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A Comparison of the Sportsmanship Values of Athletes Versus Non-Athletes

Roy D. Schodtler

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A COMPARISON OF THE SPORTSMANSHIP VALUES
OF ATHLETES VERSUS NON-ATHLETES

by

Roy D. Schodtler

Bachelor of Arts, Coe College 1967

A Thesis

Submitted to the Faculty

of the

University of North Dakota

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

Master of Science

Grand Forks, North Dakota

August
1972

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This thesis submitted by Roy D. Schodtler in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Science from the University of North Dakota is hereby approved by the Faculty Advisory Committee under whom the work has been done.

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Non-Athletes

Department: Health, Physical Education and Recreation

Degree: Master of Science

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Ray D. Schodder

July 28, 1972
(Date)

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ABSTRACT

This study was designed to determine whether there were any significant differences in the sportsmanship attitudes of high school athletes as compared to their non-athletic peers.

Johnson's (1969) "Sportsmanship Attitude Scale" (SA Scale) was administered to 621 boys enrolled in grades nine through twelve at Palatine High School in Palatine, Illinois. The boys were divided into three major groups--Athletes, Non-Athletes, and No Sports--as determined by their experience in organized athletics. The Athletes group was further divided into ten sub-groups, according to the sports in which the subjects had participated.

It was found that the mean score of the Athletes group was significantly higher on the SA Scale than the mean scores of both the Non-Athletes and No Sports groups. The sub-groups of baseball, basketball, cross country, tennis and track all scored significantly higher on the SA Scale than the Non-Athletes and No Sports groups.

The data collected and analyzed in this study indicated that in this group of high school subjects, the athletes exhibited significantly higher sportsmanship values than their non-athletic peers.

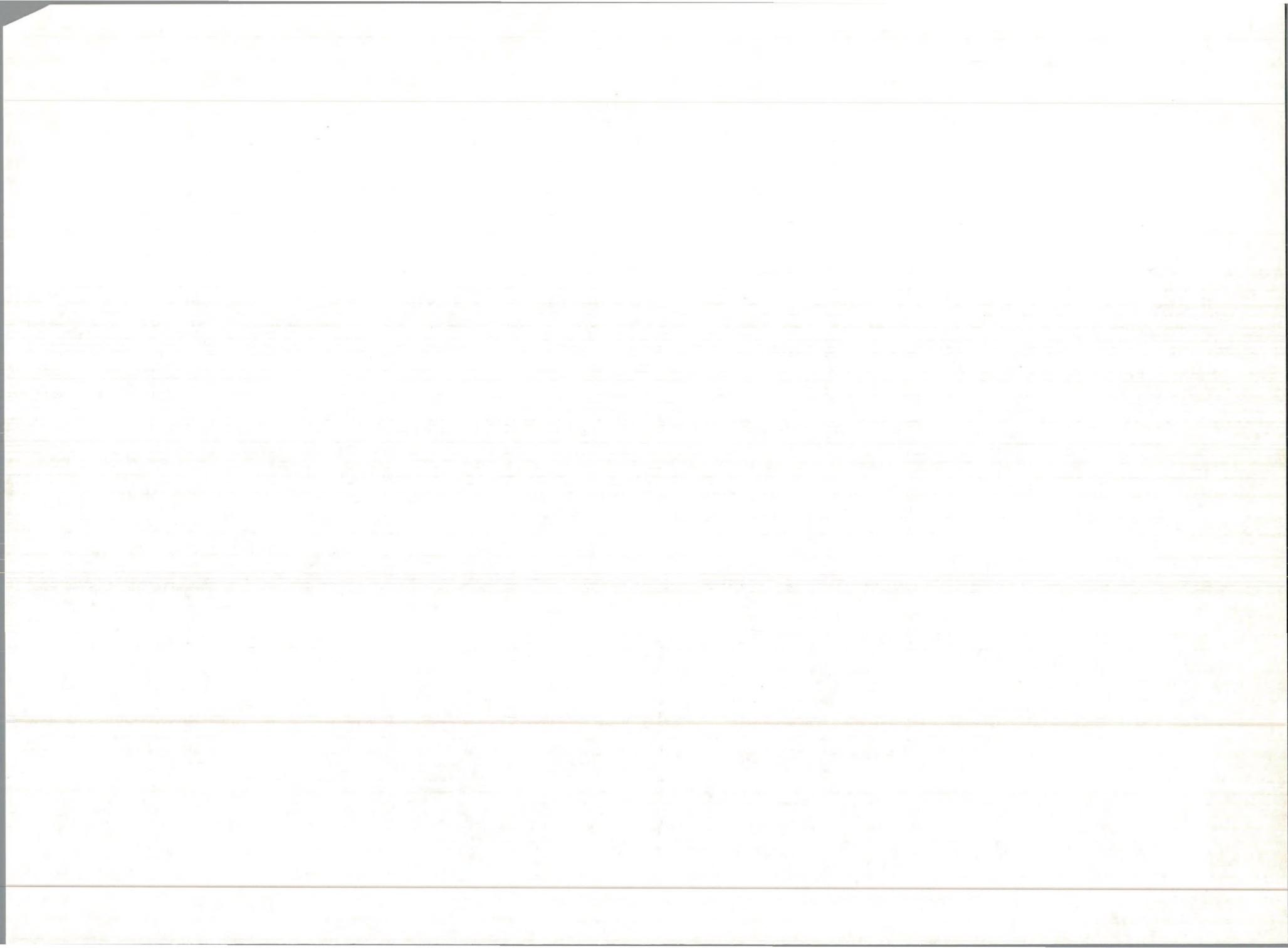
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Quite often one of the primary objectives stated in physical education or athletic programs is to teach and provide practice in social and ethical value formation. Physical education and athletic activities are said to be rich in situations which involve social and ethical judgments (Haskins, 1960). Social values, such as honesty, justice, temperance, courage, and gracious acceptance of results can be discussed in great detail in the classroom, but the classroom situation provides little opportunity for their cultivation. An athletic contest provides the laboratory for the development of these social values. The important, and fiercely contested, athletic endeavor provides an exceptional opportunity for both the participants and spectators to work toward cultivation of these social values (Keating, 1965).

The aforementioned social values are often categorized under the term sportsmanship. Senator W. Stuart Symington (Williams, 1962), formerly secretary of the Air Force, has expressed the values of competitive athletics in these words:

I think America's most cherished possession is sportsmanship. I choose to define sportsmanship as honest rivalry, courteous relations and graceful acceptance of results. As a business man, I can vouch for how badly we need these traits in industry; and as a member of government I can also vouch for their need in Washington. America would not be what it is today without competitive sports. They



are part of the fiber of our tradition. Their nationally known products of mental, moral and physical training, and their obviously great influence on the development of character, are fundamental elements of our heritage. When a young American, though burning up inside, quietly turns away from a called third strike, or accepts without grimace, moan or mutter, the foul called on him for basketball overguarding, he is learning those traits which later make him an asset to his community, to his future business or profession, and to his nation.

It cannot be assumed, however, that mere participation in a game or membership on a team results in good sportsmanship and thus makes the participants all-around desirable individuals. It is also difficult to believe that any objective is taken seriously if there is no attempt made to measure its attainment. If athletics are to be taken seriously as contributing to the objective of improving social and ethical value formation, then methods to evaluate this contribution should be considered (Lakic, 1964).

Statement of the Problem

One of the basic ideals of sportsmanship or sportsmanlike conduct is that, when on the athletic field, one strives to win against any and all odds, but not at any price--not at the expense of personal honor or personal ethics (Hafner, 1962).

The problem of this study was to determine whether there were any significant differences in the sportsmanship attitudes of high school athletes as compared to their non-athletic peers. Thus, data were gathered to see if athletics either developed significant sportsmanship attitudes or attracted those with higher sportsmanship values, when compared to those who lacked similar experience in athletic competition.

Need for the Study

Apparently there is a need to train children and young adults in sportsmanlike behavior. It is believe that this moral-social concept can be learned, and, in turn, attitudes and behavior may be favorably modified (Bovyer, 1963). With this in mind, there is a definite need for scientific evidence and facts which can be used in evaluating the role of physical education and athletic programs in reaching this goal. Cowell and Hazelton (1955) stated, "There is a tremendous need for valid data leading to clarification of thinking and policy on the administrative level concerning athletic competition at all levels. . . ."

Delimitations

In this study, Johnson's "Sportsmanship Attitude Scale" (Johnson, 1969) was administered to 621 boys enrolled in the general physical education program at Palatine High School in Palatine, Illinois. The sample was composed of boys enrolled in grades nine through twelve, and was a mixture of athletes and non-athletes. For purposes of this study, 356 of the boys were considered to be athletes, 104 were considered to be non-athletes, and 161 had no experience in organized sports activities.

Limitations

The primary limitation of this study was that the written response to a situation may not necessarily be the same as the actual or action response to the same situation. However, truthfulness of the respondents was assumed.

Also, this particular study was limited to one school, with one coaching staff, and one group of upper-middle class suburban boys. If any of these conditions could be changed, the trend of the general responses might also be changed. That is, at a different school, with a different coaching staff, or with different students, one might find an entirely dissimilar set of values.

Definition of Terms

Throughout this study the terms athlete, non-athlete, no sports, and SA Scale were used. In order for more complete understanding of the material presented, these terms should be clarified as to their use in this study.

1. Athlete: An individual who had participated in an athletic activity for more than two seasons, --or combined activities totaling more than two seasons of participation--during which time there had been regular practices supervised by a coach or coaches, and a schedule of organized competition against other teams.
2. Non-Athlete: An individual who had some experience in organized athletics, but did not have the above minimum experience.
3. No Sports: An individual who had no experience in organized sports activities.
4. SA Scale: (Sportsmanship Attitude Scale) A sports situation questionnaire designed by Dr. Marion L. Johnson (1969) to be used as a tool in the quantification of sportsmanship attitudes.

Review of Literature

The topic of sportsmanship has been one of concern in the areas of physical education and athletic competition. Williams (1962) stated that sportsmanship is nothing more than good manners showing. He pointed out the importance of administrators, civic leaders, and coaches being committed to the ideals of fair play for both the participants and spectators. Williams further stated:

Proper planning and education in sportsmanship conduct will pay rich dividends and insure a truly enjoyable and educational athletic program.

Failure to work on sportsmanship education will sooner or later result in an unfortunate situation which may destroy all of the potential educational values of a properly directed program.

Hafner (1962) discussed the coach's responsibilities in the area of sportsmanship. He mentioned that the coach should kindle the spirit to win in his players, but not at the price of personal honor or professional ethics. Hafner suggested that a coach with a firm professional philosophy and a strong determination to maintain his professional ethics will see some purpose in his occupation beyond victory.

A correspondent from the Times Education Supplement (1966) emphasized the deep social responsibility of the coach in the way he approached his coaching. The coach must analyze his own methods and answer honestly whether or not he is encouraging foul play. The honest, or sportsmanlike, approach should be emphasized. The coach's job is surely to teach the sport according to the spirit in which it was intended to be played. The author suggested that: "If the

end justifies the means, let us, for the game's sake, have sporting and honorable means."

Wilson (1964) was also concerned that striving for the "all-important" victory was inevitably causing a de-emphasis of some of the fundamental objectives of the game. Wilson mentioned that there is even a feeling among some educators that, unless the quality of sportsmanship is improved, the social contributions of sports to the development and maturation of spectators and competitors alike will be reduced to nothing. Wilson further suggested that, only after each athlete has made the "Golden Rule" his motto, does he really come to know the fun and pleasure of athletic participation and intense competition.

There are those who take a definite negative stand as to the relationship of sport and strong social value formation. Keating (1965) admitted that athletics provide invaluable opportunities for the cultivation of self-discipline and self-control, but pointed out that many schools prefer to ignore this invaluable learning situation, and, by their inaction, tacitly encourage the coach in his public demonstrations of emotional self-indulgence and contempt for authority. Keating suggested that the tool for building strong moral foundations is there, but that tool is not being used.

Ogilvie and Tutko (1971) attempted to study the effects of competition on personality. On the basis of the evidence gathered in their study, some broad-range value judgments were made. They found no empirical support for the tradition that sport builds character. There was evidence that athletic competition limited growth in some areas. It seemed that the personality of the ideal

athlete was not the result of any molding process, but came from the ruthless selection process that occurs at all levels of sport. In summary, Ogilvie and Tutko stated: "Competition doesn't seem to build character and it is possible that competition doesn't even require much more than a minimally integrated personality."

Gilmore (1972), in examining the world of professional athletics, found evidence that perhaps sports do not build character, but rather foster sadism, violence and unsportsmanlike conduct. The suggestion was also brought out that, perhaps, with or without sport, a person's personality characteristics will be essentially the same.

Hussman (1969) pointed out that, over the past 25 years, physical educators have increasingly turned their attention toward the personality dynamics of sports situations. In attempting to complete meaningful research in this area, psychologists and physical educators have encountered innumerable problems, especially in defining terms and selecting appropriate testing tools. Hussman suggested that researchers create new testing tools, base research on a theoretical concept, study aggression and fear in relation to sports, and make further efforts to study the relationship between champion athletes and emotional stability. These considerations must be met, according to Hussman, because, at this time, research evidence available has still not told us whether an individual participates in sport to satisfy a psychological need or whether, as a result of sport participation, his personality is altered.

There have been some scientific investigations in an attempt to gain data relating to sportsmanship and athletics.

Clevett (1932), concerned with the effect of physical education on social values, conducted an experiment to ascertain whether honesty could be developed in a program of physical education activities. He wondered if there would be less improvement in motor skills as a result of participation in such a program. As a result of his investigation, Clevett found that the form of behavior called honesty could be significantly influenced in a physical education activities program, with no sacrifice in motor skills achievement.

Kehr (1959) compared eleven and twelve year olds who were participants and non-participants in Little League Baseball. She was interested in determining whether there were any significant differences between the groups in their sportsmanship responses. After testing the groups before and after their season in Little League Baseball, as currently conducted, was found to have no measurable effect upon sportsmanship, as tested by the McAfee Preference Record.

Bovyer (1963) conducted an investigation with fourth, fifth, and sixth grade pupils from two elementary schools. He tested the children's knowledge of sportsmanship and growth of this knowledge. No significant changes were observed in the age groups.

McAfee (1965) designed a sports situation tests and administered it to sixth, seventh, and eighth grade boys. He observed that the sportsmanship values become progressively lower from sixth through eighth grades. The change was significant at the .05 level.

Kistler (1957) tested college men and women by use of a written sports situation questionnaire. The participants were asked

to state whether or not they approved of the behaviors described. The study seemed to show a definite lack of concern for sportsman-like actions during athletic competition. Kistler suggested that these data would seem to indicate the importance of more emphasis upon a positive and planned approach to sportsmanship education in which:

- (a) Stress is placed upon consideration of the "spirit" of rules as well as the letter.
- (b) More effort is made to offset the attitude that "it is smart" if you can get away with it.
- (c) Stress is placed upon the idea of sharing with officials the responsibility for seeing to it that contests are played according to the "spirit" of the rules.
- (d) Stressing the idea that the game, the contest, the thrill is the thing that counts most in sports.

Richardson (1962), after studying the sportsmanship attitudes of college seniors, concluded that there was no indication of improved levels of sportsmanship in the college athletic program. This may be especially meaningful since the subjects used in this study were education majors.

Slusher (1962) conducted a study involving college football players. He was concerned with the problems encountered in the evaluation of attitudes toward sportsmanship. Slusher was aware of the problem that an individual may answer a written question in one way, but his action may not coincide with his written reply. In an attempt for a more thorough evaluation, Slusher tried to determine the relationships between covert (written or hidden) responses, overt (oral or public) responses, and behavior as rated by qualified member of the coaching staff. In comparing the results, he found no significant differences in the ratings established by any of the rating techniques.

Slusher (1966) again attempted to differentiate between overt and covert responses in a later study using an electronic psychomotor. He found no significant differences in the overt and covert responses.

Schendel (1963) conducted a study which compared the psychological differences of athletes and non-athletes. His subjects consisted of ninth graders, twelfth graders, and college students. Schendel found that, at all levels, athletes rated higher in leadership qualities, sociability, personal worth, and social maturity. The athletic groups also possessed less self-doubt and had fewer complaints.

Slusher (1964), concerned with the personality and intelligence characteristics of athletes and non-athletes, used high school students as his subjects. Slusher found a significantly lower intelligence score among the athletes. The athletes, in general, were less feminine, more concerned with body functions, worried more, and were more preoccupied with physical symptoms.

Lakie (1964) was also concerned with the social implications of athletics. He constructed a "Competitive Attitude Scale" for the purpose of revealing to what degree various groups of athletes subscribed to the "win at any cost" philosophy of athletics. The scale was administered to 228 college athletes participating in six varsity sports at three types of schools (state college, state university, and private university). The data revealed no significant differences in the attitudes of athletes categorized by sports or type of school attended. The study also indicated that

none of the schools included in this investigation were either attracting persons with unique sportsmanship attitudes or aiding in the development of these attitudes.

Haskins (1960) attempted to construct a tool to measure sportsmanship values. She developed two written tests of sportsmanship responses. As Haskins pointed out, the greatest values for these tests may be those obtained as teachings aids, stimulants in the discussion of right and wrong in athletics, and as a base for generalizations on ethical behavior in sport, as well as in other facets of life.

Johnson (1969) constructed the sportsmanship attitude scale that was used in this study. In view of the need to develop an accurate tool for measuring sportsmanship attitudes, he constructed scales that satisfy the criteria for such tests as reported in test construction literature. Up to this point, not many of the scales that had been constructed satisfied many of these criteria.

The original item pool for the scale consisted of 152 items pertaining to critical behavior in the games of football, baseball, and basketball. Judges then placed the items from the original set into a continuum. Using the results of the judging, a discrimination was made between the items, with the least ambiguous half of the item pool being retained for item analysis. This half was then prepared in summated rating form and administered to 208 junior high school students. Responses from the summated rating form were item analyzed. The phi coefficient for each item was determined. The phi coefficient along with the scale value were used in selecting the final 42 items. The items were placed into Forms A and B

by alternately selecting ranked items. The final forms were administered to 500 students for the purpose of determining reproducibility and reliability.

Reliability evaluation of the scale was accomplished by calculating the coefficient from results of a single administration of scale Forms A and B. The resultant correlation coefficient was a moderately high value of .86.

The coefficient of reproducibility is assumed to represent the degree of accuracy with which a response pattern can be reproduced from knowledge of the total score. Reproducibility of the two scales was determined from the data used in the reliability evaluation. The coefficient of reproducibility was found to be .81 for Form A and .86 for Form B.

Intrinsic validity of the test forms was based on the framework of the item-pool evaluation, equal-appearing interval judging, and item analysis.

Empirical validity of the two test forms was based on the total scores of test responses and man-to-man behavior rating of junior high students. Data were obtained from the boy's basketball team from which correlation coefficients ranging from $-.01$ to $.16$ were calculated between the two variables. Validity coefficients ranging from $.19$ to $.42$ were found from data from two groups of physical education classes.

Each test form consists of 21 items dealing with situations of behavior in athletics (See Appendix). Each item was worded to report behavior and avoid indicating the "desired" response. The subjects were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or dis-

agreement with the behavior described. The gradation of responses allowed for greater discrimination of responses. The forms were scored 0=strongly approve, 1=approve, 2=disapprove, and 3=strongly disapprove. Each form would have a maximum score of 63. The higher an individual's score, the more he subscribes to the ideals of good sportsmanship.

Summary of the Review of Literature

Over the years, the development of good sportsmanship attitudes and behavior has generally been accepted as a prime objective of physical education and athletic activities. However, opinion, research, and behavior has indicated, that in some locales, acceptance of the sportsmanship development objective has been given only lip-service. This is unfortunate in view of the potentially long-range effects present day educators may have on the lives of the students.

Scientific evidence needs to be gathered to evaluate the progress toward the fulfillment of education objectives. Feedback information must be made available that accurately represents instructional effects. Instruments designed to measure sportsmanship attitudes have been developed. These tests vary considerably as to their construction and essential internal features. Johnson's (1969) appears to be the one that presently seems to satisfy most of the necessary criteria for test construction.



CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

Test Administration

The instrument used in this study was Johnson's (1969) "Sportsmanship Attitude Scale" (SA Scale). The SA Scale possesses items that represent a sample of the football, basketball, and baseball universe of content, has a moderately high reliability coefficient, and demonstrates a reasonably high coefficient of reproducibility, as mentioned in the review of literature. Form B of the SA Scale was administered to 621 male subjects at Palatine High School in Palatine, Illinois.

In addition to the quality of the SA Scale designed by Johnson (1969), it was extremely useful from the standpoint of economy of time and money. In order to conscientiously fill out the questionnaire and the accompanying data sheet (See Appendix), the subjects needed only 25 - 35 minutes.

To administer this test to 621 subjects, only five testers were needed. The testers were physical education teachers, who administered the scales during their regular class periods. Only Form B was used, and it was administered to all boys on the same day. For the most part, the administration of the scale was handled like most written examinations given in the course. The sub-

jects were not allowed to converse during the answering period. This was done to insure that the responses given would be each subject's own choice and that he was not influenced by the responses of any of his classmates.

Equipment and materials

The materials needed to conduct this study were 621 copies of Form B of the SA Scale, accompanying data sheets and pens or pencils. These materials were neither expensive nor difficult to obtain. An IBM computer was used to analyze the data obtained in this study.

Selection and Grouping of the Sample

In order to gather data for this study from a finite population of athletes and non-athletes in grades nine through twelve, a simple random probability sample was selected.

The intact group of all the boys enrolled in the general physical education classes was used. The head of the Physical Education Department was consulted and permission was granted to administer the SA Scale to the students.

The heterogeneous nature of the group made it very appropriate for this study. The sample contained athletes and non-athletes of all grade levels--nine through twelve--and various ability groups, ranging from varsity athletes in three sports to those with no experience in organized athletics at all. This diversity allowed for a wide variety of experiences and viewpoints, thus making the sample a good representation of the entire population.

The sample was divided into three major independent groups: athletes, non-athletes, and no sports (as defined in Chapter I). This design was particularly appropriate for the study since the information obtained was used to describe the differences in attitudes toward good sportsmanship as expressed by the three groups. The athlete group was divided into ten sub-groups according to the sports the subjects had participated in.

Statistical Procedure

In the analysis of data the mean was calculated for each of the major groups and sub-groups as a measure of central tendency for each of the groups. The standard deviations were calculated for each major group and sub-group to represent the variability of the scores. Finally, the t-test was applied to test the significance of the difference between the means of each of the major groups and each of the sub-groups.

The hypothesis tested in this study was put in the null form for statistical purposes. The null hypothesis states that there is no significant difference in the sportsmanship values of athletes as compared to those of non-athletes and no sports groups ($M_a = M_{na} = M_{ns}$). The alternate hypothesis states that there is a significant difference in the sportsmanship values of the groups ($M_a \neq M_{na} \neq M_{ns}$). The hypothesis was tested at the .05 level of significance.

CHAPTER III

RESULT

Of the 621 subjects tested, 356 were grouped as Athletes, 104 as Non-Athletes, and the remaining 161 as No Sports (as defined in Chapter I). Since many of the athletes participated in more than one sport, their scores became parts of several sub-groups.

The Athletes group had a mean of 48.694, with a standard deviation of 8.812. The Non-Athletes group had a mean of 45.933, with a standard deviation of 9.617. The subjects grouped as No Sports had a mean of 46.236, with a standard deviation of 9.695 (See Table 1 and Figure 1). It was important to note here that the higher the score on the SA Scale, the more closely the subjects agreed with the ideals of good sportsmanship.

The ten sub-groups of athletes ranged in means from 44.600 for 15 hockey players, to 50.400 for 40 tennis players (See Table 1 and Figure 2).

In comparing the means of the groups the t-test was applied. The means were compared at the .05 level. Table 2 shows the "t" values, as the means for each of the major groups and sub-groups were compared.

The Athletes as a group, scored significantly higher on the SA Scale than both the Non-Athletes and No Sports groups.

The means of the Non-Athletes and No Sports groups did not differ significantly from each other.

TABLE 1
MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
OF THE GROUPS TESTED

Major groups:	Number tested	Score mean	Standard deviation
Athletes	356	48.694	8.812
Non-Athletes	104	45.933	9.617
No Sports	161	46.236	9.695
Sub-groups of athletes:			
Baseball	164	48.390	9.190
Basketball	109	49.110	8.757
Cross Country	69	50.391	7.365
Football	209	48.072	9.544
Golf	27	47.185	12.169
Gymnastics	41	48.683	6.959
Ice Hockey	15	44.600	9.093
Tennis	40	50.400	6.543
Track	168	49.018	8.896
Wrestling	97	47.670	10.148

In considering the sub-groups of athletes, the baseball, basketball, cross country, tennis and track groups all scored significantly higher on the SA Scale than the Non-Athletes and No Sports groups. The cross country group scored significantly higher than the football, ice hockey, and wrestling groups. The tennis group also scored significantly higher than the ice hockey group. The remaining sub-groups of athletes did not differ significantly from each other.

In view of the data gathered in this study, the null hypothesis, that there were no significant differences in the sports-

manship values of athletes as compared to those of non-athletes and no sports groups, was rejected. The alternate hypothesis, that there were significant differences in the sportsmanship values of the groups, was accepted.

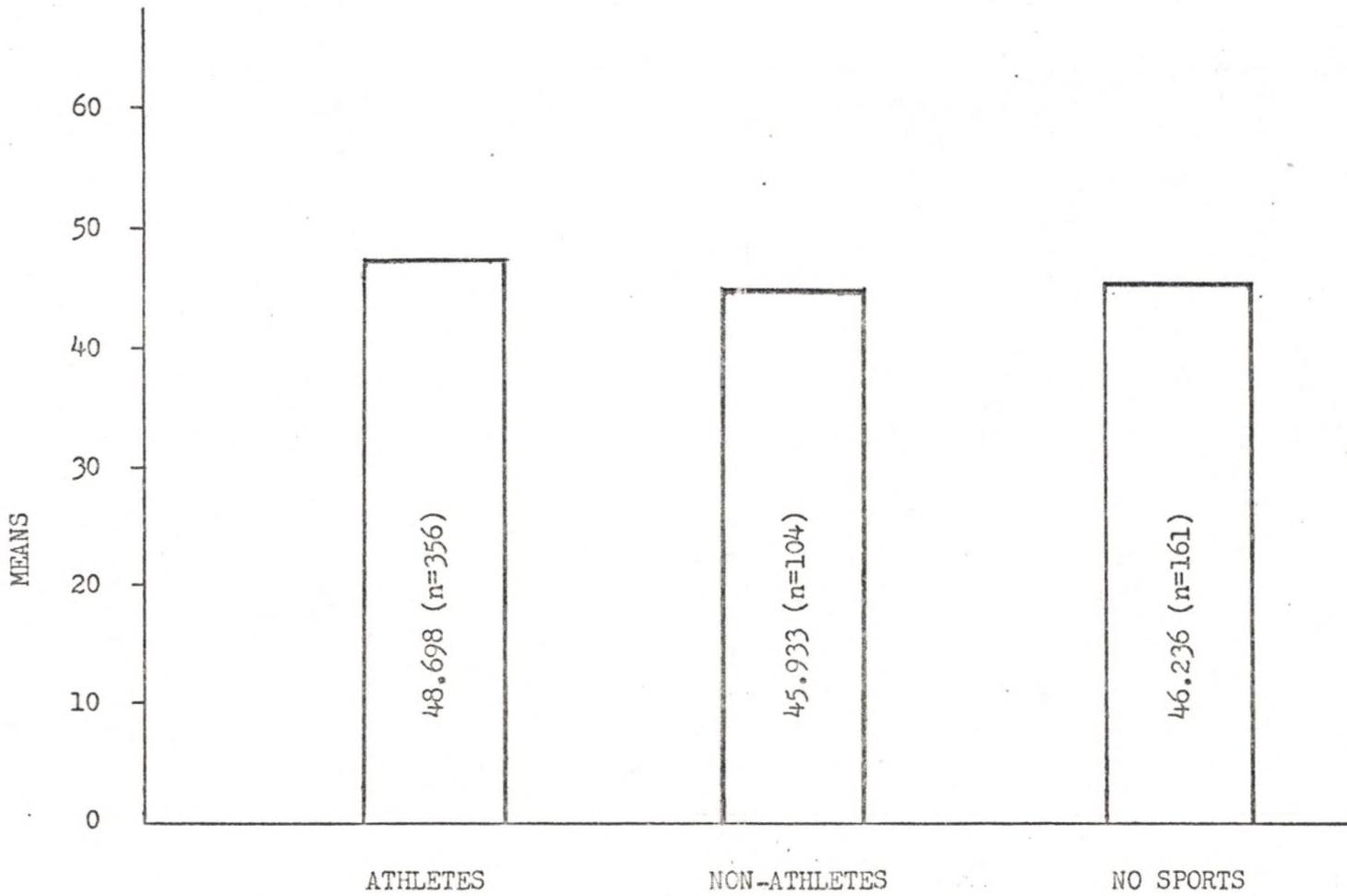


Figure 1.--Comparison of the means of Athletes, Non-Athletes, and No Sports

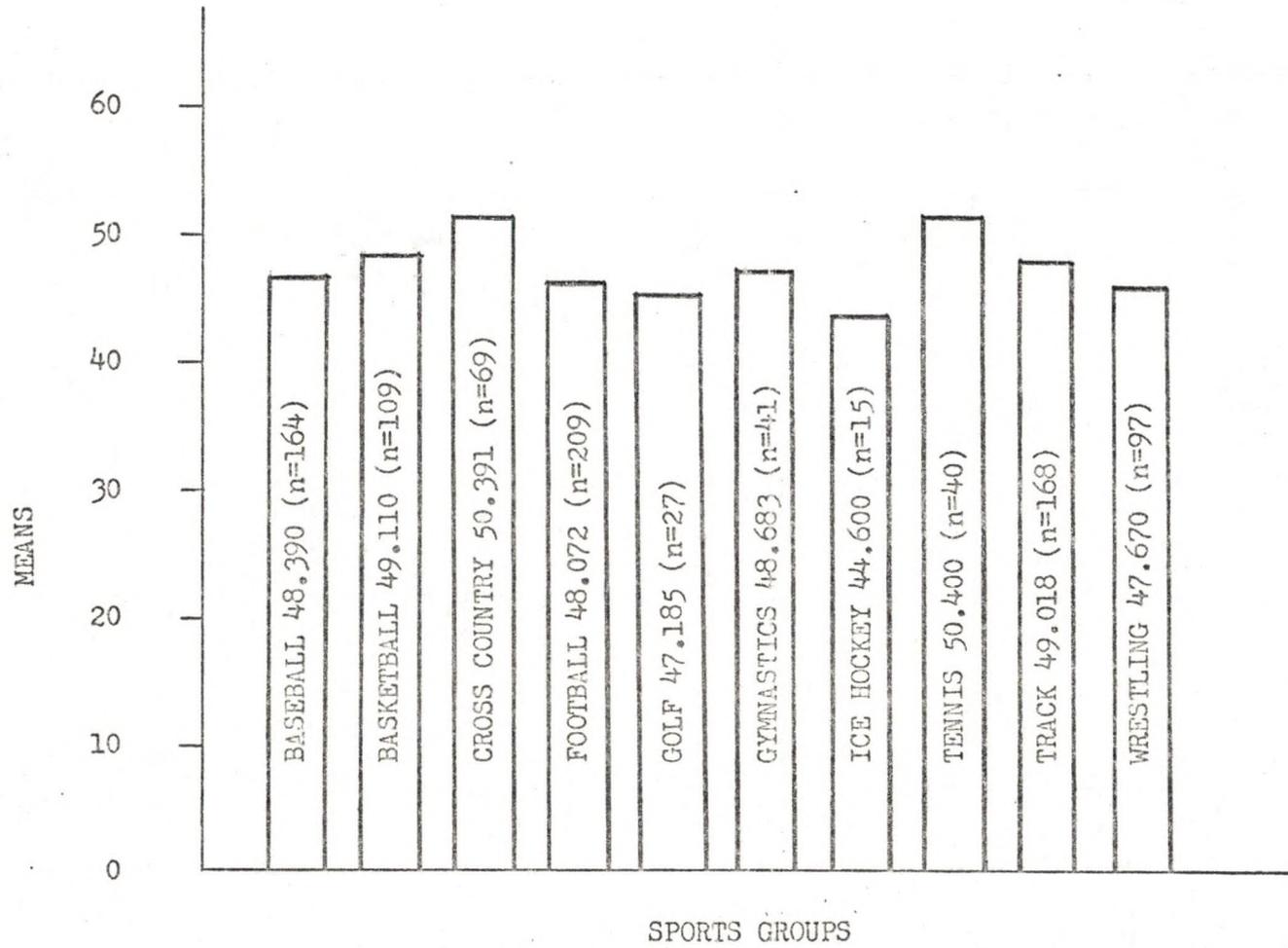


Figure 2.--Comparison of the means of the Sports Groups

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Most of the data collected in previous studies related to the development of sportsmanship attitudes showed either no significant development by athletes, or a definite negative trend in athlete groups. This may have been related to the fact that many of these studies, as Johnson (1969) pointed out, lacked a testing instrument that satisfied the basic requirements of design for such tools. Also, most of the previous studies used either elementary school age students or college students as subjects. The differences in sample groups may have had some influence on the outcome.

Physical educators have used the development of sportsmanship as justification for many of their programs. Unless a conscious and planned effort is made to teach the values of good sportsmanship, and unless a conscious and planned effort is made to gather scientific data measuring to what degree this goal has been achieved, physical educators should no longer claim that they are making progress toward this goal.

The data in this study indicate that the athletes as a group did have higher sportsmanship values than their non-athletic peers. Some of the athlete sub-groups did not differ significantly from the Non-Athletes and No Sports groups. This poses the question, do all sports, some sports, all coaches or some coaches

have a positive influence on the development of good sportsmanship? While this investigator does not profess to have thoroughly analyzed these conditions, further study of these sub-groups would be more meaningful if such variables were included in the design.

One must also consider the question, that because an individual has learned to subscribe to a high level of ethical standards on the playing field, does not necessarily follow that the same individual will subscribe to high ethical standards in the situations that confront him in his everyday life? Scientific data need to be gathered in relation to trends in this area also.



CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

In this study, Johnson's (1969) "Sportsmanship Attitude Scale" was administered to 621 boys at Palatine High School in Palatine, Illinois. The boys were divided into three major groups --Athletes, Non-Athletes, and No Sports--as determined by their experience in organized athletics. The Athletes group was further divided into ten sub-groups, according to the sports the subjects had participated in.

After comparing the mean scores of the groups, it was found that the Athletes scored significantly higher on the SA Scale than both the Non-Athletes and No Sports groups. The mean scores of the Non-Athletes and No Sports groups did not differ significantly from each other.

In considering the sub-groups of athletes, the baseball, basketball, cross country, tennis and track groups all scored significantly higher on the SA Scale than the Non-Athlete and No-Sports groups. The cross country group scored significantly higher than the ice hockey group. The remaining sub-groups of athletes did not differ significantly from each other.

Conclusions

Upon comparing the sportsmanship attitudes of this group of high school subjects, the investigator found that the athletes exhibited significantly higher sportsmanship values than their non-athletic peers, as measured by Johnson's (1969) "Sportsmanship Attitude Scale."

It was also indicated in this study that the individual sports groups of baseball, basketball, cross country, tennis and track demonstrated higher sportsmanship values than the non-athletic subjects.

The data collected in this study indicated that high school athletics in general, and certain isolated sports groups, either developed significantly higher sportsmanship attitudes, or attracted those individuals with significantly higher sportsmanship values.

Recommendations

Based on the information presented in this study, it is recommended that:

1. A study be conducted considering such factors as sex, age, and type of sport participated in, and their effects on sportsmanship values.
2. A study be conducted to gather information on the relationship of ethical standards in sports with ethical standards in everyday life situations.
3. A study be conducted gathering information on the influence of the coach on sportsmanship attitudes of the student athletes.

4. A more thorough attempt be made toward evaluating the achievement of the objective of improving social and ethical value formation through participation in athletic programs and physical education curriculums.

APPENDIX

Sports Questionnaire

Please provide the following information as completely as possible. Please answer all questions.

1. What is your present year in high school? (Circle the year you are now in)

1 2 3 4

2. Circle each of the sports you have participated in, on an organized basis, and indicate the number of years you have participated in that sport competitively. Include only those sports that were sponsored by school, park district, YMCA, or other organizations, had regular practices supervised by a coach, and had regular scheduled competition against other items. Indicate the TOTAL number of years you have participated. If you have never participated in organized sports, circle the area marked NO SPORTS.

<u>SPORT</u>	<u>NO. OF YRS.</u>	<u>SPORT</u>	<u>NO. OF YRS.</u>
BASEBALL	_____	ICE HOCKEY	_____
BASKETBALL	_____	TENNIS	_____
CROSS COUNTRY	_____	TRACK	_____
FOOTBALL	_____	WRESTLING	_____
GOLF	_____	(other)	_____
GYMNASTICS	_____		
NO SPORTS			

EXAMPLE: If John Doe played two years of junior high basketball and four years of high school football, he would circle both football and basketball. He then would write a 2 after basketball and a 4 after football.

John would then follow the same procedure for any other sport or sports he had participated in on an organized basis.

DIRECTIONS: This booklet contains several statements describing events that happen in sports and games. Read each statement carefully and decide whether you approve or disapprove of the action taken by the person. Circle the ONE response category that tells the way you feel. PLEASE COMPLETE EVERY ITEM.

Example: A pitcher in a baseball game threw a fast ball at the batter to scare him.

STRONGLY
APPROVE

APPROVE

DISAPPROVE

STRONGLY
DISAPPROVE

(If you strongly approve of this action by the pitcher, you would circle the first response category as shown.)

TURN THE PAGE AND BEGIN



FORM A

a _____

1. After a basketball player was called by the official for traveling, he slammed the basketball onto the floor.

STRONGLY DISAPPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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2. A baseball player was called out as he slid into home plate. He jumped up and down on the plate and screamed at the official.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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3. After a personal foul was called against a basketball player he shook his fist in the official's face.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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4. A basketball coach talked very loudly in order to annoy an opponent who was attempting to make a very important free throw shot.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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5. After a baseball game the coach of the losing team went up to the umpire and demanded to know how much money had been paid to "throw" the game.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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6. A basketball coach led the spectators in jeering at the official who made calls against his team.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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7. After two men were put out on a double play attempt, a baseball coach told the players in his dugout to boo the umpire's decision.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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8. As the basketball coach left the gymnasium after the game, he shouted at the officials, "You lost me the game; I never saw such lousy officiating in my life."

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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9. A basketball coach put sand on the gym floor to force the opponents into traveling penalties.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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10. A football coach left the bench to change the position of a marker dropped by an official to indicate where the ball went out of bounds.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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11. During the first half of a football game a touchdown was called back. At halftime, the football coach went into the official's dressing room and cursed the officials.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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12. A football player was taken out of the game for unsportsmanlike conduct. The player changed jerseys and the coach sent him back in the game.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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13. Following a closely played basketball game, the coach of the losing team cursed his boys for not winning.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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14. After a baseball game the losing team's coach yelled at spectators to "Go get the Ump!"

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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15. A baseball coach permitted players to use profanity loud enough for the entire park to hear when the players did not like a decision.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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16. The basketball coach drank alcoholic beverages while supervising his basketball team on a trip.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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17. A college football player was disqualified for misconduct. While on the way to the sideline, the player attacked the official.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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18. During a time-out in a basketball game, the clock was accidentally left running. The coach whose team was behind ran over to the scoring table and struck the timekeeper.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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19. After a basketball player was knocked into a wall, his coach rushed onto the court and hit the player who had fouled.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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20. After a baseball player had been removed from the game, the coach met him at the sidelines and hit him.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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21. After a runner was called out at first base, the baseball coach went onto the field and wrestled the umpire down to the ground.

STRONGLY
APPROVE

APPROVE

DISAPPROVE

STRONGLY
DISAPPROVE

FORM B

b _____

1. During a basketball game the B team coach sat on the bench and called loudly to the officials telling them who to watch for fouls.

STRONGLY
APPROVE

APPROVE

DISAPPROVE

STRONGLY
DISAPPROVE

2. Repeated complaints and griping came from the football players on the bench toward the officials when fouls were called on their team, and the coach did nothing to stop this action.

STRONGLY
APPROVE

APPROVE

DISAPPROVE

STRONGLY
DISAPPROVE

3. After a basketball game the hometown coach made fun of the visiting team's playing ability.

STRONGLY
APPROVE

APPROVE

DISAPPROVE

STRONGLY
DISAPPROVE

4. A football coach took time out and came onto the playing field and accused referees of cheating his team.

STRONGLY
APPROVE

APPROVE

DISAPPROVE

STRONGLY
DISAPPROVE

5. During a football game a player made an error that resulted in a touchdown for the opponents. The coach ran onto the field and bawled out the player in front of the fans.

STRONGLY
APPROVE

APPROVE

DISAPPROVE

STRONGLY
DISAPPROVE

6. After a questionable foul was called against a football player, his coach went onto the field and refused to leave when the referee told him to do so.

STRONGLY
APPROVE

APPROVE

DISAPPROVE

STRONGLY
DISAPPROVE

7. During a basketball game the coach of the losing team yelled that the officials had been "paid off" by the opposing team.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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8. A baseball coach acted as referee for an important game and called in favor of his team.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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9. A basketball coach installed a light to blind the opponents when they were shooting at a goal.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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10. After a third baseman caught a ball which put a player out, the opposing coach cursed the third baseman.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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11. A football coach used profane language during workouts and in conversation with the boys.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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12. A baseball coach cursed loudly after a runner was called out on first base.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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13. After a football game a player attacked the official who had taken him out of the game. The coach covered up for the player and said the player had never done such a thing.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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14. At a basketball game students in a balcony spat on the opposing team and coach.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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15. A basketball coach went onto the court and shook an official who had called fouls against his team.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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16. After a football game, the captain of the winning team was hit by the captain of the losing team when the winner tried to shake hands.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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17. A baseball coach instructed his players to file their cleats to sharpen them in order to injure opponents.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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18. A football coach stepped to the sideline in front of the player's bench and kicked an opposing player who had just made a tackle.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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19. Between innings the coach of the losing baseball team grabbed the umpire and threw him to the ground.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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20. Before a baseball game a coach went into the umpire's dressing room and offered him money to help his team win.

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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21. In a football game the visiting team was penalized for roughing the kicker. The coach of the visiting team rushed onto the field and hit an official.

STRONGLY
APPROVE

APPROVE

DISAPPROVE

STRONGLY
DISAPPROVE

(This questionnaire was designed by Dr. M. L. Johnson, Research Quarterly, 40:2, 312-316, May, 1969.)

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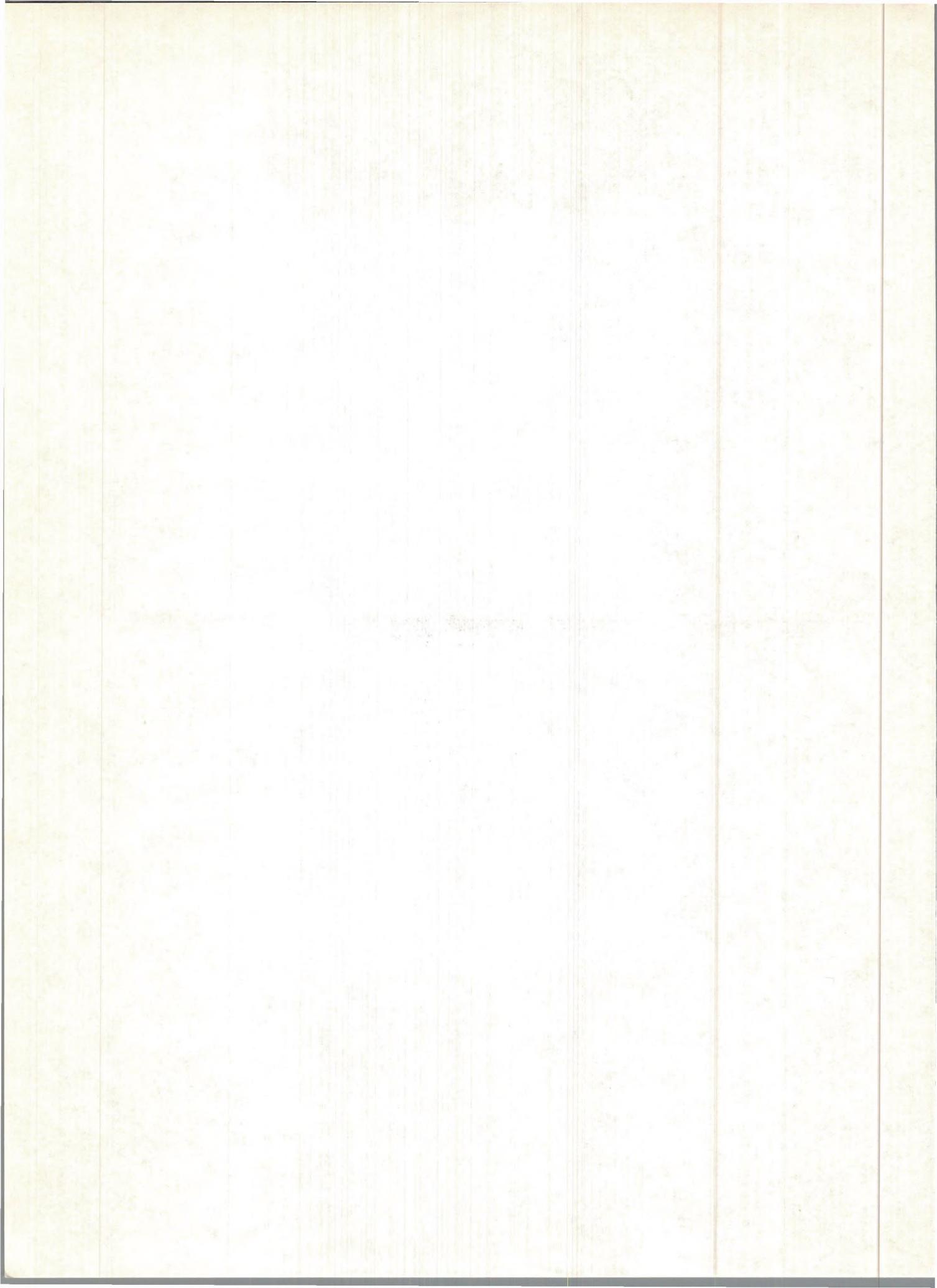
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