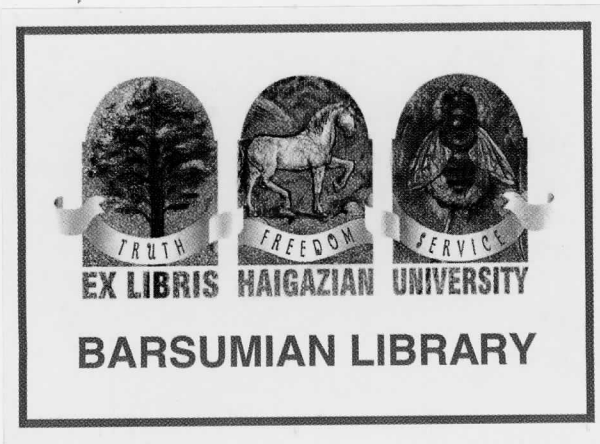


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Fear of Failure and Motivation on Behavior of Choice among High
School Students

Ani Arakelian

A Thesis submitted to the Faculty of Social & Behavioral Sciences in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Master of Arts degree in Psychology – Emphasis Clinical at Haigazian University

Beirut – Lebanon

June 17, 2011

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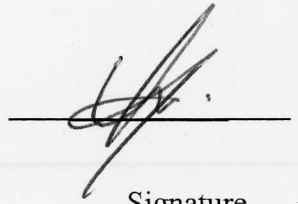
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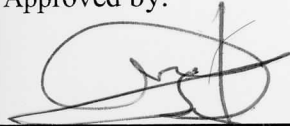
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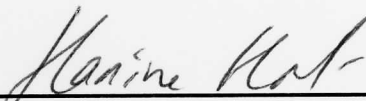
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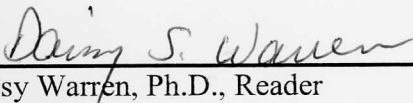
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Dr. Daisy Warren, Ph.D., Reader

DEDICATION

To my son, Kyle Anthony Merhaj

“Failure in our day often carries with it shame –

the shame not just of having experienced failure, but of *being* a failure.

And facing this feeling is one of the hardest things a human being can do” (p. 141)

John Ortberg

If You Want to Walk on Water You've Got to Get Out of the Boat

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DEDICATION

To my son, Kyle Anthony Merhej

You were the motivation I needed to overcome my fear of failing.

Each time I fell, it was YOU who made getting up possible.

Because of you...

I was able to challenge my fear and succeed!

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*I chose to thank the Lord, foremost, for the strength, patience, focus,
dedication, comfort and answered prayers.*

*Thank you for pouring out your love and patience, so that even on my worst of days,
with frustration, anxiety and little sleep, you made it possible for me to do the same to my family.*

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To my dear sister who invested her every afternoon and weekends, of the last month, in caring for my son, while I worked; for taking care of the laundry, while I worked; for doing the ironing, while I worked...(you get the picture!) I love you so much.

How do I say 'thank you' to the one who deserves it the most, my husband? You had to make the most sacrifices. I can't even begin to list them. You never gave up on me, no matter how tough things got. You had faith in me the whole time, even when I had none left. Saying 'thank you' is not enough. On that stage, on the day of my graduation, I will be thinking of how you made this possible and how I have my whole future to thank you for it.

G, you mean the world to me!

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ABSTRACT

This study attempted to examine a set of hypotheses relating fear of failure (FF) to motivation and their effect on choice of task difficulty level among high school students ($N = 115$). The Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory (PFAI), a rating scale on participants' inclination to take part in a visual IQ task, the completion of one visual IQ task and the Situational Motivation Scale (SIMS) were group administered. Results were computed using analysis of variance, correlation, regression and non parametric tests. Obtained data indicated that those who are intrinsically motivated were more inclined to take part in a novel task than those extrinsically motivated or amotivated. The findings also revealed that choosing to participate in a proposed visual IQ task depended on whether the school was English or French in orientation, and the higher the grade level, the less likely they were to participate. There was a further tendency for older participants to choose an easier level of the IQ task than the younger ones. Results were explained in terms of FF needing the proper context to operate effectively.

Fear of Failure and Motivation on the Behavior of Choice among High School Students

Fear of failure is all too common. Fear is in our human nature and failure is something that we have all experienced and don't like very much! We sometimes have such high fear of failure, that we choose to run away from the task at hand, or that fear of failure actually encourages and challenges us to complete and succeed at the task instead. One's fear of failure can either be energizing or paralyzing, but why? (Ortberg, 2001) If fear of failure cannot predict our behavior alone, then what is it that accompanies that fear?

The present study investigates the behavior of approach or avoidance in choosing to complete a task – a visual IQ test sample – and its relationship with fear of failure and motivation. The first chapter presents the background of the study, states the problem of the study, presents its significance and overview of the methodology used. The chapter concludes by defining specific terms used in the study, as well as stating the delimitations of the study.

Background of the Study

In Maslow's own words, "Every human being has *both* sets of forces within him. One set clings to safety and defensiveness out of fear, tending to regress backward, hanging on to the past...*afraid* to take chances, *afraid* to jeopardize what he already has, *afraid* of independence, freedom and separateness. The other set of forces impels him forward toward wholeness of Self and uniqueness of Self, toward full functioning of all his capacities, toward confidence in the face of the external world" (Maslow, 1968, p. 46). Keen (1999) stated that fear is part of the human condition, but that the "real question is not 'Are you afraid?', but what are you fearful of and what do you do with fear" (p. 41). Some examples of fear include fear of severe illness or injury, facing an aggressive animal, combat etc., while examples of selected fear that are of

psychological origins include phobias, chronic anxiety, fear of abandonment or isolation, wearing down of one's identity, loss of a job or relationship, shame and embarrassment, and fear of failure in the pursuit of major goals and life dreams (Goud, 2005).

Theorists have claimed individual differences in fear of failure since the groundbreaking work of Murray in 1938 (as cited by Elliot & Thrash, 2004) and McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1953). Everyone goes through the feeling of fear of failure at one point or another; however, differences may lie in the reasons behind one's fear; whether it's because one fears experiencing shame and embarrassment, devaluing one's self-estimate, losing social influence, having an uncertain future, or simply upsetting important others (Conroy, 2001), as well as in one's response to failure, such as, shame, fear, increased determination, denial, blaming others etc. (Ortberg, 2001). This fear of failure may be present in various aspects in one's life; in one's academic, career and even social life. We are all well aware of academic fear of failure. We have either been there ourselves, or have known or heard of someone who has. However, one's fear of failure doesn't stop there. On the contrary, it all depends on how we have handled our fears in the past – our response to it. Did we run away from it and avoid it, did we approach it and fail, or approach it and succeed? The decision one takes, the outcome because of that decision, and our reaction to the outcome all molds us into the person we are and will continue to mold with each decision we make; hence, affecting us outside the world of academics.

Research has shown that the most destructive thing one can do when faced with fear of failure is 'doing nothing'. Taken directly from John Ortberg's book on 'If You Want to Walk on Water, You've Got to Get Out of the Boat', "Psychologist David Burns writes about what he calls the cycle of lethargy: When I'm faced with a challenge and I do nothing, it leads to distorted thoughts – that I am helpless, hopeless, and beyond change. These in turn lead to

destructive emotions – loss of energy and motivation, damaged self-esteem, feeling overwhelmed. The end result is self-defeating behavior - procrastination, avoidance, and escapism. These behaviors then reinforce negative thoughts, and the whole cycle spirals downward” (p. 144). Nevertheless, failure can also be a great motivator. Some people’s experience of the negative emotions of failure encourages them to take an approach attitude which can only promote further learning (Ortberg, 2001), driving them to achieve and persist in the face of challenge and adversity (Martin & Marsh, 2003). Therefore, fear of failure alone cannot predict one’s orientation in behavior whether avoidance or approach.

One variable that may interpret fear as either a threatening experience, opening the way to the reasons behind the fear, or to a challenging one, opening the way to learning and mastery instead, is motivation. Motivation is referred to as the ‘why of behavior’ by Deci and Ryan (1985) and McClelland (1985). It is the force that drives a person to take part in activities (Brownlow & Reasinger, 2000). The type, as well as the degree, of motivation one has plays a crucial role to the direction of one’s behavior. The two types of motivation are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation has been defined in two ways. Some researchers credit intrinsic motivation to the task being interesting (Ryan & Deci, 2000b) while others refer to the satisfaction one gets from participating in an intrinsically motivated task (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is the performance of a task not because the task is considered interesting but because there is another external force (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b). The Self-Determination theory differentiates extrinsic motivation by comparing its relative autonomy; thus, the behavior that is least autonomous is referred to as *externally regulated*, performed for external rewards. A slightly more autonomous form is the *introjected regulation*, performed to act in accordance with internal pressures to

avoid feelings of guilt, shame or anxiety or to attain ego-enhancements. The third type of extrinsic motivation is *identified regulation*, performed willingly because one sees the activity as important. And the fourth, most autonomous, self-determined form of extrinsic motivation is the *integrated regulation*, performed when the identified regulations are in congruence with one's other values and is taken in as part of the self (Ryan & Deci, SDT, 2000a).

Statement of the Problem

Internal growth is what people search for, yet obstacles handicap this growth. When fear of failure overwhelms and prevents them from trying new tasks and opportunities, these results in negative outcomes of distorted thoughts about oneself and lowering one's self-esteem, and though one may want to succeed, one neither has the motivation, energy or expectation to succeed. These outcomes foster the lack of confidence in one's abilities and give more reason to avoid an opportunity to grow, whether personal or career oriented. The end result is self-defeating behavior of procrastination, avoidance, or simply learned helplessness. These behaviors now reinforce those same distorted thoughts, and you find yourself in a cycle that you don't know how to get out of. Thus, the interaction between one's 'Fear of Failure' (FF) and type of motivation hinder them from trying new tasks/activities; therefore, becoming an obstacle in their own development and growth, and stopping them from reaching their full potential.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between motivation and fear of failure and how it affects one's behavior in avoiding or approaching a new activity/task; whether it can help predict their behavior. This study also sought to investigate the effect of age

and gender on fear of failure and motivation, as well as the effect of fear of failure and motivation on the level of difficulty chosen for a given task among a sample of high school students in Beirut.

Hypotheses

Based on previous literature, the following hypotheses were tested for the purpose of this study, which is to examine the effects of fear of failure and motivation on behavior of choice:

- H1: Participants high on fear of failure will choose the activity with the easy or difficult level of difficulty more than the moderate level
- H2: Participants intrinsic in motivation will be most inclined to take part in the activity compared to those high in amotivation or extrinsic motivation
- H3: Participants intrinsic in motivation will chose the activity with the easy or moderate level of difficulty more than the difficult level
- H4: There will be an increasing negative correlation between fear of failure and the types of motivation along the Self-Determination continuum.
- H5: More male participants with high fear of failure would choose not to take part in an activity than women with high fear of failure.

Significance of the Study

The findings of this research will help individuals become better aware of the influence of FF and types of motivation on behavior. Only when the source of the reason behind an action is known, can one actually do something about it. Changing one aspect of the formula;

fear of failure + motivation (+ other variables) = approach/avoidance behavior, would result in a change in behavior. Individuals who base their decisions on fear are not content with their life circumstances; they do wish, for example, that they could have a higher position in their career but have such high fear that they don't even apply. However, these individuals are unaware that this fear is not a personality trait and can be changed. Being aware of the factors of fear of failure and the types of motivation one is more lingered towards, may help increase the quality of their life by revealing one's perceived control over their behavior.

Overview of the Methodology

The present research adopted the quantitative method of statistical analysis. The data were analyzed using analysis of variance, correlation, regression and non parametric tests. Data were tabulated and analyzed and conclusions were drawn based on the obtained results.

Definition of Terms

Amotivation: is the state of lacking the intention to act, which results from not valuing the activity, not feeling competent to do it, or not expecting it to bring about a desired outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000a).

Approach Motivation: is defined as the energization of behavior by, or the direction of behavior toward, positive stimuli – objects, events, possibilities (Elliot, 2006).

Avoidance Motivation: is defined as the energization of behavior by, or the direction of behavior away from, negative stimuli – objects, events, possibilities (Elliot, 2006).

Extrinsic Motivation: refers to “the performance of an activity in order to attain some separable outcome” (Ryan & Deci, 2000a)

Fear of Failure: is defined as the strong belief one has or the expectancy of aversive consequences when they perceive that they are failing (Conroy, 2001). It is a cognitive phenomenon (Martin & Marsh, 2003).

Failure Avoidance: is referred to as the behavioral counterpart of fear of failure (Martin & Marsh, 2003)

Goal: is a cognitive representation of a future object that one is committed to approach or avoid (as cited in Elliot, 2006).

Goal Orientation: describes variability in dispositional or situational goal preferences that an individual implicitly sets for him/herself in achievement situations. It assists in providing a motivational framework for how individuals perceive, interpret, and judge reaction to key events in their lives (Answers.com).

Intrinsic Motivation: is defined as the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to explore, learn, and broaden your capacity; thus, “is the prototypic manifestation of the human tendency toward learning and creativity” (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). This type of motivation refers to doing an activity for the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself.

Motivation: focuses on the “why of behavior” (Deci & Ryan, 1985; McClelland, 1985).

Brownlow and Reasinger (2000) define motivation as the force that drives one to engage in activities.

Self-Determination: is defined as the free choice of one’s own acts or states without external compulsion (Merriam-Webster’s online dictionary). It involves a true sense of feeling free in doing what you’ve chosen to (Guay et al., 2000).

Situational Motivation: refers to the motivation individuals experience when they are currently engaging in an activity (Guay et al., 2000). It refers to the here-and-now of motivation (Vallerand, 1997).

Delimitations

There were a couple of limitations to this study that may prevent it from being generalized. First of all, only situational motivation was assessed alongside one's fear of failure. It will be important to measure other variables, such as one's self-efficacy, which when taken into consideration, would provide a more accurate prediction of behavior. Self-efficacy is one's belief and perception of their overall competency and ability to perform across a variety of achievement situations (as cited by Chen, Gully & Eden, 2001). Secondly, though self-reported questionnaires are a valid and reliable means of collecting data, students may not have comprehended all the questions; one of the schools was a French educational system, though students do take courses in English language three to four times a week, while in the other, students in intermediate classes revealed a stronger basis in the English language than the secondary students (due to the system changing about 7 – 8 years ago; thus, students in lower classes benefited more and developed a stronger language skill). Thirdly, the Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory (PFAI) questionnaire consisted of 41 questions, while the Situational Motivation Scale (SIMS) consisted of 16. In addition to these questionnaires was the demographic and academic information page, as well as one question on approach/avoidance behavior and an activity to be completed. The booklet consisting of all these may have seemed too long for some students; thus, they may have tried answering quicker resulting to less accuracy and affecting the scores on these questionnaires.

Chapter Two

Review of Literature

Many research have been conducted on fear of failure (FF) and many others on motivation; both receiving vast attention over the years and still on the rise. Various articles have investigated the components and effects of FF and motivation on behavior as separate entities; independent of each other.

This chapter summarizes the theoretical issues behind FF and its effect on behavior, while the second part will shed a similar light, but on another variable, motivation. The next part will emphasize on the relationship of FF and motivation on behavior. And finally, the developmental origins and influence of the demographic variables of age and gender on FF and motivation will be in focus.

Fear of Failure

Fear of failure (FF) is a cognitive phenomenon (Martin & Marsh, 2003) to avoid failure due to one's sensitivity in experiencing shame and embarrassment (Atkinson, 1957; McClelland et al., 1953). It has been defined as a "dispositional avoidance-oriented achievement motive" (Wright, Pincus, Conroy & Elliot, 2009, p. 997). It is a competency based motive that seems to be rooted in childhood, specifically the child's relationship with his/her mother (McGregor & Elliot, 2005). Previous research has examined FF from the perspective of need achievement (Hancock & Teevan, 1964; Martin & Marsh, 2003). It originally began from the classic theory of need achievement, which has two types of motives; an approach motive, where one expects a reward, and an avoidance motive where the expectation is that of failure. The former aspect is referred to as 'hope of success', while the latter as 'fear of failure' (McClelland et al., 1953;

Atkinson, 1957). Other researchers used the later modifications adapted from Covington (1992), which is a two dimensional model that locates students as either optimists, overstrivers, self-protectors or failure accepters, based on the degree to which they are failure avoidant and success oriented (Covington, 1992; as cited in Martin & Marsh, 2003). Currently, a multidimensional construct (Martin, 1998; Martin, Marsh & Debus, 2001a; Martin & Marsh, 2003; Sagar & Stoeber, 2009) as evidenced in the Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory – PFAI, is being used by contemporary theorists (Conroy et. al., 2002).

Fear of failure is associated with various negative outcomes, such as high anxiety, underachievement, reduced resilience, perception of low control, unstable self-esteem, defensive pessimism, self-handicapping, learned helplessness (Martin & Marsh, 2003), setting avoidance achievement goals (Conroy & Elliot, 2004), generalized interpersonal distress and other negative physical and mental health outcomes (as cited in Wright et al., 2009). However, when an alternative orientation, in other words, success orientation, is examined alongside one's FF, it may produce different results in different individuals. As simply put by Martin and Marsh (2003), one's fear of failure may either be seen as a friend, "driving you to persist in the face of challenge and diversity" or as a foe, yielding all those negative outcomes mentioned.

Based on the quadripolar model of need achievement from Covington's work (2003; Martin & Marsh, 2003), individuals may be characterized into one of four typologies: An optimist who is one with high success orientation and low in failure avoidance, an overstriver who has both high success orientation and high in failure avoidance, a self-protector who has low success orientation and high in failure avoidance and lastly the failure accepters who have both low success orientation and low in failure avoidance. Therefore, the two groups that have high failure avoidance are the overstrivers and self-protectors. The overstrivers are described as those

who work to attain success rather than avoid failure. They however do avoid failure by succeeding. Because they have high FF, they also go through some of those unpleasant symptoms, such as anxiety, low self-esteem etc. (Martin & Marsh, 2003). Thus, with their journey to success being unpleasant, this may determine low intrinsic motivation for these overstrivers. When they do not succeed, their failure reassures them of their suspected incompetence and this in turn facilitates the probability of them falling into the more counter-productive form of failure avoidance, which is the self-protectors (Martin & Marsh, 2003).

The self-protectors want to avoid the implications of failure more than just the failure itself (Covington, 1992) by using specific strategies to protect their self-worth. Two of the most common form of strategies used is self-handicapping, which borders failure acceptance. This is where one places obstacles to protect oneself during failure, such as by lack of practice and effort placed and defensive pessimism, which is the more common form of self-protection with high failure avoidance and neither high nor low in success orientation. Defensive pessimism is where individuals place unrealistically low expectations prior to taking part in an evaluated task; thus, “reducing the likelihood that it will be judged as inadequate in a way that would call into question one’s self-worth” (Martin & Marsh, 2003).

Components of Fear of Failure

Fear of failure has been defined as a unidimensional (McClelland et. al. 1953; Atkinson 1957), two-dimensional (Covington, 1992) and more popular now as a multidimensional process (Martin 1998; Martin et al. 2001a; Conroy, 2002; Martin & Marsh, 2003; Sagar & Stoeber, 2009). In order to better understand FF, its components should not be disregarded. Atkinson and Feather (as cited in Neff, Hsieh & Dejitterat, 2005) identified risk taking, goal setting,

persistence or task completion, effort, self-image and attribution as main components of FF.

However, with evidences suggesting that fear of failure is multidimensional (Conroy, 2001), and the PFAI being encouraged to be considered for researches on FF (Conroy & Metzler, 2003), the components represented in the PFAI are the five aversive consequences believed to occur when failing: (a) Fear of experiencing shame and embarrassment, (b) fear of devaluing one's self-estimate, (c) fear of losing social influence, (d) fear of having an uncertain future, and (e) fear of upsetting important others (Conroy, 2001). These components of FF are most influenced by performance.

The present study measured FF, the independent variable, and studied the relation of each component used in the PFAI with the second independent variable, motivation.

Effects of Fear of Failure on Behavior

McClelland's researches in the 1950's suggested that in achievement, we have two types of characteristics; one is an approach motive where a reward is expected, thus referred to as "hope of success (HS)" and the second is an avoidance motive where there is an expectancy of failure. The latter aspect is recognized as "fear of failure" (Hancock & Teevan, 1964). Various researches in the past have studied in what ways HS and FF have an effect on behavior.

McClelland and Liberman's research, in 1949, showed that participants with very high need achievement (HS) recognized both success and failure words faster than those with moderate need achievement (as cited in Hancock & Teevan, 1964). Hancock and Teevan (1964) were not surprised to notice that HS people also recognize failure words faster because McClelland had stated that those with high need achievement are also anxious about the prospect of failure (as cited in Hancock & Teevan, 1964).

Atkinson, Bastian, Earl, and Litwin, in 1960, on the other hand, tested the initial choice participants made in completing a risk-taking task with three levels of difficulties – easy, moderate and difficult. The task used was an arithmetic one because it was believed that it would control participants' perception of the task. Bets that equated for expected monetary value were made by participants. They then proceeded with determining and testing their next choice after a success or failure of the initial chosen task (as cited in Hancock & Teevan, 1964). Atkinson (1957) had hypothesized that those with high need achievement (HS), would initially choose the moderate task which consists of moderate risk and his predictions were confirmed in the experiment by Atkinson et al. However, Hancock and Teevan (1964) tested Atkinson's model with a different sample, high school instead of college students and took a few controls into account; measuring FF directly through a scoring system instead of indirectly through need achievement as Atkinson et al. (1960) had done and using real bets instead of hypothetical ones. Their results were surprisingly different. HS participants in Hancock and Teevan's study initially chose the easy task in a group of risk-taking tasks. This behavior reveals a choice made which determines a "good chance of success" (Hancock and Teevan, 1964, p. 207).

Another prediction made by Atkinson (1957) concerning FF participants in a risk-taking task is the initial choices they made, as well as their next choice after a success or failure of the initial task chosen. Here, he predicted that FF participants would initially choose either the easy task, because they have a lower chance of failing, or the most difficult one, because they will not be expected to succeed here; thus, failure here does not bring about any form of shame or embarrassment to their image. He further predicted that those who fail at the initial easy risk-taking task would jump straight to the difficult one because the chance of failing again at the easy task is no longer low and will bring about shame and embarrassment to their image. Thus,

the difficult task becomes a more appealing option because they are already not expected to succeed here; therefore, failure can be seen as a function of the difficulty of the task and not as a personal failure. However, if they succeed at the initial easy task, then they would continue choosing the easy tasks because their chance of failing is still low. In comparison, those participants with FF who chose the difficult risk-taking task instead would continue choosing the difficult risk-taking task in their next choice as well, whether they fail or succeed in the initial task, but for different rationalizations. Those who failed in the initial task and still chose to select the difficult task on the second task did so because they believed that they were not expected to succeed. While those who had succeeded initially chose the difficult task again because the chance of succeeding was still low. The experiment conducted by Atkinson et al. confirmed these predictions (as cited in Hancock & Teevan, 1964). However, in Hancock and Teevan's research (1964), FF participants chose the most difficult levels in the risk-taking tasks and not the most easy or difficult task as Atkinson's (1957) model predicted. They also made more irrational decisions, after their initial success or failure, as to their next choice in level of risk-taking task than the HS participants. This, however, was in line with Atkinson's (1957) model.

The difference in results between the study by Hancock and Teevan (1964) and Atkinson et al. (1960) might have been due to the difference in the tasks, with real bets used by Hancock and Teevan (1964) instead of imaginary ones as Atkinson et al. (1960) had done. Another difference lies in the population of the two studies; Hancock and Teevan's (1964) sample were high school students, while Atkinson et al. (1960) used college students. Yet another reason may be the possibility that the participants in the study by Atkinson et al. (1960) did not comprehend

the probability of success, which was the method of betting used in both studies (Hancock & Teevan, 1964).

In summary, FF has shown to have an effect on task choice. The present study took FF as one of its independent variables and investigated its relation to the dependent variable, behavior. Thus, it is hypothesized that (H_1) participants high on FF will choose the activity with the moderate level of difficulty the least.

Motivation

Being moved to do something, as Ryan and Deci (2000b) put it, or the force that drives one to take part in an activity as Brownlow and Reasinger plainly stated (2000) are the definitions of motivation. Nevertheless, the central point to keep in mind is that motivation focuses on the “why of behavior” (Deci & Ryan, 1985; McClelland, 1985). Motivation is what leads you to act; a person who does not feel like taking action is considered unmotivated (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Most motivational theories described motivation as a unitary phenomenon, from little to a lot of motivation to act. However, it is not enough to say that one person has more motivation than another, revealing a simple unitary phenomenon, but that there is also a difference in type, or in other words, orientation of motivation. The orientation of motivation reflects the goals and underlying attitudes that bring about an action of behavior. The orientation of motivation is where the “why of behavior” comes from. For example, a student can be very motivated to do his homework because he is interested in the topic and eager to learn, or simply because he wants the approval of his teacher. Both cases may reveal the same level of motivation, but with a difference in orientation (Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

Goals serve a “directional function in motivation” (Elliot, 2006, p. 113). Though they are not sufficient enough to predict behavior without taking the motivation underlying these goals into account, they are commonly the final component of the motivational process and have an exclusive place in self-regulation; thus, making it a vital component in explaining and predicting behavior (Elliot, 2006). Goal-directedness is a prime characteristic of human behavior (as cited in Elliot, 2006) which guides the person’s behavior either towards or away from a specific cognitively represented target (Elliot, 2006). Dweck and Elliott (1983) described the two forms of goal orientation: Mastery and performance goal orientation. The former is the motivation where one approaches to gain new or mastery of knowledge, skill and behavior (Dweck & Elliott, 1983; Button, Mathieu & Zajac, 1996). They interpret mistakes as part of the learning process; therefore, it should come as no surprise that researchers have found a connection of mastery goals to high levels of intrinsic motivation, great persistence and effort placed at tasks (as cited in Neff et al., 2005). Performance goal orientation, on the other hand, is where one approaches to either obtain positive judgments or avoid critical ones (Dweck & Elliott, 1983); it is the motivation that one uses to show his/her competence in the specific task or subject (Button et al., 1996). Those with a performance orientation are motivated to guard or enhance their sense of self-worth, attribute their success and failure on their abilities, and assess these abilities by comparing them with others (Neff et al., 2005).

Researchers have stated two forms of performance motivation: Performance-approach, oriented towards achieving success, and performance-avoidance, oriented towards avoiding failure (Elliot & Harachiewicz, 1996; VandeWalle, 1997; Neff et al., 2005). Both of these forms are motivated by fear of failure. Those with performance-approach goals have high perceptions of competence - belief that they can succeed - so they try to outperform others to show that.

They tend to have a higher level of intrinsic motivation than those with performance-avoidance goals, are persistent and place great effort at tasks. Those with performance-avoidance goals, on the other hand, have low perceptions of competence; therefore, try to avoid situations in which they might fail because they fear being labeled, judged or criticized (as cited in Neff et al., 2005). They however show lower levels of intrinsic motivation and have been linked to anxiety and learned helplessness (Elliot & Harckiewicz, 1996; Neff et al., 2005). Learned helplessness, being categorized by Martin and Marsh (2003), as the most cognitively and behaviorally disengaged component in the cascading model of failure avoidance.

Both of these types of motivation, however, are part of our evolutionary heritage; both are needed for our physical and psychological well-being and survival. Approach motivation facilitates thriving, while avoidance motivation is required for survival. By its very nature, avoidance motivation is aversive, stressful and eliminates the pleasure out of the behavior; thus, affecting one's well-being, and nowadays, it is overused in the absence of danger thereby having individuals miss the opportunities for development and growth and often produces that specific negative outcome that it should have avoided in the first place. For example, in achievement situations, mastery-avoidance and performance-avoidance goals bring about distractions and anxiety which diminish performance and intrinsic motivation (Elliot, 2006). When FF is the underlying root of your worries and anxiety, whether you choose an approach or avoidance performance, the process is unpleasant (Martin & Marsh, 2003). This entails a lower intrinsic motivation towards that task.

In summary, both the level and orientation of motivation have an effect on behavior. Mastery learning has been linked to high intrinsic motivation, which will be discussed in more details, while performance goals reveal a lower level of intrinsic motivation, with performance-

avoidance being the least related. Alongside the first independent variable, FF, the current study focuses on the relation of the orientation of motivation, the second independent variable, on a specific behavior of choice.

The Self-Determination Theory

The Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is a theory of motivation that takes both the level and orientation of motivation into account; unlike most theories of motivation that view motivation as a unitary phenomenon (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). The SDT, as stated by Ryan, Kuhl and Deci in their 1997 article, “is an approach to human motivation and personality that uses traditional empirical methods while employing an organismic metatheory that highlights the importance of humans’ evolved inner resources for personality development and behavioral self-regulation” (as cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 68). It is concerned with supporting our intrinsic tendencies to behave in effective and healthy ways. The SDT has studied three innate psychological needs - competence, autonomy and relatedness – and their relation to intrinsic motivation, self-regulation and well-being. *Competence* is the need for being effective in one’s interactions with his environment, *autonomy*, is the sense of freedom from pressures in making choices among several courses of action and *relatedness* means belonging and developing interpersonal attachments with other individuals, group or culture propagating a goal. The SDT postulates that these needs are essential to the understanding of motivation. It is when these needs have been met, that self-motivation and mental health are enhanced. However, when the needs are not met, self motivation and mental health are both diminished (Guay, Vallerand & Blanchard, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

SDT has focused on what kind of motivation happens to be operating at any time. It has identified several distinct types of motivation based on the different goals leading to an action (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b). These types fall along a continuous line with ‘the lack of motivation’, otherwise referred to as amotivation, at the far left of the SDT continuum and intrinsic motivation at the far right. A lack of motivation is a result of not valuing the activity, not feeling competent, or not expecting it to bring a positive outcome. However, as we gradually move away from amotivation and closer to the intrinsic motivation, the different forms of extrinsic motivation lay inbetween. The behavior of each of the types of motivation differs in their degree of autonomy, or self-determination, increasing along the continuum with amotivation being nonself-determined and intrinsic motivation being the most self-determined. This degree of self-determination depends on the extent to which people have been successful in internalizing the initially external regulation of behavior. Within the SDT, there is a subtheory, Organismic Integration Theory which states the types of motivation, its’ regulatory styles, behavior, loci of causality and corresponding processes (see Appendix H). This study will examine the different types of motivation and the varied types of extrinsic motivation that the SDT proposes (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

Types of Motivation and its’ Effect on Behavior

Individuals are driven to succeed for different reasons; internal or external. Because intrinsic motivation is between a person and a task, some authors have defined this type of motivation in terms of the task being interesting, while others have defined it in terms of the satisfaction the person is getting from participating in the intrinsically motivated task. Some basic experimental researches have measured intrinsic motivation behaviorally using the ‘free

choice' measure, while others use the self-report of interest and enjoyment of the task at hand (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). In the 'free choice' measure, participants are exposed to a task under various conditions; one where they receive a reward and one where they do not. The kind of task introduced would be one that seems to be intrinsically motivating to the sample of the study as Deci (1971) did in his experiment when he chose to use the puzzle Soma. Hence, once the task has been completed, the experimenter states that it is over, but requests for the participants to stay in the room until he gets back. Within this time, participants are left in the room with that same target task as well as a few other activities. Here, the experimenter measures the amount of time, participants who freely chose to return to the target task, spend on the task while waiting for the experimenter to return. It is presumed that since there is no extrinsic reason to do the task (no reward or approval); therefore, by implication, the more time they spend on the task, the more intrinsically motivated they are to that task (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is the motive to do something because it leads to a separate outcome. In SDT, four types of extrinsic motivation are proposed which vary greatly with the degree of self-determination, or autonomy: *External regulation*, *introjected regulation*, *identified regulation* and *integrated regulation*. External regulation falls to the direct right of amotivation on the SD continuum. The degree of internalization and integration increases as it moves along the different types of extrinsic motivation from external to integrated regulation. *Internalization* is the 'taking in' of a value or behavioral regulation, and *integration* is the transformation of the regulation into their own, so that it would immerge from their sense of self. Therefore, those expressing an inner acceptance of the value of the task have fostered the internalization and integration; thus, perform extrinsically motivated actions willingly. While

those performing the actions unwillingly with resistance, bitterness and disinterest have not done so and hence are more external in regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

Internalization is central to socialization and is energized by the human psychological needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness (as cited in Vansteenkiste, Lens & Deci, 2006). It is this desire of feeling connected that facilitates the taking on of values and beliefs of others. According to SDT, internalization does not entail people to move through each type of regulation. The SDT identifies these types of regulation along a directional continuum to help specify the degree to which people have fostered the internalization of a behavioral regulation. People can fully internalize a new regulation at anytime, or fully internalize a regulation that had only been partly internalized (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006). This internalization increases along the SDT continuum, the closer it gets to intrinsic motivation. And as it increases, so does persistence, positive self-perceptions and a better quality of engagement (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). As a result, intrinsically motivated individuals, also have the most internalization; thus, greater persistence towards tasks, in spite of failure. Therefore, it is hypothesized – H_2 and H_3 - that participants intrinsic in motivation will be most inclined to take part in the activity than those high in amotivation or extrinsic motivation, and will choose the activity with the highest level of difficulty, out of three options, the least.

The extrinsically motivated behaviors, fall between amotivation and intrinsic motivation on the SDT continuum, as stated above, varying in their degree of self-determination, or autonomy. The extrinsically motivated behavior that is least autonomous, falling to the direct right of amotivation, is referred to as *external regulation*. These behaviors are preformed for external reasons, whether reward, punishment, or deadlines. These reasons have not been internalized at all. Such a person may choose to do his homework, for example, simply because

his parents have promised a reward. Because such an action is determined by external forces, it is represented by an external perceived locus of causality. This form of external motivation is the only kind that is recognized by operant theorists, such as Skinner (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006).

The next type of extrinsic motivation which is 'somewhat' external in its perceived locus of causality is called *introjected regulation*. 'Somewhat external' because the regulation is internal to the person, but not fully accepted it as his own. People with this form of extrinsic motivation perform an action to act in accordance with internal pressures to avoid guilt, shame or anxiety, or attain ego-enhancements, such as pride, self-aggrandizement and enhancing or maintaining self-esteem and self-worth. For example, a person who chooses to study right before attending a concert may do so to avoid feeling guilty about it. This person displays introjected regulation because it does not come from the person's sense of self but from a form of pressure (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006).

The third type is a more self-determined form referred to as *identified regulation* - regulation through identification. Identification is the process of conscious valuing an activity and seeing its importance; thus, taking part in the activity willingly. The perceived locus of control in this form of motivation is somewhat internal. An example is a person who studies statistics because he has accepted its importance for his self-selected goal of doing empirical psychology; thus has identified with the value of learning statistics (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006).

Finally, the last type of extrinsic motivation, which is the most autonomous of the external behaviors, falls right before intrinsic motivation in the SDT continuum. It is referred to as *integrated regulation*. Integration is the process when those identified regulations are in

congruence with your other values and is taken in as part of the self. Internalization and integration are the core processes that facilitate extrinsically motivated behaviors in becoming more self-determined. Though, integrated regulation is the most self-determined of the external motivations and share many qualities with intrinsic motivation, they are still considered extrinsic because they are done to obtain a separate outcome and not performed for the pleasure of the action itself (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006).

Though it has been tested as to whether these different types of motivation lie along a continuum of relative autonomy, evidences exist to support this (as cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000a); however, no suggestions are made that the SDT continuum is a developmental one, meaning that people must go through each stage of internalization depending on the regulation. Therefore, an extrinsically motivated person becoming more internalized does not mean that they are transformed into intrinsically motivated behaviors. People can internalize a new regulation at any point along the continuum in respect to their past experiences and current situation (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006).

This study focuses on one of the independent variables – motivation – and its effect on the participants' will to take part in a Visual IQ Test sample, as well as their choice of the level of difficulty they opt for.

Relationship of Fear of Failure and Motivation on Behavior

Fear of failure has revealed the ways it can affect one's behavior on task choice with basis on the difficulty level (Atkinson, 1957; Conroy & Elliot, 2004; Hancock & Teevan, 1964; Martin & Marsh, 2003). While answering the 'why of behavior' (Deci & Ryan, 1985; McClelland, 1985) leads to the underlying motive and goals behind the action. One reason

behind their behavior may be intrinsic with mastery orientation, where 'learning' is the key emphasis. Another reason may be extrinsic, with performance goal orientation, where the reasons behind their behavior is to obtain positive judgments or avoid critical ones (Button et al., 1996; Dweck and Elliott, 1983; Elliot, 2006; Elliot & Harachiewicz, 1996; Martin & Marsh, 2003; Neff et al., 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b; VandeWalle, 1997).

Individuals with high FF want to avoid failure at all costs. Overstrivers are those with high FF and high in success orientation; thus, they tend to avoid failure by succeeding. Self-protectors on the other hand, are low in success orientation and they avoid the implications of failure by using strategies, such as self-handicapping or defensive pessimism, to protect their self-worth. Self-handicapping techniques include the reduction of effort, not practicing or practicing very little, procrastinating, or simply their choice of performance debilitating circumstances to reduce their chances of success, while defensive pessimism is the setting of unrealistically low expectations in situations where their performance will be judged (Martin & Marsh, 2003).

Both overstrivers and self-protectors go through anxiety, have perception of low control and an unstable self-esteem, which leads to an unpleasant journey during the performance of an action. In the case of overstrivers, their failure only reassures them of their suspected incompetence and increases the risk of them becoming a self-protector with low success orientation (Martin & Marsh, 2003). This supports the notion that they are not persistent in the face of failure, nor do they have a positive self-perception; thus, revealing low internalization. The lower the internalization, the further down the Self-Determination continuum they are, away from intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006). This facilitates in predicting that FF decreases with increase in internalization; therefore,

hypothesizing (H₄) that there will be an increasing negative correlation between FF and the types of motivation along the self-determination continuum.

Gender and Age

Already having acknowledged the existence of a relationship between fear of failure and motivation, we should note that there are various other factors that affect each one of these variables. These factors are additional independent variables that may help better understand and predict behavior through their impact on FF and/or motivation.

In respect to gender, there are various opposing findings. Andrew J. Martin is one of those researchers who has conducted many studies on motivation and FF. Martin (2004) found a significant difference in the degree of motivation between Australian high school boys and girls, but not in the kind of motivation. He had used the Student Motivation Scale which specifically assesses the motivation of high school students. This scale assesses motivation through boosters, which facilitate the increase of motivation and guzzlers, which facilitate in the reduction of motivation. The boosters in the Student Motivation Scale are self-belief, learning focus, value of schooling, persistence, planning and study management, and the guzzlers are anxiety, low control, failure acceptance and self-sabotage. However, a similar study done in the United States found no such gender differences (as cited in Graham, Tisher, Ainley & Kennedy, 2008).

Martin's research also revealed that girls showed a significant difference in persistence in the face of challenge, were more inclined to adopt mastery orientation than boys, plan schoolwork and have study management; nevertheless, they were still higher in anxiety than boys. Boys, on the other hand, were higher in self-sabotage or self-handicapping (Martin, 2004). Based on the 'need for achievement model of motivation', self-handicapping is under the

typology of 'self-protection', bordering failure acceptance (Covington, 1992; Martin, 2004). As Martin states, "Self-handicapping reflects full cognitive engagement with fear that is also followed through behaviorally (e.g., pessimism and negativity yielding counterproductive behavior)...Self-handicapping yielded the most markedly negative outcomes predicting lower self-regulation, lower persistence, an unwillingness to continue with one's studies, later withdrawal, and lower achievement" (Martin & Marsh, 2003, p. 33).

Research on academic procrastination, with procrastination being one of the forms of self-handicapping, have revealed that among males and females with high academic procrastination, the males showed lower intrinsic motivation, with no difference in the motivation levels of females (Brownlow & Reasinger, 2000). Results revealed in Brownlow and Reasinger's study (2000) that it was only among male procrastinators that task satisfaction made a difference; hence, reporting low intrinsic motivation. While procrastination among females resulted mainly from FF, dependency and difficulty in making decisions. Perfectionism was also a strong predictor of academic procrastination in females (Brownlow & Reasinger, 2000).

Thus, this literature may lead to an educated guess of more males than females choosing not to go through with a task when their FF is high; in other words, (H₃) more male participants with high FF would choose not to take part in an activity than women with high FF. This is on the basis that males high in self-handicapping, such as procrastination, would adopt a more avoidance approach and choose not to take part in the activity, due to uncertainty about their abilities and competences. However, though this happens more often in public performance situations, this study will stand to test its hypothesis in a more private setting, controlling the external motivations.

Age is another variable that may also affect one's FF and/or motivation. As infants, failure is not a concept that has such an impact on us. An example given by Ortberg states that "No one-year-old stumbles when he tries to walk, then says to himself, *Well, that was stupid and clumsy of me! I guess I wasn't cut out to be a walker. I sure don't want anybody else to watch me fall. I'd rather settle for crawling the rest of my life than put myself through that experience again*". However, the older we get, the more afraid we seem to get of falling and would rather avoid it instead of learning how to walk (2001, p. 136). Though little research has been conducted on the developmental origins of FF, Argyle and Robinson in 1962 found that high achievement expectations of parents correlated positively with children's FF, especially those that identify strongly with their parents. Further research, by Teevan and McGhee, in 1972, and Schmalt, in 1982, confirmed that the earlier the parental expectations, the higher the child's FF. Children's FF has also been linked to their mothers' tendency to punish them during failures and have a neutral respond to their success by Teevan in his 1983 research. Other researches following later on further linked "negative maternal characteristics such as irritability and dependency to high FF in children, as has paternal absence from the home, especially due to the father's death" (as cited by Elliot & Thrash, 2004, p. 957). Elliot and Thrash's research (2004) on undergraduates revealed that love withdrawal of mothers acted as a mediator of parent-undergraduate concordance in FF. And both parents' FF correlated positively to the undergraduate's adoption of performance-avoidance goals in the classroom. However, the father's FF was a negative predictor of undergraduate's adoption of mastery goal.

When it comes to the relationship of age on motivation, developmental theorists have acknowledged that healthy children are active, exploratory, inquisitive and playful, even without any external rewards. Security and a mother's autonomy support, relative to controlling parents,

also predict a more curious, behavior in infants. However, the maintenance of this intrinsic motivation can easily be disrupted under nonsupportive conditions (as cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000a).

In summary of the literature above, we can assertively state that age alone cannot predict FF or motivation without taking the influence and effect of the parents' role, in the upbringing of the child, into consideration, as well as the effect of other unsupportive people and conditions.

In light of the literature reviewed above, this study will examine the effects of fear of failure and motivation on behavior. The following hypotheses will be tested:

- H1: Participants who score high on fear of failure will choose the activity with the easy or difficult level of difficulty more than the moderate level
- H2: Participants scoring high on intrinsic motivation will be most inclined to take part in the activity compared to those high in amotivation or extrinsic motivation
- H3: Participants with high intrinsic motivation will chose the activity with the easy or moderate level of difficulty more than the difficult level
- H4: There will be an increasing negative correlation between fear of failure and the types of motivation along the Self-Determination continuum.
- H5: More male participants with high fear of failure would choose not to take part in an activity than women with high fear of failure.

Chapter Three

Method

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between types of motivation and fear of failure and how it affects one's behavior in avoiding or approaching a new activity/task. This study also sought to examine the effects of age and gender on fear of failure among a sample of high school students.

The Research Context

This study took place in two different private schools; one located in Beirut (Mar-Elias) while the other was in Metn (Mezher). Participants were informed of the study at the beginning of a normal teaching period in their classrooms. The questionnaires were administered, in class, by two MA students from the Education and Behavioral Sciences Department, HU. No time limit was imposed for the completion of the questionnaires; it was submitted upon completion. The average time for completion was found to be 35 minutes.

Participants

The participants in this study were high school students from two different private schools. The sampling procedure was that of convenience. A total of 121 students participated; however, six were dropped. One submitted a blank survey, another stated that he would answer without reading the questions, a third circled the same number for each statement on the PFAI; thus, resulting to a contradiction throughout the survey and hence its invalidity, and three participants left the SIMS blank. Thus, the total number of participants taking part in the study was 115. The age range was between 15 and 19 ($M = 16.67$), of which 113 were of Lebanese

nationality and 2 were from other Arab, European or American countries. Of the total sample, 47 were males and 68 were females.

Materials

Participants were handed a booklet which included a cover page and five sections:

- (i) Demographic information indicating their age, gender, nationality, religion, languages spoken, preferred language, the location/area of their school and their grade level.
- (ii) Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory - PFAI (Conroy, 2001).
- (iii) A rating on one's inclination to take part in a visual IQ task.
- (iv) Visual IQ task
- (v) Situational Motivation Scale – SIMS (Guay et al., 2000)

The Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory (as cited in Conroy, 2001)

Conroy's 41-item Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory (PFAI) was used as the first measure (see Conroy, 2001). The PFAI is a multidimensional measure measuring a set of empirically-derived cognitive-motivational-relational appraisals associated with FF, as stated by Conroy (2001). It highlights the intrapersonal and interpersonal dimensions of FF. In this scale, participants were required to indicate, on a 5-point scale, if they believe or do not believe that each of the statements is true in their performance domain, where -2 indicates 'do not believe at all' and +2 indicates 'completely believe'. Zero was the midpoint indicating the response, '50% of the time'.

The PFAI represents the fear of 5 of the following subscales: The fear of shame and embarrassment scale constitutes of eleven items (e.g., When I am failing, I lose respect for

myself). The fear of devaluing one's self-estimate scale consists of 8 items (e.g., When I am failing, it is often because I am not smart enough to perform successfully). The third subscale of fear of having an uncertain future scale includes 5 items (e.g., When I am failing, my future seems uncertain). The fear of losing social influence scale involves 9 items (e.g., When I am failing, I am afraid that I won't be allowed to try again), and the fifth subscale, fear of upsetting important others, consists of 8 items (e.g., When I am failing, I expect to be criticized by important others).

The PFAI has been used by Conroy (2003), Conroy et al. (2004) and Conroy, Kaye and Fifer (2007) in a study on the representational models associated with FF in adolescents and young adults, of FF and achievement goals in sport, and in cognitive links between FF and perfectionism respectively, among various other research topics on FF. Stöber and Pekrun (2004) also tested the PFAI in their study on the advances in test anxiety research. Results in all the studies above have shown sound psychometric properties, including factorial invariance across groups and over time, internal consistency, external validity, predictive validity and temporal stability.

The Situational Motivation Scale (as cited in Guay et al., 2000)

The 16-item Situational Motivation Scale (SIMS) is a multidimensional measure based on visual IQ task. Participants were asked "Why are you currently engaged in this activity?" Each response item was rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (corresponds not all) to 7 (corresponds exactly).

The SIMS is composed of 4 subscales. One subscale assesses intrinsic motivation, (e.g., Because I think that this activity is interesting; Because I think that this activity is pleasant).

Two of the subscales assess types of extrinsic motivation: Identified regulation (e.g., Because I am doing it for my own good; Because I think that this activity is good for me) and external regulation (e.g., Because I am supposed to do it; Because it is something that I have to do). And one subscale assesses amotivation (e.g., There may be good reasons to do this activity, but personally I don't see any; I do this activity but I am not sure if it's worth it).

The psychometric properties of the SIMS has been tested by Standage & Treasure (2002), Prusak, Treasure, Darst and Pangrazi (2004) and Blanchard, Mask, Vallerand, de la Sablonnière and Provencher (2007) in physical education and sport settings and have shown sound internal consistency and test-retest reliability.

Procedures

This study was run during a normal class period in April 2011. Participants were asked to complete the questionnaire booklet. They were informed that this was a research study done by a psychology student and that all responses were anonymous and confidential. Participants were asked to read each instruction carefully and to complete each page before turning to the next. To establish experimental realism, participants were not only asked to choose the level of difficulty of the visual IQ test sample they would like to solve, but were asked to solve the level they chose; though their responses were not part of the data needed by the researcher.

CHAPTER 4

Results

This study made use of the Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory (PFAI), and the Situational Motivation Scale (SIMS). The internal reliability of these scales and their subscales were determined by calculating their Cronbach's alpha. Table 1 shows the Cronbach's alpha of this study as well as the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of previous studies (see Table 1).

Table 1

Cronbach's alpha for the subscales and total scale of PFAI, and the subscales of SIMS

Scale	Previous Cronbach's alpha	Current Cronbach's alpha
Fear of shame and embarrassment	.87	.628
Fear of devaluing one's self-estimate	.75	.507
Fear of having an uncertain future	.73	.513
Fear of losing social influence	.82	.674
Fear of upsetting important others	.87	.660
PFAI	.72	.837
Intrinsic	.95	.839
Identified Regulation	.80	.817
External Regulation	.86	.836
Amotivation	.77	.773

The first hypothesis of the current study predicted that participants high on fear of failure will choose the activity with the easy or difficult level of difficulty more than the moderate level. To test this hypothesis, a Chi Square analysis was performed which resulted in $\chi^2=2.517$, $p>.05$. Results showed that 62% of the participants high in fear of failure chose the activity with the easy level and 54% of the participants low in fear of failure chose the activity with the moderate level. Although the results do not reach significance, they are in the predicted direction (see Table 2). Thus, hypothesis 1 was not confirmed.

Table 2

Chi Square on fear of failure and level of difficulty

highlowFF * diffLEVEL Crosstabulation

Count		diffLEVEL			Total
		easy	moderate	difficult	
highlowFF	low FF	17	24	12	53
	high FF	28	20	14	62
Total		45	44	26	115

To test if participants intrinsic in motivation will be most inclined to take part in the given activity, a one-way analysis of variance was performed. Results showed that participants intrinsic in motivation are most inclined to participate in the activity, and further down the self-determination continuum (moving from intrinsic to amotivation) participants become less inclined to participate (see Table 3). Thus, hypothesis 2 was confirmed.

Table 3 Post Hoc analysis, using the Tukey HSD test, showed that there is a significant difference between most estimate in motivation

ANOVA on inclination to participate with types of motivation

Descriptives

inclined

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
intrinsic	22	1.41	.734
identified	40	1.58	.501
external	35	2.31	.963
amotivation	18	2.33	1.188
Total	115	1.89	.915

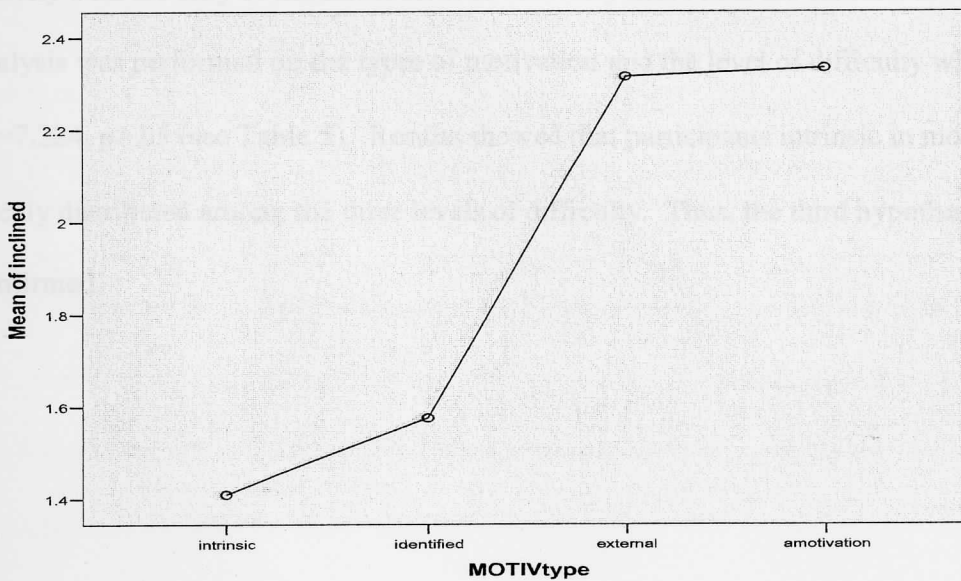
ANOVA

inclined

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	18.894	3	6.298	9.122	.000
Within Groups	76.636	111	.690		
Total	95.530	114			

Figure 1

ANOVA between types of motivation and inclination of participation



Post Hoc analysis, using the Tukey HSD test, showed that there is a significant difference in inclination between participants intrinsic in motivation and those most extrinsic in motivation (external regulation) and amotivation (see Table 4).

Table 4

*Post Hoc Tests; Multiple Comparisons***Multiple Comparisons**

Dependent Variable: inclined

Tukey HSD

(I) MOTIVtype	(J) MOTIVtype	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
intrinsic	identified	-.166	.221	.876	-.74	.41
	external	-.905*	.226	.001	-1.49	-.32
	amotivation	-.924*	.264	.004	-1.61	-.24

The third hypothesis stated that participants intrinsic in motivation will choose the activity with the easy or moderate level of difficulty more than the difficult level. A Chi Square analysis was performed on the types of motivation and the level of difficulty which resulted in $\chi^2=7.224$, $p>.05$ (see Table 5). Results showed that participants intrinsic in motivation are evenly distributed among the three levels of difficulty. Thus, the third hypothesis was not confirmed.

Table 5 *Relationship between males and females in inclination to participate in the activity (see Table 6)**Chi Square on types of motivation and level of difficulty***MOTIVtype * diffLEVEL Crosstabulation**

Count		diffLEVEL			Total
		easy	moderate	difficult	
MOTIVtype	intrinsic	7	7	8	22
	identified	18	18	4	40
	external	14	13	8	35
	amotivation	6	6	6	18
Total		45	44	26	115

To test the fourth hypothesis, which stated that there will be an increasing negative correlation between fear of failure and the types of motivation along the Self-Determination continuum, a correlational analysis was performed between scores on fear of failure and scores on each type of motivation. Results showed that the correlation between FF and intrinsic motivation was $r(115)=.095, p<.313$; between FF and identified regulation was $r(115)=.076, p<.421$; between FF and external regulation was $r(115)=.051, p<.590$; and between FF and amotivation was $r(115)=.081, p<.392$. Results showed no significant relationship between FF and all types of motivation. Thus, hypothesis 4 was not confirmed.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that more male participants with high fear of failure, > median 112, would choose not to take part in an activity than women with high fear of failure. To test this hypothesis, a Chi Square analysis was performed between gender and inclination to participate in the activity which resulted in $\chi^2=5.593, p>.05$. Results showed no significant

difference between males and females in inclination to participate in the activity (see Table 6).

Thus, hypothesis 5 was not supported.

Table 6

Chi Square on gender and inclination

gender * inclined Crosstabulation

Count		inclined				Total
		very likely	likely	unlikely	very unlikely	
gender	female	15	10	6	2	33
	male	10	10	0	3	23
Total		25	20	6	5	56

For further examination of the data, a regression analysis was performed to measure the contribution of the demographic variables, the difficulty level of the task, and types of motivation on the inclination to take part in the activity. Results showed that the demographic variables of school and grade level are most significantly related to inclination, where for each increase in grade level, there will be a decrease in the inclination to participate in the task by .512. Therefore, as one's passes to the next grade level, their inclination to participate would decrease. In addition to the above, results also showed that amotivation and intrinsic motivation are also significantly related to inclination (see Table 7).

Table 7

*Regression analysis of inclination***Coefficients^a**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.206	1.884		3.294	.001
	age	-.092	.100	-.101	-.914	.363
	gender	.104	.154	.056	.678	.499
	religion	.509	.287	.324	1.773	.079
	prefLANG	-.057	.157	-.031	-.362	.718
	school	1.393	.402	.734	3.462	.001
	grade	-.512	.168	-.384	-3.041	.003
	diffLEVEL	-.101	.098	-.086	-1.031	.305
	Intrinsic	-.040	.017	-.266	-2.349	.021
	Identified	.003	.016	.024	.209	.835
	External	.018	.012	.138	1.452	.150
	Amotivation	.036	.015	.230	2.441	.016

a. Dependent Variable: inclined

R Square= .414 and adjusted R Square= .352

Further regression analysis of data was performed to measure the contribution of the demographic variables, total FF, and types of motivation on the difficulty level of the task. Results revealed that the demographic variable of age is the highest contributor of the difficulty level choice. For each one year increase in age, there will be a decrease in difficulty level by .201. As age increases, the choice of difficulty level will decrease (see Table 8).

Table 8

Regression analysis of difficulty level

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	8.005	1.719		4.656	.000
	age	-.201	.098	-.262	-2.050	.043
	gender	.237	.151	.152	1.568	.120
	religion	-.209	.287	-.158	-.728	.468
	prefLANG	.116	.155	.075	.750	.455
	school	-.083	.411	-.052	-.202	.841
	grade	-.174	.166	-.156	-1.049	.296
	TotalFF	-.004	.004	-.091	-.955	.342
	Intrinsic	.016	.017	.123	.916	.362
	Identified	-.018	.016	-.154	-1.139	.257
	External	-.002	.012	-.016	-.145	.885
	Amotivation	-.007	.015	-.053	-.469	.640

a. Dependent Variable: diffLEVEL

R Square= .177 and adjusted R Square= .089

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

The study sought to investigate the effects of fear of failure and motivation on one's behavior of choosing to avoid or approach a novel task among high school students in Beirut. These students were asked to fill in demographic information such as their age and gender, as well as the Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory (PFAI), a rating scale as to their inclination to participate in a Visual IQ test sample, the Visual IQ test sample and the Situational Motivation Scale (SIMS).

The internal reliability of the PFAI was very high, even higher than previous studies through the literature. The internal reliability of the FF and its subscales were lower than those of previous studies, yet acceptable to use it in the current study. Two subscales, fear of devaluing one's self estimate and fear of having an uncertain future, had alpha coefficients which were lower than the rest. Many factors could be used to explain the lower alpha coefficients. First, the previous alphas are based on a number of studies, on very large samples. Also, the sample for this study was composed of high school students whose immediate future is represented by passing the governmental exams, and their distant future is full of hopes and dreams.

Fear of Failure and Behavior

The current research predicted that individuals high in FF would choose the easy or difficult task more than the moderate one. The results revealed that more participants high in FF chose the task with the easy level of difficulty, while those with low FF chose the moderate level of difficulty more, but with no significance.

Individuals with HS use an approach motive and expect a reward, while those high in FF, use an avoidance motive and want to avoid failure due to one's sensitivity in experiencing shame and embarrassment (Atkinson, 1957; McClelland et al., 1953). Therefore, when choosing a task within three levels of difficulty; easy, moderate and difficult, Atkinson (1957) stated that those individuals with HS choose the moderate task which consists of moderate risk, while in Hancock and Teevan's (1964) study, individuals with HS chose the easy task because it determines a "good chance of success". When comparing individuals with high FF instead, Atkinson (1957) had predicted that they would either chose the easy task, because they have a lower chance of failing, or the difficult task, because they will not be expected to succeed; thus, failing will not bring about any form of shame or embarrassment to their image. In Hancock and Teevan's study (1964), FF individuals chose the most difficult levels. Their predictions were confirmed; however, the prediction in this study was not.

In taking a closer look at Atkinson (1957) and Hancock and Teevan's (1964) study, the difference in outcome may well be the result in the differences in samples – high school, instead of college students – and a few other controls that were taken into account, such as, measuring FF directly instead of indirectly through need achievement, as Atkinson had done, and using real bets instead of hypothetical ones. Therefore, though Hancock and Teevan tested Atkinson's model, the participants, materials and procedures varied. In the current study, the sample were high school students and FF was measured directly, as Hancock and Teevan had used, but the task given was not only different, but was performed away from external pressures. In the current study, the performance of the task was in written form, anonymous and no one could see the choices taken by the participants. In such a context, with the absence of a spectator, participants were unable to demonstrate competence and neither could their competence be

judged. Therefore, participants may not have displayed FF during the performance of the task because the components of FF, in accordance with the PFAI, could not be measured. For example, one of the subscales in the PFAI, measures ‘fear of shame and embarrassment’. Shame and embarrassment can only be exhibited when there is a threat to one’s esteem (Thompson, Sharp & James, 2008). In this study, though the task was performed by participants in the presence of their classmates and examiner, there is no threat to one’s esteem because no one is informed of one’s performance level in the task; thus, no demonstration of one’s competence or incompetence. Another subscale measures ‘fear of upsetting important others’; an important other is to be present for this fear to emerge.

As a consequence, the findings in this study revealed that differences in behavior of those high in FF cannot be seen in the absence of others during the process of an action. The behavior of participants high in FF cannot be predicted when tasks are done in solitude or in private settings. It is the perceived external pressures that trigger one behaving in a predictable manner and not FF alone.

Intrinsic Motivation

The current study predicted that participants high on intrinsic motivation will be most inclined to take part in the task and will choose the easy or moderate level more than the difficult one; the difficult level being the least chosen one. The results revealed that those intrinsic in motivation will be most inclined to take part in the task; however, the level of difficulty chosen was distributed almost evenly among the three levels; easy (N=7), moderate (N=7) and difficult (N=8). Literature on intrinsic motivation may explain the lack of difference in preference of task difficulty level.

Intrinsic motivation is the most self-determined form of behavior where actions are performed because one finds it enjoyable. It is outside of external pressures (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Researchers have found connections of mastery goals to high intrinsic motivation, great persistence and effort placed at tasks, where mistakes are interpreted as part of the learning process (as cited in Neff et al., 2005). Those intrinsic in motivation adopt the mastery goal orientation; master a level, then attempt a more difficult task and persist until mastered as well.

In line with the findings on mastery goals and intrinsic motivation, such participants would chose a level they thought they were capable of, then make their decision as to their second choice once they received the feedback of the first. For example, if they had chosen the moderate level of difficulty as their initial choice, and the feedback were positive, meaning their answer was correct; they would then attempt the difficult level. If the feedback were negative, meaning their answer was incorrect; they would go one level down and attempt the easier one. Once having mastered one level, they would challenge themselves to the next level and persist until mastered (Atkinson, 1957; Hancock & Teevan, 1964). Giving unexpected positive feedback on a task increases their intrinsic motivation towards that task and decreases their extrinsic motivation. The positive feedback fulfills their need for competence (Deci, 1971). Other findings by Vallerand and Reid (1984) also found that negative feedback has the opposite effect; it decreases one's intrinsic motivation by taking away their need for competence. However, in this study, no feedback was given on the completion of the level of difficulty chosen; thus, revealing a non-learning experience. Their initial choice here would not facilitate their learning experience; therefore, each participant may have chosen one of the levels of

difficulties over the other based on other variables: Fear, competence, prior experience and knowledge etc.

Internalization

Internalization – the process of taking in the values and regulations - and integration – the transformation of the regulation into their own so that it would come from their sense of self - are the processes required to facilitate extrinsically motivated behaviors in becoming more self-determined. As internalization increases, so does one's persistence and positive self-perception (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Therefore, the more intrinsically motivated one is, the more self-determined and internalized. Those with high FF do not persist in the face of failure. On the contrary, those with high failure avoidance are either overstrivers with an approach motive, or self-protectors with an avoidance motive. In both cases, neither of them are expected to persist in the face of failure. According to Martin and Marsh (2003), when an overstriver fails, it only reassures them of their suspected incompetence and may even lead them to become self-protectors.

Therefore, in line with the aforementioned research, this research expected that there would be an increasing negative correlation between FF and the types of motivation along the Self-Determined continuum. Contrary to the hypothesis, results revealed no significance. The lack of significant results can be explained by taking a closer look at the measures used in this study – the PFAI and the SIMS – and the Self-Determination continuum.

The PFAI was the first scale completed by the participants and it assesses one's overall cognitive-motivational-relational appraisals associated with FF (Conroy, 2001). The second scale completed was the SIMS which is a situational motivation scale that assesses one's

motivation towards the task at hand. In between the two scales is the task to be performed – the visual IQ test sample. Having already answered the 41-item PFAI and completed one of the levels of the visual IQ test sample, one's motivational orientation might have shifted, from being intrinsically motivated to a shift backwards into the extrinsic regulatory styles. Thus, the length of this study reveals the sensitivity of maintaining an intrinsic regulation.

Furthermore, research states that the Self-Determination continuum is not a developmental one, meaning that one doesn't progress from one stage of internalization to another, with respect to its regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Ryan & Deci, 2000b). One can take up a new behavioral regulation anytime depending on previous experiences and current situational factors (as cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000b). An example provided in Ryan and Deci (2000) is that one might choose to take part in an activity because of an extrinsic regulation of a reward and may then change orientation, finding the activity interesting on its own. The same may hold true for those who started off an activity because of an intrinsic regulation. Their intrinsic regulation can be disrupted due to certain unsupportive conditions (as cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000a) and result to a 'backward' shift in orientation. Though there are reasons for the shifts between orientations, there is no specific sequence (Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

Age, Gender and Fear of Failure

In respect to the demographic information provided by the participants, it was predicted that more male participants with high FF would choose not to take part in the activity than women with high FF. There were no predictions made with regards to age because of the developmental origins of FF and motivation, where one's level of FF and intrinsic motivation is dependent on external conditions. For example, a parent's response to failure and success –

punishment during failures and neutral during successes – facilitate the increase in their child's level of FF, and a parent or teacher's level of autonomy can help maintain or diminish the level of intrinsic motivation in a child.

The absence of FF is observed in toddlers, where they get up each time they fall, but one seems to be getting more afraid of falling, the older they get (Ortberg, 2001). Nevertheless, a prediction on age and FF without understanding the developmental origins of FF will only lead to an unreliable, uneducated guess. Various findings have shown a positive correlation between FF and high achievement expectations of parents (Argyle & Robinson, 1962), earlier parental expectations (Teevan & McGhee, 1972), punishment from mothers during failures and neutral responses to success (Teevan, 1983), maternal negative characteristics and paternal absence, such as death (as cited by Elliot & Thrash, 2004), as well as love withdrawal of mothers (Elliot & Thrash, 2004). In light of these researches, we can denote the critical influence of the role of parents, in the upbringing of their children, and its impact on their children's FF. Therefore, though one may predict a positive correlation between age and FF, it is wiser to state that there may be an increase in FF as one gets older, with respect to his own life - the existence of a variation in rate of increase or decrease of FF amongst individuals. In other words, a child with high FF because of any of the reasons stated prior, may reveal an increase in FF as he ages. However, in comparison to another child who does not have high FF, may have a slight increase in FF the older he gets, but the first individual at age seventeen may reveal a much higher score on FF than the second individual at the age of twenty-three. Therefore, though there may be an increase in FF, the older one gets, it is with respect to one's own life span.

Similarly, studies on motivation have revealed that one is born active and playful, with a sense of curiosity without the need for any external rewards; therefore, with an intrinsic

regulation. However, further down the line, life circumstances and experiences will either facilitate in maintaining this regulatory style or helps in disrupting it (as cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Therefore, age is not a predictor of any specific motivation type.

The researcher in this study predicted that males high in FF would choose not to take part in the activity more than females high in FF because the literature on gender reveals significant difference in the degree of motivation, but not in kind (Martin, 2004). High school girls showed a significant difference in skills such as persistence in the face of challenge, though revealing high anxiety (Martin & Marsh, 2003; Martin, 2004). Anxiety reveals FF and persistence reveals high success orientation; therefore, labeling these girls as overstrivers. And boys were higher in self-handicapping, where they sabotage their chances of success by reducing their efforts, not practicing, procrastinating etc. (Martin & Marsh, 2003; Martin, 2004). Therefore, labeled as self protectors; high in failure avoidance and low in success orientation (Convington, 1992; Martin, 2004). Additional research from Brownlow and Reasinger (2000) revealed that male academic procrastinators showed lower intrinsic motivation, while there was no difference in the motivation levels of females. Therefore, revealing that males with a form of self-handicapping (i.e. procrastination), which has already been clarified to have high FF, show lower intrinsic motivation.

Contrary to the hypothesis and literature, there was no significant difference between males and females in respect to their inclination to want to participate in a novel task.

Males high in FF use self-handicapping as a means to avoid having their competence - or lack of it - judged. So this study keeps reassuring us of the importance of having an audience view the individuals in action. One's FF is only present in the presence of others. Therefore, in the setting of this study, where your competence level cannot be referred back to you, your

inclination to participate is independent of your FF. It is also important to state that the activity was a Visual IQ test; hence, most people may find IQ tests intriguing to practice on. However, this practice is not a learning process; therefore, no increase in intrinsic motivation should be revealed, as data confirmed, since no feedback was given, but it is more of an 'experience' with an IQ test sample. With FF not hindering one's inclination to participate because of the absence of viewers and the activity being one of interest to most individuals, most people would be inclined to participate irrespective of their gender.

Conclusion

The present study investigated the relationship between fear of failure and motivation taking into consideration demographic variables such as age and gender. Previous studies have investigated the effects of FF on behaviors and others, the effects of motivation on behavior. The present study examined the effects of both FF and motivation on the behavior of task choice.

The results of this study showed that intrinsic motivation is a strong predictor of task participation, but not to the level of task difficulty chosen in the absence of feedback. High FF also did not predict the chosen level of difficulty of the task when it is performed in a setting where one's competence can neither be seen nor judged. Gender had no effect on motivation types and also showed no significant effect on fear of failure in high school Lebanese students. Age, on the other hand, revealed that as age increases, the level of difficulty chosen for a given task decreases.

There were some delimitations to this study. First, the questionnaire booklet was reported, by the participants, to be too long. A shorter form of the PFAI should have been considered. Either the 25-item form (Conroy et al., 2004; as cited by Wright et al., 2009; as cited

by Sagar et al., 2009) or the five-item short form (Conroy, 2009; Conroy et al., 2009; as cited by Wright et al., 2009). The second delimitation was the sample size. For a study where the participants would be subgrouped, a larger number is required to reveal significance when present. Another delimitation was the different characteristics of the two schools; different educational orientations – French system versus English system - differences in SES was also not taken into account and there may have been a difference in commitment and liability from the students of the different schools towards the research.

The findings in the study can benefit parents, class teacher, counselors and psychologists. Parents would become more aware of how their parenting styles facilitate the increase in their child's level of FF. It would help them reassess these parenting styles; their expectations, punishment and reward incongruence, maternal negative characteristics such as irritability, and a mother's withdrawal of love. It would also help both parents and class teachers, who are supportive of autonomy and competence, facilitate intrinsic motivation, while a controlling context diminishes it. Counselors and psychologists, on the other hand, can help one overcome or reduce their fear of failure, by promoting their success orientation, their self-belief, perceived value – how important or relevant it is to them or their world - and learning focus, which is their focus on the task, on mastering it, developing new skills, and expanding oneself. They should help clients focus on the process, not the outcome. Thus, a key factor in enhancing all these is by building one's intrinsic motivation (Martin, 2003).

For future studies, the researcher suggests a replication of this study, with the activity still being conducted in the absence of an audience, unlike previous research, but with feedback given later to each participant on their IQ test sample activity: One group receiving the feedback in private, while the second group receiving it in the presence of others, where their competence

can now be seen or judged. It would be interesting to investigate the effects of FF and motivation when the behavior of task choice and completion is still being done in private but it is only their feedback that is being given in the presence or absence of others. Another suggestion would be a longitudinal study to test peoples FF at different periods of their lives in childhood, adolescence and adulthood and investigate the effect of age on the FF of those who started off with high FF in childhood, verses those who had low FF.

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Yours in Education

A. Arakelian Merhej

Eline Charfany (full name and surname)

got permission for Mrs. A. Arakelian Merhej to conduct her research at my school.

Mount Lebanon Adventist Secondary School (name of school)

APPENDIX A

April 2011

Letter of Permission

To Whom It May Concern:

Sir /Madam

I am currently completing my Master's Degree in Psychology at Haigazian University. My thesis topic is "**The Effects of Fear of Failure and Motivation on Behavior among High School Students**". To conclude my research findings, I need your assistance.

I request permission to conduct my research at your school. This letter also serves to inform you that all the information gathered from the learners will be used solely for research purposes and that the anonymity of all participants is guaranteed.

Sample of the questionnaire is included.

I trust that you will kindly grant me the consent in conducting my research.

Thanking you in anticipation

Yours in Education

A. Arakelian Merhej

I, Elias Choufany (full name and surname)
 give permission for Mrs. A. Arakelian Merhej to conduct her research at my school,
Marsabit Advertiser Secondary School. (name of school).

April 2011

Letter of Permission

To Whom It May Concern:

Sir /Madam

I am currently completing my Master's Degree in Psychology at Haigazian University. My thesis topic is "**The Effects of Fear of Failure and Motivation on Behavior among High School Students**". To conclude my research findings, I need your assistance.

I request permission to conduct my research at your school. This letter also serves to inform you that all the information gathered from the learners will be used solely for research purposes and that the anonymity of all participants is guaranteed.

Sample of the questionnaire is included.

I trust that you will kindly grant me the consent in conducting my research.

Thanking you in anticipation

Yours in Education

A. Arakelian Merhej

I, Dikran Tinbashian, principal (full name and surname)
 give permission for Mrs. A. Arakelian Merhej to conduct her research at my school,
M. and H. Arslanian College (name of school).

Arakelian



APPENDIX B

Name: _____

Greetings,

Thank you for taking the time to fill-in the following information about yourself, in addition to the two questionnaires and activities provided.

**Thank you for being a part of
this research study**

• WAI questionnaires – page 3 & 4

• Activity – page 5

• SMS questionnaires – page 6

Demographic Information

Age: _____

Gender: M / F

Nationality: _____

Religion: Christian / Muslim / Druze / other (specify) _____

Location: _____

**To make sure that all results are valid,
please complete each page before turning
to the next one.**

Grade Level / Class: _____

APPENDIX C

Date: _____

Greetings,

Thank you for taking the time to fill-in the following information about yourself, in addition to the two questionnaires and activities provided.

- Demographic and Academic Information – page 2
- PFAI questionnaire – page 3 & 4
- Activity – page 5
- SIMS questionnaire – page 6

Demographic Information

Age: _____

Gender: M / F

Nationality: _____

Religion: Christian / Muslim / Druze / other (specify) _____

Languages

Circle the languages you comprehend and speak

*Arabic *English *French *other (specify) _____

Which of the above is your language of preference? _____

Academic Information

Location/Area of School: _____

Grade Level (Class): _____

APPENDIX D

The Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory (PFAI)

Read each statement below and think of *how often you believe each is true* in your performance domain (e.g., sports, academics). Use the rating scale below to indicate how much you believe each statement applies to you.

RATING SCALE

-2	-1	0	+1	+2
Do not believe at all		Believe 50% of the time		Completely believe

1. When I am failing, I lose respect for myself.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
2. When I am failing, it is often because I am not smart enough to perform successfully.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
3. When I am failing, my future seems uncertain.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
4. When I am failing, I am afraid that I won't be allowed to try again.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
5. When I am failing, it upsets important others.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
6. When I am failing, I doubt that I am as good as I thought I was.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
7. When I am failing, I blame my lack of talent.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
8. When I am failing, I believe that my future plans will change.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
9. When I am failing, I am hopeful because I know that I can still accomplish what I want to accomplish in this area.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
10. When I am failing, I expect to be criticized by important others.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
11. When I am not succeeding, it bothers me that I was too confident before performing.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
12. When I am failing, I am afraid that I might not have enough talent.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
13. When I am failing, it upsets my "plan" for the future.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
14. When I am failing, I feel like I am losing a great opportunity to accomplish something.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
15. When I am failing, I lose the trust of people who are important to me.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
16. When I am not succeeding, I am less valuable than when I succeed.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
17. When I am failing, it is rarely because I am not good enough.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
18. When I am failing, I have a plan for recovering.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
19. When I am not succeeding, people are less interested in me.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2

20. When I am failing, I let down people who depend on me.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
21. When I am not succeeding, I still feel good about myself.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
22. When I am failing, I wish I could control more of my performance.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
23. When I am failing, I am not worried about it affecting my future plans.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
24. When I am not succeeding, people seem to want to help me less.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
25. When I am failing, important others are not happy.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
26. When I am not succeeding, I get down on myself easily.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
27. When I am failing, I hate the fact that I am not in control of the outcome.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
28. When I am not succeeding, people tend to leave me alone.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
29. When I am failing, important others still appreciate me.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
30. When I am failing, it is embarrassing if others are there to see it.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
31. When I am not succeeding, it is because too many factors are out of my control.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
32. When I am not succeeding, I can tell that some people avoid me.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
33. When I am failing, important others are disappointed.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
34. When I am failing, I believe that everybody knows I am failing.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
35. When I am not succeeding, I still feel completely in control of my performance.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
36. When I am not succeeding, some people are not interested in me anymore.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
37. When I am failing, important people think less of me.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
38. When I am failing, I believe that my doubters feel that they were right about me.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
39. When I am not succeeding, my value decreases for some people.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
40. When I am failing, I worry about what others think about me.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
41. When I am failing, I worry that others may think I am not trying.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2

In this current study, the choice of behavior box above was placed right below the PPA.

APPENDIX E

Choose ONE of the Visual IQ Test which you would like to participate in, either A, B or C, then rate:

The upcoming activity is a Visual IQ Test.

Indicate on a rating scale from 1 (*very likely*) to 4 (*not likely at all*) as to how inclined you are to participate in such an activity?

1	2	3	4
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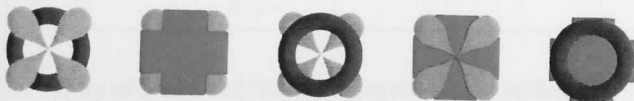
* In this current study, the choice of behavior box above was placed right below the PFAI.

APPENDIX F

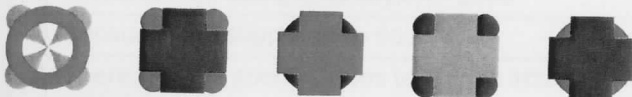
Choose ONE of the Visual IQ Test which you would like to pursue by circling the letter A, B or C, then solve.

Please, do not attempt to solve more than one test after selection, even if you are unable to solve it.

A. Easy



Which picture below would continue the row above?

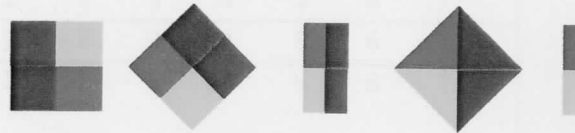


S U P R A

B. Moderate

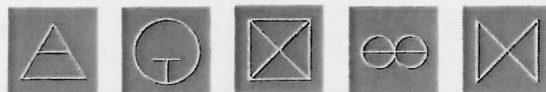
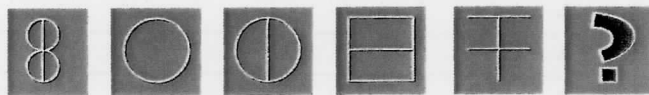


is to one of these. Which one?



D R I V

C. Difficult



L A U G H

Which code prolongs the sequence?

APPENDIX G

The Situational Motivation Scale (SIMS)

Read each item carefully. Using the scale below, please circle the number that best describes the reason why you are currently engaged in this activity (Visual IQ Test).

Answer each item according to the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not all	A very little	A little	Moderately	Enough	A lot	Exactly

Why are you currently engaged in this activity?

1. Because I think that this activity is interesting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Because I am doing it for my own good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Because I am supposed to do it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. There may be good reasons to do this activity, but personally I don't see any	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Because I think that this activity is pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Because I think that this activity is good for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Because it is something that I have to do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I do this activity but I am not sure if it is worth it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Because this activity is fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. By personal decision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Because I don't have any choice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I don't know; I don't see what this activity brings me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Because I feel good when doing this activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Because I believe that this activity is important for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Because I feel that I have to do it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I do this activity, but I am not sure it is a good thing to pursue it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX H

The Self-Determined Continuum Showing Types of Motivation with Their Regulatory Styles, Loci of Causality, and Corresponding Processes

