AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

Howard F. Stidwill for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education presented on October 26, 1984.

Title: Motives Toward Track and Field Competition of Foreign and Domestic Grant-in-Aid Student-Athletes in NCAA Division I Colleges and Universities

Abstract approved: Dr. Arnold Flath

This study sought to chronicle the increased presence of the foreign athlete in NCAA Division I track and field and to assess the competitive motivations of American and foreign track and field athletes. Recruiting pipelines, as well as the successes of foreign athletes on U.S. university track and field teams, are discussed. It is suggested that many of these successes may be due in part to high motivational levels. To the foreign athlete, in particular, an athletic scholarship offers the opportunity to compete and gain an education at the same time.

A motivation inventory and related questionnaire were sent to universities which have foreign athletes on their track and field teams. Results indicated that few personality differences in regards to competition existed between the foreign and domestic athletes. However, the foreign athlete appeared more confident of success in competition than was his American counterpart. It is suggested that
this may in part be due to the foreign athlete's somewhat greater exposure to previous national and international competition.

It is recommended that such studies recognize the increase of sport towards internationalism and that future research focus on the development of historical-descriptive studies as well as the development of valid and reliable psychological constructs related to competition. Moreover, sport needs to be seen in a broad context, incorporating physiological, social, cultural, and psychological factors.
Motives Toward Track and Field Competition of Foreign and Domestic Grant-in-Aid Student-Athletes in NCAA Division I Colleges and Universities

by

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Concurrent with the increased internationalisation of sport in the twentieth century has been the influx of foreign student-athletes to many American universities. This influx of athletes became particularly evident in the late 1960's through the 1970's, with an estimated one thousand foreign athletes competing on various athletic scholarships in 1977, four hundred of which were in track and field (Amdur, 1977:55). The participation of many of these athletes soon became a cause for concern among administrators and coaches, and remains a subject for debate and legislation in the 1980's.

The presence of prominent foreign track athletes began on a minor scale in the early part of this century with a small number of Canadians competing for American schools. In the 1940's and 1950's, several prominent Jamaican runners competed for American schools. Their success helped to establish a tradition of recruiting Olympic-caliber sprinters from Jamaica that has continued through to the present (Moore, 1983). In 1949, Coach Jumbo Elliot of Villanova opened his so-called "Irish Pipeline" with Irish Olympian Jimmy Reardon; by the mid-1950's it produced Olympic champion Ron Delany, who, besides winning the 1500 meter at Melbourne for Ireland in 1956,
won four NCAA titles for Villanova (Manners, 1974:35). These Irish runners were soon to be accompanied by British athletes.

The influence of foreign athletes gradually continued into the 1960's with specific patterns of recruitment tending to emerge. Villanova continued its British-Irish connection. Finns and Swedes attended Brigham Young University (BYU). Swedes tended to go to the University of New Mexico as well. The University of Texas at El Paso (UTEP) initially had several Australians on its track team, as did the University of Texas at Austin. A significant number of Canadian athletes attended American schools with their recruitment patterns tending to be longitudinally north and south and often within a relatively short distance from the Canada-United States border. For example, many athletes from British Columbia attended schools in Oregon and Washington, and athletes from Ontario often went to universities in Ohio, Michigan, and Illinois (Hendershott, 1965-1970).

The successes of many African athletes in the 1968 and 1972 Olympic Games, combined with their many other international triumphs, broadened the recruitment patterns from the countries of Canada, the United Kingdom, Australia, Scandinavia, and the Caribbean islands to that of several African nations, most notably those of Kenya, Tanzania, and Nigeria. In the early 1970's, the University of Texas at El Paso and Washington State University (WSU) had, in particular, established "pipelines" to these countries with UTEP winning several cross-country, indoor and outdoor championships with these foreign athletes. The dominance of foreign athletes at such schools as UTEP
and WSU was such that their teams became known as the "foreign legions" (Track and Field News, Nov. 1979:22).

Accompanying the mounting successes of foreign athletes was a corresponding criticism that many of these athletes were much older, and in many cases, had experienced more years of high level competition than domestic athletes. Critics asserted that such mature athletes often had an unfair advantage over their American counterparts. In addition, these athletes were often seen as taking scholarships away from many American athletes. In this regard, the NCAA had attempted several times without success to slow the recruitment of overage foreigners by the passage of "overage" legislation. However, initial legislation in this regard was overturned in the courts as it was seen as violating the equal protection clause of the fourteenth amendment to the United States Constitution.

Much of the rationale underlying the NCAA legislation is based upon the belief that much of the success of the foreign athlete is due to his maturity and previous exposure to high-level competition. While such factors certainly play a part, it may also be noted that many of these athletes, particularly those of the developing countries, come from backgrounds of inadequate facilities, poor diets, poor coaching, and relatively few competitive opportunities. For many of these athletes, success in track and field at an American school offers a way out of a subsistence life by offering them an opportunity to gain an education through an athletic scholarship in the United States. As one Jamaican track official stated: "In Jamaica young
athletes are pushed, driven more than in the States" (Moore, 1983:94). For many other athletes, particularly those from Great Britain or Scandinavia, an athletic scholarship may simply provide an option they would not have otherwise, namely, an opportunity for running and an education at the same time. It is in the United States where both can be uniquely pursued simultaneously (McFadden & Ferrara, 1983:33).

Accordingly, with opportunities to compete and gain an education available to them in the United States, many foreign athletes may be more motivated to succeed in competition than their American counterparts. Such achievement motivation may be characterised by such qualities as ambition and conscientiousness. The successes of the foreign athlete may, in part, be attitudinally based.

Statement of Problem

The purpose of this study is to investigate the motives held by foreign and domestic grant-in-aid student-athletes towards NCAA Division I track and field competition.

Objectives

The objectives of this research will be:

1. To review the literature concerning the issue of the foreign track and field athlete in American colleges and universities.

2. To document and assess demographic and related information of selected American and foreign track and field athletes.

3. To assess whether significant differences in competitive motives towards track and field exist between American and foreign track and field athletes.
4. To investigate what may account for any existing motivational differences between American and foreign track and field athletes.

**Hypothesis**

It is hypothesized that the foreign track and field student-athlete is more highly motivated towards competition than the American track and field student-athlete.

**Limitations**

The major limitations of this study were as follows:

1. The sample size consisted of athletes who were selected from NCAA Division I schools which currently had a significant number of foreign athletes on their track and field teams. It would be inappropriate to generalize results to all American and foreign athletes.

2. The willingness of coaches to allow athletes to participate in this study.

3. The willingness of athletes to complete questionnaires (i.e., year-round nature of track and field competition may have constrained them.)

4. The recruitment pattern of the foreign student-athlete reflected general trends and was not designed to be inclusive in scope.
Assumptions

It is assumed that:

1. The reliability and validity of the major instrument and related questions designed to measure achievement behavior in competition are of sufficient levels to justify its use for research purposes and of group differences.

2. The cross-cultural nature of sample did not affect reliability and validity of instruments to an appreciable degree.

3. The subjects were representative of the population of which they were a part.

4. Athletes were not receiving inducement to compete other than was mandated by the NCAA.

Need for Study

The issue of the foreign athlete is a topic of concern for many athletes and coaches, as well as the NCAA. For that reason, an investigation of the competitive motives among foreign and domestic track and field athletes is seen to be worthwhile. In addition, such a cross-cultural study would be fruitful for the comparative physical educator or sport scientist seeking to gain insight into a relatively unexamined area of sport (Cratty, 1973:186). Indeed, as Bennett, Howell, and Simri (1975) point out, "the time has come for many cross-cultural studies of institutions, sports, training of athletes . . . and a host of others" (p. 758). This study represents an effort in that direction.
Grant-in-Aid: Financial assistance awarded to students of high athletic ability. Such recipients are referred to as student-athletes and represent their respective university in intercollegiate competition. Grant-in-aids are commonly referred to as athletic scholarships.

Student-Athlete: An amateur student-athlete is one who engages in a particular sport for the educational, physical, mental, and social benefits therein and to whom participation in that sport is an avocation (NCAA, 1983:9).

Overage Athlete: An athlete who is several years older than the norm in intercollegiate competition.


Division I School: A specific designation made for NCAA legislative and competitive purposes. According to assigned criteria such as number of scholarships and intercollegiate sports, Division I is considered the most competitive of the three divisions. Fourteen track and field scholarships are allowed at any one time (NCAA Manual, 1983:113, 121) in Division I.

Pipeline: Distinct lines of recruitment whereby athletes of the same or similar nationality are successively recruited by a particular school.

Net Achievement Behavior (NAB): The resulting sum of Tr + EM, or NAB = Tr + EM (Carron, 1980).

Resultant Tendency to Achieve Success (Tr): The difference between Ts and Tf, or Tr = Ts - Tf (Carron, 1980).

Tendency to Approach an Achievement-Oriented Goal (Ts): The disposition, inclination or tendency to engage in an achievement-oriented task. It is a multiplicative function of the individual's personality (MAS, the probability of success (Ps), and the incentives attached to that success (Is) (Carron, 1980).
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<tr>
<td>Tendency to Avoid an Achievement-Oriented Goal (Tf):</td>
<td>The disposition, inclination or tendency to avoid or delay entering into achievement situations. It is a multiplicative function of the individual's personality (MAF), the probability of failure (Pf), and the pride, displeasure and dissatisfaction associated with potential failure (If) (Carron, 1980).</td>
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<td>Motivation to Approach Success (MAS):</td>
<td>The individual's disposition to engage in achievement tasks (Carron, 1980:84).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Motivation to Avoid Failure (MAF):</td>
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<td>Perceived Probability of Success (Ps):</td>
<td>The estimate or judgement made by the individual that performance will be successful and is often a function of successful past performances (Carron, 1980:84).</td>
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<td>The estimate or judgement made by the individual that performance will be unsuccessful and often is a function of unsuccessful past performances (Carron, 1980:84).</td>
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<td>Incentive Value of Success (Is):</td>
<td>The rewards, incentives and perceived satisfaction associated with a successful outcome (Carron, 1980:84).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Incentive Value of Avoiding Failure (If):</td>
<td>The perceived dissatisfaction, shame, and displeasure associated with failure (Carron, 1980:84).</td>
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<td>Extrinsic Motivation (EM):</td>
<td>The strength of the tendency to act that is attributable to the influence of other motives and incentives that are not intrinsically related to the evaluation of performance as are the other achievement-related motives (Atkinson, 1964:247).</td>
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CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature will be presented in three major sections. The first section will present an historical overview of the presence of the foreign athlete in United States intercollegiate track and field competition, providing a brief chronology with references to athletes from Canada, Jamaica and other selected Caribbean nations, Ireland, England, Australia, Scandinavia, and Africa. This will be followed by a description of the respective national recruiting patterns and how they were established.

The second section will assess the effect of the foreign competitor in United States intercollegiate track and field competition. The successes of the foreign athlete and how these successes, combined with the factor of age of many of these athletes, have become an issue among coaches, athletes, and administrators will be briefly examined. Steps at legislating the influx of the overage foreign or international athlete also will be considered.

The third and final section will focus upon the reasons why many coaches recruit foreign athletes, as well as the motivation of these athletes to compete in the United States. Both similarities and differences in motivational factors among athletes of various nationalities will be explored.
Historical Overview

This section will present a brief historical overview of the presence of the foreign track and field athlete in American colleges and universities. Specific references will be made to athletes from Canada, Jamaica and other selected Caribbean nations, Ireland, England, Australia, Scandinavia, and Africa. In addition, recruitment patterns of these various national groupings will be examined. General lines of recruitment, as well as origins of "pipelines" and how they are perpetuated, will be reviewed.

Presence of Foreign Athletes

The presence of the foreign track and field athlete in American colleges and universities has essentially gone through two stages. The initial stage began with the participation of a small number of Canadian track and field athletes at the turn of the century. This stage continued from the late 1940's through the early 1960's with an increasing number of athletes from Jamaica, Trinidad, England, Ireland, Australia, and Scandinavia participating on American college track and field teams. While generally of high quality, the relatively small numbers of these athletes had little overall impact on the results of the NCAA competition at that time.

The current stage began with the successes of African, Caribbean, and Asian athletes in the 1960, 1964, and 1968 Olympic Games. Previously, world dominance in track and field had been exercised primarily by European countries and those with strong European cultural ties--the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.
Few Asians held records or won Olympic championships in track and field; fewer Latin Americans and no one from the African nations did (Henderson, 1969). As the athletic potential of other nations, in particular those of the Third World, became evident, interest in recruiting such foreign track and field athletes increased among American track coaches. Many foreign athletes from the developing nations expressed an interest in competing for American colleges and universities while gaining an education and training at the same time. The growing presence of these athletes became increasingly felt with an estimated 400 foreign track and field athletes competing on American college teams by 1977 (Amdur, 1977).

**Canadian Athletes.**

Due to geographical proximity, common language and culture, Canadian athletes were the first foreign athletes to attend colleges and universities in the United States and represent them at international competitions. Representing the University of Pennsylvania, George Orton, a Canadian by birth, won a gold medal in the 2500-meter steeplechase at the Olympic Games of 1900. While not winning any medals, two other Canadians represented the United States at these games: Alexander Grant represented the University of Pennsylvania and his brother represented the Boston American Athletic Association (Stidwill, 1981). Canada did not participate in these games.

Past Olympic medal winners among Canadians representing United States colleges include: Earl Thompson, Dartmouth, gold medal, 110 hurdles, 1920; Duncan McNaughton, University of Southern California
(USC), gold medal, high jump, 1932; Alex Wilson, Notre Dame, silver medal, 400 and 800 meters, 1932; Phil Edwards, New York University (NYU), three bronze, 800 and 1500 meters, 1932 and 1936; Harry Jerome, University of Oregon (Oregon), bronze, 100 meter, 1964; and Greg Joy, University of Texas at El Paso (UTEP), silver, high jump, 1976 (Stidwill, 1981).

The presence of highly prominent Canadian track men on United States teams has been curtailed somewhat since 1983, due to the implementation in Canada of a third-party scholarship system, whereby specific carded athletes may remain in Canada and receive an education and training at the expense of their respective sporting federation (Stidwill, 1981:101).

Jamaican Athletes.

Among the first prominent foreign track men competing for American colleges and universities in the late 1940's and early 1950's were Jamaican sprinters Herb McKinley and George Rhoden. McKinley, while at the University of Illinois (UI) in 1946, set a world record in the 440 and competed in the 1948 and 1952 Olympic Games, winning three silver medals and one gold. Rhoden, a three-time 400-meter champion at Morgan State College in Maryland, won the 1952 Olympic 400 meter (Moore, 1983).

Soon many other Jamaican sprinters found their way to American schools. These included: George Kerr, UI, bronze, 800 meters, 1960 Olympic Games; Dennis Johnson, San Jose State College, 1961-1964 co-World recordholder at 100 yards; Lennox Miller, University of Southern California (USC), silver and bronze medals at 1968 and 1972
Olympic Games; brothers Mel and Mal Spence, Arizona State University, who competed in 1956, 1960, and 1964 Olympic Games; Donald Quarrie, USC, gold and silver medals, 200 and 100 meters, 1976 and 1980 Olympic Games; and Bert Cameron, UTEP, NCAA Champion in 400 meters, 1981 and World Cup Champion in 1983 (Moore, 1983).

The vast majority of the Jamaican athletes have been sprinters. This fact is in large part due to the early successes of athletes like McKinley and Rhoden, both of whom helped establish a sprinting tradition. In addition to this tradition, Jamaican athletes often have lacked the athletic equipment and competent coaching in their own country with which to train for the more technical field events. The warm weather in the Caribbean region also precludes long distance training.

Irish, Australian, and British Athletes.

During the early successes of the Jamaican athletes, Coach Jumbo Elliot of Villanova opened his so-called "Irish Pipeline" with Irish Olympian Jimmy Reardon in 1948. This was followed by a succession of Irish Olympians, including Ron Delany, who won the 1956 Olympic 1500-meter event for Ireland and four NCAA titles for Villanova; Noel Carrol, 1968; Frank Murphy, 1972; and Eamon Coughlan, two-time Olympian and 1983 World Cup Champion (Manners, 1974:34).

Athletes from Australia as well as England have competed for American universities. In the late 1950's the cross-country team from the University of Houston was built around a nucleus of Australians, including Olympian and two-time NCAA cross-country champion Al Laurence. The University of Houston won the NCAA cross-country
championship with an all foreign athlete squad whose average age was 26 (Manners, 1977:35). Idaho won the first Pacific Coast Cross-Country Championship in 1957 with an all-British team (Track and Field, Nov. 1975:3).

Scandinavian Athletes.

Scandinavians began to appear on American college teams in the late 1950's and 1960's. These Scandinavian athletes were particularly successful in field events such as the javelin, shot, discus, and hammer. Ecles Lundstrom, 1960 Olympic gold medal pole vault winner, had attended the University of Michigan (Track and Field, Mar. 1956:15). Many of the Finnish and Swedish athletes who attended BYU in the 1960's and 1970's became All-Americans. Among the foreign athletes attending New Mexico in the 1960's were five Swedish Olympians. Norwegian athletes, many of whom were middle-distance runners, have attended Wyoming in significant numbers since the late 1960's. Einar Vilhjalmsson, Texas javelin thrower from Iceland, recently broke the NCAA record. His father, the only Icelander to ever win an Olympic gold medal (triple jump), attended Dartmouth in 1956 (LA Times, April 7, 1984:111).

African Athletes.

The influence of the African runners on NCAA competition has been a relatively recent and significant phenomenon. Athletes from Kenya and Ethiopia, among the most successful of the African athletes in track and field, did not compete in the Olympic Games until 1956 (Jufa, 1983:67). In 1960 and 1964, Abebe Bikila of Ethiopia won the Olympic marathon, becoming the first black African gold medalist
In 1965, Kip Keino of Kenya became the first African to hold a world's record, this being in the 3000 meter. Kenyans were also highly successful in the 1968 Olympic Games, winning nine medals: three gold, four silver, and two bronze. Such successes were primarily in middle- and long-distance running events. In the 1970's, Tanzanian successes began with the 1500-meter world record set by Filbert Bayi, who, one coach said, "put Tanzania on the map" (Fisher, 1976:43).

**Recruitment of Foreign Athletes**

**Patterns of Recruitment.**

The recruitment patterns of the national groupings are somewhat diverse. The Canadian athletes appear to have attended several United States schools in small numbers, with no distinct "pipelines" being apparent. Among these universites were the University of Oregon, Washington State, Michigan, East Michigan, several schools in Ohio (such as Ohio State, University of Ohio, Miami University), Southern Illinois, Stanford, Villanova, Nebraska, and UTEP.

Much of the Jamaican recruitment pattern shows specific pipeline effects, with Jamaicans tending to compete at UTEP, Texas, Nebraska, Idaho, Idaho State, and Florida (Hendershott, 1955-1984). It is estimated that presently Jamaican athletes win ten to fifteen scholarships a year (Moore, 1983:106). Athletes from Barbadoes and Trinidad have gone to UTEP, Idaho, Seton Hall, Maryland State, East Michigan, and Florida.

The English-Irish athletes tend to be more broadly dispersed than the Jamaican athletes. Primary schools of attendance include

Scandinavian athletes have tended to enroll at specific schools with many Swedes and Finns at BYU and New Mexico; Norwegians at Wyoming; and Icelanders at the University of Texas and Oklahoma.

Most African athletes come from Kenya, Tanzania, and Nigeria with somewhat distinct pipelines being apparent. In the late 1960's and early 1970's, several Kenyan runners attended Richmond and North Carolina Central; one non-scholarship Kenyan athlete, Steve Machooka, who became the IC4A cross-country champion, attended Cornell ("Machooka Trounces Field," 1961). Since the early 1970's, Kenyans have been heavily recruited by UTEP, Washington State, and New Mexico. Recently, Iowa State began recruiting Kenyans. Many prominent Tanzanian athletes, including 30-year-old Filbert Bayi, are attending UTEP. Several Nigerians attend the University of Missouri (Teel, 1984).

The mass exodus of African athletes concerns many Kenyan officials, who see it as a loss and a detriment to their athletic system (Tufa, 1983). Tanzania, on the other hand, fully supports its athletes' going to the United States to the extent that virtually the whole Tanzanian national team trains at UTEP (USA Today, Sept. 1983:9).

**Origins of Recruitment, by Nationality.**

The origins of recruitment for Canadian athletes are rather direct. Due to the close proximity of Canada to the United States,
American coaches are often in contact with prospective Canadian athletes at track meets and may simply leave application forms for the athletes to complete. Often Canadian alumni will initiate interest on the part of the athlete in their respective schools. Another direct approach is a letter from an athlete expressing interest in a respective school's track program, often accompanied by the athlete's record of past track events (McNeil, 1984).

Many of the recruiting ties for the Jamaican athletes are a result of the pipeline effect whereby former Jamaican athletes pave the way for future Jamaican athletes. The Penn State Relays and the Pan-American Games often serve as points of contact between United States coaches and prospective athletes (Moore 1983:106). Coaches also may be invited to conduct clinics in countries such as Jamaica or Trinidad where, in turn, contacts are made for future recruits. Letters of interest, accompanied by a statement of athletic performance and an academic transcript, are often sent to coaches. This again is often due to alumni influence (McNeil, 1984).

The English-Irish connection to American schools demonstrates the pipeline effect particularly well. This is best illustrated by Villanova University. From prominent Irish beginnings, Jumbo Elliot, the late coach of Villanova, stated that the pipeline was nothing more than athlete-to-athlete recruitment by word of mouth (Track and Field, June 1974:26). To this end, one Irish Olympian who attended Villanova once commented, "I will do everything I can to persuade some young runner to come over here. It has been a great experience" (Track and Field, June 1974:26). Eaman Coughlan, another Irish Olympian,
commented: "You have to understand what Villanova means to the Irish schoolboy. Villanova is the number one name" (Track and Field, June 1974:26).

Such "word of mouth" recruiting was clearly evident in the case of East Tennessee State. Neil Cusack, an Irish Olympian, initially attended East Tennessee and was followed by several Irish countrymen. Indeed, that college's 1972 NCAA cross-country team, which placed second, was an all-Irish team. It became known as the Irish brigade (Track and Field, Dec. 1972:4).

Expatriate coaches often serve as attractive recruiters. British gold medalist (hurdles) David Hemery attended Boston University, where he later served as head track coach. In addition to having an Irish assistant coach, Hemery attracted British/Irish athletes. Irishman John McDonnell came to the United States in 1964 to run middle distance at Southwest Louisiana. Since becoming head coach at Arkansas in 1977, he has attracted several British and Irish runners to Arkansas (Sports Illustrated, Mar. 19, 1984:60). In addition to McDonnell maintaining his Irish contacts, recruitment is aided by the Arkansas countryside, which resembles Ireland (McDonnell, 1984).

A particularly efficient recruiting source has been athletic journals. One noteworthy example occurred at Idaho in 1957, when Coach Joe Glander placed an ad in the British journal Athletics Weekly and recruited a complete cross-country team. The team subsequently won the Pacific Coast Cross-Country Championship (Track and Field, Nov. 1975:3). More recently, Idaho State attracted several English runners by placing a "runners wanted" ad in a British track magazine (Sports Illustrated, Mar. 19, 1984:60).
In addition to such techniques, athletes are recruited at international track meets during the summer months in Europe. British, Irish, and Scandinavian athletes, in particular, have been recruited this way.

Many of the Scandinavian contingent at BYU were initially a unique product of the Mormon mission program. This missionary program requires each student to spend a one- or two-year missionary experience in a foreign country. Many foreign athletes are recruited by the Mormon student missionaries. Athletes have been recruited by BYU from such diverse locations as Korea, Fiji, Brazil, Argentina, Yugoslavia, and Canada. While such church connections initially played a major role in recruiting athletes, many BYU alumni who are coaches now in Sweden and Finland currently provide a steady flow of athletes to BYU (Robison, 1984).

The presence of several Norwegians at Wyoming was due to the recruiting of a Wyoming professor/cross-country ski coach who met several skiers while on sabbatical in Norway. Many athletes returned with him to run cross-country as well as ski in Wyoming. This initial contact, as well as the similarity of climate, has provided Wyoming with a source of track athletes (Fisher, 1983).

The Olympic successes of the African athletes in the 1960's initiated the recruitment of African athletes to United States campuses. More specifically, it was the success of the Kenyan team in the 1968 Olympic Games in Mexico that signalled the heavy recruitment of the Kenyan as well as other African athletes. Some recruiters
have given handwritten applications for scholarships to African
runners at such meets (Bentsen, March 1983:67).

Other sources of recruitment had their origins in the American
State Department programs which had been designed to counteract Soviet
sport exchanges and coaching assistance in many developing countries.
The first two prominent Kenyan runners to attend a United States
school, Julius Sang and Robert Ouko, had been contacted by North
Carolina Central's coach while on a State Department visit (Track and
Field, June 1972:25). These cultural offensives by the United States
and the Soviet Union were referred to as the "Sports Cold War"
(Congressional Record, 1962:20671). As a consequence of the American
programs, African nations became the recipient of many sport exchanges
and clinics. American coaches under the auspices of Fulbright
scholarships were often requested to assist in training national teams
(Clumpner, 1978:438).

Coaches occasionally came from the Peace Corps, whose specialists
often coached in schools, clubs, or national teams. From this evolved
a permanent program known as the "Sport Corps" (Clumper, 1978:438).
Coaches such as two-time gold medalist Mal Whitfield soon became
employed in these State Department programs. Currently stationed in
Nairobi, Whitfield's mission has been to educate and develop African
athletes, one of whom, Kipchoge Keino, became a multiple gold and
silver medalist in the 1968 and 1972 Olympic Games (Bentsen, April
1983:70). Kasheef Hassan of the Sudanese Olympic team in 1976 and
1980, as well as two-time NCAA champion (400-meter) from Oregon State
University, was contacted by Whitfield in Ethiopia where he was
further recruited by Oregon State at the 1976 Olympic Games in Montreal (Hassan, 1983). Mal Whitfield also has served as a contact for the initiation of Washington State's "Kenyan connection" (Chaplin, 1984).

Foreign athlete alumni who become coaches or athletic administrators serve as points of contact for potential recruiting. Robert Ouko, formerly of North Carolina Central, who is presently assistant secretary of the Kenyan Amateur Athletic Association, is such a contact person.

Further sources of contact with African athletes often come through educational agencies, such as AID (Agency for International Development) and the U.S. Information Agency. In particular, Washington State, an agricultural school, has been a beneficiary of such programs (Chaplin, 1984).

Personal contacts provided the Nigerian pipeline at Missouri. While at the Drake Relays in 1973, Coach Bob Teel was informed by a fellow coach of the availability of a skilled hurdler from Nigeria. Teel wrote to the hurdler, who subsequently enrolled at Missouri. This initial contact formed the basis for seven Nigerian athletes presently attending Missouri (Teel, 1984). Such informal person-to-person communication has been prevalent in the recruitment of Kenyan athletes, many of whom simply contact a coach and go to the United States on their own with little financial backing (Bentsen, March 1983:68). In such a situation, an athletic scholarship is particularly important.
Summary

The recruitment patterns of foreign track and field athletes have been diverse. Canadian track and field athletes have tended to enroll in small groups at a relatively large number of United States colleges. The other national groups have generally clustered in larger groups and at fewer schools. Distinct lines of recruitment have created a "pipeline" effect with distinct national traditions being formed, such as in the case of Villanova (Irish) and BYU (Scandinavian). Some pipelines have led to a cross-cultural mix whereby several pipelines converge at the same university. This is illustrated in the case of UTEP and WSU, which attract many different nationalities.

The origins of recruitment have tended to show some variability. Canadian recruitment is due primarily to proximity and frequency of contact. The other national groups have relied on contacts being made at national and international track meets, by alumni who may become coaches in their native land, and by informal person-to-person communication. The recruitment of the African athlete has been enhanced by contacts made from State Department programs, the Peace Corps, and educational agencies such as AID and the U.S. Information services.

Finally, a university's educational or athletic tradition provides an edge in recruiting (Will-Weber, 1980:7). Or, as Rooney (1980:85) has pointed out, tradition is frequently associated with a famous coach. As many athletes flocked to Villanova because of the reputation of its coach, Jumbo Elliot, many distance runners enroll at
the University of Oregon because of the reputation of its coach, Bill Dellinger. In such cases, little active recruiting is required (Gillespie, 1984).

**Effect of the Foreign Athlete in Intercollegiate Competition**

This section will assess the effect of the increasing number of foreign or international athletes competing in American colleges. It will include references to their athletic successes in track and field and how these athletes have become an issue for many coaches, athletes, and administrators. Legal attempts to regulate the flow of overage foreign athletes will also be examined.

**Successes of Foreign Athletes**

Many foreign athletes have been quite successful in American intercollegiate track and field competition. Several schools have relied almost entirely on the performance of foreign athletes in winning track championships. Houston, Idaho, and East Tennessee have won division cross-country meets solely with foreign athletes. Within the past decade, Washington State and UTEP have become known for their almost total reliance on high-level athletes from around the world. Such heavy emphasis on international recruiting has been beneficial, for example, UTEP has won 19 out of 24 NCAA championships in cross-country and both outdoor and indoor track and field since 1974 (USA Today, April 10, 1984:1). Similarly, Washington State has one of the foremost dual-meet teams in the country, with its team dominated by elite foreign athletes, particularly those from Kenya. Examination of recent prominent intercollegiate track and field teams, such as
Arkansas, Iowa State, Southern Methodist University (SMU), Texas, Nebraska, and Southern Illinois reveals the presence of several foreign or international athletes. Based on records which have been kept, it has been estimated that since 1975, foreign athletes, who have made up 10 percent of the athletic population, have accounted for approximately 30 to 40 percent of total points scored in track and field, and cross-country championships (Track and Field, Apr. 1983:6).  

Controversy Over Foreign Athletes

Prior to the 1970's, foreign athletes occasionally performed on United States collegiate track and field teams. By the mid-1970's, with several universities having become increasingly dominated by foreign competitors, this seemingly overreliance on the foreign athlete became a controversial issue.

A central issue concerned the age of foreign athletes. Many foreign athletes were in their late twenties or even in their thirties when they enrolled as freshmen. This was especially true of the athletes from African countries, many of whom had questionable birth certificates (Hassan, 1983). Most Scandinavians had served some years of obligatory military service. In some countries, such as England and Canada, the high school period was longer than it was in the United States and, therefore, their college-bound athletes were older than their American counterparts. Critics asserted that the

1A complete statistical analysis of the contribution of the foreign athlete to point standing is being undertaken as a doctoral study at BYU, supervised by Dr. Jay Silvester.
18- or 19-year-old domestic freshman athlete was at a distinct competitive disadvantage against a foreign athlete who was several years older, particularly in a sport such as track and field where physiological and psychological maturity is often a distinct advantage.

**Overage Athlete Legislation**

Attempts to reduce the influx of the overage athlete began in 1961 when the NCAA passed legislation, initially directed at older Canadian hockey players, which stated "that...every year past the age of twenty in which a foreign athlete participated in organized competition in his country counted as one year of season eligibility in the U.S." (Amdur, 1977:55). The overage rule was challenged by Howard University in Washington, when its 1971 soccer championship was taken away by the NCAA, partly because a number of its soccer players were overage foreigners. Howard University's case rested on the NCAA's legislation being in violation of the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment² and, therefore, unconstitutional (Manners, 1974:38). In 1974, the NCAA ruling against Howard University was suspended.

In response to the increased number of overage African runners during the 1970's, NCAA's overage rule was amended to include American as well as foreign athletes, deeming it nondiscriminatory.

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²"...Nor shall any state deprive any person of life, liberty or property without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal jurisdiction of the laws" (U.S. Government Manual, 1982:16).
Exemptions to the overage rule were granted to those in the military service, church missions, or foreign service (NCAA Manual, 1984:77). The rule was again amended in 1983, limiting the military service exemption to only those in the United States Armed Forces, thus eliminating many foreign athletes, particularly those from Africa, who were often nominally in their homelands' armed forces.3

In 1984, the exemption referring to the United States Armed Forces was dropped. At the NCAA's annual convention held January 9-11, 1984, new overage legislation was approved. The legislation, which went into effect August 1, 1984, states that any athlete, regardless of nationality, who has competed in organized sport after his twentieth birthday will have such competitive seasons counted as one of their four seasons of eligibility for college sports in the United States. Exemptions, such as official church missions, foreign service, or service in the U.S. Armed Services, have been eliminated.4 This legislation applies only to Division I schools. While not retroactive, it limits the future presence of the overage athlete, both foreign and domestic.

3Previously, as a 30-year-old freshman at UTEP, the former world record holder and Olympic medalist Filbert Bayi had qualified under the military clause (Track and Field News, Nov. 1982:41).

4One foreign student recently affected by this ruling was Zakariah Barie, an Olympics qualifier and the 1983 NCAA cross-country champion. On the eve of the 1984 indoor championships, it was learned that he had competed two years in Tanzania in addition to two years at UTEP. He was, therefore, disqualified from competing (USA Today, Mar. 2, 1984:2c).
Although the overage aspect has been addressed, the presence of foreign athletes on United States college teams remains a controversial issue. While age and previous experience undoubtedly play a major role in successful competition, the factor of motivation is of equal importance. The motivation to compete at an American college may be largely responsible for the successes of foreign athletes.

**Summary**

While attending American schools, many foreign athletes have been quite successful in American intercollegiate track and field competition. With such successes has come criticism of schools who heavily recruit foreign athletes, particularly if these athletes are older than their American counterparts. While early attempts at legislation directed against these athletes were deemed discriminatory, current legislation will curtail the future presence of all overage athletes. However, while age and previous experience may partially explain the successes of foreign athletes, much of their success may be due to high motivational levels.

**Reasons for Foreign Athlete Recruitment**

This section will examine why American coaches recruit foreign athletes. It also will look at reasons why foreign athletes want to compete on American college track and field teams, considering both the similarities and differences among respective national groups.

**Motivational Factors of American Coaches**

Two prominent reasons account for the increasing reliance on foreign competitors by American coaches: (1) the success the foreign
athlete brings to a program, and (2) the ease of recruiting the foreign athlete.

Winning is the "bottom line" for Division I institutions because it brings them national acclaim and revenue. For several colleges, including UTEP and Washington State, foreign athlete recruitment resulted in almost instant success. UTEP, previously a noncontender and unknown in track and field, won the NCAA cross-country championship in 1969 with three Australians and one Englishman (Track and Field, June 1972:10). Since 1969, UTEP has won 19 championships in cross-country, indoor and outdoor, with foreign students on its team. Washington State won the 1977 NCAA indoor championship with several Kenyans on its team5 (Track and Field, April 1977:28). Since then, WSU has remained a perennial top contender by utilizing foreign athletes.

All successful teams in recent track and field championships have been marked by the presence of a significant number of foreign athletes. For example, at the 1984 indoor championships, first-place Arkansas had two Irish and two English runners, and runner-up Iowa State competed with a Briton, a Nigerian, a Kenyan, and a Belgian (Sports Illustrated, Mar. 19, 1984:60). The 1981 NCAA indoor champion, UTEP, had all its points scored by foreign-born athletes (Sports Illustrated, Mar. 19, 1984:58, 61).

The emphasis of American colleges on winning is underlined by SMU's track and field coach, Ted McLaughlin, formerly an assistant

5Washington State hadn't won a team championship since 1937 when it won in boxing.
coach at UTEP, whose team won the 1983 NCAA outdoor championship, with seven foreign athletes:

Now why do we bring athletes from other countries here? I have to go back to the objective of our track program.... We emphasize going for quality athletes who can compete on the national level. So why should I restrict myself to the U.S.? My job is to win for our school, not to develop U.S. Olympic athletes. (Track and Field, Nov. 1983:43)

Many American coaches have found it is easier to recruit prominent athletes from abroad than from the United States. Coach Clarence Robison (1984) of BYU noted: "It is less expensive and involves less traveling time, and the athletes are very appreciative." He stated that the American recruiting system is simply too complicated and expensive and that he could get a quality foreign student athlete for the "price of a few phone calls and a stamp."

Other coaches complain that few American "blue chip" athletes want to go to "out-of-the-way places" like Pullman, Washington; El Paso, Texas; or Ames, Iowa. Coach Bob Teel (1984) of Missouri stated that he had a limited recruiting budget of $2,000 and a cinder track, which greatly hindered domestic recruiting, and, therefore, was forced to go overseas to recruit.

When prominent Irish runner Ray Flynn was asked why East Tennessee had so many foreign runners, he said: "Your American runners want to go...where the school is known in the polls. The schools like East Tennessee get the second class of local athletes so they look elsewhere" (Track and Field, March 1984:44).
Motivational Factors of Foreign Athletes

Because of the successful performance of foreign athletes and ease of their recruitment, some American coaches have been motivated to recruit athletes from abroad. Because athletic scholarships are available, many foreign athletes have chosen to attend American colleges in order to train and compete, as well as gain an education.

Canadian track and field athletes initially were motivated to attend U.S. colleges because of the availability of athletic scholarships. They wanted to compete and gain an education at the same time. Until recently, Canada did not offer athletic scholarships. While the Canadian government now offers partial scholarships to certain elite or carded athletes, many of Canada's track and field athletes still come to the United States.

The availability of athletic scholarships to American colleges has also encouraged Jamaican athletes to come to the United States to compete. In 1981, Jamaica had a per capita income of approximately $1300 and an unemployment rate of 30 percent. In the Caribbean, the University of West Indies is the only major institution of higher education, and, in accordance with British tradition, it puts very little emphasis on competitive sports. Thus, the way for a Jamaican youth to develop as an athlete and a way out of a subsistence life are the same—an athletic scholarship to an American college (Moore, 1983:98). Also, the Jamaican athlete is exposed to superior training and competitive advantages in an American college which are not available to him in Jamaica.

Like other nationalities, the Irish/English athletes have been
motivated to attend American colleges on scholarship in order to train and compete, as well as gain an education. Intercollegiate competition is not emphasized in the United Kingdom, because it is seen as a distraction from academic studies. Competition exists primarily as a somewhat less formal club system (McFadden & Ferrara, 1983:33). Admittance to higher education institutions in Ireland and England is restricted. Accepting an athletic scholarship to a college in the United States is an attractive alternative to working or going to trade school. Accordingly, many recruits from the United Kingdom often have higher scholastic standing than the average American student. Coach Del Hessel (1984) of New Mexico stated he particularly recruited English-speaking athletes because they performed well academically. Coaches John McDonnell (1984) of Arkansas and Dick Lee (1984) of Iowa State said that the British and Irish athletes were more dedicated and motivated both academically and athletically.

Similarly, the Scandinavian athlete is motivated to gain an education and opportunities to train under fine coaching. Because the universities in Scandinavian countries have limited enrollments, many Scandinavian student-athletes come to the United States for educational purposes. Among the coaches interviewed, it was generally agreed that the Scandinavian student-athletes are particularly successful students. This was attributed in part to the additional year of schooling they receive and the emphasis on math, science, and languages (Fuller, 1984; McLaughlin, 1984; Robinson, 1984). As Coach Cleburne Price (1984) of Texas stated succinctly, "they are smarter [than the American athletes] and I've had only one flunk out." Price
referred to a recent report on American public schools as evidence of his assertion.

In addition to their limited enrollments, Scandinavian universities do not stress competitive athletic programs. The club structure which exists is highly informal. An additional major consideration for many Scandinavian student-athletes is the opportunity to gain year-round training in temperate climates.

The African athlete, like the Jamaican or other Caribbean athletes, often suffers from a lack of adequate facilities, equipment, and coaching. For this reason, field events are virtually non-existent in Africa. The University of Nairobi is the only university in Kenya, so the Kenyan athlete often views an athletic scholarship to the United States as a vehicle to a better life. As Kip Keino said about Kenyan athletes: "They all work for U.S. track scholarships. They have to be worried for their future employment and security and that is a difficult thing in Kenya right now" (Bentsen, April 1983:66). Similarly, Fred Hardy, head track coach at Richmond, where many Kenyans attend, noted: "The motivation for many African runners is clear. When Western-educated graduates return home they can expect rapid advancement in government, private business or education" (Chronicle of Higher Education, April 18, 1984:27-28).

Coach Larry Heidebrecht (1984) of UTEP said that the African runner was highly motivated in the classroom because to go home without a degree was a "disgrace." Running was, therefore, a vehicle to get a degree. Motivation in track and motivation in the classroom carried over into one another (Heidebrecht, 1984). Coach Bob Teel
(1984) of Missouri echoed these sentiments, saying that most foreign athletes were highly motivated and that for them "athletics and academics go hand-in-hand." Coach Teel said that for his Nigerian athletes, "this combination is a key to a better life. Athletics and academics are a two-way street."

Coach John Chaplin (1984) of WSU said that most of his African athletes were more motivated in the sense that they had made an initial decision or commitment to come a long distance in the first place and, therefore, were very committed. He said that gaining an education was a prime concern particularly for the African athlete and that running provided that opportunity.

However, while athletics and education may go "hand-in-hand," several coaches said that student-athletes from Africa and the Caribbean, though highly motivated to do well academically, have problems. Coach Teel (1984) said that many of his Nigerian athletes had a difficult time reading English but they all graduated. Ted McLaughlin (1984) of SMU stated that the African athlete was motivated but had to struggle due to having a poor educational background. Gary Pepin made similar comments regarding his Jamaican athletes.

Patriotic feelings may motivate athletes, particularly those from small or developing countries, to perform. Bert Cameron, an Olympian and two-time NCAA and World Cup 400-meter champion, stated that he tried to maintain the standards of the previous Jamaican runners and that his love of Jamaica motivated him to run well (Track and Field, June 1983:49). Irish athletes, like those from Jamaica, have great expectations placed upon them. As Villanova graduate Eamon Coughlan
stated: "The Irish people build me up all the time. They need someone to look up to, they need a morale booster" (Track and Field, July 1983:57).

Summary.

It is apparent that the primary motivation of foreign athletes to attend American colleges is to compete and gain an education at the same time. In these countries, athletic scholarships are not available, intercollegiate competition is not emphasized, and entrance to national universities is difficult. In the case of athletes from developing countries, their competing for American colleges offers them educational opportunities, which, in turn, avails them economic opportunities later on. The desire for a better quality of life, combined with patriotic feelings, provides a strong motivational basis for athletes of developing countries to compete in United States intercollegiate track and field.

Many of the coaches (86%) interviewed felt that the foreign student-athlete was generally more motivated to perform both academically and athletically than his American counterpart. For the foreign athlete, education and athletics went hand-in-hand. Success in athletics provides the means to gain an education. While the motivational level regarding an education was generally quite high for the foreign student-athletes, students from several developing nations were at a disadvantage due to their poor scholastic background.
CHAPTER 3
METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This chapter will discuss the two general types of methodology, descriptive and quantitative, utilized in this study, as well as the theoretical basis for measuring motivational factors and its application to sport. The population and sample procedure will be identified, and the methods of analysis will be briefly outlined.

Descriptive Approach

The descriptive approach utilized in this study was comparative and historical in scope and was employed in the review of literature. It included an examination and analysis of both primary and secondary source material.

Primary Source Material
1. Track and Field News publications from 1955 to the present
2. Interviews with selected NCAA coaches, athletes, and officials of the NCAA
3. Interviews with the statistical editor of Track and Field News; the author of the study's instrument; and experts in survey research design and statistical analysis
4. NCAA publications
5. The minutes of selected Congressional Records

Secondary Source Material
1. Magazine articles addressing the issue of the foreign collegiate athlete
2. Newspaper articles related to the issue of the foreign collegiate athlete
3. Books regarding athletic recruiting and motivation
4. Related theses and dissertations

Quantitative Approach

The second methodology used in this study was quantitative in approach.

Dependent Variables

The primary dependent variables for this study were: net achievement behavior (NAB), resultant tendency to achieve success (Tr), tendency to strive for an achievement-oriented goal (Ts), and tendency to avoid an achievement-oriented goal (Tf). Additional dependent variables included subscale items: motivation to achieve success (MAS), motivation to avoid failure (MAF), expected probability of success (Ps), expected probability of failure (Pf), incentive to succeed (Is), incentive to avoid failure (If), extrinsic motivation (EM) factors as designated by (a) an opportunity to gain athletic training and experience and (b) an opportunity to gain an education, and previous national and international competitions.

Data Collection

Two methods were used to collect data:
1. Willis Sports Attitude Inventory
2. Related questionnaire

The major measuring instrument was the Willis Sports Attitude Inventory, which was designed to assess motives toward competition. The 28-item instrument was composed of two independent scales which
provide a measure of two achievement-related motives: the motivation towards success (MAS) and the motivation to avoid failure (MAF). The MAS scale consisted of 17 items associated with ambition, hardwork, and optimism (8c,d,f,g,i,j,k,l,o,q,r,s,u,v,x,y,aa). The MAF scale consisted of 11 items associated with embarrassment, anxiety, and a tendency to withdraw or avoid situations in which performance will be evaluated (8a,b,e,h,m,n,p,t,w,z,bb). (See Appendix B.) The items in both scales were original, specific to sport, and balanced in terms of positive and negative wording. Responses to items are recorded on a five-point Likert-type scale. Sufficient evidence of reliability and validity was presented to justify the use of the scales, individually or in combination, for research purposes (Willis, 1982). (See Appendix B.)

The other source of data collection was a questionnaire designed to measure an athlete's attitude in regards to his expected probability of success (Ps) and probability of failure (Pf) (question 3); his personal incentive to be successful in competition (Is) (question 4); his personal incentive to avoid failure in competition (If) (question 5); extrinsic motivation (EM) (questions 2a and 2b); and previous national and international competitions (question 6). (See Appendix B.)

**Achievement Motivation and Its Measurement**

With the recognition that the general context of sport and physical activity is essentially achievement oriented, several researchers have attempted to explain the factors which account for the wide individual differences between behavior in achievement
situations. The theory of achievement motivation, which originally emanated from the work of David McClelland and John Atkinson, was developed to account for behavior in all achievement-related situations. According to Atkinson (1964) an achievement situation comprises those instances where an individual knows that his performance will be evaluated by himself or others in terms of some standard of excellence and that the consequences of his actions will either be a favorable evaluation (success) or an unfavorable evaluation (failure). As might be expected, achievement theory has been applied to obvious achievement situations such as sport (Ryan & Lakie, 1965), industry (Black, 1962), and academic settings (Cox, 1962) (cited in Carron, 1980:83).

**Theoretical Model**

McCelland and Atkinson considered achievement-oriented behavior to be a product of two factors: personality and environment.

Within the personality dimension are two independent personality dispositions (traits) reflecting individual differences in motivation toward achievement situations. One of these, the need to achieve (n Ach), or the motivation to achieve or approach success (MAS), is a measure of the strength of an individual's competitive motives. Traditionally n Ach has been measured by the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) whereby subjects are shown a series of pictures and asked to relate their content (Larson cited in Carron, 1980:83).

The second disposition toward achievement situations which is present in all individuals is the motivation to avoid failure (MAF). It is a disposition to delay or avoid entering into specific
achievement situations and is measured by anxiety questionnaires. The rationale is that the higher the degree of anxiety present, the stronger the motivation to avoid failure (Larson cited in Carron, 1980:83). Accordingly, a high MAF score would indicate high anxiety and a reluctance on the part of an individual to enter into competitive situations. A relatively low MAF score, indicating less anxiety, would be more closely associated with more competitive individuals, such as scholarship athletes.

It is to be emphasized that both the need to achieve and the motive to avoid failure are present, in varying degrees, in every individual and that they are independent. For example, high MAS could be present with high, medium, or low MAF.

In addition to personality dispositions are environmental, or situational, determinants which operate in every pure achievement setting. The first situational factor is the extent to which the person expects his performance to be successful (i.e., expectancy or probability of success, Ps) (Alderman & Wood, 1976:169). A high Ps will often be a function of successful past performance which acts as a frame of reference to determine relatively high initial expectation of success (Feather, 1966). The counterpart to Ps, the expectancy of failure or perceived probability of failure (Pf), is the judgement made by the individual that performance will be unsuccessful (Carron, 1980:84) and is often a function of unsuccessful past performance. A high Ps would, therefore, be expected with competitive and accomplished athletes, whereas a high Pf would be associated with less accomplished athletes.
The third situational factor is the incentive value of success (Is) to the individual, or how attractive success appears to the individual (Alderman & Wood, 1976:109). Personal rewards such as feelings of pride, accomplishment, and satisfaction typify incentive values of success. By contrast, the incentive value of avoiding failure (If) denotes perceived dissatisfaction, shame, and displeasure associated with failure (Carron, 1980:84). A high Is would be associated with competitive athletes; a high If would be associated with less competitive athletes.

These personality and situational variables become multiplicative functions of the tendency of an individual to strive for an achievement-oriented goal (Ts) where $Ts = MAS \times Ps \times Is$; and the tendency of an individual to avoid an achievement-oriented goal (Tf) where $Tf = MAF \times Pf \times If$. Tf may be thought of as a negative quality, or $T - f$, signifying avoidance or anxiety about failure. The conflict or difference between $Ts + (T - f)$ is solved algebraically where $Tr = Ts + (T - f)$, or $Tr = Ts - Tf$ (Willis & Bethe, 1970:19). The resultant tendency to achieve success, Tr, is the difference between Ts and Tf, or $Tr = Ts - Tf$ (Willis & McElroy, 1978:1).

This theoretical model is concerned with the factors influencing intrinsic motivation brought to a particular situation. The final factor which might be included in the model, the factor which leads the Tf > Ts person, or Tf = Ts person, to engage in achievement activities is the amount of extrinsic motivation involved in the task (Carron, 1980:88). By extrinsic motivation is meant the strength of the tendency to act that is attributable to the influence of other
motives and incentives that are not intrinsically related to the evaluation of performance as are the other achievement-related motives (Atkinson, 1964:247). The final conceptual formula is, therefore,

\[ \text{Net Achievement Behavior (NAB)} = \text{Resultant Tendency (Tr)} + \text{Extrinsic Motivation (EM)} \]

To briefly summarize achievement theory, it is observed that an individual possesses two personality dispositions which act simultaneously to reflect individual differences in motivation toward achievement situations. The first disposition is the motivation to achieve success (MAS) and the second disposition is the motivation to avoid failure (MAF). These two personality factors interact multiplicatively with situational variables such as the perceived probability of success/failure (Ps/Pf) and the Incentive value attached to success/failure (Is/If). The difference between the tendency to approach an achievement-oriented task (Ts) and the tendency to avoid an achievement-oriented task (Tf) is the resultant achievement motivation (Tr). In addition to these intrinsic factors, extrinsic factors (EM) also may enhance an individual's tendency to engage in achievement activities, particularly when the resultant achievement-oriented tendency is negative (Atkinson & Feather, 1966:328). Net achievement behavior (NAB) is represented by the sum of Tr + EM.

Implications for Sport

When applying achievement motivation theory to athletic competition, it is important to recognize that competition is a very complex social process which has stymied researchers for years (Scanlan, 1977:66). Affiliation needs, power or dominance needs,
financial interests, and social pressures are other motives impinging upon achievement needs (Willis & Bethe, 1970:19). This recognition notwithstanding, it is evident that a positive relationship exists between achievement motivation and athletic competition. Indeed, McClelland has stated:

People with a high n achievement show much inner concern with...striving for excellence or [to] surpass some standard of excellence. Shouldn't they then be interested in competitive games where they will have a chance to achieve...standards of excellence? (cited in Willis & Bethe, 1970:20)

In this context, Ryan and Lakie in a study involving a ring-peg task obtained results which suggested that competition is essential in order to obtain performance differences between individuals differing in achievement motivation (cited in Carron, 1980:97).

Consistent with this relationship between competition and achievement motivation have been recent trends in psychological assessment which emphasizes testing measures specifically designed for athletes rather than borrowing psychological testing instruments that have long been applied to the general population (Cratty, 1983:43). Emphasizing the social process aspect of competition, Scanlan (1977) noted that the "social aspects of the process helps to delineate competition from the more general achievement domain" and that "different motives are activated in a social achievement setting than in a nonsocial achievement setting" (Scanlan, 1977:70). In addition to addressing social needs, sport-specific measures would focus upon achievement motives which may be aroused by very specific situations, such as sports competition.
In meeting the need for reliable and valid psychological scales that assess achievement motivation, and being situationally specific to competitive sport, new and seemingly more viable approaches to competition have recently been developed. Measures such as the Willis Sport Inventory and related questions, while needing elaboration and refinement, provide a sound starting point for competition research (Scanlan, 1977:74).

Population and Sample Procedure

The population surveyed consisted of domestic and foreign track and field athletes who are on athletic scholarships at selected NCAA Division I universities. These universities were chosen as a result of a significant number of foreign athletes on the respective university track and field teams. These universities also approximated a broad geographic cross-section of the United States. The universities included Washington State University, University of Oregon, Brigham Young University, Southern Methodist University, University of Texas at El Paso, University of Texas (Austin), University of Nebraska, University of Wyoming, Iowa State University, Villanova University, University of Missouri, Boston University, University of Arkansas, and University of New Mexico.

The sample was comprised of two categories of grant-in-aid track and field athletes on U.S. university teams: American and foreign. The foreign athletes were from Canada, Great Britain, Ireland, Australia/New Zealand, Scandinavia/Finland, the Caribbean, and Africa.
Sampling Matrix

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<th>U.S.</th>
<th>Foreign</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42</td>
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The initial mailing, sent at the beginning of March 1994, included a covering letter of intent addressed to the coach (Appendix A), as well as a covering letter to the athletes (Appendix A), and the combined survey instrument and related questionnaire (Appendix B). A self-addressed stamped envelope was also included. This was followed two weeks later with phone interviews and verbal reminders to the coaches. A second mailing consisting of reminders to the coaches and to the athletes (Appendix A) and extra questionnaires was sent at the beginning of April.

Methods of Analysis

The basic statistical tools utilized in this study were one-way analysis of variance using the F statistic (ANOVA), and chi square. The major application of the F statistic and chi square in this study was to test whether significant differences in competitive motives exist between American and foreign track and field athletes.

Mathematical Model for ANOVA

\[ Y_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + \varepsilon_{ij} \]

where, \( \mu \) is an unknown constant;
\( \alpha_i \) is a differential effect due to culture; and
\( \varepsilon_{ij} \) is the measurement error and other contaminants in the data.
Mathematical Model for Chi Square

\[ \chi^2 = \varepsilon \frac{(0 - E)^2}{E} \]

where, \( 0 \) is the observed frequency;

\( E \) is the expected frequency.

**Testing the Hypothesis**

It was hypothesized that the foreign track and field athlete is more highly motivated towards competition than the American track and field athlete. The following null hypotheses were advanced to test this hypothesis.

- **H₀₁:** There is no significant difference between American and foreign grant-in-aid track and field athletes as indicated by net achievement behavior (NAB).
- **H₀₂:** There is no significant difference between American and foreign grant-in-aid track and field athletes as indicated by the resultant tendency to achieve success (Tr).
- **H₀₃:** There is no significant difference between American and foreign grant-in-aid track and field athletes as indicated by the tendency to approach an achievement-oriented goal (Ts).
- **H₀₄:** There is no significant difference between American and foreign grant-in-aid track and field athletes as indicated by the tendency to avoid an achievement-oriented goal (Tf).
- **H₀₅:** There is no significant difference between American and foreign grant-in-aid track and field athletes as indicated by the motivation to approach success (MAS).
- **H₀₆:** There is no significant difference between American and foreign grant-in-aid track and field athletes as indicated by the motivation to avoid failure (MAF).
- **H₀₇:** There is no relationship between perceived probability of success (Ps) and whether respondents are American or foreign.
\( H_0^8 \): There is no relationship between perceived probability of failure (\( Pf \)) and whether respondents are American or foreign.

\( H_0^9 \): There is no relationship between incentive to succeed (\( Is \)) and whether respondents are American or foreign.

\( H_0^{10} \): There is no relationship between incentive to avoid failure (\( If \)) and whether respondents are American or foreign.

\( H_0^{11a} \): There is no relationship between an opportunity to gain athletic training and experience (\( EM \)) and whether respondents are American or foreign.

\( H_0^{11b} \): There is no relationship between an opportunity to gain an education (\( EM \)) and whether respondents are American or foreign.

\( H_0^{12} \): There is no relationship between previous national and/or international competitions and whether respondents are American or foreign.
CHAPTER 4
PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Data are reported in this chapter in two sections. The first presents information concerning demographic data. The second concerns the analysis of the research hypotheses, utilizing one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and chi square procedures.

Demographic Data

Tables 1, 2, and 3 present data on nationality, age, and year of competition of respondents.

The homogeneity of the respondents, demonstrated by the data, reduced any response bias due to nationality, age, and year of competition.

Testing of Research Hypotheses

This section deals with the treatment and analysis of the data obtained through one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and chi square procedures. Accordingly, ANOVA (F) is represented by

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$$

where

$\mu_1$ represents the population mean for Group 1

$\mu_2$ represents the population mean for Group 2

Group 1: American grant-in-aid track and field athletes ($n = 21$)

Group 2: Foreign grant-in-aid track and field athletes ($n = 42$);

and chi square ($\chi^2$) is represented by

$$H_0: \text{There is no relationship between the two attributes tested}.$$
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Number of Athletes</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canadian</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caribbean</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English/Irish</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finnish/Swedish/Norwegian</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other European</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australian/New Zealand</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Respondents by age and nationality.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>American N (%)</th>
<th>Foreign N (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23 or under</td>
<td>18 (85.7)</td>
<td>36 (85.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-25</td>
<td>3 (14.3)</td>
<td>5 (11.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-28</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 (2.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 or older</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Respondents' year of competition by nationality.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>American N (%)</th>
<th>Foreign N (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freshman</td>
<td>5 (23.8)</td>
<td>11 (26.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>5 (23.8)</td>
<td>13 (31.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>7 (33.3)</td>
<td>10 (23.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>4 (19.0)</td>
<td>4 (9.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth Year Senior</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4 (9.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Individual hypotheses were tested. Specifically, an ANOVA was performed for each of the six main dependent variables: net achievement behavior (NAB), resultant tendency to achieve success (Tr), tendency to approach an achievement-oriented goal (Ts), the tendency to avoid an achievement-oriented goal/or failure (Tf), motivation to achieve (MAS), and motivation to avoid failure (MAF). The .05 level of significance was selected as the rejection criterion. Tables 4 through 9 summarize the means and P values for the two groups on these variables. Figures 1 and 2 demonstrate any existing trends for these dependent variables.

The chi-square test was used to determine whether relationships existed for the six subscale dependent variables related to competitive motivation: probability of success (Ps), probability of failure (Pf), incentive for success (Is), incentive to avoid failure (If), extrinsic factors (EM), and previous national and/or international competition, and whether respondents were American or foreign. The null hypothesis was again employed, and .05 level of significance was selected as the rejection criterion. Contingency tables 10 through 15 summarize data for both groups on the subscale dimensions. Figures 3 through 8 demonstrate any existing trends for these dependent variables.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between American and foreign grant-in-aid track and field athletes as indicated by net achievement behavior (NAB).

As Table 4 shows, the analysis of variance indicated that there was no significant difference between the two group means; therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.
Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between American and foreign grant-in-aid track and field athletes as indicated by the resultant tendency to achieve success (Tr).

As Table 5 shows, the analysis of variance indicated that there was no significant difference between the two group means; therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Table 5. Analysis of variance for Hypothesis 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>Foreign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.308</td>
<td>41.045</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference between American and foreign grant-in-aid track and field athletes as indicated by tendency to approach an achievement-oriented goal (Ts).

As Table 6 shows, the analysis of variance indicated that there was no significance difference between the two groups. The null hypothesis was retained.

Table 6. Analysis of variance for Hypothesis 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>Foreign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59.100</td>
<td>54.388</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \mu_1 = \mu_2 \]
Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference between American and foreign grant-in-aid track and field athletes as indicated by the tendency to avoid an achievement-oriented goal/or failure (Tf).

As Table 7 shows, the analysis of variance indicated that there was significance difference between the two groups. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 7. Analysis of variance for Hypothesis 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>American</td>
<td>Foreign</td>
<td>(α = .05)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means</td>
<td>18.792</td>
<td>13.343</td>
<td>.0286 *</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P < .05

Figure 1. Comparison of mean values on NAB, Tr, Ts, and Tf.
Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference between American and foreign grant-in-aid track and field athletes as indicated by the motivation to achieve success (MAS).

As Table 8 shows, the analysis of variance indicated no significant difference between the two groups; therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. Figure 2 shows comparison of mean values.

Table 8. Analysis of variance for Hypothesis 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>American</th>
<th>Foreign</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Decision (α = .05)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Means</td>
<td>4.177</td>
<td>4.002</td>
<td>.1576</td>
<td>( \mu_1 = \mu_2 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Comparison of mean values on MAS and MAF.
Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference between American and foreign grant-in-aid track and field athletes as indicated by the motivation to avoid failure (MAF).

As Table 9 shows, the analysis of variance indicated no significant difference between the two groups; therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. Figure 2 shows comparison of mean values.

Table 9. Analysis of variance for Hypothesis 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>American</th>
<th>Foreign</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Decision (α = .05)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.485</td>
<td>3.227</td>
<td>.1869</td>
<td>μ₁ = μ₂</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis 7: There is no relationship between perceived probability of success (Ps) and whether respondents are American or foreign.

Hypothesis 8: There is no relationship between perceived probability of failure (Pf) and whether respondents are American or foreign.

Table 10 summarizes the responses to question 3: When competing, how often do you expect to place? Figure 3 shows any trend in responses.

The chi-square test and corresponding P value of .048 was significant (P < .05); hence, a relationship existed between the groups with respect to placing in competition. While 100 percent of the foreign athletes expected to place all of the time or some of the time, 14.3 percent of the American athletes rarely expected to place. Noting that Pf is a component of Tf, or Tf = MAF x Pf x If, it is apparent that the relatively high Pf on the part of the American athlete may have accounted for the significantly higher Tf by the American athlete over the foreign athlete.
Table 10. Comparison of responses to question 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>American</th>
<th>Foreign</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N (%)</td>
<td>N (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All of the time</td>
<td>14 66.7</td>
<td>30 75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS</td>
<td>4 19.0</td>
<td>10 25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>3 14.3</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PF</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21 100.0</td>
<td>40 100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. Comparison of responses to question 3.

Hypothesis 9: There is no relationship between incentive to succeed (Is) and whether respondents are American or foreign.

Table 11 summarizes responses to question 4: If you perform well, i.e., according to expectations, how much personal satisfaction, pride, or pleasure do you feel?
Table 11. Comparison of responses to question 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>American</th>
<th></th>
<th>Foreign</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>(%)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>(%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A lot</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>90.5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>67.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A little</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not too much</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None at all</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The chi-square test and corresponding P value of .122 was not significant (P > .05); hence, no relationship existed between the groups with respect to the rewards, incentives, and perceived satisfaction associated with a successful outcome. As Figure 4 shows, no trend existed in responses.

Figure 4. Comparison of responses to question 4.
Hypothesis 10. There is no relationship between incentive to failure (If) and whether respondents are American or foreign.

Table 12 summarizes responses to question 5. If you do not perform well, i.e., according to expectations, how much shame, embarrassment, or displeasure do you feel? The chi-square test and corresponding P value of .340 was not significant ($P > .05$); hence, no relationship existed between the groups. As Figure 5 shows, no trend existed in responses.

Table 12. Comparison of responses to question 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>American</th>
<th>American (%)</th>
<th>Foreign</th>
<th>Foreign (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A lot</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>61.9</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A little</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not too much</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None at all</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5. Comparison of responses to question 5.
Hypothesis 11a: There is no relationship between an opportunity to gain athletic training and experience (EM) and whether respondents are American or foreign.

Table 13 summarizes responses to question 2a: How important is your athletic scholarship to you in respect to the opportunity to gain athletic training and experience?

Table 13. Comparison of responses to question 2a.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>American N</th>
<th></th>
<th>(%)</th>
<th>Foreign N</th>
<th></th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td>61.9</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td>73.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat important</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not too important</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all important</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The chi-square test and corresponding P value of .510 was not significant (P > .05); hence, no relationship existed between the groups with respect to the opportunity of athletic training and experience. As Figure 6 shows, there was no trend in responses.

Hypothesis 11b: There is no relationship between an opportunity to gain an education (EM) and whether respondents are American or foreign.

Table 14 summarizes responses to question 2b: How important is your athletic scholarship to you in respect to the opportunity to gain an education?
The chi-square test and corresponding P value of .104 was not significant ($P > .05$); hence, no relationship existed between the groups with respect to the opportunity to gain an education. As Figure 7 shows, there was no trend in responses.
RESPONSES

Figure 7. Comparison of responses to question 2b.

Hypothesis 12: There is no relationship between previous national and/or international competitions and whether respondents are American or foreign.

Table 15 summarizes responses to question 6: Have you ever competed in any national or international competitions?

Table 15. Comparison of responses to question 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>American</th>
<th>Foreign</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N (%)</td>
<td>N (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>9 42.9</td>
<td>9 22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12 57.1</td>
<td>31 77.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21 100.0</td>
<td>40 100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The chi-square test and corresponding P value of .174 was not significant ($P > .05$); hence, no relationship existed between the groups with respect to national or international competition. However, as Figure 8 shows, the foreign athletes had been exposed to more national and/or international competition than had the American athletes. The previous exposure to higher competition by the foreign athlete may account for the significantly higher $P_s$ for the foreign athlete and the higher $P_f$ by the American athlete.

![Figure 8. Comparison of responses to question 6.](image_url)
Summary and Discussion

In this chapter the construct of competitive motivation was examined by use of the Willis Sport Inventory and related questions. It was hypothesized that the foreign track and field athlete was not more motivated in competition than the American athlete. This central hypothesis was tested with reference to thirteen subordinate null hypotheses.

The following results were attained:

1. No significant difference for net achievement behavior (NAB) existed between the two groups.
2. No significant difference existed between the groups for the resultant tendency to achieve success (Tr).
3. No significant difference existed between the groups for the tendency to approach an achievement-oriented goal (Ts).
4. A significant difference existed for the tendency to avoid failure (Tf) with the American athletes scoring higher than the foreign athletes.
5. No significant difference existed between the groups for the personality variables, motivation to approach success (MAS) and motivation to avoid failure (MAF).
6. A relationship existed for situational or environmental factors, probability of success (Ps) and probability of failure (Pf), with the foreign athlete demonstrating a greater probability of success when competing and the American athlete expecting a greater probability of failure.
7. No relationship existed between the two groups for situational factors: the incentive to achieve success (Is) and the incentive to avoid failure (If).

8. No relationship existed between the two groups as indicated by extrinsic motivation (EM): (a) an opportunity to gain athletic training and experience and (b) an opportunity to gain an education.

9. No relationship existed between the two groups as indicated by exposure to national and/or international competition. A trend did exist, however, with the foreign athlete having a greater exposure to national and international competition.
CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study was to chronicle the increasing presence of the foreign athlete in NCAA Division I track and field, as well as assess the motives toward track and field competition of American and foreign athletes. It was noted that recruiting pipelines have emerged, with specific nationalities tending to enroll at certain schools. Many track programs have become prominent due to the successes of the foreign athletes. With these successes, has come much criticism. Critics have asserted that many of the foreign athletes have been older than their American counterparts and have been exposed to previous national and international competition. Accordingly, NCAA legislation aimed at curtailing the presence of the overage athlete has been enacted. However, while the successes of some foreign athletes have, in part, been due to their maturity, it is contended that these successes have partially been due to higher motivational levels on the part of the foreign athlete. To many of the foreign athletes, an athletic scholarship offers them the opportunity to compete as well as gain an education. Such an opportunity is not often available in their native countries.

In order to assess motivational factors affecting the performance of American and foreign field and track athletes, a motivation inventory and related questions were sent to schools having a relatively high percentage of foreign athletes on their teams. Results indicated that little difference existed in regards to any
personality factors related to competition. However, a significant difference existed in regards to probability of success or failure (Ps/Pf). The foreign track and field athletes indicated they went into competition feeling that they will achieve success all, or at least some, of the time; whereas the American athletes indicated they felt a lower probability of success. These differences accounted for a higher tendency on the part of the American athlete to avoid an achievement-oriented goal (Tf). It was also noted that the differences may, in part, be accounted for by the foreign athletes having a somewhat greater exposure to previous national and/or international competition.

It is concluded that studies such as this recognize the growing trend of sport towards internationalism. Such exposure to foreign-student athletes by American student-athletes will assist in increasing an international awareness on the part of the latter group. Exposure to the successful foreign athlete may also enhance the competitive performances of the American athlete, particularly in future international competitions, such as the World Cup or the Olympic Games. This may, in turn, assist the American athlete in developing an attitude, such as the foreign athlete, based on a higher probability of success, rather than on a probability of failure.

It is suggested that future trends in research focus on the following areas:

1. An increase in the development of theory as it relates to competition research (Scanlan, 1977:67).
2. The development of reliable and valid psychological scales that assess relevant personality dispositions, such as achievement motivation, and are situationally specific to the competitive sport setting (Scanlan, 1977:73).

3. Address the need on the part of the researcher to gain access to athletes. This, of course, includes co-operation on the part of coaches, who all too often see research as potential intrusions into their field by outsiders and view research projects as having little value from the practical standpoint of improving athletic performances (Edwards, 1971:8).

4. More cross-cultural, or comparative, studies are needed which examine to what degree achievement is situationally and culturally determined and which focuses on the group as well as the individual (Duda, 1980:122).

5. In addition to cross-cultural studies, there exists a need for studies to be done on several and varied sports in order to gain a more complete picture of the competitive process.

Implications

While significant differences were not found in all the factors concerning achievement motivation, implications can be drawn from the findings of this study. The following discussion includes considerations, interpretations, and ideas which are a result of the foregoing study.

1. Much of the review of literature represents a pioneering effort in comparative sport. It is evident that in order for this
area to grow, more first order, or historical-descriptive, studies are needed in the comparative area (Bennett, Howell, & Simri, 1975:30).

2. It is apparent that the subject of the foreign athlete is a contentious issue, but one which is needed to be addressed, particularly with the growing presence of the foreign athlete in basketball and tennis.

3. At the higher levels of competition, it is often psychological factors that determine success. Accordingly, much more attention needs to be paid to the development of valid and reliable psychological constructs.

4. Sport needs to be seen in a broad context incorporating physiological, social, cultural, and psychological factors. Future comparative studies must take a multi-faceted approach to the study of sport with more attention paid to both theoretical and methodological areas. Such frameworks will contribute to the development of much needed second order studies in the comparative area of sport (Bennett, Howell, & Simri, 1975:37)

AMDUR, N. Foreign athlete invasion. San Francisco Chronicle, 23 March 1977, pp. 54-55. (a)

AMDUR, N. Politics has created a painful obstacle course for African runners. New York Times, 29 May 1977, Sec. V, p. 8. (b)


Fuller, Jeff. Head Track Coach, University of Wyoming. Personal communication, March 16, 1984.

Gainey, L. Head Track Coach, University of Georgia. Personal communication.


Hassan, K. Personal communication, Nov. 3, 1983.


Hendershott, J. Where they are going. Track and Field News, 1955-1983. (Column)


Jordan, T. These are all-Americans. Track and Field News, May 1975, p. 56.


Pepin, Gary. Head Track Coach, University of Nebraska. Personal communication, March 14, 1984.


Appendix A

Letters Sent to Coaches and Athletes
Coach: 

As you are well aware, the successes of the foreign track and field athlete competing in U.S. colleges and universities have been a concern in many quarters. Much has been offered in explaining these successes, such as physical maturity or previous experience on the part of the foreign competitor. However, little has been suggested regarding the possibility that these successes may be due to high motivational factors on the part of the foreign athlete. The enclosed questionnaire is an attempt to determine this possibility. The questionnaire, accordingly, relates to such data as the athlete's educational goals, athletic goals and motives, competitive anxiety levels, and so on.

It would be greatly appreciated if you would distribute the enclosed envelopes, each containing a cover letter, questionnaire, and return envelope, to your male track and field grant-in-aid athletes (partial and full ride). Also of benefit would be to impress upon the athletes the importance of their responses, for only they can provide the necessary information needed for this study. Results of this study could greatly affect current or future legislation in this area.

The questionnaire is prepared so it can be easily returned. The athlete uses a self-addressed envelope which is enclosed. No stamp is required. We would appreciate receiving the completed questionnaires by March 16, 1984, in order to meet predetermined deadlines.

If you so desire, a summary of the results will be sent to you. If you have any questions, please call at me at (503) 754-2611, or Howard Stidwill at (503) 754-3221, 3222.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Chuck McNiel
Head Track Coach
Oregon State University

Howard Stidwill
Department of Physical Education
Oregon State University

Encls.
March 2, 1984

Dear Track and Field Athlete:

You are being asked to participate in a study regarding your feelings and attitudes towards track and field competition. It is emphasized that only you, the athlete, can provide the information necessary for our study. All information will be held strictly confidential. The results will be tabulated for the entire sample, not for any one athlete.

The questionnaire has been prepared so that it may be easily returned. Please use the self-addressed envelope enclosed. No stamp is required. We would appreciate receiving the completed questionnaire by March 16, 1984.

Your response is important. Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Redacted for Privacy

Howard Stidwill

Encls.
March 28, 1984

Dear Coach:

Thank you for the time you gave during our recent phone conversation regarding the foreign athlete. The information you gave me was very helpful and will prove most valuable in my research.

If it is not too inconvenient, would you mind distributing the enclosed reminders to your scholarship athletes regarding the survey. Although totally voluntary, their responses would add much in quantitatively determining the motivational levels of the domestic and foreign athlete in relation to one another.

I have also enclosed extra questionnaires for those athletes who may have misplaced theirs.

With an adequate response rate, I will be able to send you a summary of results both on a nationwide scale and for your particular school.

Again, thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Redacted for Privacy

Howard Stidwill
Department of Physical Education
Langton Hall
Oregon State University
Corvallis, Oregon 97331
(503) 754-3221, 3222

Encs.
Dear Athlete:

I would like to thank you for taking the time to fill out the track and field survey you recently received. Your responses have been very helpful.

If you have been unable to do so, would you please take a few minutes to complete and return the questionnaire in the self-addressed envelope you received. The information only you can give will be most beneficial in assessing the competitive attitudes of track and field athletes.

Thank you once again for your time.

Sincerely,

[Redacted for Privacy]

Howard Stidwill
Track and Field Athletic Survey
Department of Physical Education
Langston Hall
Oregon State University
Corvallis, OR 97331

P.S. Your coach has additional copies of the survey in case you have misplaced yours.
Appendix B

INSTRUMENT AND QUESTIONNAIRE
TRACK AND FIELD ATHLETES SURVEY

1. Please list your major events in order of priority

   ________________________________
   ________________________________
   ________________________________

2. How important are each of the following aspects of your athletic scholarship to you? (Please circle one number)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VERY IMPORTANT</th>
<th>IMPORTANT</th>
<th>NOT TOO IMPORTANT</th>
<th>NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. An opportunity to gain athletic training and experience</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. An opportunity to gain an education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. When competing, how often do you generally expect to place? (Please circle one number.)

   1 ALL OF THE TIME
   2 SOME OF THE TIME
   3 RARELY
   4 NEVER

4. If your perform well, i.e., according to expectations, how much personal satisfaction, pride, or pleasure do you feel? (Please circle one number)

   1 A LOT
   2 A LITTLE
   3 NOT TOO MUCH
   4 NONE AT ALL

5. If you do not perform well, i.e., according to expectations, how much shame, embarrassment, or displeasure do you feel? (Please circle one number)

   1 A LOT
   2 A LITTLE
   3 NOT TOO MUCH
   4 NONE AT ALL

6. Have you ever competed in any national or international competitions?

   1 NO
   2 YES

   6a. What competitions? For example, Olympic Games, Pan-American Games, British Commonwealth Games, African Games, European Championships? Please list.

   ________________________________

   PLEASE TURN PAGE
7. How many years have you competed in your major events?

8. The following statements are designed to assess your reactions to situations which often arise in the sports setting. Please indicate how strongly your agree or disagree with each statement by circling one number for each statement. There are no right or wrong answers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>STRONGLY AGREE</th>
<th>NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE</th>
<th>DISAGREE</th>
<th>STRONGLY DISAGREE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Before a meet, I don't worry about what is going to happen</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. The night before a meet, I don't find it difficult to sleep</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Recognition from the coach makes a hard practice seem worthwhile</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. It is hard work rather than luck that leads to success</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. I often take a loss harder than I should</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Winning a meet gives me a great deal of satisfaction</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. I would be willing to work all year round in order to be a success in my sport</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. I am nervous and fidgety right before a meet</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. I enjoy thinking about my past successes in track and field</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. I seem to play better when spectators are present</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. I admire athletes who are willing to put in extra practice to improve their skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l. I work hard at my sport in the hope of gaining recognition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m. After losing a meet, I find it difficult to sleep</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n. Sometimes when I lose, it bothers me for several days</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(GO ON TO NEXT PAGE)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>o. Having a good performance gives me a thrill</th>
<th>STRONGLY AGREE</th>
<th>AGREE</th>
<th>NEITHER</th>
<th>AGREE NOR DISAGREE</th>
<th>DISAGREE</th>
<th>STRONGLY DISAGREE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p. I usually feel butterflies in my stomach just before a meet</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q. My goal is to become outstanding in track and field</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r. I get excited just talking to someone about a meet</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s. I try very hard to be the best</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t. During a meet if I blow my event it take a while for me to shake it off</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u. I like to forget my sport in the off season</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v. I enjoy having people see me perform</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w. When I compete I get so caught up in the competition that I temporarily lose contact with reality</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x. I enjoy any assignment which others find difficult</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>y. Being a good track and field athlete is not important to me</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z. When I make a mistake, it bothers me the rest of the meet</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aa. I have a very strong desire to be successful in track and field</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bb. It is hard for me to stay calm before a meet</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. What degree are you working towards? For example, Bachelor of Arts, Engineering, Agriculture, and so on.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DEGREE (B.S., M.S., ETC.)</th>
<th>MAJOR FIELD</th>
<th>UNDECIDED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

(Please turn page)
10. How likely is it you will attend graduate school? (Please circle one)
   1  VERY LIKELY
   2  SOMEWHAT LIKELY
   3  NOT TOO LIKELY
   4  NOT AT ALL LIKELY

11. In what age group are you? (Please circle one number)
   1  23 or under
   2  24 - 25
   3  26 - 28
   4  29 or older

12. What year are you in competition? (Please circle one number)
   1  FRESHMAN
   2  SOPHOMORE
   3  JUNIOR
   4  SENIOR
   5  FIFTH YEAR SENIOR

13. How old were you when your graduated from your last education institution?

   AGE

14. What is your nationality?

   NATIONALITY

15. How many languages altogether do you speak?

   NUMBER

16. Is there anything else you'd like to say about your track and field experiences?

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. WOULD YOU KINDLY PLACE IT IN THE STAMPED ENVELOPE AND RETURN.