AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

<u>Chris D. Newton</u> for the <u>Master of Science in Physical</u> <u>Education</u> presented on <u>July 16, 1995</u>.

Title: <u>The Relationship Among Just World Beliefs</u>, <u>Morality</u> <u>Beliefs</u>, <u>and the On-Court Behavior of Athletes</u>.

Abstract approved:

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among just world beliefs, morality beliefs, and the on-court behavior of athletes. The sub-problems of this study were to determine if there were differences in just world beliefs or morality beliefs based on: (a) age, (b) gender, (c) residence, and (d) player's roles. The varsity male and female basketball players of Centre-Lost Springs High School and Rose Hill High School served as participants (N=50). During the preseason the participants were asked to answer a Just World Scale and a Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory. At the conclusion of the season, the head coach of each team (N=4) answered a behavioral checklist for each athlete on his/her team. Data were analyzed through the use of a Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient and an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). All data were analyzed at the p<.05 level of significance. The correlation coefficient showed no relationship among just world scores and morality

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scores (R=-.003), just world scores and behavior scores (R=.154), or morality scores and behavior scores (R=.279). An ANOVA showed no significance difference between just world scores and: (a) age (F=1.54, \underline{p} =.21), (b) gender (F=1.66, \underline{p} =.20), (c) residence (F=.05, \underline{p} =.82), and (d) player's roles (F=1.02, \underline{p} =.20). Also no significant difference was found between morality scores and: (a) age (F=1.76, \underline{p} =.82), (b) gender (F=3.21, \underline{p} =.08), (c) residence (F=.38, \underline{p} =.58), and (d) player's roles (F=.71, \underline{p} =.40).

THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG JUST WORLD BELIEFS, MORALITY BELIEFS, AND THE ON-COURT BEHAVIOR OF ATHLETES

A Thesis

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Western societies tend to have an overriding belief in a sense of justice (Rubin & Peplau, 1975). People want to believe the world is a just place in which to live, a place where people are rewarded for good actions and punished for bad actions. This belief allows people to set goals and pursue those goals with the feeling that through hard work and effort those goals will be reached. However if a person's belief in a just world is threatened by evidence that the world is not just, he/she may find it difficult to pursue long range goals or even to follow the regulated behavior of daily life (Lerner & Miller, 1978).

A person's belief in justice and the difficulties in dealing with injustice become greater when external events affect him/her at a personal level. People tend to have a greater belief that good things should happen to good people as events come in closer contact with their own lives. Also people will be more greatly affected when perceived injustice influence their own lives (Lerner & Miller, 1978). For example, a person who lives in a rural community may not be concerned with the large number of homeless people who live in major cities. However a city dweller faces this problem and injustice on a daily basis. As a result, the city dweller is more affected by the injustice of this condition than the rural dweller.

In the area of sport, there seems to be an inherent sense of justice. Coaches and players discuss the importance of playing hard and playing fair. If a player is "good", then he/she will be rewarded by a victory or a good performance. Losing is the result of a player, team or coach not working hard enough, bad calls by the officials, or poor playing conditions. In essence, teams are being punished for their "bad" behavior or by unjust conditions.

Several studies have examined the relationship of the perception of injustice in sport. Duquin identified a number of factors that govern the perceptions of injustice in sport among individuals. An athlete's perception seems to be affected by the his/her role in the situation, the type of rule that has been violated, the power relationship between the athlete and coach/administrator, and the consequences of the perceived injustice (Duquin, 1984, 1988). In addition, no significant difference was found in this perception between athletes, non-athletes, and coaches. A difference was found between females and males. Females were found to rate the injustice in sport more seriously than males (Duquin, 1988).

A number of other studies have compared the belief in a sense of morality between athletes and non-athletes.

Studies by Hahm, Beller and Stoll, and Bredemier and Shields (cited in Stoll & Beller, 1993) concluded that athletes are less sportsmanlike and less morally reasoned than their nonathlete peers. Beller and Stoll (cited in Stoll & Beller) also found that moral reasoning decreases the longer an athlete is involved in organized sport. Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among a belief in a just world, morality and the on-court behavior of athletes. The sub-problems of the study were to determine if there were differences in just world and morality beliefs based on: (a) age, (b) gender, (c) location and size of residence, and (d) a player's role.

<u>Hypotheses</u>

The following hypotheses were the basis for this study:

 no relationship exists among just world scores, morality scores and on-court behavior during games and/or practice,

2) no difference exists between the just world scores of male athletes and the just world scores of female athletes,

3) no difference exists between the just world scores of starters and just world scores of substitutes,4) no difference exists between the just world scores of

students of different ages in high school,

5) no difference exists between the just world scores of students in suburban schools and the just world scores of students in rural schools.

6) no difference exists between the morality scores of male athletes and the morality scores of female athletes,
7) no difference exists between the morality scores of starters and the morality scores of substitutes,
8) no difference exists between the morality scores of students of different ages in high school,

9) no difference exists between the morality scores of students in suburban schools and the morality scores of students in rural schools.

<u>Significance of the Study</u>

There has been a large amount of research linking the belief in a just world and behavior. These studies have focused on the attitudes and behavior of individuals toward; 1) losers and winners, 2) victims of rape and victims of other types of crime, and 3) people with physical disabilities. The studies tend to suggest that a relationship exists between the belief in a just world and behavior.

This study is significant because the strength of an individual's belief in a just world could be directly related to his/her behavior and conduct within the sport setting. This belief could have a negative effect on the behavior of the athlete during sporting contests and practices. If a relationship does exist between just

world beliefs and behavior, the coach may be able to identify athletes who are more likely to display inappropriate behavior during practices and games.

Also a person's particular belief in morality may have a direct relationship to his/her on-court behavior. A person with a strong sense of right and wrong may have difficulty with strategies that may be ethically questionable, an official's call that seems to be incorrect or behavior by the crowd or other players which does not seem to fit with his/her own beliefs of proper conduct. Coaches may need to use different methods when dealing with a player with a strong and/or weak sense of morality. These methods may include involving the athlete in certain elements of decision-making, a better discussion of rules of the sport and the team, and explanations of the reasons for certain strategies and/or techniques.

This study may help to identify possible relationships of negative behavior in sport. It may also assist the coach in preventing this behavior in future sport contests.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined as used in this study:

 Authoritarianism - a "cultural theme that strong and powerful people are good and deserving, whereas weak and

powerless people are bad and undeserving" (Ma & Smith, 1985, p. 35),

 2) Justice - "an ought force which we view as inherent in our environment. It is conceived as a harmonious fit in happiness and goodness" (Rubin & Peplau, 1973, p.73),
 3) Just world belief - the hypothesis that people get what they deserve; good things happen to good people and bad things to bad people.

4) Morality - the principles of right and wrong in human conduct.

5) Residence

- a) Rural students attending a high school in a rural area with a population under 1,000,
- b) Suburban students attending a high school located in the suburbs of a city of 350,000,

6) Starters - a player who participates in over 50% of each varsity basketball contest.

Substitutes - a player who participates in less than
 of each varsity basketball contest.

<u>Limitations</u>

In any study involving people's perceptions, certain limitations exist. The findings of this study were limited by the following factors:

 The players were recruited for participation as participants in this study on a volunteer basis.
 The testing of the participants through the use of the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975) and Hahm-Beller

Values Choice Inventory (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989) could possibly make the participants more aware of their beliefs and change their actions.

3) The instruments were administered by more than one individual.

Delimitations

This study was limited to male and female high school varsity basketball players from Rose Hill High School, a 4A high school with an enrollment of 410, and Centre-Lost Springs High School, a 1A high school with an enrollment of 95. The player's ages ranged from 14 to 18.

Basic Assumption

This study was based on one assumption. It was assumed that all students answered the scales honestly and accurately.

<u>Summary</u>

The belief in a just world exists in varying degrees in all people. A person with a strong belief in a just world may have greater difficulty dealing with perceived injustice. This person may be more likely to exhibit negative behavior in reaction to this injustice than a person with a lesser degree of a belief in a just world. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among a belief in a just world, morality, and on-court tenavior of athletes. This study is significant because if a relationship exists among these beliefs and negative

on-court behavior, it may assist the coach in preventing this behavior in future sport contests.

A discussion of the literature reviewed by the researcher in the area of just world and morality can be found in Chapter II, Review of Literature. The database, design, and procedures of the study are found in Chapter III, Methodology. The findings of the study are located in Chapter IV, Results, and the conclusions in Chapter V, Discussion. Finally, the appendices are located at the end of the thesis.

CHAPTER II

Review of Literature

In order to better understand the concept of a just world, this review will be divided into three sections. The three sections are: 1) Theoretical Construct of Just World, 2) Research Related to Just World, and 3) Sport and Morality.

<u>Theoretical Construct of Just World</u>

The just world hypothesis developed over the last 50 years. The just world hypothesis states people have a need to believe good people will be rewarded and bad people will be punished for their actions (Rubin & Peplau, 1973). They want to believe the world is a place where people get what they deserve. Many people have a belief in a just world and this belief exists in varying degrees depending on a number of factors (Rubin & Peplau, 1975). Some of these factors are a person's family, religious beliefs, and the mass media.

Rubin and Peplau (1975) developed a scale to measure just world beliefs. The scale is a paper-and-pencil scale in which respondents indicate the level to which they agree or disagree with a number of statements dealing with justice. A 6-point continuum was used to indicate this level. The results of this scale were then used to measure the strength of a person's belief in a just world.

In order to exist in a rational world, people need some belief that the world is just. This belief gives a person the ability to pursue goals and follow the socially accepted behavior of everyday life. People need to believe they will be rewarded for their actions (Lerner & Miller, 1978). However if a just world belief is too strong, there can be a tendency to blame the victim for his/her problems. Negative attitudes may develop towards groups like the homeless or the physically handicapped (Rubin & Peplau, 1973).

Rubin and Peplau (1975) suggested a person's belief in a just world that was too strong could be modified through the use of certain socialization practices used by teachers, parents, the mass media and clergy. Examples presented by the authors included teachers pointing out the weaknesses of national leaders in addition to their strengths, ministers telling more stories like that of Job (whose suffering was unjustified), and more television shows in which the "good guy" doesn't always win. There are favorable as well as unfavorable attributes of having a belief in a just world.

Favorable attributes include the idea that people will work hard and perform good deeds if they believe that they will get what they deserve. But in this world, bad things can happen to good people and a person with too strong of a just world belief could have a difficult

time dealing with this fact. Therefore, a modification of just world beliefs should be sought through socialization practices.

Research Related to Just World and Gender

There is contradicting research on the relationship between gender and just world beliefs. Rubin and Peplau (1973) administered a questionnaire to 180 Boston University undergraduates (M=90 and F=90). It included a 10-item version of the F-scale focusing on authoritarian submission, a 9-item locus-of-control scale, questions about individual belief in religion and social activism and several just world questions. A 20-item Just World Scale was created from a factor analysis of the responses and then administered to the participants. The results indicated that there was no difference between just world scores of men and women.

Wagstaff (1983) conducted a study in Great Britain comparing the just world beliefs of British adults. Fifty-eight adults completed a Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975) and MacDonald's Poverty Scale (MacDonald, 1972). No significant relationship was found between just world scores and gender.

Smith and Green (1984) collected data in Texas from 223 adults (18 yr. or older, 57% female) on their belief in a just world and perceptions of social inequality. Ten telephone interviewers used a random-digit dialing procedure to collect information on the participant's

sex, race, education and political preference. The Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975), an Index of Perceived Inequality (Bell & Robinson, 1980), and an Index of Evaluated Inequality (Robinson & Bell, 1978) were used in the interviews. Just world scores of males and females were found to be approximately equal.

Ahmed and Stewart (1985) conducted a study using 196 full-time and part-time students (M=98 and F=98). A Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975), Stewart Personality Inventory (Stewart, 1976), Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1965), Machiavellian Scale (IV), and Bell Adjustment Inventory (Bell, 1962) were administered in classrooms to the participants. No gender difference was found in the scores of the participants.

Ma and Smith (1985) administered a 20-item Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975), Adorno's (1950) F-Scale, Zeller, Neal and Groat's (1980) index, and Mirels' and Garrett's (1971) scale to 1091 Taiwanese college students of which approximately 48% were male and 52% were female. No significant association was found between belief in a just world and gender.

In a study that had contradictory conclusions, Chen and Lin (1988) obtained responses from 264 Indiana college students (M=101 and F=163) to a modified Just World Scale (Ma & Smith, 1985), the Burt Sex Role Stereotype Scale (Burt, 1980), the Attitudes Toward Rape Victims Scale (Burt, 1980), and an attrition scale.

Gender differences and their attitude toward rape victims and how that attitude correlates with a belief in a just world was assessed by the study. Males were more likely to believe in a just world than females.

Ambrosio and Sheehan (1990) conducted a study examining the factor structure and internal consistency of the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975). The Just World Scale was administered to 375 undergraduates. The study found males to show a stronger belief in a just world than females.

Even though there is evidence to suggest that there may be a gender difference in just world beliefs, the majority of studies have found no relationship between just world beliefs and gender (Ahmed & Stewart, 1985; Rubin & Peplau, 1973; Smith & Green, 1984; Wagstaff, 1983; Smith & Green, 1984).

Research Related to Just World and Age

There have been several studies which have attempted to determine the relationship between a belief in a just world and age. These studies have used participants whose ages ranged from five to adulthood. Jose and Brewer (1983) assessed changes in just world beliefs with age through the development of story appreciation among second, fourth and sixth grade children. The children rated the endings of four suspense stories on ten affective scales. The stories had positive and negative endings and good and bad characters. A story that had a

positive character linked with a positive ending and a negative character linked with a negative ending was considered a just world resolution to the story. The younger children tended to prefer the positive outcomes in which there was a "happy ending". The older children preferred the just world ending in which there was a positive outcome for the positive character and negative outcome for the negative character. The results suggested that as children grow older, they tend to develop a greater belief in a just world.

Jose, Dorfman and Sliwa (1987) used 171 kindergarten through eighth grade students and 54 college students in a similar study on the development of the appreciation of fables. It was found that the liking of just world endings is acquired with age and development from kindergarten through eighth grade. Although no clear results were presented for the college students, it was found that they favored a just world resolution of the fable (i.e. a positive outcome for the good character). This finding seems to suggest that college students hold some belief in a just world.

In another study (Peterson, 1984), 40 high school freshman, 40 high school seniors and 40 college undergraduates with at least one year of college experience, answered a Devaluation Questionnaire (Peterson, 1983) which measured their attitudes toward physically disabled individuals. They also completed the

Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975), the Defining Issues Test (Rest, 1974) and the Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons Scale (Yuker, Block, & Campbell, 1966). The results indicated college students had a weaker just world belief than high school seniors and high school seniors had a weaker just world belief than high school freshman.

A study using British adults measured the relationship between just world beliefs and adults of various ages (Wagstaff, 1983). Each participant answered the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975) after being read a story of a young woman that was a victim of a crime. Wagstaff concluded there is a negligible relationship between just world beliefs and different aged adults.

Research in the area of age and just world belief suggest a robust relationship between age and a belief in a just world. There seems to be little belief in a just world until second grade, but as the child grows older the belief becomes stronger. As the individual develops into adulthood and experiences injustice in the world, the belief begins to weaken. Although this belief may drop, there seems to always be some belief in a just world.

Research Related to Just World and Residence

Witt (1989) conducted a study on urban and nonuthan differences in the perception of a just world and locus

of control. Seventy male and 66 female undergraduates were asked to indicate their sex, age and category of hometown (urban center, urban suburb, rural town or rural area). Each student also completed a Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975) and a shortened, 15-item version of the Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1966).

The results of the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975) indicated students from nonurban areas had higher scores than those from urban areas. A high score signified a greater belief in a just world. The data characterized students from nonurban areas holding a greater belief in a just world than those from urban areas.

Research Related to Just World and Authoritarianism

There are contradicting results in studies examining the relationship between authoritarianism and the belief in a just world. The primary evidence of a link between authoritarianism and just world beliefs is a study conducted by Rubin and Peplau (1973). One hundred eighty Boston University undergraduates were administered a 10item version of the F-scale focusing on authoritarian submission and a Just World Scale. The results indicated a strong relationship between just world beliefs and authoritarianism. Ma and Smith (1985) administered the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975), Adorno's (1950) F-scale, Zeller, Neal and Groat's (1980) index, and

Mirels' and Garrett's (1971) scale to 1091 Taiwanese college students. An extremely weak relationship was found between just world belief scores and authoritarianism scores. A possible reason given for this finding was that the F-scale does not accurately measure the Chinese culture's concept of authority which is aimed at human relations, ethical order and personalized objects.

Connors and Heaven (1986) conducted a study to test Rubin and Peplau's (1973) finding of a relationship between just world beliefs and authoritarianism. One hundred ninety eight Australian college students completed a Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975), Ray's (1979) balanced F-scale, Rigby's (1984) Authority Behavior Inventory, and a 5-point scale to measure their voting preference. The results showed that the belief in a just world was weakly associated with authoritarianism attitudes and the tendency to conform to authority. The evidence of a relationship between just world beliefs and authoritarianism is inconclusive at this time. There is research to indicate both a strong and weak association between the two beliefs.

Research Related to Just World and Religiousness

There is contradictory evidence on the relationship between religiousness and a belief in a just world. Rubin and Peplau (1973) found that people with a stronger belief in Western religions and God were more likely to

have a strong belief in a just world. A 20 item Just World Scale was administered to 180 undergraduates at Boston University. It was found that just world scores were directly related to a belief in an active God, church attendance and self-ratings of religiosity.

Ma and Smith (1985) administered Rubin and Peplau's (1975) Just World Scale, Adorno's (1950) F-scale, Zeller, Neal and Groat's (1980) index, and Mirels' and Garrett's (1971) scale to 1091 Taiwanese college students. No significant relationship was found among just world beliefs, religious affiliation, and a belief in God. Summary of Research Related to Just World

The overall findings tend to suggest that: 1) There is no relationship between gender and just world beliefs, 2) Just world beliefs develop with age up to a point, then seem to decrease and eventually level off, 3) People who live in a nonurban area are more likely to believe in a just world than those living in urban areas, 4) There is contradicting evidence on the relationship between religiosity and just world beliefs, 5) There is evidence to both support and dismiss an association between just world beliefs and authoritarianism.

Sport and Morality

Research is limited in the study of the relationship in a belief in a just world and sport. In an area closely related to just world beliefs, Duquin has conducted two notable studies examining an individual's

perception of injustice in sport. In these studies, the data revealed that there is a relationship between certain factors and the perception of injustice in sport.

In one study, Duquin (1988) tested four variables that affect an individual's perception of injustice and the tendency to blame the victim or the perpetrator in a sport context. A series of situations in sport in which a conflict occurs between an athlete and a member of the athletic establishment were given to athletes (N=89), non-athletes (N=86), and coaches (N=87) to read. Each was asked to decide whether any injustice to the athlete took place in the moral conflict sport situation and to give a percent of blame or responsibility that should be placed on the athlete and the athletic establishment. The four variables were: 1) The consequence of the injustice to the athlete, 2) The responsibility of the athlete in the injustice, 3) The athlete's knowledge of the rules in regard to the injustice, and 4) The level of identification of the participants with the athletes involved in the situation.

The results indicated that the level of perceived injustice is viewed as less serious if the athlete is seen as a willing victim, as acting irresponsibly in relation to the rules, or if the consequences of the injustice were viewed as minor. Also, no differences were found in the way athletes, non-athletes, and coaches

viewed the injustice in sport. However, females did rate the injustice in sport more seriously than males.

In a similar study, Duguin (1984) examined seven variables and their effect on an individual's view of a victim in a sport context. These variables were: 1) The victim received some compensation for the injustice, 2) The severity of the consequences to the victim, 3) The injustice broke a formal rule, 4) The responsibility of the victim for the injustice, 5) The status of the victim, 6) The awareness of the victim of the injustice being done, and 7) The level of identification of the participants with the athletes involved in the situation. The participants consisted of 128 middle class Pittsburgh area high school students ages 14 to 18. There were equal numbers of female and male athletes and nonathletes. The participants read one of four forms of six situations in which a conflict occurred between an athlete and a member of the athletic establishment. The participants filled out a guestionnaire and judged if an injustice had occurred and the amount of blame to be put on the athlete and the perpetrator.

The results of the Duquin (1984) study indicated that injustice was viewed as less serious if the victim was viewed as a willing participant, if the victim was of low status, if the consequences were considered minor, or if the victim acted irresponsibly. Injustice was perceived as more serious if a formal rule had been

violated. There was no difference found if the victim was aware of the injustice, nor were there differences in the way the participants identified with the victim. Females were found to be more sensitive than males to injustice and more likely to place blame on the athletic establishment.

There have been a number of other studies that have examined the moral reasoning of athletes. Hahm (cited in Stoll & Beller, 1993) found that athletes were less morally reasoned than their nonathlete peers. Athletes had a tendency to make decisions on what feels good to them or what others tell them to do and non-athletes had a tendency to make decisions while taking the views of others into account.

Beller and Stoll (cited in Stoll & Beller, 1993) found that moral reasoning decreases the longer athletes compete in organized sport. It was found that ninth grade athletes reasoned better than college athletes.

Stoll and Beller (1993) conducted a long term study to determine if the moral development of athletes could be improved by a specific type of moral education intervention program. Over a three year period, student athletes (N=250) at a Division I college were enrolled in an 18 week moral reasoning in sport course. Each group of participants and a control group of athletes were pre and posttested with Rest's (1974) Defining Issues Test. Stoll and Beller found changes in the behavior and

academic progress of the program participants. Examples included fewer athletes being involved in fighting, less criminal activity, and a rise in grade point average. <u>Summary of Sport and Morality</u>

The results of the studies by Duquin (1984, 1988) suggest that the perception of injustice is influenced by: 1) The participants role in the injustice, 2) The actions of the victim and the level of the consequences of the injustice, and/or 3) Whether or not a formal rule had been violated. There seems to be no difference in perception if the observer does or does not identify with the victim of the injustice. Finally, females tended to rate the injustice as more serious than males.

Research in the area of moral development has shown athletes to be less morally reasoned than non-athletes and an athlete's moral reasoning decreases the longer the individual is involved in organized sport. It was also found that a moral development program could improve the moral reasoning of athletes.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among just world beliefs, morality and the on-court behavior of athletes. The study examined the differences between just world scores, morality scores, behavior scores, and the age, gender, residency, and team role of the players.

Participants

The participants of this study were male and female high school varsity basketball players. The participants consisted of the varsity basketball players from Centre-Lost Springs High School, a 1A high school located in Lost Springs, KS, with an enrollment of 95 students (N=28), and Rose Hill High School, a 4A high school located approximately 15 miles outside the city limits of Wichita, KS, with an enrollment of 410 students (N=22). The participants' ages ranged from 14 to 18 years of age. <u>Procedures</u>

Permission to conduct this study was obtained from the Institutional Review Board for Treatment of Human Participants at Emporia State University (see Appendix A). The principal of Rose Hill High School and the principal of Centre-Lost Springs High School were contacted for permission to use the basketball teams of each school in this study (Appendix E). The head coaches

of each team were also contacted to obtain their cooperation.

During the preseason (after the selection of the varsity players) the researcher met with the athletes of Centre-Lost Springs High School and an assistant to the researcher met with the athletes of Rose Hill High School. The meetings were held in the high school gymnasium without the coaches present. The coaches were told that their players were to be participants in a thesis project, but were not told the purpose of the study. At this time, the participants were informed about the purpose and procedures of this study and asked to sign the informed consent document (see Appendix B). After signing the informed consent form, the players were assigned a code number to use when completing the questionnaire. This code number was assigned to ensure confidentiality of the participant's responses. The participants were asked to complete the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975) (Appendix C) and the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989) (Appendix D). Each athlete was asked to answer the scale honestly and accurately. The players were also asked not to discuss the scale with their coaches. After the completion of the two scales and the informed consent document, the researcher and the researcher's assistant collected the information and placed it in a manila envelope.

At the conclusion of the season, the researcher returned to each school and met with the head coach of each team in his/her office. During this meeting, the coach received a behavioral checklist for each individual athlete involved in the study (See Appendix F). An explanation of this checklist was given to each coach. The coach was asked to rate each player fairly and accurately. The researcher collected the checklists and placed them in a manila envelope.

<u>Instrumentation</u>

The three instruments used in this study were the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975), the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989), and a behavioral checklist. The Just World Scale was developed by Rubin and Peplau to measure the strength of an individual's belief in a just world. Rubin and other researchers have used this scale to examine relationships among these beliefs and the behavior of individuals. The Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory was developed in 1989 to address moral values in sport settings. The behavioral checklist was developed by the researcher as a tool to measure the behavior of the participants.

Permission to use the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989) was obtained through a personal conversation with one of the authors of the inventory. Permission to use the Just World Scale

(Rubin & Peplau, 1975) was obtained through a personal conservation with Dr. Anne Peplau.

The instrument validity of the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975) was determined through criterion validity. Criterion validity was demonstrated through the use of the results of a study completed by Ahmed and Stewart (1985). In this study, a factor analysis and correlation coefficient was conducted on the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975) and several personality scales which included the Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1965), the Stewart Personality Inventory (Stewart, 1976), the Machiavellian Scale IV, and Bell's Adjustment Inventory (Bell, 1962). One of the purposes of this study was to determine if the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau) was an accurate measure of just world beliefs. Ahmed and Stewart found that the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau) correlated negatively with Machiavellianism, Home Adjustment as measured by Bell, and with Health Adjustment of Bell Inventory (Bell). Just World scores negatively and significantly correlated with Scale 2 and Scale 3 of the Stewart Personality Inventory (Stewart). Participants' scores on the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975) correlated positively and significantly with the factors of the Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1965), form A, the Extraversion, and Neuroticism.

The reliability of the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975) was determined through the use of the coefficient alpha. Two sets of participants were used to determine if the scale was an accurate measure of general belief in the just world in different settings. Rubin and Peplau found that in both studies the test-retest coefficient ranged from .80 to .81.

The validity of the researcher's behavioral checklist was determined through the use of content validity. A panel of experts (the researcher's thesis committee) was assembled to determine the validity of the behavioral checklist. Although reliability is not a major concern with this instrument because it is a measure of demographic information, a definition of several terms (i.e. aggressive behavior) was included with the checklist for a clarification of and consistency in meaning for the coaches.

Statistical Design

Two different statistical methods were used to interpret the data collected in this study. A Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine if a relationship exists between just world beliefs, morality beliefs, and behavior and an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to measure differences among the beliefs of different groups. The correlation coefficient was used to determine 10 a relationship exists among the scores of the athlete on the Just World

Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975), Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989), and his/her behavior on the court as measured by the behavioral checklist. An ANOVA was used to determine differences among the mean scores of the athletes on the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975) and their: 1) gender, 2) age, 3) role on the team, and 4) residence. An ANOVA was also used to determine differences among the mean scores of the athletes on the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989) and their: 1) gender, 2) age, 3) role on the team, and 4) residence. All data were analyzed at the <u>p.<.05</u> level of significance.

<u>Summary</u>

This study determined if a relationship exists between just world beliefs, morality beliefs, and oncourt behavior of athletes. It also investigated if a difference exists among just world beliefs and: 1) age, 2) gender, 3) player's roles, and 4) residence.

The male and female high school varsity basketball teams of Rose Hill High School and Centre-Lost Springs High School were administered the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1975) and Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989) during the preseason of basketball practice. At the end of the season, the head coach of each team filled out a behavioral checklist for each player on his/her varsity team.

The data were analyzed through the use of a Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient and an ANOVA. The correlation coefficient was used to determine if a relationship exists between just world beliefs, morality, and behavior. The ANOVA was used to assess if differences existed on the basis of gender, age, player's roles, and residence. All data were analyzed at <u>p</u>.<.05 level of significance.

CHAPTER IV

Results

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among just world beliefs, morality, and the on-court behavior of athletes. The sub-problems of this study were to determine if there were differences in just world and morality beliefs based on: (a) age, (b) gender, (c) location and size of residence, and (d) player's roles. The participants in this study were the male and female varsity basketball players (N=49) from Centre-Lost Springs High School and Rose Hill High School. The data were analyzed through the use of a Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient and an ANOVA. All data were analyzed at the p.<.05 level of significance. Table 1 presents the means and standard deviations for just world, morality, and behavior scores for the subpopulations of the study.

Hypotheses 1 stated that no relationship existed among just world scores, morality scores, and on-court behavior during games and/or practice. The data were analyzed through the use of a Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient. The data indicated that no relationship existed among just world scores and morality scores (r=-.003), just world scores and behavior (r=.154), or morality scores and behavior (r=.279). Hypothesis 1 was not rejected.

Table l

Mean and Standard Deviation for Just World Scores, Morality Scores, and Behavior Scores for Age, Gender, School, and Playing Time

	Jus	Just World		Morality		Behavior	
		mean	std.dev.	mean s	td.dev.	mean s	std.dev.
Age	16	81.8 77.0 74.1	6.3	63.3 65.9 69.7 61.6 61.7	9.0 10.3 8.0	23.6 22.5	3.5 1.6 2.8 2.3 3.1
Gender	F M	75.8 78.8	8.1 8.6	67.4 62.7			2.1 3.0
School	Ce RH	77.0 77.6	9.3 7.4	65.8 64.1	8.7 10.3		2.0 2.7
Playing Time		78.8 76.3		63.6 66.0		21.8 22.6	

Hypothesis 2 stated that no difference existed between the just world scores of male athletes and the just world scores of female athletes. The data were analyzed through the use of an ANOVA. The data indicated that no significant difference existed between the just world scores of male athletes and female athletes (F=1.66, p.=.20). Hypothesis 2 was not rejected for just world scores and gender.

Hypothesis 3 stated that no difference existed between the just world scores of starters and the just world scores of substitutes. The data were analyzed through the use of an ANOVA. The data indicated that no significant difference existed between the just world scores of starters and the just world scores of substitutes (F=1.02, \underline{p} =.32). Hypothesis 3 was not rejected for just world scores and playing time.

Hypothesis 4 stated that no difference existed between the just world scores of students of different ages in high school. The data were analyzed through the use of an ANOVA. The data indicated that no significant difference existed between the just world scores of students whose ages ranged from 14 to 18 years of age (F=1.54, p.=.21). Hypothesis 4 was not rejected for just world scores and age.

Hypothesis 5 stated that no difference existed between the just world scores of students in suburban high schools and the just world scores of students in

rural high schools. The data were analyzed through the use of an ANOVA. The data indicated that no significant difference existed between the just world scores of students in suburban high schools and the just world scores of students in rural high schools (F=.05, $p_.=.82$). Hypothesis 5 was not rejected for just world scores and high school size and location.

Hypothesis 6 stated that no difference existed between the morality scores of male athletes and the morality scores of female athletes. The data were analyzed through the use of an ANOVA. The data indicated that no significance difference existed between the morality scores of male athletes and the morality scores of female athletes (F=3.21, \underline{p} .=.08). Hypothesis 6 was not rejected for morality scores and gender.

Hypothesis 7 stated that no difference existed between the morality scores of starters and the morality scores of substitutes. The data were analyzed through the use of an ANOVA. The data indicated that no significant difference existed between the morality scores of starters and the morality scores of substitutes (F=.71, p.=.40). Hypothesis 7 was not rejected for morality scores and playing time.

Hypothesis 8 stated that no difference existed between the morality scores of students of different ages in high school. The data were analyzed through the use of an ANOVA. The data indicated that no significant

difference existed between the morality scores of students whose ages ranged from 14 to 18 years of age (F=1.76, <u>p</u>.=.21). Hypothesis 8 was not rejected for morality scores and age.

Hypothesis 9 stated that no difference existed between the morality scores of students in suburban high schools and the morality scores of students in rural high schools. The data were analyzed through the use of an ANOVA. The data indicated that no significant difference existed between the morality scores of students in suburban high schools and the morality scores of students in rural high schools (F=.38, $p_{.}=.54$). Hypothesis 9 was not rejected for morality scores and high school size and location.

CHAPTER V

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among just world beliefs, morality, and the on-court behavior of athletes. The sub-problems of this study were to determine if there were differences in just world beliefs and morality beliefs based on: (a) age, (b) gender, (c) location and size of residence, and (d) player's roles. The participants in this study were the male and female varsity basketball players from Centre-Lost Springs High School and Rose Hill High School.

The results of this study indicate that there is no relationship between just world beliefs, morality beliefs, and behavior. One possible reason for the lack of a relationship is that the study involved a small sample size of only 49 participants.

The lack of a relationship among just world beliefs, morality, and behavior could also be attributed to the fact that each of the coaches in this study have their own perception of appropriate behavior for their players. Each coach has a different tolerance level of certain behaviors and as a result the ratings on the behavioral checklist may not be consistent for the players of the different teams.

The researcher speculates that the style of discipline of the coach may play an important role in the behavior of their players no matter what beliefs each

player may hold or how each player feels about the injustices he/she may face in sport. Each coach in this study has a different discipline style. Each has different rules regarding acceptable behavior on and off the court. One major area where the coaches of this study differ is in the type of behavior that is allowed during games. For example, two of the coaches strictly limit their players in the area of sportsmanship regarding "showboating" and "trash talking". This type of behavior is considered inappropriate by two of the coaches, while the other two coaches allow this behavior on the court. As a result, behavior not allowed by one coach could be considered acceptable by another coach.

The results also indicated no significant difference existed between males and females in the belief in a just world and morality. These findings are supported by earlier studies conducted by Rubin and Peplau (1973), Wagstaff (1983), Smith and Green (1984), and Ahmed and Stewart (1985). These studies found that there was no significant difference between just world beliefs and gender.

In a comparison in the beliefs in a just world and morality of starters versus those of substitutes, no significant difference was found. A possible reason is that the players filled out the two scales before any games were played. As a result, the starters may not have been chosen yet. Also, several of the players who

didn't start on the varsity team started on the junior varsity team. In addition, a number of substitutes on all four teams received extensive playing time during the season. As a result, these athletes would no longer be considered substitutes by the researcher's definition.

In earlier research, Jose and Brewer (1983) and Jose, Dorfman, and Sliwa (1987) found a significant relationship between young people and just world beliefs. These studies found that the belief in a just world begins to develop in the second grade and becomes stronger as the child grows older. A study by Peterson (1984) that involved high school freshman, high school seniors, and college students found that the belief in a just world weakens as a person moves into adulthood. Wagstaff (1983) conducted a study of British adults and found that there is no significant difference between adults of different ages.

Moral development research by Hahm (cited in Stoll and Beller, 1993) found that moral reasoning decreases the longer an athlete is involved in organized sport. High school freshman were found to reason morally at a higher level than athletes of college age.

In this study no significant difference was found among a belief in a just world and/or morality beliefs and athletes between the ages of 14 and 18. These findings conflict with the studies conducted by Peterson (1984) and Hahm (cited in Stoll & Beller, 1993). A

possible reason for this result was that over 59% of the participants (N=29) were between the ages of 16 and 17, whereas only 6% of the participants (N=3) were 14 years of age and only 14% of the participants (N=7) were 18 years of age. A larger sample of 14 and 18 year olds would seem to be needed to draw further conclusions.

A study conducted by Witt (1989) compared the belief in a just world of people living in urban areas to those living in nonurban areas. He found that the people living in the nonurban areas had a stronger belief in a just world than those living in urban areas. In the current study, no significant difference was found between the just world scores of the athletes of a suburban high school and the athletes of a rural high school. A possible explanation of this result could be that the differences in a rural and a suburban area may not be as great as the differences between a rural area and an urban area.

The results of this study could suggest that a coach's discipline and tolerance level of certain behaviors may play a more important role in the on-court behavior of athletes when faced with injustice than the athlete's level of belief in a just world and morality. The results suggest that there are no significant differences in just world beliefs or morality beliefs and: 1) gender, 2) age, 3) residence, and 4) player's roles.

Recommendations for Future Research

Recommendations for future research include: 1) Testing in which one individual evaluates the athletes involved in the study rather than each team's coach to get a more consistent rating of individual behavior. 2) Testing of individual sports, such as golf and track, where the outcome is based more on individual performance than team sports.

3) Testing teams in inner city schools versus teams in rural schools to determine if a difference is evident in just world beliefs, morality, and behavior.

4) Testing junior high teams and high school teams to get a greater age range in the testing sample.

5) Testing teams in which there are differences in the amount of player involvement that a coach allows in the making of rules, decision-making, and strategies.

6) Testing teams that have different win/loss records.

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Application for Approval to Use Human Subjects

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APPLICATION FOR APPROVAL TO USE HUMAN SUBJECTS

This application should be submitted, along with the Informed Consent Document, to the Institutional Review Board for Treatment of Human Subjects, Research and Grants Center, Campus Box 4048.

1. Name of Principal Investigator(s) or Responsible Individuals:

Chris Newton ______

3. Person to whom notification should be sent: Chris Newton

Address: P.O. Box 131, Lincolnville, KS 66858

4. The of Project: The relationship among the belief in a just world

and actual on-court behavior.

- 5. Funding Agency (if applicable): None.
- 6. Project Purpose(s):

The purpose of this project is to examine the relationship among an athlete's belief in a just world and on-court behavior.

 Describe the proposed subjects: (age, sex, race, or other special characteristics, such as students in a specific class, etc.)

The subjects are high school male and female basketball players and their coaches.

8. Describe how the subjects are to be selected:

Volunteers will be solicited from the basketball teams at Centre-Lost Springs High School and Rose Hill High School.

 Describe the proposed procedures in the project. Any proposed experimental activities that are included in evaluation, research, development, demonstration, instruction, study, treatments, debriefing, questionnaires, and similar projects must be described here. Copies of questionnaires, survey instruments, or tests should be attached. (Use additional page if necessary.)

Each subject will be given a code number for identification The subjects will fill out a just world scale at the beginning of the season. At the end of the season, the coaches of each team will fill out a behavior checklist evaluation each subject.

The results of the checklist will be compared to the score on the scale. A comparison of the results will determine if a relationship among just world beliefs and on-court behavior.

- 10. Will questionnaires, tests, or related research instruments not explained in question #9 be used? Yes X No (if yes, attach a copy to this application.)
- 11. Will electrical or mechanical devices be used? ____Yes ___X_No (if yes, attach a detailed description of the device(s).)
- 12. Do the benefits of the research outweigh the risks to human subjects? X Yes No This information should be outlined here.

13. Are there any possible emergencies which might arise in utilization of human subjects in this project? Yes <u>x</u>No Details of these emergencies should be provided here.

14. What provisions will you take for keeping research data private?

i L

Each subject will sign an informed consent document and will be given an identification code number. All information will be sealed in an envelope and returned to the researcher.

15. Attach a copy of the informed consent document, as it will be used for your subjects.

STATEMENT OF AGREEMENT: I have acquainted myself with the Federal Regulations and University policy regarding the use of human subjects in research and related activities and will conduct this project in accordance with those requirements. Any changes in procedures will be cleared through the Institutional Review Board for Treatment of Human Subjects.

Signature of Principal Investigator

Date

Signature of responsible individual (faculty advisor)

Date

Appendix B

Informed Consent Document

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INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

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The Department/Division of <u>HPER</u> supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research and related activities. The following information is provided so that you can decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time, and that if you do withdraw from the study, you will not be subjected to reprimand or any other form of reproach.

Procedures to be followed in the study, as well as identification of any procedures which are experimental.

Each subject will fill out a questionnaire which assesses psychological beliefs. At a later date, each coach will fill out a behavior checklist for each subject.

Description of any attendant discomforts or other forms of risk involved for subjects taking part in the study.

None.

Description of benefits to be expected from the study or research.

The results of the study may improve player/coach performance.

Appropriate alternative procedures that would be advantageous for the subject.

None.

"I $bE_{x,y}$ read the above statement and have been fully advised of the procedures to be used in this project. I have been given sufficient opportunity to ask any questions I had concerning the procedures and possible risks involved. I understand the potential risks involved and I assume them voluntarily. I likewise understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time without being subjected to reproach."

Date

Appendix C

Just World Scale

PERSONAL BELIEF SCALE

For each of the following statements, please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement by circling the number which most closely approximates your belief. Use the following scale:

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Moderately disagree
- 3 = Disagree somewhat
- 4 = Agree somewhat
- 5 = Moderately agree
- 6 = Strongly agree
- I've found that a person rarely deserves the reputation s/he has.
 - 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 2. Basically, the world is a just place. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 3. People who get "lucky breaks" have usually earned their good fortunes.
 1 2 3 4 5 6
- Careful drivers are just as likely to get hurt in traffic accidents as careless ones.
 1
 2
 3
 4
 5
 6
- 5. It is a common occurrence for a guilty person to get off free in American courts. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 6. Students almost always deserve the grades they receive in school.
 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 7. Men who keep in shape have little chance of suffering a heart attack.
 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 8. The political candidate who sticks up for his/her principles rarely gets elected. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 9. It is rare for an innocent man/woman to be wrongly sent to jail.
 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 10. In professional sports, many fouls and infractions never get called by the referee. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 11. By and large, people deserve what they get. 1 2 3 4 5 6

- 12. When parents punish their children, it is almost always for good reasons.
 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 13. Good deeds often go unnoticed and unrewarded. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 14. Although evil people may hold political power for a while, in the general course of history, good wins out. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 15. In almost any business or profession, people who do their job will rise to the top. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 16. American parents tend to overlook the things most to be admired in their children. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 17. It is often impossible for a person to receive a fair trial in the U.S.A. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 18. People who meet with misfortune have often brought it on themselves. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 19. Crime does not pay. 1 2 3 4 5 6
- 20. Many people suffer through absolutely no fault of their own. 1 2 3 4 5 6

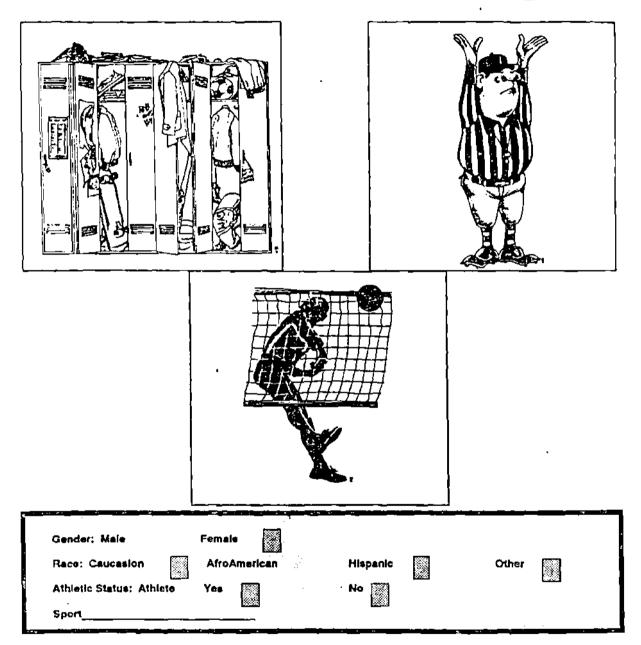
Appendix D

Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory

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HAHM-BELLER VALUES CHOICE INVENTORY*

In The Sport Milieu



The following questionnaire describes incidents that have occurred in sport settings. Each question addresses moral values. Because there are no right or wrong answers, please color the box that corresponds to the answer that best describes your feelings. SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree, N = Neutral; D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree.

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Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory

1. Two rival basketball teams in a well-known conference played a basketball game on team A's court. During the game, team B's star player was consistently heckled whenever she missed a basket, pass, or rebound. In the return game on team B's home court, the home crowd took revenge by heckling team A's players. Such action is fair because both crowds have equal opportunity to heckle players.

2. During the double play in baseball, players must tag second base before throwing to first. However, some players deliberately fake the tag, thus delivering a quicker throw to first base. Pretending to tag second base is justified because it is a good strategy. Besides, the umpire's job is to call an illegal play.

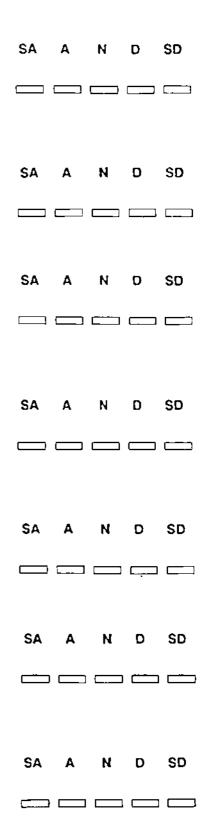
3. Blood doping is not potentially dangerous to an athlete even though it violates rules in all major competitions. Just before a race, athletes use the technique to freeze their blood and return the red blood cells to the body. The elevated red cell content enables the body to send more oxygen to the muscles, resulting in an enhanced performance. Because there is no physical harm in blood doping, an athlete should be given the choice "to dope or not to dope".

4. Swimmers are taught to stand completely still just before the gun shot that starts the race. Some coaches teach their swimmers to move their head and upper body slightly which possibly forces an opponent to faise start. If swimmer B faise starts he will probably stay in the blocks a fraction longer when the race starts. Consequently, swimmer A may have an advantage during the race. Because all competitors have equal opportunity for this strategy, this is an acceptable means for swimmers to increase their advantage.

5. Male Soccer players are allowed to play the ball with any part of their body except the hands or outstretched arms. A soccer player receives a chest high pass and taps the ball to the ground with his hand. The referee does not see this action and the play continues. Because it is the referee's job to see these actions, the player is not obligated to report the foul.

6. in golf, there is an unwritten rule that players generally observe silence while other golfers are preparing for and executing shots. Player A is preparing to "tee off". Player B notices that he can break player A's concentration by rattling his clubs and making other noises. Player B believes this is a good strategy. Player B does not believe he is violating a rule because "observed silence" is an unwritten rule.

7. Basketball player A skillfully dribbled the ball around his opponents to the basket. Just as she moved toward the basket, she was tripped by played B, causing the basket to be missed. If player A had not been tripped, two points probably would have been made. Player B is charged with a foul and player A must shoot two free throws. Player A missed the two shots from the free throw line. Player B is demonstrating good strategy by forcing player A to shoot two foul shots instead of an easy lay-up.



8. A gold medal track athlete was told to undergo drug testing during recent international competition. Because she played by the rules, compated on her merits, and did not use performance enhancing drugs, she opposed the drug testing. She believed that athletic organizations had no moral authority to force her to be tested. Because she and other athletes are truthful and drug testing assumes they are untruthful, drug testing should not be mandatory.

9. Certain basketball teams are coached to run plays that cause the opponents to foul. Players and coaches believe this is clever strategy because the opponents may foul out of the game, giving their team an advantage. Because the coach orders this type of play, the players should follow his directions.

10. A star football player had a history test on Friday, the day of the cross town rival football game. He knew about the test for several weeks, however he waited until Thursday to study. Other teammates prepared for the test. On Friday he said he was having difficulty concentrating on his studies. If the instructor permits the schiete to take the test at a later date, the instructor would be acting fairly.

11. Coaches display confidence and trust in the officials by remaining on the bench and caiming their players when questionable calls are made. During a basketball game the center blocked a shot, however she was called for a foul. The players, fans, and coaches clearly believe she blocked the shot by only touching the ball. The team and fans were outraged but the coach caimed her players and encourages them to forget the call and continue playing. Because the coaches must place mutual confidence in the officials, the coach acted properly.

12. A tennis star is preparing to play a match. She complains of not feeling well during the warmup. This star player finally lost a match. When discussing the game, she continually remarked that "I just did not play my best game". Because the player believed her best game was not played, her statement was acceptable.

13. Player A who is the center on an ice hockey team dribbled the puck down the ice, around several opponents. He had a clear shot at the net as he passed player B. Player B, while pretending to go for the puck, decided to turn at the last second to trip player A with his stick. Consequently, player A missed the goal. Because player A must now attempt a penalty shot instead of easy goal, this is demonstrating good strategy.

14. During a volleyball game player A hit the ball over the net. The ball barely grazed off player B's fingers and landed out of bounds. However the referee did not see player B touch the ball. Because the referee is responsible for calling rule violations, player B is not obligated to report the violation.

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15. A field hockey player is permitted to hit the ball hard, providing the ball is not hit purposely at an opponent. Player A (intently concentrating on the net) hit the ball towards the goal, but hit player B instead. Player B complains that player A purposely hit the ball into her, however the foul was not called. Down the field, player B gained possession of the ball, retaliated, and hit the ball at player A. Player B's action was acceptable.

16. Football players are not allowed to move beyond the line of scrimmage until the ball is snapped. Some coaches encourage their players to charge across the line of scrimmage a fraction of a second before the ball is snapped. The officials have difficulty seeing the early movement, therefore, the team has an advantage compared to their opponents. Because the strategy is beneficial and the officials must call the infraction, the team's actions are fair.

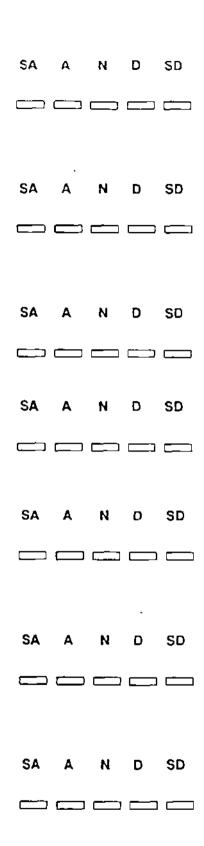
17. During an Intramural basketball game, a student official awarded one free throw shot instead of two to team A. Team B knew the call was wrong, however chose to remain silent, knowing the call was to their advantage. Because the official's job is to make the proper calls, and it is not a formal game, team B's action was acceptable.

18. Part of our rights as human beings is the freedom of choice. Because we have freedom of choice, we should be able to take any performance enhancing drug we choose. Also, because drug ingestion only affects our bodies, we are not hurting anyone else. Hence when a governing body bans a drug, our freedom of choice is violated.

19. Many athletes use drugs such as steroids to gain maximum strength, while others do not. Some sthletes feel that unless they take such drugs, they are at a disadvantage compared to those who do. Athletes, who do not use drugs, state that competition against their drug using opponents results in not having an equal opportunity to win the game. For an equal opportunity, these athletes decide to take drugs. This decision is acceptable.

20. During a youth sport football game, an ineligible pass receiver catches a long touchdown pass and scores. The officials fail to determine that the player was ineligible. Because it is the referee's job to detect the ineligible receiver, the player or the coach does not have to declare an ineligible receiver.

21. ice hockey is often a violent game. Even though players are often hurt, hitting hard and smashing players into the boards is normal, . Player A and B are opponents playing in a championship game. While trying to control the puck, player A smashed player B into the boards. Even though the puck is on the opposite side of the arena, player B, a few minutes later, retailated by smashing player A into the boards. Because "hitting hard" and "smashing players into the boards" are an inherent part of the game, player B's action was acceptable.



Appendix E

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Permission to Use High School Participants

Nev: 10, 1994

Mr. Allen Voth Rose Hill High School 315 S. Rose Hill Road Rose Hill, KS 67132

Dear Mr. Allen Voth;

My name is Chris Newton. I teach and coach at Centre High School in Lost Springs, KS. I am doing research comparing the attitudes and behaviors of basketball players in urban and rural schools. This research will be used in my thesis for a master's degree in physical education at Emporia State University.

I have chosen Rose Hill as the urban school for my study. My brother Clay teaches and coaches at Rose Hill and is going to help me with my research. The players from the boys and girls teams will be used in the study.

Each student taking part will be given an informed consent document to sign as a participant in the study. The name of each student will be kept confidential (each will be assigned a number) and there is no risk of injury to the students. The students will fill out two questionnaires and the coaches will fill out a behavioral checklist. These items are enclosed with this letter.

I need your permission to allow me to use Rose Hill High School students in my research. I must get written approval to use Rose Hill as part of my study. I would appreciate it if you could send me written authorization in the enclosed self addressed stamped envelope. If you have any questions you can contact me at Centre High School (913-983-4321).

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Chur Neuton

Chris Newton

OK. Word

Nov. 10, 1994

Mr. Don Karr Centre High School Box 106 Lost Springs, KS 66859

Dear Mr. Karr;

I am doing research comparing the attitudes and behaviors of basketball players in urban and rural schools. This research will be used in my thesis for a master's degree in physical education at Emporia State University.

I have chosen Centre High School as the rural school for my study. The players from the boys and girls teams will be used in the study.

Each student taking part will be given an informed consent document to sign as a participant in the study. The name of each student will be kept confidential (each will be assigned a number) and there is no risk of injury to the students. The students will fill out two questionnaires and the coaches will fill out a behavioral checklist. These items are enclosed with this letter.

I need your permission to allow me to use Centre High School students in my research. I must get written approval to use Centre as part of my study. I would appreciate it if you could give me written authorization to conduct this study.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Chie Neuton

Chris Newton

OK with me Markon Principal 10/10/94

Appendix F

Behavioral Checklist

BEHAVIORAL CHECKLIST

For each of the following statements, please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement by circling the number which most closely approximates your observation of the athlete's behavior. Use the following scale:

- 1 = Almost always
- 2 = Frequently
- 3 = Sometimes
- 4 = Infrequently
- 5 = Almost never
- 1. The athlete argues with officials.

1 2 3 4 5

2. The athlete exhibits violent and/or aggressive behavior during games and/or practice.

1 2 3 4 5

3. The athlete only works hard when he/she is being observed by the coach.

1 2 3 4 5

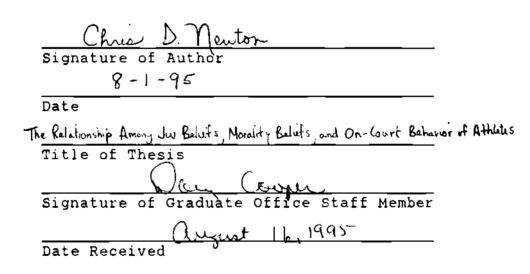
4. The athlete complains about his/her role as substitute or starter on the team.

1 2 3 4 5

5. The athlete questions the coach's decisions and comments.

1 2 3 4 5

I, <u>Chris D. Newton</u>, hereby submit this thesis to Emporia State University as partial fulfillment of the requirements for an advanced degree. I agree that the Library of the University may make it available for use in accordance with its regulations governing materials of this type. I further agree that quoting, photocopying, or other reproduction of this document is allowed for private study, scholarship (including teaching) and research purposes of a nonprofit nature. No copying which involves potential financial gain will be allowed without written permission of the author.



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