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SPECTATOR SPORTSMANSHIP AS RELATED TO
VARIOUS SITUATIONS OF EMOTIONAL INVOLVEMENT

by

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The new awareness in sports psychology commands a contemporary division in the hierarchy of the behavioral sciences. The need for more affective and effective human relations on all fronts justifies the modern consciousness in communication and cooperation. This interest provides an impetus for investigation into all aspects of psychologically related subjects including sportsmanship.

The abyss between spectators' attitudes and actions is wide. The basic assumption of this investigation stipulates that there are obvious attitudinal and behavioral discrepancies in spectators as related to sportsmanship. The working hypothesis, from which this research originates, states that spectators do not cling to their system of values during highly emotional situations at athletic events. In other words, a person's claim to certain values and ideals is in reality a hypocritical stand. The purpose of this study was to provide relevant evidence to test the notion that people generally do not behave in the same manner (in group situations) as they say or think that they would act when asked in a non-emotional situation.

Statement of the Problem

Utilizing the basic tool of a questionnaire administered during various heights of emotional excitement, the specific objectives of this study were: (1) to compare the various attitudes of the subjects questioned in non-emotional, low emotional, and highly emotional situations; (2) to explore the

differences of male and female attitudes via the responses gathered; (3) to investigate the differences in the college group responses and the high school group responses from intense, highly emotional situations; (4) and finally, to present and examine an item by item analysis of the responses collected.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Non-emotional Situation. This type of situation refers to when subjects were asked to respond to the ten questions under no emotional excitement. The responses from the undergraduate males and females were administered and collected in college dormitories. The high schoolers responded to the questionnaire during home room hour which was also considered to be non-emotional. The faculty responses for a non-emotional situation were administered via mail at their respective offices.

Low-emotional Situations. This term refers to administering questionnaires during the halftime of a basketball game of low excitement. In the low-emotional situation there were no traditional rivalries apparent, one team was definitely superior to the other, and from the beginning of the game the audience's attitude was one of disinterest and near apathy.

High-emotional Situation. This term is used to relate to the situations of high excitement and audience involvement in basketball games. Various factors of course may cause a high-emotional situation. For example, usually a traditional rivalry will produce an intense, highly-emotional situation of audience involvement. Also, the warm-up exercises, the referees' abilities, and the teams' and coaches' behavior all may contribute to a highly-emotional situation.

Questionnaire. The questionnaire used for obtaining data consisted of ten questions asking for responses on sportsmanship attitudes. Background information of the subjects was obtained from several questions on the back of the questionnaire. The specific questions asked shall be discussed later.

Socially Acceptable Behavioral Responses and Socially Unacceptable Behavioral Responses. The responses obtained from the questionnaires were grouped as negative, positive, or neutral responses, the negative responses equating a socially unacceptable response and the positive responses equating a socially acceptable response. Socially acceptable refers to the traditional, idealistic values associated with the virtuous behavior of sport participation or sport watching. Socially acceptable responses adhere to the ideal traits of fairness, honesty, and the golden rule.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

In this age of unprecedented technology, science, and discovery, certain inevitable abominations plague our societies. Needless to say men of every era have exhibited the inherent inability to peacefully coexist with their brothers or neighbors. Because of greed, lust, fear, ambition, or envy mankind has dutifully followed and mimicked that first infraction of Cain's aggression toward his brother. Certainly, wars and international aggression epitomize the ultimate result of man's incapability to live in harmony with others of his own species.

Certain social contrivances, besides wars, seem to cater toward this innate hostility of man. The most apparent invention appealing to the humanistic desire to excell is sport. Added to the odious, innate traits of

human nature, the conflict of a sport situation could result in a very unfortunate and deleterious scene. Conflict equates competition (this writer presumes) not only in the world of sport and athletics but also in the expanded context of society and business. Sport, conflict, athletics, and competition obviously command the attention of men the world over; i.e., sport is a lasting entity in the world. The question challenging our groping societies now becomes, "Are we instigating, promoting, organizing, and directing these prefabricated situations, the conflict and competition of sport, in socially desirable directions, or are these situations merely providing the breeding grounds for the propagation of socially unacceptable ends?"

Frequent social eruptions resulting from sporting events entice an observer to accept the latter of the previous alternatives. Even the most optimistic onlookers could not overview the occurrence of social outbreaks of violence and aggression now belittling more and more athletic events. Only the most naive of spectators would neglect to relate these social atrocities to a malfunction in the preparation and "education" of sports goers and participants. Evidence of inhumane behavior in sport lies only as far as the nearest newspaper or sport magazine.

Only recent to this writing has an "incident" proclaimed national interest and fervor. The January 1972 basketball brawl between two teams in the Big Ten Athletic Conference proves rather convincingly that no conference or no team is immune from behavior unbecoming of nationally eminent universities. The resultant attention and publicity paid this unfortunate occurrence indicates the lasting damage that just one violent outbreak of emotions causes. The mass media succeeds rather vociferously in enhancing

the deleterious effects of such an occurrence, and it fails on the other hand to indicate or appreciate the socially acceptable group behavior portrayed by many, many audiences. The apostasy of the media certainly looms as a vital factor in the formation of social values, but that is a subject beyond the scope of this investigation.¹

Another recent incident marring the appearance of interscholastic competition resulted in such violent action and reaction that a Kansas high school was closed for three days. Racial conflicts and violence resulted from what authorities said dates back to an interscholastic basketball game nearly a month earlier. Evidently, the extreme rivalry involving these two Kansas towns has infected the junior high schools, and a similar outbreak of violence occurred at a game between the junior high schools of the same two towns.²

These two cited incidents merely exemplify the behavior patterns that have become so popular in too many cities and towns. Eruptions and violence are limited to no particular sport. Basketball, football, baseball, hockey, soccer, boxing, track and field, and other sports are susceptible targets for the contagions of socially unacceptable behavior. Nor, as this last illustrated incident proves, does violence and aggression prefer any age level. Certainly every level of competition, from Little League to the Majors, and from Biddy Basketball to the National Basketball Association, experiences behavior unbecoming of ideals of sports.

In this discussion thus far, the word "sportsmanship" has been omitted, but obviously sportsmanship stands as the descriptive term encompassing such unruly social outbursts as the ones previously mentioned. Lexicographers refer to sportsmanship as the "conduct and practice of one in sport

reflecting and exhibiting qualities especially esteemed, such as fairness, self-control, etc." Sportsmanship in any discussion implies an interest in more intangible elements, for example aggression, personality, and character. Fred Russell, Vice President and Sports Editor of The Nashville Banner, indicates that sportsmanship is more than merely playing within the rules. Mr. Russell relates to the important factors of sport beyond the scope of the physical contact and abilities by equating sportsmanship with "obedience to the unenforcable."³

Sportsmanship then, appears to be the actual physical behavior of an athlete resulting from his subtle, innate, psychological composition. The questioning, revolting, and critical attitudes of young people today have definitely born more interest into the psychological aspects of sport and competition. Thomas Tutko and Bruce Ogilvie are leaders in the popular inquisition into the psychology of sport and competition. Their efforts resulted in the establishment in 1963 of the Institute for the Study of Athletic Motivation. This institute explores the metaphysical facets of athletics and it certainly has implications toward the attainment or rejection of sportsmanlike ideals by athletes.

The founders of the Institute for the Study of Athletic Motivation conclude emphatically that, "Competition doesn't seem to build character, and it is possible that competition doesn't even require much more than a minimally integrated personality."⁴ Quite on the contrary, John Scott in an address given to the Second International Congress of Sport Psychology explains his views of how sport and games can be a vital contributing factor in the decrease of undesirable aggression. Mr. Scott refers to the "training" of the participants as well as the spectators as the "single dominant factor

in establishing socially desirable habits in our youth."⁵ Still another "sport psychologist" points out that "there is little solid experimental evidence on how sports affects the aggression levels of either spectators or participants."⁶ Even though there may be a lack of solid evidence to measure aggression levels in participants and spectators there are some reliable data amassed. For example, as Scott indicates, Berkowitz and his students have devised and used the situation of college students viewing two sports films with contrasting high and low levels of aggression in each.⁷ The conclusion to be made from the above researchers apparently remains a personal interpretation of each student of sport psychology.

This author prefers not to deliberate upon whether inherent or intrinsic values of sportsmanship and fair play are obtainable through competition itself. The relevant issue is the background of the spectators and their training in sportsmanship ideals. The succeeding query becomes the question of whether or not Americans are even interested in the ideals of sportsmanship. In this capitalistic society, based on success and advancement, founded on attainment and accumulation, and organized in the tradition of victory with defeat virtually unknown on the national level, one wonders whether our nation is acclimated to the ideals epitomizing sportsmanship. Would it be such an absurdity to expect the unscrupulous, dubious behavior so common in business affairs to creep into the realm of athletics. Such a possibility becomes a reality when one recollects scandalous affairs relating to wagering, fixing, bidding for athletes, slush funds, and so forth.

The "pressures" to succeed exerted upon teams, players, and coaches certainly do not present an atmosphere conducive to teaching or learning the traits of a sportsman. When a player's self-esteem, pride, position, and

prestige are prodigiously balanced in the volley of victory or defeat, his emotions may overrule his reasoning capabilities. Similarly, most coaching positions are determined by the won-loss record. A recent article entitled "What We're Losing by Our Craze for Winning" in Today's Health, reiterates the point that "coaches are not paid for teaching how the game is played, but for teaching how the game is won. Because their jobs are at stake, these coaches pay little attention to sportsmanship."⁸ Trouble inevitably arises when coaches and teams sacrifice the standards of sportsmanship for the chance to win at any cost.

The ethics and moreover the visual behavior of coaches at athletic events undoubtedly provide the stimulation for either positive or negative spectator responses. Jim Brosnan indicates instances proving this as he cites examples of crowds mimicking the coach's behavior.⁹ Every sports buff therefore realizes the reality of the cliché stating "the coach is the head cheerleader of all." Coaches may employ various types of psychological motivation techniques, and these tricks may prove beneficial or disastrous. Covering the January 1972 Big Ten Brawl, William Reed quotes the Ohio State Athletic Director J. Edward Weaver as pointing to the pre-game warm up drills as the underlying cause of the riotous behavior.¹⁰

One Midwestern sports commentator says of spectators, "There are those who say when you pay your buck, you are buying the right to be unsportsmanlike."¹¹ In view of this attitude one must entertain the folly that sports spectatorship is reverting to "the lions and Christians" type of attitudes, and that millions and millions of people swarm to stadiums and coliseums the year around not to satisfy innate urges to view sports but rather to satisfy some queer, sadistic type of inner drive fulfilling odious tendencies. The

cathartic effect of audience involvement is certainly a debatable issue.

This writer hypothesizes that the normal spectator remembers the athletic event of near riotous conditions and he forgets the competition in which the ideals of sportsmanship were adhered to.

The urgency of sportsmanship values cannot be disputed. People, i.e., spectators must begin to appreciate the ideals of fair play, and positive reinforcement for the participants, coaches, audiences, and newsmen must follow performances exhibiting patterns of sportlike behavior. The task for instilling sportsmanship ideals falls upon the social institutions, but they evidently have failed in establishing optimum adherence to sportlike values. Aside from the family and the church, the schools provide the natural setting for the ingestion of sportsman characteristics. Brosnan quotes a prominent physical educator who says physical education teachers must reevaluate their programs and that "the stress on physical fitness ought to be matched with emphasis on sportsmanship. If this is done, the sports experience can be helpful to young people in adjusting to and succeeding in other aspects of life."¹²

Obviously, physical educators untutored or unsold on the idea of sportsmanship will find it difficult to relate sportslike ideals to students. The movement must originate on the administrative level. Certainly, most administrators would testify to their reverence toward sportsmanship, but the few who sincerely attempt to effectively perpetuate the ideals struggle in solitude on the landscape of education. Certain authors point to the cultural revolution now progressing, and these writers foresee youth entering "sports in search of particular aesthetic experience, essentially personal in nature." Continuing, these optimists "no longer accept the

authoritarian structure of sports, nor do they accept the supreme emphasis on winning."¹³ Charles Reich expounds upon and further delineates this social trend in his bestseller, The Greening of America. Reich refers to a new conscientiousness in which "one prime attribute is anti-competitiveness."¹⁴ Perhaps this anti-competitiveness shall blossom fully, but until it does the challenge remains in the daily practices and procedures of physical educators.

These beginning paragraphs vindicate the need for sportsmanship. Furthermore, the inabilities of past physical educators to instill the proper and enduring sportive characteristics becomes apparent. Let us not overlook, however, the fact that people do have a definite self-concept of their sportive behavior. The purpose of this treatise is not to formally justify the necessity of sportsmanlike ideals in people nor to reveal the inadequacy of background preparation in the sportsmanship instruction of athletes and spectators, but the preference chosen is to go beyond these preliminaries and to establish the hypothesis that people do attain attitudes of sportsmanship but they do not maintain or cling to these values in the heat of contests.

LIMITATIONS OF THE INVESTIGATION

Several limitations arise in this research as in any. Among the factors appearing as noteworthy and significant limitations are the following items:

1. Data for this study was collected from one questionnaire of ten questions. Eight of the faculty responses had voluntary remarks written in pertaining to "loaded" questions, and questions that were difficult to

interpret.

2. The ingenuity and integrity of all subjects filling in a questionnaire was taken for granted to be of sufficient quality.

3. Only 725 responses were gathered from which all the data was compiled.

4. It was impossible to measure or be cognizant of pertinent situations of subjects immediately before they filled in the questionnaire; for example, newscasts, newspapers, rumors, phone calls, anxiety-frustration levels, and so forth could all have effects on the people answering the ten questions.

5. The presence or absence of other subjects in the same room filling in questionnaires was an uncontrollable variable.

6. The personality of the people administering the questionnaire to subjects at basketball games could have had an influence on responses.

7. There were no universal directions, e. g. over the public address system, given to subjects at basketball games.

CHAPTER II

THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Studies on sports psychology are providing more and more insights into the intangible aspects of athletics. There are many new, varying, and contrasting views on such subjects as aggression levels in spectators, the maintenance of sportsmanship ideals, and the cathartic effect. The literature reviewed tends to support the hypothesis that spectators do not cling to the sportsmanship value structure that they think they have. The literature points to the failure of existing sportsmanship education setups, and it insinuates the vital need for new systems of audience appreciation systems to be devised. The literature also provides some positive points in making sportsmanship a competitive event by providing extrinsic rewards to the most sportlike team, cheerleaders, or school, but this researcher questions this method of materialistic motivation. The literature also strongly suggests that certain fundamental components of competition, for example the coach, cheerleaders, and administrators, are immensely important to the overall crowd behavior.

In an attempt to illustrate "sportsmanship," Susan Alexander has devised eight little phrases to explain certain ideals to her elementary children. So that her students may understand the vague term, "sportsmanship," Ms. Alexander has coined the following phrases and displays them in her room. Her students learn that sportsmanship is "playing fair with others, demonstrating self-control, losing with a smile, playing the best that you know how, not making fun of another person, not cheering when the other person

makes a mistake, giving the other person a pat on the back after you win, and telling the official if you make a mistake in the game."¹⁵ Perhaps many more teachers, especially on the elementary level, need to graphically explain and portray the ideals of sportsmanship.

In an investigation of sportsmanship attitudes in young students, George Bovyer explicitly points to "a need to train children and young adults in sportsmanlike behavior." Bovyer completed an investigation that set out to study children's knowledge of the concept of sportsmanship and to explore the possible growth in sportsmanship attitudes after being exposed to stories relating to sportsmanship values. The subjects involved were from the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades of two elementary schools. The investigation reveals that "play activities and literature may be aids in changing behavior, but any changes that result may be secondary." The author indicates that, "Modifications of attitudes and an increase in knowledge of sportsmanship probably precede behavioral changes." The research concludes that to gain any effective growth in the values of sportsmanship, a teacher must constantly fire a barrage of ideals and values at the students. The author cited sympathizes with teachers as he realizes the slowness of the process of value growth.¹⁶ Physical education provides the laboratory for the appropriate installation of sportsmanship ideals, and the ideals must be firmly ingrained in young students if they are to remember values of sportsmanship during an exciting, emotional athletic event.

Expounding on the tribulations of athletic officials in this country, Waneen Wyrick presents a slightly sour picture of the American sports future. Wyrick explains how the character of a sport is directly related to the abilities and character of the officials involved and that competition can

be a precipitator to good sportsmanship only by having competent and honest officials. The author proceeds to illustrate, by quoting sportswriter John Underwood, how the persistent war on officiating is driving out the good officials and encouraging the poor. Constant tension from coaches, players, crowds, administrators, and the media may finally complete the cyclic tendency toward inept officials.

Citing certain spectator attitude behavioral studies, Wyrick explains how Johnson "found in one study that spectators demonstrated an appreciable decrement in aggressiveness and hostility at the conclusion of the game." The author provides several objectives that she maintains should be adopted by physical educators in order to establish the proper attitudes toward sport (and officials). The following quote summates the views of Wyrick, "Physical educators, including teachers, coaches, and officials, should reevaluate their own professional standards. Although, regretfully, coaching success is judged often by the win-loss column, this in no way morally permits the teaching of unethical character and unsportsmanlike attitudes and actions."¹⁷

Rhea Williams, in a definitive article appearing in the Texas Outlook, mentions sportsmanship nineteen times in two pages. Williams is merely providing an extensive definition as he equates sportsmanship with citizenship. He also simplifies the definition of sportsmanship by saying it is merely "showing your manners." The author reiterates the idea of spectator education as the vital aspect of proper or improper audience behavior.¹⁸

L. Bryson equates sportsmanship as a vital prerequisite to civilization and to an "enlightened people." Bryson explains how the doctrines of love seem to be very difficult to abide by, but he postulates that the "next best

thing to the rule of love is the rule of sportsmanship." In correlating freedom and sportsmanship, the author provides pointers for the system of education. Furthering the relationship between freedom and sportsmanship, he explains that the "enlightened educational system" will perpetuate its freedom by pointing to sportsmanship and decent civic behavior. The author illustrates the advantages of desirable patterns of sportsmanship continuing into adult life, and the broader implications for international diplomacy are expressed. It is pointed out that sportsmanship ideals must not only be considered, but they must become a lasting part of one's sport personality if any effect is to be gained.¹⁹

In the article, "On Being Good Sports in Sports," Gus Turbeville severely questions the emphasis on winning in athletics. The writer points to the abundant social crises, e.g. starvation, overpopulation, delinquency, crime, etc., afflicting mankind, and he asks if these problems aren't really what we should devote ourselves to, rather than winning some particular contest at some particular time.

Turbeville relates the interesting proposition that spectator booing results by the symbolic association of officials and parents. The author also presents the idea that spectator booing reflects the audience's own frustrations and inadequacies. In this presentation, the speaker explains how, in order to salvage the reputation and honor of a great university, Johnny Dee appealed to the student body of Notre Dame to reestablish the ideals of good sportsmanship for the Fighting Irish. Dee attempted to discourage flagrant booing of officials and opponents and urged the spectators to applaud good plays from either team. The author reports that an immediate marked transformation for the better took place in the behavior of the fans

at the Notre Dame basketball games. This example is just one illustration of the effect that a responsible authority can have on audience behavior.

Turbeville concludes in his inspiring speech that there is definitely a place for sportsmanship in sports at all levels. He points to contests as games and not wars as so many coaches, players, and spectators are making them. The speaker reemphasizes the role of athletics by stating, "Far more important than winning any athletic contest is coming out victorious in the great game of life." The author implies that in life, as in spectating, one's strongest virtues and qualities must rise to the pinnacle during crises; otherwise, all is lost.²⁰

Delbert Oberteuffer provides an optimistic outlook for bewildered educators. In the article, "Sportsmanship--Whose Responsibility?" Oberteuffer explains the necessity of a cooperative effort if the ideals of sportsmanship are ever to become realities. Certainly, the role of the elementary and high school educators (especially physical educators) cannot be denied, but as Oberteuffer so persuasively postulates, the task of actualizing better sportsmanship goes to many. The author provides a lengthy list of specific responsibilities that must be carried through by the coach, the players, the officials, the students or spectators, the team captain, the cheerleaders, the teachers, the principal, the faculty manager, the athletic director, the board of education, the press and radio, and finally by civic leaders and groups.²¹ Perhaps Oberteuffer's statements can provide some relief for many frustrated educators who are not experiencing tremendous progress as sportsmanship educators.

In an article on crowd sportsmanship and coach sportsmanship, Jack Marcell attributes the rise of unsportlike conduct to weak administrators.

A former coach turned school official, Marcell sympathizes with a boisterous crowd that is spurred by a coach's immature actions. Certainly, crowds and teams invariably mimic the coach's behavior. The author maintains that the coach, then, should be discouraged when he acts in a manner not conducive to good crowd attitude. What choices of behavior would a crowd have if they saw their leader, i.e., the coach, displaying malicious and flagrant actions! If a crowd is to maintain the ideals of good sportsmanship, a cooperative effort certainly appears necessary.²²

In "Educating for Sportsmanship," O. Jennings Davis, Jr. emphasizes that sport exists because of its value to the participants. Sport is excellent for spectators, but the author of this article reminds educators that sport must remain educational in nature. Davis states that "education for moral values and respect for personality is the supreme challenge of school and college sports" in the 20th century. He delineates his views on effecting sportsmanship and his list includes the following items: (1) Sportsmanship education is vital to the preservation of democracy; (2) Sports are rich in potentialities for sportsmanship education; (3) Sportsmanship education, as a movement, needs leaders; (4) Sportsmanship ideals must be standardized--i.e., cooperatively formulated; (5) Sportsmanship codes should read similar to democratic documents; (6) The sports instructor (or coach) is the crucial factor in sportslike education; (7) Sportsmanship education must be deliberately inaugurated into programs; (8) The sports instructor must know what is desirable behavior and how to teach it; (9) Sportsmanship education must result in observable behavioristic changes to be effective. Davis draws a dramatic conclusion by saying, "If winning is chosen above the exercise of sportsmanship, it is precisely at this point that sports becomes

subversive."²³

Many experiments have justified themselves by resulting in a positive behavioral change in crowd sportsmanship. One example to cite is the fantastic change occurring in the Orange High School (in Texas) and its athletic conference. An extensive program designed to assist spectators in maintaining their sportsmanship values resulted in very favorable behavior. Once again, a major aspect of the sportsmanship program was aimed at audience or spectator education. Sportslike gestures, meetings, speeches, and prayers usually preceded each athletic contest so that each spectator would have the idea of fair play in his mind at the tip-off buzzer. These practices mentioned appear to be more favorable than making sportsmanship itself a competitive venture.²⁴

According to the author Henry Link, the "materialistic trend of our nation is resulting in the gross commercialization of sports with American sportsmanship being sadly undermined." Because of the chronological setting of this study, Link's words become a relevant entry. Link postulated in 1951 that "the ideal of good sportsmanship is lost to the present generation of adults." Link further chastises educators for apparently failing to instill the proper ideals of sportsmanship in students previous to his writings. Link's challenge, one generation ago, was this, "Anything, therefore, that can be done to inculcate the ideal of good sportsmanship in the next generation is indeed a worthy goal." The "next generation" of which Link speaks relates precisely to the generation of this researcher, and the responses obtained in this study shall in a large degree reflect whether the proper ideals of sportsmanship have actually been programmed into the youth of the 70's firmly enough to be maintained during emotional crises.²⁵

In an effort to establish the ideals of good sportsmanship in athletic contest, the Chisolm Trail League in Kansas has instigated a plan to measure sportsmanship levels and to reward the school displaying the highest standards of sportsmanship. In lieu of the traditional championship trophy, the schools of this conference chose to give a sportsmanship trophy to the most deserving unit. Standards and ideals were discussed and a team of students and teachers judged the participating coaches, students, players, and cheerleaders on attitude and overall courtesy. Certain students of high caliber, as well as school administrators, coaches, and teachers, campaigned in their own school so as to instill a consistent attitude of sportlike behavior in spectators. The goal was to improve sportsmanship of audiences and participants during the actual competitive event of basketball games.

The unanimous conclusion, as propounded by the various participating principals, was that the sportsmanship plan certainly did effect behavioristic attitudes in active spectating. All of the schools involved appreciated the noticed change of behavior, and most principals expressed the idea that the complete athletic and school image was enhanced. The schools all enjoyed a more desirable relationship in their interscholastic competition. The rewards of such an experimental venture appear to be glorious, and this particular conference should be commended on its boldness in promoting the social and behavioristic goals of sport. More conferences and schools should mimic the pioneering quest of such experiments.²⁶

Another high school athletic conference in California, the Pioneer League, engages the opposing spectators in competition against one another. The competition is aimed at spurring student spectators to maintain their sportsmanship backgrounds during athletic events. As in the example of the

Kansas athletic conference mentioned previously, a sportsmanship trophy is given to the conference school demonstrating the most viable sportsmanship ideals.

Several standards and ground rules were established concerning the sportsmanship competition, and the adult spectators from the towns involved were ignored. Martin reports that the decrease in pre and post-game rowdiness in this particular situation strongly justifies such a contest of sportsmanship.²⁷

Still another sportsmanship program designed to help spectators maintain sportslike values during contests has met with inspiring success. At the Clifford Scott High School a program was established to nurture goodwill and respect in interscholastic activities. In a volunteer effort, students from this high school established and maintained a hospitality room for meeting coaches, officials, cheerleaders, players, and fans after the game. Activities leading toward maintaining sportsmanship attitudes were carried out before and during the contests, also.

One of the most important elements in the Clifford Scott High School experiment was spectator education. The author repeats the myth that "good losers never win" by reporting the frequency of championship teams at Clifford Scott. This writer certainly maintains, also, that champions are good sports in life as well as the length of the contest.²⁸

Another example of making sportsmanship a contest to win has resulted in truly amazing effects. The students once again instigated and organized an attack upon the disrespectful and dishonorable behavior of spectators at athletic events. The attempt was once more designed to modify the behavior of audiences at sports events. The Toledo sportsmanship plan was reportedly

the result of the fine combined character of the student council members of the city.²⁹

After pointing to the various social objectives of physical education and athletics, William Lakie hypothesizes that it cannot be assumed that mere participation in a game results in good sportsmanship and makes of the participants all-around desirable characters. Lakie's results contradict the findings of Kroll and Peterson in a similar study. The data revealed differences in the expressed attitudes among athletes categorized by sports or among athletes categorized by research and suggests that . . . "outcomes in sportsmanlike behavior may vary under different leadership and environments."³⁰

In a research project designed to obtain data from winning and losing football teams of various classification, Kroll and Peterson suggest that the types of schools and success of the season afford a valid basis for discrimination in response. These two researchers have simply concluded that the existing situation "seems to be the reverse of what one might expect with fruition of the objectives commonly ascribed to athletics."³¹ In their study, Kroll and Peterson equated a high score on the social variable as indicative of love of people, kindness, sympathy, and unselfishness values representing the outcomes of a sportsmanlike attitude on life. The study results show that the successful teams score low rather than high on this variable.

In sum, Kroll and his associate state that, "The attitudes toward life . . . among the teams studied, represent a discordant image of the high ideals typically associated with sportsmanship and athletics." The results indicate that " . . . the sportsmanship standards possessed by athletes

were considerably different from that advocated by the profession."³²

Dorothy Dawley, John Shaw, and Maurine Troyer all recognize the absence of valid testing situations from which progress of the mental, emotional, and social objectives of physical education could be tested. In their study, these three researchers proposed to determine the relationship between actual reactions to situations and how children say they would react. The authors' hypothesis was "that there are no differences between observed reactions of children in actual situations as how they say will react in similar situations as revealed by responses to a paper-pencil problem situation test."

On the basis of their collected data the authors conclude that "there is little positive relationship that one can accept with confidence the observed behavior and the pupil's responses to problem situations on a paper-pencil test."³³ Summarizing their study, the three authors state that it would be better to observe and record behavior than to give a written test, even though that test calls for responses to problem situations. The authors call attention to the great need for the proper observing and recording techniques in child behavior. They maintain that the physical educator is in the proper position for "contributing to the physical and social adjustment of boys and girls."³⁴ The writer suggests that the questionnaire procedure used in the above research may elicit acceptable answers rather than bona fide responses, especially from grade school children.

In an address directed toward the second International Congress of Sports Psychology, (1968, Washington, D.C.), J. P. Scott outlines his views on the role of sports as a means of controlling violence. (Certainly, in our investigation thus far, sport has been proven to be the instigator of

violence in many cases.) In his paper, entitled "Sport and Aggression," Scott optimistically views sport as one "degree of social control, both over the participants and over the spectators."³⁵ Reiterating the evidence provided in the introductory comments, Scott investigated the results of studies on aggression in spectators.

Scott finds the results of one test (Green and Berkowitz, 1966) compatible to his own theory of aggression levels correlating to previous training in sportsmanship. The author explains the results found in individual aggression after two groups of spectators viewed two sport films of different aggression levels. It was found that the spectators who viewed a boxing match dealt out more intensive shocks (to other people) than did those spectators who viewed track competition. Scott reverts to his "aggression and previous training" and paraphrases "the amount of punishment or pain that they (the spectators) try to inflict depends very much on previous training. For example, both men and women will refuse to give heavy shocks to a girl, but will go ahead and punish a man severely."³⁶

In another report to the second International Congress of Sports Psychology, John M. Kingsmore elaborates upon "The Effect of a Professional Wrestling and a Professional Basketball Contest Upon the Aggressive Tendencies of Spectators." Utilizing six pictures selected from the Thematic Apperception Test and a questionnaire devised by himself. The researcher obtained responses from two experimental groups observing either a professional wrestling match or a professional basketball game between testing sessions. A control group was also used.

Among Kingsmore's hypotheses are the following: (1) The TAT will elicit more verbal aggression from the wrestling spectator after he views a

professional wrestling match than he displayed prior to the match; (2) Wrestling spectators' aggression levels will decrease after viewing a professional match; (3) Basketball spectators' aggression levels obtained from a questionnaire will remain unchanged after a basketball game, even if the home team is defeated. The investigator points out that because schools have attempted "to instill the values of athletics in the students, the subject might give the answer which he feels is expected of him on a questionnaire." Thus a decrease in aggressiveness when a questionnaire was used was the general hypothesis. The author specifically predicted an "increase in fantasy aggression after the spectator viewed professional wrestling and an increase in fantasy aggression after the spectator viewed professional basketball in which the home team was defeated."³⁷

Kingsmore's data simply and emphatically suggests that a significant increase in aggression does not result in spectators after viewing sports events. The TAT scores did indicate, however, a significant decrease in aggression levels of spectators following observance of wrestling. The data obtained from the basketball event (in which the home team lost in an overtime) indicated no significant changes in the aggression levels of the spectators. The data obtained through Kingsmore's questionnaires indicated "absolutely no change in the aggressiveness of the spectators."³⁸

In a study of aggressive responses of spectators Edward T. Turner utilized three control groups. Proceeding from the hypothesis that viewing sports events may produce similar consequences as participating in sports events, Turner investigated and compared the effects of observing a sporting event with results previously obtained. Using a twenty item sentence completion test, a six card Thematic Apperception Test, and a questionnaire,

the investigator obtained responses from forty-four University of Maryland students. The author's findings indicate a significant increase in the amount of aggressive responses after football and basketball contests. These results "seem to support the contention that the viewing of violent or aggressive acts tends to increase the aggressiveness of the viewer."³⁹ Also, rather pointedly the questionnaire results indicated that various facets of the athletic contest situation, such as coaches, cheerleaders, and referees affect the emotions of sports spectators.⁴⁰

A study conducted among high school principals, physical education teachers, and athletic officials attempted to determine the nature, scope, and extent of spectator problems as they pertain to secondary school athletics. Richard Calisch represents the throng of researchers prying into the nature of athletics and spectator behavior. Calisch's particular study intended to discover, by means of a nationally administered questionnaire, the underlying factors of crowd misbehavior. A standard list of problems was provided for the subjects to refer to. The list of problems available for response were such items as riots, fights, excessive booing, littering the playing area, vandalism, scalping, drinking alcoholic beverages at games, and gambling.

Calisch's research indicates that excessive booing represents the most common problem in crowd behavior. Members of a community who are not students are the primary causes of problems. Basketball outranked all other sports as being the sport in which spectator problems most commonly arise. The author concludes that spectator behavior problems have arisen to the extent that education for their alleviation is recommended. Urban schools report slightly more problems than do rural schools, and furthermore, the

Southern and Southwestern United States are the areas the spectator problem is the most serious.⁴¹

In a recent investigation that is of supreme relevance to this very study, Corbin specifically proposed to explore the current attitudes of spectators concerning sportsmanship. In this related study, Corbin developed and utilized the questionnaire identical to this study. Nearly 1500 fans responded to the questionnaire administered before a traditional rivalry game. The audience could respond in a socially acceptable or unacceptable manner. After a relevant public address announcement, questionnaires were passed out to predetermined groups of spectators.

In Corbin's research, the lower the scores, the better the levels of sportsmanship. The author, in the search for the presence or absence of sportsmanship practices in spectators, states certain hypothesis to be tested. First, Corbin states that if the schools involved in competition were properly "building good sports," the responses obtained would be almost 100% socially acceptable. The researcher, then, first was attempting to assess the current sportsmanship values of spectators of all ages. Secondly, Corbin proposed to find out if athletes scored better on sportsmanship questions. He proposed that certainly athletes should score better to vindicate the traditional argument that sports is a character building entity. Finally, Corbin attempted to disclose whether age groups having had the most recent training in sportsmanship possess the best sportsmanship attitudes or not.

Corbin's study reveals that, of the people involved in this test, athletes possess the poorest attitude of all groups. The study also points out that the spectators comprising the 18-21 age group showed the poorest

attitudes of all age groups. Athletes gave fewer desirable responses to items than former athletes, and former athletes gave fewer desirable responses than non-athletes. The study results prompts Corbin to attack the ineffectiveness of sportsmanship education programs. Summarizing his conclusion, the author states that " . . . team and spectator sportsmanship must be major objectives of athletic programs if sportsmanship is to be significantly improved in the public schools."⁴²

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

All the data obtained for this study were compiled from the responses from a sportsmanship questionnaire. The questionnaire was precomposed and predesigned, and it has been used in other studies on sportsmanship.

Response Data and the Subjects

The responses for the data of this research were obtained from three different situations of emotional involvement as defined previously. The details relating to the various emotional situations from which the responses were gathered are as follows.

Non-Emotional Situation. In obtaining 307 responses from non-emotional situations, 390 questionnaires were administered. The responses were filled out and returned to the author at a rate of 79%. Reiterating, the non-emotional responses were obtained during a situation of absolutely no spectating involvement on behalf of the subjects. Fifty questionnaires were administered to girls of the Luckey High School during a home room situation. All fifty of the questionnaires were filled out and returned. Likewise, fifty questionnaires were administered and gathered from fifty Luckey High School (Manhattan, Kansas) boys during a similar situation. Seventy-two questionnaires were administered to females from Boyd Hall and the Delta Delta Delta sorority on the Kansas State University campus. Fifty of these questionnaires were gathered. Fifty-seven responses were obtained (of eighty-five administered) from undergraduate males of Marlatt Hall on the Kansas State campus. Fifty-four questionnaires were administered to obtain a total

of forty-one responses from male, undergraduate athletes living in the Kansas State athletic dorm. Fifty-nine responses were obtained from seventy-nine administered to Kansas State Faculty members from Dykstra Hospital, Umberger Hall, and Holton Hall on the Kansas State campus.

Low-Emotional Situation. Only sixty-five questionnaires were administered during a situation of low-emotional dimensions. Of the 65 subjects receiving questionnaires, 53 filled out and returned the questions. The response rate was 82% for the low-emotional situation. The responses for this category were obtained during the halftime of the March 4, 1972 Kansas State-Colorado basketball game in which the opposing team (Colorado) never really offered a threat of overcoming the home team (Kansas State).

Highly Emotional Situation. During situations of very high emotional spectator involvement, 270 questionnaires were administered. Of these questionnaires, 222 were returned (82%). Championship status, future tournament entry, and traditional rivalry were factors enhancing the highly emotional situations. The halftime scores of the games in which the questionnaires were administered were very close; thus, no team had a clear advantage as the responses were gathered.

Fifty high school student responses were gathered from seventy-five questionnaires administered during a Salina-Junction City, Kansas basketball game. The questionnaires were handed out during the halftime break which found the home team (Salina Central) leading by three points. This particular game was to decide who represented the regional team in the Kansas State High School (4A) basketball tournament.

Fifty-one responses were gathered (of 60 administered) from the Kansas State University season ticket holders' section during the halftime

intermission of the Kansas State University-Kansas University basketball game (February 15, 1972) in Manhattan. One hundred twenty-one responses were obtained (of 135 administered) from the Missouri student spectator section during the halftime of the Kansas State-Missouri basketball game (March 7, 1972) held in Columbia, Missouri. This particular game was to decide who would win the "Big 8" basketball conference title and who would represent the conference in the Midwestern, National Collegiate Athletic Association basketball tournament in Ames, Iowa.

Of all the 725 questionnaires administered, 582 (80%) were filled in and returned to constitute the data for this research. Once again, the integrity and ingenuity of the subjects is of course taken for granted. Acknowledgements are made to all the students and friends who helped hand out and gather the questionnaires for this study.

Analysis of Data

Of the 582 responses gathered from the various situations discussed, 200 responses were used for the data of this research. Fifty college responses during a non-emotional, low emotional, and highly emotional situation were used. A total of 25 female responses and 25 male responses composed the group of 50 responses representing each emotional level. Fifty high school responses were utilized, and they were taken from a highly-emotional situation. The 50 responses from the high school group were also composed of 25 female and 25 male responses.

The data from the 50 college responses (of the three different emotional stages) are analyzed and presented according to the means of the responses. The range of scores of the college responses simply indicates the low and high individual questionnaire response during each emotional

situation. The discrepancies in the overall male-female responses are analyzed according to total means also. The college and high school responses during highly emotional situations are contrasted according to means also. The item by item analysis of the data shall be presented and discussed according to the number of total socially acceptable and socially unacceptable answers. The total responses to each question on the questionnaire shall be presented by tallying each response to each question.

The reader is referred to Appendix A to see the format of the questionnaire involved in this study. The questionnaire utilized was pre-designed by Corbin, and it was used to gather the data for the research discussed in the Fall 1971 issue of the Texas Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

The data collected from the questionnaires yeild some interesting facts. The data shall be discussed and presented graphically in an order corresponding to the working hypotheses previously presented. In reiteration, those hypotheses include: (1) the various attitudes of the subjects questioned in non-emotional, low emotional, and highly emotional situations; (2) the differences of male and female attitudes via the responses; (3) the differences in the college group responses and the high school group responses from intense highly emotional situations; (4) and finally, an item by item analysis of responses will be presented and explored.

Hypothesis #1

The composite table following shall serve to inaugurate our investigation of hypothesis number one.

TABLE 1. Mean Totals from Various Emotional Situations for College Students

	Non-Emotional	Low-Emotional	Highly-Emotional
College Means	22.82	26.0	29.72
Range of Scores	10-36	14-38	17-46

The mean totals presented on the tables represent the average of the questionnaire scores. In the particular questionnaire utilized, an individual score of 10 corresponds to the preassumed, socially acceptable answers,

and a questionnaire score of 50 depicts the poorest score possible, according to the idealistical, "correct" socially acceptable responses.

The total mean scores of the college groups support the contention that students do not maintain their attitudes of sportsmanship during varying emotional situations. The staircase totals graphically reveal the attitudinal changes of the groups, and the individual female and male low-high responses follow the group pattern.

Perhaps the most limiting factor of such an investigation based on inquiry (via questionnaires) relates to the possibility that persons responding in a non-emotional situation may not be regular sports spectators. If this possibility exists, it is apparent that the responses from a sports situation, i.e. responses gathered at an actual event, would reflect the ideas of a completely different group than athletic non-attenders. By the mere fact of their presence at an athletic event then, spectators could inherently hold different attitudes than their disinterested, athletically apathetic, non-attending counterparts. Nevertheless, the responses gathered from the low-emotional situations and the highly-emotional situations should not be contradictory if sports attendance were the only variable. For we must assume that the same general crowd would be present for ball games of any emotional nature. So, this investigator points to the possibility of contradistinctions in questionnaire responses owing to the single factor of spectating frequency, but this hypothesis lies not within the scope of this particular search.

Hypothesis #2

The following table reveals the differing responses obtained from the females and males questioned.

TABLE 2. Mean Totals of Female and Male Responses During Various Emotional Situations.

Means	Non-Emotional		Low-Emotional		Highly-Emotional	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
College Set	21.24	24.40	24.0	28.0	27.36	32.08
Difference in and	3.16		4.		4.72	
High School					24.28	28.16
Difference in and					3.88	

Of course the gradual increases in the total means are reflected by gradual increases in responses as controlled by sex. As shown on Table 2 the differences in female and male means range from 3.16 to 4.72. The average difference in female and male means is 3.94. The female responses from the college set range from a mean of 21.24 (during a non-emotional situation) to a mean of 27.36 (during an emotional crisis). The male responses from the college set increase from a mean of 24.40 to a mean of 32.08 during non-emotional and highly emotional situations, respectively. These figures indicate, then, the presence of more constancy in female behavior than in male behavior. Since the female means vary 6.12 points and the male means vary 7.68 points there appears to be a slight tendency for the male population to become captivated by situational seizures, but in order to avoid a sweeping generalization this researcher must point to the need for a more detailed, intricate, and specific study to learn whether men or women maintain their stated morals during various emotional states.

The difference in the high school girl and boy response means parallel those of the college set. As shown in Table 2, high school students' response means during a highly emotional situation very nearly coincide with college students' response means during a situation characterized as low-emotional.

The interesting query and challenge for physical educators and educators in general should be to discover what events or occurrences influence the changed behavior between the high school realm and the college ranks.

Hypothesis #3

The third hypothesis of this research deals with the differences in high school and collegiate attitudes of sportsmanship during highly emotional situations. The discussion concerning hypothesis number two, relates somewhat to the conclusions to be drawn from the data on hypothesis number three. Table 2 illustrates the means of the responses from both the college set and the high school set during highly emotional situations. As seen in Table 3 the college total mean is 3.50 points higher than the high school total mean.

TABLE 3. High School and Collegiate Responses During Highly Emotional Situations.

Means	Girls	Boys	Total
College	27.36	32.08	29.72
High School	24.28	28.16	26.22
Difference	3.08	3.92	3.50

The college girls scored a 3.08 higher mean than the high school girls during similar situations. The college boys slated an increase of 3.92

points above the high school boys during highly emotional comparable situations. By observation this researcher has learned, or rather generalized, that there are obvious behavioral traits that appear unique to the college audience and to the high school audience. For example, the throwing of trash on the playing floor is most rare in high school situations, but on the college level this belittling barrage of trash is quite common during emotional upheavals within crowds. The item by item analysis and the subsequent discussion should clarify this phenomenon.

Hypothesis #4

The following table illustrates the item by item responses of the high school group (during an intensely emotional situation) and the college group during each of the three various emotional settings. The table illustrates the number of desirable and undesirable responses during various emotional climates.

TABLE 4. Desirable and Undesirable Responses--Item by Item Omitting Neutral Choices.

Question	Non-Emotional College		Low-Emotional College		Highly-Emotional College		High School	
	Des.	Undes.	Des.	Undes.	Des.	Undes.	Des.	Undes.
1	29	7	18	22	5	35	19	18
2	31	9	29	13	20	26	14	21
3	49	1	49	1	45	4	43	4
4	33	6	25	5	29	10	29	8
5	23	11	17	21	12	32	13	18
6	33	4	28	7	24	17	28	11
7	24	9	33	2	23	7	37	5
8	8	24	10	32	2	43	10	27
9	34	4	19	19	19	19	23	8
10	35	6	26	13	29	13	14	24

The complete Table 4, when scrutinized closely, reinforces all of the previous contentions made about spectators not maintaining their ideals of sportsmanship during exciting, intense, emotional situations. The neutral responses are omitted in Table 4, but they are included in Appendix B. For Table 4 the reader must assume that the neutral responses equal the number of desirable plus undesirable responses subtracted from 50, i.e., neutral responses = $50 - (\text{des.} + \text{undes.})$.

Question 1: (Fans should not boo at basketball games). The desirable responses decreased substantially as the undesirable responses increased substantially during heightening emotional states.

Question 2: (Fans should be quiet while players, both home team and visitors, are shooting free shots). The desirable responses decreased and the undesirable responses increased according to the progressive emotional involvement by the spectators.

Question 3: (At no time is it justified to throw any object onto the basketball floor or at referees). The responses remained very constant for this question. Evidently students claim to disapprove of "throwing objects upon the playing floor." A minority of spectators then must be accountable for this behavior which is all too apparent many times.

Question 4: (A player should never foul to "get even"). The responses for this question remained quite consistent also.

Question 5: (At no time should the coach outwardly show bad temper or shout at referees). The responses on this question varied to support the idea of audiences failing to hold their ideals.

Question 6: (To foul when the referee can't see is merely "good basketball"). The responses from the questionnaire on this question had to be

transposed before being classified desirable or undesirable. A number 5 response on this question represents a socially acceptable answer, and of course this fact was considered in all data presentations and conclusions. Nevertheless, the desirable and undesirable responses once again changed substantially as the emotional situations were altered.

Question 7: (Good sportsmanship developed in basketball helps players to become better citizens later in life). The answers to this question appear constant on both the desirable and undesirable responses. Upon inspection of Table 4 and Appendix B though, one discovers the high percentage of neutral responses for question 7. In one situation, the college answers in a highly emotional situation reflected a 40% "no opinion" response!

Question 8: (Booing is never justified). The responses varied accordingly to the situations present once again. The responses similarly followed the pattern so apparent in crowd behavior according to emotional involvement.

Question 9: (It is not whether you win or lose, but how you play the game in basketball). The responses during the low and high emotional involvement varied greatly from the responses during a non-emotional situation.

Question 10: ("Do unto others as they do unto you" rather than "do unto others as you would have them do unto you"). As in question 6, the responses for this question must be transposed before analyzation. The responses for this question appear relatively constant, but in the perspective of the answering subjects, this question is the most difficult. The researcher considers the responses for question 10 as being the least valid and reliable, but no statistical evidence is provided in this report to substantiate that opinion.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Conclusions

The data collected allow the following conclusions.

1. The total mean scores of the questionnaires distributed indicate a substantial variance of sportsmanship attitudes as the emotional involvement differs.
2. Males generally behave and/or respond in a manner classified as more "unsportsmanlike" than do their female counterparts.
3. Questionnaire responses from college and high school students during a highly emotional situation indicate that college students will behave and conduct themselves more unsportsmanlike than will high school students.
4. The sportsmanship attitudes of spectators and the emotional involvement vary inversely on nearly every question in this study. So, sportsmanship abandonment is not specific to any one particular aspect of the socially acceptable standards.
5. Spectators overwhelmingly justify booing.

Suggestions

The subject of this study opens numerous avenues of adventure to the professional interested in sports psychology or crowd behavior. During the course of this investigation many more roads of inquiry were revealed than were traveled. The implications for physical educators, general educators, coaches, and administrators are boundless in the area of sport psychology.

With aggressive behavior continuing to increase at a cancerous rate in sport, more investigation into the realm of sport psychology and sportsmanship appears highly justifiable. Some of the precise possibilities for further study uncovered by this search follow.

1. A procedure to disclose the differences of sportsmanship levels as the "frequency of spectating" being the only variable.
2. A search to discover the development of sportsmanship ideals at each age level, and moreover:
3. An investigation to learn what precipitates the changes in sportsmanship that do evidently occur in passing through various age groups.
4. A study to prove whether men or women remain more constant in their attitudes during various and numerous situations.
5. A comprehensive investigation seems rational to discover whether the differences in mean totals of other age level responses parallel the differences of this study.

More than anything else, a new sportlike conscientiousness on the part of coaches, teachers, spectators, and players is mandatory.

Appendix A. Questionnaire, Side 1.

	Your Answer				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Fans should not boo at basketball games!	1	2	3	4	5
2. Fans should be quiet while players, both home team and visitors, are shooting free shots!	1	2	3	4	5
3. At no time is it justified to throw any object onto the basketball floor or at referees!	1	2	3	4	5
4. A player should never foul to "get even."	1	2	3	4	5
5. At no time should the coach outwardly show bad temper or shout at referees.	1	2	3	4	5
6. To foul when the referee can't see is merely "good basketball."	1	2	3	4	5
7. Good sportsmanship developed in basketball helps players to become better citizens later in life.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Booing is never justified.	1	2	3	4	5
9. It is not whether you win or lose, but how you play the game in basketball.	1	2	3	4	5
10. "Do unto others as they do unto you" rather than "do unto others as you would have them do unto you."	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix A. Questionnaire, Side 2.

<u>Age</u>	<u>Vocation</u>
___ 10 - 12	___ Student (12th grade or under)
___ 13 - 17	___ Student (College)
___ 18 - 21	___ Faculty
___ 22 - 29	___ _____
___ 30 - 39	(Other than above, please fill in)
___ 40 - 49	
___ 50 or over	<u>Athletic Experience</u>
	___ Athlete now
<u>Sex</u>	___ Sport _____
___ Male	___ Former Athlete
___ Female	___ Sport _____
	___ No Athletic Competition
<u>Interest</u>	
___ Regularly Attend Sports Events	<u>LOYALTY</u>
___ Attend Basketball Only	___ Home Team
___ Attend Only Occasionally	___ Visiting Team

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DOCUMENT(S) IS OF
POOR LEGIBILITY IN
THE ORIGINAL**

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Appendix B. Item by Item Analysis of Collected Data.

		Non-Emotional College			Low-Emotional College			College			Highly-Emotional High School		
		Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total
Question #1	1	8	4	12	3	1	4	2	0	2	6	3	9
	2	10	7	17	9	5	14	2	1	3	6	4	10
Response:	3	5	9	14	7	3	10	8	2	10	8	5	13
	4	2	4	6	4	7	11	8	5	13	4	7	11
	5	0	1	1	2	9	11	5	17	22	1	6	7
Total:		25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50
Question #2	1	8	5	13	4	3	7	4	3	7	5	3	8
	2	10	8	18	14	8	22	8	5	13	9	7	16
Response:	3	4	6	10	2	6	8	2	2	4	4	1	5
	4	3	5	8	3	5	8	8	7	15	5	8	13
	5	0	1	1	2	3	5	3	8	11	2	6	8
Total:		25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50
Question #3	1	23	17	40	18	22	40	18	17	35	17	18	35
	2	2	7	9	7	2	9	5	5	10	6	2	8
Response:	3	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	1	3
	4	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	3	0	2	2
	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	2
Total:		25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50

Appendix B. (Continued)

Question #4	1	10	8	18	5	6	11	6	7	13	11	8	19
Response:	2	7	8	15	14	10	24	9	7	16	5	5	10
	3	6	5	11	4	6	10	6	5	11	7	6	13
	4	2	4	6	2	2	4	4	5	9	2	1	3
	5	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	5	5
Total:	25	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50

Question #5	1	5	3	8	3	4	7	5	1	6	3	2	5
Response:	2	11	4	15	6	4	10	5	1	6	5	3	8
	3	5	11	16	8	3	11	3	3	6	10	9	19
	4	4	6	10	8	13	21	9	16	25	6	3	9
	5	0	1	1	0	1	1	3	4	7	1	8	9
Total:	25	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50

Question #6	1	0	1	1	0	3	3	2	2	4	4	2	6
Response:	2	2	1	3	3	1	4	6	7	13	2	3	5
	3	4	9	13	7	8	15	5	4	9	7	4	11
	4	10	10	20	10	6	16	6	7	13	7	5	12
	5	9	4	13	5	7	12	6	5	11	5	11	16
Total:	25	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50

Question #7	1	8	4	12	6	8	14	3	6	9	10	13	23
Response:	2	4	8	12	11	8	19	8	6	14	10	4	14
	3	10	7	17	8	7	15	12	8	20	4	4	8
	4	2	2	4	0	1	1	2	2	4	1	3	4
	5	1	4	5	0	1	1	0	3	3	0	1	1
Total:	25	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50

Appendix B. (Continued)

Question #8	1	2	3	5	1	0	1	1	0	1	5	1	6
Response:	2	2	1	3	9	0	9	0	1	1	3	1	4
	3	8	10	18	5	3	8	3	2	5	6	7	13
	4	11	9	20	7	12	19	13	5	18	8	6	14
	5	2	2	4	3	10	13	8	17	25	3	10	13
Total:	25	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50

Question #9	1	5	6	11	5	3	8	5	1	6	4	7	11
Response:	2	9	14	23	8	3	11	7	6	13	15	7	22
	3	9	3	12	6	6	12	3	9	12	4	5	9
	4	2	1	3	6	8	14	8	5	13	1	5	6
	5	0	1	1	0	5	5	2	4	6	1	1	2
Total:	25	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50

Question #10	1	0	1	1	2	2	4	1	4	5	8	5	13
Response:	2	1	4	5	5	4	9	3	5	8	4	7	11
	3	4	5	9	3	8	11	4	4	8	5	8	13
	4	11	10	20	12	8	20	10	6	16	4	1	5
	5	10	5	15	3	3	6	7	6	13	4	5	9
Total:	25	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50	25	25	50

FOOTNOTES

¹William F. Reed, "An Ugly Affair in Minneapolis," Sports Illustrated; Volume No. 36: 18-21, Feb. 7, 1972.

²The Wichita Beacon, Feb. 9, 1972, Sec. I, p. 3, cols. 1-2.

³Opinion Expressed by Fred Russell in an address ("What Makes a Champion? A Philosophy of Sport.") at Opening Session National Federation of State H. S. Athletic Associations Annual Meeting, French Lick, Indiana, June 26, 1966.

⁴Warren R. Johnson, "Guilt-Free Aggression for the Troubled Jock," Psychology Today, Volume No. 4: 70-73, October, 1970.

⁵J. P. Scott, "Sport and Aggression," Contemporary Psychology of Sport, Proceedings of the Second International Congress of Sport Psychology, ed. Gerald S. Kenyon, (Chicago: The Athletic Institute, 1970), pp. 11-23.

⁶Johnson, op. cit. pp. 70-73.

⁷Scott, op. cit. pp. 11-23.

⁸Jim Brosnan, "What We're Losing by Our Craze for Winning," Today's Health, Volume 49, No. 5: 17-19, May 1971.

⁹Ibid.

¹⁰Reed, op. cit. pp. 18-21.

¹¹News Gazette (Champaign, Ill.), Feb. 25, 1972, p. 13, cols. 1-5.

¹²Brosnan, op. cit., pp. 17-19.

¹³Bruce C. Ogilvie and Thomas A. Tutko, "Sport: If You Want to Build Character, Try Something Else," Psychology Today, Volume No. 5: 60-63, October, 1971.

¹⁴Charles A. Reich, The Greening of America (New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1971), p. 258.

¹⁵Susan Alexander, "Explaining Sportsmanship," JOHPER, Volume No. 36: 71, May, 1965.

¹⁶George Bovyer, "Children's Concepts of Sportsmanship in the Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Grades," Research Quarterly, Volume No. 34: 282-87.

¹⁷Waneen Wyrick, "Officials in the American Culture," JOHPER, Volume No. 37: 35-36, Feb. 1966.

¹⁸Rhea Williams, "Sportsmanship is What You Make It," Texas Outlook, Volume No. 34: 12-13, Oct. 1950.

¹⁹Lyman Bryson, "Sportsmanship as a Characteristic of an Enlightened People," JOHPER, Volume No. 19: 632-33, Nov., 1948.

²⁰Jackson Turbeville, "On Being Good Sports in Life," Vital Speeches, Volume No. 31: 542-44, June 15, 1965.

²¹Delbert Oberteuffer, "Sportsmanship, Whose Responsibility?" JOHPER, Volume No. 19: 25, Oct. 1948.

²²Jack H. Marcell, "Administrators, Coaches, and Sportsmanship," Texas Outlook, Volume No. 48: 20-21, July 1964.

²³Jenning O. Davis, "Educating for Sportsmanship," JOHPER, Volume No. 26: 364, September 1955.

²⁴Pat Flynn, "Sportsmanship Can Be Taught," Texas Outlook, Volume No. 36: 8-9, Feb. 1952.

²⁵Anonymous, "In the Babe Ruth Tradition," JOHPER, Volume No. 22: 7-8, May 1951.

²⁶Ralph Bontrager, "A Good Sportsmanship Plan," Scholastic Coach, Volume No. 26: 164, Nov. 1956.

²⁷J. A. Martin, "Sportsmanship as a Competitive Event," Scholastic Coach, Volume No. 27: 26, 43, Feb. 1958.

²⁸Bob Miller, "Sportsmanship, Jersey Style," Scholastic Coach, Volume No. 21: 7, Feb. 1952.

²⁹Anonymous, "Toledo's Sportsmanship Plan," Scholastic Coach, Volume No. 25: 44-45, June 1956.

³⁰Jack Lackie, "Expressed Attitudes of Various Groups of Athletes toward Athletic Competition," Research Quarterly, Volume No. 35: 497-503, December 1964.

³¹Walter Kroll and Kay Peterson, "Studies of Values Test and Collegiate Football Teams," Research Quarterly, Volume No. 36: p. 446, December 1965.

³²Ibid.

³³Dorothy Dawley, Maurice Troyer, John Shaw, "Relationship between Observed Behavior in Elementary School Physical Education and Test Responses," Research Quarterly, Volume No. 22: p. 75, March 1951.

³⁴Ibid.

³⁵Scott, op. cit., p. 18.

³⁶Ibid.

³⁷John M. Kingsmore, "The Effect of a Professional Wrestling and a Professional Basketball Contest upon the Aggressive Tendencies of Spectators," Contemporary Psychology of Sport, Proceedings of the Second International Congress of Sport Psychology, ed. Gerald S. Kenyon (Chicago: The Athletic Institute, 1970), p. 314.

³⁸Ibid., p. 315.

³⁹Edward T. Turner, "The Effects of Viewing College Football, Basketball and Wrestling on the Elicited Aggressive Responses of Male Spectators," Contemporary Psychology of Sport, Proceedings of the Second International Congress of Sport Psychology, ed. Gerald S. Kenyon (Chicago: The Athletic Institute, 1970), p. 327.

⁴⁰Ibid., pp. 325-328.

⁴¹Richard Calish, "Spectator Problems in Secondary Schools Athletics," Research Quarterly, Volume No. 25: 261-69, October 1954.

⁴²Charles B. Corbin, "A Study of Spectator Attitudes about Sportsmanship," TAHPER Journal, Volume 40, No. 1: 6, 55+, Fall 1971.

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SPECTATOR SPORTSMANSHIP AS RELATED TO
VARIOUS SITUATIONS OF EMOTIONAL INVOLVEMENT

by

REX GENE BARKER

B.S., Southern Illinois University, 1970

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Physical Education

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Purpose

This study was designed to discover whether spectators, in situations characterized by various types of emotional involvement, maintain their stated ideals and values of sportsmanship. Specifically, the purposes were: (1) to discover the various attitudes of the subjects questioned in non-emotional, low emotional, and highly emotional situations; (2) to discover the differences in male and female responses by using the responses gathered; (3) to find the differences in the means of the college group responses and the high school group responses during intense, highly emotional situations; (4) and finally, to investigate the item by item analysis of the responses gathered, with a look at the varying socially acceptable and socially unacceptable responses during various emotional situations.

Methodology

The data utilized for this study were obtained by means of a questionnaire on sportsmanship. The questionnaire used consisted of ten simple questions plus inquiries on age, sex, and other variables. Of 725 questionnaires administered for the data of this study, 582 (80%) were filled in and returned. The questionnaires were distributed and collected during various situations of emotional involvement as related to athletic events. The responses collected were categorized according to these emotional states of the situations.

Results

The results of this research indeed support the contention that spectators do not cling to the standards of sportsmanship during highly emotional

situations. The general trend, based on the results gathered, appeared to be that the socially acceptable responses varied inversely with the intensity of the involvement. The literature reviewed along with the personal observations of the reporter points to the necessity of a sportsmanship conscious coach. The participants and crowd generally mimic the coach.

Conclusions

The data collected for this research justify the following conclusions.

1. The total mean scores of the questionnaires distributed indicate a substantial lowering of sportsmanship attitudes as the emotional involvement increases.
2. Males generally behave and/or respond in a manner classified as more "unsportsmanlike" than do their female companions.
3. Questionnaire responses from college and high school students during a highly emotional situation indicate that college students will conduct themselves more unsportsmanlike than will high school students.
4. The sportsmanship attitudes of spectators and the emotional involvement vary inversely on 90% of the questions used in this study. Only question seven failed to elicit such an inverse quality.
5. Spectators overwhelmingly justify booing.