

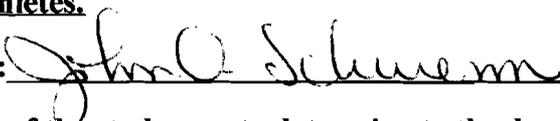
AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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in Psychology presented on July 14, 1994.

Title: A Comparison of Fear of Success and Self-esteem in Male and Female Athletes and Nonathletes.

Abstract Approved:



The purpose of the study was to determine to the degree to which athletic status, gender, gender role identity, and self-esteem contribute to or predict an individual's fear of success. This study identified the percentage of variance in fear of success that is accounted for by each of the predictor variables. The data was obtained from 236 male and female students who attend Emporia State University. The sample consisted of 104 males (76 athletes, 28 nonathletes) and 132 females (41 athletes and 91 nonathletes). Of the total sample size, 117 subjects were collegiate athletes from the following sports: basketball (M = 9, F = 12), tennis (M = 8, F = 6), cross country/track (M = 27, F = 11), and baseball/softball (M = 32, F = 12). The nonathletes were selected from various psychology classes from the same university. The range of ages in this sample was 18 to 24 with an average being 21 years old. Each subject received a packet containing a demographic sheet, the FOSS, the PAQ, and the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale. A multiple regression analysis revealed that a person's gender, athletic status, gender role identity, and self-esteem simultaneously accounted for 27% of the variance in FOS. However, if self-esteem is not taken into consideration, then the other three variables account for 21% of the variance in fear of success. Individually, gender, athletic status, gender role identity, and self-esteem account for 10%, 16%, 7%, and

13%, respectively, of the variance in FOS. It was concluded there was a difference between a person's gender, athletic status, gender role identity, and self-esteem when predicting a person's level of fear of success.

**A COMPARISON OF FEAR OF SUCCESS AND SELF-ESTEEM
IN MALE AND FEMALE ATHLETES AND NONATHLETES**

A Thesis Proposal

Presented to

the Division of Psychology and Special Education

EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

by

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Striving for success appears to be a universal way of life for most people in the United States. How to become and remain successful is discussed constantly. There are many self-help books dealing with commercial success (successfully selling oneself and products of all descriptions), interpersonal success (winning friends and influencing people), academic success, athletic success, and success in relationships. Parents are teaching their children how to be successful before the children are old enough to be in school (Canavan-Gumpert, Garner, & Gumpert, 1978). Successful people tend to be role models for children and less successful adults. With all the literature, the classes, and the successful people in the United States, it is hard to believe someone would fear success.

Fear of Success

The concept of Fear of Success (FOS) was first introduced by Matina Horner in 1972. Horner (1972) believed that a motive to avoid success exists among most high achieving and competent women, because success may be associated with negative social consequences (i.e. social rejection and/or feelings of being unfeminine). Horner also suggested that such women may have a conflict between developing their ability and interests and maintaining their sense of femininity. As a result of this conflict, women tend to adjust their behaviors to conform with those of traditional gender role stereotypes.

Horner (1972) developed the concept in reaction to subjects' written responses to the following statement: "After the first term finals, Anne (John) finds herself (himself) at the top of her (his) medical school class" (p. 161). The women wrote a story about Anne and the men wrote about John. The results revealed that 65.5% of the women and 9.1% of the men wrote a story revealing a FOS. Furthermore, women who wrote FOS stories performed better in a noncompetitive

situation than in a competitive situation; however, women whose stories did not reveal FOS performed better in a competitive situation. Based on these results, Horner believed that the level of FOS is higher in women than in men and that FOS interferes with performance in competitive situations (Zuckerman & Allison, 1976).

FOS is the motive to avoid success (Paludi, 1984). Horner (1969, cited by Paludi, 1984, p. 765) stated in her doctoral dissertation that

"in competitive achievement situations, especially those in which important men (i.e., prospective dates; boyfriends) are present, success-seeking women of high ability have not only (a) a motive to approach success and (b) a motive to avoid failure but also (c) a motive to become anxious about being successful: a motive to avoid success. Such a motive is present because of the expectations of negative consequences as a result of succeeding (i.e., loss of femininity, social rejection and disapproval)".

According to Good and Good (1973), people who fear success are inclined to worry about the possibility of antagonizing others should their performances be of superior quality in various types of activities. Individuals who fear success appear to be externals, have more negative self-esteem, and express anxiety in academic situations (Canavan-Gumpert et al. 1978).

Ogilvie (1968) believes that FOS or "success phobia" consists of the following six factors: (a) fear of social and emotional isolation, (b) guilt feelings about self-assertion or aggression, (c) fear of expressing one's potential, (d) fear of dethroning past idols or traditions, (e) fear of being a record holder or holding elite status, and (f) resenting success as a reaction to exaggerated external demands or expectations for excellence. According to Horner (1969), the motive of FOS comes from one's anxiety that success in a competitive situation would lead to a loss of friends or a loss of perceived femininity. However, according to Tresemer (1976),

FOS may come from a desire to avoid outcomes that are out of character, fear of increased demands, fear of not being successful, fear of social ostracism, and fear of retribution from some parent or godlike figure.

Measures of Fear of Success

Horner's (1969) results have generated a great deal of controversy and several subsequent studies have not supported her findings. Literature reviews (Tresemer, 1976; Zuckerman & Wheeler, 1975) reviewing FOS suggest no sex differences in FOS scores. Tresemer (1976) believed that what is scored as FOS for men in relation to the John statement is not the same as what is scored for women. The most prevalent themes in the men's stories are pessimism and hostility, which devalue success. The predominant themes in the women's stories deal with social rejection, loss of femininity, and affective loss. Zuckerman and Wheeler (1975) believed that the poor results stem from the operationalization of the FOS construct rather than from its theoretical value. The subjects' stories about Anne and John may reveal sex roles or stereotypes about the achievement of men and women rather than fear about success. When both male and female subjects wrote stories about Anne and John, both sexes wrote more FOS stories about Anne than about John. In addition, other difficulties with operationally defining and assessing FOS stem from (a) no scoring manual for FOS and (b) scores which come from a single Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) story. Hence, the measure has been subject to a low rate of reliability and of predictive validity. As a result, Zuckerman and Allison (1976) developed a more objective measure of FOS called the FOS Scale (FOSS).

Zuckerman and Allison (1976) administered 27 statements in a 7-point Likert type form to 3 samples as part of the development of the instrument. They hypothesized that since most women are not taught to succeed, then FOS should be more prevalent among women than men. As predicted, women scored significantly higher than men on the FOSS. Then, the authors examined the correlation between

the FOSS and Horner's (1969) projective measure of FOS. The women scored significantly higher on the FOS than the men.

In validating their measure, Zuckerman and Allison (1976) investigated the relationship between the FOSS, performance on a task, and causal attribution of success and failure. It was hypothesized that individuals with a high level of FOS may attribute their successes to external factors and attribute their failures to internal factors. In addition to receiving the FOSS, Horner's (1969) projective measure of FOS and Mehrabian's measure of achievement motivation, subjects received a 13 anagram task. Results revealed that high FOS subjects performed worse on the anagram task, rated success as being less important, attributed success to external factors, and attributed failure to internal factors than those subjects with a low level of FOS. As predicted, women scored significantly higher than men on the FOSS. Internal reliability was .69 for men and .73 for women. Concurrent validity measures used in Zuckerman and Allison's study revealed a negative relationship between FOSS and achievement motivation.

Factors Related to Fear of Success

Gender and Fear of Success

Since Horner developed her measure of FOS (1972), there has been much controversy and debate to determine whether significant differences exist between men and women. If significant differences exist between the two groups, it is predictable from Horner's research that women would have a higher level of FOS than men. Accordingly, Santucci, Terzian, and Kayson (1989) hypothesized that women would have higher FOSS scores than men. The authors felt that since the seniors would be graduating soon and entering the work force, they would score higher than the freshman who still have three years ahead of them. As predicted, the results revealed women scored significantly higher than men.

Kearney (1984) examined the differences between men and women in their level of FOS. The Good and Good FOS Scale (1973) was administered to students attending George Washington University. The results revealed no significant difference between men and women on the FOS scores. Primary concerns for both genders seemed to be the notion of negative feelings from others towards them would be provoked for being a high achiever. Secondary concerns seemed to be that others would take advantage of them and relationships with others might suffer.

Gender Role Identity and Fear of Success

Instead of measuring FOS as a function of gender, some researchers have examined FOS in terms of a person's gender role identity. Gender role identity refers to the degree to which a person possesses masculine and feminine traits (Cano, Solomon, & Holmes, 1984). It was once a common belief that masculinity and femininity are orthogonal dimensions. To challenge the validity of this belief, the concept of androgyny was developed (Major, 1979). Androgynous refers to the person who embraces high levels of masculine and feminine traits. Bem (1974) believed androgynous persons are more inclined toward performing different roles to suit varying situations, are more wholesome and flexible, and are more able to adjust to society than those with stereotyped sex roles.

Bem (1974) developed the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) to measure his concept of androgyny. The BSRI has four classifications: masculine (M), feminine (F), androgynous, and undifferentiated. Androgynous refers to the person who embraces high levels of masculine and feminine traits. A person with high levels of masculine or feminine characteristics is considered to be masculine or feminine, respectively. Undifferentiated refers to that person who has low levels of masculine and feminine traits.

Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975) disagreed with the way Bem assessed androgyny because individuals with big margins between their M and F scores on

the BSRI could be considered as androgynous. Based upon this disagreement, Spence et al. (1974) developed the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ). The PAQ bases the four classifications of sex role identity on the medians obtained from the M and F measurement scores of the entire sample. The PAQ consists of three scales: Masculinity (M), Femininity (F), and Masculinity-Femininity (M-F). The M scale measures those characteristics that are known to be socially acceptable characteristics in both sexes, but that men tend to possess in greater abundance than women. The F scale measures those characteristics known to be socially acceptable characteristics in both sexes, but that women tend to possess in greater abundance than men. The M-F scale measures those characteristics whose social acceptance appears to be in both sexes.

Cano et al. (1984) examined the relationship between FOS and gender role identity. The authors wanted to determine whether a certain factor of masculinity was related to FOS. Subjects from the University of Kansas completed the Sudd FOS Scale (SFOS) (Sadd, Lenauer, Shaver, & Dunivant, 1978), the BSRI, and the PAQ. The subjects were classified as either androgynous, masculine, feminine, or undifferentiated based on their scores to the BSRI and PAQ. Results revealed a significant main effect for gender role identity on the BSRI and on the PAQ.

Androgynous and masculine subjects had lower FOS than did the feminine and undifferentiated subjects. The authors believed that FOS was related more to the absence of masculine traits than to the presence of feminine traits. A multiple regression analysis suggested the FOS scores were related to four variables: self-confidence, decisiveness, analytical skills, and independence.

FOS, fear of failure, and androgyny were examined by Mulig, Haggerty, Carballosa, Cinnick, and Madden (1985). Subjects completed a biographical sheet, the FOSS, the Debilitating Anxiety Scale (DAS), and the BSRI. The purposes of the study were to investigate (a) the relationship between the FOSS and the DAS;

(b) the relationship between the BSRI sex role categories, and the FOSS and the DAS; and (c) to assess the relationship between the BSRI subscale scores, the FOSS and DAS. The analyses suggested that FOS was a gender-related construct and was more prevalent in the female's scores than in the male's scores on the FOSS. Further, it was revealed that FOS and fear of failure (DAS) can be predicted based on the masculine and neutral subscale scores on the BSRI.

Major (1979) predicted that women who were androgynous would have a lower FOS than women who were high masculine, high feminine, or undifferentiated. A second prediction was that women who possessed masculine characteristics (androgynous or sex-reversed) would be higher in achievement motivation and performance than low-masculine women. As predicted androgynous women scored lower in FOS than did the other three groups combined. An analysis of variance revealed a significant difference between the four groups in their level of FOS.

Gayton, Havu, and Barnes (1978) investigated the relationship between psychological adrogyny and FOS in women. One hundred twenty-eight undergraduates completed the BSRI and the Good and Good (1973) FOS scale. Androgynous women had lower FOS scores than did either the sex-typed or the indeterminate women. Non-sextyped women scored significantly lower FOS scores than either sex-typed or indeterminate women. Androgynous and non-sextyped women did not differ significantly from each other. These studies suggests that androgyny may be related to minimizing the anxiety from situations women who are more traditionally sex-typed perceive as being a negative consequence of succeeding.

Athletic Status and Fear of Success

Silva (1982) evaluated the differences in FOS in male and female athletes and nonathletes. The study consisted of 193 male and female undergraduate students (100 collegiate athletes and 93 nonathletes) between the ages of 18-23 years. The

athletes were participants in the sports of basketball, field hockey, ice hockey, and soccer, while the nonathletes were selected from introductory psychology classes. The participants were given the FOSS. The results revealed that women scored higher on the FOSS than did the men. A Scheffe post-hoc analysis revealed that male athletes scored lower than the female athletes, female nonathletes, and male nonathletes, no other differences were significant. Silva believed that the male athletes could be experiencing a different socialization process for performance and achievement related activities than the other groups. Female athletes' scores on the FOSS were not above the average score for Zuckerman and Allison's (1976) study. This result, in turn, does not support studies by Ogilvie (1979) and Harris (1979) suggesting female athletes may be harmed by a high or above normal level of FOS.

Hardy and Silva (1986) examined the relationship between FOS and selected personality traits of elite male athletes. Thirty-six senior elite level wrestlers at the Olympic Training Center in Colorado Springs were given the FOSS and the Institute for Personality and Ability Testing (IPAT) 16PF inventory. The mean FOS score for this group was lower than the mean range for men in Zuckerman and Allison's (1976) study and lower than the mean scores for the male collegiate athletes in Silva's (1982) study. However, those wrestlers who had low FOS scores had 16PF profiles that were slightly abnormal, the wrestlers were characterized as being assertive, determined, dominated by a sense of duty, venturesome, self-assured, controlled, and relaxed.

Athletic Status and Gender Role Identity

According to Harris (1979) and Ogilvie (1979), FOS may be a psychological barrier to achievement for female athletes because of gender role conflicts stemming from participating and succeeding in the sports arena, traditionally a male-dominated setting. Caron, Carter, and Brightman (1985) studied 269 male varsity athletes and 96 male nonathletes. Of the athletes, 196 competed in the

individual sports of fencing, golf, riflery, swimming, tennis, and track; while 163 competed in the team sports of football, basketball, soccer, lacrosse, and hockey. It was hypothesized that competitive team athletes would possess higher masculinity, be less egalitarian in their views toward women, and be less liberal in their views toward heterosexual behavior among women but not men, than would individual athletes or nonathletes. The subjects completed the BSRI, the ATWS, and the Reiss Premarital Sexual Permissiveness Scale (Reiss, 1967). The over-all results revealed that the team athletes showed higher masculinity and less egalitarian attitudes towards women than did the individual athletes and the nonathletes; however, the individual team male athletes did not differ in femininity. Team athletes were significantly more liberal in their attitudes toward premarital sexual behavior by men and women than were individual athletes or nonathletes.

Desertain and Weiss (1988) examined the relationship among role conflict, gender role orientation, and adolescent female sport participation. The authors predicted female nonathletes would report less perceived and experienced role conflict than female athletes. Another prediction was that female athletes who are androgynous would report less perceived and experienced role conflict than those female athletes who are categorized as feminine, masculine, or undifferentiated. A third prediction was that female athletes in individual sports would perceive and experience less role conflict than female athletes in team sports. A final prediction was that female team sport participants who are androgynous would report less perceived and experienced role conflict than female athletes in team sports who are feminine, masculine, or undifferentiated. One hundred six female high school athletes and nonathletes from two high schools in the Pacific Northwest were administered the PAQ and a role conflict inventory.

A chi-square analysis of the Desertain and Weiss (1988) study revealed that for the athletes there was an equal distribution among the categories of

androgynous, masculine, and undifferentiated, but there was a lower frequency of individuals in the feminine category. For the nonathletes the undifferentiated category had the most people followed by an equal frequency for the androgynous and feminine categories and a fewer number for the masculine category.

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) revealed a significant difference between the athletes and nonathletes in their perception and experience of role conflict. A nonsignificant association was revealed between role conflict and gender role orientation. There was no significant difference between those athletes who participate in team sports and those who participate in individual sports on the issue of role conflict. A MANOVA revealed there was no difference between the four gender role categories as to which category for team athletes would report less perceived and experienced role conflict (Desertain & Weiss, 1988).

Wrisberg, Draper, and Everett (1988) wanted to determine whether the sex role orientations of male and female collegiate athletes were more similar in individual sports than in team sports. It was hypothesized that women in masculine-oriented team sports would have similar sex role orientations with their male counterparts than would women in individual sports based on the results from the BSRI. The athletes were from National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I, Division II, and Division III schools in the Southeast and Midwest United States. The represented sports included track and field, swimming, basketball, and volleyball. The results revealed no significant differences between male and female team athletes in their sex role orientation with the greatest percentage of the athletes having a masculine or androgynous orientation. However, there was a significant difference between the male and female individual sport athletes in their sex role orientation. The greatest percentage of women were identified as feminine and the lowest percentage as masculine. The greatest percentage of men were identified as undifferentiated and the lowest as androgynous. As predicted, female athletes in

team sports had more similar sex role orientations with their male counterparts than did women in individual sports.

Burke (1986) wanted to determine whether there was a difference in the number of psychologically androgynous female athletes competing in the traditionally inappropriate sports (basketball and softball) and traditionally appropriate sports (tennis and swimming). The subjects consisted of 11 basketball players, 12 softball players, 17 swimmers, and 9 tennis players from Florida State University. Each subject was administered the BSRI and then each athlete was classified as androgynous or nonandrogynous (masculine, feminine, or undifferentiated). A chi-square analysis revealed no significant difference between the number of androgynous women athletes in traditionally inappropriate sports or traditionally appropriate sports. These results also revealed those women in traditionally inappropriate sports score significantly higher on the masculinity scale.

Burke (1986) believes that women's attitudes about themselves and the stereotypes of women are changing. Competitiveness, a masculine characteristic on the BSRI, is becoming more prominent in women. Also, competitiveness is a necessity in athletics. As women enter a so-called "male domain" other "masculine" characteristics, such as assertiveness, become stronger in women. As a result, women tend to score as either androgynous or masculine, as evidenced in this study when women in the traditionally inappropriate sports scored higher on the masculine scale than did those in the traditionally appropriate sports.

In the same vein, Colker and Widom (1980) investigated psychological masculinity and femininity, self-esteem, and attitudes toward women in a group of female athletes. Female athletes were compared with their college peers. Based on past research, the authors predicted that female athletes would score higher on masculinity, lower on femininity, and higher in self-esteem than nonathletes. Then, athletes from different sports were compared. The athlete's level of commitment

and experience were analyzed as they relate to psychological masculinity and femininity, self-esteem, and attitudes toward women. The authors also wanted to examine the changes that might occur during the season.

Athletes were selected from the following four sports: crew, basketball, squash, and swimming. The subjects completed the PAQ, the TSBI, and the ATWS. They were also asked to rate their commitment to athletics on a scale of 1 to 10. The results revealed a significant difference between the female athletes and college students on psychological femininity; however, there was no significant difference between the groups on psychological masculinity or attitudes towards women. As expected, the female athletes scored lower than their peers on femininity; but, what was unexpected was lack of differences on masculinity (Colker & Widom, 1980).

Self-esteem, Gender, and Fear of Success

Since a major characteristic of the FOS Syndrome is the level of self-esteem, consisting of self-evaluation and self-doubt, it was expected that people with a FOS would have a more negative self-esteem when measured by the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale than would people with no FOS, which, in fact, they do (Canavan-Gumpert et al., 1978). Since FOS and self-esteem are negatively correlated, and the present relationship will be examined in this study, a definition of self-esteem is in order. According to Rosenberg (1965), self-esteem is a positive or negative feeling people develop toward themselves. High self-esteem reflects individuals who believe they are of worth, respect themselves for the type of people they are, but are not in awe of themselves. People with high self-esteem do not consider themselves better than others, but do not consider themselves worse. They realize their limitations and expect to improve. A person with low self-esteem tends to experience self-rejection, self-contempt, and self-dissatisfaction; such an individual tends to lack self-respect.

Purpose of the Study

It is believed that people do have different levels of FOS. Also, it is believed that there are differences between men's and women's level of FOS (Horner, 1969; Santucci et al., 1989; Silva, 1982; Zuckerman & Allison, 1976). In addition to gender differences, Silva (1982) revealed differences between athletes and nonathletes in their FOS level. The literature has revealed that subjects with androgynous or masculine characteristics have a lower FOS rate than subjects with feminine or undifferentiated characteristics (Cano et al., 1984; Major, 1979).

Despite the studies revealing all of the differences between the variables of gender, athletic status, and gender roles, there are studies that contradict these results. Several studies, including Forbes & King (1983) and Kearney (1984), reported no significant differences in FOS scores between men and women.

Several studies have been conducted comparing FOS with each of the following variables: gender, athletic status, and gender roles. Some studies have compared gender and athletic status with FOS. Others have compared gender and gender roles with FOS. A few studies have compared athletic status and gender roles with FOS. However, no study has examined simultaneously the effects of gender, athletic status, gender role, and self-esteem with FOS; this is the purpose of the present study. This study will examine the degree to which each of these factors predict the likelihood of or the level of FOS for an individual. Furthermore, the degree to which self-esteem accounts for the variance in FOS will also be examined.

Statement of the Research Hypothesis

- 1) Female subjects will score higher on the FOSS than male subjects.
- 2) Collegiate athletes will score lower on the FOSS than nonathletes.
- 3) Subjects with an androgynous gender role identity will score lower FOSS than subjects who are more traditionally sex-typed.

4) Subjects who have a low level of self-esteem will have a higher level of FOS than subjects who have a high level of self-esteem.

5) Male athletes who possess masculine-feminine gender role characteristics will have the lowest FOS scores; followed in order by female athletes who possess masculine characteristics, male nonathletes who possess masculine characteristics, female nonathletes who possess feminine characteristics.

Chapter 2

Method

Subjects

The subjects consisted of 236 male and female students who attend Emporia State University. The sample consisted of 104 men (76 athletes, 28 nonathletes) and 132 women (41 athletes, 91 nonathletes). The athletes participated in the following sports: basketball (M = 32, F = 12), tennis (M = 8, F = 6), cross country/Track (M = 32, F = 12). The nonathletes were from the following psychology classes at the same university: introductory, developmental, and law and psychology.

Instruments

Demographic Sheet

Subjects were asked to report gender, age, classification, athletic status, and the sport the athletes play (Appendix C).

Fear of Success (FOSS)

Zuckerman and Allison (1976) developed the 27-item FOSS, which uses a 7-point Likert-type scale. Subjects indicate the degree to which they agree with statements describing the benefits of success, the costs of success, and attitudes toward success. Sixteen of the 27 items are stated so that agreement indicated high FOS; while, agreement with the other 11 items indicated low FOS rate. A subject's score on the FOSS can range from 27 to 189 with a high score indicating a FOS (Appendix D).

Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ)

Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1974) developed the PAQ as an instrument to assess masculinity and femininity. The PAQ consists of 24 bipolar items describing personal characteristics based on the subject's responses on a 5-point Likert-type scale. Each of the 24 items is scored from 1 to 5. The instrument is broken down into 3 8-item scales, labeled Masculinity (M), Femininity (F), and

Masculinity-Femininity (M-F). Total scores are obtained for each scale by adding the individual's scores on the eight items. A subject's score on the PAQ can range from 8 to 40 for each scale. An extreme masculine response comes from a high score on those items addressed by the M and M-F scales; while, an extreme feminine response comes from a high score on those items addressed by the F scale (Appendix E).

Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (ROS)

In 1965, Rosenberg developed the Self-esteem Scale, that measures the self-acceptance aspect of self-esteem. This scale consists of 10 items answered on a 4-point Likert type scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree; however, the items are scored as agreement or disagreement. This scale measures the self-acceptance aspect of self-esteem more than it does other factors; considering the fact that all of the items deal with liking and/or approving of the self. The "high" and "low" items were counterbalanced to prevent order effects (Appendix F).

Design of the Study

The study employed four classification variables and one dependent variable. The first independent variable, gender, had two levels, male and female. The second independent variable, athletic status, had two levels, athlete and nonathlete. The third independent variable, gender role identity, had three levels, masculine, feminine, and masculine-feminine. The fourth independent variable, self-esteem, was a continuous variable. Scores on the FOSS served as the dependent variable.

Procedures

For the athletes, the examiner collected the data at normal practice times. For the nonathletes (students) data were collected during normal class time from a variety of psychology classes.

For both groups, the following procedures were implemented. First, the subjects read, signed, and dated an informed consent form (Appendix A). Each

subject was given a packet containing a cover sheet (Appendix B), a demographic sheet, FOSS, PAQ, and the ROS. The three scales were counterbalanced to prevent any order effects. The subjects were told that they would be administered three objective standardized personality measures. Also, they were told not to write their name or their social security number on the demographic sheet. The subjects completed the packet in less than 15 minutes.

Data Analysis

Several simple linear regression analyses and several multiple regression analyses were computed to test the hypotheses. A multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine the degree to which each clarification variable predicted the dependent variable. For each regression analysis, the criterion variable was the score on the FOSS; while, the predictor variables were gender, athletic status, gender role identity, and self-esteem. There were three reasons why the examiner chose multiple regression analysis as the statistical design. First, to determine the proportion of variance in the criterion variable accounted for by each of the predictor variables. Second, to test the results for statistical significance. Third, to determine the relative importance of the different predictor variables in explaining the criterion variable.

In addition to testing the proposed hypotheses, several statistical techniques were used to examine the data. First, frequency tables were calculated to precisely identify the sample groups who participated in the study. Second, tests for reliability were performed on the FOSS, PAQ, and ROS to compare them with the reliability values for the standardized sample. Third, intercorrelations of the four predictor variables and the criterion variable were computed.

Chapter 3

Results

The age range of the sample was from 18 to 46 with the average age being 21. Sixty-one subjects were considered to possess masculine gender role characteristics, 143 were considered to possess feminine characteristics, and 11 were considered to possess masculine-feminine characteristics. However, 21 subjects possessed undifferentiated gender role characteristics and did not fit into a specific category.

Descriptive statistics for the FOSS, PAQ, and ROS are presented in Table 1. Included in the descriptive statistics are the means, standard deviations, observed ranges, and possible ranges. As noted in table 1, the observed ranges were quite similar to the possible ranges for the three measures.

Tests were computed to determine the reliability of the FOSS, the PAQ, and the ROS. Also, the reliability tests were computed to compare the reliability coefficients of the present study with the normative study. The internal reliabilities were .60 for the FOSS, .64 for the PAQ, and .85 for the ROS. The internal reliability of the three measures, based on the normative samples, reported to range from .69 to .73 for the FOSS, from .19 to .70 for the PAQ, and was .75 for the ROS.

The intercorrelations between FOS, gender, athletic status, gender role identity, and self-esteem are presented in Table 2. FOS was positively related to gender, athletic status, gender role identity, and self-esteem. Gender was positively related to athletic status, gender role identity, and self-esteem. Athletic status was positively related to gender role identity and self-esteem. Gender role identity was positively related to self-esteem. Finally, self-esteem was positively related to FOS, gender, athletic status, gender role identity. All of the correlations were significant at the .05 level of confidence and were in the predicted direction.

Table 1**Descriptive Statistics**

Variables^a	Mean	Standard Deviation	Observed Range	Possible Range
FOSS	97.92	14.20	51-134	27-189
PAQ	87.58	7.42	66-107	24-120
ROS	18.11	4.79	10-31	10-40

^an = 236 for all variables.

Table 2

Intercorrelations Between Predictor and Criterion Variables

Variables^a	FOSS	Gender	Athletic Status	PAQ	ROS
FOSS	---	---	---	---	---
Gender	.295**	---	---	---	---
Athletic Status	.395**	.417**	---	---	---
Gender Role Identity(PAQ)	.262**	.211**	.182**	---	---
Self-esteem (ROS)	.360**	.163*	.170**	.319**	---

^an = 236 for all variables.

*p < .05; **p < .01

Linear and multiple regression analyses were computed to test each of the proposed hypothesis. To further investigate the results, multiple t-tests were performed.

Hypothesis 1: Female subjects will score higher on the FOSS than male subjects.

A regression analysis was computed to test this hypothesis. The predictor variable was gender and the dependent variable was FOSS score (see table 3). The regression analysis revealed that about 10 % of the variance in FOS was accounted for by gender, $R^2 = .10$, $F(1, 213) = 24.05$, $p < .001$. Further analysis of the results revealed there was a difference between men ($M = 93.22$, $SD = 13.35$) and women ($M = 101.63$, $SD = 13.80$) in their level of FOS. These results support Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2: Collegiate athletes will score lower on the FOSS than nonathletes.

A regression analysis was performed to test this hypothesis. The predictor variable was athletic status and the criterion variable was FOSS score (see Table 4). The regression analysis revealed that 16% of the variance in FOS was accounted for by the athletic status of the subject, $R^2 = .16$, $F(1, 213) = 40.83$, $p < .001$. Further investigation of the data revealed a significant difference between the athletes ($M = 92.27$, $SD = 12.05$) and nonathletes ($M = 103.48$, $SD = 14.01$). These results support Hypothesis 2.

Table 3

Regression Analysis of Gender and FOSS Score

Variable	R²	ADJ R²	F	Beta	T
Gender	.101	.097	24.05***	.319	4.904***

***p < .001

Table 4**Regression Analysis of Athletic Status and FOSs Score**

Variable	R²	ADJ R²	F	Beta	T
Athletic Status	.161	.157	40.83***	.401	6.39***

*****p < .001**

Hypothesis 3: Subjects with an androgynous gender role identity will score lower on the FOSS than subjects who are more traditionally sex-typed.

A regression analysis was computed to test this hypothesis. The predictor variable was gender role identity and the criterion variable was FOSS score (see table 5). The regression analysis revealed that 7% of the variance in FOS was accounted for by the subject's gender role identity, $R^2 = .07$, $F(1, 213) = 15.64$, $p < .001$. The results revealed that the lowest FOS was achieved by those subjects with masculine gender role characteristics ($M = 92.16$, $SD = 12.54$) followed by subjects with feminine gender role characteristics ($M = 100.29$, $SD = 14.66$); while the highest FOS was achieved by those subjects with masculine-feminine gender role characteristics ($M = 103.82$, $SD = 11.22$). These results partially support Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4: Subjects who have a low level of self-esteem will have a higher level of FOS than subjects who have a high level of self-esteem.

A regression analysis was performed to test this hypothesis. The predictor variable was self-esteem and the criterion variable was FOSS score (see table 6). A regression analysis revealed that 13% of the variance in FOS was accounted for by the subject's level of self-esteem, $R^2 = .13$, $F(1, 213) = 32.50$, $p < .001$. It was revealed the lower the self-esteem, the higher the FOS and the higher the self-esteem, the lower the FOS rate. These results support hypothesis 4.

The multiple regression analysis revealed that when self-esteem is entered into the regression, the other variables are not as significant as they were when analyzed by themselves. Hence, self-esteem is actually accounting for 13% of the variance in FOS. Included in Table 7 are the results from the multiple regression analysis with the predictor variables being gender, athletic status, gender role identity, and self-esteem and the criterion variable being scores on the FOSS.

Table 5

Regression Analysis of Gender Role Identity and FOSS Score

Variable	R^2	ADJ R^2	F	Beta	T
Gender	.068	.064	15.64***	.262	3.96***

*** $p < .001$

Table 6

Regression Analysis of Self-esteem and FOSS Score

Variable	R²	ADJ R²	F	Beta	T
Self-esteem	.132	.128	32.50***	.364	5.70***

***p < .001

Table 7

Multiple Regression Analysis of Gender, Athletic Status, Gender Role Identity, Self-esteem with FOSS Scores.

Variables	R^2	ADJ R^2	F	Beta	T
	.270	.256	19.40***		
Self-esteem				.254	4.02***
Athletic Status				.286	4.29***
Gender Role Identity				.105	1.67
Gender				.111	1.65

*****p < .001**

Hypothesis 5: Male athletes with masculine-feminine gender role characteristics will have the lowest FOSS score, followed in order by female athletes who possess masculine characteristics, male nonathletes who possess masculine characteristics, and female nonathletes who possess feminine characteristics.

A multiple regression analysis was calculated to test this hypothesis. The predictor variables were gender, athletic status, and gender role identity while the criterion variable was FOSS score (see table 8). The multiple regression analysis revealed that 21% of the variance in FOS was accounted for by the subject's gender, athletic status, and gender role identity, $R^2 = .21$, $F(3, 211) = 19.12$, $p < .001$. The results revealed that male athletes with masculine characteristics scored the lowest on the FOSS ($M = 88.70$, $SD = 11.04$), the next lowest scores were by male nonathletes with masculine characteristics ($M = 91.44$, $SD = 17.31$), followed by female athletes with masculine characteristics ($M = 92.92$, $SD = 11.31$), and by female nonathletes with masculine-feminine characteristics ($M = 108.17$, $SD = 11.60$) who scored the highest on the FOSS. These results show partial support for Hypothesis 5.

Summary of Results

Several regression analyses and a multiple regression analysis were computed to test the five hypotheses. Support for Hypothesis One was reached in that men had lower FOS than women. Also, there was support for Hypothesis Two in that athletes scored lower on the FOSS than nonathletes. Hypothesis Three was partially supported by the use of a regression analysis. The results revealed that the lowest FOS was achieved by those subjects with masculine gender role characteristics followed by subjects with feminine gender role characteristics while the highest FOS was achieved by those subjects with masculine-feminine gender role characteristics. Hypothesis Four was supported by self-esteem being negatively correlated with FOS. More specifically, the lower the self-esteem, the higher the FOS and the

Table 8

Multiple Regression Analysis of Gender, Athletic Status, and Gender Role Identity with FOSS Score

Variables	R^2	ADJ R^2	F	Beta	T
	.214	.203	19.12***		
Gender				.144	2.08*
Athletic Status				.304	4.42***
Gender Role Identity				.176	2.81**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

higher the self-esteem, the lower the FOS. Hypothesis Five was only partially supported by the use of multiple regression analysis. Implications of the results are discussed in the following chapter. The results revealed that male athletes with masculine characteristics scored the lowest on the FOSS, the next lowest scores were by male nonathletes with masculine characteristics, followed by female athletes with masculine characteristics, and by female nonathletes with masculine-feminine characteristics.

When examining the variable gender by itself and its effect on FOS, gender was significant in predicting a person's FOS. However, by adding the variables of athletic status and gender role identity to the analysis, a person's gender becomes less important in predicting someone's level of FOS. Gender becomes a nonsignificant factor in predicting FOS as athletic status, gender role identity, and self-esteem are partitioned from the variance in FOS.

Chapter 4

Discussion

Related Literature and Results of the Present Study

Since Horner developed her measure of FOS (1969), there has been much controversy and debate over this topic. Horner (1972) believed there was a motive to avoid success among women because success tends to be associated with negative social consequences. Horner's 1972 study revealed that the level of FOS was higher in women than in men. Other studies (Horner, 1969; Santucci et al, 1989; Silva, 1982; Zuckerman & Allison, 1976) have revealed significant differences between men and women with the women having a higher FOS. Whereas, studies by Forbes & King (1983) and Kearney (1984) reported no significant differences in FOS scores between men and women. The present study revealed a significant difference between men and women, which supports the notion that women may still be more likely to associate negative consequences with success. A person's gender was an important factor, by itself, in predicting one's FOS; however, when examining other variables, in addition to gender, a person's gender was not as important as was the person's level of self-esteem or athletic status.

Several studies (Ogilvie, 1968; Silva, 1982) found athletic status to be a predictor of FOS levels. This study corroborates those earlier findings. For both men and women, athletic status was associated with a lower FOS. It is not clear, however, if athletic training reduces an individual's FOS or if people with lower FOS levels are more likely to participate in organized athletics.

Instead of measuring FOS as a function of gender, some researchers have examined the impact of a person's gender role identity. Cano et al. (1984) studied the relationship between FOS and gender role identity. The results revealed that androgynous and masculine subjects had lower FOS than feminine and undifferentiated subjects. Major (1979) revealed the androgynous women scored

lower in FOS than did masculine women, feminine women, or undifferentiated women. Gayton et al. (1978) revealed the traditional feminine women had a higher FOS than masculine women. The results of the present study revealed that those subjects with masculine gender role characteristics scored the lowest on the FOSS followed by subjects with feminine characteristics then by subjects with masculine-feminine characteristics. These results partially support Hypothesis Three. Subjects with masculine characteristics did score lower than subjects with feminine characteristics; however, both groups scored lower than subjects with masculine-feminine characteristics. These findings are in conflict with earlier research that suggests an androgynous gender role identity is more likely to be associated with a lower FOS. It should be noted, however, that in the final multiple regression analysis, gender role identity was not a significant predictor variable. Rather, most of the variance associated with gender role identity was better accounted for by self-esteem. Self-esteem accounted for 13% of the variance in FOS.

According to Rosenberg (1965), self-esteem is a positive or negative feeling a person develops toward him/herself. A person with low self-esteem tends to experience self-rejection, self-contempt, and self-dissatisfaction. The current study revealed a negative relationship between FOS and self-esteem.

As previously noted, a person's gender, athletic status, and gender role identity, individually affect one's FOS level. However, no study has examined simultaneously the effects of gender, athletic status, and gender role identity with FOS. Hypothesis Five predicted male athletes who possess masculine-feminine gender role characteristics should have the lowest FOS score; next, should be female athletes who possess masculine characteristics; then, male nonathletes with masculine characteristics; last, should be female nonathletes with feminine characteristics and who should have the highest FOS score. The results partially supported this hypothesis. Male athletes with masculine characteristics had the

lowest FOS, while female nonathletes with masculine-feminine characteristics had the highest FOS. Male nonathletes with masculine characteristics scored the second lowest, followed by female athletes with masculine characteristics.

Limitations

The two sample groups were selected from various psychology courses and from various collegiate athletic teams at Emporia State University. Two hundred forty-one subjects were administered the questionnaire packet; however, five subjects were dropped from the data collection. Four of the five subjects did not adequately complete the demographic sheet; while the fifth subject was a collegiate athlete who did not participate in one of the four sports involved in the survey.

The subjects may not be a representative sample of all athletes or of the general population as to their level of FOS and self-esteem or to their gender role. The range of ages in this study was 18 to 46 with an average being 21 years old. Ninety-three percent of the subjects were between the ages of 18 to 24. A subject's age may be a contributing factor in a person's level of FOS and self-esteem and type of gender role.

The athletes in this study were from a medium-size Midwestern National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division II school. They may have a different level of FOS and self-esteem or a different gender role identity than athletes from a NCAA Division I or III school. Athletes in a NCAA Division I school may have more pressure put on them to succeed or to be able to keep their scholarship for the next year. Some athletes may want to avoid this level of pressure and may be more likely to prefer a NCAA Division II school. NCAA Division II schools may have fewer athletes on the teams and fewer scholarships to be awarded. Athletes at a NCAA Division II school may not experience as much pressure as those at a NCAA Division I school. Finally, NCAA Division III schools do not give athletic

scholarships, so the athletes may have different reasons to succeed, and, hence may have different levels of FOS.

Another limitation concerns the number of male and female athletes and nonathletes in the study. The cell sizes in this study were unequal and unproportional; there were 76 male athletes and 28 male nonathletes. There were 41 female athletes and 91 female nonathletes. Although these group sizes may affect the results of this study, use of such samples was the only method by which equality of the athlete ($n = 117$) and nonathlete ($n = 119$) samples could be achieved.

One last limitation concerns the issue of social desirability. Could the male subjects have answered the questionnaires in the direction the examiner had hoped for? What about the athletes, could they have done the same thing? Both of these statements are possible. The males or the athletes may have wanted to protect their egos or wanted to appear as if they have a high self-esteem and a low FOS. The issue of social desirability may be related to the use of self-report measures. By using self-report measures, the perception of one's level of FOS or self-esteem may be altered to appear socially desirable. The level of FOS or self-esteem, or the gender role type the person believes he/she is experiencing may be different that what is really the case. Although this issue may affect the results of this study, the three instruments were the most objective manner to measure FOS.

Suggestions for Future Research

Although an extensive body of research exists on gender, athletic status, gender role identity, and self-esteem as to how each effects a person's level of FOS, it is necessary to further investigate these constructs. Specifically, the effects these variables, simultaneously, have on a person's level of FOS. More specifically, the amount of variance in FOS that will be accounted for the four predictor variables, individually and collectively, should be furthered investigated.

As noted previously, the present subjects were from a NCAA Division II school; therefore, a future study would entail comparing male and female athletes and nonathletes from NCAA Division I, II, and III schools on their level of FOS. Also, the amount of variance in FOS that will be due to the division of the school and the current four predictor variables.

Santucci et al. (1989) examined the differences in FOS scores between college freshman and college seniors. The results revealed that freshman scored higher than seniors. A possible future study would be to examine the differences in FOS score among high school seniors, college freshman, and college seniors or among the previous three groups along with high school freshman. The results may reveal that high school freshman tend to have a higher FOS than the other three groups, with college seniors having the lowest FOS. Also, athletes and nonathletes from the above four groups could be examined to determine whether a person's athletic status and year in school affects FOS.

Conclusion

The results of the present study add greatly to the research on FOS. The previous literature revealed there are significant differences between men and women; however, no study has examined to what degree gender contribute to an individual's FOS. The results revealed that when examining gender as the only predictor variable, a person's gender can play a significant role in predicting one's FOS. But when taking into consideration a person's gender, athletic status, and gender role identity, that person's gender was not as significant in predicting FOS as it was by itself. When adding self-esteem to the list of predictor variables, gender becomes a nonsignificant factor in predicting FOS. Basically, gender by itself significantly predicts FOS but does not significantly predict FOS when examined with other predictor variables. If this is the case, then why does the literature put such a strong emphasis on the issue of gender differences? Further investigation is

needed in examining to what degree gender, individually and collectively with athletic status, gender role identity, and self-esteem contribute to or predict an individual's FOS.

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Appendix A

Informed Consent Form

Informed Consent Form

The Department of Psychology/Special Education supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research and related activities. The following information is provided so that you can decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time, and that if you do withdraw from the study, you will not be subjected to reprimand or any other form of reproach.

In order to help better understand the relationship between individuals' Fear of Success and other personality attributes, you are being asked to complete three questionnaires. All responses made to the questionnaires will be kept confidential and anonymous.

"I have read the above statement and have been fully advised of the procedures to be used in this project. I have been given sufficient opportunity to ask any questions I had concerning the procedures and possible risks involved. I understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time without being subjected to reproach."

Subject and/or authorized representative

Date

Appendix B
Cover Sheet

This survey has been designed to protect your privacy and the confidentiality of your responses to the fullest extent possible. Your honest answers to every question and statement are appreciated.

Appendix C
Demographic Sheet

INSTRUCTIONS: Please respond to the following questions and statements as honestly as possible. Fill in the blank or circle your selection directly on this survey.

1. What is your gender? male female
2. What is your age? _____
3. What is your classification? FR SO JR SR GRAD
4. Are you a member of one of the following collegiate sports? YES NO
5. If yes, circle the sport that applies to you.
Basketball Tennis Cross Country/Track Baseball/Softball

Appendix D
Fear of Success Scale

INSTRUCTIONS: In this questionnaire you will find a number of statements. For each statement a scale from 1 to 7 is provided, with 1 representing one extreme and 7 the other extreme. In each case, circle a number from 1 to 7 indicate whether or not you agree with the statement. This is a measure of personal attitudes. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer all items honestly or your data will not be useful.

1. I expect other people to fully appreciate my potential.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

2. Often the cost of success is greater than the reward.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

3. For every winner there are several rejected and unhappy losers.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

4. The only way I can prove my worth is by winning a game or doing well on a task.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

5. I enjoy telling my friends that I have done something especially well.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

6. It is more important to play the game than to win it.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. In my attempt to do better than others, I realize I may lose many of my friends.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

8. In competition I try to win no matter what.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

9. A person who is at the top faces nothing but a constant struggle to stay there.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

10. I am happy only when I am doing better than others.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

11. I think success has been emphasized too much in our culture.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

12. In order to achieve one must give up the fun things in life.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

13. The cost of success is overwhelming responsibility.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

14. Achievement commands respect.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

15. I become embarrassed when others compliment me on my work.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

16. A successful person is often considered by others to be both aloof and snobbish.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

17. When you're on top, everyone looks up to you.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

18. People's behavior change for the worst after they become successful.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

19. When competing against another person, I sometimes feel better if I lose than if I win.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

20. Once you're on top, everyone is your buddy and no one is your friend.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

21. When you're the best, all doors are open.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

22. Even when I do well on a task, I sometimes feel like a phony or a fraud.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

23. I believe that successful people are often sad and lonely.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

24. The rewards of a successful competition are greater than those received from cooperation.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

25. When I am on top the responsibility makes me feel uneasy.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

26. It is extremely important for me to do well in all things that I undertake.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

27. I believe I will be more successful than most of the people I know.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Appendix E

Personal Attributes Questionnaire

Personal Attributes Questionnaire

The items below inquire about what kind of a person you think you are. Each item consists of a pair of characteristics, with the letters A-E in between. For example:

Not at all Artistic A....B....C....D....E Very artistic

Each pair describes contradictory characteristics--that is, you cannot be both at the same time, such as very artistic and not at all artistic. The letters form a scale between the two extremes. You are to choose a letter which describes where you fall on the scale. For example, if you think you have no artistic ability, you would choose A. If you think you are pretty good, you might choose D. If you are only medium, you might choose C, and so forth.

- | | | |
|--|-----------------------|--|
| 1. Not at all aggressive | A....B....C....D....E | Very aggressive |
| 2. Not at all independent | A....B....C....D....E | Very independent |
| 3. Not at all emotional | A....B....C....D....E | Very emotional |
| 4. Very submissive | A....B....C....D....E | Very dominant |
| 5. Not at all excitable in a major crisis | A....B....C....D....E | Very excitable in a major crisis |
| 6. Very passive | A....B....C....D....E | Very active |
| 7. Not at all able to devote self completely to others | A....B....C....D....E | Able to devote self completely to others |
| 8. Very rough | A....B....C....D....E | Very gentle |
| 9. Not at all helpful to others | A....B....C....D....E | Very helpful to others |
| 10. Not at all competitive | A....B....C....D....E | Very competitive |
| 11. Very home oriented | A....B....C....D....E | Very worldly |
| 12. Not at all kind | A....B....C....D....E | Very kind |
| 13. Indifferent to others' approval | A....B....C....D....E | Highly needful of others approval |
| 14. Feelings not easily hurt | A....B....C....D....E | Feelings easily hurt |

15. Not at all aware of feelings of others	A....B....C....D....E	Very aware of feelings of others
16. Can make decisions	A....B....C....D....E	Has difficulty make decisions
17. Gives up very easily	A....B....C....D....E	Never gives up easily
18. Never cries	A....B....C....D....E	Cries very easily
19. Not at all self-confident	A....B....C....D....E	Very self-confident
20. Feels very inferior	A....B....C....D....E	Feels very superior
21. Not at all understanding of others	A....B....C....D....E	Very understanding of others
22. Very cold in relations with others	A....B....C....D....E	Very warm in relations with others
23. Very little need for security	A....B....C....D....E	Very strong need for security
24. Goes to pieces under pressure	A....B....C....D....E	Stands up well under pressure

Appendix F

Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale

Rosenberg Scale

INSTRUCTIONS: For each statement, circle a number from 1 to 4 to indicate whether or not you agree with the statement. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer all items honestly or your data will not be useful.

1. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly Disagree

2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly Disagree

3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly Disagree

4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly Disagree

5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly Disagree

6. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly Disagree

7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly Disagree

8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly Disagree

9. I certainly feel useless at times.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly Disagree

10. At times I think I am no good at all.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly Disagree

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P. Diane Wandling
Signature of Author

8-5-94
Date

A Comparison of Fear of Success and Self-esteem
in Male and Female Athletes and Nonathletes.
Title of Thesis/Research Project

Deey Cooper
Signature of Graduate Office Staff Member

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