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**The Role of Fear of Failure in Goal Pursuit and, the Utilization of Defensive
Pessimism and Self-Handicapping Strategies**

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THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

Table of Contents

| | |
|--|-------|
| Abstract..... | 5 |
| Introduction..... | 6-20 |
| Methodology..... | 20-24 |
| Participants..... | 19-20 |
| Measures..... | 21-24 |
| Procedures..... | 24 |
| Data Analysis..... | 24 |
| Results..... | 24-28 |
| Discussion..... | 28-33 |
| References..... | 34-40 |
| Appendices..... | 41-58 |
| Appendix A – Information Sheet and Consent Form..... | 41-42 |
| Appendix B – Questionnaires..... | 43-49 |
| Appendix C – Output of Data Analysis | 50-58 |

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THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

ABSTRACT

Negative emotions are seen as feelings that is need to be avoided, however they are also part of a normal human life as much as positive emotions. Humans need to accept and experience their negative feelings in order to protect their well-being. Especially, fear of failure is generally known as a negative emotion which inhibits to realize life goals. However according to some researches, fear of failure has a positive impact on pursuit of goal achievement. The main purpose of this study is to explore how fear of failure has a positive role on goal pursuit and; utilization of defensive pessimism as a cognitive strategy while dealing with fear of failure; and how self-handicapping may help individuals for their goal achievement in spite of their fear of failure. The main hypothesis is that there is a positive relationship between both fear of failure and defensive pessimism; fear of failure and self-handicapping. Two hundred twenty - nine higher education students from Bangor university participated for this research study. The data was collected via online questionnaires which measures fear of failure, self-handicapping, life satisfaction and defensive pessimism. Basic demographic information was also collected. Linear regression was used in order to analyse relationship between scores. According to results, the “satisfaction with life” score by the “fear of failure” score was overall significant and there is a significant negative relationship between these two scores. The “defensive pessimism” score by the “fear of failure” score was overall significant and there is a significant positive relationship between the two scores. The “self-handicapping” score by the “fear of failure” score was overall significant and there is a significant positive relationship between the two scores. In conclusion, main hypothesis of this study was confirmed.

Keywords: defensive pessimism, fear of failure, self-handicapping, goal pursuit

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

The Role of Fear of Failure in Goal Pursuit and, the Utilization of Defensive Pessimism and Self-Handicapping Strategies

There is a general perception about positive psychology that people need to focus on positive sides of life to eradicate all problems. It is always perceived that thinking and behaving positively is always beneficial for humans to achieve their optimum success whereas negative feelings are seen as destructive factors which are needed to be completely avoided in order to achieve goals. However, it is just a misunderstanding to believe that humans only experience positive emotions in order to protect their well-being and to pursue their life goals. In today's world, people have convinced the idea that avoiding from negative emotions and being optimistic is the only way for their psychological well-being and to achieve their life goals. For instance, early hedonistic theories defend that "pleasure seeking is a main motivator of human behaviour" (Veenhoven, 2013) which means negative emotions and feelings must be got rid of in order to reach optimum success in goal pursuit. However, there are also evidences which support that negative emotions have greater benefits for people to help them in order to achieve their optimum functioning. Kashdan and Biswas - Diener (2014) also claimed that negative emotions are more pragmatic than positive ones, especially based on scientific evidences. For instance, according to the evolutionary perspective, negative emotions nudge people to survive by helping them to increase their realization towards threats and dangers. Nesse (1990) claims that all emotions especially negative ones are specialized conditions for humans and formed by natural selection which redounds the ability to cope and respond threats. On the other hand, trying to avoid from experiencing negative emotions may cause worst results for human wellness because suppressing negative emotions may result in distortion of psychological well-being. According to Gross and John (2003), Impett et al. (2012), and Nezlek and Kuppens

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

(2008) “suppression has been linked with personal costs, including lower emotional well-being and self-esteem” (as cited in Le & Impett, 2016). Therefore, people may show some clinical symptoms such as suicidal thoughts, drug addiction or excessive consumption of alcohol and food as a result of suppression of their negative emotions to cope with its costs. Thus, avoiding from negative emotions may cause a reduction in psychological adaptation. Additionally, negative emotions are natural expressions of our daily lives as much as positive ones (Chia & Saxer, 2009). People need to naturally express their fear, anger and sadness as a consequence of their daily experience in order to protect their mental well-being and successfully achieve their goals. Especially fear of failure is one of the most common negative emotion which is experienced in daily life. Despite the fact that fear of failure is perceived as a threat to the achievement of goals, it may actually play a role as a motivator for goal pursuit. On this basis, it may be claimed that being pessimist may not always be harmful, on the contrary people may benefit from their pessimist feelings. Humphreys (1996) also looks it from a different perspective by claiming that “there is no such thing as negative thinking, rather I believe that people creatively develop protective patterns of thinking to reduce the possibility of further hurt, humiliation and rejection” (p. 12). In other words, the reason of why some people show pessimistic approach on their way to achieve their goals successfully may be to deal with their fear of failure.

In general, fear which is defined as a negative emotion, can be divided into three categories: First category includes fears that happen and fears that need actions such as fear of aging and fear of public speaking; the second category comprises fears that are involved in “*inner states of mind*” rather than situation oriented fears such as fear of failure or fear of rejection; and third category refers to fear of inability to handle with all

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

of these fears (Jeffers, 2013). As a consequence of their fears, humans may restrain themselves about showing their real potential in order to protect their self-worth. However, Jeffers (2013) claimed that even though some fears are destructive for self-growth, some of them are instinctual and beneficial which help people to keep them alert for troubles. On this basis, fear of failure may be accepted as a beneficial fear for some individuals as a negative emotion.

Fear of failure can be defined as a feeling that is shaped as a result of self-evaluation about how individuals describe and experience failure while they are achieving their goals (Heckhausen, 1991; as cited in McGregor & Elliot, 2005). McClellan et al. (1953) conceptualized fear of failure “as the motive to avoid failure as opposed the motive to achieve success” (as cited in Cacciotti, Hayton, Mitchell & Giazitzoglu, 2015, p.304) in the literature of psychology. On the basis of these conceptualizations, fear of failure also may be described as the tendency for avoiding from failure (Atinkson, 1966) and “the capacity or propensity to experience shame upon failure” (Atkinson, 1957, p. 360; as cited in McGregor & Elliot, 2005, p.218). Therefore, the reason of why individuals experience fear of failure may be explained as to desire to protect themselves from negative consequences of failure such as humiliation and to reach positive consequences of success by avoiding from failing at a task (Cacciotti, Hayton, Mitchell & Giazitzoglu, 2015). Besides that, according to Atkinson (1957; as cited in Martin & Marsh 2003), fear of failure should be linked with the need for achievement and on this basis, individuals can be divided into three different groups as individuals that are failure accepting, individuals that are success oriented and individuals that are failure avoidant. However, Covington & Omelich (1991; as cited in Martin & Marsh 2003) changed this achievement theory into a two-

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

dimensional model which only focus on avoidance from failure and achievement of success. On this basis, Martin (1998) divided students who have fear of failure into two categories as: overstrivers who have the disposition to deal with fear of failure by succeeding and working hard, and who are high on orientation of success and avoidance from failure; and self – protectors who intend to avoid consequences of failure rather than avoid from failure itself, and who are low on orientation of success and high on avoidance from failure (as cited in Martin & Marsh, 2003). Self-protectors use two main strategies to avoid from consequences of failure which are known as self-handicapping and defensive pessimism strategies (Martin & Marsh, 2003). Self-handicapping is a strategy that aims to protect self-esteem towards failure by creating obstacles and excuses for possibility of not to succeed a task; thus, people who use self-handicapping strategy will feel good in the both event of failure or success (Jones & Berglas, 1978; as cited in Elliot & Church, 2003). Defensive pessimism is another strategy which aims to protect self – worth by keeping their expectations lower than their real potential about succeeding a task and by only thinking about worst scenarios for the current task (Norem & Cantor, 1986b); and also “defensive pessimist uses his/her anxiety about potential failure to fuel efforts to do well” (Norem & Cantor, 1986b; Showers, 1992; as cited in Elliot & Church, 2003). From the perspective of this theory, it can be obviously seen that experiencing fear of failure may cause positive outcomes in terms of protection of self-worth and achieving goals. According to the research of Conroy (2004), it was also found that there is a positive relationship between fear of failure and achievement of goals. Humphreys (1996) explains the fear of failure by connecting the thought that “not wanting to make a fool of yourself or let yourself down in front of others or make a laughing stock of yourself and; the need to be liked, accepted, valued

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

and loved by others” (p. 71). Humphreys (1996) also adds that fear of failure plays a protective role by leading individuals to avoidance by pushing them not to take a risk in order to avoid from failing and; compensatory behaviours by pushing them to work hard in order to prevent failure. According to research that is conducted by Bartels and Ryan (2013), fear of failure is positively related with the goal of achievement. Thus, fear of failure can be directly interacted with success in goal achievement. On this basis, fear of failure may have a positive impact on success. For example, fear of failing in an exam causes stress on students and therefore students study more to cope with their fear of failure. However, if students have no fear about passing an exam, then they may not focus on studying and get lower grades. According to research that was done by Singh and Thukral (2009), lower level of stress which is aroused as a consequence of fear of failure increases the academic success, especially in difficult examinations.

Defensive pessimism is one of the strategies that was used in order to deal with implications of fear of failure. Norem (2001) defined defensive pessimism as a cognitive strategy which is used to deal with anxious thoughts instead of denying them in order to achieve their goals. According to Norem and Chang (2002) defensive pessimism is more related with positive results when it is compared with dispositional pessimism and; both optimism and unrealistic optimism cause more negative results than dispositional optimism. However, it should be indicated that dispositional optimism and dispositional pessimism are not classified as strategy. “The term dispositional optimism and dispositional pessimism describe those stable tendencies toward either positive or negative expectations” (Norem, 2001; p. 23). Davidson and Prkachin (1997, as cited in Norem & Chang, 2002) conducted a research about how unrealistic optimism and dispositional optimism are related with the prediction of

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

outcomes that is linked with coronary heart diseases. Research outcomes show that participants who have both optimistic and unrealistic optimistic perspectives exhibited the largest decline in exercise whereas participants who have only strong optimistic perspective but lower unrealistic optimistic perspective exhibited the largest increase in exercise. Consequently, “this study makes clear that the distinctions among different kinds of optimism and pessimism are consequential, all optimism is not equally beneficial” (Norem & Chang, 2002, p.995).

Norem (2001) defends that, the reason of why defensive pessimist individuals is able to perform well while achieving a task despite their pessimistic feelings is actually their pessimism. Their pessimism is not debilitating, on the contrary defensive pessimism comprises a huge procedure by which negative thinking convert anxiety and fears into action (Norem, 2011). Therefore, it is a fundamental mistake to propose optimism for everyone because, all people cannot have same psyches to use same strategies during a task (Norem, 2001). For instance; some people may feel anxious while engaging a job, others may feel more comfortable and therefore people who experience anxiety need a strategy to control effectively their fears whereas people who do not experience anxiety regularly need to keep these fears out (Norem, 2001).

Defensive pessimism is always compared and contrasted with strategic optimism. However, these two strategies are totally different from each other. Strategic optimism is a strategy that people determine high expectations while starting to an important task and event; and avoid to reflect about on how current task and event will shape (Spencer & Norem, 1996). Higher levels of neuroticism and trait anxiety with lower self-esteem are notified by defensive pessimistic individuals than strategic optimistic individuals; besides that, strategic optimistic individuals notify fewer conflicts about their life goals

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

and produce less negative consequences and plans than defensive pessimist individuals. (Cantor, Norem, Niedenthal, Langston, & Brower, 1987; Norem, 2001; Norem & Cantor, 1986a; Norem & Illingworth, 1993; Sanna, 1996; as cited in Norem, 2008 p. 124, 125). On this basis, people generally believe that strategic optimism is always more pragmatic when it is compared with defensive pessimism; moreover, people learn about how to espouse strategic optimism from different books which means that authors usually do not present benefits of negative thinking (Norem, 2001). However, Norem (2008) change this perception by claiming that most of the time, individuals who use defensive pessimistic strategy show a good performance as much as those who use strategic optimism on the basis of performance results. In addition to that defensive pessimistic individuals are fed from their fear of avoidance and therefore they show higher performance on specific performance oriented tasks (Norem, 2008). Defensive pessimism does not turn people's anxiety into depression; on the contrary it helps people to convert their anxiety into motivation by aiding them to reach their optimum functioning (Norem, 2001). The main point is that defensive pessimism and strategic optimism are two different strategies which address a different kind of individuals by distinguishing them as anxious and non-anxious for particular tasks, respectively. In other words; defensive pessimist individuals perform better if they can imagine negative outcomes of a task whereas strategic optimist individuals perform better, if they can avoid to imagine negative outcomes of the same task (Norem & Chang, 2002)

According to Norem (2001a), assessment of two domain specific tendencies which are named as the tendency to be pessimistic and the tendency to engage in reflection identifies defensive pessimist individuals and; these two domain specific propensities can be described as: to suspect about someone's ability to show a good performance on

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

a specific task or event and; to make plans about a particular event by imagining possibilities about what will go wrong or right and how to make feel to show a good or bad performance on this event, respectively. (as cited in Gasper, Lozinski & Lebeau, 2009, p. 203). In addition to that Gasper et al. (2009) also supports that tendency of defensive pessimist individuals towards reflecting or planning abolishes the negative effects of pessimism with the help of encouraging achievement of goals by understanding the vitality of goals and supporting efforts (as cited in RoyChowdhury, 2016, p.320).

Using defensive pessimism may bring crucial benefits in terms of goal pursuit. First of all, Norem (2001) claims that defensive pessimism is a way to organize good plans in order to reach ultimate goals. Especially, defensive pessimism strategy may help anxious people in order to prepare their plans better. The reason is that anxious people cannot be successful about doing effective plans before they manage their anxiety; they needed to think about worst – case scenarios and go through with comprehensive mental practice about these scenarios in order to begin planning process and carrying out these plans (Norem, 2001, p.48). On this basis, it can be said that defensive pessimism may be beneficial for especially anxious people to succeed their goals by helping them for showing their best performance. Norem and Chung (2002) also adds that defensive pessimism can be a helpful strategy for anxious individuals to control their anxiety and therefore their anxiety does not affect their performance. In addition to that, defensive pessimist individuals prefer to experience their anxiety instead of denying it; and they may also exacerbate their feeling of anxiety even though they know that everything will be wrong for them (Norem, 2001). Norem (2001) also defends that defensive pessimist individuals have a hope of success, in contrast to

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

traditional pessimist individuals. Even though hope is actually known as an optimistic feeling, its meaning composes of “pathways” and “agency”. (Norem, 2001). “High hope people are those who can get themselves to act, which is agency, and have the ability to think of pathways toward their goals” (Norem, 2001; p.111). Norem (2001) compares pathways thinking with mental rehearsal, that is used by defensive pessimist individuals, which helps to enhance defensive pessimist individuals’ sense of agency. On the other hand, there are also several drawbacks of using defensive pessimism strategy. The first drawback is about how other people react defensive pessimist individuals’ attitudes: For instance; people can judge their competency by thinking that they will not succeed their task because of their fear of failure (Norem, 2001). Additionally, Norem, (2001) noticed that when people were asked about to identify what they feared to become in one of her research, defensive pessimist individuals answered it as being boring and annoying for others. Another drawback may be that “defensive pessimism can produce fatigue and emotional variability and some deleterious long-term consequences of this strategy have been identified, including decreased life satisfaction, an eventual drop in performance level, and feelings of hopelessness and worry” (Cantor & Norem, 1989; Norem & Cantor, 1990; as cited in Elliot & Church, 2003).

Defensive pessimist individuals have an ability to perform well in different tasks by using reflection in spite of their pessimism. Reflection has a relation with planning and endeavour and therefore reflection may help defensive pessimists by encouraging them to achieve their goals (Gasper et al., 2009). Spencer and Norem (1996) also claimed that “reflecting before an upcoming performance had positive effects on defensive pessimists’ performance only when they were thinking about possible negative

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

outcomes” (as cited in Lim, 2009; p. 319). Martin et al. (2001a, b; 2003a) supported idea by suggesting three characteristics that is linked with reflection which leads to encourage succeeding achievement of goals : Firstly, reflection is mostly related to desire to success of goals rather than avoiding from failures; secondly, reflection is related with higher amount of self-regulation which leads individuals to control themselves in order to accomplish their goals; and thirdly, reflection is related with persistence even though individuals encountered with failure (as cited in Gasper et al., 2009). So, Gasper et al. (2009) clarifies that “reflection promotes goal pursuit within the defensive pessimistic process by increasing goal importance, fostering effort, elevating initial performance expectations, and leading individuals to anticipate that it would be easier to emotionally recover from an expected, rather than unexpected, failure” (p. 205). In addition to that, Baumeister, Vohs (2004) and Hoyle (2006, as cited in Norem, 2008) illustrate that defensive pessimism is a type of strategy that can be also named as the self- regulatory strategy which aims to help individuals regulate and control themselves for the purpose of achieving their goals. Norem (2001) confirms that unexpected disappointments are more difficult to tolerate than expected disappointments even though they are both unpleasant situations because, knowing expectations about particular situations - no matter how much worst is it – makes people to feel more in control. Setting low expectations, as a procedure of defensive pessimism strategy, function as “cognitive cushion” which protects individuals from negative effects of failure at a specific work or task by both preparing them for worst consequences and leading them to continue to working on their current task to achieve their goals (Norem, 2001). Norem (2001) also refers that using defensive pessimism as a strategy also performs as the first step to manage anxiety. Therefore, defensive

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

pessimism may be helpful for people those suffer from fear of failure while they are achieving their goals by managing their anxiety.

According to research that is conducted by Norem (2001), defensive pessimist individuals with negative mood showed better performance in a task whereas defensive pessimist individuals with positive mood showed worse performance on the same task because; defensive pessimist individuals may not draw an advantage from strategies such as being optimistic, trying to be calm and thinking more positively in order to increase their performance. In this research, it was aimed to test that is there any possibility to change the negative mood of defensive pessimist individuals into positive and to explore that is this change will have an effect on task performance. As a result of the test, it was seen that it is possible to change the negative mood of defensive pessimist individual by manipulating moods, but it will also cause that defensive pessimist individuals will show worse performance on the same task. In this context, it can be said that, negative mood of defensive pessimist individuals can be changed, but it will cost their following performance. “Defensive pessimism helps anxious people perform better, and attempts to interfere with any part of their strategy messes up their performance” (Norem 2001, p. 51).

Perry, Stupnisky, Daniels and Haynes (2008) claimed that “attributional (explanatory) thinking involves an appraisal of factors contributing to the success and failure outcomes and is regarded as instrumental to motivation and goal striving in achievement settings” (p. 459). Therefore, attributional style of an individual may play a role in their perception of being optimistic or pessimistic. Norem (2001) discussed that typical patterns of attributions that people have can be pessimistic or optimistic due

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

to difference their method of reflection of their interpretation of the past or our predictions about the future; however, she found that strategic optimists show an optimistic attributional style whereas defensive pessimists do not show classic pessimistic style.

Self-handicapping is another strategy that is used by anxious individuals in order to deal with their fears and worries. Self-handicapping is a strategy which mainly aims to protect self-esteem of individuals when they are faced with a failure. This strategy is used by anxious people as defensive pessimism when these individuals start to feel anxious about showing a performance for a particular task even though they have enough capacity to complete this task (Üzar Özçetin & Hiçdurmaz, 2016). Berglas and Jones (1978) described self-handicapping as “any action or choice of performance setting that enhances the opportunity to externalize (or excuse) failure and to internalize (reasonably accept credit for) success” (as cited in Baumeister & Vohs, 2007; p. 830). Thus, it will help individuals to feel good when they both experience failure and success. Additionally, Coudevylle, Gernigon and Martin (2011) also emphasize that individuals who use self-handicapping strategy have a tendency to connect their failure with handicaps that were experienced during the performance rather than their ability. In other words, self-handicapper individuals tend to blame circumstances for the failure and praise their ability for the success. For instance; “the lack of effort is seen as the cause and not the individual's lack of ability” (Martin, Marsh & Debus, 2001; p.587). On this basis, “self-handicapping both protects the person from the implications of failure and enhances the success if one should succeed despite the handicap” (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007; p. 830).

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

Leary and Shepperd (1986) discussed that self-handicapping strategy is distinguished into two different strategies which are named as self-reported (claimed) self-handicapping and behavioural self-handicapping. Individuals who use behavioural self-handicapping strategy usually shows some behaviours such as not working enough for their tasks, showing some physical symptoms (for example, to make themselves sick purposely), and being interested in with different agendas whereas individuals who use self-reported (claimed) self-handicapping strategy generally shows psychological symptoms such as anxiety, stress and exhaustion which is referred verbally (Üzar Özçetin & Hiçdurmaz, 2016). Therefore, it can be concluded that behavioural self-handicapping strategies include more active and clear acts but, self-reported (claimed) self-handicapping strategies consist more passive and implicit acts (Hendrix & Hirt, 2009; as cited in Üzar Özçetin & Hiçdurmaz, 2016).

Even though self-handicapping strategy has potential short-term benefits for individuals' self-worth by giving an opportunity them to present an excuse for their failure, it may have also long-term drawbacks. According to Berglas and Jones (1978), self-handicapping causes a reduction in motivation and life satisfaction, increase on use of alcohol and drug and, some somatic symptoms in long term duration. However, Ferradás, Freire, Valle & Núñez, (2016) expressed that “behavioural self-handicapping strategies are more maladaptive than claimed self-handicapping, and the first always entails self-sabotage, whereas claimed self-handicapping does not necessarily compromise the individual's performance” (p.2). Self-handicapping strategy seen as protective for self-worth however, it is seen as destructive on achieving success, especially in academic context. However, according to Deppe and Harackiewicz (1996), Tice (1991) and Rhodewalt et al. (1991) “experimental social psychologists have

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

emphasized the potential benefits of self-handicapping, including the reduction of anxiety, protection of self-esteem, augmenting of ability attributions, and enhancement of internal motivation” (as cited in Bailis, 2001; p. 213).

According to Ntoumanis, Taylor and Standage (2010), fear of failure is associated with self-protection strategies which are named as defensive pessimism and self-handicapping strategies in particular performance required situations. Urdan and Midgley (2001) also referred that “the primary motive for engaging in self-handicapping is a fear of failure” (as cited in Ntoumanis, Taylor & Standage, 2010; p.6). Additionally, Elliot and Church (2003) found a positive relationship between both fear of failure and defensive pessimism strategy and; fear of failure and self-handicapping strategy in a study which is conduct to explore in order to test the relationship between achievement goals and cognitive strategies amongst students. Chen, Wu, Kee, Lin and Shui, (2009) claimed that “according to hierarchical model, fear of failure is regarded as a motive, while self-handicapping represents achievement behaviour, and thus, the mechanism that links fear of failure and self-handicapping is the achievement goal” (p.5) On this basis, defensive pessimism can also be adopted as a motive as self-handicapping strategy because, both of these strategies intend to protect self-worth.

In summary, the main aim of the current study is to explore how fear of failure has a positive role in goal pursuit and; utilization of defensive pessimism as a cognitive strategy while dealing with the fear of failure; and how self-handicapping may help individuals for their goal achievement in spite of their fear of failure. Main hypotheses of the current study are there is a positive relationship between both fear of failure and defensive pessimism; there is a positive relationship between fear of failure and self-

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

handicapping and; there is a negative relationship between fear of failure and life satisfaction.

Method

Participants

Two hundred twenty - nine higher education students – which includes undergraduate students and post-graduate students- from Bangor university participated for the current research study as voluntarily. One hundred seventy – nine of participants were female, forty – nine of participants were male. One participant preferred not to say his/her gender. The age of participants was ranged as 18 to 20, 21 to 25, 26 to 30, 31 to 35, 36 to 40 and over 40. Table 1 presents descriptive statistics of those participants.

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Participants

| Demographic | | | |
|----------------|----------------------|-----|------|
| Information of | Category | N | % |
| Participants | | | |
| Gender | Female | 49 | 21,4 |
| | Male | 179 | 78,2 |
| | Preferred not to say | 1 | 0,4 |
| Age | 18 - 20 | 170 | 74,2 |
| | 21 - 25 | 42 | 18,3 |
| | 26 - 30 | 11 | 4,8 |
| | 31 - 35 | 2 | 0,9 |
| | 36 - 40 | 3 | 1,3 |
| | Over 40 | 1 | 0,4 |

Measures

The Satisfaction with Life Scale. The satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin, 1985) was designed in order to measure global satisfaction of life by assessing a person's quality of life. At first, the satisfaction with life scale was prepared with 48 items however, it was decreased into 5 after elimination of affect factors. In this questionnaire, participants were asked about what extent they may agree or disagree with five statements. SWLS consists statements such as "the conditions of my life are excellent" and "if I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing." Participants indicated their agreement via using the 7-point Likert scale that ranges from 1 (which refers strongly disagree) to 7 (which refers strongly agree).

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

Defensive Pessimism Scale. Defensive pessimism scale (DPS; Norem & Cantor, 1986) was used in order to assess who use defensive pessimism and who use strategic optimism for a particular situation. Defensive pessimism scale was first generated with 9 items, however Norem (2001) modified the same scale into 17 items. Participants were indicated to answer items in Defensive Pessimism Scale by thinking about how they are prepared for their academic and social situations. Examples of items that were asked to participants are “I go into these situations expecting the worst, even though I know I will probably do OK”, “when I do well in these situations, it is usually because I didn't get too worried about it beforehand”, and “I often worry, in these situations, that I won't be able to carry through my intentions.” 7- points Likert scale was used in order to score each item. Participants were asked to score 1 (which refers very true of me) to 7 (which refers not at all true of me) for each item. Norem (2001), also notified that defensive pessimism scale has divergent and convergent validity by showing positive correlations between defensive pessimism scale and neuroticism and trait anxiety; and negative correlations between defensive pessimism scale and optimism (as cited in; Lei & Duan, 2015).

The Fear of Failure Scale. The Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory (PFAI; Conroy, 2001) was used in order to measure fear of failure. The Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory (PFAI) is consist of 89 items and was designed in order to measure ten different appraisals which are related to fear of failure. A short version of PFAI with 5 items was used in the current study. In order to assess fear of failure, participants were asked to indicate that what extent they agree with statements that were given. “When I fail, it upsets my” plan” for the future” and when I am failing, I worry about what others think about me” are two example items from the short form

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

of PFAI. 5- point Likert scale was used for assessment of each item. Participants were asked to rate 1 (which refer very slightly or not at all) to 5 (which refers extremely) for each item. Conroy, Willow and Metzler (2002) express that the short version of PFAI is more useful, because it saves time and; it shows strong factorial validity.

Self-handicapping Scale. Self-handicapping Scale (SHS; Jones & Rhodewalt, 1982), which is composed of 25 items, was developed in order to measure propensities of people about to what extent they are using self-handicaps as an illness, delay or lack of effort when they are obliged to show an evaluative performance; and it was also used to evaluate achievement based concerns (as cited in; Martin & Brawley, 1999). Participants were asked to indicate to what extent the statements in self-handicapping scale are true for themselves in current research. Self-handicapping scale (SHS) includes statements such as: “When something important is coming up, like an exam or a job interview, I try to get as much sleep as possible the night before”, “when I do something wrong, my first impulse is to blame circumstances” and “I sometimes enjoy being mildly ill for a day or two because it takes off the pressure.” Participants were asked to score on a 6-point Likert scale that ranges from 0 (which refers disagree very much) to 5(which refers agree very much). Berglas, Higgins and Snyder (1990) confirmed that self-handicapping scale shows the adequate validity and internal consistency.

Procedure

The data was collected via online questionnaires which measure fear of failure, self-handicapping, life satisfaction and defensive pessimism by assuring anonymity and confidentiality. A consent form and a debrief sheet about the study was also provided

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

(see. Appendix A). Basic demographic information was collected from participants.

Participants were asked about age, gender, hometown and year of study.

Data Analysis

The scores for each questionnaire (“fear of failure”, “satisfaction with life”, “defensive pessimism”, and “self-handicapping”) was calculated after calculating missing values (considering the median value) and using reverse coding when it is necessary (see. Table 2). To evaluate whether the “fear of failure” score influenced the other scores (“satisfaction with life”, “defensive pessimism”, and “self-handicapping”), it was run three different linear regressions. In the linear regressions, it was considered “satisfaction with life”, “defensive pessimism”, and “self-handicapping” scores as the dependent variables and the “fear of failure” score as the covariate. SPSS software was used in order to run tests for the data analysis and $p < 0.05$ was considered as the level of significance.

Results

Table 2 presents scores of mean, standard error and confidence interval for the fear of failure, satisfaction with life, defensive pessimism and self-handicapping variables.

Table 2

The table shows descriptive statistics of the scores for “fear of failure”, “satisfaction with life”, “defensive pessimism”, and “self-handicapping”

| | Mean | Standard error | 95 % CI* |
|-----------------|-------------|-----------------------|-----------------|
| fear of failure | 16.59 | 0.31 | 15.97-17.20 |

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

| | | | |
|------------------------|-------|------|-------------|
| satisfaction with life | 22.78 | 0.41 | 21.97-23.59 |
| defensive | 58.62 | 0.78 | 57.08-60.15 |
| pessimism | | | |
| self-handicapping | 67.47 | 0.84 | 65.82-69.12 |

*CI=Confidence Interval

The linear regression describing the “satisfaction with life” score by the “fear of failure” score was overall significant ($F_{1,227}=35.93$, $p<0.001$) and explained 13.7 percent ($R\text{-squared}=0.137$) of the variation of the dependent variable. The linear regression describing the relationship between the two scores was: “satisfaction with life” = $30.84 - 0.49 * \text{“fear of failure”}$. The coefficient of “fear of failure” was significantly different from zero ($t=-5.99$, $p<0.001$). Thus, there is a significant negative relationship between the two scores which is seen in Figure 1.

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

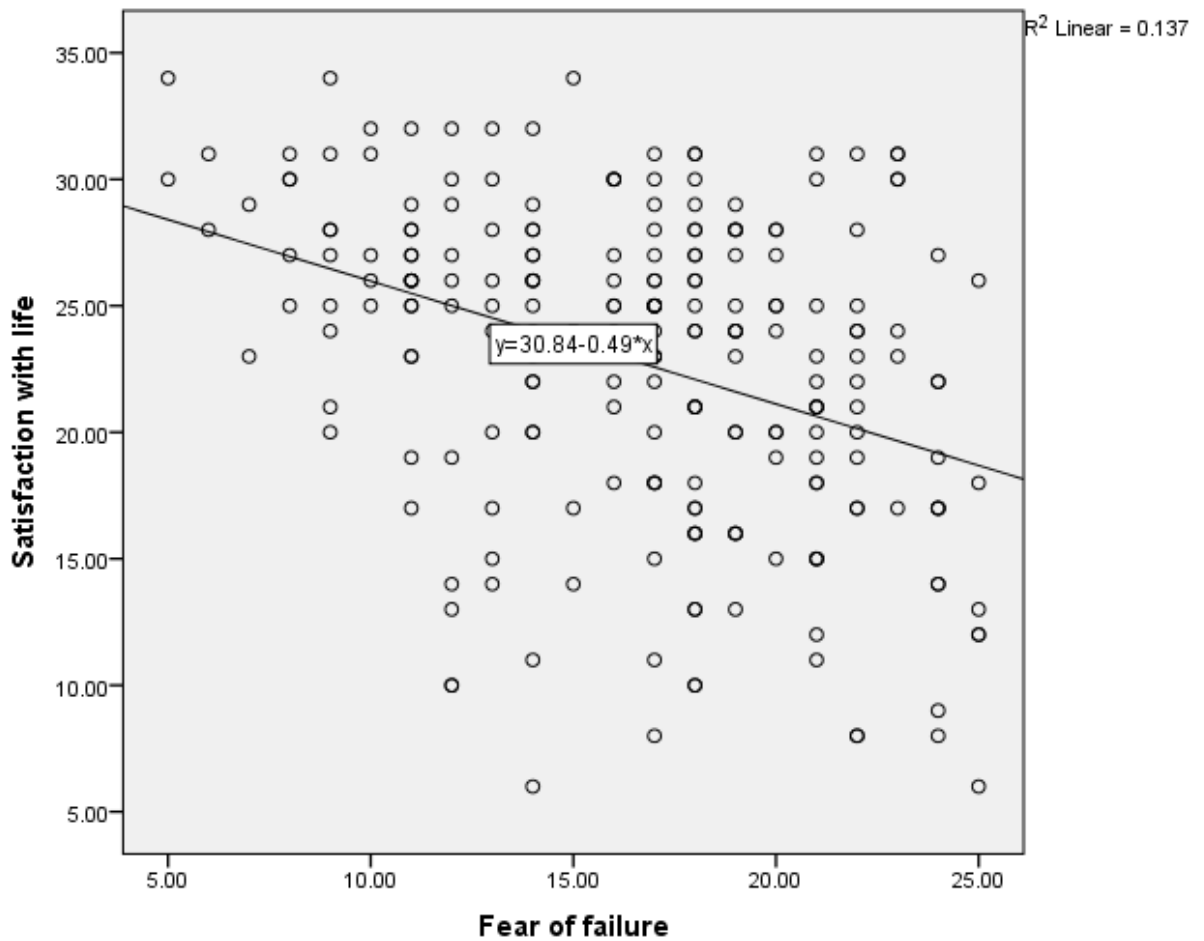


Figure 1. The scatterplot showing the negative linear relationship between “satisfaction with life” score and “fear of failure” score. The fit line and the equation describing the linear relationship are shown.

The linear regression describing the “defensive pessimism” score by the “fear of failure” score was overall significant ($F_{1,227}=74.31$, $p<0.001$) and explained 24.7 percent ($R\text{-squared}=0.247$) of the variation of the dependent variable. The linear regression describing the relationship between the two scores was: “defensive pessimism” = $38.08 + 1.24 * \text{“fear of failure”}$. The coefficient of “fear of failure” was significantly different from zero ($t=8.62$, $p<0.001$). Thus, there is a significant positive relationship between the two scores which is seen in Figure 2.

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

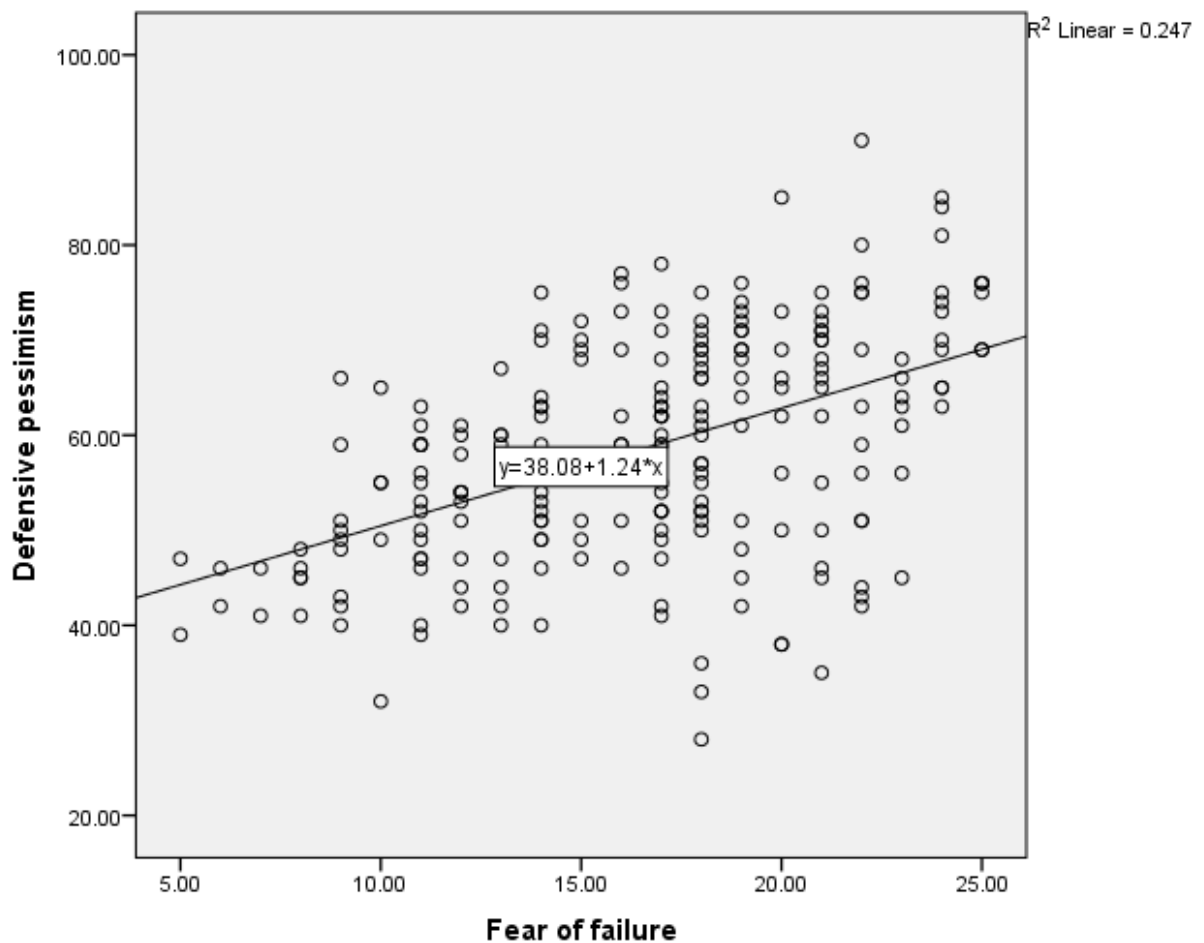


Figure 2. The scatterplot showing the positive linear relationship between “defensive pessimism” score and “fear of failure” score. The fit line and the equation describing the linear relationship are shown.

The linear regression describing the “self-handicapping” score by the “fear of failure” score was overall significant ($F_{1,227}=48.84$, $p<0.001$) and explained 17.7 percent ($R\text{-squared}=0.177$) of the variation of the dependent variable. The linear regression describing the relationship between the two scores was: “self-handicapping” = $48.82 + 1.13 * \text{“fear of failure”}$. The coefficient of “fear of failure” was significantly different

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

from zero ($t=6.99$, $p<0.001$). Thus, there is a significant positive relationship between the two scores which is seen in Figure 3.

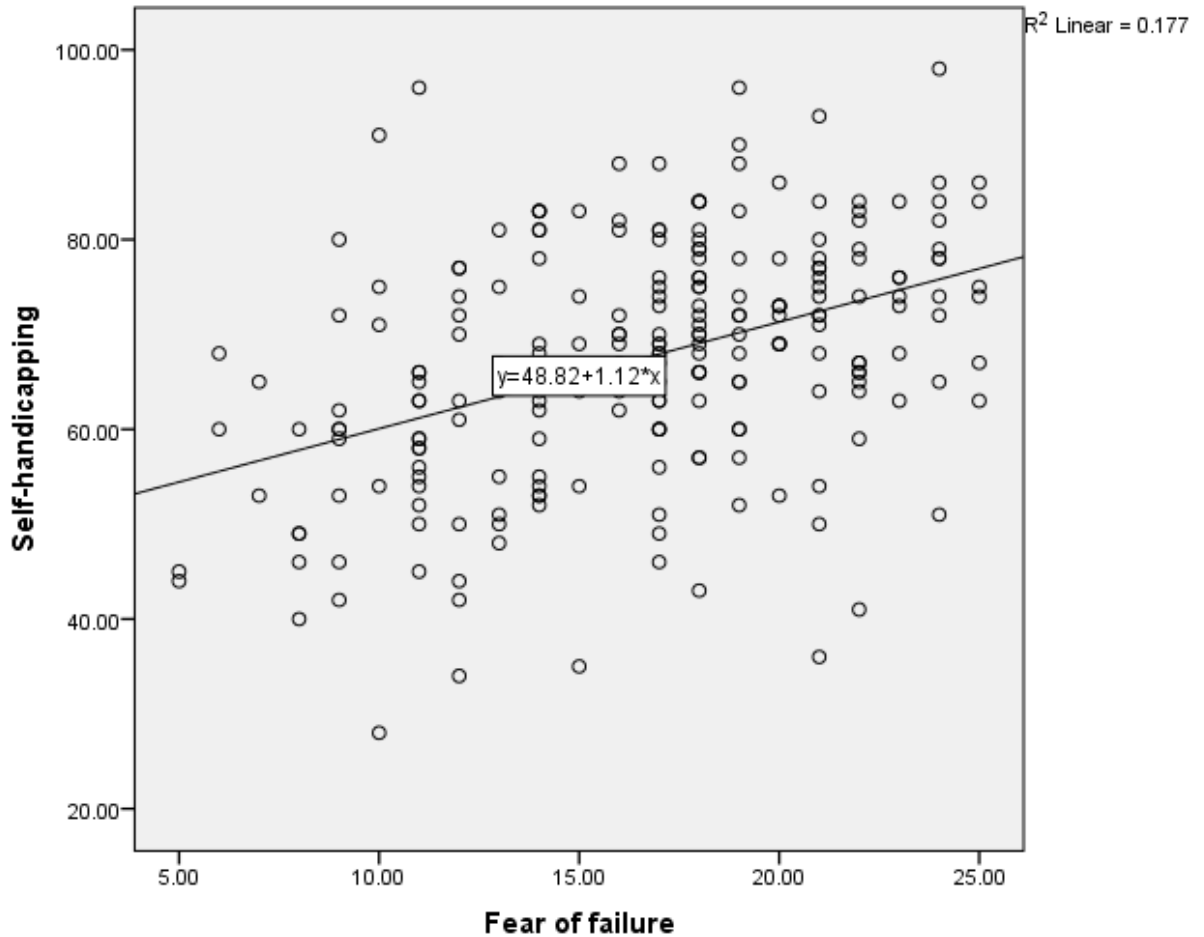


Figure 3. The scatterplot showing the positive linear relationship between “self-handicapping” score and “fear of failure” score. The fit line and the equation describing the linear relationship are shown.

Discussion

The present study investigates that how fear of failure can be an efficient way in order to achieve life goals and how cognitive strategies such as defensive pessimism and self-handicapping may play a role in the goal pursuit while dealing with the fear of failure. The main hypothesis of the current study was that there is a positive

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

relationship between both fear of failure and defensive pessimism; fear of failure and self-handicapping. The findings of current study present that fear of failure has a negative association with life satisfaction of individuals however, it has a positive association with defensive pessimism strategy and self-handicapping strategy. Therefore, the main hypothesis of the current study was confirmed.

The finding of life satisfaction has a negative relationship with fear of failure was also expected, because experiencing fear of failure may cause negative effects on human well-being and therefore it causes a decrease in humans' life satisfaction concurrently. Sagar, Lavalley and Spray (2009) supported this finding by claiming that "the experience of fear of failure leads to heightened negative cognition and affect" (as cited in Anttila, 2017; p. 22). In addition to that Conroy (2001) expressed that experiencing a high level of fear of failure cause negative physiological and psychological problems such as eating disorders, depression and embarrassment (as cited in Sagar, Lavalley & Spray, 2009). Therefore, it is obviously seen that people who experience fear of failure will lose their satisfaction of life due to consequences of fear of failure. Even though fear of failure has a negative impact on the satisfaction of life, it has benefits on goal pursuit and protection of self-worth. For instance, Humphreys (1996) refers that fear of failure serves as a protective factor because it leads people to work hard in order not make mistake or fail in a task; and therefore, they will also protect themselves from possible humiliation in front of others. On the other hand, Elliot and Church (1997) claims that "some individuals might seek achievement as a result of wanting to avoid failure" (as cited in Chen, Wu, Kee, Lin & Shui, 2009; p. 6). Therefore, fear of failure can also be helpful to achieve performance oriented goals.

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

The finding of current study about that defensive pessimism strategy is positively associated with fear of failure confirms the idea that defensive pessimism strategy is an effective way to deal with the fear of failure for particular individuals while they are trying to pursue their goals successfully. Higgins (2005) supported this idea by referring that “defensive pessimists have developed a strategy that meshes well with their dual motivation to avoid failure (a prevention focus), while pursuing achievement” (as cited in Norem, 2008; p. 130). Norem (2001) defends that defensive pessimism strategy help to learn how to tolerate negative emotions such as fear of failure in order to pursue goals by confronting individuals with those feeling rather than leading them into passive wallowing in their fear of failure. Defensive pessimist individuals take advantage from their pessimism when they faced with a situation where they experience fear of failure and they use their fears as a tool to achieve their goals. A defensive pessimist cannot be successful on a performance based task by thinking positive as strategic optimists, because they have to keep their expectations low and think about the worst consequence in order to control their fear of failure. Additionally, thinking about worst-case scenarios may play as a motivator role for defensive pessimist individuals who experience fear of failure and lead them to work hard on their tasks. And therefore, “negative thinking is positive psychology when it helps, as defensive pessimism does, people achieve their goals” (Norem, 2001; p. 13). On this basis, it is possible to say that defensive pessimism does not serve as a destructive factor for people who experience fear of failure while achieving their tasks, but it serves as a constructive factor for some people by both protecting their self-worth and leading them to success.

The finding of current study about that self-handicapping strategy has positively associated with fear of failure confirms the idea that self-handicapping strategy is

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

efficient while dealing negative consequences of fear of failure. De Castella, Byrne and Covington (2013) also supported this idea by claiming that fear of failure functions as a “driving force behind the range of self-handicapping strategies” which serves as an excuse and explanation for people who show poor outcomes, especially in the academic situations. (p. 15). In addition to that Snyder and Smith (1982) also expressed that self-handicapping strategy help individuals to protect themselves towards negative comments of others when they faced with failure. Therefore, people who experience fear of failure prefer to use self- handicapping strategy to cope with failure itself. Despite the fact that self- handicapping strategy is useful while dealing with the fear of failure in order to protect self-worth, it is always perceived as an interruptive factor for the achievement of success. According to Rhodewalt (1994), Urdan and Midgley (2001), “for self-handicappers, it is likely that performance approach goals primarily represent the aim of impressing or appearing competent to others, rather than the aim of attaining normative competence” (as cited in Elliot & Church, 2003; p. 389). However; even though there is no specific research in the literature about how self-handicapping can be useful for goal pursuit, there are some findings which show that self-handicapping strategy makes easier to achieve goals for individuals who have fear of failure. For instance, Snyder (1990) proposed a rationale about performance benefits of self-handicapping strategy by claiming that self-handicapping strategy help individuals to focus on their particular work rather than focusing on possible distracting self-relevant factors by decreasing the influence of bad performance on self-evaluation (as cited in Zuckerman, Kieffer & Knee, 1998; p.1620). On this basis, people especially who have fear of failure (and therefore the fear of humiliation) may more easily achieve their short-term goals, because they can focus on their tasks without thinking about their

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

fear of failure. There is also some evidence suggest that some people who use self-handicapping strategy show better performance on a task while achieving their goals. For instance, Kim, Lee and Hong (2012) suggests that “individuals who employ a self-handicap when future success is uncertain tend to perform better on a subsequent task than those who persevere in the face of uncertainty” (as cited in Wusik, 2015; p. 13). In addition to that earlier theorists defends that improvement on the performance of an self-handicapper individual could be seen as a consequence of the reduction in their anxiety and empowerment of their management strategy (Harris & Snyder, 1986; Luginbuhl & Palmer, 1991, as cited in Wusik, 2015).

Even though the current study presents significant outcomes, there were several limitations for the application part of the study. First of all, participants attended current research via the online questionnaire based on the self-report measures which cause a risk of bias on participants' responses towards questions. The reason of bias is that participants may answer questionnaires without having no insight about self-handicapping and defensive pessimism strategy; and they may also answer questionnaires by giving deceptive answers in order to masquerade themselves different than reality. Therefore, it should be better if a face to face interview is used as a research methodology in order to reduce the risk of bias. The second limitation is that there was no instrument which measures achievement of goals. Therefore, it was not analysed the relationship between goal achievement and self-handicapping and defensive pessimism strategies on the basis of fear of failure. There were only made interpretations about goal achievement on the basis of the relationship between fear of failure and cognitive strategies. As a future direction, a goal achievement instrument such as “Achievement Goal Questionnaire” (Elliot & Murayama, 2008) should be used in order to assess to

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

what extent fear of failure is associated with goal achievement on the basis of cognitive strategies.

In conclusion, it is seen that negative feelings may have positive sides for both psychological well-being and optimum functioning. At the same time, negative thinking may be a kind of step for experiencing positive outcomes. Therefore, people who have negative attributional style should need to accept and express their negative feelings instead of struggling with them to feel better. On this basis, using defensive pessimism in order to deal with the fear of failure without denying it can be seen as a part of principles of positive psychology. In other words, negative thinking and therefore defensive pessimism can be accepted as a part of positive psychology, because it is appropriate for the aim of positive psychology which is about helping people in order to realize their real potential and succeed their goals (Norem, 2001). On the other hand, self-handicapping is also used while dealing with the fear of failure, but it is not innocent as defensive pessimism on the way to achieve goals. Nevertheless, it was not undervalued that self-handicapping is the efficient strategy for people who have fear of failure to protect their self-worth; and it also may increase the performance of those people in short-term duration which leads to pursue their goals in a particular task.

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

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Appendix A – Information Sheet and Consent Form

Study title: A study of goals, motivation and achievement

Researchers: Brianne Nichols and John Parkinson

Do I have to take part?

Your participation is entirely voluntary and you may withdraw at any time without giving any reasons.

What do I have to do?

In this study you will be asked to complete a few questionnaires and some questions regarding demographics.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

There are no disadvantages or risks in taking part in this research. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not feel comfortable with and you are able to withdraw at any time during participation without giving a reason.

What will I receive for taking part in this study?

If you are an undergraduate psychology student at Bangor University you will receive 2 SONA credits for taking part in this research.

Will the data from my participation be kept confidential?

Yes, completely confidential. Under no circumstances will your names or identifying information be included in the reporting of this research. Only the researchers will have access to the data that will be kept securely and password protected.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

The data of the current study will primarily be part of a second year PhD project. It is also possible that results may be published in a scientific journal and presented at conferences.

Who can I contact for further information?

You may contact the lead researcher, Brianne Nichols, at psp450@bangor.ac.uk

Consent

I confirm that I have read and understood the information on this sheet and agree to take part in this research, and that by clicking this I am giving my consent.

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

Some multi-choice questions about yourself.

Gender: Male/Female/Prefer not to say

Age: 18-20/21-25/26-30/31-35/36-40/Over 40

Where are you from: drop down menu of country options

Recent history of mental health problems: Yes/No

Questionnaire 1 (satisfaction with life questionnaire)

(Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The Satisfaction with Life Scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 49, 71-75.)

Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1 - 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

← 7 = Strongly agree 6= Agree 5= Slightly agree 4= neither agree nor disagree
3=Slightly disagree 2= disagree 1= strongly disagree

← _____ In most ways my life is close to my ideal.

← _____ The conditions of my life are excellent.

← _____ I am satisfied with my life.

← _____ So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.

← _____ If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Questionnaire 2 (defensive pessimism scale)

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

(Norem, J. K., & Cantor, N. (1986b). Defensive pessimism: Harnessing anxiety as motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 1208-1217.)

When you answer the following questions, please think about how you prepare for and think about (academic/social) situations. Each of the statements below describes how people sometimes think or feel about these kinds of situations. Please indicate how true it is of you, in (academic/social) situations.

Very true of me 1--2 --3 -- 4--5 -- 6 --7 *Not at all true of me*

1. I go into these situations expecting the worst, even though I know I will probably do OK.
2. I generally go into these situations with positive expectations about how I will do.
3. I've generally done pretty well in these situations in the past.
4. I carefully consider all possible outcomes before these situations.
5. When I do well in these situations, I often feel really happy.
6. I often worry, in these situations, that I won't be able to carry through my intentions.
7. I often think about how I will feel if I do very poorly in these situations.
8. I often think about how I will feel if I do very well in these situations.
9. When I do well in these situations, it is usually because I didn't get too worried about it beforehand.
10. I often try to figure out how likely it is that I will do very poorly in these situations.

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

11. I'm careful not to become overconfident in these

situations.

12. I spend a lot of time planning when one of these situations

is coming up.

13. When working with others in these situations, I often worry

that they will control things or interfere with my plans.

14. I often try to figure out how likely it is that I will do very well

in these situations.

15. In these situations, sometimes I worry more about looking

like a fool than doing really well.

16. Prior to these situations, I avoid thinking about possible bad

outcomes.

17. Considering what can go wrong in academic situations

helps me to prepare.

Questionnaire 3 (fear of failure)

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

(Conroy, D.E. (2001). Progress in the development of a multidimensional measure of fear of failure: the performance failure appraisal inventory (PFAI). *Anxiety, Stress and Coping*, 14(3), 431-452).

Using the scale below, please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:

1= Very Slightly or Not at All

2= A little

3= Moderately

4= Quite a Bit

5= Extremely

___ When I am failing, I am afraid that I might not have enough talent.

___ When I fail, it upsets my "plan" for the future.

___ When I am not succeeding, people are less interested in me.

___ When I am failing, important others are disappointed.

___ When I am failing, I worry about what others think about me.

Questionnaire 6 (Self-handicapping scale)

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

(Rhodewalt, F. (1990). Self-handicappers: Individual differences in the preference for anticipatory self-protective acts. In R. Higgins, C. R. Snyder, and S. Berglas, (Eds.), *Self-Handicapping: The Paradox That Isn't*, pp. 69-106. New York: Guilford Press.)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements as a description of the kind of person you think you are most of the time. Use the following scale:

0 = disagree very much 1 = disagree pretty much 2 = disagree a little 3 = agree a little 4 = agree pretty much 5 = agree very much

- _____ 1. When I do something wrong, my first impulse is to blame circumstances
- _____ 2. I tend to put things off until the last moment.
- _____ 3. I tend to over-prepare when I have an exam or any kind of performance.
- _____ 4. I suppose I feel “under the weather” more often than most people.
- _____ 5. I always try to do my best, no matter what.
- _____ 6. Before I sign up for a course or engage in any important activity, I make sure I have the proper preparation or background.
- _____ 7. I tend to get very anxious before an exam or “performance.”
- _____ 8. I am easily distracted by noises or my own creative thoughts when I try to read.

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

_____ 9. I try not to get too intensely involved in competitive activities so it won't hurt too much if I lose or do poorly.

_____ 10. I would rather be respected for doing my best than admired for my potential.

_____ 11. I would do a lot better if I tried harder.

_____ 12. I prefer small pleasures in the present to larger pleasures in the dim future.

_____ 13. I generally hate to be in any condition but "at my best."

_____ 14. Someday I might "get it all together."

_____ 15. I sometimes enjoy being mildly ill for a day or two because it takes off the pressure.

_____ 16. I would do much better if I did not let my emotions get in the way.

_____ 17. When I do poorly at one kind of thing, I often console myself by remembering I am good at other things.

_____ 18. I admit that I am tempted to rationalize when I don't live up to others' expectations.

_____ 19. I often think I have more than my share of bad luck in sports, card games, and other measures of talent.

_____ 20. I would rather not take any drug that interfered with my ability to think clearly and do the right thing.

_____ 21. I overindulge in food and drink more often than I should.

_____ 22. When something important is coming up, like an exam or a job interview, I try to get as much sleep as possible the night before.

_____ 23. I never let emotional problems in one part of my life interfere with

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

other things in my life.

____ 24. Usually, when I get anxious about doing well, I end up doing better.

____ 25. Sometimes I get so depressed that even easy tasks become difficult.



THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

REGRESSION

/MISSING LISTWISE

/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA

/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)

/NOORIGIN

/DEPENDENT Satisfactionwithlife

/METHOD=ENTER Fearoffailure.

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

| | Variables Entered | Variables Removed | Method |
|---------|----------------------------|-------------------|--------|
| Model 1 | Fearoffailure ^b | | Enter |

a. Dependent Variable:

Satisfactionwithlife

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .370 ^a | .137 | .133 | 5.79301 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Fearoffailure

ANOVA^a

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------------------|
| 1 | Regression | 1205.765 | 1 | 1205.765 | 35.930 | .000 ^b |
| | Residual | 7617.877 | 227 | 33.559 | | |
| | Total | 8823.642 | 228 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfactionwithlife

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

b. Predictors: (Constant), Fearoffailure

Coefficients^a

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
|-------|---------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 30.837 | 1.398 | | 22.057 | .000 |
| | Fearoffailure | -.486 | .081 | -.370 | -5.994 | .000 |

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfactionwithlife

REGRESSION

/MISSING LISTWISE

/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA

/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)

/NOORIGIN

/DEPENDENT Depressivepessimism

/METHOD=ENTER Fearoffailure.

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

| Model | Variables Entered | Variables Removed | Method |
|-------|----------------------------|-------------------|--------|
| 1 | Fearoffailure ^b | | Enter |

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

a. Dependent Variable:

Depressive pessimism

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .497 ^a | .247 | .243 | 10.26494 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Fear of failure

b.

ANOVA^a

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------------------|
| 1 | Regression | 7829.443 | 1 | 7829.443 | 74.305 | .000 ^b |
| | Residual | 23918.740 | 227 | 105.369 | | |
| | Total | 31748.183 | 228 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Depressive pessimism

b. Predictors: (Constant), Fear of failure

Coefficients^a

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
|-------|-----------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 38.078 | 2.477 | | 15.371 | .000 |
| | Fear of failure | 1.238 | .144 | .497 | 8.620 | .000 |

a. Dependent Variable: Depressive pessimism

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

REGRESSION

/MISSING LISTWISE

/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA

/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)

/NOORIGIN

/DEPENDENT Selfhandicapping

/METHOD=ENTER Fearoffailure.

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

| Model | Variables Entered | Variables Removed | Method |
|-------|----------------------------|-------------------|--------|
| 1 | Fearoffailure ^b | | Enter |

a. Dependent Variable:

Selfhandicapping

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .421 ^a | .177 | .173 | 11.49905 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Fearoffailure

ANOVA^a

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-------|------------|----------------|----|-------------|--------|-------------------|
| 1 | Regression | 6457.297 | 1 | 6457.297 | 48.835 | .000 ^b |

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

| | | | | | |
|----------|----------|-----|---------|--|--|
| Residual | 30015.76 | 227 | 132.228 | | |
| | 9 | | | | |
| Total | 36473.06 | 228 | | | |
| | 6 | | | | |

- a. Dependent Variable: Selfhandicapping
 b. Predictors: (Constant), Fearoffailure

Coefficients^a

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
|-------|---------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 48.820 | 2.775 | | 17.592 | .000 |
| | Fearoffailure | 1.125 | .161 | .421 | 6.988 | .000 |

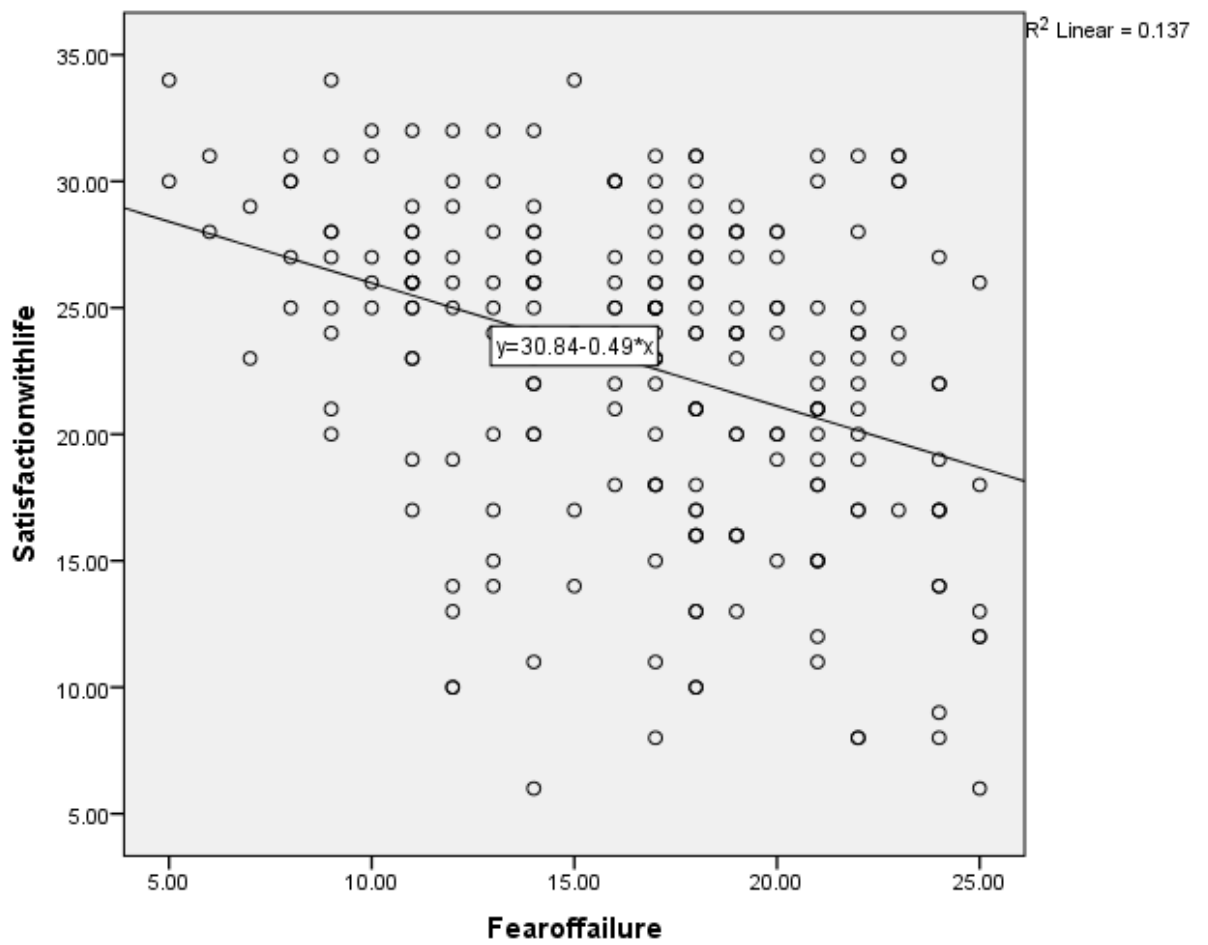
- a. Dependent Variable: Selfhandicapping
 GRAPH

/SCATTERPLOT(BIVAR)=Fearoffailure WITH Satisfactionwithlife

/MISSING=LISTWISE.

Graph

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

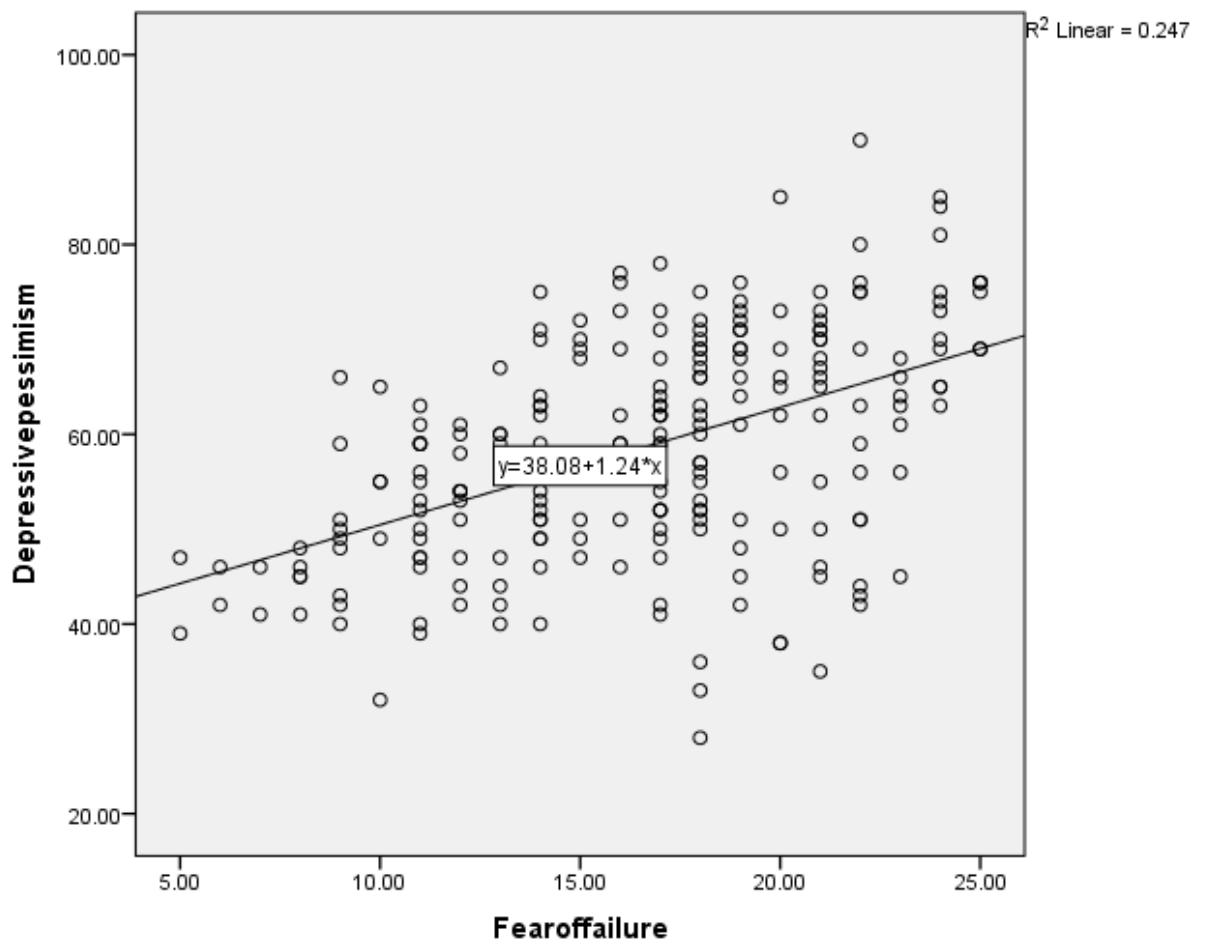


GRAPH

/SCATTERPLOT(BIVAR)=Fearoffailure WITH Depressiveessimism

/MISSING=LISTWISE.

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT



Graph

GRAPH

/SCATTERPLOT(BIVAR)=Fearoffailure WITH Selfhandicapping

THE ROLE OF FEAR OF FAILURE IN GOAL PURSUIT

/MISSING=LISTWISE.

