school was requiring participants compete for junior varsity and varsity placement through a competitive team selection process. Three of the four schools would hold these tryouts simultaneously and each school provided historical evidence of fielding soccer teams at both levels of play. An important consideration was the degree of similarity in procedures that each school employed during the competitive selection process. Since one school was holding separate team selection sessions for each level of play, it was eliminated from the subgroup sample. The remaining three schools, two public

and one private, were invited and agreed to participate in the study. Coaches for the six boys and six girls' soccer teams (e.g. junior varsity and varsity) anticipated selecting approximately 16-22 players per team from an estimated pool of 32-55 players, yielding between 192-264 participation opportunities.

Procedures

Ethical standards for research, as set by the Department of Health and Human Services, require parental consent for children under the age of 18 to be obtained prior to participation in a research study. North Carolina State University's (NCSU) Institutional Review Board (IRB) for the Protection of Human Subjects reviewed and approved the procedure and instrumentation employed in this study (see Appendix C). The IRB waived the requirement for a consent signature from participants as described under 45 CFR 46.408(a), referencing 45CFR46.117c, 45CFR46.117c1, and 45CFR46.117c2, and also waived the requirement for parental consent under 46.408(c), referencing 46.116(d). In accordance with IRB protocol, potential participants received an informed consent letter detailing the nature of the study, its benefits and risks, and the requirements of participation (Appendix D). No incentives were offered or provided to participants and they were able to leave the study at any time. Confidentiality was ensured with participant creating a unique username id during the first round of the study. These usernames were utilized for data entry and case matching during each round of the study.

Competitive Team Selection Process and Data Collection Schedule

Participation in one's school athletic program was a multi-step process. First, high school athletic directors notified students about soccer team selection and the procedures for participation. Notices and advertisements were posted in a variety of locations across school campuses, in school newspapers and websites, and over the PA system during daily announcements. In some instances, team selection timelines were emailed or mailed to returning and potential players.

Second, students were required to establish eligibility in accordance with their respective high school and FHSAA Bylaw 11.1 (FHSAA, 2007). In brief, these rules stated that to be eligible for participation one must be registered and in regular attendance at their school, maintain a minimum grade point average (GPA) of 2.0 per semester/cumulative, be less than 19 years and 9 months old, submit a signed parental/guardian consent form, pass a physical examination performed by a certified practitioner within the current academic year, submit the appropriate form to their school, and be an amateur in the sport they are applying for competition (see Appendix E for greater detail). While athletic directors were responsible for verifying each student's documentation prior to participation, the burden is on the student for compliance with the requirements.

Third, coaches held formal information meetings for students expressing an interest in playing soccer. The agenda at these meetings generally consisted of communicating coaching philosophies, expectations and schedules, while also obtaining student eligibility and contact information. A study coordinator was provided by athletic department

administrators to coordinate the distribution of the informed consent letters to each student in attendance at the meeting. Students agreeing to participate in the study completed and returned the preselection questionnaires (Round 1) to the study coordinator. Students unable to attend the meeting received pre-season information packets with the informed consent letter and preselection questionnaire (Round 1) from the study coordinators during school hours.

Fourth, the competitive team selection process took to the soccer field for formal “tryouts.” On-the-field training sessions were organized and directed by the head coach and assistants for two hours after school each day for five days. The midpoint of this week represented the second administration of questionnaires (Round 2).

The final step in the competitive team selection process involved player selection. Personal communication with the subgroup coaches confirmed their perception of player selection as multi-factorial, requiring consideration not just of soccer-specific skills, but also for anthropometric, physiological, and psychological factors (Hoare & Warr, 2000; Reilly, Williams, Nevill, & Franks, 2000). Coaches utilized competitive team selection training to analyze a player’s tangible (e.g. physical conditioning, skill attributes, etc.) (Reilly et al., 2000) and intangible abilities (e.g. drive, self confidence, aggressiveness, etc.) (Tindall, 1980) for objective and subjective indicators of their potential contribution on either the junior varsity or varsity team. In each school, coaches conferred with their assistants and determined rosters for both teams on the fifth and final day of “tryouts.” These rosters were

posted at the school. The post selection questionnaires (Round 3) were administered on the first full school day after the rosters were posted.

Data Collection Schedule Rationale

The schedule and number of data collection rounds was largely determined by previous research findings and the research questions guiding this study. Barnett (2006, in press) examined the psychological effect of cheerleading and dance outcomes on participants during a two month longitudinal study. Her data was collected over eight intervals, however, the competitive team selection took place at the conclusion of the current academic year for participation in the next academic year. This format would have created validity issues with the present study. Since the majority of the soccer teams in the subgroup were immediately shifting into season play (e.g. games were beginning within seven days of notification), and in light of Brewer et al.'s (1999) findings that individual and team performance may influence one's athletic identity, the time-frame was limited to preseason. Moreover, Munroe et al. (1999) and Barnett's findings indicated that psychological impacts plateau within approximately one week for most participants following selection notification. Therefore, the data collection schedule included self-administered paper and pencil questionnaires on three occasions over approximately four weeks: two weeks prior to team selection (Round 1), during competitive team selection (Round 2), and after team selection (Round 3) (Appendix F).

The instruments utilized for each round included a demographic and background information questionnaire, an eight-item measure for expectations for success and subjective

task value, and the seven-item version of the athletic identity measurement scale (see Appendix G). A review of the measures is provided in the next section.

Measures

Independent Measures

The independent variables for this study were collected during the first round of data collection (see Appendix G).

Demographic and Background Information. Participants first completed a basic demographic (gender, race, age, and year in school) and background information questionnaire (years of soccer playing experience and involvement in other extracurricular activities). This questionnaire was only administered during the first round.

Dependent Measures

Expectancy-Value Theory Model of Achievement-Related Behavior. The expectancy-value theory model of achievement-related behavior is a comprehensive multidimensional model developed by Eccles et al. (1983) in an effort to explain variations in achievement and behavior choices of youth across a variety of domains. The model takes into account social and psychological determinants of behavior, developmental changes and the interrelatedness of key constructs. Eccles and colleagues have rigorously tested the predictive component of the model (see Figure 2.3 on page 38) during the longitudinal Michigan Study of Adolescent and Adult Life Transitions (MSALT) that began in 1983 and involved approximately 3,200 adolescents.

The chief purpose of the MSALT study was to investigate the impact of classroom and family changes on adolescents' achievement-related beliefs, motives, values, and behaviors. To achieve this, Eccles and colleagues designed, through theoretical, empirical, and MSALT research design criteria, a 43 item student questionnaire for measuring adolescents' beliefs, values, and attitudes across multiple-activity domains and 12 central constructs on 5- or 7-point Likert scales. The rigorous testing associated with the MSALT investigation by Eccles et al. and the recent efforts of sport psychology researchers provide ample documented support for the scale and its usefulness for examining behavior motivations in the academic and physical domains (Weiss & Williams, 2004).

Eccles et al. (2005) sought to revise the MSALT instrument, originally framed for academic domains, to develop a reliable and valid measure for predicting achievement-related behaviors across a variety of domains. Confirmatory factor analysis generated a shortened version of the instrument to measure ability self-perceptions and subjective task value (Eccles et al., 2005). The instrument was tested during a two year longitudinal study (Year 1, $n = 707$; Year 2, $n = 545$). Confirmatory factor analysis revealed that a nineteen item instrument with scales ranging from 1 to 7 could reliably measure 3 constructs associated with expectancy-value theory. Five items measured ability self-perceptions (Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$) and 14 items, organized into 5 categories, intrinsic interest value (Cronbach's $\alpha = .76$), attainment value/importance (Cronbach's $\alpha = .70$), extrinsic utility value (Cronbach's $\alpha = .62$), task difficulty (Cronbach's $\alpha = .62$) and required effort (Cronbach's $\alpha = .76$) measured perceived task value and difficulty (i.e. subjective task value).

Furthermore, the researchers indicated that the instrument was equally appropriate for use with adolescents in grades 5 through 12, may be self-administered via paper or computer-based, and modified for use in other achievement-related domains (i.e. sports, music, etc.).

The research design for this study focused on the predictive component of expectancy-value theory, specifically, the variables expectations for success and subjective task value. Should the model prediction prove positive, expectations for success and subjective task value would correlate and predict complimentary behavior. With regards to this study, athletes who hold soccer, their athleticism, their role as an athlete, and their future as a player in high regard, would likely value their participation, find it useful and be internally motivated to continue their participation. A description of the questions that were utilized to test this association follows.

Expectations for Success. Four questions measuring expectations for success were chosen for their direct relevance to the research topic, the competitive team selection process. Two questions, “How well do you think you will do in *soccer* this year?” and a modified version of another question, “How likely is it for you to make the *Varsity soccer team*?” assessed participants’ expectations regarding the competitive team selection process and the upcoming soccer season. Two additional questions were included to determine one’s self-concept of ability, “How good at *soccer* are you?” and that in relation to others, “Compared to other *players*, how well do you expect to do in *soccer* this year?” Responses are measured on a 7-point Likert scale anchored with the following end points and numbers ranging from 1 through 7 respectively: “very poorly” to “very well”, “not very likely” to “very likely”, “not

at all good” to “very good”, and “much worse than other players” to “much better than other players”.

Subjective Task Value. Four questions pertaining to each of the four motivational components of subjective task value, attainment value, interest value, utility value, and perceived cost, were selected for inclusion in the survey. Barnett (in press) noted, and I acknowledge, that “single items typically represent poor measures of a construct” (p. 7). However, in the case of this research, the values will neither be identified nor utilized to represent single construct measures; rather they will be taken together to reflect one’s overall subjective task value. Similar to Barnett’s decision, these were included based on previous research findings demonstrating a relationship with other variables that were included in this study (e.g. expectations for success and the achievement-related behavior choices of adolescents).

The four components of subjective task value were measured on a 7-point Likert scale anchored with descriptive end points and values ranging from 1 through 7. One question assessed attainment value, “For me, being good at *soccer* is...” with responses ranging from “not at all important” to “very important”. “How much do you like playing *soccer*?” measured intrinsic value on a scale of “a little” to “a lot” and “In your daily life, how useful are the things you’ve learned while *playing soccer*?” measured utility value with ratings from “not at all useful” to “very useful”. The last question “How much does the time that you spend *practicing or playing soccer* keep you from doing other things you would like

to do?” measured perceived cost and was a reverse-coded question with responses ranging from “takes away no time” to “takes away a lot of time”.

Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS). Efforts to create an instrument to measure both the strength and exclusivity associated with one’s identification with their role as an athlete resulted in the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS) (see Appendix H) (Brewer et al., 1993). The 10-item questionnaire was scored on a 7-point Likert scale to determine the values assigned to social, cognitive, and affective elements of one’s athletic identity. Designed as a superordinate unidimensional construct, summing the items provided a global athletic identity score. The original AIMS exhibited excellent internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .93$) and test-retest reliability ($r = .89$) lending support for its psychometric integrity.

Subsequent testing of the AIMS revealed other dimensions of athletic identity and resulted in the proposal of several modified versions of the AIMS (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001; Brewer, Boin, Petitpas, Van Raalte, & Mahar, 1993; Hale, James, & Stambulova, 1999; Martin, Mushett, & Eklund, 1994). Brewer and Cornelius (2001) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to determine a model of best fit. Included in the analyses were the original unidimensional AIMS (Brewer et al., 1993), and three multidimensional models, a four-factor solution (Brewer, Boin, et al., 1993), a modified three-factor solution (Martin et al., 1994), and another four-factor solution (Hale et al., 1999). The results indicated the need to create a multidimensional model featuring seven items comprising three first-order factors, measuring social identity, exclusivity, and negative affectivity, as shown in Figure 3.1.

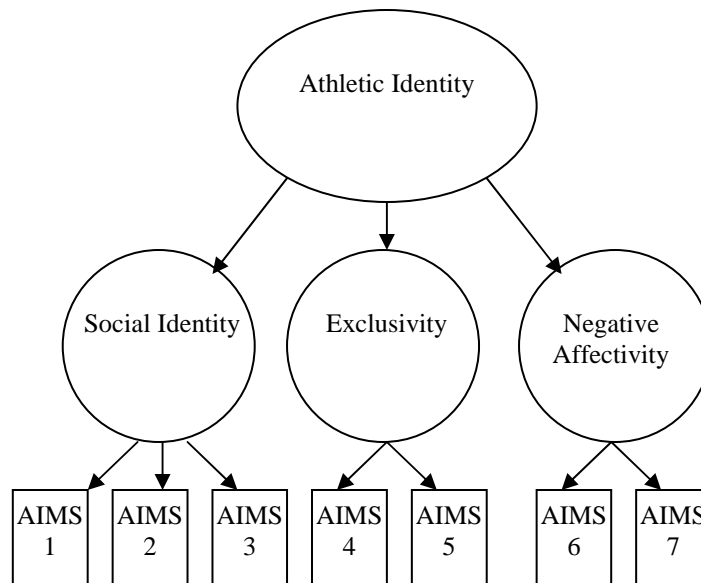


Figure 3.1 Seven-Item, Three Factor Model of the Athletic Identity Construct

(Brewer & Cornelius, 2001)

The revised seven-item AIMS is also scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) “strongly disagree” to (7) “strongly agree” (Table 3.1). The sum of items yields a global athletic identity score whereby a higher score represents a strong, exclusive athletic identity. The AIMS has been determined to have internal consistency ($\alpha = .81$) and test-retest reliability (.89) (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001). In addition, previous studies using the 10-item AIMS were highly correlated to the new 7-item version (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001) and should not be discredited (Li, 2006).

Table 3.1

Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001)

1. I consider myself an athlete.
 2. I have many goals related to sport.
 3. Most of my friends are athletes.
 4. Sport is the most important part of my life.
 5. I spend more time thinking about sport than anything else.
 6. I feel bad about myself when I do poorly in sport.
 7. I would be very depressed if I were injured and could not compete in sport.
-

Data Analysis Strategy

The data was entered into an Excel spreadsheet according to a unique username id that each participant chose during the first round of data collection. This username id provided a measure of confidentiality and a necessary link for each subsequent round of the remaining two data collection rounds. Any questionnaire returned without a username id was not included in the database. After the data were organized in Excel, it was converted to a data file, recoded and re-ordered for analysis with SPSS for Windows version 15.0.

The data analysis strategy began with a preliminary analysis of the data to determine completeness and accuracy. Aherne and Le Brocque (2005) outlined a variety of strategies to identify, assess, and adjust for participant attrition (e.g. prematurely dropping out of the

study) issues regarding longitudinal studies. Several steps were employed in the preliminary data analysis strategy in this study to counteract potential validity issues that attrition may create. First, descriptive statistics were analyzed to determine the frequency of item nonresponse (e.g. failing to answer a specific question), unit nonresponse (e.g. missing the second round of the study), and dropout rate (Siddiqui, Flay, & Hu, 1996, as cited in Aherne & Le Brocque, 2005). Second, a demographic and individual background profile was created for unit nonresponders and dropouts. Third, imputation of missing data for unit nonresponders was conducted with SPSS 16.0 linear interpolation method and the resulting imputed data set was utilized for the primary statistical analysis. Finally, statistical analysis strategies were implemented to assess the potential impact on the data. Essentially, parallel primary statistical analyses were conducted to determine if differences were present between the two samples, total participants $N = 166$ (e.g. those completing all three rounds and the imputed data set for the unit nonresponders) vs. complete participants $n = 126$ (e.g. only those completing all three rounds of data collection).

Preliminary data analysis included determining measures of central tendency (e.g. mean, frequency, etc.) for demographic variables (total participants, gender, race/ethnicity, age, and year in school) and individual characteristics (years of soccer playing experience, involvement in other activities). Next, reliability analysis for the internal consistency of measures was conducted using Cronbach's alpha. Last, general linear modeling (GLM) with univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Dunnett's C post hoc tests were conducted to determine if the three subgroup high schools could be combined for the primary statistical

analysis. A variety of statistical analyses were conducted during the primary analyses of the data including measures of central tendency, bivariate Pearson product-moment correlational analysis, GLM repeated measures, univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) with post hoc tests using Dunnett's C (where appropriate), and paired samples t-tests.

Summary

The methods chapter began with a description of the criterion sampling technique, and the criteria chosen for this study. The next section detailed the rationale for selecting the subgroup sample, FHSAA member boys and girl's high school soccer teams, and concluded with a brief description of the subgroup high schools chosen, three Central Florida high schools. Next, the overall study design, including the data collection schedule, procedure, and rationale, was framed by the multi-step description of the competitive team selection process. IRB approval facilitated the ease with which participation consent was obtained, waiving participant written consent and parental consent; thereby allowing the study coordinators, at each school, the ability to disseminate informed consent letters via preseason information meetings. The collection of data commenced and the remaining two rounds over approximately the next four weeks, took place before, during, and after the competitive team selection outcomes were communicated by the coaches.

One independent and three dependent measures were utilized in this study. The independent measure consisted of a six-item demographic and individual background questionnaire during the first round of data collection. Three dependent measures were included in each round of data collection. Two variables from Eccles and colleagues

expectancy-value theory, expectations for success and subjective task value, were included and organized as a framework for studying achievement-related behavior. Two measures, a four-item scale for measuring expectations for success and a four-item scale for measuring subjective task value, were included as independent measures. With the decision to participate in high school soccer competitive team selection serving as the achievement-related behavior decision, this study sought to incorporate the athletic identity construct within the framework of the expectancy-value theory model. Utilizing Brewer and Cornelius' (2001) seven-item athletic identity measurement scale and the use of repeated measures, this investigation aimed to add insight to the relationships between these theoretical perspectives. The quasi-experimental research design provided a naturally occurring intervention for testing previously reported findings and extending the present literature with conclusions that may be drawn from the data collected from this study. In order to accomplish this, the data analysis strategy included descriptive and preliminary analyses and concluded with primary data analysis. The results of the data analyses are summarized and reported in Chapter 4 of this paper.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of athletic identity and two variables from the expectancy-value theory: expectations for success and subjective task value during high school soccer competitive team selection. The results begin with a demographic description of the aspirant soccer players from the three high schools that participated in this study. Demographic and quantitative data collected on three occasions via self-administered pencil and paper questionnaires over four weeks are presented in accordance with the research questions that guided this study.

Demographic Summary

The sample consisted of 188 participants, approximately 43% of whom were male ($n = 81$) and 57% of whom were female ($n = 107$), from three high schools in central Florida (see Appendix I and J). Participants ranged in age from 12 to 18 years, with no more than 28% of the participants representing any one age or 30% representing any one year in school. Eighty percent of the sample was white. Sixty-four percent of participants reported eight or more years of soccer playing experience, while 19% reported between five and seven years, the remaining 17% had four or fewer years of playing experience. Outside of their plans to play soccer, most participants reported current involvement or planned participation in at least one or more extracurricular activities. However, 38% of participants had no current or future plans to participate in other activities. Participation in community service activities was reported most often by participants, with relatively even levels of involvement planned

for academic clubs and performing arts, and school clubs representing the least reported planned activity.

Preliminary Analyses

Preliminary analysis of the data included an examination of participant attrition, reliability analysis of the measures, and equivalency of the high school groups.

Attrition. In accordance with the strategies put forth by Aherne and Le Brocque (2005), descriptive statistics regarding the extent and type of attrition resulting from the longitudinal methods employed in this study were examined (see Appendix K). Twelve percent of the participants dropped out of the study ($n = 11$ after round one and $n = 11$ after round two) and were not included in the analysis. The dropouts were mostly female, (73%, $n = 16$), had seven or less years of soccer playing experience (68%, $n = 15$), and most likely did not make the varsity team (68%, $n = 15$).

Missing data analysis revealed that round two non-response was 23% ($n = 40$). Attendance records during competitive team selection revealed that round two non-response by participants was most likely missing at random (MAR). That is, participants' absence was likely the result of scheduling conflicts, rather than overt avoidance. Therefore, imputation for missing data was performed utilizing the SPSS 16.0 linear interpolation method. The results from the ensuing statistical analyses, presented next, reflects those from this imputed data set ($N = 166$). In addition, a second set of statistical analyses were conducted with the participants that completed every round of data collection ($n = 126$). These results are summarized and provided in Appendix L, with notations for differences in the findings.

Internal consistency. Scale reliability analysis for each of the indicators was conducted for each round of data collection (see Table 4.1). The athletic identity measurement scale (AIMS; Brewer & Cornelius, 2001) exhibited excellent internal consistency, Cronbach's $\alpha_1 = .86$, $\alpha_2 = .84$ and $\alpha_3 = .90$, and test-retest reliability for round 1 to 3, $r = .82$, during each self-administration of the survey.

Table 4.1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliability Coefficients for each Measure and Round

Measures	# of Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Cronbach's Alpha
Athletic Identity				
Round 1	7	37.92	7.70	.86
Round 2	7	37.42	7.12	.84
Round 3	7	37.39	8.26	.90
Expectations for Success				
Round 1	4	20.59	4.83	.85
Round 2	4	20.63	4.08	.80
Round 3	4	21.52	4.44	.82
Subjective Task Value				
Round 1	3	21.41	3.03	.68
Round 2	3	14.37	2.58	.75
Round 3	3	16.96	3.39	.83

Note. Subjective Task Value computed without perceived cost item.

The indicators used for measuring the two variables from the expectancy-value theory, expectations for success and subjective task value, provided mixed results. Whereas the expectations for success measure yielded good overall internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha_1 = .85$, $\alpha_2 = .80$, and $\alpha_3 = .82$) and test-retest reliability ($r = .79$), the measure for subjective task value did not. In fact, during none of the data collection rounds did it display adequate internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha_1 = .26$, $\alpha_2 = .47$, and $\alpha_3 = .47$). Factor analysis was conducted utilizing principal component analysis (PCA) to determine the extent to which each of the four items contributed to the overall reliability. The results indicated that the item designed to measure perceived cost of sport participation, a reverse-coded question, did not cohere with the other items. Consequently, Cronbach's Alpha if-item-deleted analysis provided acceptable to good reliability for the remaining three items over each of the three rounds (Cronbach's $\alpha_1 = .68$, $\alpha_2 = .75$ and $\alpha_3 = .83$) and acceptable test-rest reliability scores ($r = .66$). The remaining analyses utilized this modified measure.

School equivalency. General linear modeling (GLM) with univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if the three subgroup high schools could be combined for the primary statistical analysis. The results indicated no significant differences between the schools before competitive team selection. However, significant differences were found during competitive team selection for subjective task value, $F(2, 163) = 3.50$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .04$, after competitive team selection for subjective task value, $F(2, 163) = 4.79$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .05$, and athletic identity, $F(2, 163) = 3.97$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .05$. Pairwise differences

between the adjusted means were evaluated using post hoc tests with Dunnett's C and p set at .05 level. Whereas subjective task value was significantly different between high school one and two during competitive team selection ($M_1 = 17.89$ and $M_2 = 16.67$), this difference did not remain after selection; rather, significant differences were found for high school two and three ($M_2 = 16.00$ and $M_3 = 17.78$). In addition, the athletic identity scores of high school two and three were significantly different after competitive team selection ($M_2 = 35.26$ and $M_3 = 39.30$). The results of the school equivalency analysis revealed that the high schools were similar before competitive team selection. However, during and after competitive team selection, the results indicated three relatively small significant effects ($\eta^2 = .04$ to $.05$) out of 27 paired comparisons. In light of these results, the decision was made to combine the schools and conduct the primary analyses with no differentiation for school.

Primary Analyses

Relationship between athletic identity, expectations for success, and subjective task value over the competitive team selection process. A bivariate Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the indicators of athletic identity, expectations for success and subjective task value for each round of data collection (RQ1). In an effort to control for Type 1 error across the 36 correlations, a p value of less than .01 was required for significance. The correlation coefficients indicated positive and significant correlations between each of the indicators for each of the three rounds of data collection (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2

Correlation Matrix for Indicators (N = 166)

Indicators	Before			During			After		
	EFS	STV	AI	EFS	STV	AI	EFS	STV	AI
Before EFS	1.0								
STV	.40**	1.0							
AI	.52**	.56**	1.0						
During EFS	.64**	.29**	.39**	1.0					
STV	.27**	.56**	.39**	.47**	1.0				
AI	.38**	.39**	.71**	.51**	.58**	1.0			
After EFS	.79**	.43**	.52**	.62**	.37**	.39**	1.0		
STV	.42**	.66**	.58**	.33**	.63**	.48**	.62**	1.0	
AI	.41**	.48**	.82**	.35**	.41**	.72**	.52**	.66**	1.0

Note. Athletic Identity (AI), Expectations for Success (EFS), Subjective Task Value (STV), Before (B), During (D), and After (A) Competitive Team Selection

** $p < .01$ (2-tailed)

In addition, correlation coefficients were computed for each of the competitive team selection outcome groups (see Appendix M). To control for Type 1 error across the 36 correlations, a p value of less than .01 was also required for significance. All 36 correlation coefficients for the varsity group ($n = 86$) were significant and these coefficients increased in magnitude over time. Twenty-nine of the junior varsity ($n = 73$) correlation coefficients were significant; however, within each round each indicator significantly correlated with the

others, and these correlations also increased over time. For those not selected ($n = 7$), only one coefficient reached significance, which was not surprising given the small sample size.

Athletic identity, expectations for success, subjective task value, and competitive team selection outcomes. General linear model (GLM) repeated measures analysis was conducted to determine if participants' athletic identity, expectations for success, and subjective task value varied significantly according to high school soccer competitive team selection outcomes (RQ2). The analysis was conducted for each dependent variable (athletic identity, expectations for success and subjective task value) with time (before, during, and after competitive team selection) as the within-subjects factor and outcome (varsity $n = 86$, junior varsity $n = 73$, and not selected $n = 7$) as the between-subjects factor.

The results of the analysis of participants' athletic identity indicated a significant main effect for outcome, $F(2, 163) = 6.05, p < .01, \eta^2 = .07$, but not for time $F(2, 326) = .96, p > .05, \eta^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons indicated that significant differences were found between the varsity ($M = 39.53$) and junior varsity ($M = 35.98$) participants. In addition, a significant interaction between outcome and time, $F(4, 326) = 3.10, p < .05, \eta^2 = .04$, further qualified the main effect. *Post hoc* tests utilizing Dunnett's C were conducted to decompose the interaction effect. The results revealed that athletic identity scores were significantly different for varsity and junior varsity participants before ($M_1 = 39.79$ and $M_2 = 35.88$) and after $M_1 = 39.66$ and $M_2 = 34.99$) competitive team selection (see Table 4.3). Furthermore, while the varsity's athletic identity remained relatively stable over time, paired samples t-

tests indicated that the junior varsity's athletic identity scores significantly decreased between round two and three of competitive team selection, $t(72) = 3.15, p < .01$.

Table 4.3

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations According to Outcome Group

Outcome Group	Before		During		After	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Athletic Identity						
Varsity	39.79	6.94	39.12	6.77	39.66	7.53
Junior Varsity	35.88	7.91	37.08	5.96	34.99	8.12
Not Selected	37.92	9.62	34.49	8.74	37.39	11.22
Expectations for Success						
Varsity	22.71	4.17	22.44	3.67	23.59	3.66
Junior Varsity	18.36	4.46	19.41	2.91	19.40	4.13
Not Selected	17.86	4.88	17.15	2.90	18.14	4.14
Subjective Task Value						
Varsity	18.02	3.09	17.44	3.10	17.42	3.85
Junior Varsity	17.62	2.38	17.28	1.84	16.68	2.59
Not Selected	17.29	3.59	15.74	2.99	14.29	3.64

The next GLM analysis testing differences between outcome and time for participants' expectations for success, revealed a significant main effect for outcome, $F(2,$

163) = 28.88, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .26$, but not for time, $F(2, 326) = 1.77$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 = .01$. Pairwise comparisons revealed significant differences between the varsity ($M = 22.91$) and both the junior varsity ($M = 19.06$) and not selected ($M = 17.72$) participants. Post hoc tests utilizing Dunnett's C indicated that the varsity and junior varsity groups differed significantly before, during, and after competitive team selection, whereas the varsity and not selected groups differed during and after competitive team selection (see Table 4.4). In addition, there was no significant interaction detected between outcome and time, $F(4, 326) = 2.12$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .08$.

Table 4.4

Differences for Expectations for Success and Outcome Group

Outcome Group	V	JV	N
Before			
Selected (V)		*	
Selected (JV)	*		
Not Selected (N)			
During			
Selected (V)			
Selected (JV)	*		
Not Selected (N)		*	
After			
Selected (V)			
Selected (JV)	*		
Not Selected (N)	*		

Note. * = significance using Dunnett's C.

The last GLM repeated measures analysis was conducted to assess whether outcome and time differences were detected for participants' subjective task value. A significant main effect was found for time $F(2, 326) = 10.39, p <.01, \eta^2 = .06$, but not for outcome, $F(2, 163) = 1.94, p >.05, \eta^2 = .02$. Pairwise comparisons indicated that significant decreases for subjective task value were detected over soccer competitive team selection ($M_1 = 17.82$ to round $M_3 = 16.96$), having reached a significant difference between round one and two ($M_1 = 17.82$ and $M_2 = 17.30$). There was not a significant interaction between outcome and time, $F(4, 326) = 1.99, p >.05, \eta^2 = .04$.

Athletic identity, expectations for success, subjective task value, and gender. General linear model repeated measures analysis was conducted for each dependent variable (athletic identity, expectations for success and subjective task value) with time (before, during, and after competitive team selection) as the within-subjects factor and gender (males $n = 75$, females $n = 91$) as the between-subjects factor.

The results of the analysis of participants' athletic identity indicated no significant main effects for time $F(2, 328) = 1.35, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$, or gender, $F(1, 164) = 2.28, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$. Moreover, no significant interaction effects were found between gender and time, $F(2, 328) = .63, p >.05, \eta^2 = .00$, nor were they found between outcome, gender, and time, $F(4, 320) = 1.46, p >.05, \eta^2 = .02$ (see Table 4.5).

The next GLM repeated measures analysis assessing gender and time differences for participants' expectations for success revealed significant main effects for time $F(2, 328) = 6.71, p <.01, \eta^2 = .04$, but not gender, $F(1, 164) = 2.83, p >.05, \eta^2 = .02$. Pairwise

comparisons revealed that participants expectations for success increased significantly overall ($M_1 = 20.67$ to $M_3 = 21.57$), with significant increases present between rounds two and three ($M_2 = 20.91$ to $M_3 = 21.57$) of the competitive team selection process. Additional results indicated that no significant interactions were detected between gender and time, $F(2, 328) = 2.23, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$, nor between time, gender, and outcomes, $F(4, 320) = 1.46, p >.05, \eta^2 = .02$.

Table 4.5

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for each Dependent Variable by Gender

Variable	Before		During		After	
Gender	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Athletic Identity						
Males	38.92	7.98	38.64	7.25	38.45	8.59
Females	37.10	7.40	37.53	6.00	36.51	7.91
Expectations for Success						
Males	21.45	4.69	21.16	3.77	22.07	4.53
Females	19.88	4.86	20.66	3.72	21.07	4.34
Subjective Task Value						
Males	17.87	3.09	17.24	3.31	16.87	3.90
Females	17.77	2.58	17.35	1.88	17.04	2.92

The last GLM repeated measures analysis tested whether gender and time differences were present for participants' subjective task value. Significant main effects were found for subjective task value and time, $F(2, 328) = 10.36, p < .01, \eta^2 = .06$, but not for gender, $F(1, 164) = .03, p > .05, \eta^2 = .00$. Pairwise comparisons indicated that participants' subjective task value decreased significantly over time (before $M = 17.82$ to after $M = 16.96$), with significant decreases present beginning with round one and two of the competitive team selection process. No significant interaction effect was found between gender and time, $F(2, 328) = .28, p > .05, \eta^2 = .00$, however, a significant interaction between time, gender, and competitive team selection outcomes was found, $F(4, 320) = 2.98, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$. Decomposing the interaction revealed a significant interaction effect between gender and outcome, $F(2, 160) = 4.23, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$. One-way ANOVA and *post hoc* tests with Dunnett's C indicated significant differences during, $F(5, 160) = 3.28, p < .01$, and after competitive team selection between the groups, $F(5, 160) = 4.13, p < .01$ (e.g. gender-outcome groupings recoded to male- or female- and varsity, junior varsity, and not selected). That is, female-junior varsity participants ($n = 40$) reported significantly less task value for soccer than female-varsity ($n = 48$) and male-junior varsity ($n = 33$) players did, despite decreases over time for all groups (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6

Differences for Subjective Task Value and Outcome-Gender Groups

During CTS	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	MV	FV	MJV	FJV	MNS	FNS
Male-Varsity	16.78	4.12						
Female-Varsity	17.96	1.83						
Male-Junior Varsity	18.17	1.48						
Female-Junior Varsity	16.55	1.80		*	*			
Male-Not Selected	14.75	3.77						
Female-Not Selected	17.06	.916						
After CTS	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	MV	FV	MJV	FJV	MNS	FNS
Male-Varsity	16.47	4.81						
Female-Varsity	18.17	2.69						
Male-Junior Varsity	17.85	2.31						
Female-Junior Varsity	15.73	2.43		*	*			
Male-Not Selected	14.50	3.51						
Female-Not Selected	14.00	4.58						

Note. * = significance using Dunnett's C.

Athletic identity, expectations for success, subjective task value, and year in school.

General linear modeling repeated measures analysis was conducted for each dependent variable (athletic identity, expectations for success and subjective task value) with time (before, during, and after competitive team selection) as the within-subjects and year in

school (middle school $n = 8$, freshmen $n = 48$, sophomore $n = 41$, junior $n = 41$, senior $n = 28$) as the between-subjects factor (see Table 4.7). No significant main effects were found for athletic identity and time $F(2, 322) = 1.12, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$, or for year in school, $F(4, 161) = 1.39, p >.05, \eta^2 = .03$. Moreover, no significant interaction effects were detected between year in school and time, $F(8, 322) = .41, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$, nor between athletic identity, time, year in school, and outcomes, $F(10, 308) = .67, p >.05, \eta^2 = .02$.

The next GLM repeated measures analysis tested year in school and time differences for participants' expectations for success, revealing a significant main effect for time $F(2, 322) = 3.54, p <.05, \eta^2 = .02$, and for year in school, $F(4, 161) = 3.35, p <.05, \eta^2 = .08$. Pairwise comparisons indicated that participants' expectations for success increased significantly over the competitive team selection process ($M_1 = 20.32$ and $M_3 = 21.16$). In addition, seniors' expectations for success ($M = 22.61$) were significantly higher than freshmen ($M = 19.87$). Post hoc tests with Dunnett's C indicated that seniors' expectations were significantly higher than freshmen before and during competitive team selection. However, there was not a significant interaction detected between year in school and time, $F(8, 322) = 1.39, p >.05, \eta^2 = .03$, nor between year in school, time, and outcome, $F(10, 308) = .32, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$.

Table 4.7

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for each Dependent Variable by Year in School

Variable Year in School	Before		During		After	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Athletic Identity						
Middle School	33.38	7.69	33.84	9.25	32.63	8.98
Freshmen	39.08	7.21	39.06	4.99	38.31	8.07
Sophomore	38.51	7.60	38.13	6.07	38.37	7.38
Junior	37.15	8.85	37.34	8.36	35.95	9.81
Senior	37.50	6.66	38.31	5.85	37.39	6.79
Expectations for Success						
Middle School	17.88	4.02	19.12	4.15	18.50	3.25
Freshmen	19.13	4.26	20.17	2.78	20.31	4.34
Sophomore	20.59	4.44	21.17	3.83	21.95	4.02
Junior	21.54	5.67	20.69	4.63	22.20	4.79
Senior	22.50	4.38	22.51	3.08	22.82	4.33
Subjective Task Value						
Middle School	17.75	2.71	16.93	2.76	16.00	3.33
Freshmen	18.29	2.23	17.81	1.76	17.42	2.54
Sophomore	18.00	2.66	17.70	2.21	17.78	3.17
Junior	17.22	3.68	16.37	3.45	15.98	3.94
Senior	17.61	2.47	17.32	2.78	16.71	3.86

The last GLM repeated measures analysis assessing year in school and time differences for participants' subjective task value revealed a significant main effect for time $F(2, 322) = 8.98, p < .01, \eta^2 = .05$, but not for year in school, $F(4, 161) = 1.93, p > .05, \eta^2 = .05$.

Pairwise comparisons indicated that participants' subjective task value decreased significantly over time (before $M = 17.82$ to after $M = 16.96$). Additional results revealed no significant interaction effects between year in school and time, $F(8, 322) = .69, p > .05, \eta^2 = .02$, nor between year in school, time, and outcome, $F(10, 308) = 1.73, p > .05, \eta^2 = .05$.

Athletic identity, expectations for success, subjective task value, and division in school. After analyzing participants' according to their current year in school, analyses were conducted with year in school re-coded into upper (e.g. junior-senior group) and lower divisions (e.g. freshmen-sophomore group). Another series of GLM repeated measures analysis was conducted for each dependent variable (athletic identity, expectations for success and subjective task value) with time (before, during, and after competitive team selection) as the within-subjects factor and division in school (freshmen-sophomore $n = 69$ and junior-senior $n = 89$) as the between-subjects factor (see Table 4.8). Analysis of the upper and lower division's athletic identity did not yield significant main effects for time, $F(2, 312) = 1.40, p > .05, \eta^2 = .01$, or division, $F(1, 156) = 1.53, p > .05, \eta^2 = .01$. Additional results indicated no significant interaction effects were present between division and time, $F(2, 312) = .45, p > .05, \eta^2 = .00$, nor between division, time, and outcome, $F(4, 304) = .73, p > .05, \eta^2 = .01$.

The results of the GLM analysis testing for significant differences in participants' expectations for success revealed significant main effects for time, $F(2, 312) = 6.50, p < .01, \eta^2 = .04$, and division, $F(1, 156) = 5.39, p < .05, \eta^2 = .03$. Pairwise comparisons indicated that expectations for success increased significantly over time for participants ($M_1 = 20.86$ to M_3

= 21.76), with significant differences also present between rounds two and three ($M_2 = 21.03$ to $M_3 = 21.76$). While pairwise comparisons revealed that upper, $M = 21.94$, and lower divisions, $M = 20.50$, were significantly different, the significant interaction effect between division and time, $F(2, 312) = 3.17, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$, revealed the differences were significant before competitive team selection, $F(2, 312) = 3.17, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$ (see Table 4.8). However, no significant interaction was detected between division, time, and outcome, $F(4, 304) = .23, p > .05, \eta^2 = .00$.

Table 4.8

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Dependent Variables by Division in School

Variable Division School	Before		During		After	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<hr/>						
Athletic Identity						
Freshmen-Sophomore	38.82	7.36	38.63	5.50	38.34	7.72
Junior-Senior	37.29	7.98	37.74	7.41	36.71	8.71
<hr/>						
Expectations for Success						
Freshmen-Sophomore	19.80	4.38	20.63	3.32	21.07	4.26
Junior-Senior	21.93	5.17	21.43	4.14	22.45	4.59
<hr/>						
Subjective Task Value						
Freshmen-Sophomore	18.16	2.43	17.76	1.97	17.58	2.84
Junior-Senior	17.38	3.23	16.75	3.21	16.28	3.90
<hr/>						

The last GLM repeated measures analysis, testing division in school and time differences for participants' subjective task value, revealed a significant main effect for time, $F(2, 312) = 9.25, p < .01, \eta^2 = .06$, and division, $F(1, 156) = 6.28, p < .05, \eta^2 = .04$. Pairwise comparisons confirmed that subjective task value decreased significantly over time for participants ($M_1 = 17.77$ to $M_3 = 16.93$), having initially reached significance between rounds one and two ($M_1 = 17.77$ and $M_2 = 17.26$). Moreover, subjective task value was significantly different between the upper and lower division during (upper $M = 16.75$ and lower $M = 17.76$) and after (upper $M = 16.28$ and lower $M = 17.58$) competitive team selection. There was not, however, a significant interaction between division and time, $F(2, 312) = .91, p > .05, \eta^2 = .01$, nor between division, time, and outcome, $F(4, 304) = .55, p > .05, \eta^2 = .00$.

Summary

Chapter 4 summarized the quantitative results of the study that examined the effects of high school soccer competitive team selection. The results were presented in the order of demographic and individual background data, preliminary analyses, and primary analyses. First, the descriptive statistics were summarized and reported for participants' demographic and individual background data. Next, quantitative data collected during the three rounds of the competitive team selection process were examined in accordance with the research questions in this study. Preliminary analyses included an examination of the frequency and type of attrition, reliability analysis for the internal consistency of measures using Cronbach's alpha, and ANOVA with Tukey's HSD *post hoc* tests to determine school equivalency. Primary analysis of the data included measures of central tendency, bivariate

Pearson product-moment correlation analysis, GLM repeated measures analysis, GLM univariate analysis, one-way ANOVA, *post hoc* tests with Dunnett's C (where appropriate), and paired samples *t*-tests. The discussion and significance of the findings, limitations of the study, implications for practitioners, and recommendations for future research are presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between athletic identity and two variables of the expectancy-value theory, expectations for success and subjective task value, in the context of high school soccer competitive team selection. In addition, gender and year in school differences were explored. Specifically, this investigation sought to answer four research questions. First, what relationship exists between athletic identity, expectation for success, and subjective task value before, during and after high school soccer competitive team selection? The results indicated that a positive and significant relationship existed between the indicators throughout competitive team selection. In addition, when each selection outcome group was analyzed, the varsity was found to have the most significant correlations, followed by the junior varsity and the not selected groups over time.

Second, do athletic identity, expectations for success, and subjective task value vary significantly according to high school soccer competitive team selection outcomes? Athletic identity and expectations for success did vary according to outcome group; however, subjective task value did not. The varsity group reported significantly higher athletic identity (before and after competitive team selection) than the junior varsity, whose athletic identity decreased significantly in the time between field training (round 2) and competitive team selection announcements (round 3). In addition, the varsity group reported higher expectations for success than the junior varsity (before, during and after competitive team selection) and not selected (during and after competitive team selection) groups, whereas all groups experienced significant decreases for subjective task value over time.

Third, do athletic identity, expectations for success, and subjective task value vary significantly according to high school soccer competitive team selection participants' gender? Participants' athletic identity, expectations for success and subjective task value did not vary significantly according to gender, yet significant increases for all participants' expectations for success over time were found. A significant interaction effect resulted for subjective task value between time, outcome, and gender. Females players selected for junior varsity reported significantly lower subjective task value than male players selected for junior varsity and females players selected for varsity teams (during and after competitive team selection), even though all participants reported significantly lower subjective task value over time.

Last, do athletic identity, expectations for success, and subjective task value vary significantly according to high school soccer competitive team selection participants' year or division in school? Athletic identity did not vary significantly according to year or division in school, yet, the findings did indicate significant differences for expectations for success and subjective task value. More specifically, significant increases in expectations for success were detected for all participants over time; however, seniors' expectations were significantly higher than freshmen (before and during competitive team selection), as were the upper division's higher than the lower division (although only before competitive team selection). Conversely, the upper division reported significantly less subjective task value than the lower division (during and after competitive team selection) while all participants reported significantly lower scores over time.

Relationship of Athletic Identity, Expectations for Success and Subjective Task Value in the Context of Competitive Team Selection. The first research question sought to describe the relationship of athletic identity, expectations for success and subjective task value in the context of high school soccer competitive team selection. Several research studies have sought to determine direct and indirect antecedents of achievement-related behavior (Brustard, 1993, 1996; Clifton & Gill, 1994; Cox & Whaley, 2004; Dempsey et al., 1993; Eccles & Harold, 1991; Guillet et al., 2006; Jacobs & Eccles, 1992; Kimiecik & Horn, 1998; Lirgg, 1991, 1994). These studies and those rooted in the academic domain (Eccles et al., 1998) support the contribution of domain specific identity (e.g. goals, affect, self-concept of ability, and self-schemas) to expectations for success and subjective task value in directing achievement-related behavior (as depicted in Figure 2.2 and 2.3). In this study participants' athletic identity, subjective task value for soccer and expectations for success throughout the competitive team selection process were positively associated over time. This finding supports previous research regarding (basketball) identity, expectancies and task value by Cox and Whaley (2004) and that of the predictive component of the model (Eccles & Harold, 1991). Hence, athletes will seek sport participation opportunities that continue to reflect desired identity, promote self-concept and success expectancies, and provide value to one's life.

In addition, further examination of the findings according to outcome group underline the models applicability to the dynamic and reciprocal nature of sport experiences influencing identity, expectancies and task value. As the relationships among the variables

descended in strength from the varsity group to the junior varsity and the not selected group, it seems likely that reality-based evaluations regarding the selection experience and outcomes were being internalized. The processing of experiences and outcomes provides a basis for identity, expectations and task value in sport to be modified as necessary (see Figure 2.2 and 2.3). In essence, as the desire to make either varsity or junior varsity was being contested, participants made reality based reassessments; thus, the varsity, experiencing the highest selection, reported the most organized self-assessments relating to soccer.

The next three research questions addressed potential effects of the competitive team selection process for athletic identity, expectations for success and subjective task value. Several independent variables, namely, time, selection outcomes, gender, year and division in school were utilized to explore effects.

The Effects of Competitive Team Selection on Athletic Identity, Expectations for Success and Subjective Task Value over Time. Participants reported relatively stable athletic identity throughout the competitive team selection process, however, significant increases in expectations for success and decreasing subjective task value for soccer were found over the competitive team selection process.

Participants' athletic identity did not change significantly over the competitive team selection process. One reason for this may be due to the fact that the vast majority of the study sample was selected to varsity or junior varsity, resulting in few cuts being made ($n = 7$). It may also be that the participants in this study entered competitive team selection with a history of and appreciation for previous athletic participation. The presence of correlations

among participants' expectancies and task value for soccer provide support for this position. This finding supports previous research indicating that participation serves to confirm preexisting athletic identity (Barber, Stone, & Eccles, 2005; Barber et al., 2005), rather than the exploration or emergence of a new athletic identities.

The significant increases in expectations for success may be interpreted in several ways. First, participants may initially have been apprehensive, reporting conservative expectations. It is possible that merely taking the field helped to reduce pre-selection jitters with optimism replacing anxiety. Second, peer comparisons may have reduced self-perceptions of ability differences, prompting increased expectancies for ability and selection. Next, it is also conceivable that the participants in this study were aware of their chances for selection and aligned their expectancies accordingly. As it became increasingly clearer that few participants would be eliminated, participants may have raised their expectations for selection. Finally, situational and contextual factors at the time, and coaches' feedback, including tangible measures and competitive play results, may have informed participants of their standing and influenced their self-evaluations.

Another interesting finding was that participants experienced significant decreases in subjective task value for soccer over time. It is plausible that before competitive team selection participants reported utility, attainment, and interest value without recent experience and the present reality of rigorous training and competition, or the high demands that come with team commitment. The interpretations and perceptions of participant

experiences throughout the competitive team selection process likely weighed on individuals' task value for soccer.

In sum, the internalization of experiences brought about by the competitive team selection process and the reciprocal nature of the expectancy-value theory model provides a plausible explanation for confirmation of athletic identity and situation and contextual factors influencing changes in expectations and task value over time.

The Effects of Competitive Team Selection on Athletic Identity, Expectations for Success and Subjective Task Value according to Outcome over Time. Competitive team selection outcomes (e.g. varsity, junior varsity and not selected) resulted in several significant differences for the participants in this study. First, varsity players' athletic identity was significantly greater than junior varsity players' before and after competitive team selection. Hence, it appears that, upon entry in the competitive team selection process, participants were aware of an athletic hierarchy associated with their potential selection status and aligned with a competitive level of play. This difference subsided during on the field tryouts, but returned after selection outcomes were announced, when the junior varsity experienced significant decreases in their athletic identity. The junior varsity players that were anticipating selection to the varsity may have experienced disappointment and engaged self-protection processes similar to those reported by Grove et al. (2004). Athletic identity has also been found to decrease after disappointment following poor performance (Brewer et al., 1999). These findings provide support for research indicating positive effects for selected participants (Barnett, 2006, in press; Grove et al., 2004); greater identification with athletic

roles in accordance with higher levels of play (Brewer et al., 1993; Lamont-Mills & Christensen, 2006; Weichman & Williams, 1997); lower identity for eliminated participants (Barnett, 2006, in press; Grove et al., 2004; Munroe et al., 1999); and confirmation of preexisting athletic identities (Barber, Stone, & Eccles, 2005; Barber et al., 2005).

Additional rationales for these findings may include: (1) returning varsity players may have been more highly identified with their athletic role due to their varsity status; therefore, reinforcing an athletic hierarchy; (2) junior varsity players aspiring to make varsity may have been unsure of their future athletic role; (3) on the field competition may have reduced perceptions of differential athletic status; (4) selection outcome disappointment by some junior varsity players may have diminished athletic identification; and (5) lower athletic identity at the junior varsity level may be indicative of perceptions of lower talent and less competitive play.

Participants selected to compete at the varsity level report higher expectations for success than those selected to junior varsity and those not selected. Entry into competitive team selection appeared to reflect a sense by participants of ability, selection and future expectancies, with alignment in accordance to outcome. The findings of this study supported previous research indicating positive expectations for selected participants and lower expectations for eliminated participants (Barnett, 2006; in press; Grove et al., 2004; Munroe et al., 1999).

Conversely, there was not a significant difference for subjective task value among the outcome groups. While it was previously noted that participants experienced significant

decreases for subjective task value over time, the outcome groups did not differ in their subjective task value for soccer. Previous research has indicated that differences in subjective task value for sport (in general) among high schooler's becomes negligible by grade twelve (Jacobs, et al., 2002). With respect to the findings of this study, it seems plausible that task value for soccer within a soccer playing population would prove to be similar for participants.

The Effects of Competitive Team Selection on Athletic Identity, Expectations for Success and Subjective Task Value according to Gender over Time. The only significant finding related to gender was that the female-junior varsity group reported less subjective task value for soccer than the female-varsity and male-junior varsity during and after competitive team selection. The results indicated that subjective task value decreased over time for all participants with no differences detected for outcome groups (e.g. when males and females were combined as varsity, etc.), nor for gender (when females for varsity and junior varsity were combined, etc.). In light of these results, this finding appears surprising. However, it does support previous research findings in that females report lower sport subjective task value than males beginning as early as grade one, yet plateauing at or around the transition to middle school, yielding to slight increases during the upper division years (junior-senior) and negligible gender differences by twelfth grade (Jacobs et al., 2002).

Moreover, this explanation may provide further justification for the presence of differences found between the junior varsity and varsity females, but only partially. Closer examination of the composition of the team rosters in this study indicated that the junior

varsity and varsity were not exclusively divided by year in school. Hence, the outcome of older girls making junior varsity and younger girls making varsity seems to have had a substantial impact on their value for soccer. The freshmen and sophomore girls on varsity reported higher subjective task value for soccer than the juniors on junior varsity. It is plausible that female juniors' increased awareness that they would not make varsity triggered self-protection processes, diminishing the importance and value of soccer in their life. Conversely, the freshmen and sophomores selected to varsity placed great value on their soccer participation across the competitive team selection process. For these girls, self-enhancement strategies may have been engaged, explaining the differences detected between them and their age peers making junior varsity.

Jacobs et al.'s research indicating that males experience significant decreases for sport subjective task value during the upper division years, provides a basis for why no differences were detected between the varsity males and junior varsity females. These findings support Eccles & Harold's (1991) position that early adoption of gender-role socialization may contribute to competence beliefs and task value at early ages, but that over time and through sport participation these differences may subside. In the case of the older girls being placed on junior varsity and the younger girls making varsity, their task value was reinforced by their participation, but influenced by their level of play.

The lack of findings for overall gender differences do not support previous research indicating gendered athletic identity (Antshel, 1995; Brewer et al., 1993; Good et al., 1993; Krylowicz, 1999; Weichman & Williams, 1997) and expectations for success relating to

sport during the adolescent years, and partially refute those for gendered subjective task value (Jacobs et al., 2002; Wigfield et al., 1991, 1997). Female participants in this study may have benefited from both a history of soccer involvement and a socially supportive environment for female athleticism (Albion & Fogarty, 2005; Mignano et al., 2006). The findings suggest that female soccer participants' athletic identities are confirmed as competitive levels of play increase (Albion & Fogarty, 2005). In fact, Barber et al.'s (2005b) examination of social identity and gender determined that (U.S.) female adolescent soccer players described themselves as "jock" (42%) more often than "princess" (37%), and did so at a greater rate than the rest of the female athletes sampled (22%). However, this has not been the case in other countries where adolescents' participation, preferences, and perceptions of sport remain subject to dominant normative gendered images (Elling & Knoppers, 2005) which position soccer as a traditionally masculine sport (Elling & Knoppers, 2005; Klomsten, Marsh, & Skaalvik, 2005).

These findings also contradict previous results indicating gender differences for expectations for success in sport during adolescence (Wigfield et al., 1991; Wigfield et al., 1997; Jacobs et al., 2002). The differences may be due in part to the sampling methods in this study (e.g. athlete sampling) and those from previous studies (e.g. athlete and non-athlete sampling). Non-athletes may lack sport-related self-concept, expectancies, and task value similar to the participants in this study, possibly promoting the differences found. Hence, when an all athlete population is examined these differences are not found, as was the case in research by Cox and Whaley (2004). Their study findings indicated no gender differences

for basketball players' identity, expectations for success, and subjective task value (Cox & Whaley, 2004).

Additionally, female athletes today have likely benefited from: (1) Title IX (Anshel, 1994; Women's Sports Foundation, 2007); (2) the success and presence of the U.S. Olympic and National Soccer Teams during the past two decades; (3) a surge in the popularity and opportunity to play soccer; and (4) soccer being viewed in the U.S. as a gender neutral sport that does not contradict masculine and feminine social scripts (Hattery, Smith & Staurowsky, 2007).

Since Title IX, female soccer participation opportunities have grown to include a variety of competitive levels, year round play, specialty camps, personal trainers, and expanded opportunities for collegiate and professional careers. In fact, the NFHS (2007) 2006-2007 participation survey revealed that girls high school soccer participation has almost matched boys, while collegiate soccer participation by women has already surpassed men (NCAA, 2008). This growth and expansion has likely positioned soccer as a socially desirable component of adolescence, increasing its value and generating greater expectations for achievement opportunities.

The Effects of Competitive Team Selection on Athletic Identity, Expectations for Success and Subjective Task Value according to Year in School/Division in School over Time. The additional participant grouping variables, coded according to year in school and division in school, provided several additional findings. Whereas, athletic identity did not vary according to year or division in school, seniors' held higher expectations for success

than freshmen before and during competitive team selection and upper division expectations were higher before competitive team selection than the lower division. Moreover, the lower division reported higher soccer value than the upper division during and after competitive team selection.

The lack of findings for differences in athletic identity according to year or division in school was unexpected and contradicts previous research (Adler & Adler, 1991; Brewer et al., 1993; Weichman & Williams, 1997). It may be that the matriculation of soccer players at the high school level includes well-established athletic identities within the participant population. A rationale for this finding may be that soccer is generally one of the first sports played by children and those that continue through childhood and into adolescence bring up to ten years or more playing experience. In fact, sixty four percent of the participants in this study reported 8 or more years of soccer playing experience, which constitutes, for many, more than half their lifetime. Moreover, the current trend for early specialization in sport, particularly within soccer populations, may provide soccer players with a culture promotive of earlier athletic identity development than previously detected.

Conversely, years of experience playing soccer serves as a rationalization for the differences detected between freshmen and seniors and upper and lower division's ratings for expectations for success. It was interesting that freshmen increased their expectations for success as the competitive team selection continued, resulting in no differences after selection. Freshman may have been elated to have been selected, increasing optimism, and focusing on making a contribution to the team and considering their chances to make varsity

next year. Moreover, the competitive team selection experience may have increased their self-evaluations as a result of peer comparison and feedback provided by coaches and significant others.

A possible explanation for the lower division assigning higher subjective task value for soccer than the upper division may be the aura of exclusivity. That is, with increased competitive play and limited selection opportunities, the exclusivity of being chosen for the team roster may prompt younger athletes to assign great value to being good at soccer. It is further plausible that, freshmen and sophomores, still limited in their social networking and activity involvement more so than juniors and seniors, enjoy soccer more than other activities ascribing great importance to it in their life. Barnett (in press; 2006) determined that highly competitive and selective activities in high school resulted in aspirant participants ascribing high levels of importance in gaining the right to participate in school activities. Further, the overt social nature of adolescents' discretionary choices extend the level of importance that soccer participation may have for the lower division, as (athletic) identities have been determined to highly correlate with (sport) attainment value (Cox & Whaley, 2004).

Implications of the Study

Barber and colleagues proposed that enhanced developmental outcomes result from a “synergistic system” which connects “activity involvement with identity exploration and peer group composition” (p.186). They hypothesized that positive developmental outcomes would result from adolescents' synthesis of activity participation, identity adoption, and peer connectedness. This study sought to examine the congruence between participants' plans to

participate in high school soccer and their athletic identity, expectations for success and subjective task value throughout the competitive team selection process. An important implication from this study is that the results provide an empirical basis to forge an empirical connection between the construct of athletic identity and the expectancy-value theory model of achievement-related behavior in a strictly physical activity and sports domain. That is, participants' athletic identity, expectations for success and subjective task value may indicate achievement-related behavior in sport, such as continuing to pursue participation opportunities in high school soccer.

This study provided a better understanding of adolescent athletic identity in relation to domain specific expectations and task value. Sport participation is theorized as having the potential to promote positive development through two mechanisms: identity pursuit and affirmation, and peer group norm-sharing (Barber et al., 2005). By choosing to participate in soccer competitive team selection, participants in this study actively engaged in the pursuit and affirmation of athletic identity (Erikson, 1968). The results of this study provided evidence that competitive team selection validated pre-existing athletic identity.

This study provided insight into adolescents' pursuit of participation in high school team sports. The findings of this study are significant because they demonstrate the importance of examining the relationship between athletic identity, expectations for success and subjective task value in the pursuit of soccer participation via competitive team selection, an otherwise overlooked entry point for youth sports.

The implications of the lack of significant gender differences during soccer competitive team selection for identity, expectancies and task value may indicate that socially supportive environments may foster female athleticism, including confirmation of athletic identity and sport-related expectations for success.

Finally, the results of this study are significant because they support the expectancy-value theory model of achievement-related behavior in that adolescent' discretionary choices provide them with identity referent information promotive of expectancies and reflective of value.

Limitations of the Research

Several limitations of the study warrant consideration when interpreting the findings. First, given the small sample size ($N = 166$), unequal distributions across the groupings, the geographic proximity of participants, and the soccer specific sample, caution should be taken when applying the results of this study to general high school populations and the process of competitive team selection. Moreover, the small sample size only allowed for sufficient power to capture large effects, therefore increasing the likelihood of Type II errors.

Second, although there is no set standard for acceptable levels of attrition in research, any level of attrition promotes the likelihood for bias. Attrition in this study remained low after round one ($n = 11$) and round two ($n = 11$), however, unit two nonresponders ($n = 40$) represented a statistical validity challenge. The imputation of data via the linear interpolation methods was helpful in maintaining sample size and reducing the likelihood of Type I errors, however, caution should be made when utilizing the interpretation of results from this study.

In addition, the sample ($n = 7$) representing those not selected jeopardized statistical validity regarding that particular group and comparisons made between it and the other groups.

Third, the item utilized to determine perceived cost on the subjective task value measure demonstrated poor reliability at each round of data collection. Although removal of this question increased reliability to a level of acceptability in round one, it leaves one to consider whether or not adolescents are able to articulate the perceived cost associated with participation in sport. In essence, are they giving something up to be involved in sport? If a general lack of cognitive awareness of the perceived cost of participation exists in adolescent populations, then alternative measures may need to be created to determine the extent to which adolescents choose one sport or activity over another.

Fourth, the majority (71%) of competitive team selection participants were included in the study; yet, the extent that non-participants may have on the results remains ambiguous. Last, there was a lack of consideration for self-elimination following outcome announcements. The review of literature acknowledged that selection to the junior varsity may be perceived by some as being not selected (to varsity). Whereas this investigation may have tapped some of this effect, it did not directly address this issue.

Recommendations for the Field

This study sought to examine the effects of high school soccer competitive team selection which, by design, is organized to evaluate, identify, and select the most talented athletes for participation in varsity and junior varsity level sports. Lipsyte (1979) posited that tryouts were akin to a form of social Darwinism occurring at a critical time in the lives of

adolescents. A byproduct of the competitive team selection process, as evidenced by this research and that of previous studies examining team selection (Barnett, 2006; in press; Grove et al., 2004, & Munroe et al., 1999), is that adolescents are confronted with self-, peer-, and significant other-evaluations that may challenge or confirm their pre-existing self-identity, and alter their expectancies and task value for sport. The literature review attests to adolescents' exploration and confirmation of identity via discretionary activity selection reflective of that which they desire to be defined and described as (Barber et al., 2005b; Eccles & Barber, 1999).

Whereas previous studies have examined the competitive team selection process and reported negative and even highly deleterious psychological effects for eliminated participants (Barnett, 2006; in press; Grove et al., 2004, & Munroe et al., 1999), this study cannot discredit the competitive team selection method utilized as being a model that may not be as well suited for adolescents. Participants' experiences during the competitive team selection likely prompted individual analysis of identity-referent information that may have altered perceptions of athletic identification, expectations for success and task value for soccer. While some participants remained relatively consistent in their self-evaluations over time, others experienced fluctuations.

Several findings from this study, when taken in context with sports potential for promotion of developmental assets (Eccles, Templeton et al., 2002) and in alignment with the mission of the NFHS, of supporting "academic achievement, good citizenship and equitable opportunities", can provide useful recommendations for the field. In an effort to continue to

advance interscholastic athletic programs that position sport as enriching students' educational experience and promoting academic achievement; promotive of positive school/community relations; and fostering good citizenship, healthy lifestyles, and the involvement of diverse populations, the following recommendations are provided for national, state, and local consideration.

First, interscholastic athletic departments could consider alternate options (i.e., intramurals) for students. The introduction of or expansion of intramural programs to accommodate a variety of emerging sports and interests, whether regional (i.e. surf club) or seasonal (i.e. mountain climbing) would provide students with alternatives to traditional varsity sports. Students would not only be able to benefit from regular exercise regimes in a group/school setting, but might also be able to participate in community service/awareness initiatives, such as the [American Cancer Society's Relay for Life](#) or [Girls on the Run](#).

Second, interscholastic athletic departments may benefit from a varsity-junior varsity mentoring program. Pairing incoming freshmen athletes with a senior athlete may be of benefit to both. Incoming freshmen athletes would have the opportunity to get to know the culture of the athletic department while at the same time have the opportunity to network, increase school connectedness, increase their personal and physical skills, and benefit from the knowledge of their mentor. Outgoing senior athletes would have the opportunity to further develop their relational skills, maintain their school connectedness, increase their network and benefit from the experiences of their mentee.

In summary, these recommendations were presented in light of the findings from this study and in the scope of interscholastic sports and activities affording opportunities to all students for gaining developmental assets.

Recommendations for Future Research

The present study sought to link the theoretical constructs of athletic identity and the expectancy-value theory model of achievement-related behavior, and to examine a naturally occurring intervention, competitive team selection. Examination of the relationship between aspiring athletes on the variables of athletic identity, expectations for success, and subjective task value was conducted and the findings have provided many more questions in pursuit of a greater understanding of the dynamic nature of adolescent development and the role of youth sports.

One area of significance that warrants greater examination is the competitive team selection process itself. The existence of standard protocol, policies or procedures regarding the administration of competitive team selection was lacking. An examination of the methods utilized to select interscholastic athletes across multiple sports would add significantly to the existing literature. A greater understanding of the factors contributing to player selection is necessary to fully understand who plays and why. A number of variables that could be considered include the degree/extent of openness and access, the recruitment of participants for tryouts, requirements of participation, coaching philosophy and school employment status of the coach, subjective and objective measures/criteria, scoring, player- and coach-feedback judges, selection communication protocol, and membership

opportunities outside of roster. As noted above, this study sought to provide a link between theoretical perspectives in the context of competitive team selection, yet there is much more that can and still needs to be done to promote sport as a vehicle for positive youth development. Several more recommendations for future research are presented below:

First, the level of attrition among participants who were not selected did not allow for a sufficient sample size, nor did it allow for a complete perspective of their experiences before, during or after the competitive team selection process. Future researchers may want to include incentives to participants in order to limit levels of attrition, particularly for those not successful. Incentives may want to be held for completion of all rounds of data collection. These may include gift cards or vouchers for local restaurants or video or game rentals.

Second, although this study focused specifically on athletic identity within the framework of the expectancy-value theory model of achievement-related behavior, additional variables may add insight to the salience of athletic identity within the multidimensional self-concept model of the aspirant athletes. For example, inclusion of a measure to gauge the number of and importance of domains within one's multidimensional model of self-concept would facilitate a greater understanding of sport domain salience in the context of other domains. Furthermore, including a measure for school identity across academic and non-academic domains would also provide a greater understanding of the effects of competitive team selection for school connectedness.

Third, participants in this study were generally confirming existing athletic identities through continued participation. Therefore, replication of this study with a middle school population across multiple sports and a larger sample size may provide greater insight into emerging athletic identity.

Last, utilizing a sequential design method would provide benefits from both a cross-sectional and longitudinal approach. Particularly relevant for a topic of this nature, adolescent identity development through participation in sport, sequential designs may assist the researcher to determine if age-related trends are developmental in nature (Sigelman & Rider, 2003).

Conclusion

Youth sport participation is so pervasive in American society that it is celebrated as a significant cultural event (Berryman, 1996) and regarded as a rite of adolescence. Long considered to convey the values of society (Brady, 2004), sport provides adolescents with opportunities to actively engage in their own identity development (Erikson, 1968). The pursuit of participation in high school sports via competitive team selection, allows adolescents to exercise their emerging identities through peer affirmation and significant other confirmation of that which they seek to be defined and described as, an athlete. Yet, the organization of high school sports' competitive team selection process, referred to as varsity syndrome by Lipsyte (1979) and evidenced in this study, neither guarantees varsity or junior varsity placement, nor outright selection. On the one hand, participation in competitive team selection can provide adolescents with identity referent information (e.g.

through selection and placement or elimination from sport) serving to confirm one's role as an athlete and its associated identity. On the other hand, potentially negative effects may result from disconfirmation of athletic identity, either as a result of sport elimination or falling short of one's expectations in a highly valued domain (Barnett, 2006, in press; Grove et al., 2004; Murnoe et al., 1999).

The major findings of this study were that high school soccer competitive team selection participants aligned their athletic identity, expectations for success and subjective task value in accordance with their selection status. In essence, participants' expectations for success may have been held in check from a sense of reality dictated by one's place in the high school hierarchy that preceded them. The findings support the notion of an athletic pecking order, likely due to self-, peer-, and significant others' evaluations formulated in advance of tryouts, and reinforced by participation in the competitive team selection process. Moreover, the relative lack of gender differences for participants' athletic identity reinforces the findings of others that socially supportive environments for females' athleticism may promote their identification with athletic roles.

The examination of the athletic identity construct within the expectancy-value theory model of achievement-related behavior furthered research on adolescent identity development. This study tested the theoretical connection between the variables in a naturally occurring intervention, high school soccer competitive team selection, adding insight into the relationship between adolescents' athletic identity, expectancies and task value in sport-specific domains. The significance of this research is that scholars and youth

sport policy advocates have gained a better understanding of sport domain specific identities as they relate to achievement-related behavior.

Adolescent identity development is a multi-faceted, dynamic and transitional construct incorporating role play, attribute management strategies, and behavior modification in accordance with situational, contextual, societal and cultural demands. Interscholastic athletics provides but one forum for adolescents to further develop their self-identity. The potentiality of sport in providing youth with positive developmental outcomes, such as the personal and social assets proposed by Eccles et al. (2003), is largely dependent on the organization and administration of these experiences. Scholars and youth sport policy advocates must continue to research methods and techniques that will further sport as promotive of positive developmental experiences for youth.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Personal and Social Assets Linked to Adolescent and Adult Well-Being

1. Intellectual Assets	Knowledge of essential life and vocational skills Good decision-making and problem-solving skills School success Planfulness
2. Psychological Assets	Good mental health Positive self-esteem Emotional self-regulation skills Coping and conflict resolution skills Positive achievement motivation Confidence in one's ability to accomplish goals Optimism coupled with realism Coherent and positive personal and social identity Spirituality and/or a sense of purpose in life Strong moral character A sense that one is making a meaningful contribution to one's community
3. Social Assets	Good relationships with parents, peers, and other adults Strong sense of being connected to, and valued by, larger social networks and social institutions such as schools, churches, out of school youth development centers

(Eccles, Templeton et al., 2002)

Appendix B

FHSAA Sanctioned Sports Calendar 2007-2008

Sport/Gender	Season	Begin Week/Date
Baseball (Boys)	Spring	Week 29 (Jan. 14)
Basketball (Boys)	Winter	Week 18 (Oct. 29)
Basketball (Girls)	Winter	Week 17 (Oct. 22)
Cross Country (Co-ed)	Fall	Week 7 (Aug. 13)
Football (Boys)	Fall	Week 6 (Aug. 6)
Golf (Co-ed)	Fall	Week 6 (Aug. 6)
Soccer (Boys)	Winter	Week 16 (Oct. 15)
Soccer (Girls)	Winter	Week 15 (Oct. 8)
Softball (Girls)	Spring	Week 28 (Jan. 7)
Swimming & Diving (Co-ed)	Fall	Week 6 (Aug. 6)
Tennis (Co-ed)	Spring	Week 31(Jan. 28)
Track & Field (Co-ed)	Spring	Week 30 (Jan. 21)/(Jan. 28)
Volleyball (Girls)	Fall	Week 6 (Aug. 6)
Weightlifting (Boys)	Spring	Week 32 (Feb. 4)
Wrestling (Boys)	Winter	Week 17 (Oct. 22)

Note. According to the predetermined sports season outlined in the FHSAA 2007-08 sports calendar which was last updated on October 5, 2007 at 11:52 a.m.

Appendix C

IRB Approval Letters

Sponsored Programs and Regulatory Compliance

Campus Box 7514
1 Leazar Hall
Raleigh, NC 27695-7514
919.515.7200
919.515.7721 (fax)

From:
Debra A. Paxton, IRB Administrator
North Carolina State University
Institutional Review Board

Date: May 11, 2007

Project Title: Impact of Select Soccer Competitive Team Selection on Adolescent Athletic Identity
IRB#: 223-07-5

Dear Ms. Diaz;

The project listed above has been reviewed in accordance with expedited review procedures under Addendum 46 FR8392 of 45 CFR 46 and is approved for one year from its date of review. **This protocol expires on May 11, 2008 and will need continuing review before that date.**

NOTE:

1. This board complies with requirements found in Title 45 part 46 of The Code of Federal Regulations. For NCSU the Assurance Number is: FWA00003429; the IRB Number is: 01XM.
2. The IRB must be notified of any changes that are made to this study.
3. Your approval for this study lasts for one year from the review date. If your study extends beyond that time, including data analysis, you must obtain continuing review from the IRB.

Please provide a copy of this letter to your faculty sponsor. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Debra Paxton
NCSU IRB

IRB Approval Letters

NC STATE UNIVERSITY

Sponsored Programs and Regulatory Compliance
Campus Box 7514
1 Leazar Hall
Raleigh, NC 27695-7514
919.515.7200
919.515.7721 (fax)

From:
Debra A. Paxton, IRB Administrator
North Carolina State University
Institutional Review Board

Date: September 26, 2007

Project Title: Influence of Soccer Competitive Team Selection Process on Adolescent Athletic Identity

Dear Ms. Diaz;

Your addendum to the study named above has been reviewed by the IRB office, and has been approved. This approval does not change the original IRB approval expiration of the project. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact the IRB office at 919.515.4514.

Thank you,

Debra Paxton
NCSU IRB

Appendix D

North Carolina State University Informed Consent Form

Title of Study: Athletic Identity of High School Soccer Players
Principal Investigator: Stephanie Diaz
Faculty Sponsor: Dr. Judy Peel

Introduction: We are conducting a study about soccer player's athletic identity because we are interested in learning about their participation and aspirations in sport. We are inviting high school soccer players in the Central Florida area to participate in this survey. For more information about this study or for a copy of the results from this study, you may contact: Stephanie Diaz, NC State Survey Results, 2260 Westwood Drive, Murfreesboro, TN 37130; 615.217.6117.

INFORMATION - If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to read each question carefully and complete the answer that best describes your athletic identity. There will be four occasions over the next nine weeks for a version of this survey to be completed by the participating athletes.

RISKS - There are no known risks based on your participation in this study.

BENEFITS - There are no known direct benefits for your participation in this study, however, by participating you will be providing important information to help high school administrators and coaches effectively train, instruct and motivate athletes during competitive team selection and throughout the course of a season.

CONFIDENTIALITY - The information in the study records will be kept strictly confidential. Data will be stored securely in a coded database. No reference will be made in oral or written reports which could link you to the study. No names, school names, team or coach's names are needed for this study.

COMPENSATION N/A

EMERGENCY MEDICAL TREATMENT N/A

CONTACT - If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher, Stephanie Diaz, at 2260 Westwood Drive, Murfreesboro, TN 37130 or 615.217.6117. If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or your rights as a participant in research have been violated during the course of this project, you may contact Dr. Matthew Zingraff, Chair of the NCSU IRB for the Use of Human Subjects in Research Committee, Box 7514, NCSU Campus (919/513-1834) or Mr. Matthew Ronning, Assistant Vice Chancellor, Research Administration, Box 7514, NCSU Campus (919/513-2148)

PARTICIPATION - Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed your data will be returned to you or destroyed at your request.

"If you agree to participate, please complete the following survey online. Your submission of a completed survey will indicate your agreement to participate and your consent for participation. This page will be provided to you for your records."

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME!

Appendix E

Boys and Girls FHSAA Eligibility Requirements

Excerpt from *2007-08 FHSAA Girls and Boys Soccer Manual*
Appendix A: FHSAA Eligibility Rules-in-Brief

Coaches must understand that these rules-in-brief are general statements only. Complete eligibility rules are contained in Article 11 of the FHSAA Bylaws. See your principal or athletic director if you have questions or need further explanation of details and exceptions.

To be eligible to represent your school in interscholastic athletics, a student-athlete:

1. Must be regularly enrolled and in regular attendance at your school. If the student is a home education student or attend a charter school that is not a member of the FHSAA, the student must declare in writing his/her intention to participate in athletics to the school at which he/she is permitted to participate prior to the first day of practice. (FHSAA Bylaw 11.1)
2. Must enroll in school within 10 days of the beginning of each semester to be eligible during that semester. If not, the student must make up all work missed and be in attendance a minimum of one day for each day missed due to late enrollment before your principal can declare the student eligible. (FHSAA Bylaw 11.1)
3. Must maintain a cumulative 2.0 grade point average on a 4.0 unweighted scale through the end of the previous semester as required by Florida Statutes. This GPA must include all courses taken since the student entered high school. Sixth-graders, seventh-graders and eighth-graders must have been regularly promoted from the previous grade, carry a normal class load, do satisfactory classroom work and maintain a satisfactory conduct record. (FHSAA Bylaw 11.2)
4. Must not have graduated from any high school or its equivalent. (FHSAA Bylaw 11.2)
5. Must participate at the school in which the student first enrolls, or at which the student first takes part in an athletic practice, at the beginning of the school year. (FHSAA Bylaw 11.3)
6. Must transfer from his/her previous school prior to the first day of practice and secure an "Application for Waiver of the Transfer Rule" signed by the principal of both the previous school attended and your school. If the student transfers on or after the first day of practice in a sport the student cannot participate in that sport. If the student transfers from a school at which he/she was ineligible because of disciplinary action or unsatisfactory conduct, the

student will be ineligible at your school for one full semester. If the student participates on a non-school team (i.e. AAU, American Legion, club settings, etc.) that is affiliated with or coached by a coach from a school other than the one the student attends, or has attended, and then enrolls in that school, it will be assumed the student has been recruited to attend that school or transferred to that school for athletic reasons and the student will be ineligible there for one year. If the student transfers to a school that his/her coach has relocated to within the past year, it will be assumed the student transferred to that school for athletic reasons and he/she will be ineligible there for one year. (FHSAA Bylaw 11.4)

7. Must not have enrolled in the ninth grade more than four school years ago. If the student is a sixth-grader, seventh-grader or eighth grader, he/she must not have participated in an earlier school year in the grade in which he/she is currently enrolled. (FHSAA Bylaw 11.5)

8. Must be less than 19 years 9 months old to participate in high school; 16 years 9 months old to participate in junior high school; and 15 years 9 months old to participate in middle school. On the day the student reach one of these ages – regardless of when that day is – the student will become ineligible to participate on that level. (FHSAA Bylaw 11.6)

9. Must get signed permission to participate from his/her parents or guardian on a form provided by the school. (FHSAA Bylaw 11.7)

10. Must undergo a physical evaluation and be certified as being physically fit for interscholastic athletic competition. The physical evaluation form is valid for one calendar year from the date of the practitioner's signature. (FHSAA Bylaw 11.8)

11. Must be an amateur. This means the student must not accept money, gift or donation for participating in a sport, or use a name other than his/her own when participating. (FHSAA Bylaw 11.9)

12. Must not participate in an all-star contest in a sport prior to completing his/her high school eligibility in that sport. (FHSAA Bylaw 11.10)

13. Must display good sportsmanship and follow the rules of competition before, during and after every contest in which he/she participates. If not, the student may be suspended from participation for a period of time. (FHSAA Bylaw 11.11)

14. Must not provide false information to his/her school or to the FHSAA to gain eligibility. (FHSAA Bylaw 11.12)

Retrieved on June 2, 2008 from *2007-08 FHSAA Girls Soccer Manual*

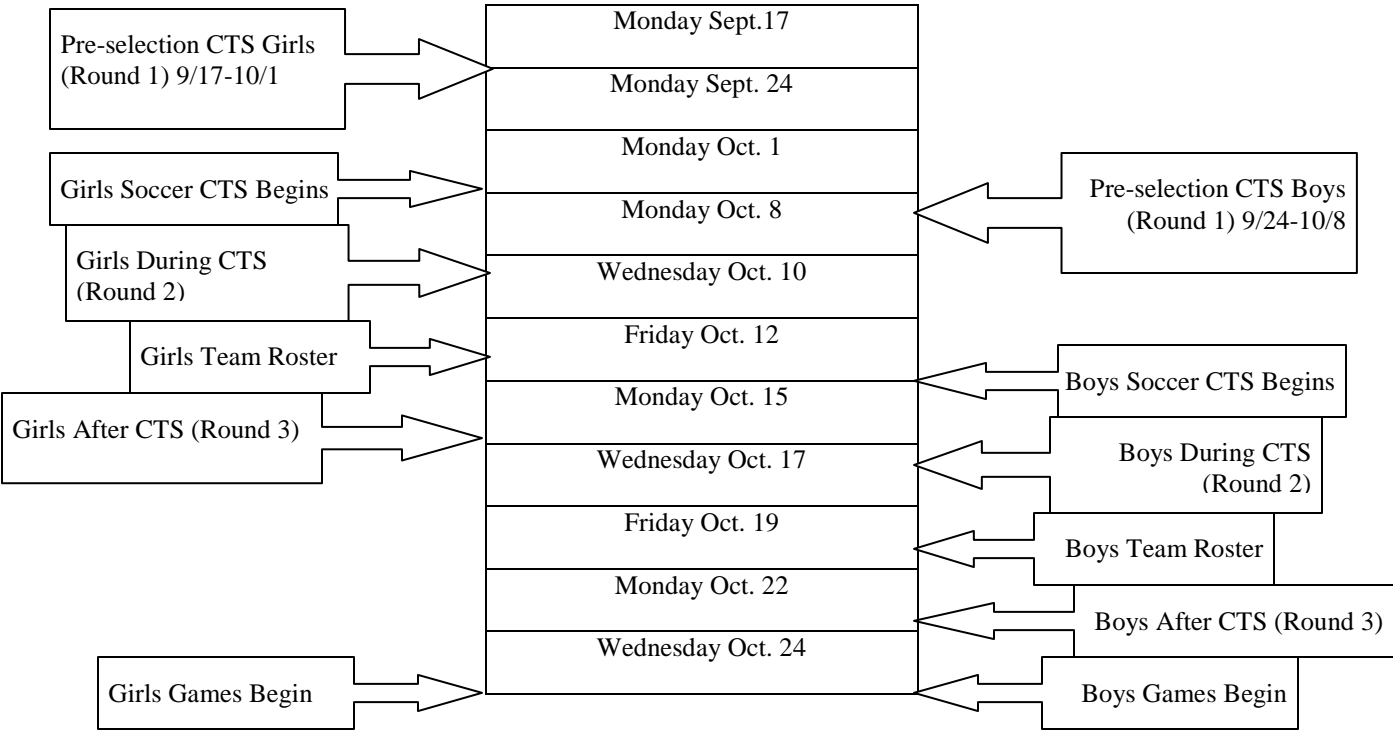
http://www.fhsaa.org/scg/manual/0708_scg_manual3.pdf

2007-08 FHSAA Boys Soccer Manual

http://www.fhsaa.org/scb/manual/0708_scb_manual3.pdf

Appendix F Data Collection Timeline

Key CTS = Competitive Team Selection
 Round 1 – Pre-selection Questions: Demographic & Individual Background & EFS, STV, AI
 Round 2 – During CTS: EFS, STV, AI Round 3 – After CTS: EFS, STV & AI



Appendix G

Round 1, Round 2, and Round 3 Questionnaires

ROUND 1 ATHLETE BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Instructions: Please complete the following questions to the best of your knowledge. Do not leave any questions unanswered. Circle only one answer per question.

1) *Gender:* Male Female

2) *Age:* Under 14 14 15 16 17 18 19

3) *Race/Ethnicity:* Asian Black Hispanic Native American White Other

4) *Current Year in High School:* Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior

5) *Years of Soccer Playing Experience:* 4 or less 5-7 8-10 11 or more

6) *Select ALL of your CURRENT/PLANNED high school activities:*

Academic Clubs (Debate, Math, Science Fair, Chess, etc.)

Athletics (Sports other than Soccer)

Community Service (Church, Volunteer)

Performing Arts (Band, Drama, Dance, etc.)

School (Student Government, Pep Club, Cheerleading)

ROUND 1 & 2 ATHLETE EFS QUESTIONNAIRE

Using a scale of 1 through 7, answer the following questions:

1) How well do you think you will do in SOCCER this year?

Very Poorly (1) (7) Very Well

2) How likely is it for you to make the VARSITY SOCCER team?

Not Very Likely (1) (7) Very Likely

3) How good at SOCCER are you?

Not at all Good (1) (7) Very Good

4) Compared to other players, how well do you expect to do in SOCCER this year?

Much Worse than Others (1) (7) Much Better than Others

ROUND 1, 2 & 3 ATHLETE STV QUESTIONNAIRE

Using a scale of 1 through 7, answer the following questions:

1) For me, being good at SOCCER is...

Not at all Important (1) (7) Very Important

2) How much do you like playing SOCCER?

A Little (1) (7) A Lot

3) In your daily life, how useful are the things you've learned while playing SOCCER?

Not at all Useful (1) (7) Very Useful

4) How much does your time spent playing SOCCER keep you from doing other things you would like to do?

Takes Away No Time (1) (7) Takes Away a Lot of Time

ROUND 1, 2 & 3 ATHLETIC IDENTITY MEASUREMENT SCALE AIMS

Instructions: Please read each statement carefully. Use the scale below and choose the number that matches how much you agree or disagree with each statement. For example, if you strongly agree with a statement, circle number “7”.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I consider myself an athlete.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I have many goals related to sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Most of my friends are athletes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Sport is the most important part of my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I spend more time thinking about sport than anything else.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I feel bad about myself when I do poorly in sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I would be very depressed if I were injured and could not compete in sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ROUND 3 ATHLETE EFS QUESTIONNAIRE (Selected – JV or V)

Using a scale of 1 through 7, answer the following questions:

1) How well do you think you will do in SOCCER this year?

Very Poorly (1) (7) Very Well

2) How likely is it for you to make the VARSITY SOCCER team next year?

Not Very Likely (1) (7) Very Likely

3) How good at SOCCER are you?

Not at all Good (1) (7) Very Good

4) Compared to other players, how well do you expect to do in SOCCER this year?

Much Worse than Others (1) (7) Much Better than Others

ROUND 3 ATHLETE EFS QUESTIONNAIRE (Not Selected)

Using a scale of 1 through 7, answer the following questions:

1) How well do you think you will do in SOCCER next year?

Very Poorly (1) (7) Very Well

2) How likely is it for you to make the VARSITY SOCCER team next year?

Not Very Likely (1) (7) Very Likely

3) How good at SOCCER are you?

Not at all Good (1) (7) Very Good

4) Compared to other players, how well do you expect to do in SOCCER next year?

Much Worse than Others (1) (7) Much Better than Others

Appendix H

Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS)

Original AIMS Ten-Item Questionnaire (Brewer et al., 1993)

1. I consider myself an athlete.
 2. I have many goals related to sport.
 3. Most of my friends are athletes.
 4. Sport is the most important part of my life.
 5. I spend more time thinking about sport than anything else.
 6. I need to participate in sport to feel good about myself.
 7. Other people see me mainly as an athlete.
 8. I feel bad about myself when I do poorly in sport.
 9. Sport is the only important thing in my life.
 10. I would be very depressed if I were injured and could not compete in sport.
-

Appendix I

Demographic Summary of Participants Completing Round 1 Questionnaires ($N = 188$)

Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percentages
Age		
12	3	1.6
13	12	6.4
14	38	20.2
15	47	25.0
16	53	28.2
17	29	15.4
18	6	3.2
Race/Ethnicity		
Asian	2	1.1
Black	6	3.2
Hispanic	21	11.2
Native American	1	0.5
White	150	79.8
Other#	8	4.3
Year in School		
Middle School	9	4.8
Freshman	57	30.3
Sophomore	45	23.9
Junior	44	23.4
Senior	33	17.6
High School Group 1*	59	31.4
High School Group 2	75	39.9
High School Group 3	54	28.7

Note. #Other is described as persons choosing more than one race (e.g. Hispanic and Asian).
 *High School Group 1 is organized as a junior-senior high school (e.g. grades seven through 12) and allows eighth grader's (referred to as middle school) to compete for participation on junior varsity rosters.

Individual Background of Participants Completing Round 1 Questionnaires ($N = 188$)

Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percentages
Years of Experience/Soccer		
4 or less	33	17.6
5 – 7	35	18.6
8 – 10	51	27.1
11 or more	69	36.7
Current/Planned Involvement in Activities Other than Sport		
Academic Clubs	46	24.5
Community Service	84	44.7
Performing Arts	42	22.3
School Clubs	29	15.4
Current/Planned Involvement in Activities Other than Sport		
3 or More Activities	18	9.6
2 Activities	46	24.5
1 Activity	52	27.7
No Activities	71	37.8

Appendix J
Summary of Demographic/Background of Participants According to High School

Variables	HS1 (<i>n</i> = 59)	HS2 (<i>n</i> = 75)	HS3 (<i>n</i> = 54)	Total Frequency (Total Percent)	
Gender					
Male	19	31	31	81	(43.1)
Female	40	44	23	107	(56.9)
Age					
12	3	0	0	3	(1.5)
13	11	1	0	12	(7.1)
14	12	19	7	38	(19.8)
15	11	21	15	47	(25.9)
16	12	24	17	53	(27.9)
17	9	8	12	29	(14.8)
18	1	2	3	6	(3.0)
Race/Ethnicity					
Asian	1	0	1	2	(1.0)
Black	2	1	3	6	(3.0)
Hispanic	5	12	4	21	(10.7)
Native Amer.	0	1	0	1	(0.5)
White	48	59	43	150	(80.7)
#Other	3	2	3	8	(4.1)
Year in School					
Middle Sch.	9	0	0	9	(5.6)
Freshman	18	29	10	57	(30.4)
Sophomore	12	18	15	45	(23.9)
Junior	12	17	15	44	(23.3)
Senior	8	11	14	33	(16.8)

Summary of Demographic/Background of Participants According to High School

Variables	HS1 (<i>n</i> = 59)	HS2 (<i>n</i> = 75)	HS3 (<i>n</i> = 54)	Total Frequency (Percent)
Years of Experience/Soccer				
4 or less	6	18	9	33 (18.8)
5 – 7	16	11	8	35 (19.3)
8 – 10	19	16	16	51 (26.4)
11 or more	18	30	21	69 (35.5)
Current/Planned Involvement in Activities Other than Sport				
Academic Clubs	4	13	29	46 (23.9)
Community Service	26	25	33	84 (43.7)
Performing Arts	13	23	6	43 (21.8)
School Clubs	6	5	18	29 (15.2)
Competitive Team Selection Outcome				
Selected:				
Varsity	27	35	31	93 (47.2)
Jr. Varsity	25	32	21	78 (39.6)
Not Selected:				
Cut	7	7	2	16 (8.1)
Quit	0	1	0	1 (0.5)
Study Participation Status				
Complete Participant	39	44	43	126 (64.5)
Unit Nonresponder	11	22	7	40 (20.3)
Dropout:				
After Round 1	3	7	1	11 (8.6)
After Round 2	6	2	3	11 (6.6)

Participants' Competitive Team Selection Outcomes According to High School/Gender

Variables	HS1 (<i>n</i> = 59)	HS2 (<i>n</i> = 75)	HS3 (<i>n</i> = 54)	Total Frequency (Total Percent)	
Boys					
Varsity	9	14	17	40	(21.2)
Junior Varsity	7	15	12	34	(18.1)
Not Selected	3	2	2	7	(3.7)
Quit	0	0	0	0	(0.0)
Boys Total	19	31	31	81	(43.1)
Girls					
Varsity	18	21	14	53	(28.2)
Junior Varsity	18	17	9	43	(22.9)
Not Selected	4	5	0	9	(4.8)
Quit	0	1	0	1	(0.01)
Girls Total	40	44	23	107	(56.9)

Appendix K

Demographic/Individual Backgrounds of the Participant Types: Round 1 & Round 2 Dropouts, Round 2 Non-responders and Complete Participants

Variables	After Round 1 (<i>n</i> = 11)	After Round 2 (<i>n</i> = 11)	Round 2 Non-Responder (<i>n</i> = 40)	Complete Participants (<i>n</i> = 126)
HS1	3	6	11	39
HS2	7	2	22	44
HS3	1	3	7	43
Gender				
Male	0	6	10	65
Female	11	5	30	61
Age				
12	0	0	0	3
13	0	1	1	10
14	5	2	9	22
15	4	1	10	32
16	0	5	14	34
17	2	1	3	23
18	0	1	3	2
Race/Ethnicity				
Asian	0	1	0	1
Black	0	1	2	3
Hispanic	3	1	1	16
Native Amer.	0	0	0	1
White	8	7	35	100
#Other	0	1	2	5
Year in School				
Middle Sch.	0	1	1	7
Freshman	7	2	14	34
Sophomore	1	3	12	29
Junior	1	2	8	33
Senior	2	3	5	23

Demographic/Individual Backgrounds of Round 1 & 2 Dropouts and Unit Nonresponders

Variables	After 1 (<i>n</i> = 11)	After Round 2 (<i>n</i> = 11)	Round 2 Non- Non-responder (<i>n</i> = 40)	Complete Round Participant (<i>n</i> = 126)
Years of Experience/Soccer				
4 or less	7	3	9	14
5 – 7	1	4	8	22
8 – 10	1	3	14	33
11 or more	2	1	9	57
Current/Planned Involvement in Activities Other than Sport				
Academic Clubs	2	3	9	32
Community Service	3	5	16	60
Performing Arts	1	2	10	29
School Clubs	2	2	6	19
Competitive Team Selection Outcome				
Selected:				
Varsity	4	3	16	70
Jr. Varsity	1	4	22	51
Not Selected:				
Cut	5	3	2	5
Quit	1	0	0	0

Appendix L

Primary Statistical Analysis with Complete Participants

RQ1 Relationship between athletic identity, expectations for success, and subjective task value throughout the competitive team selection process.

Correlation Matrix for Indicators for Complete Participants ($n = 126$)

Indicators	Before			During			After		
	EFS	STV	AI	EFS	STV	AI	EFS	STV	AI
Before EFS	1.0								
STV	.39**	1.0							
AI	.50**	.57**	1.0						
During EFS	.84**	.39**	.53**	1.0					
STV	.32**	.71**	.51**	.48**	1.0				
AI	.44**	.48**	.88**	.51**	.54**	1.0			
After EFS	.77**	.44**	.46**	.84**	.54**	.49**	1.0		
STV	.36**	.66**	.56**	.47**	.82**	.61**	.61**	1.0	
AI	.41**	.50**	.83**	.49**	.53**	.88**	.49**	.67**	1.0

** $p < .01$ (2-tailed)

Note. Athletic Identity (AI), Expectations for Success (EFS), Subjective Task Value (STV), Before (B), During (D), and After (A) Competitive Team Selection

RQ2 Athletic identity, expectations for success, subjective task value, and competitive team selection outcomes.

Athletic Identity: Outcome and Time

Main effects: ^aTime $F(1, 123) = .42, p >.05, \eta^2 = .00$
 Outcome, $F(2, 123) = 3.92, p <.05, \eta^2 = .06$
Interaction effects: ^{a*}Outcome and time, $F(2, 123) = .27, p >.05, \eta^2 = .00$

Subjective Task Value: Outcome and Time

Main effects: ^aTime $F(1, 123) = 8.31, p <.01, \eta^2 = .06$
 Outcome, $F(2, 123) = 1.90, p >.01, \eta^2 = .03$
Interaction effects: ^aOutcome and time, $F(2, 123) = .96, p >.05, \eta^2 = .02$

Expectations for Success: Outcome and Time

Main effects: ^aTime $F(1, 123) = 1.72, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$
 Outcome, $F(2, 123) = 25.23, p <.01, \eta^2 = .29$
Interaction effects: ^aOutcome and time, $F(1, 123) = .71, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$

^aUsing lower-bound Epsilon adjustment

* Results significant for imputed sample ($N = 166$) but not complete sample ($n = 126$)

RQ3 Athletic identity, expectations for success, subjective task value, and gender.

Athletic Identity: Gender and Time

Main effects: ^aTime $F(1, 124) = 1.36, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$
 Gender, $F(1, 124) = 1.94, p >.05, \eta^2 = .02$
Interaction effects: ^aGender and time, $F(1, 124) = .65, p >.05, \eta^2 = .00$

Subjective Task Value: Gender and Time

Main effects: ^aTime $F(1, 124) = 10.38, p <.01, \eta^2 = .08$
 Gender, $F(1, 124) = .03, p >.05, \eta^2 = .00$
Interaction effects: ^aGender and time, $F(1, 124) = .72, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$

Expectations for Success: Gender and Time

Main effects: ^aTime $F(1, 124) = 7.63, p <.01, \eta^2 = .06$
 Gender, $F(1, 124) = 1.94, p >.05, \eta^2 = .02$
Interaction effects: ^aGender and time, $F(1, 124) = 2.37, p >.05, \eta^2 = .02$

^aUsing lower-bound Epsilon adjustment

RQ4 Athletic identity, expectations for success, subjective task value, and year/division school

Athletic Identity: Year in School and Time and Division in School and Time

Main effects: ^aTime $F(1, 121) = 1.33, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$
 Year in School, $F(4, 121) = 1.41, p >.05, \eta^2 = .04$
Interaction effects: ^aYear in School and time, $F(4, 121) = .24, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$

Main effects: ^aTime $F(1, 117) = 1.12, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$
 Division in School, $F(1, 117) = 1.60, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$
Interaction effects: ^aDivision in School and time, $F(1, 117) = .56, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$

Subjective Task Value: Year in School and Time and Division in School and Time

Main effects: ^{a*}Time $F(1, 121) = 9.61, p >.01, \eta^2 = .07$
 Year in School, $F(4, 121) = 1.97, p >.05, \eta^2 = .06$
Interaction effects: ^aYear in School and time, $F(4, 121) = .54, p >.05, \eta^2 = .02$

Main effects: ^aTime $F(1, 117) = 8.80, p <.01, \eta^2 = .07$
 Division in School, $F(1, 117) = 6.06, p <.05, \eta^2 = .05$
Interaction effects: ^aDivision in School and time, $F(1, 117) = .19, p >.05, \eta^2 = .00$

Expectations for Success: Year in School and Time and Division in School and Time

Main effects: ^{a*}Time $F(1, 121) = 3.6, p >.05, \eta^2 = .03$
 Year in School, $F(4, 121) = 2.99, p <.05, \eta^2 = .09$
Interaction effects: ^aYear in School and time, $F(4, 121) = .97, p >.05, \eta^2 = .03$

Main effects: ^aTime $F(1, 117) = 7.35, p <.01, \eta^2 = .06$
 *Division in School, $F(1, 117) = 3.04, p >.05, \eta^2 = .03$
Interaction effects: ^{a*}Division in School and time, $F(1, 117) = .31, p >.05, \eta^2 = .01$

^aUsing lower-bound Epsilon adjustment

* Results significant for imputed sample ($N = 166$) but not complete sample ($n = 126$)

Appendix M

Correlation Matrices for Indicators According to Outcome Group

Correlation Matrix for Indicators and Varsity Group ($n = 86$)

Indicators	Before			During			After			
	EFS	STV	AI	EFS	STV	AI	EFS	STV	AI	
Before EFS	1.0									
STV	.46**	1.0								
AI	.53**	.59**	1.0							
During EFS	.67**	.40**	.52**	1.0						
STV	.28**	.69**	.48**	.56**	1.0					
AI	.44**	.46**	.78**	.61**	.60**	1.0				
After EFS	.71**	.55**	.54**	.68**	.59**	.57**	1.0			
STV	.39**	.74**	.64**	.39**	.76**	.62**	.68**	1.0		
AI	.30**	.58**	.82**	.45**	.55**	.78**	.51**	.71**	1.0	

Correlation Matrix for Indicators and Junior Varsity Group ($n = 73$)

Indicators	Before			During			After			
	EFS	STV	AI	EFS	STV	AI	EFS	STV	AI	
Before EFS	1.0									
STV	.33**	1.0								
AI	.40**	.54**	1.0							
During EFS	.54**	.16	.24*	1.0						
STV	.33**	.49**	.45**	.37**	1.0					
AI	.18	.29*	.69**	.32**	.48**	1.0				
After EFS	.74**	.29*	.42**	.50**	.35**	.16	1.0			
STV	.48**	.47**	.53**	.36**	.64**	.36**	.65**	1.0		
AI	.34**	.30**	.79**	.22	.42**	.71**	.42**	.60**	1.0	

Note. Athletic Identity (AI), Expectations for Success (EFS), Subjective Task Value (STV), Before (B), During (D), and After (A) Competitive Team Selection

** $p < .01$ (2-tailed)

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed)

Correlation Matrix for Indicators and Not Selected Group ($n = 7$)

Indicators	Before			During			After			
	EFS	STV	AI	EFS	STV	AI	EFS	STV	AI	
Before EFS	1.0									
STV	.70	1.0								
AI	.54	.63	1.0							
During EFS	.91*	.84*	.53	1.0						
STV	.05	.52	.26	.43	1.0					
AI	.34	.62	.84*	.34	.27	1.0				
After EFS	.83*	.78*	.49	.94*	.51	.22	1.0			
STV	.24	.73	.66	.53	.67	.55	.50	1.0		
AI	.33	.69	.88**	.36	.23	.85*	.32	.74	1.0	

Note. Athletic Identity (AI), Expectations for Success (EFS), Subjective Task Value (STV), Before (B), During (D), and After (A) Competitive Team Selection

** $p < .01$ (2-tailed)

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed)