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The Sport Participation Model Questionnaire:

A Tool for the Assessment of Sport Orientations

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Abstract

The Sport Participation Model Questionnaire (SPMQ) was given to two hundred and sixty-four subjects to determine if significant differences existed in the composite scores of parents, coaches, youth sport participants, high school participants and college students; if the groups differed in their responses to pooled items; and if subject groups differed on individual questionnaire items. Subjects more frequently agreed with Pleasure and Participation statements than with Power and Performance statements. No significant difference was found to exist in the composite scores of any grouping of subjects. College students differed significantly from the parents and coaches on items involving coaches and athletes, and view of opponents. High school and youth sport parents and coaches differed significantly on five items, while parents and coaches differed on thirteen.

The Sport Participation Model Questionnaire:

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Parents and coaches bring to the youth and high school sport environment personal goals and expectations that are to be gained or realized as a result of the sport experience (Brower, 1979). Because all parents and coaches do not share the same opinions, values, goals, and expectations, conflict may be observed to take place between individuals as they interact within the sport environment (Aicinena, 2002; Weiss, 1993).

Conflict abounds in youth and high school sport settings between parents and coaches. They experience conflict concerning coaching methodology, team selection, athlete position assignment and playing time (Gilbert, Gilbert, & Trudel, 2001; Strean, 1995); parental involvement in the coaching role (Mach, 1994); emphasis upon winning and losing (Sachs, 2000); sport specialization (Watts, 2002); evaluation of athletes' playing abilities and parent behavior on the sidelines (McCallister, Blinde, and Kolenbrander, 2000), and the list could go on.

Newspaper and journal articles serve as further evidence of how differences in values, goals and expectations result in serious conflict between parents, between parents and coaches, as well as between parents and youth sport organizations.

- A sixteen-year old youth hockey player's father sued the local league for $300,000 in damages because his son was *not named the league MVP*. Reportedly, the child was humiliated by this fact and has since lost the desire to play (Dobie, 2003).
- Two coaches and two parents engaged in a fistfight after *a child was benched* (Brenner, 2003). In another incident a San Fernando, California man was jailed for beating a coach after *his son was taken out of a youth baseball game* (Jones, 2003).

- Many youth sport and high school parents believe that if their child is *not placed in the right position or have enough opportunity to handle the ball* that scholarships to college and pro contracts are jeopardized. Consequently, they attempt to influence coaches. Because of their meddling, *parents have become the greatest reason for prep school coaches leaving their positions* (Monson, 2003).
- Parents in Blaine, Minnesota have sued their children's professionally run soccer club. The *politics associated with the club*, *playing time* for children and budgets exceeding $300,000 led to the litigation. *One parent did not seem to think that enjoyment was an important aspect of a child's involvement in soccer*. He stated, "Well, I don't know about you, but I want them to improve to the point they can play varsity high school and beyond" (Kaszuba, 2003).
- A youth sport coach resigned after working with children for six years. Parent behavior and influence led to his resignation. He stated, "*It was all about winning, no matter what the cost*… It's sickening" (Brett, 2003).
- Mach (1994) offered a sentiment shared by many high school coaches, "The best coaching jobs are at orphanages because there are no parents there" (p.5). McCallister, Blinde, and Kolenbrander (2000) shared a belief held by many youth sport coaches, "Youth sport would be great if you could just put the parents in a room so they could watch but you couldn't hear them" (p. 17).

Parents and coaches with disparate views concerning the appropriate values, goals and accepted means to achievement are placed into the same competitive settings and often find themselves associated with the same team (Aicinena, 2002). In an effort to minimize conflict between parents and coaches in such situations, organizations have created separate recreational

and competitive youth sport leagues in the same city. This step alone did not prevent conflict between parents and coaches (Kroening, 2002).

Youth sport and high school sport are not fun and games in the eyes of many parents: it is serious business (Williams & Munson, 2000). Many parents view their child's sport involvement as an investment in their child's future (Fiore, 2003). If sport is viewed as a business and the goals, values and accepted means to achievement associated with a professional sport environment are present, conflict with coaches and parents who view sport as a recreational activity is inevitable.

Various authors have created participation paradigms in an effort to illustrate the differences existing between individuals concerning the values of sport participation, desirable sport goals, and the acceptable means of achieving them. Drawing from the ideas of Bill Gilbert (1972), Eitzen and Sage (1997) classified sport as being Informal, Organized, or Corporate. Informal sport is governed by rules, but they are changeable at the whim of the participants. Sport in this form exists for the enjoyment of the participant. Games of touch football played in the streets of suburbia are a good example of Informal sport. Organized sport is more formal in the use of codified rules and regulations regarding play. Little League baseball and high school sports are examples of Organized sport. Coaches, boards of directors and parents provide organization and supervision for practice and play. Play is not free or spontaneous but fun and enjoyment are always included in the stated goals of these programs. In extreme cases organized sports programs begin to resemble Corporate sport where the goal of having fun is but an afterthought to parents and coaches. Corporate sport exists to make profits and participants are essentially cogs in the corporate machine. Athletes are expendable and replaceable. Participants do not have autonomy as they participate and the pleasure of the participants is not a concern to those

controlling the environment. The dichotomy present in this paradigm of sport participation is that of play and work. Informal sport is play-like and Corporate sport is work-like.

Theoretically any individual's preferred sport form would fall somewhere along the continuum between Informal and Corporate sport. It is unlikely that all parents, coaches and children participating in a Little League Baseball or Junior High school soccer league would be able to agree upon which level of sport is most appropriate. No published attempt has been made to assess the chosen orientation of parents and coaches associated with youth or high school sport utilizing the characteristics of Eitzen and Sage's model.

Dubois (1980) presented the Process and Product models of sport participation. According to Dubois' paradigm, individuals holding a Process orientation to sport participation would view participation as an ends in itself. There is intrinsic value to be gained from sport participation and extrinsic rewards are not sought, not necessary. Excellence is found in the quality of the performance, winning and losing are not of importance. There is sensitivity to the aesthetic aspects of movement and skilled performance. Because participants focus upon the present, not the potential outcome of the contest, they may appreciate the feelings and aesthetic nature of human movement. Rapport exists between opponents because each is needed to bring out the best in the other.

According to Dubois (1980) those holding a Product orientation toward sport participation see winning as an end in itself. Winning leads to feelings of superiority and what goes on in the contest is secondary to this goal. The pursuit of tangible rewards such as trophies may even become more important than the contest with the prize serving as a constant reminder of the victor's superiority. Participants seek the admiration and approval of others, not personal satisfaction through the playing of the game. Opponents are dehumanized as they come to be

viewed as obstacles to success. Destroyed opponents are likened to casualties of war. Dubois hypothesized that the preferred participation style for any individual would fall somewhere between the two extremes. Through the use of an evaluation scale he developed, Dubois (1986) assessed the Process and Product orientations of children, but not parents or coaches associated with youth and school sport.

The Process and Product model of sport was used by Malmberg (1988) as the basis of the "Coaching for Cognition" approach to sport instruction. He believed that coaches partial to the Product orientation are trainers whose goal it is to whip athletes into shape. Conversely, Process oriented coaches strive to achieve higher-level learning, understanding of the game and enhanced interpersonal relationships. No published attempt was made to assess the orientations of practicing coaches utilizing Malmberg's framework.

Hellstedt (1987) attempted to explain conflict taking place between parents, coaches and child athletes. He characterized parents as being under involved, moderately involved or over involved. Over involved parents emphasize winning, have frequent disagreements with coaches and other parents, are dissatisfied with improvement if winning is not achieved and are often angry and disapproving. They hope their child's participation will lead to scholarships or professional careers and often cannot separate their own goals and aspirations from those of their children. Moderately involved parents are flexible, supportive, allow athletes to make their own decisions concerning athletics and are realistic about their children's abilities. Under involved parents are conspicuously absent from their child's sporting activities. No published attempt to objectively assess parental levels of involvement based upon their orientation to sport participation could be found.

Coakley (2001) formulated the Power and Performance and Pleasure and Participation Models of sport participation in an effort to explain differences in individual goals, values and acceptable means of achievement. The characteristics of each model are presented below. Aicinena's (2002) modifications of each model are placed in italics. The modified Power and Performance and Pleasure and Participation models encompass many of the characteristics of the Informal/Organized/Corporate, Process/Product, Coaching for Cognition, and Levels of Parental Involvement models of sport participation.

The Power and Performance Model

Strength, speed and power are emphasized in the Power and Performance model. Excellence is demonstrated through success with winning serving as the greatest measure of success. Winning is valued more highly if hard work, dedication, sacrifice, risk and pain are evidenced. The body is viewed as a machine and *participants should not be concerned with injury*. *Training should be technologically enhanced and scientific*. A clear hierarchy of authority structures exists in the Power and Performance model. Players should be subordinate to coaches. Coaches are to be in control and *it should be clear to observers that coaches are in control*. Opponents are viewed as enemies. *Only the best on a team should play. If an athlete is unskilled and allowed to play, it may cost the team a victory and this is unacceptable.*

The Pleasure and Participation Model

The primary purpose of participation in the Pleasure and Participation model is active participation. *Playing is the reason for an individual's involvement in sport*. There is a mind/body/spirit connection. Both the participant and the opponent are considered valued and needed. *The participant's control of his or her body and objects, skilled movement, and demonstration of cunning in the sport environment provide satisfaction. Domination and victory*

are not requisites of satisfaction. It is possible and desirable for the inclusion of the *weak and unskilled. Accommodations are acceptable in terms of rules modifications*. Decisions and power are shared in a cooperative manner between coaches and athletes. There is give and take between coaches and athletes.

Sport sociologist Jay Coakley stated (personal communication, June 18, 2003) that to his knowledge, "nobody has used the [Pleasure and Participation and Power and Performance] typology from ***Sport in Society*** as a basis of collecting data on orientations towards sport in general or particular." If conflict based upon differences between parents and coaches in the appropriateness of specific values, goals and acceptable means to achievement is common in youth and high school sport, why haven't sport sociologists investigated these differences in their research to any large degree? The current Authors were unable to find any published study in which investigators attempted to assess and compare the preferred participation model of parents and coaches using any participation model paradigm.

The first purpose of the current study was to determine if the composite scores of a sample population completing Aicinena's (2002) Sport Participation Model Questionnaire (SPMQ) demonstrated a useful range in scores along the continuum from Pleasure and Participation to Power and Performance. Secondly, the purpose of the study was to demonstrate if parents, coaches, college students, or high school and youth sport parents and coaches differed significantly in their composite SPMQ scores. The third goal of the study was to determine if parents, coaches and students differed significantly in their response to pooled statements concerning Coaches and Athletes; Success, Winning and Losing; Health, Injuries and Performance; View of Opponents; Science and Technology; and Participation. Finally, it was to

be determined if parents and coaches or subjects involved with youth sport and high school sport responded differently to individual SPMQ items.

Method

Aicinena (2002) constructed the seventy-item Sports Participation Model Questionnaire (SPMQ) based upon the characteristics of the modified Power and Performance and Pleasure and Participation Models of sport. The SPMQ was composed of thirty-five statements reflecting a Power and Performance perspective and thirty-five contrasting statements reflective of a Pleasure and Participation orientation. The seventy statements were randomly placed within the final questionnaire. Subjects were to either agree or disagree with each statement. Subjects were instructed that responses should reflect how they felt about youth sport and school sport, not professional and international sport. After a test-retest of the SPMQ on thirty-seven college students the Intra-class Correlation for individual scores was .9506. The Equal-Length Spearman-Brown Coefficient was .7038. The composite scores and individual items proved to have acceptable levels of reliability based upon the criteria set forth by Ferguson and Takane (1989). Jay Coakley stated (personal communication, June 18, 2003) that the SPMQ should be useful in obtaining baseline data concerning preferred participation models.

In the current study, questionnaires were administered to subjects by the authors and graduate students. Samples were gathered by convenience and no effort was made to obtain randomized samples of parents or coaches. All subjects completed an informed consent form. A total of two hundred sixty-four questionnaires were included in the data analysis.

Subjects were located in Maryland, New York, Texas, and Michigan. Parents and coaches associated with high school competition were classified as *High School Sport* (N = 80). Parents and coaches involved in organized youth sport or junior high sports were classified as *Youth*

Sport (N = 144). Three of the subjects were college coaches. One hundred fifty-one subjects were parents with children actively participating in youth or high school sport and seventy-six were active coaches of youth or high school sport teams. The data obtained from the SPMQ's reliability study's thirty-seven college students were also included in the data analysis for the present study.

Results and Discussion

Scoring the SPMQ consisted of awarding a point for every Power and Performance statement that the subject agreed with and for every Pleasure and Participation statement the subject disagreed with. A score reflecting a purely Pleasure and Participation orientation would have been 0. A score reflecting an exclusively Power and Performance orientation on all statements would have been 70.

The scores for the sample population ranged from a low of 3 to a high of 59. The mean was 21.28 and the standard deviation was 8.47. The distribution of the scores is presented in figure 1. Scores were positively skewed indicating that the sample population leaned more toward the Pleasure and Participation end of the continuum as opposed to the Power and Performance end. Based upon the distribution of scores, this sample of subjects more often agreed with Pleasure and Participation statements and disagreed with Power and Performance statements.

INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

Sixteen of the subjects scored in the upper 5.4% of the distribution, while only four subjects scored in the lower 5.4%. A greater number of the subjects were most extreme in their Power and Performance orientation as compared to the mean than those who were most extreme in their Pleasure and Participation orientation.

Differences Between Subject Groupings on Composite Scores

The composite questionnaire scores of the subjects were analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA). No significant differences ($p > .05$) were found to exist between parents and coaches involved in youth or high school sport, between high school parents and youth sport parents, between high school and youth sport coaches, or between parents, coaches and college students. Furthermore, no interaction existed between any of the independent variables and composite scores. Subjects, regardless of level of participation, or role classification, were found to have a wide range of composite scores.

Differences in Responses to Pooled Items by Subject Grouping

A MANOVA procedure was used to assess whether subjects differed significantly by group in how they responded to pools of items concerning: *Coaches and Athletes; Success, Winning and Losing; Health, Injuries and Performance; View of Opponents; Science and Technology*; and *Participation.* Significant differences ($p < .05$) were found to exist in the multivariate analysis for role classification. A post-hoc Scheffe analysis was used to determine where the significant differences occurred. Significant differences were found to exist between students, parents and coaches in the pools of questions regarding *coaches and athletes* and *view of opponents*. The results are presented in Table 1.

INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

The college students differed significantly ($p < .05$) from the parents and coaches concerning the role of the *coach and athlete* in the youth sport and high school sport experience. The college students were more likely than parents or coaches to believe that coaches should not

complain in an effort to influence officials, should not set training rules, should not make all decisions concerning the training of the athletes for competition, should not always be in control of the athletes during contests, do not have to obviously be in control during contests, and were less likely to believe that television provides good models for the behavior of coaches and athletes. The college students also differed significantly ($p < .05$) from parents and coaches in their responses to the questions concerning *View of Opponents*. College students were less likely than parents and coaches to believe that opponents were enemies, obstacles to success, should be hated, and should be defeated by as great a margin as possible.

The sample of college students had just completed a Sociology of Sport course and Aicinena (2002) stated that his goal was to move the students toward the Pleasure and Participation end of the continuum. The students were required to read about and discuss varied values, goals, accepted means to achievement, as well as controversial issues associated with youth and school sports programs. Perhaps the experiences associated with participation in the class resulted in the students agreeing with more Pleasure and Participation statements concerning *Coaches and Athletes* and *View of Opponents* than did the parents and coaches. One could not conclude however that the educational experiences effected changes in beliefs because no pre-test was given before the course began.

Differences Between Youth Sport and High School Sport Participants on Individual Questionnaire Items

In an effort to determine if the subjects involved with youth sport differed significantly from those involved in high school sport on any of the seventy questionnaire items, an ANOVA procedure was conducted. Significant differences ($p < .05$) were noted on five items and are presented in Table 2.

INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

Parents and coaches involved in youth sport significantly more often agreed with statement 30 “It is acceptable to break the rules in order to win,” and disagreed with statement 60 “It is not acceptable to cheat in order to win,” than did those involved with high school sport. Aicinena (2002) observed that some parents and coaches associated with youth sport would do whatever was necessary for their children and teams to find success. In his study one particular parent-coach broke recruiting rules in an effort to create superior youth sport teams and engaged in behavior that resulted in others describing him as unethical and unscrupulous. Perhaps closer scrutiny, more restrictive rules, oversight by high school athletic organizations, fear of sanctions that may result in their child’s banishment from competition and/or the fear of coaches losing their jobs as a consequence of cheating resulted in the subjects of the current study affiliated with high school sport being more concerned with honor and the adherence to rules. This sample of youth sport parents and coaches were less concerned with following the letter and spirit of rules than were the high school parents and coaches.

It was alarming to find that parents and coaches associated with youth sport were significantly more likely to agree with statement 47 “Athletes should take illegal performance-enhancing drugs in the pursuit of success” than were those involved in high school sport. It is possible that because drug testing is rare in youth sport programs that a significantly greater number of adults involved in these programs condoned the use of illegal performance-enhancing drugs. Perhaps the youth sport parents and coaches had received less information than high school parents and coaches concerning the health consequences of illegal performance-

enhancing drugs. If parents believed that drugs were a means to success in professional sport, why wouldn't it have seemed appropriate to seek medicinal means to success for their children? In his State of the Union Address, President Bush called upon individuals associated with professional sports to take a lead in ridding sport of illegal performance-enhancing drugs (Wilstein, 2004). He believed that professional athletes have been serving as poor role models for the nation's young people regarding the use of performance-enhancing drugs.

As a group, the high school parents and coaches were significantly more likely than the parents and coaches associated with youth sport programs to agree with statement 68 "The latest information from the sport sciences should be used in training sessions," and disagree with statement 24 "It is not necessary to utilize current information from the sport sciences in training sessions to be successful in sport." Perhaps because high school coaches generally have college degrees, because they are expected to be knowledgeable of recent advances in their sport, and because they are paid for their services, the parents and coaches involved with high school sport were more likely to expect coaches to utilize current scientific findings in their performance in the role of coach. How could youth sport coaches, who are most often volunteers (Gould, 1996; Miller, 1992), be expected to keep abreast of scientific advances and to utilize them in their coaching?

Differences Between Parents and Coaches on Individual Questionnaire Items

To determine if parents and coaches differed on individual questionnaire items, an ANOVA procedure was conducted. Significant differences ($p < .05$) were noted on thirteen items and are presented in Table 3.

INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

Concerning the items grouped under the heading of *Coach and Athlete Behaviors*, coaches agreed with statement 63 “Coaches should set training rules for athletes (Examples: don’t smoke, no alcohol)” significantly more than did parents. In fact, the entire sample of coaches agreed with the statement. Eitzen and Sage (1997) offered a reasonable explanation for this finding. In an effort to increase the potential for victory, coaches attempt to control the off-field behavior of their athletes. The coaches in the current study undeniably expressed their desire to control the off-field behavior of athletes.

Parents were more likely to agree with statement 37 “Coaches should make all decisions during competitive events.” Past research has demonstrated that parents preferred coaches to be in control (less democratic) than did young boys and girls (Martin, Jackson, Richardson & Weiller, 1999). Perhaps, the desire for the coach to be in control is great among parents and only after it is clear that the coach differs from the parent in values, goals and accepted means to achievement do conflicts between parents and coaches surface.

Parents were more likely to agree with statement 13 “Televised sporting events do not provide good examples of behavior for coaches and athletes.” If parents look at youth and school sport as an opportunity for healthy use of leisure time and a recreational activity, professionalized play and behaviors would not be perceived as ideal. On the other hand, if professionalized behaviors were associated with success as measured by wins and losses, it is not surprising that the coaches were more likely to view professionalized models of behavior as desirable.

In the group of items composing *Success, Winning and Losing* parents agreed with statement 49, “Losing should not have much of an affect upon an individual” and disagreed significantly more often with statement 12 “Losing should be a painful experience” than did the coaches. The

success or failure of the team is often attributed to the coach. Therefore it should not be surprising that coaches would want athletes to take a loss harder than the sample of parents. If parents view sport participation as a recreational experience, they would understandably be less likely to expect or encourage their children to be upset over losses. It is also possible that the coaches had higher expectations for the young athletes and consequently expected poor performances and losses to be mourned.

Parents agreed significantly more often with statement 31 “It is not necessary for athletes and coaches to study game films in order to find success” than did the coaches. Apparently the coaches saw studying game films as something they should do in an effort to increase the probability of success.

Parents agreed with statement 3 “Performing to one’s capabilities is the most significant measure of success in sport” significantly more than did coaches. Earlier in the current study it was noted that those parents and coaches involved in youth sport were more likely to condone cheating and the use of illegal drugs compared to those associated with high school sport. Why is it that the parents as a group did not believe that winning was the greatest measure of success? Perhaps as parents gain experience in the youth sport setting, make observations and place the sport experience of their children and themselves into perspective do they realize that there is more to sport than winning. Most reasonable parents, it seems, would realize after a period of time that their child is not the second coming of Michael Jordan or Mia Hamm and that the teams they follow are unlikely to be the next NBA team to three-peat as world champions. In American society winning is considered the greatest measure of a successful coach. Perhaps that is why the coaches were less likely to believe that performing well was the greatest measure of success.

Parents agreed with statement 70 “Individuals should not sacrifice large sums of money in the pursuit of athletic success” and disagreed significantly more frequently with statement 29 “Large sums of money should be sacrificed in the pursuit of athletic success” than did coaches. If high-level competition and training results in better trained and experienced athletes, it would benefit coaches to have these athletes on their teams. Perhaps the coaches were in a position to not care what the financial cost of athletic success was: they did not have to pay the bills! Parents might be more likely to question the benefit of investing large sums of money in the pursuit of their children’s athletic dreams. Aicinena (2002) reported that the expense associated with high-level soccer participation was a topic of debate and source of conflict between parents associated with his teams.

On the questionnaire items concerning *View of Opponents*, Parents agreed significantly more frequently with statement 19 “Opponents are my friends” and disagreed with statement 23 “Opponents stand in the way of my achievement of success” than did coaches. It is possible that parents were less likely to objectify children and see them as impediments to success. Perhaps coaches were more likely to look at children as a means to an ends and competitions as zero sum events.

In the *Participation* group of items parents significantly more often agreed with the statement, “All athletes should be given an opportunity to play in all contests” than did the coaches. The results demonstrate that parents were more concerned with children playing than were the coaches. The parents wanted to see their children play. Coaches may have been more concerned with the success of the team instead of the participation of individuals.

In the *Science and Technology* group of items coaches were significantly more likely to agree with statement 68 “The latest information from the sport sciences should be utilized in

training sessions" than were parents. Perhaps coaches looking for an edge in training as a means to success believed that science could provide such an edge.

In this study the SPMQ was found to provide a useful range of scores for the classification of parents, coaches and college students on the continuum of participation models from Pleasure and Participation to Power and Performance. The level of sport subjects were associated with, or whether they were parents, coaches or students did not significantly affect composite scores. Individual scores were based upon subject preferences and perceptions concerning what the appropriate values, goals and means to achievement should be in youth sport and school sport. The questionnaire would therefore be useful in assessing *individual* orientations to sport participation in a general sense.

The college students were more likely than parents or coaches to believe that coaches should *not* complain in an effort to influence officials, should *not* set training rules, should *not* make all decisions concerning the training of the athletes for competition, should *not* always be in control of the athletes during contests, do *not* have to obviously be in control during contests, and were *less likely* to believe that television provides good models for the behavior of coaches and athletes. They were also less likely than parents and coaches to believe that opponents were enemies, obstacles to success, should be hated, and should be defeated by as great a margin as possible.

Analysis of the responses to individual questions demonstrated that a significant difference existed in how subjects associated with youth sport and high school sport responded to five items. There were differences in how parents and coaches responded to thirteen items. In total, eighteen of the seventy items were found to demonstrate significant differences between youth sport participants and high school participants, or parents and coaches.

For the current sample of subjects there were significant differences concerning values, goals and accepted means to achievement as measured by the SPMQ. The range in composite scores was great in all subsets of the sample population surveyed. Consequently SPMQ scores could be used as a starting point for meaningful discussions between parents and coaches associated with youth and high school sport in an effort to minimize conflict.

Scores, Potential Conflict and Further Research

How might conflict between parents and coaches be predicted based upon the composite SPMQ score? Hypothetically, the farther an individual's score is from another along the continuum from Pleasure and Participation to Power and Performance, the more likely conflict is to occur. Individuals very close in their scores would presumably have fewer disagreements concerning the values, goals and acceptable means to achievement in sport. Greatly disparate scores would result in a higher likelihood of conflict because of disagreement on a wider range of issues.

Assuming that individuals located *more than two standard deviations* from one another would have a high potential for conflict because of extreme variance in their outlook concerning the goals, values and acceptable means to achievement in sport settings, the following model is proposed (Figure2).

INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE

The following serves as an illustration. Individuals whose score places them into group "A" (score between 0-3) would experience a high probability of conflict with parents and coaches whose scores place them in groups D, E, F and G. The number of disagreements an individual in

group A would have with parents and coaches from group D, E, F and G would be great and theoretically would make the situation so uncomfortable that the probability of overt disagreement, potential physical confrontations, or a parting of the ways (removing the child and themselves from the current athletic environment) would be increased. The potential for such conflict is reduced as scores get closer to the range found in group A. Individuals whose composite scores placed them in group A would be expected to interact with individuals from group B and C with a lower likelihood and frequency of serious conflict.

Conflict is not always a negative thing. It can actually bring about positive changes in individuals and groups (Johnson & Johnson, 1997). The use of the Sports Participation Model Questionnaire in youth and school sport contexts is not meant to remove conflict from the sporting lives of the participants. The questionnaire is to be used in order to illustrate that differences do exist, and to give parents and coaches a starting point from which they may begin to explore, discuss and understand them. Tolerance and acceptance increase with understanding. Perhaps such a process could lessen conflict that too frequently makes the sport environment an ugly and unwholesome one. Perhaps it may assist in reducing conflict that ends in violence or a child's discontinuance in sport. How many children are denied the opportunity to continue their participation in sport because their parents do not agree with other parents and coaches concerning desired values, goals and acceptable means to success?

At this time, it may not be claimed that the Sport Participation Model Questionnaire is an accurate predictor of what behaviors individuals would actually engage in within the sport context. Beliefs as expressed and assessed through instruments are not necessarily reflected in the behavior of an individual experiencing the heat of a hotly-contested athletic event. Perhaps future researchers may engage in context-specific observational research to determine if scores

on the SPMQ would actually correlate with overt and internal conflict in sport settings. Further, it remains to be demonstrated that if the results from the SPMQ are used as a basis of discussion concerning values, goals and accepted means to achievement that an actual decrease in conflict would be noted between parents and coaches in youth and high school sport settings.

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Figure Caption

Figure 1. Frequency Distribution of SPMQ Scores

Figure Caption

Figure 2. SPMQ Scores and Anticipated Conflict

Table 1

Scheffe Analysis of Mean Differences for Role Classification

	Role Classification		
	Parent	Coach	Student
Coaches and Athletes	1.55	2.047	0.498*
Success, Winning and Losing	0.097	0.651	0.741
Health, Injuries and Performance	0.484	0.424	0.066
View of Opponents	0.573	0.813	1.351*
Science and Technology	0.181	0.123	0.058
Participation	0.455	0.453	0.028

*P<0.05

		Role Classification		
		Parent	Coach	Student
Coaches and Athletes	Mean	1.18	1.14	-0.28
	N	150	74	39
	Std. Deviation	2.33	2.26	2.70
Success, Winning and Losing	Mean	-5.13	-4.78	-4.51
	N	150	74	39
	Std. Deviation	3.26	3.22	3.94
Health, Injuries and Performance	Mean	-2.58	-2.79	-2.38
	N	150	73	39
	Std. Deviation	1.58	1.49	1.44
View of Opponents	Mean	-3.66	-3.24	-2.77
	N	150	74	39
	Std. Deviation	2.16	1.91	2.36
Science and Technology	Mean	-1.32	-1.39	-1.18
	N	150	74	39
	Std. Deviation	1.70	1.52	1.64
Participation	Mean	-2.20	-1.78	-1.77
	N	150	74	39
	Std. Deviation	1.53	1.71	2.26

Table 2

Significant Differences ($p < .05$) Between Youth Sport and High School Sport Participants on Individual Questionnaire Items

	Mean Square	F Ratio
Q24	2.830	11.30
Q30	0.357	7.21
Q47	0.300	6.56
Q60	0.500	7.30
Q68	1.501	9.35

Level		q24	q30	q47	q60	q68
Youth	Mean	0.40	0.08	0.0764	0.89	0.73
	N	144	144	144	144	144
	Std. Deviation	0.492	0.277	0.267	0.315	0.446
High School	Mean	0.1875	0.00	0.00	0.99	0.90
	N	80	80	80	80	80
	Std. Deviation	0.393	0.000	0.000	0.112	0.302

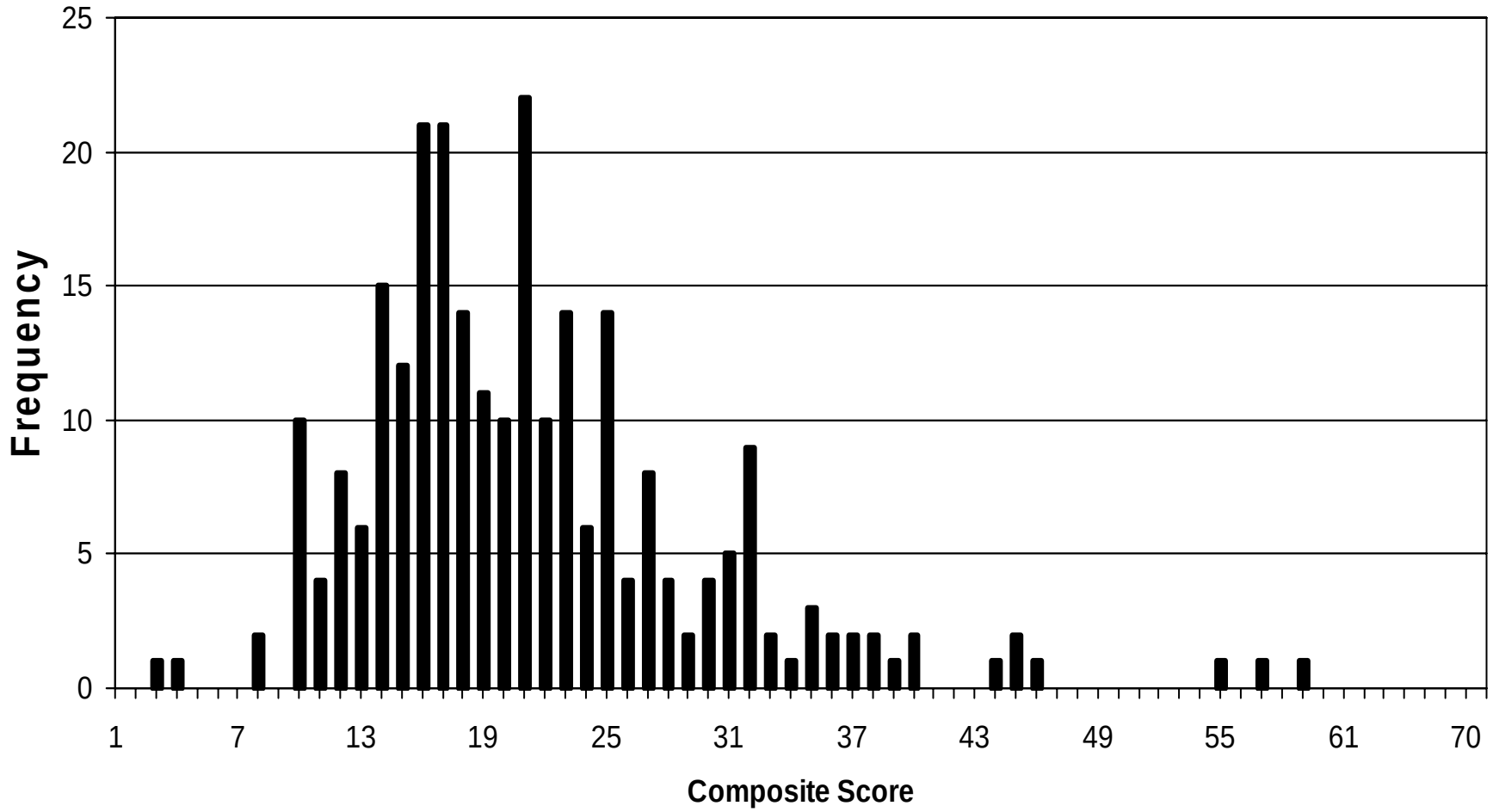
Table 3

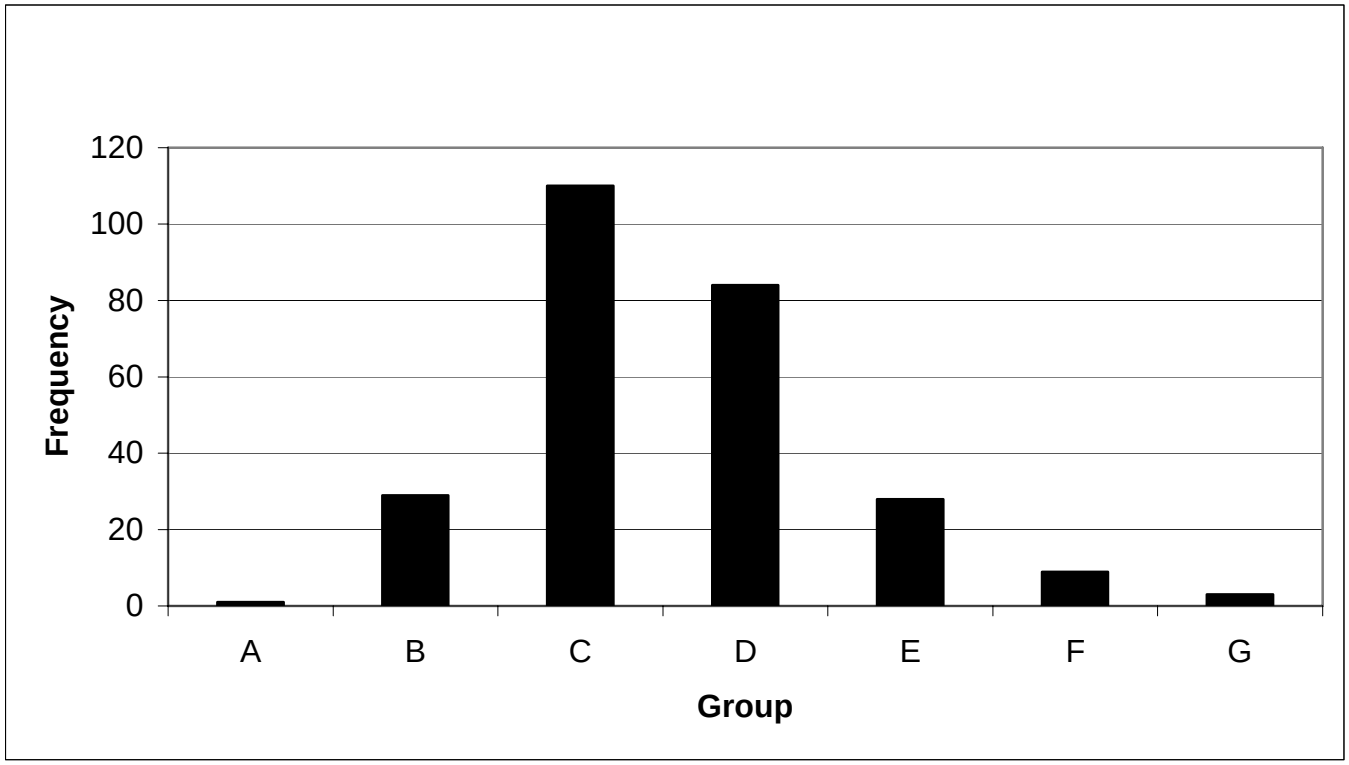
Significant Differences (p < .05) on Individual Questionnaire Items by Role

	Mean Square	F Ratio
Q3	0.701	5.72
Q12	0.779	5.68
Q13	1.390	5.36
Q19	1.680	7.54
Q23	0.782	6.59
Q29	0.554	5.04
Q31	0.935	4.05
Q37	1.609	6.57
Q43	2.488	11.35
Q49	1.907	7.88
Q63	0.316	6.42
Q68	0.729	4.42
Q70	0.861	5.41

P – C		q3	q12	q13	q19	q23	q29	q31
Parent	Mean	0.89	0.13	0.56	0.71	0.10	0.09	0.32
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
	Std. Deviation	0.309	0.333	0.498	0.456	0.300	0.291	0.470
Coach	Mean	0.78	0.25	0.39	0.53	0.22	0.20	0.46
	N	76	76	76	76	76	76	76
	Std. Deviation	0.419	0.436	0.492	0.503	0.419	0.401	0.502

P – C		q37	q43	q49	q63	q68	q70
Parent	Mean	0.57	0.72	0.52	0.92	0.75	0.84
	N	150	151	151	151	151	151
	Std. Deviation	0.496	0.450	0.501	0.271	0.435	0.367
Coach	Mean	0.39	0.50	0.33	1.00	0.87	0.71
	N	76	76	76	75	76	76
	Std. Deviation	0.492	0.503	0.473	0.000	0.340	0.457


25
20
15
10
5
0
Frequency
1
7
13
19
25
31
37
43
49
55
61
70
Composite Score



Group	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Score Range	0-3	4-12	13-20	21-29	30-37	38-46	47-70
Conflict With:	*DEFG*	*EFG*	*FG*	*AG*	*AB*	*ABC*	*ABCD*

Sport Participation Model Evaluation Scale

Instructions:

For each of the statements below you are asked to select either agree or disagree.

Your responses should reflect how you feel about sport in general (youth sport, school sport), not what you feel should be done at the professional and international levels.

1. Winning **is not** the most significant measure of success in the sport experience.
   Agree ___ Disagree ___

2. My opponents **should be** respected.
   Agree ___ Disagree ___

3. Performing to one's capabilities is the most significant measure of success in sport.
   Agree ___ Disagree ___

4. Athletes **should** take legal performance-enhancing drugs in the pursuit of success.
   Agree ___ Disagree ___

5. Only the best should be allowed to play.
   Agree ___ Disagree ___

6. An individual must work **very hard** in order to experience success in sport.
   Agree ___ Disagree ___

7. Individuals can be successful in sport without allowing other aspects of their lives to suffer (Examples: relationships can be maintained and excellence can be achieved in other areas of life).
   Agree ___ Disagree ___

8. Only coaches should make decisions during contests.
   Agree ___ Disagree ___

9. I **do not** consider success in sport more valuable if an individual experiences pain during a contest.
   Agree ___ Disagree ___

10. Athletes that are poorly skilled **should not** get the opportunity to play.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

11. It is the coach's responsibility to complain to officials when calls are often made against his or her team.

Agree ___ Disagree ___

12. Losing **should be** a painful experience.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

13. Televised sporting events **do not** provide good examples of behavior for coaches and athletes.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

14. The greatest measure of success in sport is whether or not an individual enjoyed the contest.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

15. An individual can decide not to participate in a contest when injured and still be committed to success.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

16. Sport participation should be very hard work.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

17. Individuals that are not willing to sacrifice their short-term health are not committed to success in sport (Example: not willing to break a bone)
Agree ___ Disagree ___

18. All individuals should strive to play like the professionals.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

19. Opponents are my friends.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

20. Winning is more important than my honor.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

21. Coaches **should not** set training rules for athletes (Examples: don't smoke, no alcohol).
Agree ___ Disagree ___

22. Individuals unwilling to sacrifice their long-term health can experience success in sport (example: not willing to have a limp for life).
Agree ___ Disagree ___

23. Opponents stand in the way of my achievement of success.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

24. It is **not necessary** to utilize current information from the sport sciences in training sessions to be successful in sport (Examples: Exercise Physiology and Biomechanics).
Agree ___ Disagree ___

25. The win-at-all-cost philosophy common in professional sport is unacceptable for youth and school sport.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

26. Individuals should strive to win by as much as possible, even if the opponents are embarrassed.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

27. Athletes **should not** take illegal performance-enhancing drugs in the pursuit of success.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

28. Athletes and coaches should regularly study game films of events in order to be successful.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

29. Large sums of money should be sacrificed in the pursuit of athletic success.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

30. It is acceptable to break the rules in order to win.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

31. It is **not necessary** for athletes and coaches to study game films in order to be successful.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

32. It is important for athletes to use the latest technology to find success in sport (Example: high tech equipment).
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

33. It is appropriate to participate in sport and **not reflect** the behaviors of professionals.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

34. Coaches should make all decisions concerning the training of the team or individual athlete.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

35. It should be clear to anyone watching that the coach is in control.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

36. Competitors keep me from achieving success.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

37. Coaches should make all decisions during competitive events.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

38. Winning is the most significant measure of success in the sport experience.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

39. Opponents are my enemies.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

40. I believe that if an individual overcomes pain in the pursuit of success that the achievement is even more valuable than if pain were not experienced.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

41. Televised sport events provide good examples for the behaviors of coaches and athletes.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

42. Sport participation should be fun.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

43. All athletes should be given an opportunity to play in all contests.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

44. Even poorly skilled athletes deserve the right to play.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

45. Athletes should be allowed to make decisions during contests.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

46. Individuals should strive to win, but should be careful **not** to embarrass opponents.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

47. Athletes should take illegal performance-enhancing drugs in the pursuit of success.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

48. If an individual is not willing to compete when in pain, he or she lacks commitment to success.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

49. Losing **should not** have much of an affect upon an individual.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

50. Both my competitors and I can achieve success in a contest.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

51. The win-at-all-cost philosophy common in professional sport is acceptable for youth and school sport.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

52. Individuals **should not** be willing to sacrifice their short-term health in pursuit of success in sport (Example: break a bone).
Agree ___ Disagree ___

53. It **is not** important for athletes to use the latest technology to find success in sport (Example: high tech equipment).
Agree ___ Disagree ___

54. The greatest measure of success in sport **is not** enjoyment.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

55. Athletes **should not** take legal performance-enhancing drugs in the pursuit of success.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

56. My honor is more important than winning.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

57. Athletes should have input into their training.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

58. Individuals can experience success in sport without working hard.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

59. It is acceptable if the coach does not seem to be in control at all times.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

60. It **is not** acceptable to cheat in order to win.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

61. The coach **should not** complain to officials concerning calls that are made against his or her team.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

62. Performing to one's capabilities **is not** the most significant measure of success in sport.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

63. Coaches should set training rules for athletes (Examples: don't smoke, no alcohol).
Agree ___ Disagree ___

64. Individuals should be willing to sacrifice their long-term health in the pursuit of success (Example: life-long joint pain).
Agree ___ Disagree ___

65. My opponents should be hated.
Agree ___ Disagree ___

66. Athletes should have input into decisions during competitive events.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

67. In order for individuals to be successful in sport, they must dedicate themselves to the point that other aspects of their life may suffer (Examples: sacrifice relationships and the achievement of excellence in other areas of life).
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

68. The latest information from the sport sciences should be utilized in training sessions (Examples: Exercise Physiology and Biomechanics).
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

69. Opponents assist me in achieving my success.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

70. Individuals **should not** sacrifice large sums of money in the pursuit of athletic success.
    Agree ___ Disagree ___

Response Key

Instructions:

For each response that you made on your evaluation, give yourself one point every time your answer is the **same as the key**.

For Example:

- If the key states Agree and your response is Agree give yourself one point: +1
- If the key states Agree and your response is Disagree you would give yourself no points: 0

When you complete scoring your evaluation, add up the total number of points and then go to the next page.

1. Disagree
2 Disagree
3. Disagree
4. Agree
5. Agree
6. Agree
7. Disagree
8. Agree
9. Disagree
10. Agree
11. Agree
12. Agree
13. Disagree
14. Disagree
15. Disagree
16. Agree
17. Agree
18. Agree
19. Disagree
20. Agree
21. Disagree
22. Disagree
23. Agree
24. Disagree
25. Disagree
26. Agree
27. Disagree
28. Agree
29. Agree
30. Agree
31. Disagree
32. Agree
33. Disagree
34. Agree
35. Agree
36. Agree
37. Agree
38. Agree
39. Agree
40. Agree
41. Agree
42. Disagree
43. Disagree
44. Disagree
45. Disagree
46. Disagree
47. Agree
48. Agree
49. Disagree
50. Disagree
51. Agree
52. Disagree
53. Disagree
54. Agree
55. Disagree
56. Disagree
57. Disagree
58. Disagree
59. Disagree
60. Disagree
61. Disagree
62. Agree
63. Agree
64. Agree
65. Agree
66. Disagree
67. Agree
68. Agree
69. Disagree
70. Disagree

Total Score: