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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GOAL ORIENTATION, SPORTSPERSONSHIP,
AND SPORT PARTICIPATION ON MORAL REASONING

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MORALITY AND SPORT

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MORALITY AND SPORT

Abstract

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GOAL ORIENTATION, SPORTSPERSONSHIP, AND SPORT PARTICIPATION ON MORAL REASONING

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This paper examined the main effects and interactions of achievement goal orientation, sportpersonship orientation, and sport participation on athletes' and non-athletes' moral judgments in both sport and non-sport scenarios. The results indicated that sport participation only affected moral judgments in sport scenarios, supporting bracketed morality theory. Athletes reported less harsh moral judgments than non-athletes only in the sport scenarios. Participants who were more task-oriented and more positive sportpersonship oriented reported harsher moral judgments in sport scenarios, and participants who were more ego-oriented and more negative sportpersonship oriented reported less harsh moral judgments in sport scenarios. Non-athletes with a positive sportpersonship orientation reported harsher moral judgments in sport scenarios. In non-sport scenarios, participants who were more ego-oriented reported less harsh moral judgments in non-sport scenarios, and participants who were more positive sportpersonship oriented reported harsher judgments in non-sport scenarios.

Keywords: morality, sport, achievement goal theory, sportpersonship, bracketed morality

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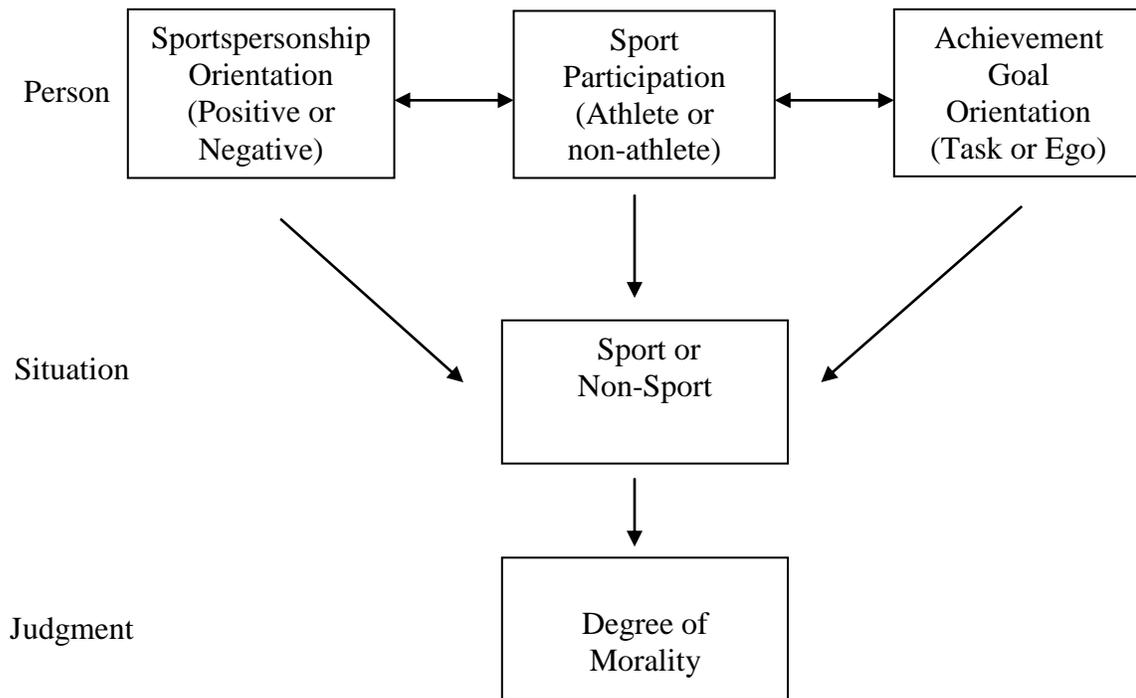


Figure 1. The person and the situation affect overall judgment. Peoples sportsmanship orientations, sport participation, and achievement goal orientations all directly affect and interact with each other in a given situation, either sport or non-sport, to influence their morality judgments.

The Relationship Between Goal Orientation, Sportspersonship,
and Sport Participation on Moral Reasoning

There are major differences in people's behavior in sport; some exhibit sportspersonship, prosocial, and moral behavior whereas others exhibit aggression and distasteful sportspersonship. For example, during this past 2012 Summer Olympic games in London, French Basketball player, Nicolas Batum, punched Spanish player Juan Navarro in the groin during the men's quarterfinal tournament. Compare that aggressive behavior to the Ohio High School Track Championships where junior, Meghan Vogel, carried an opponent who fell during the race across the finish line, and made sure her injured opponent finished before her. These are two very dissimilar situations, but why do some people act in such a moral manner compared to others intentionally harming an opponent? There is a variety of factors that influence morality such as personality and individual differences, as well as the context of the environment.

Sport is thought to enhance morality by enabling respect, rule following, and character building, although some would argue that sport does just the opposite by encouraging aggressive tendencies and poor sportspersonship (Bredemeier & Shields, 1986a; Long, Pantaleon, Bruant, & d'Arripe-Longueville, 2006). A major belief of society is that sport builds character by teaching people how to cooperate with others, negotiate and offer solutions in moral conflicts, learn fairness, virtues, loyalty, teamwork, responsibility, conformity, and show courage (Kavussanu & Roberts, 2001). In order to maintain moral conduct in sport, coaches and officials take on the responsibility of judging the interactions between players, such as delivering sanctions and assigning accountability in conflicts. These judgments are based on external regulation that is set

prior to the event to ensure that officials are able to enforce the rules and protect the safety of the participants. Although there are set rules that athletes must abide by, immoral behaviors are still present in sport.

Multiple influential factors affect athletes' moral behavior. Many researchers have explored morality in sport, focusing on moral development as a prerequisite for moral reasoning. Others have investigated the effects of the type of sport and the context of the social environment on aggressive tendencies, injurious acts, and low levels of morality in sport. Individual differences, such as personality orientations, have also been a major factor in moral reasoning in sport, such as the athlete's sportpersonship orientation and motivation orientation (Dunn & Causgrove-Dunn, 1999). Although there has been research on the effects of both orientations individually on morality in sport, there has not been a great deal of research on the interaction of these two orientations on a person's moral reasoning. In particular, sportpersonship as an orientation is a newer topic of investigation, thus there is much more to learn about how it influences morality.

Additionally, there is a wide range of moral behaviors evident in the sport world, but do these behaviors carry over into the world outside of athletic competitions? Comparing athletes' morality in a sport setting to a non-sport setting may shed new light on the effects of sport participation on moral reasoning, especially when comparing athletes' morality to non-athletes' morality in both sport and non-sport situations. Therefore examining the goal orientations and sportpersonship orientations of athletes and non-athletes may help determine whether sport participation influences a person's moral reasoning.

Moral Development and Reasoning in Sport

The moral development of an athlete tends to influence the individual's moral action and behavior in the sport context (Kavussanu & Roberts, 2001). Moral reasoning represents the cognitive process that an individual goes through in order to reach a moral decision based on her or his perceptions of morality; it is the decision process that a person goes through to determine the rightness or wrongness of a behavior. Moral decisions stem from social interactions in terms of conflicts, communication, and balance between the individuals in a given situation. Much of the research on morality in sport is based on Rest's (1983, 1984) model of moral action and behavior. According to Rest's (1983, 1984) model, there are four main processes for producing moral behavior: interpreting the situation and the possibilities for each person, forming a judgment about what ought to be done, deciding what one intends to do, and finally implementing the actual behavior. In sport, athletes' moral reasoning and moral behavior is based on these four processes. For example, a defensive lacrosse player interprets the situation as an opponent with the ball runs towards the goal, and then forms a judgment about what to do such as run to the opponent to defend the goal. Then the defensive player must decide if that is the best option, and then finally the player will implement the behavior by running toward the opponent to try to stop the other team from scoring. The morality of each person's behavior in a given situation is dependent upon the four processes.

There are opposing theories of moral reasoning that differ in the way they define moral development and behavior, as well as how morality is exemplified. Kohlberg's (1981, 1984) dual aspect theory of moral behavior describes the level of moral behavior as the individual's dedication to basic moral principles, and a person's ability to reason

and act according to those beliefs. For example, athletes determine what is right and wrong in their sport and then try to abide by their own moral beliefs. Another major theory of moral reasoning is Haan et al.'s (1985) interactional morality theory in which moral reasoning is dependent upon the action, and a person can use different degrees of moral reasoning in different situations. For example, athletes may determine what is right and wrong in their sport, but also take into consideration the context and the uniqueness of the situation. Haan's (1983) interactional theory differs from Kohlberg's (1981, 1984) dual aspect theory in multiple ways. The interactional model considers both the person and the behavior within the context of the situation, rather than the set distinction between right versus wrong in the dual aspect theory; the interactional model is more flexible and considers multiple interpretations of a person's moral behavior.

Although there are multiple theories, they are all composed of stages to distinguish the level of one's morality. In addition, when applying either theory when measuring people's morality, researchers have asked participants to read a number of varying moral dilemmas and scenarios and then are asked to form judgments and determine sanctions for the behaviors. The same procedure has been done when assessing the degree of moral behavior and reasoning in sport scenarios as well (e.g., Shields, LaVoi, Bredemeier, & Power, 2007). Different sports involve many different situations, whether people are performing alone or as a team. Therefore, the contact level of the sport may impact a person's moral reasoning as well, which is why the type of sport has a major role in morality in sport.

The Type of Sport

The type of sport tends to influence athletes' moral reasoning and behavior. When exploring the effects of the type of sport on moral reasoning, Bredemeier, Weiss, Shields, and Cooper (1986) compared the moral judgments of aggression in athletes in low, medium, and high contact sports. Low contact sports consisted of swimming, baseball, track, and volleyball. Medium contact sports involved some incidental contact, such as basketball, soccer, and field hockey, and high contact sports involved implicit or goal-directed contact, such as football, ice hockey, and rugby. They found that the participants were more likely to consider aggressive behavior legitimate in higher contact sports rather than low or medium contact sports. Bredemeier and Shields' (1986b) research has also shown significant differences in athletes' moral reasoning based on the level of contact in the sport by examining the differences between basketball, a medium contact sport, and swimming, a low contact sport. When given sport dilemma scenarios and life dilemma scenarios, basketball players exhibited lower moral reasoning than swimmers in both scenarios. They concluded that higher contact sports may inhibit moral growth and development due to the aggressive and combative nature of the sport environment; antisocial behavior and negative views of opponents are encouraged in the sport therefore the tendency may be carried over in daily life.

In addition to the level of contact, Bredemeier and Shields (1986b) concluded that some of the differences between the moral reasoning and aggressive behaviors of swimmers and basketball players are due to the individual-sport versus team-sport emphasis. Vallerand, Deshaies, and Cuerrier (2007b) gave athletes from different sports scenarios of moral issues and asked what they would do. The individual sports consisted

of track, swimming, and gymnastics, and the team sports consisted of volleyball, basketball, and ice hockey. The individual-sport athletes were less likely to engage in immoral behaviors in comparison to the team-sport athletes. Vallerand et al. (2007b) concluded that the differences may be a result of the team-sport athletes' intragroup influences from teammates and coaches as they are more likely to feel pressured to conform and help the team by engaging in unsportsmanlike, aggressive behavior. Individual-sport athletes tend to feel less pressure to engage in unsportsmanlike behavior because they act on their own standards when they are faced with moral conflicts. Additionally, a major influence on moral behavior that affects decisions and judgments is the social atmosphere. Humans are social creatures and therefore the presence of others may influence behavior, in particular moral behavior.

The Context of Sport: Moral Atmosphere

The context and the environment of the sport, also referred to as the moral atmosphere, may influence the moral reasoning and behavior of athletes. The moral atmosphere of sport is the characteristics of the social environment that may affect the players' moral reasoning, decisions, and behaviors; moral atmosphere reflects the team's moral climate. A few significant aspects of the moral atmosphere of a sport are collective norms of the team, which are behavioral expectations that hold a common value within the team. Sport team moral norms most often build with time and interactions between team members and coaches. The environment and interaction of the group affects the group norms of moral reasoning and behavior. It may be a collective norm for one team to cheat if their coach encourages it in close contests, whereas it may be a collective norm for a different team to not engage in cheating when in a close contest; it depends on the

group and the situation. A group culture and shared understanding of appropriate behavior and moral action within that group is set based on the team's philosophies and the characteristics of the coach and team members.

In order to grasp a better understanding of the moral atmosphere of sport teams, Shields et al. (2007) conducted a study that assessed different team's shared group norms and attitudes on sportspersonship. Shields et al. (2007) measured 696 fifth and sixth graders' sportspersonship, relationships, and attitudes in a sport setting including sports such as basketball, soccer, baseball, softball, football, lacrosse, and hockey. A variety of self-report questionnaires were used to assess the team norm, coach norm, and parent norm of the team's moral atmosphere. Consistent with previous research, they found that the coaches, teammates, and parents were all important influences in terms of the team's moral atmosphere, with coaches' expectations as the most influential factor on children's overall moral expectations. The children partly based their moral decisions on their perception of the coach's behavior and attitude rather than their own. The spectator behavior was also a significant influence on children's moral expectations because they learn from their parents' actions at athletic competitions. Shields et al. (2007) also found that the moral atmosphere was also statistically significant as children were more likely to exhibit sportspersonship if it was the moral norm of the team, instilled by the coach. Additionally, they found a positive correlation between peers' expectations in terms of cheating, rules and violations, and aggression. The strongest predictor of players' self-reported aggressive tendencies is for pro-aggressive teams, such as football.

Long et al. (2006) also studied the moral atmosphere of sport by examining risk-taking and disobeying rules in medium or high contact sports, such as soccer, rugby, and

judo. The teams were all of elite status and the players had seven to ten years experience. The athletes were interviewed and asked to describe their views on game rule violations in competitive sport situations. Long et al. (2006) found that rule compliance and positive behavior were exhibited when players said that they would be accepting of incorrect refereeing and also show self-control in spite of verbal or physical intimidation because the athletes knew if they broke a rule, then the team would ultimately be sanctioned.

Also, Long et al. (2006) concluded that the moral atmosphere and social environment of the team guided the athletes' responses about team pressure, such as showing respect, values, virtues, hard work, not cheating, and playing fair. The participants reported the use of negative game behavior and violation of rules such as holding an opponent's shirt, using verbal intimidation, and using an opponent's injury to their advantage. In addition, they reported that the underlying reason to act morally or immorally was determined by the moral atmosphere set by the coach; if the coach encouraged breaking rules to win, then the players abided by that norm. Long et al's (2006) research shows that athletes articulate the sport values through their moral reasoning, and that different sports and different teams have different norms as to what is deemed acceptable in the competition based on the moral atmosphere.

Both Shields et al. (2007) and Long et al. (2006) explored morality in sport by examining the context and the environment. Although the atmosphere is a significant factor in one's morality in sport, individual differences also have a major role in one's morality. For example, one's desire to win, sportspersonship, and motivation all influence an athlete's moral reasoning and behavior.

The Individual in Sport**Individual desire to win: Game reasoning theory and bracketed morality.**

Sport is a unique environment, therefore game reasoning theory has been used to assess moral judgments in sport. Game reasoning theory is applied to athletic competitions in that people transform their moral reasoning to fit their desire to achieve a goal; people adjust their morality based on the nature of the self-interest desired goal of the competition (Long et al., 2006). Coaches or officials externally determine the rules of athletic contests and the athlete acts according to those predetermined norms. These rules affect participants' moral reasoning because the rules are set and not flexible, therefore the players must abide by them at all times, and adjust their moral reasoning to fit the set rules. Competition rewards affect moral reasoning because the rewards and goals are extremely important, and players must change their personal interests to fit the required actions to achieve the desired goal of winning.

A major part of everyday human life is that people morally understand one another, and are constantly judging one another. However, sport is an exception to this constant judgment, as people tend to let go, relax, and forget about the constant moral judgments while playing a sport (Bredemeier & Shields, 1986a). This temporary disregard of judgment is referred to as bracketed morality, where people are no longer obliged to their moral needs and interests while engaging in sports. Game reasoning is often referred to as the reflection of the bracketed moral exchange that occurs in sport in the attempt to create a moral balance. This moral balance is created by establishing artificial scores, winning or losing, opposition of different teams, externally regulated rules with officials, and no real life implications. This balance allows players to be free of

any constraints and concentrate on their personal goals and forget about the interest of others.

Athletic competition is egocentric in nature with implicit moral agreements in that participants choose to be there, there is equal opportunity, each person pursues victory, and there are spatial and temporal boundaries. According to Haan's (1983) interactional model of morality, people seek to achieve moral balance and to maintain their views of self and other as moral beings. Therefore people seek to right wrongs and receive forgiveness, and recreate a moral balance by taking chances on others' good faith and recognize their forgiveness. Because sport is naturally egocentric, participants think about themselves first, such as gaining position or an advantage in the competition. Athletes are not always aware of this egocentrism; rather it has become habit or choice to not consciously think about the welfare of opponents due to the competitive nature of athletics.

Bredemeier and Shields (1986b) examined game reasoning theory and bracketed morality by comparing athletes to non-athletes. High school and collegiate basketball players and non-athletes were given a variety of moral dilemmas, both regular life dilemmas and sport dilemmas, and used Haan's interactional model to measure participants' moral reasoning. Likert scale questionnaires were used to assess the participants' judgments about the scenarios. Both athletes and non-athletes used the lowest level of moral reasoning more often in sport situations, compared to the second and third levels of moral reasoning in life situations. Bredemeier and Shields (1986b) attributed the use of lower moral reasoning in the sport dilemmas to the effects of bracketed morality because the participants placed a higher concern for themselves in

comparison to others as an attempt to strive in the competition. If this same self-concern was exhibited in the real life dilemmas, the participants viewed it as immature. These results show the exception of egocentrism of bracketed morality of sport.

Individual sportpersonship orientation. Individual differences influence one's morality in sport. For example, different personality orientations, such as one's sportpersonship orientation can have an influence. Sportpersonship is the degree to which a person fully commits to participation, respects the social conventions, respects the rules and officials, and respects opponents. Sportpersonship is sport behavior that focuses on the morality of fairness and respect. Sport has been said to build character in children, and good sport behavior is the norm of youth sports, although cheating, aggressions, and poor sport behaviors, such as fighting, arguing, trash talking, teasing, and bragging are still demonstrated in youth sports. Other goals, such as friendship, peer acceptance, and praise from a coach may lead to unsportpersonlike behavior. For example, Shields et al.'s (2007) study with youth children found that the boys reported more unsportpersonship behavior than the girls, and increasingly poor behavior by grade level. Additionally, there was more unsportpersonship behavior in football and hockey than soccer and basketball.

An athlete's sportpersonship orientation has been shown to influence one's moral reasoning and behavior in sport. In order to assess one's sportpersonship, Vallerand, Brière, Blanchard, and Provencher, (1997a) developed the Multidimensional Sportpersonship Orientation Scale (MSOS) based on a social psychological approach to sportpersonship that included cultural, interpersonal, social, and situational variables. The scale contains five dimensions, referred to as orientations, which have been found to

be major factors of one's sportpersonship. The first sportpersonship orientation is respect for one's full commitment toward sport participation, which can be demonstrated by athletes always working hard and trying to improve their skills. The second orientation is respect for social conventions, which can be displayed by shaking hands of an opponent or acknowledging an opponent's talent. The third orientation is respect for rules and for the officials, which can be shown by listening and not arguing with the officials. The fourth orientation is respect and concern for the opponent, which can be evident when an athlete does not take advantage of an injured opponent. The fifth orientation is a negative approach toward the practice of sport, which can be displayed by an athlete doing whatever it takes to win (Vallerad et al., 1997). Similarly to a person's sportpersonship orientation, a person's motivation orientation has been shown to affect one's morality in sport. For example, people's type of motivation affects how they attempt to reach a desired goal, known as achievement goal theory.

Individual motivation: Achievement goal theory. Moral reasoning is also influenced by goals and goal orientations. The desired goal reflects the individual's intentions, which are important when examining both motivated behavior and moral behavior. Moral behavior is behavior that is intentional, a response to an obligation, and highly motivated; therefore motivation is a major aspect of moral action. In order to understand moral behavior, the motivation driving the behavior must be examined.

Nicholls (1984) discussed achievement goal theory and the achievement orientations based on the perception of ability. Achievement orientation is determined by perceived mastery, understanding, and knowledge of a task. There are two main types of achievement orientation: ego involvement, referred to as ego-orientation, and task

involvement, referred to as task-orientation (Nicholls, 1984). Ego-orientation is used to describe those who determine their abilities by referencing and comparing themselves to members of a specific group. Task-orientation is used to describe those who determine their abilities by comparing their own past performances.

These achievement orientations have further developed with continued research. Kavussanu and Roberts (2001) have studied achievement goals in sport, such as the differences between ego-oriented players and task-oriented. Two hundred men and women basketball players were given moral scenarios and likert scale questionnaires to assess their views and judgments about the scenarios. They were also given questionnaires to assess goal orientation and attitudes towards sportspersonship, injurious acts, and social desirability. Kavussanu and Roberts (2001) found that ego-oriented players accepted behaviors such as injuring an opponent, faking an injury, and intimidating an opponent. Ego-oriented players reported that they would try to show superiority over others and therefore were more likely to engage in rule violations or cheating if they thought it would help achieve their goal. Ego-oriented players also reported the use of other-mentioned criteria to show their competence, such as outperforming others. Also, gender differences were evident as females reported statistically significantly higher levels of moral functioning than males. Overall, the ego-oriented individual's concern for justice and fairness of a sport came secondarily to the reward of winning.

Kavussanu and Roberts (2001) also found statistically significant differences for the task-oriented players compared to the ego-oriented players in terms of moral reasoning and behaviors. The goals of task-oriented players tended to be focused on the

self, such as doing their best and fulfilling their potential (Kavussanu & Roberts, 2001).

They tended to opt out of cheating because they wanted to win fairly and because of their own athletic abilities in the competition. In addition, task-oriented players reported the use of self-referenced criteria to show their competence or mastery of a skill, such as comparing a skill they have been improving.

Achievement has been studied in the sport context due to the nature of athletic competitions, which involves teaching sportspersonship, cooperation, responsibility, playing fair, and prosocial behavior. Dunn and Causgrove-Dunn's (1999) research on elite youth ice hockey players exhibited differences between athletes' sportspersonship orientations and goal orientations. Athletes were given the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TESQ) to determine goal orientations, a perceived legitimacy of injurious acts towards opponents questionnaire, and a hockey-specific version of the MSOS to assess sportspersonship orientations. Task-oriented athletes tended to have greater respect for social convention, higher personal commitment to participation, and more respect for rules and officials compared to ego-oriented athletes. In addition, the ego-oriented players tended to use lower levels of moral reasoning in game situations, such as deliberately injuring an opponent so they could no longer participate, or intimidating opponents; they tended to have lower levels of moral competence, therefore are more likely to accept intentional injuries, aggressive behaviors, unsportsmanlike play and cheating, and low sportspersonship. The task-oriented players tended to have higher moral competence, therefore were more likely to play more fairly and exhibit more sportspersonship and prosocial behavior. Dunn and Causgrove-Dunn's (1999) research shows the relationship between goal orientation and sportspersonship orientation in youth

hockey players, yet it is not generalized to all athletes. In addition, the interaction between the two orientations on an athlete's moral reasoning has yet to be examined.

The Present Study

Previous research has shown that athletes' achievement goal orientations tend to influence their moral reasoning in sport situations, primarily that task-oriented athletes are more likely to use higher levels of moral reasoning than ego-oriented athletes (Dunn & Causgrove-Dunn, 1999). In addition to goal orientations, studies have explored the effects of athletes' sportpersonship orientations on their morality in sport situations. Research has shown that athletes with lower levels of sportpersonship tend to also use lower levels of moral reasoning (Shields et al.'s, 2007). Achievement goal orientation and sportpersonship orientation have been individually tested on athletes' morality in sport settings, but not in comparison to non-athletes' morality in both sport and non-sport settings.

The present study explored the main effects and the interactions of achievement goal orientation, sportpersonship orientation, and sport participation (athlete versus non-athlete) on moral reasoning in sport and non-sport situations. Based on game reasoning theory and bracketed morality, it was expected to find that athletes would have lower levels of moral reasoning than non-athletes in sport situations due to the egocentric nature of athletic competition that athletes engage in much more regularly than non-athletes. It was also hypothesized that high ego-oriented participants would report less harsh moral judgments in the sport scenarios based on achievement goal theory's previous research exemplifying that ego-oriented individuals tend to be less moral in athletics. Similarly, research has shown that task-oriented individuals tend to report higher levels of moral

reasoning, therefore it was hypothesized that task-oriented participants would have harsher moral judgments in sport scenarios. It was also hypothesized that participants who had a negative sportspersonship orientation would report less harsh moral judgments, and that participants with a positive sportspersonship orientation would report harsher judgments.

Secondarily, this research also examined whether athletes and non-athletes with similar orientations showed different moral reasoning in the sport versus the non-sport situations. Additionally, demographics were assessed, such as the highest level and frequency of sport involvement, as well as gender, age, and level of education. Figure one illustrates a model of how the person and the situation influence overall judgments. The different factors and orientations, sportspersonship orientation, either positive or negative sportspersonship orientation, achievement goal orientation, either task or ego-orientation, and sport participation either athlete or non-athlete, and the type of situation, sport or non-sport, and how they all affect morality judgments are shown in the figure.

Method

Participants

Participants completed the study entitled “Compete Much?” on surveymonkey.com, and were recruited via various professional colleagues, and the survey was posted on social media websites, such as Facebook. Five-hundred and sixty-nine people started the survey, and 436 people completed the survey. Of the 436 participants, 12 people scored at least three standard deviations from the mean on one of the scales, thus were considered outliers and not included in the analysis. Of the 424 participants, 77 people reported “N/A” for the highest level of sport played, therefore

these 77 participants were analyzed as the non-athlete group. One-hundred and seventy-one people reported “college division I, II, III, or professional” for highest level of sport played, therefore these 171 participants were analyzed as the athlete group. Overall, the total sample size was 248 participants.

The participants’ ages ranged from 18 to 60 years ($M = 28.86$, $SD = 9.76$). There were 139 men (56%), 108 women (43.5%), and one “other” (0.4%). One participant’s highest level of education was some high school, but did not finish (0.4%), nine completed high school (3.6%), 33 completed some college but did not finish (13.3%), 16 completed a two-year degree (6.5%), 94 completed a four-year degree (37.9%), 32 completed some graduate school (12.9%), 46 completed graduate school (18.5%), and 17 completed advanced graduate work or a doctoral degree (6.9%). Two-hundred and twenty-nine participants were Caucasian/white (92.3%), eight Asian-American (3.2%), six reported “other” (2.4%), three African-American (1.2%), and two Latino/Hispanic (0.8%).

One-hundred and eighty-five participants currently participated in sports (74.6%) and 63 did not currently participate in sports (25.4%). 14 participants reported “never” to actively participating in sports (5.6%), 27 occasionally (10.9%), 30 seasonal (12.1%), two less than an hour per week (0.8%), 57 one to four hours per week (23%), 71 five-10 hours per week (28.6%), and 47 more than 10 hours per week (19%).

Materials

The Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TESQ; Duda, 1989) was used to measure goal orientation. This inventory consisted of 13 Likert scale questions that ranged from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*) that assessed task and ego

orientation. The validity and internal reliability of the TESQ are deemed adequate. The Multidimensional Sportspersonship Orientations Scale (MSOS-25; Vallerand et al., 1997) was used to measure sportspersonship orientation. This inventory consisted of 25 Likert scale questions that ranged from 1 (*Doesn't correspond to me at all*) to 5 (*Corresponds to me exactly*) that assessed five different types of sportspersonship orientations. The validity and internal reliability of the MSOS-25 are deemed acceptable.

The Moral Reasoning Questionnaire (MRQ) consisted of 12 moral dilemmas, six sport scenarios and six non-sport life scenarios (refer to Appendix B). The life scenarios consisted of a variety of situations in work, family, romantic relationship, friend, and work moral dilemmas. The sport scenarios consisted of a variety of moral dilemmas in different sports, with some adapted from Kavussanu and Spray's (2006) sport moral scenarios used to assess moral reasoning. Each scenario consisted of first-person situations beginning with "*Imagine that*" where the participant was the person conducting the behavior. Each life and sport scenario had three seven-point Likert scale questions that assessed the participants' moral reasoning by measuring their judgments and reactions to the behavior in each scenario.

A demographic questionnaire was used that assessed each participant's sport involvement, such as type and number of years, as well as gender, ethnicity, age, and level of education (Appendix B). A consent form and debriefing form was also used for each participant (refer to Appendices A and D).

Procedure

Participants completed the study online. Participants read the informed consent, and then once they agreed, they completed the TESQ, MSOS-25, MRQ, and

demographic questionnaire. Once they finished, they read a debriefing form. The entire procedure lasted approximately 20 min.

Results

The first set of analyses assessed the reliability of the scales. Reliability analyses were first conducted on the two subscales of the TESQ. The Cronbach's alpha reliability of the ego-orientation subscale was .86 and the Cronbach's alpha reliability of the task-orientation subscale was .79. For the MSOS-25, the reliability of two subscales was assessed. The first was the negative approach toward the practice of sport subscale, which was used in the analyses as the negative sportpersonship orientation and the Cronbach's alpha was .58. If question five "I compete for personal honors, trophies, and medals," was deleted, the alpha-if-item-deleted would be .64, but the original subscale including question five was used in the analyses. For the second subscale, the four positive subscales, respect for social conventions, respect for rules and officials, respect for one's full commitment toward sport participation, and respect and concern for the opponent were combined into one positive approach toward the practice of sport subscale. The four subscales were used in the analyses as the positive sportpersonship orientation and the Cronbach's alpha reliability was .69. The reliability was computed on the Moral Reasoning Questionnaire, the Cronbach's alpha of the 12 sport moral reasoning questions was .86, and the Cronbach's alpha of the 12 non-sport moral reasoning questions was .76.

The TESQ and MSOS-25 variables and scores were centered for regression analyses and means. Independent *t*-tests were conducted to measure the differences between athletes and non-athletes scores on the TESQ, MSOS-25, and Moral Reasoning Questionnaire. Athletes ($M = .07$, $SD = .49$) scored significantly higher on task-

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orientation than non-athletes ($M = -.12$, $SD = .48$), $t(246) = -2.89$, $p < .05$. Athletes ($M = .11$, $SD = .90$) also scored significantly higher on ego-orientation than non-athletes ($M = -.31$, $SD = .92$), $t(246) = -3.33$, $p < .05$. Athletes ($M = .20$, $SD = 2.75$) scored significantly higher on negative sportpersonship orientation than non-athletes ($M = -.70$, $SD = 3.03$), $t(246) = -2.30$, $p < .05$. There were no significant differences between athletes ($M = 1.15$, $SD = 9.70$) and non-athletes ($M = 1.16$, $SD = 9.64$) scores on positive sportpersonship orientation, $t(246) = .01$, $p > .05$. Athletes ($M = 4.24$, $SD = .90$) reported significantly less harsh judgments in sport scenarios than non-athletes ($M = 4.69$, $SD = .84$), $t(246) = 3.68$, $p < .05$. There was no significant difference between athletes ($M = 4.34$, $SD = .68$) and non-athletes ($M = 4.45$, $SD = .75$) judgments in non-sport situations, $t(246) = .86$, $p > .05$.

A sequential regression analysis was employed to determine the main effects and interactions of achievement goal orientation, sportpersonship orientation, and sport participation (athlete versus non-athlete) on moral reasoning in sport situations. The predictor variables were entered in two steps. In step 1, moral reasoning in sport situations was the dependent variable and ego-orientation, task-orientation, positive sportpersonship, negative sportpersonship, and sport participation were the predictor variables. In step 2, the interactions of ego-orientation, task-orientation, positive sportpersonship, and negative sportpersonship with sport participation were entered into the equation. Before the sequential multiple regression analysis was performed, the predictor variables were examined for collinearity. Results of the variance inflation factor and collinearity tolerance suggest that the estimated β s are well established in the following regression model.

R was significantly different from zero at the end of both steps. After step 2, with all of the main effects and the interactions in the equation, $R^2 = .22$ (*adjusted* $R^2 = .19$), $F(9, 238) = 7.32$, $p < .001$. The results of step 1 with only the 5 main effects in the equation, indicated that the overall model was found to be statistically significant, $R^2 = .18$ (*adjusted* $R^2 = .16$), $F_{inc}(5, 242) = 10.70$, $p < .001$. Of the individual predictor variables, task-orientation ($\beta = .17$), ego-orientation ($\beta = -.13$), positive sportspersonship orientation ($\beta = .19$), negative sportspersonship orientation ($\beta = -.13$), and sport participation ($\beta = -.21$) were statistically significant predictors. The results indicated that participants who were more task-oriented and more positive sportspersonship oriented reported harsher moral judgments in sport scenarios. The athletes and the participants who were more ego-oriented and more negative sportspersonship oriented reported less harsh moral judgments in sport scenarios. After step 2, with the main effects and the interactions of the main effects with sport participation added to the equation, the overall model was statistically significant, $R^2 = .22$ (*adjusted* $R^2 = .19$), $F_{inc}(4, 238) = 2.71$, $p < .05$. Of the individual interaction terms, the interaction of positive sportspersonship orientation with sport participation ($\beta = .63$) was significant. The results indicated that for athletes, positive sportspersonship was not associated with moral judgments, but for non-athletes, the more positive the sportspersonship, the harsher the moral judgments in sport scenarios.

The identical sequential regression analysis was performed using moral reasoning in non-sport situations as the dependent variable. Before the sequential multiple regression analysis was performed, the independent variables were examined for

collinearity. Results of the variance inflation factor and collinearity tolerance suggest that the estimated β s are well established in the following regression model.

R was significantly different from zero at the end of both steps. After step 2, with all of the main effects and the interactions in the equation, $R^2 = .10$ (*adjusted* $R^2 = .06$), $F(9, 238) = 2.87, p < .05$. The results of step 1 with all 5 main effects in the equation, indicated that the overall model was found to be statistically significant, $R^2 = .01$ (*adjusted* $R^2 = .08$), $F_{inc}(5, 242) = 5.15, p < .001$. Ego-orientation was statistically significant ($\beta = -.17$) and positive sportspersonship orientation was statistically significant ($\beta = .18$). The results indicated that participants who were more ego-oriented reported less harsh moral judgments in non-sport scenarios. The participants who were more positive sportspersonship oriented reported harsher judgments in non-sport scenarios. Addition of the interactions of the main effects and sport participation in the second step of the equation did not reliably improve R^2 , $R^2 = .10$ (*adjusted* $R^2 = .06$), $F_{inc}(4, 238) = .11, p > .05$.

Discussion

The effects of achievement goal orientation and sportspersonship orientation on athletes' moral judgments have individually been examined in the past, however the effects of both orientations on non-athletes' moral judgments in both sport situations and non-sport situations have not been assessed. Therefore, we examined the main effects and interactions of achievement goal orientation, sportspersonship orientation, and sport participation on athletes' and non-athletes' moral judgments in both sport and non-sport scenarios.

Based on game reasoning theory and bracketed morality, in which athletes tend to show lower levels of morality in sport situations, it was hypothesized that athletes would have less harsh moral judgments in the sport scenarios. The hypothesis was supported in that sport participation did significantly affect moral judgments in sport scenarios.

Athletes reported less harsh moral judgments than non-athletes in the sport scenarios, although sport participation did not affect moral judgments in the non-sport scenarios.

Athletes penalized the behavior to a lesser degree, judged the person less negatively, and were more morally accepting of the behavior than the non-athletes. These findings support bracketed morality theory because athletes exhibited less harsh moral judgments only in sport situations; athletes' lenient judgments did not carry over into the non-sport, life situations, rather sport participation only influenced their judgments in sport scenarios possibly due to the competitive environment and egocentric nature of sport.

In terms of achievement goal orientation, research has shown that ego-oriented athletes tend to value winning over fairness in sport, therefore are more likely to display lower levels of moral reasoning in sport situations in order to win (Roberts, 2001). Task-oriented athletes tend to focus on themselves and fulfilling their potential, therefore are more likely to display higher levels of moral reasoning in sport situations in order to play fair (Kavussanu & Roberts, 2001). Due to previous research, it was hypothesized that participants who scored high on ego-orientation would have less harsh moral judgments, and that participants who scored high on task-orientation would have more harsh moral judgments. The hypothesis was supported, which shows that these results are similar to past research on achievement goal theory, and indicate that high ego-oriented people who are playing a sport to win at all costs are more likely to judge a questionable behavior less

negatively, sanction the behavior less harsh, and be more morally accepting of the behavior in sport situations. In addition, high task-oriented people who are playing a sport to the best potential are more likely to judge a questionable behavior more negatively, sanction the behavior to a harsher degree, and be less morally accepting of the behavior in sport situations.

Furthermore, athletes scored significantly higher on ego-orientation than non-athletes, and, interestingly, athletes scored significantly higher on task-orientation than non-athletes. It is possible that people are more likely to have higher ego-orientations and higher task-orientations by engaging in sport participation. High ego-orientation scores predicted less harsh moral judgments in non-sport scenarios as well. Therefore, a high ego-orientation and having the mindset to win no matter what may have influenced people's morality not only in sport situations, but also in non-sport situations. These findings have interesting implications because there were no significant differences between athlete's and non-athlete's moral judgments in non-sport scenarios showing that sport participation did not affect morality judgments in non-sport situations. However, high ego-orientation predicted less harsh moral judgments in non-sport scenarios showing that participants who were highly ego-oriented were less moral in non-sport, life situations; sport participation did not influence non-sport morality judgments, but rather high ego-orientation did influence non-sport judgments to be less harsh, and therefore less moral.

It was hypothesized that participants with a higher negative approach towards sportpersonship orientation would report less harsh moral judgments than those with a more positive approach towards sportpersonship. This hypothesis was based on previous

research indicating that athletes with low levels of sportpersonship were less moral than those with high levels of sportpersonship, such as doing whatever it takes to win a competition (Shields et al., 2007). The hypothesis was supported, showing that participants who had high scores of positive sportpersonship orientation reported more harsh moral judgments in both sport and non-sport scenarios. Regardless of sport participation, participants with a positive approach to sportpersonship orientation, such as respecting commitment towards sport, social conventions, rules, officials, and opponents, were more moral in both sport and non-sport situations. Also, those who had high scores of negative sportpersonship orientation reported less harsh moral judgments and more likely to judge a questionable behavior less negatively, sanction the behavior less harshly, and be more morally accepting of the behavior in sport situations.

The results did not show significant differences between athlete's and non-athlete's moral reasoning in non-sport scenarios, which supports bracketed morality, although the results did show that there is a difference between positive and negative sportpersonship orientations and moral reasoning in non-sport scenarios. This difference suggests that sport participation may not influence moral reasoning in non-sport situations, however sportpersonship orientation influences morality in non-sport situations; positively oriented individuals have higher levels of moral reasoning in both sport and non-sport situations compared to negatively oriented individuals who have lower levels of moral reasoning in both situations, apart from sport participation.

In addition, the interaction of sport participation and positive sportpersonship orientation was significant, which indicates that non-athletes who had a positive approach toward sportpersonship have harsher moral judgments in sport situations. As discussed

in bracketed morality, non-athletes are more harsh in sport situations than athletes due to the non-athletes unfamiliarity of athletic competitions' atmosphere. Therefore non-athletes tend to be more moral in sport situations, and more so non-athletes who are also more positively oriented toward sportpersonship tend to uphold higher moral standards in sport scenarios. Athletes scored significantly higher on the negative approach toward sportpersonship than non-athletes, however there were no significant differences between athletes and non-athletes scores on the positive approach toward sportpersonship. Because the results reveal no difference between athletes and non-athletes positive sportpersonship orientation, and that athletes scored significantly higher on the negative sportpersonship orientation, sport participation may increase tendencies for negative sportpersonship, or just the opposite that negative sportpersonship may increase sport participation.

As previously noted, there are various models that explain moral development and reasoning. The best fitting model to attribute the differences in the athletes' and non-athletes' moral reasoning in the sport and non-sport situations may be Haan et al's (1985) interactional morality model because the judgment is dependent upon the particular action. The interactional model allows people to use different degrees of moral reasoning in different situations. The scenarios in the study consisted of a range of moral behaviors involving multiple types of sports and life situations. The reliability of the sport and non-sport scenario questions were rather high, but the contact level and team versus individual orientation of the sport changed, as well as the hypothetical people in the non-sport scenarios, for example family or close friends. Therefore, every situation was different allowing different levels of moral judgment to be applied to each scenario.

The findings of the present study may be exceptionally useful for coaches and athletic employers. Coaches may have their athletes complete both the achievement goal orientation scale and the sportspersonship orientation scale in order to adjust their coaching styles and techniques for each player, making individual players more successful as well as the team as a whole more successful. Some sport teams and particular coaches may prefer a specific goal or sportspersonship orientation for their teams. For example, a coach who would rather have a team full of athletes who tend to take risks and not always abide by their moral compasses when competing to win may want athletes who score higher on ego-orientation and negative sportspersonship orientation. A coach who takes pride in fair play and the main goal is not to win but rather wants each athlete to grow as a player and a person may build a team of high task-oriented and high sportspersonship oriented athletes. Coaches may also provide an environment that facilitates positive sportspersonship and high task-oriented behaviors, resulting in more moral behaviors. A coach could promote congratulating opponents, respecting officials decisions, and high-fiving teammates when working together even if they did not win the competition. Acknowledging the different orientations and tendencies of all players and understanding the differences between the orientations may facilitate group cohesion and teamwork.

These results indicate the specific orientations that tend to increase and decrease moral behavior in sport, which sheds light as to why there are such extreme differences in athletes' moral behavior during competition. Meghan Vogel, the high school junior previously noted, displayed tremendous sportspersonship during her state track meet championship when she carried an injured opponent across the finish line. Nicolas

Batum, the French basketball player, displayed appalling sportspersonship during the 2012 Summer Olympic Games when he punched a player from Spain during a game. According to results from the present study, it is quite possible that Meghan has a positive sportspersonship orientation and is task-oriented, and that Nicolas has a negative sportspersonship orientation and is ego-oriented. In order to increase good moral behaviors like Meghan's, coaches may want to seek out athletes who are task-oriented rather than highly ego-oriented, and have a positive sportspersonship orientation rather than a negative sportspersonship orientation. By having a team of task-oriented and positive sportspersonship oriented athletes, highly moral behaviors are much more likely to occur, and the more immoral and distasteful behaviors may diminish, increasing the overall morality in sport.

These overall findings may be applicable not only to the sport world, but also the professional world particularly due to diversity of the participants' demographics. There was a broad age range with the average age of twenty nine, different education levels with the majority graduated with a four-year degree, and a good amount of both men and women in the study. Therefore, the demographics of the present study are quite unique and not simply college students. The results revealed that in non-sport situations, both athletes and non-athletes with high ego-orientations tended to be less moral, and high positive sportspersonship orientations tended to be more moral, thus the findings of non-sport scenarios can be applied to situations outside sport, such as the professional environment.

Employers may find it valuable to assess employees' goal and sportspersonship orientations to determine the potential behaviors, judgments, and reasoning of an

employee. A method of increasing morality in the office and at work is to look for employees that are task-oriented rather than highly ego-oriented, as well as employees that have a positive sportspersonship orientation rather than a negative sportspersonship orientation. Hiring employees with these orientations may increase the overall morality of the workplace. Perhaps in a high-strung business world, an employer may prefer a person who takes chances and will do what is necessary for the company to surpass another company, and would therefore hire ego-oriented applicants. Or, an employer may desire a team of workers who emphasize high moral judgments, therefore he or she would seek out positively oriented sportspersonship applicants. Either preference, these results show the orientations to look for in order to increase or decrease moral behavior.

Future research exploring sportspersonship orientation may consider using a different scale for the negative approach towards sportspersonship due to the subscales mediocre reliability. The different levels of sport participation may be researched individually, for example comparing the different divisions of collegiate athletes as well as professional athletes. Similarly, comparing the type of sport, whether individual competitions or team competitions, may produce interesting effects on moral reasoning. Studying how the coach's behavior influences the morality of the team is beneficial as well. Previous research has shown that coaching style significantly affects a team's moral atmosphere and overall environment (Long et al., 2006). In April 2013, an episode of ABC's newsmagazine television show 20/20 focused on aggressive behaviors, in particular Rutgers Basketball Coach Mike Rice, who was fired because of his aggressive behavior toward the athletes and in competition. During the interview, it was mentioned that people in athletics have been allowed to get away with what they want because they

bring in money. Bracketed morality does in fact show that athletes tend to be less moral in sport situations, but it would be interesting to learn more about how the coach's morality influences athletes' moral behaviors. Possibly an athlete who is task-oriented and positive sportpersonship oriented will still exhibit moral behavior despite the coach's immorality. Thus, it would be fascinating to explore how the environment and coaching style affects athletes who are already more likely to be moral, and the athletes who are less likely to be moral.

It would be advantageous to further investigate both ego-orientation and positive sportpersonship orientation because they both influenced morality in the non-sport scenarios. Positive sportpersonship predicted higher levels of moral reasoning whereas ego-orientation predicted lower levels of moral reasoning. Higher levels of moral reasoning, moral judgment, and moral behavior may increase in both the sport environment and non-sport environment by involving task-oriented and positive sportpersonship oriented individuals. More great moral behaviors on the field and off the field may occur like Meghan Vogel's with people who are oriented towards higher levels of morality.

Appendices

Appendix A

Consent Form: Compete Much?

This study is being conducted by Marcella Shroul of the Department of Psychology at Towson University. The purpose of the study is to investigate how people compete and make decisions about behavior. If you agree to participate, you will answer two surveys and then read scenarios about behavior and then will be asked to answer some questions about your opinions about the behavior. You should know that social science research sometimes involves the researcher(s) concealing some aspects of the study from the participants. It is hoped that the results of this study will further our understanding of how people compete and judge behavior.

You do not have to participate in this research, and you have the right to withdraw at any time during this research without penalty. Taking part in this study is entirely up to you, and no one will penalize you in any way if you decide not to do so. If you should become distressed in any way, you have the right to terminate your participation immediately. Should you agree to participate in this study, your responses will be filed in a manner that will ensure complete confidentiality. You will be assigned a code number such that the data will be stored with no record of your name kept along with the answers you provide. The study will last approximately 20 minutes.

If you want to know more about this research project, please contact Marcella Shroul at mshroul@students.towson.edu or Dr. Geoffrey Munro at 410-704-3215. This project has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Participants at Towson University. If you have questions about Towson University's rules for research, please contact Dr. Debi Gartland, Chairperson of the Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Participants at Towson University at 410-704-2236.

I agree to take part in this project and that I am at least 18 years of age. I know what I will have to do and that I can stop at any time.

Signature_____Date

Appendix B

Please read the following scenarios and examine your reactions to your imagined behavior in the scenarios. Please answer the following questions by circling the number that best indicates your answer.

1. Imagine that you played in a critical soccer game. You were out of position on defense and the opposing team's best player dribbled toward a one-on-one situation with the goalkeeper. Because you had no hope of winning the ball, you tackled your opponent, who was still outside of the penalty box, from behind and tripped him/her and prevented the shot. You knew that tackling from behind is dangerous and your opponent might get hurt.

1. How positively or negatively should you be judged as a person?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

Extremely Positive

Extremely Negative

2. To what degree do you think you should be penalized?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

No Penalty

Maximum Penalty

3. To what extent is your behavior morally acceptable?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

Completely Acceptable

Completely Unacceptable

2. Imagine that you drove to a shopping mall to buy your mom a birthday gift, and a squirrel dashed across the street. You swerved to avoid hitting the squirrel and sideswiped a parked car on the side of the road. There was some paint transfer and a small scratch on the parked car, and you decided did not leave a note on the parked car. You drove to the mall and bought a gift for your mother and then returned home.

1. How positively or negatively should you be judged as a person?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

Extremely Positive

Extremely Negative

2. To what degree do you think you should be penalized?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

No Penalty

Maximum Penalty

3. To what extent is your behavior morally acceptable?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

Completely Acceptable

Completely Unacceptable

3. Imagine that you played in a lacrosse critical game. You guarded one of the best players on the other team. While the referee was not looking, you had the opportunity to

taunt your opponent and provoked a reaction. You knew your opponent's reaction would draw the attention of the referee, who would penalize your opponent.

1. How positively or negatively should you be judged as a person?
 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Extremely Positive Extremely Negative

2. To what degree do you think you should be penalized?
 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 No Penalty Maximum Penalty

3. To what extent is your behavior morally acceptable?
 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Completely Acceptable Completely Unacceptable

4. Imagine that you swam in a critical swim meet. The winner of the meet came down to the last relay. Your relay team and your opponents' relay team were tied for first as it was your turn to dive for your leg of the relay. You saw that the officials were not looking and you decided to dive off the block a little early. No one noticed and your relay team won the race and the overall meet.

1. How positively or negatively should you be judged as a person?
 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Extremely Positive Extremely Negative

2. To what degree do you think you should be penalized?
 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 No Penalty Maximum Penalty

3. To what extent is your behavior morally acceptable?
 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Completely Acceptable Completely Unacceptable

5. Imagine that your family struggled financially and your mother asked you to work overtime at your job this weekend to help pay the bills. You did not want to work so you lied and told your mother that you made plans weeks ago to visit a friend who you had not seen in years, therefore could not stay home and work.

1. How positively or negatively should you be judged as a person?
 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Extremely Positive Extremely Negative

2. To what degree do you think you should be penalized?
 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 No Penalty Maximum Penalty

3. To what extent is your behavior morally acceptable?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

Completely Acceptable

Completely Unacceptable

6. Imagine that two of your best friends dated for years. One friend secretly started to become involved with other people but you did not know the extent. You decided to tell your other friend in the relationship about his/her partner's secret behavior.

1. How positively or negatively should you be judged as a person?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

Extremely Positive

Extremely Negative

2. To what degree do you think you should be penalized?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

No Penalty

Maximum Penalty

3. To what extent is your behavior morally acceptable?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

Completely Acceptable

Completely Unacceptable

7. Imagine that you ran for your school's cross-country team. You ran at a conference championship meet and you and your teammate were both expected to place top three. You saw that your teammate was tripped by another runner and fell during the race. Instead of helping up your teammate, you decided to continue running and you won the race.

1. How positively or negatively should you be judged as a person?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

Extremely Positive

Extremely Negative

2. To what degree do you think you should be penalized?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

No Penalty

Maximum Penalty

3. To what extent is your behavior morally acceptable?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

Completely Acceptable

Completely Unacceptable

8. Imagine that your professor mistakenly placed another student's grade as your grade into the grade book for an important paper. The professor gave you an A on the assignment, which boosted your grade from a B average to an A average. Your professor made a mistake and you never actually turned in the paper, but you did not say anything and took the A.

1. How positively or negatively should you be judged as a person?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

Extremely Positive

Extremely Negative

2. To what degree do you think you should be penalized?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

No Penalty

Maximum Penalty

3. To what extent is your behavior morally acceptable?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7

Completely Acceptable

Completely Unacceptable

Appendix C

Please provide/circle the following information about yourself.

1. Age: _____
2. Gender:
 - a. Female
 - b. Male
 - c. Other
3. What is the highest level of education you completed?
 - a. Elementary school only
 - b. Some high school, but did not finish
 - c. Completed high school
 - d. Some college, but did not finish
 - e. Two-year college degree / A.A / A.S.
 - f. Four-year college degree / B.A. / B.S.
 - g. Some graduate work
 - h. Completed Masters or professional degree
 - i. Advanced Graduate work or Ph.D.
4. If you are currently enrolled in college, what is your class standing?
 - a. Freshman
 - b. Sophomore
 - c. Junior
 - d. Senior
 - e. N/A
5. Ethnicity:
 - a. African-American
 - b. American Indian / Native American
 - c. Asian-American
 - d. Caucasian/White
 - e. Latino/Hispanic
 - f. Other _____
6. Have you ever participant in sport:
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
7. Do you currently participate in sports?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

8. What is the highest level of sport you have played?
- N/A
 - High school
 - College Division III
 - College Division II
 - College Division I
 - Professional
9. How much time do you spend actively participating in sports?
- Never
 - Occasionally
 - Seasonal
 - Less than 1 hour per week
 - 1-4 hours per week
 - 5-10 hours per week
 - More than 10 hours per week
10. Choose the sport you are currently involved in on a frequent basis (choose all that apply)

Aerobics
Baseball
Bodybuilding
Bowling
Cycling
Dance
Fencing
Football
Gymnastics
Martial Arts
Polo
Racquet-related
Soccer
Softball
Snow Skiing
Swimming
Polo
Water sports
Swimming
Rugby
Volleyball
Weightlifting
Other _____

11. How much time do you spend watching sports?

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- a. Never
- b. Occasionally
- c. Seasonal
- d. Less than 1 hour per week
- e. 1-4 hours per week
- f. 5-10 hours per week
- g. More than 10 hours per week

12. Choose the sport you currently watch on a frequent basis (choose all that apply)

- Aerobics
- Baseball
- Bodybuilding
- Bowling
- Cycling
- Dance
- Fencing
- Football
- Gymnastics
- Martial Arts
- Polo
- Racquet-related
- Soccer
- Softball
- Snow Skiing
- Swimming
- Polo
- Water sports
- Swimming
- Rugby
- Volleyball
- Weightlifting
- Other _____

Appendix D

Debriefing Form: Compete Much?

Now that the actual study is over, I would like to say a few things about the study itself.

We are interested in the effects of people's motivation orientation and sportpersonship orientation on moral behavior in sport and life dilemmas. We asked you to provide your opinions about the your imagined behaviors, and in order to have as much control as possible over the scenario that you read, we completely made up the scenario that you read about. Thus, you should not exit this study session believing that these behaviors actually took place.

Thank you for participating.

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CURRICULUM VITA**Marcella Rose Shrou**3444 Culver Rd, Rochester, NY 14622

EDUCATION:

Master of Arts, Experimental Psychology, Towson University, Towson, MD. May 2013
Overall GPA: 3.93

Bachelor of Arts, Psychology, The State University of New York at Potsdam, Potsdam, NY. May 2011

Overall GPA: 3.93; Psychology GPA: 4.0

RESEARCH PRESENTATIONS:

Shrou, M. R. (2013, March). *Do positive illusions affect our moral judgments in romantic relationships?* Poster presented at the Eastern Psychological Association Convention, New York, NY.

Shrou, M. R. (2012, May). *Exploring the role of personality in romantic relationship.* Poster presented at the Association for Psychological Science Convention, Chicago, IL.

Shrou, M. R. (2012, April). *The role of positive illusions on motivated moral reasoning in romantic relationships.* Poster presented at the Towson University Exposition, Towson, MD.

Shrou, M. R. & Munro, G. D. (2012, March). *How much evidence is enough? Biased thresholds in judgments of scientific conclusions.* Poster presented at the Eastern Psychological Association Convention, Pittsburgh, PA.

Shrou, M. R. & Williams, R. W. (2011, March). *Personality traits and ideal partner attraction.* Poster presented at National Conference on Undergraduate Research, Ithaca, NY.

CAREER EXPERIENCE:

Johns Hopkins University-School of Medicine. Research Program Assistant.

Baltimore, MD, January 2012-Present

- Administer standardized surveys to research subjects or their proxies via phone
- Data entry, management and calculations using computerized database, word processing and MS Excel and MS Access; review data input for accuracy and completeness
- Communicate with study sponsors, coordinators and collaborators
- Maintain logs of patient screening, data collection, filing system for electronic and paper-based records, and compliance with HIPAA and IRB regulations and guidelines

Towson University- Psychology Department, Human Resources Development Graduate Program, Graduate Assistant, Towson, MD. August 2012-Present

- Assist professors and the program director in preparation of teaching materials and learning resources
- Grade class assignments and make presentations as part of a regular class
- Conduct literature searches and reviews for reports and research manuscripts

Towson University- Kinesiology Department, Research Assistant, Towson, MD.

January 2012-January 2013

- Prepared study documents for IRB submission
- Conducted literature searches and reviews to assist with design of research components
- Carried out research by creating surveys via online software
- Assisted with data collection, entry, coding, and analyzing using SPSS and MS Excel
- Organized and reviewed data for reports and research manuscripts

Towson University- Graduate School Marketing Department, Graduate Assistant,

Towson, MD. August 2011-August 2012

- Scheduled, produced, and published graduate program related videos
- Assisted with program development and administrative functions by working with graduate program directors, graduate students, and alumni
- Created and maintained Google search engine marketing campaigns
- Created and executed marketing plans for individual graduate programs, including media research, budget management, vendor selection, and creative production
- Assisted in the ongoing maintenance and improvement of graduate programs web pages.

Musiker Discovery Programs, Discovery Internships Counselor, New York, NY. June-July 2011

- Supervised, counseled, accompanied, lived with, and role model for teenagers during their summer internships
- Supervised residence halls and student's safety and behavior while traveling to off campus excursions
- Assisted students with their academics (i.e. tutor, study groups, proofread, etc.)
- Rotated working in the office, town duty, checking students into the dorms, and overseeing students each night

St. Lawrence Psychiatric Center, Intern, Potsdam, NY. Summer 2010

- Observed individual, group, and family therapy sessions
- Observed treatment and discharge planning
- Observed administration of psychological testing, Individual Case Reviews, and morning rounds

Canton-Potsdam Hospital-Chemical Dependency Unit, Intern, Potsdam, NY. Summer 2010

- Actively participated in group therapy sessions
- Performed patient intakes and discharge plans
- Conducted standardized assessments of patients via in-patient sessions

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