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COMPARISON OF SPORTSMANSHIP ATTITUDES AND PLAY

STYLES OF INNER CITY AND OUTER CITY

NINTH GRADE STUDENTS

DISSER TATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By

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* * * * * *

The Ohio State University
1971

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In recent years there has been an increasing awareness of problems confronting educators who deal with populations of the "inner" city. However, there appears to be a lack of research or inquiry into this area by members of the physical education profession.

Many factors are related to the concept--inner city. Generally speaking, the inner city of a metropolitan area is characterized by the proximity of business and industry; highly concentrated, dilapidated housing; overcrowded living quarters; high population mobility; and, scarcity of steady employment. The inner city is the center of the city and is characterized by compact centralization of in-migrants which include most predominantly.

High rates of residential mobility are characteristic of these "in-migrants." The rural whites move back and forth from
the city to the rural district in keeping with employment opportunities; Negro families appear to move about frequently within the inner city area. ¹

Overcrowded living quarters frequently result from the tendency of this group to maintain residence within an extended family pattern. This is based partially upon economic need and frequently results from failure of these families to have a steady male figure who contributes to the support of the family.

In large measure these people are newcomers to the city from rural or semi-rural sections of the United States where economic conditions and educational opportunities are severely limited. Therefore, these newcomers are for the most part neither educationally nor vocationally prepared for lucrative employment, and, thus, represent in large numbers, membership in lower socio-economic classes. Generally speaking, these people are members of low income families.

To summarize, the inner city population is distinguished by place and type of residence and characterized by position in the lower socio-economic strata of the larger metropolitan areas. In most inner city populations there are disproportionate numbers of

minority racial groups because of a configuration of social, educational and occupational factors which in the past have limited their assimilation into the middle class. However, it has been found that social class factors have greater influence on individual life styles than do factors of race, ethnicity, and religion. Life styles are one of the two main consequences of stratification and reflect differences in preferences, attitudes and values.

Life styles include such matters as the kind of house and neighborhood one lives in; the recreational pursuits one follows; the cultural products one is able to enjoy; the relationship between parents and children; the kind of books, magazines and T. V. shows to which one is exposed.

Wayland has summarized the findings of scholars in reference to social structure in the United States and finds that (1) in American cities there are a number (5 or 6) of strata that can be distinguished whose basic life styles were found to be different; (2) membership in different classes can be expressed by social


4Ibid.
interaction patterns and community institutions; (3) class membership entails a set of specific attitudes and values; (4) the various classes function in a complimentary fashion to each other within a community and, thus, require the existence of at least a minimum set of values shared by all. \(^5\) Since it has been established that inner city residents are most frequently members of the lower socio-economic classes it would appear that this group would share certain common patterns of social interaction, attitudes and values. However, concepts of "lower" class and "middle" class are not meant to convey the idea of discrete categories, but, rather, a continuous distribution of characteristics reported by means of central tendencies for each group.

Education authorities have addressed themselves to studying the nature of the inner city child under such descriptive terms as culturally disadvantaged, culturally deprived, economically impoverished, economically deprived, and urban or slum children. The prevalence of this group is indicated by Riessman:

In 1950, approximately one child out of every ten in the fourteen largest cities of the United States was "culturally deprived." By 1960 this figure had risen to one in three. This ever increasing trend is due to their rapid migration to urban centers. By 1970, it is estimated there may be one deprived child for every two enrolled in these large cities.6

These figures underscore the urgency of educational problems unique to this segment of society. Educators have made distinct attempts to investigate those areas related to perceptual variabilities, academic learning and educational aspirations of the inner city child. These studies have resulted in a wide variety of approaches to teaching the classroom subjects as well as to total school organization. But what does this mean for the profession of physical education? Rather than infer and/or apply findings of other disciplines to this unique field it may prove beneficial to research meaningful aspects of physical education with respect to the sub-cultural differences in life styles determined significant by investigators.

According to Riessman:

Values and attitudes of the underprivileged child that are relevant for the educator would include beliefs about punishment, authority, games, co-operation, competition, introspection, intellectuals, etc.7

---


7 Ibid., p. 6.
This statement would indicate that research by physical educators could contribute to the rapidly increasing pool of knowledge regarding characteristics of the inner city child. Particularly relevant to this field are knowledges regarding concepts of these children related to competition, co-operation, authority and games.

A commonly accepted objective of physical education is to teach and provide practice in desirable social behavior. Many ideals included under "desirable social behavior" can be grouped together under the concept of "sportsmanship." This concept entails behavioral manifestations of fair play, consideration of others, acceptance of authority, co-operation, self-control in defeat and modesty in victory. According to Oberteuffer and Ulrich:

Good sportsmanship is merely another name for ethical and controlled behavior. 8

Since this profession is committed to developing such attitudes and behavior, it seems pertinent that investigation be directed toward ascertaining any differences which may exist between inner city and outer city children in order to determine the approach best taken to fulfill this objective.

It is suggested that attitude response to sportsmanship situations may be related to sub-cultural groups and reflect lifestyle characteristics expressed by these groups. It is recognized that test scores do not necessarily predict the degree of sportsmanship behavior that will be demonstrated in an actual situation which entails social pressures and emotional involvements. However, reported responses to situational problems may indicate the degree of knowledge possessed by individuals relevant to these problems. Even though knowledge alone does not guarantee results in action, it is suggested that knowledge must accompany attitude formation and precede action.

If a student does not know what is right in a specific situation and has not conceptualized specific instances into principles, we can hardly expect him to respond favorably in a stress situation involving these knowledges and principles. 9

Although expressed attitudes and related behavior are seldom perfectly proportional, the knowledge of an individual's attitude remains the best prediction basis for his behavior--if only a rudimentary indicator. 10 It is generally conceded that attitudes are


learned but when and how they are learned remains controversial. The present investigation is not directed toward resolving the controversy of whether or not it is possible for the school to teach sportsmanship attitudes but merely to investigate the possibility of existing variability in expression of these attitudes by students who reside in significantly different environments, and, thus, reflect sub-cultural differences in these concepts. However, should these groups demonstrate significantly different attitudes which can be correlated with different life styles, then, perhaps, the question may be asked if the physical educators' influence is strong enough to alter that of the child's total cultural environment?

In any condition, if the profession is to claim social behavior objectives for the field of physical education and to profess to teach "sportsmanship" concepts, it seems important to investigate the factors which may influence the formation and manifestation of these concepts. Since sportsmanship is directly related to certain moral values claimed necessary for a measure of success in the mainstream of American life, it seems important that as educators we strive to contribute to learnings in this aspect of education of all groups, regardless of residence or class position.

In addition to sportsmanship attitudes, knowledge of children's play styles--preferences, participation and spectator habits--can provide meaningful information for educators. One of
the foremost recommendations of authorities involved in inner city learning activities is the need for prospective teachers to gain greater insight into the culture of the inner city. This may be accomplished by experience in working with these people but preceding this experience, it may prove beneficial to research cultural variabilities in so far as possible to provide a foundation for this experience. It is generally accepted that play and games comprise a large portion of a child's cultural learning. For this reason, it may be significant to determine the relevance of the school, the family and the peer group in shaping the child's play experiences. Exploration of various patterns of play opportunities and experiences of the inner city child as compared to the outer city child may provide meaningful data to reinforce our programs or serve as guidelines for restructuring these programs.

This research study is directed primarily toward identifying differences between the inner city child and the outer city child because the latter generally represents the middle class strata toward which the educational program is directed. This does not mean to imply that the outer city or middle class child represents the educational ideal but merely serves as a tangible criteria for relative measurement. Since educational programs are most often
established to perpetuate the middle class value system this method of study may serve to illustrate similarities and differences between the sample groups.

**Statement of the Problem**

This study is designed as an exploratory effort to provide descriptive and comparative data related to social attitudes in games and sports participation of inner city and outer city children; and, secondly, to provide descriptive and comparative data related to interests and participation in physical activity of these two groups. The study is undertaken to gain insight into sub-cultural differences in attitudes, preferences and experiences as reflected by residence and location of the school attended. Information of this type could contribute to better understanding the concept of "inner" city when used in reference to designated student populations. In addition, such knowledge could have meaningful implications for planning teaching emphases, curriculum content and recreational facilities for the city as well as contribute to better understanding of children in the inner city by practicing and prospective physical education teachers.

**Hypotheses**

With reference to the general problem of investigation of similarities and differences between inner city and outer city
students four main hypotheses were tested. These hypotheses, stated in the null form are as follows:

1. There is no significant difference between inner city and outer city children on the Sportsmanship Attitude Scale either by group or by sex.

2. There is no significant difference between inner city and outer city children on the Professionalization Scale either by group or by sex.

3. There is no correlation between the Sportsmanship Attitude Scale responses and the Professionalization Scale responses either by group or by sex.

4. There is no noticeable difference between inner city and outer city children by group or by sex in activity preferences, spectator preferences or participation.

In order to accurately determine differences of activity preferences, spectator preferences or participation, the following sub-hypotheses were formulated:

4.A. There is no difference in selections of preferred physical activity between groups of the same sex.

4.A.1. There is no difference in the situation where the activity was learned.

4.A.2. There is no difference in reasons given for the desired experience.
4. B. There is no difference in selecting desired experiences between groups of the same sex.

4. B.1. There is no difference in the means of becoming aware of the activity.

4. B.2. There is no difference in the reasons expressed for the desired activity.

4. C. There is no difference between groups by sex in preferred activity to watch in person nor in reasons given for the preference.

4. D. There is no difference between groups by sex in preferred activity to watch on television nor in reasons given for the preference.

4. E. There is no difference in participation in organized physical activity between groups of the same sex.

4. E.1. There is no difference between groups by sex in groups sponsoring activity.

4. E.2. There is no difference between groups by sex in length of time nor frequency of participation in the activity.

For the first three hypotheses, the .05 level of confidence will be accepted as statistically significant. The sub-hypotheses listed under number four will be compared in terms of percentage tables whenever possible.
**Basic Assumptions**

The following assumptions appear to be inherent to the design of this study:

1. It is assumed the students will respond accurately and honestly to the best of their ability to the requested data.

2. It is assumed that the race of the investigator will not influence the responses of minority groups in the study sample.

3. It is assumed that the Sportsmanship Attitude Scale is a valid and reliable instrument for measuring dimensions of sportsmanship attitudes.

4. It is assumed that the criterion for determining inner city and outer city schools used by the school system provides accurate distinctions of these two groups.

**Limitations**

The following limitations appear relevant to this study:

1. The results of this study are generalizable only to the Akron school system. This is a function of a lack of true randomization in the larger target population. Although there was a random selection of schools within the system, the selection of students within each school was by random class whole rather than by random individuals.
2. There is a lack of strong validation of the Sportsmanship Attitude Scale for inner city-outer city samples but to the knowledge of this investigator, no available scale has been so validated.

3. The use of parametric statistics for Webb's Professionalization Scale is justified on the basis of the large sample size and the fact that no appropriate non-parametric statistical procedures are available. It was recommended that the parametric procedures be used.11

4. The use of open-ended or free choice answers to the questionnaire section limits the statistical procedures which can be utilized for comparisons but it was determined that answers obtained in this manner would be more meaningful for gaining insight into the culture than information obtained by a more structured instrument.

5. It is recognized that a seasonal factor may influence responses on the open-ended questionnaire. However, to this writer's knowledge, there is no way to eliminate this factor.

Definition of Terms

Attitude. "A complex but relatively stable behavioral disposition reflecting both direction and intensity of feeling toward a particular psychological object, whether it be concrete or

11Dr. Peter Anderson, Department of Mathematics, The Ohio State University. Conference, Summer, 1970.
abstract." The derived or designated attitude context is determined by responses which constitute it, i.e., a syndrome of response consistency. An attitude is a package of several beliefs focused on a specific object (concrete or abstract) or situation which predisposes the subject to respond in a specific manner.13

Sportsmanship. An attitudinal response related to sport and game situations as exhibited by all participants including players, coaches and spectators. The concept of sportsmanship remains somewhat nebulous and, at best, calls forth many ideals related to various aspects of behavior during contests. The dimensions investigated in this study include the following: acceptance of authority, respect and consideration of the opponent; adherence to the spirit of the game as well as the letter of the law, fair play, and self-control.

Inner city schools. For the purposes of this study, the inner city schools are those whose populations contain greater than eight percent recipients of Aid to Dependent Children allotments. Although this is a rather limited method of designation, it is the method of


determination used by the school system in which the study was made. However, certain characteristics suggested by authorities as indicating inner city schools are apparent in this distinction as will be described in Chapter III.

**Outer city schools.** For the purposes of this study, these schools are those whose populations include less than eight percent recipients of Aid to Dependent Children allotments. Limitations of this method of designation are noted above and characteristics of these two types of schools, inner city and outer city, are described in Chapter III.

_**Organization of the Remainder of the Study**_

The purpose of the first chapter was to present a brief overview and justification for the study.

Chapter II includes a review of the literature and investigations related to the study and serves as rationale for the investigation. These references are concerned primarily with characteristics of the middle class and the lower class child, value studies of middle class and lower classes, concepts of sportsmanship, sportsmanship studies and, to a lesser extent, studies of physical activities of middle and lower classes.
Chapter III describes the research procedures involved in the study. These include description of the subjects, selection of the instruments used, construction of the activity questionnaire and collection of the data.

Chapter IV is a presentation of the data derived from the investigation. This includes analysis of the data, interpretation of the statistical evidence and presentation of the findings.

Chapter V includes a summary of the entire study. Conclusions derived from the data are presented. Recommendations are made as suggestions for further study.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Although no materials have been found directly related to the problem of the study, certain reported findings appear relevant to the underlying premise of the research. In the interest of developing points of reference for the study, the following subtopics are presented in this chapter:

Comparison of Characteristics of Middle Class and Lower (Working) Class Children

Studies of Values and Attitudes of Middle Class and Lower Class Children

Sportsmanship Literature

Sportsmanship Attitude Studies

Class Related Activity Studies

Comparison of Characteristics of Middle Class and Lower Class Children

Authorities investigating the problem of inner city children have not addressed themselves to the inner city child per se, but, more frequently, to the problem of class differences in children's backgrounds. Therefore, the literature reviewed in this and the
following section relates to differences observed between middle
class children and those of the working or lower classes residing in
the cities.

It is generally conceded that social class awareness manifests
itself at an early age. A study reported by Sochet indicates that most
children are aware of this distinction by age five.¹ Membership in
different social classes apparently manifests itself in various
behavioral characteristics of children.

Because of segregation of social classes, school societies
tend to develop different norms, values, and social structures.² In
the lower class schools a child is more readily influenced by the peer
culture much earlier than middle class children.

The lower class child is left to his own devices early in
life without benefit of succorant care and disciplinary
supervision at home. He enters the neighborhood and
joins a peer group unarmed with anything resembling a
set of behavior principles and aspirations that reflect a
value system he can associate with his parents . . . he
substitutes the values of the peer group and acquires a

¹Mary Ann Sochet, "Social Class Awareness of Lower Class
Children As Revealed in Their Concepts of Adult Preferences, Ideals

²Alan B. Wilson, "Social Stratification and Academic
Achievement," A. Harry Passow, ed., Education in Depressed
Areas (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College,
premature independence that is often rebellious and
defiant rather than self-disciplined and goal-
oriented. ³

Middle class parents supervise students more closely and
set high academic standards for them. A result of this strong
intergenerational control is a more fragmented peer culture and a
greater saliency of adult values as accepted by children. In the
working class/lower class schools, values are more readily
communicated laterally among peers. ⁴ Peer groups of these
children are more tightly knit than those of the middle class families
and children are more strongly influenced by their perception of
values, interests, and actions prevalent among their peers. This
influence contributes to the homogenization of behavior within strata
and differences between strata. ⁵

The heightened influence of the peer group in lower class
families may result, in part, from less communication between
children and adults. In these families, there is a noticeable

³A. J. Tannenbaum, "Social and Psychological Considerations
of the Socially Disadvantaged," The 66th Yearbook of the National
Society of the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: University of

⁴Wilson, op. cit., p. 233.

⁵A. Harry Passow, ed., Education in Depressed Areas
(New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia
University, 1963), p. 183.
deficiency of communication within the family structure. These children may be less equipped to say how they feel as well as less frequently permitted to express their feelings to their parents.⁶

One peer group value of the lower class youth is that of physical prowess.

Physical prowess is an absolute necessity . . . Fighting is an important means to gaining status even among girls.⁷

The appreciation of this group for strength and endurance may stem in part from their way of life that necessitates considerable "ruggedness." In addition, Riessman suggests that this status giving attribute is not easily usurped by other groups.⁸ However, this appreciation for physical ability is not necessarily restricted to lower class cultures at least in socially acceptable channels such as sports, athletics or basic motor abilities. Coleman reports that athletics are as dominant in middle class schools with a high proportion of graduates going to college as in working class schools.⁹

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In a study which compared low achievers of low socio-economic status with average achievers of the middle class on the basis of the Iowa Revision of the Brace Motor Ability Test it was found that low socio-economic males were not significantly different from middle class males with respect to physical condition and motor development. However, females of the lower class were significantly less able than females of the middle class. This same study indicated that low achievers of lower socio-economic class were significantly lower on knowledge of games and sports than respective groups of average achievers. 10

In a similar fashion, the socially disadvantaged child seems to learn and to be oriented in a motoric or physical way. 11 This motoric orientation can be described as physical manipulation or expression in learning or doing. A study by Miller and Swanson indicates this means of expression to be related to the working class subjects. Motoric expression in a game of statues was more natural


11Riessman, op. cit., p. 29.
for lower class subjects than for their middle class counterparts but the ease of expression reversed itself when the subjects encountered a conceptual project. 12

Despite the physical orientation of the disadvantaged child it appears that he is less pressured, and less competitive than his middle-class counterparts. 13 The middle class youngster is a young person under pressure. These young people are pressured to excel, to achieve, to get ahead. Students find it is not enough to excel in their classes but they must be connected with extracurricular activities as well. They may participate in extracurricular activities just to make their record more attractive. 14 Apparently, the disadvantaged youngster is free of the strain accompanying competitiveness and individualism. His family structure emphasizes equalitarianism and cooperation. The parents provide less direction and perhaps less control over their children's activities but this results in less pressure to achieve or succeed in various pursuits. Instead, their culture is marked by cooperativeness and mutual aid common to the extended family.


Postponement of immediate gratification is less acceptable to the lower class youth.\textsuperscript{15} Present or near present activity has a greater value than the relationship of the present activity to the attainment of a distant goal.

The lower class has deeply internalized the success goals of the larger society. They want to get ahead as badly as anyone else. In fact, they want to get ahead so badly that they will use means that are not acceptable to the middle class in order to achieve success.\textsuperscript{16} Perhaps anti-social behavior and delinquency do not stem from poor internalization of goals but from poor internalization of socially acceptable means to these goals.

Lower socio-economic families tend to demonstrate more authoritarianism in the home; societal and parental authority is not supposed to be questioned. However, this control is something that can be circumvented when no one is watching. These children tend to develop ambivalent attitudes toward authority figures and to cope


\textsuperscript{16}Langner, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 203.
with this ambivalence by making an exaggerated pretense of overt, implicit compliance and by maintaining appropriate social distance. 17

Authoritarianism indicates an underlying disrespect for all constituted authority and only a thin shell of superficial conformity hides the violent impulses that sporadically break through. 18

The lower class child has been taught to "play by the rules" as long as someone is watching; the middle class child has been taught to internalize standards of "right" and "wrong" and, then, to stick to the rules even when no one is looking. This internalization of right and wrong, the development of guilt is necessary to maintain or achieve high social status. While lower class parents make more obedience demands, their values emphasize conformity to external controls, whereas middle class parents center attention on self-direction.

To working class parents it is the overt act that matters: the child should not transgress externally imposed rules; to middle class parents, it is the child's motives that matter: the child should govern himself. 19


18 Langner, op. cit., p. 208.

19 Tannenbaum, op. cit., p. 55.
Control of aggression differs between the classes as well.

The lower class child is more inclined to display direct aggression—
but outside the home. This class apparently has no severe standards
against aggression. The lower class discourages expression of
hostility against parents but may encourage or accept hostile expres-
sion or behavior outside the home. Conversely, middle class families
may accept expressions of hostility toward parents and siblings but
not outside the family.\(^\text{20}\) Behavior control is seen to have little
relevance to social success and job maintenance of the lower classes
so there appears little need to teach the child skills of control.\(^\text{21}\)

On the contrary, middle class families stress self-control. They
are more apt to stress standards related to aggression and their
young people are more likely to brood than to act. They tend more
often to internalize blame than turn it outward. The middle class
child is taught early to control physical aggression and to substitute
verbal means of expressing frustration. Again, the lower class
relies more heavily upon motoric styles to solve their problems
than the conceptually oriented middle class youngster.\(^\text{22}\)


\(^{21}\)Miriam Goldberg, "Factors Affecting Educational
Attainment in Depressed Urban Area," A. Harry Passow, ed.,
op. cit., p. 80.

\(^{22}\)Tannenbaum, op. cit., p. 62.
There is evidence to show persistent differences in disciplinary techniques. Lower class parents tend to punish transgressions through direct means by physical reprisal whereas punishment in the middle-class homes is more psychological consisting mainly of love-withdrawal, isolation and reasoning. Those children exposed to corporal punishment tend to express their anger directly; they are more motorically oriented than conceptually oriented, less inclined to be self-critical and often resolve aggressive types of transgressions through the perception of unpleasant consequences originating externally. 23

The evidence presented thus far indicates a difference in behavioral characteristics between middle class and lower/working class children. The characteristics mentioned are those which may conceivably influence sportsmanship attitudes and game participation among members of the two groups.

Studies of Values and Attitudes of Middle Class and Lower Classes

Certain social scientists believe that cultural differences among various segments of the American population are diminishing. They advocate that a process of homogenization has characterized recent decades.

23Ibid., p. 53.
Exposure to common stimuli from the mass media, standardization of education, bureaucratization, high rates of social and geographic mobility, increased prosperity of manual workers and relegation of most middle class workers to employee status have been named, among other influences, as reasons for cultural leveling. 24

Glenn has investigated this massification theory by means of analysis of forty-nine questions from eight Gallup Polls and one National Opinion Center Survey. The findings of this study did not support the massification hypothesis; rather, they suggest that many kinds of attitudes and behavior at the highest and lowest educational levels have diverged. Neither the blurring of class lines nor the continued high level of vertical mobility is inconsistent with increased differentiation along the social continuum in values and characteristic modes of thinking and acting. 25

Larson and Sutka studied the differential degrees of consensus related to rankings of desiderata and occupations by socio-economic status. They found considerable variance among desiderata selected by the upper and lower strata but only the category of businessman was ranked more important by upper class respondents than by the


comparison group. The amount of variation within groups varies directly with socio-economic level. As one goes down the status scale, the amount of consensus within the groups decreases.26

The greater consensus of the higher strata could reflect the effects of social pressures of conformity manifested by this group as compared to the lower strata.

Han discovered a definite discrepancy between adolescents' wishes and expectancies in terms of success. He discovered that their wishes tend to transcend their awareness of limitations while their expectations are definitely affected by their perceptions of social reality. Thus, if an assertion is made in terms of expectations, the view of class differential values is supported, whereas, the position of common values is supported when adolescents' wishes are used.27

Han's study may indicate a need for re-wording attitude studies to reflect the differences between expected or actual behavior in specific situations and the ideal or "right" behavior as perceived


to be desired by the test administrator. It could be suggested that studies directed toward ascertaining behavior tendencies should be worded "how would you react" rather than what is "right" or "wrong."

Coster studied attitudinal responses of students relative to school, teachers, school programs, other students, and the values of education. These responses indicated significant variance by socio-economic status on only eight of twenty-seven items. This homogeneity of response was in marked contrast to variations reported by the three socio-economic groups in regard to personal information. Lower class students tended to participate less frequently in school related activities as well as out-of-school activities but complained no more than high or middle class students about the number of activities offered. It seems that low income students may not want to participate possibly because of variations in social values attached to these activities or they feel they are not welcome to join.28

However, this may reflect Lenk's observation that middle class children are pressured into participating in extracurricular activities as a means of producing a well-rounded "record" whether

they are interested or not.29 The low income child is relatively free from this pressure of conformity to social expectations, and, thus, able to take part in activities only when they truly interest him.

A somewhat different concept of participation in school activities was reported by Gottlieb. He gained information from 1,327 male youth between ages sixteen and eighteen who were in the Job Corp Program. These youth held "middle-class" values regarding job characteristics, interpersonal job demands and ideas related to "getting ahead." These respondents indicated they didn't feel alienated from school activities. More than seventy percent in both racial groups reported that they were interested in school activities and over two-thirds of both groups reported that they did participate in extracurricular activities.30

Perhaps the differences in results of these studies is related to the type of schools which the subjects attended. If the school is attended by a cross section of socio-economic levels, the lower classes may fail to find value in activities which are designed for and attended by middle class students. If they attend lower class or inner

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29Lenk, _op. cit._, p. 24.

city schools, the activities are then planned for their interests and are attended by those like themselves. Thus, the population distribution of the schools attended by the student could be significant in determining his participation in various school activities.

Pearlin and Kolin have concluded there is something intrinsic to social stratification that yields similar results in two countries in regard to parental values. A cross national study of the United States and Italy revealed that middle-class parents of both countries put greater emphasis on the child's self-direction and working class parents on a child's conformity to external proscription. 31

Kolin reports similar findings in a study of parental values among respondents of the United States. 32

Rosen analyzed responses of ethnic groups in regard to achievement motivation and independence training. He concluded that various groups place differing emphasis upon achievement and independence training in rearing children. He also concludes


that ethnicity and social class interact in influencing motivation, values and aspiration; neither alone can predict an individual score. 33

These last three studies indicate that parental influence tends to perpetuate social class differences in values and attitudes. They also indicate there are definite differences in attitudes and values between social classes as reported by adult members of these classes.

Recent studies of the contemporary suburban dweller suggest that this group values rewards of organizational life ahead of advantages to be gained through individual efforts. Further, this group is depicted as placing value of the social ethic above satisfactions to be achieved from private or individual pursuits. 34

Noll and Kelly attempted to investigate the degree of influence of the community-parent syndrome upon developing an organizational-value orientation of suburban children. Their findings indicated no identifiable pattern of attitudinal responses


reflecting an organizational-value orientation. The sample showed marked tendency toward internally selected goals and attitudes. 35

A study of environmental groups of sixth graders from urban, suburban and rural locations revealed responses to be more alike than different in regard to questions about themselves, their families, their schools, and neighborhoods. The most important thing to the majority of the children was people. The importance of people was mentioned less frequently by boys than girls and less often by lower socio-economic groups than higher groups. 36 The results of the study led the authors to comment:

Not only are dominant "American values" recognized, however implicitly, so far as verbalization is concerned by virtually all adult Americans but sixth grade children have already internalized dominant values of their culture--or so their verbalizations would indicate. 37

In contrast to Rosen's findings which indicate significant differences between ethnic groups in achievement motivation and independence training, Shuster found little difference in values reported by Negro and Caucasian children of upper socio-economic status. By means of the Rowland Elementary School Study of Values,


37Ibid., p. 439.
she found no significant difference between means of the females and only one significant difference between males. She concludes that a large area of homogeneity appears to transcend race.\textsuperscript{38}

These last studies would indicate that little difference exists between environmental groups of youngsters in regard to reported values and attitudes. Although adult or parental respondents may indicate specific value variances it appears to be much less marked in responses of children.

This conclusion is further substantiated by the study of Dziuban and Elliott who administered the "What I Like to Do Inventory" to educationally disadvantaged children to see if they responded similarly to the published norms on the eight scales. These investigators found all sixteen means of the disadvantaged to be higher than the published norms and stated:\textsuperscript{39}

\ldots it is concluded that while there is a difference in the level of response on each scale there is no significant discrepancy in the interaction of interests of disadvantaged pupils and those of the norm group.\textsuperscript{40}


\textsuperscript{40}Ibid., p. 163.
In a somewhat different approach, Neale and Proshek studied school related attitudes by means of a semantic differential instrument. This study indicates that culturally deprived students are not negative about school or school related activities. However, there appears to be a trend toward negative evaluations of school, self and school related activities related to increasing grade level. This trend appears independent of school or sex and seems to be a function of increasing age. The tendency toward negative evaluation suggests an important perspective to be considered when interpreting attitude data from different age groups. The authors suggest that sex role differences with respect to education may not be as important in culturally disadvantage as in middle class schools. 41

This sex role equality of the disadvantaged may be related to family structure. Riessman observes that deprived groups are characterized by non-equalitarian relations between male and female because the culture is primarily patriarchal. However, in the portion of the Negro sub-culture which is matriarchal, the male-female relationships are more equalitarian. 42 The patriarchal


42Riessman, op. cit., p. 28.
pattern which apparently prevails in intact family groups gives way in many disadvantaged homes where the male figure is absent, and, thus, encourages the emergence of an attitude which enhances female "preparedness" or "readiness" to assume a dominant role in society. The absence of a strong male family figure is apparently equally as prevalent among these white families as among Negro families.43

Rowland and Del Campo reported a study in which they used Rowland's Value Study to compare values of deprived children with those not so classified. The subjects were students in grades four, five and six. They also report no significant difference between females and only one difference among males in the study. It is reported that the differences among each group far exceed the differences between them and there exists a large area of shared values.44

Studies of attitudes and values of lower classes and middle classes do not present a clearly definitive trend upon which to base conclusions. The variety of instruments, age levels and statistical procedures used by investigators prohibit general statements regarding


this area of study. In addition, there is a wide variety of criteria used to determine sample groups. To date, there has not been a study of such comprehensive breadth nor an adequate series of replications to justify specific statements of fact.

However, on the basis of the studies reported here, it may be possible to observe a differentiation of values by socio-economic level as reported by adults and parents but student responses appear to be non-differentiated in this area. This difference may suggest that value and attitude orientation is the result of learning, either from direct teaching or from non-direct methods of interaction with the environment. However, none of the studies cited herein suggest when nor how this differentiation takes place.

**Sportsmanship Concepts**

Competition in physical education activities should always reflect the highest standards of sportsmanship.45

What is meant by the term "sportsmanship"? Although many writers use the term often, not many define the term specifically. It is often easier to relate dimensions of the concept as they correlate with the author's major premise than offer fundamental or basic understanding of the term. According to Keating:

Sportsmanship is not merely an aggregate of moral qualities comprising a code of behavior; it is also an attitude, a posture, a manner of interpreting what would otherwise be only a legal code.\(^4^6\)

He advocates a distinction between sport and athletics with respect to the ultimate end of each. In sport, the direct and immediate end is fun, pleasure, and delight; in athletics, an essentially competitive activity, the end is victory in the contest.\(^4^7\)

He bases his determination of sportsmanship upon this distinction between the two types of activity. This results in a somewhat differential concept relative to the activity undertaken:

2. The goal of genuine sport must be the principle determinant of the conduct and attitudes proper to sporting activity. Since its goal is pleasant diversion--the immediate joy to be derived in the activity itself--the pivotal or essential virtue in sportsmanship is generosity. As a result of this spirit, a determined effort is made to avoid all unpleasantness and conflict and to cultivate in their stead, an unselfish and cooperative effort to maximize the joy of the moment.

3. . . . Honorable victory is the goal of the athlete, and as a result, the code of the athlete demands that nothing be done before, during or after the


\(^{4^7}\) Ibd., p. 28.
contest to cheapen or otherwise detract from such a victory. Fairness or fair play, the pivotal value in athletics, emphasizes the need for an impartial and equal application of the rules if victory is to signify, as it should, athletic excellence.48

Participation in competitive activity is most frequently the concern of individuals interested in sportsmanship behavior because it is in these circumstances that manifestations of sportsmanship attitudes are so readily apparent. For this reason, the concept of fair play is paramount to most descriptions of sportsmanship behavior.

... the concept of sportsmanship--an ability to abide by the rules of the game ("play fairly") so that the outcome can be determined and to accept defeat or victory in a manner which maintains a sense of perspective and considers the feelings of others.49

The dimension of fair play is an important constituent of sportsmanship but this relates primarily to those individuals who participate in the activity. A more comprehensive description can be applied to participants, spectators and others affiliated with the activity. Oberteuffer and Ulrich suggest the following:

48Ibid., pp. 34-35.

Good sportsmanship is merely another name for ethical and controlled behavior. A good sportsman has learned to control emotions and to respond in a courteous, civilized manner not in a barbarous or brutish fashion.  

This description can be applicable to many segments of the population and to individuals in a variety of roles. Kenyon advises that socialization for diffuse roles such as "democratic citizen" is not as easily achieved as socialization for specific roles such as participant or spectator. However, if Keating's idea that sportsmanship is an attitude or posture is accepted, specific socialization for each of these roles is not necessary. But, rather, attention can be focused upon developing a general attitude which includes principles applicable to each situation.

The phrase "ethical or controlled behavior" may raise a question of judgement. Perhaps individuals from different American sub-cultures interpret these terms differently from middle-class America. The ethics or acceptable patterns of behavior of a sub-culture may vary from those of the dominant culture. It has been indicated that various sub-cultural groups hold

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different ideas of behavior which are deemed appropriate for specific occasions. These varying styles are passed from generation to generation by interaction with "significant others" and primary group associations.

With age comes greater awareness of social expectancies and pressures and a desire to conform to the value systems of culture or sub-culture. 52

Thus, the question is raised regarding the possibility of teaching sportsmanship attitudes. Are sportsmanship behaviors specific enough to be taught by the physical educator or are these attitudes acquired outside the gymnasium through interaction with the environment?

Several writers believe sportsmanship attitudes can be taught or at least influenced by the physical educator. Cowell and Hazelton, Obertueffer and Ulrich and Porter believe this learning takes place through participation or experience in physical activities. 53 When advocating experience as means of teaching these attitudes, it is assumed that adequate direction is provided by those in charge to assure the practice of the desired behavior. As Keating indicates,


"there is nothing in the nature of any game or physical activity, considered alone, that assures adherence to a moral code."\textsuperscript{54} The simple procedures of "taking turns" and obeying the rules can be followed mechanically and accepted by students as form and style unless they are explained in terms of values and attitudes and imbued with meaning.

Johnson suggests use of filmstrips and discussion groups as a means for teaching social values in sport. This method utilizes the filmstrip to provoke discussion. The filmstrip is accompanied by a set of questions for each stimulus frame. In this way, the teacher can switch responsibility for social conduct to the group and develop an attitude of intrinsic social regulation. His basic idea is to develop an awareness in the student that though he wants to win he needs social regulation and by understanding this need for social regulation in games, positive transfer to society will be enhanced.\textsuperscript{55}

Salario recognizes the values to be achieved through the role of spectator. He regards this as an opportunity to interact with agemates and respond to situations which demand courtesy.

\textsuperscript{54}Keating, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 33.

consideration, friendship and integrity. In order to achieve desirable behavior he advocates that students actively participate in creation and enforcement of regulations relative to athletics. In this way, they actually experience democratic behavior which provides a clear picture of the relationship between citizen and government. By allowing children to formulate the framework of their regulations, they achieve greater understanding of these rules and have opportunity to discuss and consider the ramifications of their actions. 56

Many authorities recognize the value of adequate adult figures to serve as models for children to emulate. The behavior of all adults related to the contest is significant to perpetuating ideal attitudes. Parham mentions the importance of the coach, the administrators, teachers and spectators and suggests that they often help create the environment they criticize by their own lack of control and demonstrated fair play. 57 Harrison recognizes the


contributions of these adults plus those of the officials rules makers and sports writer. 58 Particularly important is the behavior of adults directly associated with sports activity.

We constantly deal in values. Our influence, good or bad depends upon the nature of our relations with students, colleagues, and the public, the manner in which we teach, the actions we approve or dissapprove. 59

Perhaps the most significant individual in the development of sportsmanship attitudes of children is the coach. It is he who interacts most closely with the participants, and, thus, exerts greatest influence upon them. It is also he to whom the general school population looks for an example in expressing their emotions.

It is not enough that the coach exhibit admirable control in the face of adverse decisions but equally important is his control of his players. The coach is seriously remiss in his duty as educator if he accepts emotional indulgence of his players. This attitude of sportsmanship which must be basic to athletics can be taught directly, or, indirectly by the coach's behavior and the attitudes he expresses. On occasion, it may be necessary for a coach to confront the problem


directly by verbal instruction and demonstration of appropriate patterns of action, but, other times, the coach's behavior may serve as adequate instruction for expected student behavior.

The summarized thoughts cited above indicate that it is generally believed by many physical educators that physical education experiences contribute to the development of desirable social behavior. This assumption raises the question as to whether all segments of the population are equally susceptible to the school's influence on social attitude formation. Do life styles and environmental influences contribute significantly to a child's concept of appropriate sportsmanship attitudes or are the basic tenets of good sportsmanship a function of the dominant culture and thereby equally distributed among members of the sub-cultures? Kenyon addresses himself to this question in a discussion of socialization:

. . . if the teacher attempts to inculcate values that differ from those held by individuals and groups visible to the pupil, his influence as a socializing agent may be negligible when we consider both the small amount of time most school children are involved in a physical education program and the number and potency of competing role models. 60

Other authorities question the influence of the total school environment on development of children's social values. Perhaps there is a tendency to exaggerate the nature and scope of the influence that schools can yield.

60 Kenyon, 1968, op. cit., p. 32.
Evidence both of a sociological and psychological character now exists, in fact, which strongly suggests that schools play only a minor role in the development of basic social attitudes among children and that the teacher is almost powerless in this area unless his work is visibly substantiated and backed up by the society in which he operates.61

To date, there has been little research directed toward understanding the process and influences affecting the development of sportsmanship attitudes. To this writer's knowledge, no investigator has attempted to explore the universality of acknowledged dimensions of sportsmanship particularly in terms of socio-economic or different environmental segments of the population. It would seem valuable to basic understanding of the entire concept of sportsmanship to learn if these attitudes are generally accepted by the entire population, or, if they are specific to various segments of the population.

Sportsmanship Studies

The development of social efficiency is one of the four commonly stated values of physical education but a survey of research reveals few attempts in recent years to investigate this dimension of professional practice. Failure to direct research in this area may be attributed to reasons such as (1) lack of agreement

among professional personnel in regard to ethical practices in sports
and physical activity; (2) lack of reliable, validated instruments
available to gain information in this area; (3) difficulty encountered
in controlling variables and designing studies in an area as complex
as human social behavior.

Recognition of the lack of consensus among professional
personnel regarding sportsmanship or professional ethics prompted
a research project by the Committee of Professional Ethics of the
American Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation.
The purpose of the study as reported by Brace is to collect and analyze
incidents which involve ethically critical actions and for which
principles of professional ethics should be established. Of the
incidents collected at the time of the report, nearly forty percent
involved situations associated with officiating and most of these
involved action by the coaches. These critical incidents were noted
and numbered as they were classified and suggested statements of
approved ethical action followed each classification. Brace noted
that statements of standards were being constructed which relate
to the types of action described in the incidents. 62

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62D. K. Brace, "Ethical Standards for Personnel Connected
with Intercollegiate Athletics," 61st Annual Proceedings, College
Physical Education Association, 1958, pp. 132-141.
This undertaking by the Professional Ethics Committee illustrates the lack of universality in interpreting sportsmanship or ethical behavior.

In an attempt to gain insight into sportsmanship attitudes held by young adults at Louisiana State University, Kistler prepared statements of ten specific situations. He asked if the participants' behavior was approved or disapproved and the reasons why. He secured responses from men and women enrolled in physical education classes at the University and male adults from Baton Rouge.

He found that most respondents thought it was "smart" to take advantage of a sports situation and placed responsibility for calling fouls or violations on the official. Little evidence was found to uphold the idea of playing within the "spirit" of the game. One third of the men approved of actual deception to gain advantage and the same percent approved of action which will prevent an opponent from performing at his best if it can be achieved within the "letter" of the law. The majority of respondents approved of tactics designed to "upset" an opponent and throw him off his game. Seventy-five percent of the women didn't think a player should refrain from taking advantage of an opponent who suffered a mishap. They reported these experiences were part of the game.
Kistler also reported that men who have had "varsity" experience have a poorer attitude about sportsmanship than those who have not participated.63 These findings led Kistler to recommend a positive and planned approach to sportsmanship education in which:

1. Stress is placed upon consideration of the "spirit" of the rules as well as the letter.
2. More effort made to offset the attitude that "it is smart" if you can get away with it.
3. Stress is placed upon the idea of sharing with the officials the responsibility for seeing that contests are played according to the spirit of the rules.
4. Stressing the idea that the game, the contest, the thrill, inherent in playing an opponent when he is at his best is the thing that counts most in sports.64

Haskins developed a Problem-Solving Test of Sportsmanship consisting of two forms of twenty items each. The items consist of a statement of a situation and multiple choice answers. She found that controlling friendship in sportsmanship ratings and intelligence in test scores lowered validities of raw scores. This finding led to the observation that the person's reputation as a good or bad sport could influence the esteem in which he is held.65

64Ibid., p. 58.
This writer suggests that the reverse of this assumption could also be true. Perhaps, friendship tends to lessen discretion in analyzing sportsmanship behavior. In any case, it may be wise to remember this observation since many of these attitude tests are validated by means of peer ratings.

The following observation was made regarding the effect of intelligence:

Intelligence plays a part not only in the understanding and command of the written word but also in the ability to build concepts and generalizations which in turn become bases for reasoning and choice of action in situations involving sportsmanship and ethics.66

Richardson utilized Haskin's test in ascertaining sportsmanship attitudes of senior male physical education majors (233) from fifteen institutions. He found the men's mean score to be significantly lower than the women's reported by Haskins (Men - 10.81; O.S.U. women - 14.41). His data parallel Kistler's findings in that most respondents believed it was the responsibility of the official to call rule infractions rather than for the individual to call them upon himself. His respondents overwhelmingly approved of taking advantage of a sports situation if they could get by with it. Most respondents agree that the coach and spectators have sportsmanship responsibilities. The grouping of athletes also produced findings

66Ibid., p. 31.
similar to those of Kistler. The non-letter winners scored higher than letter winners; the students receiving no athletic grants scored much higher than respondents receiving athletic grants. There was an inverse relationship between the amount of athletic grant and attitude scores. He also noted that students from state universities ranked lower than did those from private and religious institutions. 67

Petersen and Kroll's Test of Values among various football teams tends to support the findings of the preceding studies. In this investigation they found the social factor to be the common difference demonstrated in the discriminant analysis. This variable is associated with love of people, kindness, sympathy, and unselfishness. They suggest these values could well represent the outcomes of a sportsmanlike attitude toward life. The authors reported winning teams scored lower than losing teams; and universities, state colleges and private schools went from low to high scores respectively on this variable. 68

Lakie developed a scale for the purpose of revealing to what degree a respondent subscribed to the "win-at-any-cost" philosophy


of athletics. The Ca Scale was administered to 228 varsity athletes who were categorized by the type of school attended (state university, state college, private university) and by the sport in which they participated. He reported that no significant difference could be found among attitudes expressed by athletes categorized by the sports in which they participated. He also found that athletes grouped by schools attended cannot be differentiated by expressed attitudes. Lakie suggested that variability within groups may be due in part to the fact that each sport group is comprised of athletes from three different schools who are participating under different leadership and environmental conditions. He observed that if the sports groups within each school were analyzed separately, a significant difference between groups might well occur.69

This observation implies that leadership and environmental conditions tend to influence manifestations of sportsmanship attitudes—an implication readily made by physical educators over the years. However, research has produced little confirming evidence.

The results of studies by Kistler, Richardson and Kroll and Petersen suggest that professional personnel question their practices and procedures in light of the claimed objectives of social behavior

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and good sportsmanship. If increased participation in sports and competitive physical activities tends to result in less desirable attitudes then this professional objective is seriously open to question. This is not to deny the potential favorable impact of athletic participation on an individual's value system. It is to suggest that sportsmanship qualities may be subordinated in favor of other objectives or unsportsmanlike behavior may actually be condoned in certain instances. As Singer suggests:

Perhaps there are inconsistencies within our society's value standards and their application to practical competitive situations. 70

There are indications that sportsmanship attitudes undergo change during the maturing years. There may be a change from idealistic to more materialistic or practical concepts with increasing age. McAfee reported a study of these attitudes by means of a test using twenty situations commonly encountered in junior high physical education classes. The subjects responded by selecting the appropriate multiple choice answer. He found a significant difference between attitudes reported by sixth, seventh, and eighth grade boys. This indicates an inverse relationship between age and favorable attitudes. 71

70Singer, op. cit., p. 317.
71Robert A. McAfee, "Sportsmanship Attitudes of Sixth, Seventh and Eighth Grade Boys," Research Quarterly, Vol. 26, No. 1 (March, 1955), p. 120.
However, this negative evaluation may be a non-specific phenomena as mentioned by Neale and Proshek. They indicated a systematic negative trend in school and self related attitudes with increasing age. This trend was not related to school nor sex. They suggested that this trend should be considered when analyzing data from different age groups. 72

Another indication of attitude change toward play associated with increasing maturity is reported by Webb. In this study children from grades three, six, eight, ten and twelve were asked to rank elements most important in playing a game. The choices were fairness, skill or victory. Both sexes, as they grew older tended to give diminishing importance to fairness and increasing stature to skill. The first component losing its primacy in the eighth grade to the second, the second attaining that eminence clearly at the expense of the component "fairness." Webb attributed the change in relative importance by age to children's contact with universalistic criteria noting that skill is a major element in the universalistic approach. He indicated that the child's experience with this approach in the more formalized school situation is related to the change in attitude

72Neale and Proshek, op. cit., p. 243.
regarding play. With respect to these trends, he views a child's experience in the play sphere as preparation for participation in the wider socio-economic structure of our society.  

Investigators have attempted to influence sportsmanship attitude formation by several short term measures. Massengale reported a study involving seventh and ninth grade boys. In each of these two classes, boys were randomly assigned to an experimental and control group. The experimental group received six short sportsmanship instructional periods at the beginning of physical education classes on six consecutive school days. The control group spent the same period in health instruction. At the end of the six day period both groups took the McAfee Sportsmanship Preference Record and filled out a peer group rating sheet. After six weeks, the subjects again filled out the peer group rating sheet. Massengale reported no significant differences between the groups either immediately after nor six weeks after the procedure. He concluded that sixty minutes of formal sportsmanship instruction did not significantly affect the knowledge, attitudes nor observable behavior of the subjects.  

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Bovyer employed another method in an attempt to influence attitude change. He used 213 children in grades four, five and six of two elementary schools. At the beginning and the end of the experiment all children were asked to write freely as much as they could about the meaning of sportsmanship. The number of different relevant ideas written by the children was the criteria for determining their knowledge of the concept. Twelve short stories involving sportsmanship ideas were read to the experimental group but no discussion was allowed. He found no significant difference between the number of ideas of the experimental and control groups at the beginning nor the end of the study.75

These last two studies illustrate attempts at sportsmanship education. However, as the results indicate, the development of these attitudes apparently takes place over long periods of time and alteration of these attitudes does not respond to concentrated short term instruction. This could further indicate that these attitudes may be directly related to a child's experimental environment and influenced by his interaction with others by means of personal involvement in actual experiences. It seems to this writer that the influence of the teacher or coach could only be apparent over a

relatively long period of time during which the instruction and
direction in sportsmanship behavior is conducted within the context
of actual experiences and personal involvement.

To date, most studies of sportsmanship have been directed
toward ascertaining the relationship between participation or
maturation and the assessed attitudes in addition to investigating
the influence of several short term methods of sportsmanship
education.

Activity Studies by Socio-Economic Classes

It is not the purpose of this section to review leisure studies
by socio-economic status since most of these studies were done on
adult respondents and categorized by general groupings which
obliterated specific physical activity classifications. Instead, only
those studies which describe activity patterns or specific physical
activities will be cited.

An example of the leisure studies which involve adult males
was reported by Clarke. He found systematic differences between
frequency of participation in certain types of leisure activity and
levels of occupational prestige. One important finding he reports
is that the majority of respondents at each level devoted most of
their leisure time to non-spectator activities. This is reported
as a non-linear relationship with the largest number of respondents
that spend leisure in spectator types of activity occurring at the
middle status. 76

White substantiates the results of Clarke and notes a clear
tendency toward divergence in the use of leisure among classes for
adult males and considerable evidence of such among females. The
use of parks and playgrounds by class rises sharply from upper
middle class down through other classes by both male and female.
He notes that lower class children have more leisure time than
middle class children and the former spends almost twice as many
hours engaged in activities such as radio, movies, T.V. and sports.
However, he found that the percentage of persons who engage in a
particular type of leisure activity varied widely among social classes
when comparing young people or students. He found an increasing
divergence by social class with increasing age. 77

Class differences are reflected by young people but are
not fixed until maturity. . . . As people get older and
settle into the ways of the class to which they belong,
they choose leisure activities that are congenial to
their class. 78

76 Alfred C. Clarke, "Leisure and Occupational Prestige,"
Eric Larrabee and Rolf Meyersohn, eds., Mass Leisure (Glencoe:

77 Clyde R. White, "Social Class Differences in the Uses of

78 ibid., p. 204.
Stone reports a study of adults designed to explore social relationships that are mobilized by sport and sport activities. In response to the question "what do you think of when you hear the word, sport?", the higher the status, the larger number of activities mentioned although there was no great difference between middle and lower classes. Spectator sports were most frequently mentioned in this context. When asked "what is your favorite sport?", answers were equally divided between spectator and participant activities. He found socio-economic differences in designation of a favorite sport: golf and tennis—upper classes; football, basketball and swimming—middle classes; and, boxing and bowling—lower classes. 79

These findings illustrate the commonly accepted concept that leisure activities are specific to social class when applied to adults of these classes. The literature related to children's activities is not so widely documented.

Various measures have been used to obtain information regarding children's preferences in leisure activity. Smalley reported a study which compared three of these commonly used

measures of ascertaining this information. He found seven of the
twelve correlations to be "significant" but none was at or above .5.
However, on all three instruments, physical activity scored high
while intellectual pastimes recorded the lowest scores. One of the
reasons for low and negative correlations Smally mentioned was the
possible difference in what the tests actually measured. 80

For this reason, data relating to activity interests of children
must be compared cautiously since different instruments can
conceivably measure different dimensions.

Studies of minority groups are described in the literature but
without comparisons to other groups of similar socio-economic
status. Kraus describes a study of Negro participation in recreational
activity and gives a table of Rank order of Involvement. However, he
fails to provide data for comparison by socio-economic levels. 81
Therefore, it is difficult to determine if these sports rankings are
ethnic related or class related.

80L. M. Smalley, "A Comparative Study of Three Methods
of Investigating the Interests and Out-of-School Activities of Children
of Secondary School Age," British Journal of Educational Psychology,
Vol. 32, Part I (February, 1962), pp. 84-86.

81Richard Kraus, "Race and Sports: The Challenge to Public
Recreation," Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation,
In the communities studied, recreation directors reported that Negroes tended to participate both in activities and age groupings that varied widely from those of white residents. In part, this was obviously a matter of differences in social class but other factors seemed to be involved as well.  

Kraus does refer to class affiliation in commenting upon participation attitudes of lower class in comparison with middle and upper class youth but he fails to give substantiating evidence for this comment:

Similarly, there is much evidence to suggest that lower class youth--and particularly gang affiliated youth--have a markedly different set of values with respect to athletic participation from that of middle or upper class youth. They may be less disciplined, less well-organized; they tend to emphasize individual performance rather than subordination of self to a team and seek immediate gratification rather than the achievement of long term goals. When adolescent gangs play, they are so committed to victory that the rules of the game are bypassed.  

Another study of leisure activities of children ten to twelve years of age by socio-economic status discerned differences between the four classes. Middle class children took part primarily in Scouts and Y.M.C.A. activity while lower class children were active in centers for "underprivileged" children. The higher the social stratum, the more family activity was reported. Also, the number

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82Ibid., p. 33.

83Ibid., p. 34.
of persons who read books and listened to the radio increased with social class; the lower strata children attended more movies than the upper strata. Again, no differentiation was made in regard to physical activity.

Perhaps the most significant recent study of youngsters play preferences was made by Jung. The purpose of this study was to determine if leisure activities are related more closely to socio-economic status than to ethnic group membership. He used fifth and sixth grade children from three ethnic groups: Caucasian, Negro and Chinese-American. Each group was divided into middle and lower class categories. Next to T.V. viewing, outdoor play was the most popular out-of-school activity. Negro students reported the most activity; Oriental children the least. Rollerskating and bicycle riding participation rates of Negro children were much higher than for children of the other groups. The most popular ball games among boys were football, basketball and baseball. Participation of the Oriental children was lowest in each of these sports. Girls participated in ball games much less than boys and preferred tetherball to the more organized team games.

Seasonal sports showed no noticeable differences between ethnic or socio-economic groups. The favorite fall sports were football for boys and skating and kickball for girls. In winter, boys preferred basketball and girls favored basketball, kickball and general outdoor play. Swimming was the favorite summer sport for both sexes. Oriental parents played less with children than did Caucasian or Negro parents.

In most comparisons, differences between socio-economic groups or ethnic groups were not significant. Where differences did exist, more differences were along ethnic lines than class distinctions. The ethnic differences most often entailed comparisons of the Oriental group with the other two groups. Reasons advanced for this variance was the existence of an Oriental language school which most of the Oriental students attended after the regular school day. This attendance could limit the students' leisure time pursuits.85

This brief survey of studies related to extracurricular activities of individuals indicates that little attempt has been made to investigate specificity of interest in physical activities. In spite of evidence indicating social class differences in leisure pursuits of

adult members, it would appear that the preferences of children
may not be widely differentiated. However, it is suggested by this
writer that research efforts be directed toward this area of inquiry
in order to produce additional information related to this question.
This type of inquiry may produce better understanding of sub-cultural
similarities and differences of children's play styles, and, thus,
better understanding of these children themselves.
CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of residence and/or school location and sex upon sportsmanship attitudes, play styles and activity preferences of ninth grade students. In order to achieve this purpose the following procedures were undertaken.

Subjects

All subjects were residents of Akron, Ohio, an industrial city in Northeastern Ohio with a population of approximately 277,000. It was decided to utilize schools of one system rather than select suburban schools for the outer city sample in order to minimize differential influences of school philosophy, scheduling and extra-curricular opportunities.

The Board of Education of this city determines inner or outer city classification of a school on the basis of the percentage of students receiving Aid to Dependent Children allotments. If the percentage of students on A.D.C. within a school exceeds the city average, that school is classified as inner city; if the percentage of
said students is less than the city average, the school is classified as outer city. At the time the study was made, the city average was eight percent and this resulted in five city junior high schools classified as inner city and, five, as outer city.

The classification basis of the Board of Education was accepted and two schools from the inner city group and two from the outer city group were randomly selected. This method of determination is apparently an accurate method because the schools so selected demonstrated characteristic differences indicated by authorities and mentioned in Chapter I. The representative inner city schools, one and two, have a student mobility rate of 29.6% and 21.4% as compared to the selected outer city schools, three and four, of 10.1% and 7.6%, respectively. The percent of A.D.C. recipients in schools one and two is 34.9% and 24.2% as compared to schools three and four, .9% and .02%. The non-white population of the inner city sample schools is 74% and 77% respectively, as compared to the outer city samples of .14% and .57%. In addition, the median family income as indicated by the 1960 Census is as follows for each school: one--$5,311; two--$5,324; three--$7,097; and, four--$11,618. The income factor may be somewhat altered at the current time since this income data was calculated from the 1960 Census Report, and various forms of urban renewal and such projects may have changed this ratio somewhat. However, the other data reported
herein was obtained from current records of the Board of Education. These data would indicate that the classification method utilized by the Board of Education is a sound procedure since measurable dimensions of the described differences between inner and outer city schools are reflected by this process. A summary of these characteristic differences is presented in Table 1.

**TABLE 1**

CHARACTERISTICS OF SAMPLE SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>% on ADC</th>
<th>% non-white</th>
<th>Student Mobility</th>
<th>Median Family Income</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i n c</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1035</td>
<td>34.9%</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>29.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n i e t r y</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1142</td>
<td>24.2%</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o u t c i e t r y</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1390</td>
<td>.9%</td>
<td>.14%</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e t r y</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1222</td>
<td>.02%</td>
<td>.6%</td>
<td>7.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to these characteristic differences mentioned above, both inner city schools are located toward the center of the metropolitan area in heavily populated areas whereas the outer city schools are located in the periphery of the city. This location factor results in different facilities available at the two schools. Both of the outer city schools used in the study are relatively new buildings
built within the last ten years. Each of these buildings has one
gymnasium which is divided to provide space for girls and boys
physical education activities. Both of the outer city schools have
adequate outdoor space for activity. In contrast, both the inner city
schools are older buildings which had been previously used as senior
high schools. These schools each have two gymnasiums, one for
girls and one for boys, but, neither one has adequate outdoor play
space. This factor of limited outdoor space appears to be character-
istic of many inner city schools.

In this school system junior high students are scheduled for
physical education classes two times per week for the three year
period. Class periods vary from thirty-eight minutes to forty-eight
minutes among the schools in the study. Extracurricular sports
participation for boys at this grade level is provided by the school
system in four activities: soccer, wrestling, basketball, and track.
The only interscholastic participation provided for girls is one
all-city track meet held in the spring of each year. There is no city
wide course of study for the junior high physical education program
so each school is more or less independent in terms of curriculum
development.

After the representative schools were randomly selected,
this investigator contacted each principal. At this time, the study
was explained and ninth grade physical education classes from each
school were randomly selected to participate. It was possible to randomly select physical education class groups at each school except one. In this one situation, School 1, academic classes were organized on a track system and although physical education classes were not intended to be a part of the track schedule, there was a tendency for this to occur. At this location, it was suggested that the investigator utilize three language arts classes, each at a different academic level in order to provide greater opportunity for random sampling of the student body. This suggestion was accepted.

In summary, subjects for this study were randomly selected by school, and, then, randomly selected by class within each school. The selection of students by class whole was a much more expeditious method of sampling than randomly selected individuals and for this reason met with approval of the school administration.

**Instruments**

**Sportsmanship Attitude Scale**

This scale was developed by Marion Lee Johnson at the University of Texas in 1966. The method of scale construction was the Scale Discrimination Technique. This method includes treating a pool of items successively by equal appearing intervals, summated ratings and scale analysis methods. The initial pool of items included 152 ethically critical incidents related to behavior in the
context of football, baseball and basketball situations. These incidents were judged by fifty independent judges who placed the items along an eleven category continuum. Determination of Scale and Q values and an item analysis evaluation resulted in forty-two items which were subsequently separated into two scale forms.

Reliability was determined by calculating a correlation coefficient between responses to the two forms for a single test administration. This reliability coefficient was .856.¹

A coefficient of reproducibility of .812 was derived for Form A, which was the form used in the current study.² This coefficient represents the degree to which a set of items is a unidimensional scale.

Intrinsic validity of the test forms was based upon assumptions involving test construction procedures of equal appearing interval judging and item analysis.³

External validity was determined by computing correlation coefficients for test results and behavior ratings by students and instructors. These correlation coefficients ranged up to .424 for

¹Marion Lee Johnson, op. cit., p. 80.
²Ibid., p. 83.
³Ibid., p. 79.
various groups tested. These validity coefficients are low but basically consistent with those reported in recent literature. These coefficients indicate that actual behavior cannot be effectively predicted on the basis of test scores alone.

The attitude scale represents an attempt to construct a sportsmanship attitude scale by utilizing the best available construction procedure that is harmonious with the purpose of the scale.

To this investigator's knowledge, this scale has not been utilized in any additional study beyond the construction procedure. This scale was selected for the current study because it was developed for use at the junior high grades with both girls and boys. The incidents were developed in the context of baseball, football, and basketball situations which are the sports of greatest familiarity to both groups of the study. In addition, the schools Dr. Johnson used in developing the scales were in an industrial city with a good range of socio-economic structuring. The schools were racially integrated with a ratio of approximately 20/80 black to white. These factors formed the basis for selection of this scale for the current study.

The scale used in this study can be found in Appendix A.

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4Ibid., p. 84.

5Dr. Marion Lee Johnson, Personal Correspondence, November 9, 1970.
The Professionalization of Play Scale

This instrument was developed by Harry Webb at Michigan State University for the purpose of sampling attitudes of children toward the physical education program in effect at Battle Creek, Michigan. The scale is a three item "play scale" which attempts a ranking of items "important" to play activity and, then, a scale constructed from the permutations of ranks measuring the degree of "professionalization."

By "professionalization" of course is meant the substitution of "skill" for "fairness" as the paramount factor in play activity, and the increasing importance of victory.

The scale simply asks the respondent to rank the three elements in play activity according to their importance to him.

For according to Webb:

... those scales achieving ... both simplicity and specificity in construction are probably more often than not the best in differentiating capacity, reliability, and (though the question is moot) validity. That is, the simpler and more differentiated the items the greater the likelihood they will first be understood, and then, second, responded to accurately, both increasing the likelihood they will measure whatever social quality the investigator has in mind.

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6 Webb, op. cit., p. 164.
7 Ibid., p. 164.
8 Ibid., p. 165.
Webb does not report a validity coefficient but he indicates that the purpose of the scale is not behavior prediction but concern with an aspect of the socialization process in which a perceptual set is developed, and, thus, attitudes appropriate to the situation. Webb's study included subjects from grades three, six, eight, ten and twelve in an attempt to investigate the change in attitude with increased age. He reports reliability on test-re-test correlation to range from .90 to .96 for the various ages of his study. 9

The scale was selected for this research as an additional measure of an important constituent of sportsmanship, fairness. It seemed meaningful to investigate any relationship between the individual's "perceptual set" based on an aspect of his socialization process and a set of attitudes which may predispose behavior at least to the extent that sportsmanship attitudes influence situational behavior. Perhaps there is an association between the dominant element of play (perceptual set) and behavior related to a specific activity situation.

In addition, it seemed pertinent to investigate the possible differences between the two groups of the study with regard to their "perceptual set" as it relates to participation in physical activity. Since this choice selection is described as resultant from the

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9Ibid., pp. 180-181.
socialization process, any similarity or difference may provide information in relation to the variability of this process between the two groups at least in regard to participation in physical activity.

A copy of this scale can be found in the Appendix.

**Play Questionnaire**

This instrument was developed for the purpose of gaining insight into the play styles and preferences of the two ninth grade groups. Questions were designed to permit short answers (one and two words) in order to facilitate computation as well as contribute to the clarity of the response. Reference was made to Kenyon's Cross Cultural Study\(^\text{10}\) throughout the development for this instrument.

The first part of the first question asked the student to name the activity in which he most preferred to participate. The second section asked the student to indicate where he had learned that activity. This question was included for the purpose of identifying the relative influence of various groups and institutions on activity preferences of young people. The last part of the first question requested the subject to indicate the reason he preferred to participate in that selected activity. It is recognized that

self-perception of the individual may not indicate the basic reason for participation, but, it is also recognized that perceived reasons for undertaking an activity may provide valuable insight.

The second question of the questionnaire asked the student to list the activity he would like to try even though he may never have had opportunity to experience the activity as yet. In response to individual questions during administration of the instrument, the students were told they could use the same activity for the second question as for the first if that activity was the one they wanted most to experience. Again, the second part of this question asked the student to indicate where he had learned of this desired sport. The third part of the second question asked for reasons why he had selected this particular choice. The questions requesting reasons for the selections were included in an attempt to identify elements of activities which appealed to young people.

The third and fourth questions related to the student's preference for activities to watch, both in person and on television. These questions were included in an attempt to learn more about this phenomena of spectating and its relationship to activity participation and basic life style.

The last question included in the questionnaire requested information about the individual's participation in organized physical activity. The student was asked to indicate if he had participated in
organized sport or activity and the length of time during which he participated. He was also asked to indicate the group or organization which sponsored the activity. This latter part of the question served as a check upon the student's understanding of "organized" physical activity as well as provided information about the predominant groups which provide opportunities in this area.

It was believed that these questions provided information related to preferred, desired and actual participation patterns as well as insight into spectator preferences.

It was recognized that open-ended questions calling for short answers presented greater problems for tabulating data than does a check list type of form. However, it was decided that recall from personal experience would probably offer greater accuracy in the desired responses that could be obtained from the check-list form with its incorporated suggestability.

The possibilities for data tabulation were investigated by means of a pilot study. The entire instrument including the Sportsmanship Attitude Scale, The Professionalization of Play Scale and the questionnaire was prepared and administered to fifty junior high school students in a suburban school. This procedure was undertaken in order to determine the clarity of the questionnaire and to examine the possibility of grouping the answers for comparative purposes. From the results of the pilot study, it seemed that
each item could be categorized in such a form to allow verbal
analysis and percentage comparisons. The questions of the last
segment of the instrument were revised somewhat following the
preliminary study.

A copy of the final form of the questionnaire can be found in
the Appendix.

**Administration of the Instrument**

The Director of Curriculum and Research of the City Board
of Education approved the research project and contacted the
principals of the four schools involved in the study. A meeting with
each principal and physical education staff was held to select the
classes to be utilized and the date of administration.

At all the schools but one, provision was made for the
students to be seated in a cafeteria or classroom situation. At the
one school, students were seated on the gymnasium floor. After
the students were seated, the teacher or counselor introduced the
investigator who explained that she was undertaking a study of sports
and games participation of junior high students and would like them
to help in the project.

The instruments were passed out and the students were asked
not to write on them until directions were given. The students were
then asked to complete the information on the front of the sheets
which included name of the school, age and sex of the student. It was decided not to request the student's name in order to assure anonymity and thereby increase the possibility of greater honesty in the responses.

Directions were read to each section and the students were asked for questions. It was emphasized that there were no right or wrong answers and the best answer was the way each student actually felt about a situation. The students were told to raise their hands if they had any questions on any part of the booklet.

There were a variety of questions asked during the administration at the four schools, some dealing with word meaning in the Attitude Scale and some with interpretation of the situations but the breadth of questions was so varied that it is not possible to categorize them. The writer moved around the group and answered questions whenever requested to do so.

All students completed the entire booklet in the allotted time of one class period. At all the schools but one the teachers assigned to the class remained throughout the testing period and assisted in answering questions and collecting the completed booklets.
CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

This study employed an instrument which combined Johnson's Sportsmanship Attitude Scale, Webb's Professionalization Scale and a brief play questionnaire. This instrument was administered to randomly selected classes from four schools in an industrial city in northeastern Ohio. Two of these schools are classified as inner city schools, and, the other two, as outer city schools. For the purposes of this study, the two inner city school samples and the two outer city school samples were combined to provide a single inner city sample and a single outer city sample. The variances of the combined subsamples were compared and found to be nonsignificant, thereby providing justification for this procedure.

The responses of the two samples were compared to determine any systematic differences which occurred and could be attributed to location of school or sex. Whenever possible, statistical procedures were utilized for comparison of these responses. A .05 level of significance was chosen to represent
statistical significance. All statistical analyses and methods employed were directed by Dr. Peter Anderson, Mathematics Department, The Ohio State University.

When comparing data obtained from the questionnaire section of the instrument, verbal analysis and percentage comparisons were found to be most meaningful.

**Sportsmanship Attitude Scale Results**

A fixed effects model of a two way analysis of variance design was selected to compare the results of the Sportsmanship Attitude Scale by location of the school and by sex. The selection of this statistical method was based upon the contention that the construction of this instrument utilized the procedure of equal appearing interval scaling technique and this procedure results in an interval scale when high consensus exists among the judges involved.\(^1\)

The hypothesis tested relative to the Sportsmanship Attitude Scale was as follows:

There is no significant difference between inner city and outer city ninth grade responses on the Sportsmanship Attitude Scale when compared with members of the same sex.

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Table 2 presents the summary of the analysis of variance procedures. This summary indicates a non-significant $F$ ($F=1.26$) for the main effects of location. However, a significant $F$ ($F=8.54$) was found for the main effects of sex. An $F$ of even greater magnitude ($F=12.37$) was found for interaction of sex and location. In an effort to further investigate the factors contributing to these results, a $t$ test was computed between the means of inner city boys and outer city boys and between those of inner city girls and outer city girls. The $t$ test between the boys was non-significant ($t=1.67$) but the $t$ test between the girls was significant ($t=3.26$). These findings would suggest that factors of sex and location of residence interact to contribute to differing sportsmanship attitudes for girls but this probably does not hold true for boys.

**TABLE 2**

**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY OF SPORTSMANSHIP ATTITUDE SCALE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>location (inner vs. outer)</td>
<td>66.747</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>66.747</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sex</td>
<td>452.060</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>452.060</td>
<td>8.54*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interaction</td>
<td>655.253</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>655.253</td>
<td>12.37*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>error</td>
<td>14458.937</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>52.963</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*$F$ is significant at .01.
It may be pertinent to recognize that it is fairly easy to obtain a statistical significance with even a slight relationship when there is a relatively large number of cases as in this study. This suggests a need to measure the strength or degree of relationship. Some indication of the magnitude of the relationship can be obtained by simply comparing the means of the various cells. Table 3 presents these means and standard deviations. It can be observed that the total difference from the lowest (outer city boys) to the highest (outer city girls) is only 5.47 points on a sixty-three point scale. In addition, it will be noted that the largest standard deviation is demonstrated by the outer city boys (8.5) and the smallest, by the outer city girls (5.9). The two inner city groups indicate a middle point of variability when compared to the two extreme groups.

### TABLE 3

**MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF EACH GROUP ON THE SPORTSMANSHIP ATTITUDE SCALE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Inner city girls</th>
<th>Inner city boys</th>
<th>Outer city girls</th>
<th>Outer city boys</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of respondents</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>49.53</td>
<td>50.22</td>
<td>53.47</td>
<td>48.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

The correlation ratio, \( E^2 \), was computed to further explore the magnitude of the relationship. This procedure involves taking the ratio of the explained sum of squares to the total sum of squares and can be interpreted in a manner similar to the ordinary product moment correlation. The ratio indicates that the total amount of variance explained by location, sex and interaction of sex and location is 7.5%, and, the greatest amount of variance explained is 4.19% by interaction of sex and location. The results of the computation of \( E^2 \) are shown in Table 4.

**TABLE 4**

**CORRELATION RATIO (E^2) FOR THE SPORTSMANSHIP ATTITUDE SCALE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>( E^2 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner vs. Outer</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male vs. Female</td>
<td>8.54</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>12.37</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The magnitude of the relationship as described by the correlation ratio appears small. It seems appropriate to conclude that the variables selected for analysis in this aspect of the study appear to have little substantive significance regardless of the statistically significant \( F \) obtained for sex differences and the interaction factor.
When individual responses to each item for each group were analyzed, only two items, numbers two and eight, reflected any specific differences in terms of location. Item number two is concerned with verbal abuse from the players' bench and the coach does nothing to stop it. On this item outer city boys (24%) and outer city girls (22%) agreed with the action compared to the lesser percent of inner city boys (7%) and inner city girls (10%) who were in agreement. This tendency of the outer city students to agree with the verbal activity may be in agreement with the idea that these middle class students are taught to verbalize their aggressions rather than demonstrate them physically, and, thereby, express greater sanction for verbal patterns of expression.

Item eight which deals with a coach who was called upon to officiate his own game and called in favor of his own team presents a more complex picture. The inner city students (girls - 26%; boys - 14%) tended to agree with the action while the outer city students (girls - 2%; boys - 1.4%) expressed little agreement. Perhaps, this reflects the inner city child's tendency to adhere to authority regardless of the underlying principle while the outer city child has learned to evaluate the principle upon which the authority figure bases his action, and, subsequently, makes his decision on the basis of principle rather than acceptance of authority, per se. This discrepancy could reflect a failure of lower class children to
internalize standards of right and wrong and to "stick to the rules"
when no one is looking. It has been suggested that the values of this
group emphasize conformity to external controls whereas the middle
class child is encouraged to develop his own standards and practice
self-direction. This evaluation would be consistent with respected
opinions mentioned in Chapter II. These were the only items which
reflected a location of school difference for both sexes to a noticeable
degree.

One rather interesting finding appears in these data. This
finding is the relative difference between mean scores of the outer
city boys and outer city girls (5.47) and the relative proximity of the
two inner city groups (less than 1 point). This finding may contribute
to the hypothesis suggested by Neale and Proshek:

The hypothesis is rather suggested that sex role differ-
ences with respect to education may not be as important
in culturally disadvantaged as in the middle class
schools. 3

Perhaps value education is also less sex related in the inner city
locations than in middle class schools.

However, another thought may be suggested. Several writers
have suggested that middle class children are urged to excel and to
achieve, whereas lower class children are less pressured to

3Neale and Proshek, op. cit., p. 244.
demonstrate prowess. Sports competition is an area traditionally open to male endeavor and success is normally accepted as winning rather than personal conduct in a game situation. For this reason males may be more conscious of the success factor rather than the conduct factor and have learned to incorporate a less restricted conduct code into their behavior patterns. Girls on the other hand, are not generally expected to excel in sports situations and can, therefore, afford to accept the socially sanctioned patterns of behavior in relation to their conduct in sports situations. In other words, sports achievement is traditionally an area of male endeavor in which boys demonstrate masculine capabilities and this achievement is generally measured by winning or losing rather than ethical behavior exhibited in the contest. For this reason, middle class boys may have adapted a more practical and less ethical attitude toward sports behavior than middle class girls who are not traditionally expected to excel in sports competition and thus, do not experience the same pressure to win as do the boys.

Since lower class boys (and girls) are generally not urged to demonstrate excellence, this area of endeavor may allow development of fairly equal attitudes of behavior by both sexes. Or, perhaps, if there are areas of excellence sought after by the lower classes, sports skills may not represent those areas which are valued by this group.
These findings do substantiate value studies reported in Chapter II which found no difference between values of middle class and lower class children. However, they are in conflict with observations made by Kraus who indicates different competition attitudes between lower class and middle class participants.\(^4\) This writer would like to suggest that perhaps competitive situations are specific or more personal to the lower classes. The intensity of feeling generated at a competitive event may be directly related to the specific situation in terms of opponents or league standings. If this is true, then their generalized attitudes may reveal different responses from attitudes directly related to an actual situation in which they are personally involved and emotionally aroused.

The first part of the hypothesis tested in this section of the study, that of location differences existing between inner and outer city students, must be accepted. The second aspect investigated, that of sex differences, must be considered more carefully. Differences reported between outer city girls and inner city girls were significant \((t=3.26)\); but, the difference between outer city boys and inner city boys was not significant \((t=1.67)\). The interaction

\(^4\)Kraus, op. cit., p. 33.
factor which indicates that location and female sex influence these attitude formations cannot be immediately explained within the framework of this study other than by means of the approach previously discussed.

**Professionalization of Play Scale Results**

Although taken separately, the items, of this scale are only at a categorical level but the forced ranking on a "most important" basis provides an ordinal level of measurement which permits a higher order statistical analysis. In Webb's data analysis, he found little or no difference in rejection of the null hypothesis between preliminary runs of the Mann-Whitney U and the t test, and, thus, he reported his data by means of the t test. Therefore, the decision to utilize a two way analysis of variance design was based upon the large sample size and the fact that no comparable non-parametric procedure is appropriate to data which includes the large number of tie scores.

Each respondent was assigned a permutation value according to the order of his choice. This permutation table is presented as

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6Dr. Peter Anderson, Mathematics Department, The Ohio State University.
Table 5. This procedure provided a possible range of scores from one to six. The fixed effects model of the two way analysis of variance procedure was then calculated from the permutation value.

**TABLE 5**

PERMUTATION OF ITEMS OF PROFESSIONALIZATION SCALE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLAY ORIENTATION</th>
<th>PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fair fair play</td>
<td>play beat beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>play beat fair</td>
<td>beat fair play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beat play beat</td>
<td>fair play fair</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the analysis of variance indicate a significant F (8.56) for location differences and a significant F (31.09) for sex differences. The interaction of these two factors was negligible.

Table 6 presents a summary of this analysis.

Again, the large sample size may have contributed to the size of the significant differences. However, in referring to the means of each group, a definite trend can be recognized. This pattern indicates the greater strength of sex differences as demonstrated by the larger F but it also indicates the comparative location of school differences. For although both girls' groups are lower than the boys', they are in approximate relationship with inner city girls ranking lower than outer city girls and inner city boys ranking lower than outer city boys.

It will also be noted that variability as measured by standard deviations in quite comparable for all four groups with the inner city girls indicating the least variability. These means and standard deviations are shown in Table 7.

**TABLE 6**
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY FOR PROFESSIONALIZATION SCALE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Location (inner vs. outer)</td>
<td>13.99512</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13.99512</td>
<td>8.56a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>50.92959</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50.92959</td>
<td>31.09a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>.00098</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.00098</td>
<td>.0006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>446.20410</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>1.63444</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aF is significant at .01.

**TABLE 7**
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF EACH GROUP ON THE PROFESSIONALIZATION SCALE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Inner city girls</th>
<th>Inner city boys</th>
<th>Outer city girls</th>
<th>Outer city boys</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of Respondents</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>2.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Again, t tests were made between inner city boys and outer city boys \((t=2.009, \text{ significant at .05})\) and between inner city girls and outer city girls \((t=2.311, \text{ significant at .025})\). These t tests while both significant at the accepted level, indicate the relatively greater difference between females as compared to males of the two locations.

An additional measure of relationship was calculated by means of the correlation ratio. This ratio indicates that the total variability explained by the two factors, sex and location was only 12.7%. The largest portion of this \(\text{variability (10\%)}\) is explained by sex differences and only 2.7% explained by location of school. Generally speaking, it seems fair to note that although the analysis of variance produced a significant F, this significance may not indicate much substantive importance of these two variables in explaining the differences between group scores. These ratios are presented in Table 8.

**TABLE 8**

CORRELATION RATIO \((E^2)\) FOR THE PROFESSIONALIZATION SCALE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>(F)</th>
<th>(E^2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner vs. Outer</td>
<td>8.56</td>
<td>.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male vs. Female</td>
<td>31.09</td>
<td>.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>.0006</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In order to further illustrate the reported differences of the groups under consideration, Chi Square tables were calculated in addition to the analysis of variance comparisons. By this method of comparison it is easier to illustrate the frequency with which respondents of each group select each category. For this comparison, two permutations were combined: one and two, three and four, and five and six. In order to further clarify the frequencies of each group, both the number of individuals in each category are listed as well as the percent of total respondents that number represents since the number of respondents in each cell varied. The percent of respondents in each cell is listed in parentheses. The table for girls was collapsed because the frequencies in the last column were less than five.

These Chi Square tables illustrate further the sex differences as well as the location difference. Although the male difference by location was not significant by this method, the trend toward professionalization appears greater for the outer city male population than for the inner city male population. However, the greatest difference between the total populations can be obviously attributed to the female respondents. These Chi Square tables are shown as Table 9, Table 10 and Table 11.
TABLE 9

PROFESSIONALIZATION OF PLAY ATTITUDES
BY SCHOOL LOCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1-2</th>
<th>3-4</th>
<th>5-6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner city</td>
<td>76 (58%)</td>
<td>49 (37%)</td>
<td>6 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer city</td>
<td>60 (41%)</td>
<td>73 (53%)</td>
<td>13 (9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

136 122 19

Chi Square = 8.3949, probability greater than .025

TABLE 10

PROFESSIONALIZATION OF PLAY ATTITUDES OF
BOYS BY SCHOOL LOCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1-2</th>
<th>3-4</th>
<th>5-6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner city</td>
<td>27 (43%)</td>
<td>31 (49%)</td>
<td>5 (8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer city</td>
<td>20 (28%)</td>
<td>41 (59%)</td>
<td>9 (13%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

47 72 14 133

Chi Square = 3.2148 n.s.

TABLE 11

PROFESSIONALIZATION OF PLAY ATTITUDES OF
GIRLS BY SCHOOL LOCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1-2</th>
<th>3-4 (5-6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner city</td>
<td>49 (72%)</td>
<td>19 (28%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer city</td>
<td>40 (53%)</td>
<td>36 (47%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

89 55 144

Chi Square = 5.7379, probability greater than .02
These results are partially in accord with those reported by Webb. He indicated a less professionalized attitude for girls than for boys at all ages and a tendency toward less professionalized attitudes in "blue collar" or lower class males than for "white collar" or "professional" males. Webb studied respondents over a nine year age span and related the increased professionalization or emphasis on skill with age to the increased cognizance of the processes at work in the economy of western civilization.

Webb further suggests that these three ideas of "fairness," "skill" and "victory" do not necessarily exist in harmony when victory increases in importance as it must in our society which emphasizes success. Thus, as a child matures within the framework of our society, he gradually learns that goods or rewards are allotted an individual upon the basis of his skill or contribution but he also learns to decrease the emphasis on equity, and, in turn, increase that given to success. Webb believes that this change in attitude increases with age and may also vary along other dimensions such as sex, religion, race and life style.


8Ibid., p. 162.
Webb attributes the greater professionalization of his male subjects over his female subjects to the different experience each group acquires with respect to achievement and ascriptive criteria in the larger society. He notes that expected job experience will tend to influence male preferences since success and/or skill are anticipated constituents of this experience, whereas, this participation is not anticipated by girls. The prime concern of females, he believes, is choice of husband and this, he says, is based largely upon ascriptive criteria. 9

This writer suggests that the differential results by sex in the current study could be attributed to less experience in sport competition among girls than among boys. This lack of experience in organized physical activity for girls is clearly demonstrated in the last section of this chapter. The lack of competitive sport experience among girls could inhibit their acquisition of values related to skill and success in this area and contribute to the preservation of ideals of fairness which are more or less prevalent in recreational forms of activity. It would seem that less experience in sport competition could reduce pressures to excel or achieve in sport and games, and, thus, minimize the relationship between sport and achievement criteria prevalent in our society. Therefore, this writer suggests

9Ibid., p. 168.
the different results of the two sexes reported in this study may be related to different experiences of each sex in specific sport situations rather than experiential factors relative to the larger society.

Webb's comparisons indicate that the higher the occupational standing of parents, the greater the emphasis on skill and success.\(^\text{10}\) If inner city children can be equated with his respondents of "blue collar" parents, then, the results of the current study are in agreement. This finding may indicate that those at the bottom of the socio-economic hierarchy are more preoccupied with the concept of fairness and, perhaps, believe that fairness may not be as widespread as it should be. They may feel that without fairness, success if not possible regardless of skill.

Webb differentiated his subjects by religion into categories of Protestant and Catholic. He referred to the Catholics as having minority group status and found that this group expressed a more professionalized play attitude than did the Protestants. However, statistical significance of this difference disappeared when occupational groupings were considered. He attributes this difference to:

\(^{10}\text{Ibid.}, \ p. \ 176.\)
A growing awareness of minority group status, and a consequent concern with success as a mitigating factor to that status, resulting in a rapidly diminishing concern for fairness or equity and more pronounced emphasis on skill. 11

However, in the current study, approximately 75 percent of the inner city sample was Negro, and thus, members of a minority group. This inner city sample, by contrast scored lower on the Professionalization Scale than did the outer city or non-minority group. Therefore, it seems unfounded for this writer to recognize minority membership in general as an influencing factor in play attitude formation. It seems more realistic to identify the minority group in question and analyze their relationship to the larger society.

In this case, if minority group membership (Negro) is a factor it could represent a heightened awareness of the need for equity which occupies a position of paramount concern in the daily lives of many Negroes today. In addition, many Negroes are not encouraged to strive for personal skill or success, and, thus, these two factors may play a role in attitude formation of these people. However, this failure to encourage the development of personal skill and success patterns could well be more indicative of the inner city population or lower class structure than specific to a minority group since most life styles and behavioral patterns are more often class

11Ibid., p. 173.
related than minority related. As mentioned earlier, middle class children are encouraged to demonstrate skills and achievements but lower class children appear to be relatively free from this pressure. The results of this study could be interpreted to substantiate this observation by indicating less value placed on skill and victory by respondents of the inner city sample than by respondents of the outer city sample.

On the basis of these results, the second hypothesis must be rejected. The respondents of the inner city sample reported significantly less professionalization of play attitudes than the respondents of the outer city sample ($F=8.56$). The inner city boys reported significantly less professionalization than outer city boys ($t=2.009$); inner city girls reported significantly less professionalization than outer city girls ($t=2.311$). Both groups of girls reported less professionalization than both groups of boys. It appears that both sex and location of school contribute somewhat to differing attitudes as expressed by responses to the Professionalization Scale. However, both of these factors together only account for 12.6% variability between groups and, therefore, cannot be considered as highly significant variables in explaining the differences between the two groups.
Results of the Correlation of Sportsmanship Attitude Scale
and the Professionalization Scale

Fairness is considered to be an important aspect of
sportsmanship by most people. According to Webb:

Thus play experience in play institutions prepares the
young for later participation in an "achievement" economy
and a "democratic" polity, but its contribution may be at
odds with that ordinarily asserted, and asserted in terms
of the components of "sportsmanship" whose major
constituent, it should be emphasized is "fairness."12

This statement indicates that as play experiences prepare
children for participation in the larger society, they tend to develop
attitudes which are antithetical to those attributed to sportsmanship.
This interpretation led to the development of the third hypothesis
tested by this study. Stated in the null form, the third hypothesis
is as follows;

There is no correlation between the Sportsmanship Attitude
Scale responses and the Professionalization Scale responses
either by group or by sex.

These data were determined to be linear and the Pearson
product moment correlation was made between responses of the two
instruments. The correlation coefficient for the total group was -.29;
for the inner city respondents, -.21; and, for the outer city respon-
dents, -.38. The coefficients for the inner city girls, -.28, and
outer city girls, -.27, are quite comparable but those for the inner

12 Ibid., p. 163.
city boys, - .22, and outer city boys, - .33, diverge considerably. These coefficients of correlation are all statistically significant at greater than .05 level of significance except that of the inner city boys. These coefficients indicate relatively low relationships but they are all in the same direction. The results of the correlation computations are given in Table 12.

### TABLE 12

**CORRELATION BETWEEN SPORTSMANSHIP ATTITUDE SCALE AND THE PROFESSIONALIZATION SCALE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>r²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Group</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>- .29a</td>
<td>.084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inner city (total)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>-.21b</td>
<td>.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inner city boys</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inner city girls</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>-.28b</td>
<td>.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer city (total)</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>-.38a</td>
<td>.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer city boys</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>-.33a</td>
<td>.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer city girls</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>-.27b</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a significant at .01
b significant at .05

The difference between the correlation coefficients of the two samples, inner city and outer city, is not significant when tested by Fisher's Z test.¹³ It should be noted that the negative signs of these

coefficients indicate that the higher the score on the Sportsmanship Attitude Scale, the lower the score on the Professionalization Scale or the greater the emphasis on the factor, "fairness."

Perhaps it should be noted at this point that the size of the correlation coefficient is very much dependent upon the variability of measured values in the correlated samples. Everything else being equal, the greater the variability, the higher the correlation.¹⁴ When it is considered that the range of one instrument is only six points, the restriction of range may contribute to these low coefficients.

The usefulness of a correlation coefficient of a given magnitude is not directly proportional to its numeric distance from zero to unity. The square of the correlation coefficient, \( r^2 \), is a more meaningful number by which to judge its predictive value.¹⁵ This statistic, \( r^2 \), is called the coefficient of determination. When multiplied by 100, the coefficient of determination indicates the percentage of variance in one variable that is associated with, or accounted for by variance in the other variable. By means of \( r^2 \) both predicted and unpredicted variances can be determined and it is possible to make proportional comparisons of correlations of different magnitudes.


From Table 12 it can be determined that the predictive value of the two instruments for the total group is only 8.4%; for the inner city sample, 4.4%; and, for the outer city sample, 14.1%. Generally speaking, these percentages are relatively low for signifying a meaningful relationship.

However, it has been suggested that whenever a relationship between two variables is statistically significant, the small coefficient of correlation may merely indicate that the testing situation is contaminated by factors that are uncontrolled or not held constant. This situation could well exist in the present study since all but one coefficient of correlation is statistically significant and all are in the same direction.

The relative value placed on the three components of play may be only minimally related to behavioral tendencies. For Webb indicated that the Professionalization Scale is an attempt to identify the individual's approach or attitudes appropriate to the situation. It is not an attempt to predict behavior.17

It is not an attempt to identify behavior. . . . We are concerned with an aspect of the socialization process in which a kind of perceptual format is developed and in that sense, then, attitudes.18

16Guilford, op. cit., p. 105.

17Webb, op. cit., p. 181.

18Ibid.,
However, it seems that "perceptual formats" which result from socialization processes may serve as foundations for behavior. It is, of course, recognized that behavior is influenced by a multiplicity of factors. This particular correlation was suggested by the findings of McAfee which indicated a decrease of sportsmanlike attitudes with increased age¹⁹ and the results reported by Webb which indicated a shift in value preference with increased age. ²⁰ The unidirectional, low but statistically significant correlations found by this study appear to give some substantiation to this theory.

One reason for the low correlation between the two instruments could rest with the instruments themselves. The Professionalization Scale asks a direct question relative to the value placed on fairness in comparison to two other components of play. However, the Sportsmanship Attitude Scale incorporates the idea of fairness with additional factors included in the concept of sportsmanship. Perhaps the additional factors, such as adherence to authority, self-control, and ethical behavior confound the total score of the scale in such a manner as to negate the fairness factor. Examination of the instrument reveals eight items directly related to the idea of

¹⁹McAfee, op. cit., p. 120.

"fairness" but several others could be included under a broader concept of "fairness." The identification of the dimensions of sportsmanship measured by each item is largely a matter of interpretation.

This "confounding" concept may suggest that sportsmanship cannot be considered as a single attitude but rather a combination of attitudes which are more or less specific to the various dimensions of behavior in sports situations but are characteristically grouped together under the umbrella term, sportsmanship.

One point to be noted is that item number eight on the Sportsmanship Attitude Scale, one of the two items which indicates a location of school difference, deals directly with the idea of "fairness." For this item, the inner city respondents (26% and 14%) reported higher agreement with the action than outer city respondents (2% and 1.4%) although the inner city group expressed greater preference for "fairness" on the Professionalization Scale (outer city - 41%; inner city - 58%). This specific finding and the difference in results of the correlations of each sample group (inner city - -.21; outer city - -.38) may suggest that the ability for conceptual thinking may contribute to these scores. It has been reported that conceptual thinking is less developed among inner city than among outer city
children. Inner city children may strongly approve of the idea of "fairness" but be unable to conceptualize situations in which this principle is applied. In other words, the word "fairness" may have specific meaning for them but they fail to recognize situations in which this concept is working.

Experience in sports situations may contribute to the ability to discern basic principles at work in behavioral situations, and, thus, to higher correlation between the two instruments. Outer city boys report greatest participation in organized physical activity as noted in the last section of this chapter, and they also report the highest correlation of the two instruments (−.33). Perhaps, this participation includes clarification of concepts of "fairness" or "victory" as they are manifested in specific situations.

Haskins reported that intelligence affected sportsmanship scores. This could be a factor in the present study. A generally accepted component of intelligence is the ability to discern relationships and this would apply to the current question of relating the idea to the situation. Unfortunately, data regarding the intelligence of these samples is not available.

21 Miller and Swanson, op. cit., pp. 162-63.
22 Haskins, op. cit., p. 31.
However, if intelligence, conceptual ability or experience are factors in the relatively low correlation of the two instruments it may indicate a need for direct sportsmanship instruction in order to clarify principles which operate in specific situations. Perhaps discussion of incidents which occur in competitive activities would assist students in applying basic principles and thereby create greater awareness of behavior fundamentals which operate in these situations. This type of instruction could provide students with basic standards on which to base their actions as well as develop an appreciation for manifestations of underlying principles in behavior.

It may be significant to approach this interpretation from another aspect. Just as the "fairness" component does not seem to be highly related to high sportsmanship scores, the reverse must also be true. That is, those respondents who value skill and victory must not indicate low sportsmanship scores. This would suggest that recognition of the preferred characteristic of "skill" or "victory" does not mean the individual would sacrifice ethical behavior in order to achieve these preferred values. But, rather, it may indicate the individual has altered his concept of values or ultimate goals into alignment with those of the society in which he operates as suggested by Webb\(^{23}\) but still retains behavioral dispositions which include "fairness."

\(^{23}\)Webb, op. cit., p. 169.
This explanation would suggest that selection of one of the three components of play may not be mutually exclusive. The relatively low coefficients of determination derived in this study could indicate that play experience may prepare children for participation in the larger society and contribute to their conception of the "most important" element of a game but these attitudes may not effect their sportsmanship attitudes to a large extent.

On the basis of the results of this part of the study, the third hypothesis must be rejected. The correlation coefficients of all groups except the inner city boys indicate low but statistically significant results. However, the low coefficients of determination indicate relatively low predictive variance of these two instruments.

Analysis of the Questionnaire Results

In the analysis of the results of the questionnaire, lists were made of each item mentioned and the number of times it was mentioned. These items were then listed in approximate order of frequency mentioned by one or both groups. In the tables of activities selected and reasons given for selection, percentages were not presented because the large number of different items resulted in relatively small numbers and therefore, small percentages. The number of respondents in each group is presented for each activity list because although the numbers are comparable, they do differ.
The slight fluctuation in group numbers from question to question results from failure of some respondents to complete the entire questionnaire. If the entire question was not completed, the respondent was dropped from the total number of respondents for that question. If only the reason was omitted, the subject's responses were included in the other sections and notation of the omission of the reason was made under the heading of "no response" or "no reason."

Each item was listed separately if it was selected by two members of the same group. If the item was not selected by at least two members of the same group, it was accounted for at the end of each column under the heading of "other." This section will be discussed with reference to each of the five questions of the questionnaire.

**Physical activity respondents like to play the most**

The first part of the first question asked the subjects to indicate the physical activity he likes to play the most. The number of different activities selected by the four groups is comparable: inner city boys - 15; outer city boys - 17; inner city girls - 16; and, outer city girls - 18. Outer city boys appeared to prefer football, basketball, swimming, and baseball in that order as the most highly desirable activities. Other activities selected by this group are as follows in order of preference: golf, bowling, tennis, bicycling,
weight lifting and motorcycle riding. By contrast, the inner city boys selected basketball, football and baseball as preferred activities. Additional choices selected by this group are as follows in order of preference: swimming, bicycling, dancing, soccer and track.

Seventy-seven percent of the inner city boys' responses indicated a preference for team sports as compared to 52 percent of the outer city boys. These comparisons may reflect life styles related to opportunity to learn individual sports and to participate in them. Generally speaking, individual sports often require costly equipment and payment for participation and learning, whereas, team sports often require less equipment and opportunity to learn and to participate is frequently provided at no cost by schools, public recreation, and community organizations.

Comparisons of the two groups of boys indicate a relatively large number of inner city boys (37%) selected basketball as the favorite activity compared to 15 percent of outer city boys. This discrepancy may be explained at least partially, by the school program and facilities. In the Akron school system, basketball is one of four sports in which interscholastic competition takes place at the junior high level. In addition, both inner city junior high schools included in this sample have two gymnasiums, one for boys and one for girls, whereas the outer city schools in the sample each
have one gymnasium which is divided to provide space for girls and boys. This additional space may provide opportunity for extra emphasis on basketball in the inner city. Since football is not taught at junior high level in this system and extremely limited outdoor play space at the inner city schools handicaps the teaching of baseball, this may account in part for the greater preference expressed by inner city boys for basketball.

The list of preferred activities is given in Table 13.

Table 13 also indicates a similar trend in preference of inner city girls (45%) for team sports as compared to outer city girls (19%). Activities most preferred by inner city girls, listed in order of preference are: softball and dancing, swimming, basketball, roller skating, bicycling, track, kickball and Indian ball. For outer city girls, activities preferred in order of preference are as follows: swimming, dancing, bicycling, water skiing, horseback riding, tennis, football, basketball, softball, bowling, and cheerleading.

The large number of outer city girls (26) that listed swimming may have resulted in part from administering the questionnaire in late spring. However, other factors may contribute to this choice. First, swimming is a socially acceptable physical activity for girls in our culture and, thus, is probably encouraged by middle-upper class families. Swimming provides opportunity for social interaction with relatively large numbers of peers while actually demanding as
TABLE 13

PHYSICAL ACTIVITY RESPONDENTS PREFER TO PLAY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>IC</th>
<th>OC</th>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>IC</th>
<th>OC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N=59</td>
<td>N=65</td>
<td></td>
<td>N=68</td>
<td>N=75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Dancing</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Softball</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golf</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Roller Skating</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Bicycling</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bicycling</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Horserback</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bowling</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Riding</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight lifting</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Water Skiing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motorcycle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riding</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Football</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dancing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Track (run)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bowling</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Track</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Cheerleading</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Kickball</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Indian Ball</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

much or as little physical activity as the individual desires. In addition, many of these outer city girls are members of families that belong to a country club or that have summer homes at a lake. With this type of background, most of these girls have had opportunity to learn to swim, either by lessons or by constant exposure. Another factor which may contribute to greater outer city preference for swimming is the relative mobility of the outer city child. Although the city does maintain several public pools in the inner city areas,
travel to and from these pools must be most often by public transportation. This increases the cost of the activity in addition to creating inconvenience. In the outer city, however, many families are "two car" families and often mothers arrange schedules for transporting children back and forth from places of activity.

A relatively large number of inner city girls (17) selected softball as their preferred activity. This may be explained by the tendency of this group to cling to sports and activities which are well known and learned at a young age. This sport is usually learned in neighborhood groups at an early age and requires little equipment and relatively little space.

Generally speaking, Table 13 seems to indicate a location of school difference in selection of preferred activity. The inner city students seem to prefer team sports to a greater extent than outer city students of both sexes. In addition, the two groups appear to differ in preference for activities within the categories of team and individual activities.

The second part of the first question asked the respondent to indicate where he had learned the activity he played the most. The inner city boys indicated the source of learning to be as follows, in order of largest number to smallest: school, location of activity, home, peers and siblings. Outer city boys indicate the source of learning to be as follows: location of activity, school, home, parents,
peers and siblings. The largest discrepancies between the two groups were indicated by relative percentages selecting school (inner city - 35%; outer city - 22%) and those indicating parents as the learning source (inner city - 0%; outer city - 15%). The term location of participation was selected to cover sites where the activity is undertaken such as the lake, courts, and like areas.

The source of learning selected by girls indicate a similar difference in regard to the influence of the school. The selected sources of the inner city girls are as follows: school, home, location of activity, peers, siblings, and parents. The sources of learning specified by outer city girls are as follows with the largest number first: location of participation, home, peers, school, parents and siblings. The largest differences reported by the girls were school (inner city - 38%; outer city - 8%) and location of the activity (inner city - 17%; outer city - 44%).

The importance of the school as a teaching agent is apparent for both inner city groups. This relatively strong influence on the preferred activity choices of the inner city may reflect a limitation of mobility and associated experiences which are characteristic of the inner city child. This should also create an increased awareness of the importance of the physical activity curriculum in the inner city.
Obviously, the school program exerts a strong influence on the play patterns of the inner city child and should, therefore, be constructed with this in mind, especially with reference to the carry-over or lifetime recreational sports.

The location of participation difference is statistically significant between the girls groups but not between the boys groups. This could be the result of the type of activity selected by the various groups. Since the outer city girls tend to select individual sports of a carryover nature, it is only logical that the location of participation would emerge as a significant learning source. This finding may serve to further indicate the importance of membership in country clubs and private organizations as influential to play styles.

The influence of parents as a learning source is greatest with the two outer city groups, the boys making up the largest number making this selection. This finding would tend to substantiate the comments of authorities which indicate less intergenerational communication within the lower class strata than within the middle or upper class strata.24 The lesser influence of parents as teaching agents for girls of the middle-class may reflect a cultural phenomena which results in less value placed on physical activity for the female than for the male.

24Wilson, op. cit., p. 233; Langner, op. cit., p. 192.
In summary, it appears that noticeable differences do exist between the inner city and outer city groups of this study in regard to learning sources particularly in the areas of location of participation, school and parental influences. A summary of learning sources chosen by the respondents is presented on Table 14.

The final section of the first question requested reasons for the selection of the preferred activity. All four groups chose "fun" as the reason most often selected. This choice would indicate a desirable situation existing among respondents. The opportunity to experience a "fun" or personally enjoyable activity remains a paramount objective in the field of physical education.

Additional reasons given for the preferred choice by inner city boys in order of prevalence are as follows: skilled, "good at it"; exciting; relaxing; challenging; rough; builds up the body; fast; interesting; currently on a team; and, three respondents "didn't know." Those reasons given by outer city boys in order of prevalence are as follows: rough; skilled, "good at it"; challenging; builds up the body; exciting; aesthetic reasons; to play for the school later; and five respondents "didn't know." The outer city boys sample had fewer "fun" responses than the other groups which may indicate a greater verbal ability which manifests itself in analysis of specific elements related to the activity.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOURCE OF LEARNING</th>
<th>BOYS</th>
<th>GIRLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IC (%)</td>
<td>OC (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place of Participation</td>
<td>16 (27%)</td>
<td>18 (28%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>21 (35%)</td>
<td>14 (22%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home</td>
<td>14 (23%)</td>
<td>14 (22%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peers</td>
<td>6 (10%)</td>
<td>8 (12%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siblings</td>
<td>3 (5%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>10 (15%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The greatest difference in responses between the two boys groups was in the selection of "rough" (inner city - 4; outer city - 9), aesthetic reasons (inner city - 0; outer city - 5) and relaxing (inner city - 5; outer city - 0). The larger number of outer city respondents which selected rough as the reason for the preferred activity choice may be the result of our cultural values which indicate males should be tough, rough and aggressive. However, middle class cultural values indicate that aggressive tendencies and rough behavior should be carefully controlled. Perhaps, this group views organized physical activity as a primary means of validating their masculinity. The lower class may have other means and methods for this validation. The selection of "relaxing" by the inner city boys may relate to the lessened competitive nature of these boys as reported by authorities. In any case, the reasons given by the two boys groups did not appear to be vastly different. There appears to be a large area of common elements which attract boys of both groups to various physical activities. These reasons are listed in Table 15.


26Like it is - Pressures in a Ghetto School, "op. cit., p. 21; Riessman, op. cit., p. 48.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REASON</th>
<th>IC</th>
<th>OC</th>
<th>REASON</th>
<th>IC</th>
<th>OC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fun</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Fun</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled, &quot;good at it&quot;</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Good exercise</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exciting</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Skilled, &quot;good at it&quot;</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Challenging</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rough</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Exciting</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise, builds up body</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Aesthetic reasons</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Relaxing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetic reasons</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Refreshing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Like related factors</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Social values</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently on a team</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To play for school later</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Safe, not so rough</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The girls samples indicated a strong preference for "fun" as a reason for selecting a specific activity (inner city - 40; outer city - 32). After this selection, inner city girls offered a rather varied list of reasons as follows with the highest number first; good exercise; skilled, "good at it"; challenging; exciting; relaxing; aesthetic reasons; competition; not so rough, safe; and, two respondents "didn't know." In addition to the "fun" choice, the outer city girls indicated the following reasons for the preferred activity: good exercise; skilled, "good at it"; refreshing; challenging; exciting; aesthetic reasons; like related factors; social values; relaxing; and three "didn't know." The relatively large difference between the two groups (outer city - 21; inner city - 8) in selecting "exercise" as a reason for the activity selection may be the result of differential health learnings of the two groups. The middle class families may possess greater awareness of desirable health practices, and, thus, create this awareness in their children. This difference may also reflect the middle-class awareness of desirable body dimensions and the contribution that exercise makes to maintaining an attractive body. The other discrepancies between the two groups appear to be minimal, and, thus, also indicate a large proportion of common elements which attract girls of both groups to various physical activities, although the activities may differ. These reasons are listed in Table 15.
It may be significant to mention that the reason "well-skilled, good at it" rates second with inner city boys, and third with outer city boys and both groups of girls. This would tend to substantiate the relatively well-accepted idea that people tend to participate in activities in which they acquire a relatively high level of skill. This could further serve to influence school programming to the extent that adequate time be devoted to activities in order to ensure a reasonably high level of skill development.

**Activities respondent desire to try**

The first part of this question asked the respondent to indicate which activity he would like to try the most, even though he may never have played it before. A large number of different activities were noted by all four groups but none indicated a significantly greater number of different choices (inner city boys - 19; outer city boys - 25; inner city girls - 19; and outer city girls - 23). The difference in desirability of team and individual sports as selected by male respondents tended to disappear (inner city boys - 55%; outer city boys - 48% team sports) on this question as opposed to the first. The difference remained between the two girls groups (inner city girls - 48%; outer city girls - 30% team sports) although this difference was reduced considerably.
Those activities desired by inner city male respondents in order of preference are as follows: hockey, football, basketball, baseball, auto racing, tennis, swimming, boxing, water skiing, soccer, golf, roller derby, sky diving, and others. Those activities desired by male respondents of the outer city, again listed in order of indicated preference are as follows: hockey, football, auto racing, basketball, skiing, skin diving, water skiing, baseball, tennis, Jai Lai, soccer, golf, handball, rugby, wrestling and others. Table 16 presents a tabulation of these results.

The largest number of respondents of both groups indicate a desire to play hockey (inner city - 14%; outer city - 21%). This response would indicate that many of these boys have ice skated which is somewhat surprising to this writer since the city of Akron does not have an indoor ice rink. However, the public recreation department does freeze tennis courts and various outdoor areas when the weather permits but the climate of the city does not lend itself to many days in which outdoor skating is practical. However, young boys may view hockey as an aggressive, rough, masculine sport with participation in which not limited by physical size. The inner city boys selected football twice as often as outer city boys (inner city - 14%; outer city - 6%) but the numbers were rather low.
Because of the variety of selections, the number of individuals selecting each sport was relatively low, thus, no distinct trends could be determined from the data.

**TABLE 16**

**ACTIVITIES RESPONDENTS DESIRE TO TRY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>IC</th>
<th>OC</th>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>IC</th>
<th>OC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N=56</td>
<td>N=66</td>
<td></td>
<td>N=67</td>
<td>N=73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOYS</th>
<th>GIRLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hockey</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auto racing</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skiing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skin diving</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water skiing</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jai Lai</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golf</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roller derby</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sky diving</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hand ball</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rugby</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrestling</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skiing</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water skiing</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hockey</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horseback riding</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surfing</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sky diving</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golf</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roller derby</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ice skating</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scuba diving</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bob sledding</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fox hunting</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Those activities desired by inner city female respondents of this study in order of preference are as follows: skiing, tennis, water skiing, baseball, football, hockey, soccer, basketball, golf, roller derby, ice skating, bob sledding and others. Those desired by the outer city female sample are as follows: football, skiing, water skiing, hockey, horseback riding, surfing, sky diving, golf, ice skating, scuba diving, swimming, fox hunting, and others. The large number of outer city girls selecting football surprised this writer. This choice could perhaps be influenced by the element of novelty since girls usually do not receive an opportunity to participate in this sport. It may have resulted from recognition of status awarded the male football player and the desire to identify with the recipients of this status. In any event, a relatively large number of the outer city girls (18%) and a lesser number of inner city girls (7%) selected this activity. The selections of the outer city females tended to eliminate the more common team sports such as basketball, softball, soccer, and the like, whereas, the inner city group indicated an interest in these activities.

The second part of the second question asked the respondent to indicate where he had learned of the desired activity. The source of learning about the desired activity as reported by the inner city boys, in order of preference, is as follows: television, school, location of participation, peers, siblings, books and magazines,
home and parents. The avenue of learning about the reported desired activity by the outer city boys, listed in order of prevalence is as follows: television, location of participation, peers, books and magazines, school, home, parents, and siblings. The means by which inner city girls became aware of the desired activity are as follows by order of preference: television, school, peers, siblings, books and magazines, parents, and location of participation. The sources indicated by outer city girls are as follows in order of preference: peers, television, books and magazines, location of participation, siblings, home, school and parents. The results of these tabulations are found in Table 17.

These results indicate the significant effect of television on the desired activity choices of all groups. The prevalence of this media would indicate a trend toward homogenization of desired activities except for the variety of sports and physical activity available on television. And, as will be demonstrated later in the chapter, personal participation in an activity serves as a strong influence on the choice of activity selected to watch.

Inner city girls again indicate a large amount of influence exerted by the school on their choices. The influence of the school is not as prevalent among the inner city boys, however, it does rank second with this group. The large amount of influence exerted by the school in determining desired activity choices of the inner city
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Learning</th>
<th>BOYS</th>
<th>GIRLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IC</td>
<td>OC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location of Participation</td>
<td>7 (12%)</td>
<td>12 (16%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television</td>
<td>24 (42%)</td>
<td>23 (32%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books and Magazines</td>
<td>4 (7%)</td>
<td>9 (12%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>8 (14%)</td>
<td>9 (12%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home</td>
<td>4 (7%)</td>
<td>4 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siblings</td>
<td>5 (9%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td>3 (4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peers</td>
<td>5 (9%)</td>
<td>12 (16%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
girls may indicate the rather limited environment, and, consequently,
 experiential opportunities which are available to this group. The
 influence of peers seems greater for the outer city respondents than
 the inner city (inner city girls - 21%; outer city girls - 33%; inner
 city boys - 9%; and, outer city boys - 16%). This finding appears to
differ from statements of authorities quoted in the second chapter
which indicate peer influence to be significantly greater among the
inner city than the outer city. 27 At least within the realm of desired
physical activity, this does not appear to be the case, particularly
as far as girls are concerned. In summary, the strongest influence
for both inner city boys and girls are television and the school; for
outer city boys, television, peers and location of participation; for
outer city girls, peers and television.

The final part of the second question asked for reasons for
selecting the desired activity. Again, the leading reason for all
four groups was that it "looks like fun." After this predominate
reason, the others were numerous and varied. Only those reasons
selected by three or more are listed in the text. Table 18 presents
a listing of slightly greater detail. Those reasons given by the inner
city boys in order of preference are as follows: fun; exciting; rough;

27 Passow, op. cit., p. 183; Wilson, op. cit., p. 233;
Tannenbaum, op. cit., p. 53.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REASON</th>
<th>BOYS</th>
<th></th>
<th>GIRLS</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IC</td>
<td>OC</td>
<td>IC</td>
<td>OC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sounds like fun</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exciting</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calls for good physical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>condition</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rough</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Like related activity</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demands skill, challenging</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dangerous, daring</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test strength against others</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-competition</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual well-skilled</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
likes related activity; test strength against others; speed; demands skill, challenging; and, interesting. Those reasons given by outer city male respondents in order of preference are as follows: fun; speed; calls for good physical condition; rough; exciting; like related activity; demands skill, challenging; dangerous, daring; different; interesting; and, action.

Following "fun," the inner city boys indicated "exciting" and "rough" to be the most prevalent reasons for selecting an activity; but the outer city boys, following "fun" selected "speed" and "calls for good physical condition" to be the most prevalent reasons. The difference in numbers of the two groups in selecting "calls for good physical condition" may again relate to the middle class boy's desire to prove his masculinity whereas the inner city boy may prove his manhood in other ways. The outer city male respondents' reasons appear to group themselves into general categories to a greater extent than the inner city boys, and, thereby, indicate greater consensus as the appealing elements of an activity.

Both groups of girls in the study indicated "sounds like fun" to be the predominant reason for selecting the activity. The other reasons given by the inner city girls in order of preference are as follows: sounds exciting; likes related activity; new activity, different; demands skill; dangerous, daring; looks easy; and, interesting.

Those reasons following "fun," listed by the outer city girls are as
follows in order of preference: sounds exciting; likes related activity; challenging; new activity, different; takes skill; and, likes the out of doors. These two groups of girls indicated the same rank order of reasons for the first five reasons with the exception of "challenging." Challenging was a reason given by nine outer city girls but not a single inner city respondent mentioned it. This discrepancy may reflect the outer city characteristics of seeking to excel or achieve, and, in this connotation, actually seeking new channels as means of challenging the individual. The inner city individual may be less secure, and, therefore, not be able to undertake activity which presents a challenge. This may be further indicated by the inner city selection of "looks easy" by three female respondents, whereas, this selection was not made by any outer city girls. In summary, it may be stated that a rather comparable choice of reasons were offered by the two groups of girls, at least as far as the most prevalent reasons are concerned. However, the two groups of boys presented much more diversity of choice in respect to the most often selected reason.

**Favorite sport to watch in person**

The third question of the questionnaire asked the respondent to list the physical activity he preferred to watch in person. The activities listed by the inner city boys in order of preference are as follows: football, basketball, baseball, auto racing and others.
Those activities listed by outer city boys in order of preference are as follows: football, baseball, basketball, auto racing, hockey, track, boxing, bowling, wrestling, and others. Two outer city respondents and one inner city respondent indicated they did not like to watch physical activity. Although the first four choices include the larger percentage of boys in each group and these first four choices are similar in relative ranking, the outer city boys indicate a larger variety of activities that they enjoy watching. All respondents but four of the inner city group chose one of the first four listed activities as their preference. In addition, the sport selected to watch in person was compared to the other responses of the individual and the inner city boys indicated that 79 percent selected activities they had listed as having played, liked to play, or desire to play.

By contrast, only 51 percent of the outer city respondents mentioned activities they had listed in these other categories. These two findings may indicate that the outer city male respondent has had a wider introduction to sports activities and that inner city males particularly like to watch activities with which they are familiar.

The activities selected as those preferred to watch by the inner city girls are as follows in order of indicated preference: basketball, baseball, football, wrestling and others. Those indicated as preferred to watch by the outer city girls are as follows in order of indicated preference: football, basketball, baseball, wrestling, horse
racing, swimming, skiing, track and tennis and others. Again, the outer city group indicates greater diversity in sports that they prefer to watch. Although both groups largest numbers select one of the first four choices, the choices for the remaining sports are 33 percent of the outer city but only 16 percent of the inner city girls. This finding may indicate, again, a relatively narrow range of exposure to various sports activities to be viewed in person by the inner city sample. A summary of these tabulations are presented in Table 19.

The reasons offered for selection of the sport best liked to watch in person substantiates the conclusion that the inner city male prefers to watch the activity he plays. The reasons given by three or more of the inner city boys are as follows in order of their prevalence: like to play it; exciting; fun; rough; action; like to see good plays; improve own skills by watching; don't know and others. Those selected by the outer city male sample are as follows listed in accordance with their prevalence: action, fun; exciting; interesting; fast; rough; like to play it; understand it; don't know; and, others. It may be generally stated that outer city males choose their physical activity to watch in person on the basis of characteristics intrinsic to the activity such as rough, fast, action and exciting, whereas, the inner city males tend to select their preferred activity to watch on the basis of the sport's relationship to their own experiences. Of course, intrinsic characteristics of the activity are
also important to the inner city boy, but the relationship of the sport
to his own experience appears somewhat greater for this group.

Reasons given by the inner city female sample are as follows in order
of indicated prevalence: fun, like it; like to play it; exciting; action;
interesting; competition; understand it; improve skill by watching;
rough; no reason and others. Those reasons given by the outer city
female sample are as follows: exciting; fun, like it; like to play it;
action; understand it; improve own skill by watching; interesting; go
with friends; like to cheer; no reason and others. The reasons given
by each group are largely comparable in ranking although "like to
play it" is indicated by a larger number of inner city girls than by
outer city girls and is ranked second by the former and third by the
latter.

**TABLE 19**

**ACTIVITIES PREFERRED TO WATCH IN PERSON**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>IC</th>
<th>OC</th>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>IC</th>
<th>OC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N=56</td>
<td>N=70</td>
<td></td>
<td>N=67</td>
<td>N=75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Football</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auto racing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Wrestling</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hockey</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Horse racing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Track</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Skiing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bowling</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Track</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrestling</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't like to watch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In summary, it may be stated that both inner city groups indicate less diversity than outer city groups in selecting activity to watch in person. The inner city groups tend to select activities to watch that they have experienced themselves to a greater degree than outer city groups. Tabulation of these reasons can be found in Table 20.

**Favorite sport or physical activity to watch on television**

The fourth question asked on the questionnaire was "what is your favorite sport or physical activity to watch on television"? In response to this question, inner city males tended to report fewer activities (11) than outer city males (17), inner city females (17), or, outer city females (18). If this choice is also related to participation patterns, then the reason for less variety becomes readily apparent. The sports listed as preferred to watch on television by the inner city male sample are as follows in order of prevalence: football, basketball, baseball, roller derby, boxing and others. Three respondents indicated they didn't like to watch sport on television. The sports listed by the male outer city sample in order of prevalence are as follows: football, baseball, basketball, auto racing, hockey, wrestling, golf, skiing, and others. Two respondents of this sample indicated they did not like to watch sport on television.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REASON</th>
<th>BOYS</th>
<th>GIRLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IC</td>
<td>OC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Like to play it</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exciting</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rough</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Like to see good plays</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improve own skills by</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>watching others</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand it</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requires fast thinking</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The difference reported by the two male groups for watching football (inner city - 34%; outer city - 42%) may be partially explained again by the outer city boy's desire to identify with a sport which epitomizes those characteristics of "maleness" as they are defined by our society. The relatively large number of inner city respondents (34%) who indicate a preference for basketball as compared to only eight percent of the outer city respondents may again reflect the desire of the inner city boy to watch an activity with which he is familiar.

Those sports mentioned by the inner city female sample are as follows in order of apparent preference: basketball, football, roller derby, baseball, wrestling, skiing, swimming, dancing and Olympic Games. One respondent of this group indicated she did not like to watch sport on television. The sports listed by the outer city female sample are as follows in order of prevalence: basketball, football, baseball, skiing, auto racing, roller derby, wrestling, swimming, dancing, ice skating, bowling and horse racing. Three respondents of this group indicated they didn't like to watch sports on television. The largest numbers of both groups of girls tended toward basketball and football, in that order. The outer city group may indicate somewhat greater diversity in selection of activity to watch on television. A list of these activities is presented in Table 21.
TABLE 21
SPORT PREFERRED TO WATCH ON TELEVISION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>IC N=56</th>
<th>OC N=69</th>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>IC N=64</th>
<th>OC N=74</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Football</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auto racing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Skiing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hockey</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Roller derby</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrestling</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Wrestling</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roller derby</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Auto racing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golf</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Dancing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skiing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Olympic Games</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ice skating</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't like to watch sports on television</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bowling</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse racing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't like to watch sports on television</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reasons given for selection of the specific sport to watch on television are quite varied. Therefore, only those reasons indicated by three or more of each group will be listed here. These reasons are presented in Table 22. The inner city male sample gave the following reasons for the television selection, listed in order of prevalence: participate in the sport; fun; action; exciting; improve skill by watching; rough, physical contact; speed and others. Those reasons mentioned by the outer city male sample are as follows, in
### TABLE 22

**REASONS GIVEN FOR SPORT PREFERRED TO WATCH ON TELEVISION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REASON</th>
<th>BOYS</th>
<th>GIRLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IC</td>
<td>OC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate in the sport</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exciting</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improve skill by watching</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rough, physical contact</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camera gets good shots</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requires skill</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other sports boring to watch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand it</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amusing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response given</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other reasons</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No reason given</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Other reasons**

No response given
order of apparent preference: action; participate in the sport; fun; exciting; rough, physical contact; camera gets good shots; requires skill; other sports are boring to watch. No reason was given by two respondents of the inner city and three respondents of the outer city.

The inner city sample (34%) again lists his own participation as a primary factor in selecting the activity although the outer city sample (19%) also indicates participation to be a primary reason. The first four reasons selected by each of these groups are comparable. This writer can discern no noticeable trends or tendencies peculiar to either group other than the larger percent of the inner city which lists individual participation as a factor.

The primary reasons given for selection of the particular sport by both female groups are as follows: like the sport, it's fun; exciting; like to play the sport. Other reasons advanced by the inner city female sample are as follows in order of relative preference: rough; understand it; improve own skill by watching; fast, action; requires skill and endurance; can see what is happening; and, would like to learn the sport. In addition to the first three reasons mentioned before, the following reasons were stated by the female outer city sample in order of preference: understand it; challenging; fast, action; improve own skill by watching others; requires skill and endurance; rough; like related activity; would like to learn the activity; and interesting. Most of the reasons given by the two female samples
are relatively equal in frequency. One that may not be is that of "challenging." Again the inner city female sample does not indicate any choice for this characteristic but the outer city female sample indicates five choices for it. This discrepancy may reflect differences between the groups which were discussed in a previous section. "Like to play the sport" and "rough" were both selected more frequently by the inner city female sample. However, aside from these last three items mentioned, very little variance appears to exist between the groups in regard to reasons for selection of a preferred sport to watch on television.

Participation in organized physical activity

The fifth and final question of the questionnaire asked the respondent if he had ever played on a sports team or participated in physical activity with an organized group other than his own gym class. The answers of the male samples indicated approximately equal numbers of each group who have not participated in the described activity: inner city - 23 (38%); outer city - 23 (33%). The female samples indicated a greater difference but not significantly so: inner city - 55 (81%); outer city - 52 (70%). These percentages do not indicate a significant difference between the outer city and inner city groups that were compared. However, it is significant to note the great discrepancy between both female groups and both
male groups. It is widely acknowledged that fewer opportunities exist for females to participate in organized physical activity and these findings tend to uphold this idea.

The second part of the fifth question asked the respondent to list the activities in which he has participated. These activities are listed in Table 23. Those activities listed most often by the male inner city sample are as follows: baseball (16); basketball (16); football (14); track (7); soccer (4); and one each in golf, swimming, weight lifting and wrestling. The activities listed by the outer city male sample are as follows: baseball (31); football (13); basketball (12); track (12); soccer (8); swimming, (5); bowling (4); golf (3); softball (2) and tennis (1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>BOYS</th>
<th>GIRLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Track*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball*</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Softball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Bowling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Track*</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Volleyball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer*</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Cheerleading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Horseback riding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golf</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>and jumping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Softball</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Basketball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Swimming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight lifting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Kickball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrestling*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Gymnastics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Indicates sport in which interscholastic competition is provided by the school system.
The overwhelming prevalence of baseball experience among the outer city sample may be the result of a wide variety of little league groups organized in this city. In some groups, the individuals try out for a team and are selected on the basis of skill or ability. Those selected individuals are the only ones who participate. However, in other groups, all the boys who come out for the team and stay with it are made members of the team, and, thus, used in some capacity each game. This latter type of organization is more prevalent in this city's suburbs and outer city areas but it is impossible to determine if this was the type of organization common to the outer city areas of this study. The sports of soccer, basketball, wrestling and track are organized for interscholastic competition in this school district. Inner city respondents indicate slightly greater participation in basketball; football participation appears to be about equal and the outer city respondents indicate greater participation in soccer and track. The activities which are often referred to as class related: golf, swimming and tennis, indicate slightly higher participation rates for the outer city sample. Certain of the schools in the sample provide a school bowling team but this is paid for by the individual student. Bowling indicates a greater participation rate among outer city than inner city respondents.
The activities listed by the inner city female sample were as follows: track (5); softball (5); and one each for volleyball, swimming, bowling and basketball. Those listed by the outer city female respondents were as follows: track (6); bowling (5); softball (5); volleyball (3); horseback riding and jumping (3); cheerleading (3); basketball (2); and one participant each in gymnastics, kickball and swimming. The school system provides interscholastic competition for girls in track by providing one all city track meet per year. With the possible exception of gymnastics, horseback riding and jumping, and bowling, the differences between the two groups do not appear to be class related as much as they effect differences in numbers of individuals who participate in each area.

The third part of the fifth question asked the respondents to name the sponsoring organization. Since this writer was unfamiliar with specific names, the classifications which resulted are fairly broad. The results of this tabulation are found in Table 24. Analysis of the two male groups indicated the following: school - inner city (11), outer city (16); Y.M.C.A. - inner city (4), outer city (1); church - inner city (6), outer city (6); other community groups - inner city (29), outer city (35); and, private organizations - inner city (0), outer city (2). The difference between sponsoring organizations of the two samples does not appear significant.
TABLE 24

ORGANIZATIONS SPONSORING ORGANIZED PHYSICAL ACTIVITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Y.M.C.A.</th>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Church</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Private</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BOYS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inner city</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer city</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GIRLS</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner city</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer city</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis of the sponsoring organizations reported by the two female samples resulted in the following: school - inner city (6), outer city (13); Y.W.C.A. - inner city (1), outer city (2); church - inner city (2), outer city (3); other community groups - inner city (4), outer city (9); and, private organizations - inner city (0), outer city (3). The numbers did not indicate a significant difference among various sponsoring organizations.

The fourth part of question five asked the respondents to indicate how long they participated in the designated activity. The answers to this question were tabulated by the number of sports in
which the respondent participated and the number of years that he participated. The results of this tabulation for the male respondents are presented in Table 25.

The respondents who participated in one sport were quite equal in the two groups: inner city - 38%; and outer city - 31%. The percentage of respondents who participated in two sports indicated a slightly larger number for outer city boys: inner city - 10%; and outer city - 16%. The percentage of respondents who had participated in three sports again favored the outer city sample: inner city - 10%; outer city - 19%. Those respondents who reported participation in more than three sports are again fairly equal in the two groups: inner city - 2%; outer city 3%. Therefore, in summary, the inner city respondents have a higher percentage (38%) who have participated in one sport when compared to the outer city respondents (31%) but the outer city respondents (38%) indicate a larger percentage has participated in two or more sports than the inner city respondents (22%). These percentages are not statistically significant but they appear to indicate a trend toward a wider range of experiences for the outer city male respondent.

In addition, the number of respondents in each sample who reported participating in the same activity for three years or more was tabulated. The results of this computation are as follows: inner city - 11 (18%); outer city - 28 (40%). On the basis of these results
TABLE 25

REPORTED PARTICIPATION IN ORGANIZED PHYSICAL ACTIVITY OF INNER CITY BOYS AND OUTER CITY BOYS

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Inner city</th>
<th>Outer city</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NO PARTICIPATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Inner city</th>
<th>Outer city</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23 (38%)</td>
<td>23 (33%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PARTICIPATION IN ONE SPORT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of Participation</th>
<th>Inner city</th>
<th>Outer city</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 yr. or less</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 yrs. or more</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>23 (38%)</td>
<td>22 (31%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PARTICIPATION IN TWO SPORTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of Participation</th>
<th>Inner city</th>
<th>Outer city</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 yr. or less</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 yrs. or more</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7 (10%)</td>
<td>11 (16%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PARTICIPATION IN THREE SPORTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of Participation</th>
<th>Inner city</th>
<th>Outer city</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 yr. or less</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 yrs. or more</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6 (10%)</td>
<td>13 (19%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PARTICIPATION IN MORE THAN THREE SPORTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of Participation</th>
<th>Inner city</th>
<th>Outer city</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 yr. or less</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 yrs. or more</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>2 (3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
it seems appropriate to state that outer city male respondents report
greater participation in a larger number of sports as well as longer
duration of participation in one sport. This latter finding, the longer
duration of participation in a single sport, might indicate that the
outer city parents are more aware of the desirability of sports
participation than the inner city parents since respondents this young
are dependent to some degree upon adult direction in order to affiliate
themselves with a group.

The participation pattern for the female samples was tabulated
in the same manner but the sample numbers were much smaller.
Analysis of these data indicated that 55 (81%) of the inner city female
sample and 52 (70%) of the outer city female sample had not
participated in any organized physical activity. Of those respondents
who participated in one sport, 12 (18%) were from the inner city and
19, (25%), from the outer city. This trend continues with the number
of respondents who participated in two sports: inner city - 1 (1%);
outer city - 4 (5%). Only one female respondent reported participat-
ing in three sports and she was from the outer city sample.
Therefore, the female samples appeared to reflect the same trend
as did the male respondents. Results of this tabulation are presented
in Table 26.
**TABLE 26**

REPORTED PARTICIPATION IN ORGANIZED PHYSICAL ACTIVITY OF INNER CITY GIRLS AND OUTER CITY GIRLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner city - 68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer city - 74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO PARTICIPATION</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner city - 55 (81%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer city - 52 (70%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICIPATION IN ONE SPORT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of Participation</th>
<th>1 yr. or less</th>
<th>2 years</th>
<th>3 years</th>
<th>4 yrs. or more</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner city</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12 (18%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer city</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>19 (25%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICIPATION IN TWO SPORTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of Participation</th>
<th>1 yr. or less</th>
<th>2 years</th>
<th>3 years</th>
<th>4 years or more</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner city</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer city</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4 (5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICIPATION IN THREE OR MORE SPORTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of Participation</th>
<th>1 yr. or less</th>
<th>2 years</th>
<th>3 years</th>
<th>4 yrs. or more</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner city</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer city</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In addition, the percentage of females who reported participation in one activity for three years or more is as follows:
in inner city - 5 (7%); outer city - 11 (15%). Therefore, it can be stated that female inner city and outer city respondents reflect the same trends and tendencies as their male counterparts.

In summary, on the basis of these data, it may be stated that participation in organized physical activity of inner city and outer city ninth grade students does differ, both in the duration of time and the number of activities in which they participate, as well as the number of years during which they experience the same activity. For boys, the number of outer city respondents which have participated in baseball is noticeably greater than the number of inner city participants. With the exception of baseball, the activities of participation do not appear to vary noticeably between the two samples. For girls, two activities of greatest participation are similar for the two groups but of the other eight activities listed, four of these are not mentioned by the inner city group.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study was designed as an exploratory effort to provide
descriptive and comparative data related to social attitudes in games
and sports participation of inner city and outer city junior high school
students; and, secondly, to provide descriptive and comparative data
related to interests and participation in physical activity of these two
groups. The study was undertaken to gain insight into subcultural
differences in attitudes, preferences and experiences as reflected by
residence and/or location of school.

The subjects of the study were all residents of an industrial
city in Northeastern Ohio. The four sample schools were randomly
selected from those schools classified as inner city and outer city by
the Board of Education of this city. The subjects within each school
were randomly selected by class whole and were representative of
the ninth grade student population. Responses of students from the
two inner city schools were combined as were those from both outer
city schools in order to provide a single inner city sample and a
single outer city sample.
The Sportsmanship Attitude Scale, the Professionalization of Play Scale and a questionnaire developed by this investigator were the instruments used to gain the desired information. The investigator met with each group in the study and administered the instruments. The comparisons between inner city and outer city students were on the basis of the results reported by these instruments.

Three main hypotheses were tested in connection with sportsmanship and play attitudes and several sub-hypotheses were considered in relation to play styles, preferences and participation. On the basis of the results of this study the following findings are reported:

1. There was no location of school difference apparent on the Sportsmanship Attitude Scale when the sexes were combined. However, a significant difference was found between the inner city and outer city females when the sexes were compared separately. There was no significant difference between the males of the two groups.

2. The respondents of the inner city sample reported significantly less professionalization of play attitudes than respondents of the outer city sample. In both samples, girls reported less professionalization of play attitudes than the boys.
3. Correlation coefficients of the Sportsmanship Attitude Scale and the Professionalization of Play Scale are low but statistically significant for all but the inner city boys. However, the low coefficients of determination indicate relatively low predictive variance of these two instruments.

4. There appears to be a noticeable difference between inner and outer city ninth grade students in various aspects of their activity preferences and participation patterns.

Findings related to the sub-hypotheses regarding play styles, preferences and participation are as follows:

1. Results indicate a location of school difference in selection of preferred activities. The inner city students seem to prefer team sports to a greater extent than outer city students and the two groups appear to differ in preference for activities within the categories of team and individual sports.

2. Results indicate that noticeable differences do exist between inner city and outer city groups in regard to learning sources of the preferred activity particularly in the categories of location of participation, school and parental influence. The school is the primary learning source for the inner city group but not the outer city group.
3. Reasons given by the two groups of the study for selection of the activity they prefer to participate in the most do not differ to a large extent and thereby indicate a large number of common elements which attract students of both groups to various physical activities.

4. No distinct trends could be determined by the data in regard to activities the respondents desired to try because of the variety of the selections. However, the tendency of inner city boys to prefer team sports appeared to decrease when compared to the question asking for activities in which they participated most often. The inner city girls preference for team sports as compared to individual sports remained but the difference between the inner city and outer city girls was reduced considerably.

5. Learning sources for activities that were desired varied between the two groups although television was a significant source for all groups.

6. A rather comparable choice of reasons for selection of the desired activity was offered by the two groups of girls but the two groups of boys presented much more diversity of choice in selection of their reasons.
7. The outer city group, both boys and girls, indicated greater diversity of sports they prefer to watch in person than did the inner city group. The inner city student is more likely to desire to watch an activity in which he participates.

8. The inner city male sample tended to indicate fewer activities than the other three groups in response to the question regarding preference for sports on television. The inner city male sample indicated greater frequency in selecting "participation in the activity" as a reason for watching the activity than did the other groups.

9. Participation in organized physical activity of inner city and outer city ninth grade students does differ. Outer city boys tend to participate in more activities for longer periods than do inner city boys but with the exception of baseball, the activities of participation do not appear to vary noticeably. The girls of the two samples appear to reflect the trends and tendencies of their male counterparts on a reduced scale. For girls, the two activities of greatest participation are similar for the two groups but following these activities, the inner city girls list less variety in sports participation than outer city girls.
Recommendations for Further Research

Relatively little systematic research has been conducted regarding sportsmanship attitudes of school children. It seems imperative that such research be designed if the profession of physical education is to continue to claim desirable social behavior as an objective.

Future research designs must be developed to investigate significant variables which contribute to the development of sportsmanship attitudes. This study focused on two, sex and location of school, and it was found these two variables exert nominal substantive influence on these attitudes. Other variables which may be investigated are family attitudes, family structure, and the influence of a particular coach or teacher.

In order to achieve deeper insight into attitude formation, this investigator suggests the combined techniques of scale or questionnaire administration and the interview. By means of the scale, the investigator may acquire initial information from which to conduct the interview which may provide important insights into the thought processes may provide valuable understandings of the bases fundamental to value formations of children. Answers to the questions may be less important to understanding the child than are the reasons underlying the answers. Perhaps an investigation of the reasons for
the recorded response could reveal a differential basis from which various groups of children such as inner city or outer city draw their conclusions as to appropriate behavior.

Another important approach which has been somewhat neglected is the longitudinal study of the same subjects from grade school through high school in order to gain information related to maturation and sportsmanship. Although studies have been conducted on subjects at different age levels this procedure fails to fully identify the maturation effect on these attitudes since the various groups could have experienced different influences which altered their attitudes. This approach would necessitate the construction of a standardized test battery for measuring sportsmanship attitudes at all educational levels.

Following investigation of how and when sportsmanship attitudes are acquired in the developmental process, study can be made to determine how existing sportsmanship attitudes may be effectively modified and the role the public education program can play in this process.

Another area needing attention of further research is the construction of attitude scales themselves. It is recognized that this area of endeavor is a difficult one and efforts in this direction are frequently frustrated. However, the results of this study may suggest that sportsmanship attitudes may not be a singular concept
but, rather, a multiplicity of constituent parts all related to an ideal of "sportsmanship." In order to investigate this possibility it could be valuable to construct a questionnaire with specific categories defined and then determine if there is a high degree of correlation between the categories. Perhaps investigators are combining components which they conceive to be aspects of the singular concept, sportsmanship, but which are not viewed as such by the respondents.

In addition to investigating the various dimensions of sportsmanship it may prove interesting to compare responses from a sportsmanship attitude scale and a general ethics scale in order to determine if sportsmanship attitudes are specific or are related to an individual's general ethical posture.

The relationship between sportsmanship attitudes and sportsmanlike behavior should be investigated. Again, perhaps the interview may help uncover significant influences. Investigation of the factor of specificity may be undertaken to determine if the conditions of the event or competitive activity influence the sportsmanship attitudes reported immediately prior to or following the activity.

Investigation of sportsmanship attitudes provides a challenging and provocative area for research in the field of physical education which to date has only been minimally explored.
To the student:

This is a study to determine how junior high students feel about playing in sports and games. No one from your school will see these papers. There are no right or wrong answers. The best answer is the way you really feel about an item. Please read the directions for each section carefully and answer every item.

School

Sex (circle one)  Boy  Girl

Age

SECTION I

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

Please complete every item.

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

STRONGLY APPROVE  STRONGLY DISAPPROVE

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

STRONGLY APPROVE  STRONGLY DISAPPROVE

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

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

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

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

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

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

7. During a basketball game the coach of the losing team yelled that the officials had been "paid off" by the opposing team.
8. A baseball coach acted as referee for an important game and called in favor of his team.

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

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

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

12. A baseball coach cursed loudly after a runner was called out at first base.

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

14. At a basketball game, students in a balcony spat on the opposing team and coach.
15. A basketball coach went onto the court and shook an official who had called fouls against his team.

STRONGLY APPROVE APPROVE DISAPPROVE DISAPPROVE

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

STRONGLY APPROVE APPROVE DISAPPROVE DISAPPROVE

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

STRONGLY APPROVE APPROVE DISAPPROVE DISAPPROVE

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

STRONGLY APPROVE APPROVE DISAPPROVE DISAPPROVE

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

STRONGLY APPROVE APPROVE DISAPPROVE DISAPPROVE

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

STRONGLY APPROVE APPROVE DISAPPROVE DISAPPROVE

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

STRONGLY APPROVE APPROVE DISAPPROVE DISAPPROVE
SECTION II

What do you think is the most important in playing a game?

Number the items below from 1 to 3, starting with the one you think is most important (1), and finishing with the one you think is the least important (3).

_________ to play as well as you are able
_________ to beat your opponent
_________ to play it fairly

SECTION III

DIRECTIONS: Please answer according to your own experience. Be sure to mark each question.

1. What sport or activity do you like to play the most? Consider all types of physical activity including bicycling, dancing, etc. Write in the activity you like to do the most._________________

Where did you learn to do this activity?_________________

Why do you like to do this most?_________________

2. If you had a chance, what sport or activity would you like to try most of all, even though you may never have played it before?_________________

Where did you learn about this activity?_________________

Why would you like to try this most?_________________
3. What is your favorite sport to watch in person?______________

Why is this your favorite choice?____________________________________

4. What is your favorite sport or physical activity to watch on television?________________________

Why is this your favorite choice?____________________________________

5. Have you ever played on a sports team or participated in physical activity with an organized group other than school gym class?  Yes___ No___

What activity?_____________________________________________________

What organization or group sponsored it?______________________________

How long did you take part in this activity? (how many seasons, months, years)________________________
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SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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