THE IMPACT OF ACCULTURATION ON SPORT MOTIVATION AMONG MEXICAN-AMERICAN ADOLESCENT ATHLETES

TODD A. RYSKA

University of Texas at San Antonio

Although sport psychology research has revealed differences in motivational orientation among athletes from various ethnic groups (Duda, 1985, 1986a; Whitehead, 1986), no work has addressed the impact of within-group variation in acculturation on motivational goal perspectives. Multiple regression analyses were conducted on data generated from young Mexican-American male \( (n = 83) \) and female \( (n = 80) \) athletes. Among males, the acculturation dimensions of media use \( (\beta = .265, p < .001) \) and ethnic social relations \( (\beta = .188, p < .001) \) significantly predicted a task goal perspective, explaining 32% of the variance, whereas increased ego involvement among female athletes was significantly predicted by language use \( (\beta = .336, p < .01) \) and ethnic social relations \( (\beta = -.259, p < .05) \), accounting for 29% of the variance. Both statistical and theoretical explanations are offered for the observed gender differences. These preliminary results suggest that acculturation differentially impacts how Mexican-American male and female athletes derive their perceptions of competence within the competitive sport setting.

The topic of achievement motivation in youth sport has received considerable research attention within the fields of personality and social psychology. Social cognitive theorists propose that achievement-related behavior largely reflects the personal competence goals or motivational orientation adopted by the individual (Ames, 1984; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Nicholl's (1984, 1989) goal perspective theory has been widely used as the foundation for studies investigating the development of particular motivational orientations in youth sport. Nicholls (1989) states that two orthogonal goal perspectives, task and ego involvement, reflect the specific manner in which a sport participant construes personal success and failure within the achievement setting. Early studies have found that task-oriented children characteristically define personal competence in terms of self-referenced standards of performance such as task mastery, fulfillment of one's potential, and skill improvement.

Correspondence may be directed to Todd A. Ryska, University of Texas at San Antonio, College of Education, San Antonio, TX 78249. (E-mail: tryska@utsa.edu).
Ego-oriented children, however, judge personal competence on the basis of other-referenced standards such as outperforming opponents and demonstrating superior ability (Jagacinski & Nicholls, 1987; Nicholls, 1989). Therefore, children typically tend to focus on the tasks of maximizing effort, learning new skills, and improving upon previous performance, or they strive to demonstrate their ability in a socially comparative manner.

Individual differences in motivational orientation have been shown to impact a variety of attitudes and behaviors within the sport setting including achievement attributions (Duda & Chi, 1989; Hall, 1990), skill performance (Duda, Chi, & Newton, 1990; Vealey & Campbell, 1988), task persistence (Duda, 1989; Roberts, 1984), perceived competence (Burton, 1989; Newsham, 1989), and sportspersonship (Duda, Olson, & Templin, 1991; Ryska, 1999a, 1999b).

However, little work has attempted to identify cultural factors which may impact the development of particular motivational goals among young athletes. In fact, achievement motivation theorists have recently called for a more developmental and culturally sensitive approach to the study of sport motivation among children and adolescents (Duda, 1987, 1992; Duda & Allison, 1989; 1990; Weiss & Bredemeier, 1983).

The manner in which subjective goals and causal perceptions are formed among youth may differ as a function of the individual's cultural perspective. Maehr and Nicholls (1980) state that an individual's adoption of a particular motivation orientation is, in large part, determined by the perceived cultural context. Cultural identity appears to represent an important determinant of goal perspectives in as much as cultural groups are seen to differ in how they derive feelings of personal competence within the competitive setting (Ouda, 1986a). Allison and Duda (1982) contend that the Navajo culture harbors considerably different perspectives concerning time, competition, and the individual-peer group relationship from those of mainstream society. As these factors are relevant to achievement goal theory, they tend to influence the development of particular motivational goals among youth sport participants within that ethnic group. Markus and Kitayama (1991) add that individuals with an Eastern cultural perspective adopt a largely task-oriented approach within the achievement setting, exemplified by affiliating with others, emphasizing in-group harmony, and striving for social acceptance. An outcome-based approach is more likely to be utilized by individuals with a Western cultural perspective who strive to demonstrate high personal ability and individuality. Hayashi and Weiss (1994) found that Anglo-American marathon runners emphasized striving for success within the challenges of their sport, whereas Japanese runners were motivated to demonstrate superiority over others within interpersonal competition. Hayashi (1996) also found cultural differences in the goal/rewards structures adopted among Anglo-American and Hawaiian weight training participants.

Motivation research that has specifically targeted Mexican-American
individuals has shown a consistent discrepancy between the goal perspectives of this cultural group and those of mainstream Anglo society (Carter, 1982; Maehr & Nicholls, 1980; Ramirez & Castaneda, 1974). It has been proposed that several core values held by Mexican-Americans as a cultural group appear to contradict the greater societal view of achievement behavior. These values are considered significant contributors to the observed differences in achievement goal perspectives between Mexican-American adolescents and other cultural groups (Kagan, 1977; Stoddard, 1973). First, the Mexican-American culture appears to place a greater emphasis on satisfying collective needs and interests (i.e., community, group) than on attending to those of the individual (Knight, Bernal, Cota, Garza, & Ocampo, 1993; Phinney, 1995; Ramirez & Castaneda, 1974). This focus on the group is largely opposed to the popular conception of achievement motivation that stresses individualism and personal accomplishment (Duda, 1993; Nicholls, 1989). There also appears to be a tendency within the Mexican-American culture to foster cooperation and mutual dependence within the context of interpersonal relations. Kagan (1977) states that on the basis of their cultural socialization experiences, Mexican-American children are more likely to act upon cooperative motives to complete tasks within interpersonal situations than are children of other cultural groups. This cooperative social motive runs contrary to the importance of competitive outcomes and social comparison that pervades the structure of the American school and youth sport systems (Duda, 1996; Maehr & Nicholls, 1980). The Mexican-American culture is also more likely to focus on the importance of current experience rather than the outcome of future actions (Bernal, Saenz, & Knight, 1995; Ramirez & Castaneda, 1974). This value again appears to contrast with the focus on long-term goals and future performance that is emphasized within mainstream achievement settings.

Duda (1980, 1985, 1986b) and her colleagues (Allison & Duda, 1982; Duda & Allison, 1982, 1989) provide empirical evidence that these cultural differences in achievement values are reflected in the sport and academic motivational orientations of Mexican-American adolescents. Their research suggests that Anglo students are more likely to construe personal success on the basis of competitive or outcome-based criteria as compared to Navajo, Mexican-American, and African-American students who place more emphasis on self-based criteria of personal improvement and effort when defining personal success. In addition, one's capacity to help the group or team was used as a criterion of personal success among Navajo and Mexican-American students more often than among Anglo students (Duda, 1980; Duda & Allison, 1982). Similarly, Anglo male athletes were more likely to attribute athletic success to ability and failure to a lack of effort than their Mexican-American and Navajo counterparts, who typically emphasized their effort in success and their lack of ability in failure.

Although it is quite apparent that between-group variation in
motivational orientation among children exists on the basis of ethnic identity, the basic methodological approach used in these studies limits our insight into the process of goal perspective development within a particular cultural context. These studies illustrate the fact that cultural identity has typically been considered a discrete phenomenon, used as a categorical variable in describing differences in goal perspectives among young students and athletes. During a study of the role of cultural identity on achievement motivation, it is important to acknowledge that cultural group members vary widely in their adherence to cultural norms, values, and beliefs (Knight et al., 1993; Maehr & Nicholls, 1980). The results of these group comparisons provide little information regarding the type and level of goal perspectives that distinguish the individual members of a particular cultural group.

The phenomenon of acculturation addresses the manner in which the traditional values, attitudes, and behaviors of an individual have been reinforced or modified as a result of exposure to those same aspects of a new cultural context. Observed individual differences within a particular cultural group would be expected in various psychological factors (e.g., personality, identity, cognitive styles, attitudes) as a function of acculturation level (Berry, 1980; Marin, 1993; Rotherman & Phinney, 1987). Evidence relevant to the present study has revealed a significant positive relationship between family acculturation and various indices of family member functioning (Kaye, 1985; Rueschenberg & Buriel, 1995).

As acculturation levels increase among Mexican American families, their members tend to (a) perceive settings outside the family in a more competitive or achievement-oriented manner, (b) exhibit more independent, assertive, and self-sufficient attitudes, and (c) participate more frequently in recreational and sporting activities. An additional outgrowth of this research indicates that important traditional values are more likely to be retained by an individual regardless of his or her acculturative level, whereas less central values or attitudes are more susceptible to alteration (Marin, 1993).

As these results may improve our understanding of motivation within the multicultural youth sport context, we sought to determine the manner in which acculturative levels impact the motivational goal perspectives adopted by Mexican-American athletes. The above mentioned research provides a sufficient basis upon which to forward two basic predictions. We expected that the acculturative indices of language use, media use, and social relations would emerge as significant positive predictors of ego-involved motivational goals among these Mexican-American athletes, whereas no significant relationship was expected between acculturation and the adoption of task-involved goals.

Method

Participants and Procedure
The present sample was comprised of male \( (n = 83) \) and female \( (n = \)
80) Mexican-American public school students in a large southwest metropolitan area. All participants were active members on an interscholastic sport team at either the junior high or high school level. All teams were comprised of athletes from various ethnic backgrounds, represented by an average of 48% Anglo-American, 39% Mexican-American, 8% African-American, and 5% Asian-American. Participants ranged in age from 14 to 17 years ($M = 15.57$, $SD = .89$) and had an average of 2.97 ($SD = 1.32$) and 2.14 ($SD = 1.01$) years of competitive sport experience in extracurricular leagues and school-based programs, respectively. A variety of sports were represented in the sample including soccer ($n = 45, 27.6\%$), basketball ($n = 37, 22.6\%$), track/cross country ($n = 25, 15.3\%$), baseball ($n = 24, 14.7\%$), football ($n = 17, 10.4\%$), and volleyball ($n = 15, 9.2\%$). The academic grades represented by the present sample of students were as follows: 7th ($n = 32, 19.6\%$), 8th ($n = 25, 15.3\%$), 9th ($n = 42, 25.7\%$), 10th ($n = 38, 23.3\%$), and 11th ($n = 26, 15.9\%$).

School administrators were briefed on the purpose of the study and approval of the research design was secured from each participating school district. All participants received standardized instructions regarding the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses as well as their ability to terminate participation in the study at any time. Participants completed the questionnaire in a controlled classroom setting. The purpose of the study was fully disclosed at the conclusion of testing.

**Measures**

The questionnaire battery consisted of three parts: (a) motivational orientation in sport, (b) ethnic acculturation into mainstream society, and (c) demographic items regarding gender, age, academic grade, sport type, and competitive sport experience.

**Motivational orientation.** The Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) (Duda & Nicholls, 1989) was used to assess individual differences in the tendency to identify with ego and task goals within the competitive sport setting. Athletes were asked to think of when they feel most successful in their respective sport and then respond to seven task-related items (e.g., "when something I learn makes me want to go and practice more") and six ego-related items (e.g., "when others can't do as well as me"). Items are scored along a 5-point scale anchored by 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Both the adequate reliability and validity of the TEOSQ have been established among adolescent respondents within a variety of sport and physical activity settings (Duda, 1992; Duda & Nicholls, 1989; White, Duda, & Sullivan, 1991; Williams, 1994). Reliability estimates for the task and ego subscales for the present sample of athletes were .86 and .89, respectively.

**Acculturation.** The Acculturation Scale for Hispanics (ASH) (Marin, Sabogal, Marin, Otero-Sabogal, & Perez-Stable, 1987) was used to measure the degree to which a Mexican-American individual is exposed to mainstream cultural patterns. Such exposure is expected to modify the values, norms, and behaviors of the individual. The ASH consists of 12...
items which represent three proposed dimensions of the acculturative process: Language Use (5 items), Media Use (3 items), and Ethnic Social Relations (4 items). Responses are scored along a 5-point scale anchored by 1 (only Spanish) to 5 (only English), or 1 (all Latinos/Hispanics) to 5 (all Whites/Anglos), where appropriate. The internal consistency and criterion validity of the ASH subscales have been substantiated (Garza, Newcomb, & Meyers, 1995; Marin et al., 1987). Among the present sample of Mexican-American adolescent athletes, adequate reliability estimates were generated for the total scale ($r = .89$), Language Use ($r = .82$), Media Use ($r = .74$), and Ethnic Social Relations ($r = .73$).

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Cross-cultural studies in goal achievement theory have assumed that the operationalization of task and ego goal constructs remains consistent across various cultural groups and that these constructs are reliably measured by the TEOSQ. The hypothesized factor structure of the TEOSQ was validated through a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), providing support for the current use of the scale.\(^1\)

The means and standard deviations of the subscale scores for both male and female athletes are presented in Table 1. Separate analyses for males and females were warranted based on the observed gender differences in the acculturation and goal perspective variables. Mexican-American male athletes made more use of acculturated mass media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Male ((n=83))</th>
<th>Female ((n=80))</th>
<th>(t)</th>
<th>(p)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASH</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Language Use</td>
<td>4.31 (SD= .73)</td>
<td>4.26 (SD= .59)</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Use</td>
<td>4.47 (SD= .69)</td>
<td>4.17 (SD= .58)</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Social Relations</td>
<td>2.94 (SD= .58)</td>
<td>2.33 (SD= .58)</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEOSQ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Task Orientation</td>
<td>4.12 (SD= .45)</td>
<td>4.18 (SD= .51)</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ego Orientation</td>
<td>3.37 (SD= .70)</td>
<td>2.89 (SD= .81)</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>.0007</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\)A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) evaluated the adequacy of the two-factor solution in explaining the observed covariance matrix of the motivational orientation data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Factor loadings of .40 and above were extracted and factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 were retained (Kline, 1998). According to the standard set forth by McDonald and Marsh (1990), goodness-of-fit for the first order factor structure of the TEOSQ was reasonable (relative noncentrality index = .937), rendering two factors which explained 55.2% of the total item variance. Alpha coefficients associated with both subscales met the reliability standard \((r \geq .70)\) established by Kline (1998), thus were retained for further analyses.
sources and were more acculturated in their social contacts \((p < .01)\) than their female counterparts. In addition, the male athletes were more ego oriented than female athletes in their sport participation \((p < .001)\).

Two procedures were employed to test for the presence of multicollinearity among the study variables. First, the bivariate correlations listed in Table 2 were compared to the criterion level \((r \geq .70)\) set forth by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996), indicating that none of the correlations exceeded this level. Second, the variance inflation factors (VIF) were evaluated among the predictor variables with factor values in excess of 10 indicating that multicollinearity may be affecting the least squares estimates (Neter, Wasserman, & Kutner, 1990). The highest VIF values calculated during the present regression analyses were 3.2 for males and 2.1 for females. These results cast doubt on the presence of significant multicollinearity among the predictor variables in both samples.

Table 2 reveals a relatively low correlation between the criterion measures of task and ego goal orientation for both males \((r = -.124)\) and females \((r = .088)\). Likewise, low to moderate relationships were evidenced among the predictor variables of language use, media use, and ethnic social relations for the males \((rs = .352-.478)\) and females \((rs = .266-.412)\). These intercorrelations also indicate that highly task-involved male athletes reported increased acculturation in terms of media use and ethnic social relations, whereas highly ego-oriented males reported lower levels of language use acculturation. Conversely, female athletes high in ego involvement reported greater acculturation in regards to language use and ethnic social relations, whereas greater language use and ethnic social relations dimensions of acculturation were demonstrated by ego-involved females.

**Multiple Regression Analyses**

Johnson (1998) suggests that the interpretability of the relationship between two sets of variables may be improved by evaluating the relationship present between factor scores of the variable sets through multiple regression. In order to assess the contribution of each
independent variable on the measures of sport motivation whose correlation was less than .30, our approach utilized separate multiple regression analyses on the task and ego orientation measures, respectively (Marascuilo & Levin, 1983). A series of separate simultaneous multiple regression analyses were conducted to assess the hypothesized relationship between the ASH subscales as predictor variables and the TEOSQ goal perspectives as criterion variables for both the male and female samples. In order to test for the presence of multicollinearity among the acculturation dimensions, Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated and examined according to the level (r ~ .70) set forth by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996). Adequate tolerance was observed among the variables with intercorrelations ranging from .27 to .48. Thus, all subscale scores were included in the regression analyses.

Among the male athletes, the acculturation dimensions of media use ($\beta = .265, p < .001$) and ethnic social relations ($\beta = .188, p < .001$) significantly predicted a task goal perspective in sport, $F(3, 80) = 15.04$, $p < .001$, adj $R^2 = .50$, and accounted for 32% of the explained variance. More highly acculturated males, in regards to their media use and interpersonal relationships, tended to be more task involved in their sport participation. None of the three indices of acculturation significantly predicted levels of ego orientation in sport among male athletes, $F(3, 80) = 0.98, p > .05$.

Increased ego involvement in sport among female athletes was significantly predicted, $F(3, 77) = 9.04, p < .001$, adj $R^2 = .265$, by language use ($\beta = .336, p < .01$) and ethnic social relations ($\beta = -.259, p < .05$), explaining 29% of the variance in this goal perspective. Females who were highly acculturated in terms of their exposure to mainstream media and the cross-cultural nature of their social relationships had a greater tendency to be ego involved in their sport participation. However, none of the acculturation measures were significant predictors of a task goal perspective among the female athletes, $F(3, 77) = 0.39, p > .05$.

Discussion

The present results suggest that the degree of acculturation evidenced among young Mexican-American athletes is significantly related to the sources of information they use to derive perceptions of personal competence within the competitive sport setting. The specific acculturative indices reported by these athletes is consistent with previous theory which emphasizes the role of language and ethnicity of friends in the development of self-identity and collectivist attitudes among Latino youth (Marin & Triandis, 1985).

As expected, females who exhibited greater acculturation through the ethnic composition of their social relationships and their language use reported higher levels of ego involvement in sport. Acculturation did not significantly predict levels of task involvement among the female athletes. Contrary to predictions, however, the results indicated that greater
acculturation was predictive of increased task involvement among male athletes, whereas acculturation did not appear to significantly impact the adoption of ego-involved goals. It is also worthwhile to note that the dimension of ethnic social relations was the only acculturative predictor of motivational orientation for both samples. This pervasive effect on adolescents' sport motivation makes sense given the documented role of normative peer behavior in the youth sport socialization process (Smith, 1997; Weiss, Smith, & Theeboom, 1996).

Given the limitations of the cross-sectional design, caution is warranted in drawing conclusions regarding the role of acculturation on goal perspectives as a function of athlete gender. A variety of alternate explanations become apparent when observing gender differences in the acculturation-motivation relationship among these athletes.

First, it is possible that the apparent gender differences actually represent a statistical artifact. Inspection of the data reveals a relatively restricted range of acculturation scores in both samples. Male athletes also scored significantly higher than females on the media use and ethnic social relations dimensions of acculturation which were significant predictors in the regression analyses. Taken together, these facts suggest that the female and male results may reflect the particular motivational orientations that are developed during the initial and advanced stages of the acculturation process, respectively. In other words, the development of an individual's task and ego goal perspectives may change as he or she acculturates.

The data also suggest a basically linear relationship between the motivational orientation and acculturation variables. However, this somewhat restricted range of motivational orientation scores may mask what is actually a curvilinear relationship between these variables. Greater variability in the motivation scores may reveal that initial increases in acculturation are associated with greater ego involvement to a point, after which, greater levels of acculturation have less of an influence on the development of an ego goal perspective. Similarly, task involvement might be unrelated to relatively low levels of acculturation, yet there may exist a threshold level of acculturation, after which, further increases in acculturation would be associated with increased task involvement. Thus, the observed gender differences may be a result of the restricted range of scores among the motivational orientation and acculturation variables. Acculturation theory provides indirect support for this contention. It has been observed that as an individual continues contact with societal change agents, the acculturative effect of this contact on one's values and attitudes may decrease or even reverse such that the individual's traditional values are reaffirmed at greater levels of acculturation (Berry, 1980; Marin, 1993; Padilla, 1980). This line of inquiry could be pursued through an alternate research design that directly assesses change in motivational goals throughout the course of the acculturative process.

The second explanation of the gender differences in motivational
orientation involves how sport participation is perceived by the Mexican-American culture as a whole. Social theorists studying the Latino culture have historically considered males' demonstration of interpersonal superiority, competitiveness, and aggression as *machismo* (Paz, 1962; Ramos, 1962). More recent accounts have updated the conceptualization of machismo to reflect the differences between cultural ideals of machismo and the manner in which Hispanic males actually respond within evaluative contexts (Baca-Zin, 1982; Mirande, 1988; Padilla, 1980). Machismo behaviors and attitudes are viewed as multidimensional in nature, underscoring the tendency for Hispanic men to express emotions and vulnerability within particular situations. However, a strong cultural component of machismo is still thought to compel the Hispanic male to prove himself superior to his male counterparts (Lancaster, 1992; Limon, 1994). Evidence suggests that the realm of competitive sport may provide an appropriate venue within which to demonstrate traditional machismo behaviors. In particular, Mexican-American male athletes and their supporters have been observed to contain their traditional machismo posturing within the athletic setting (Coakley, 1994; Klein, 1995).

The cultural basis of machismo may contribute to the acculturative effects on sport motivation as evidenced among Mexican-American male athletes. It is speculated that based on the notion of machismo, cultural prescriptions exist for Mexican-American adolescent males to approach competitive sport, at least initially, from an ego-based motivational perspective. As these male athletes acculturate into the mainstream, they may come to learn the personal and performance benefits of adopting a task orientation in sport. It may be the case that highly acculturated male athletes have acquired the ability to continue their demonstration of machismo posturing, yet derive their motivation in sport from self-referenced sources of competence information. The present results provide indirect evidence for this contention, indicating that advanced levels of acculturation significantly predicted task goal perspectives among male athletes. For Mexican-American females, however, competitive sport has not traditionally been used as a context to develop physical prowess and personal competence (Duda, 1985, 1986a). Cultural prescriptions may not be as clear for Mexican-American females as to the criteria they should use to develop perceptions of personal success within the competitive sport setting. As a consequence, initially task-involved females may become increasingly ego involved as a result of their exposure to the pervasive ego goal perspective of mainstream competitive youth sport. Alternately, the cultural prescription could be quite clear for the Mexican-American female athlete, perpetuating the notion that she can only be competitive and successful through the adoption of an ego-motivational orientation.

The third explanation of the impact of acculturation on the sport motivation of Mexican-American youngsters involves the behaviors of significant others within the sport socialization process. Pediatric sports research indicates that parental behaviors, coaching practices, and the
motivational climate among teammates play important roles in the development of athlete-motivational orientations (Chaumeton & Duda, 1988; Seifriz, Duda, & Chi, 1992; Weitzer, 1989). However, there is little evidence to suggest how these socializing agents impact sport motivation among children of varying levels of acculturation. For example, Mexican-American families tend to be patriarchal and exert considerable parental control over their children in comparison to Anglo-American families. Rotherman and Phinney (1987) state that Mexican-American parents utilize the family context to promote assumptions regarding social relationships which are reflected in the interpersonal behavior of their children. As the Mexican-American adolescent acculturates, however, the normative behaviors of his or her peer group become more influential than parental expectations (Deosaransingh, Moreno, Woodruff, Sallis, Vargas, & Elder, 1995; Ghali, 1982).

In summary, the cross-sectional data depict the motivational orientations and acculturation levels of young Mexican-American athletes and provide preliminary evidence regarding their relationship within the competitive sport context. Generally, these results indicate that greater acculturation is associated with higher levels of task involvement among male athletes, whereas higher ego involvement is reported by more acculturated female athletes. Although acculturation appeared to have little impact on the ego involvement of male athletes, the indices of media use and ethnic social relations explained 32% of the variance in task orientation among the males. The acculturative indices of language use and ethnic social relations accounted for 29% of the explained variance in ego involvement among the female athletes. The impact of acculturation on an individual's self-perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors is mediated by a variety of societal change agents (Marin, 1993). Pediatric sport research should investigate the manner in which acculturation and situational sport factors (e.g., motivational climate, coaching styles, athlete success and experience) interact to develop particular goal perspectives in young athletes.

References


