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THE COMPARISON OF MORAL REASONING WITHIN SIMILAR  
SPORT AND SOCIAL CONTEXTS

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A Dissertation  
Presented to  
the Graduate School of  
Clemson University

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In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctor of Philosophy  
Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management

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by  
Gail Linda Orem  
May 2020

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Accepted by:  
Dr. Skye Arthur-Banning, Committee Chair  
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Dr. Patrick Gerard  
Dr. Gregory Ramshaw

## ABSTRACT

An important part of the University is to transmit the values of society. Recently, there has been advocacy for higher education to be more accountable in providing avenues for moral development of students. Sport has become one avenue that was put forth as a setting for such moral development. Literature though has been discouraging in the use of sport for moral reasoning. Most of the research, has been focused on varsity level sport. With the focus on higher profile sports, there are many levels of sport within the University that have been overlooked, including club sport. The purpose of this project is to explore if a club sport athlete's moral reasoning in sport situations has a relationship to their moral reasoning in daily life situations.

As in past literature, this research sought to compare moral reasoning in and out of the sport setting. The moral reasoning in sport instrument most commonly utilized, the HBVCI, contains everyday sport scenarios for a respondent to consider. In the interest of providing a comparable instrument that contained daily life everyday scenarios, a new instrument, the DLMD, was constructed to contain daily life situations similar to each of the HBVCI's sport scenarios.

With the use of the HBVCI and the newly constructed DLMD, the findings suggest that the longer an individual participates in club sport, the higher their moral reasoning. This is contradictory to the majority of the research within collegiate varsity sport. With this finding, this dissertation also introduced a framework for explaining that club sport may have a different effect on individual's moral reasoning, potentially due to its democratic setting.

## DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my daughters Paralee and Graciela. I am so happy you came into my life during this process. You give me purpose.

This work was completed in memory of Wayne “Uncle Wayne” Hartin. You were a bright light in this life. You are greatly missed.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The path toward the completion of this dissertation has been circuitous. Its completion is thanks in large part to the individuals who challenged, supported, and stuck with me during the time. It would be impossible for me to mention all of the people who guided me along the way.

I would first like to thank my committee. Dr. Skye Arthur-Banning (Committee Chair) I am beyond grateful for your expertise, commitment, and extreme patience. Without your constant belief in my abilities I could not have finished this arduous task. My committee members, Dr. Robert Barcelona, Dr. Patrick Gerard, and Dr. Gregory Ramshaw, provided tremendous guidance throughout the process.

There are so many people who have helped on this path, I am grateful for you all. I would like to mention two in particular. Dr. Lynne Corey and Dr. Jenna Tedesco, thank you both for being a constant encouraging and supportive ear to talk to when I needed one.

Finally, I would like to thank my family. Mom and Dad, you provided me consistent encouragement and support through the process, more than I should have ever asked. Paralee and Graciela, thank you for giving me the purpose to finish this project. I love you more than you will ever know. I would do anything for you.

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## Chapter I

### **Introduction**

American universities were originally established with some form of moral education as a main objective; today most of these universities still currently support a mission that includes some aspect of moral development, such as preparing students for citizenship and social responsibility, moral leadership and character development (Chickering, 2010; Ehrlich, 2000; Hughes & McCabe, 2006; Reuben, 1996). Recently, the increasing number of publicized ethical scandals has motivated schools to take a more critical look at their role in the ethical development of students (Schmidt, McAdams, & Foster, 2009). For example, there is the recent fallout from the discovery of fake classes being taken by athletes at University of North Carolina (UNC) over nearly two decades, with the knowledge of various employees, to keep numerous student-athletes eligible to compete. Researchers have realized, as moral decisions in society are becoming more complicated, it is important for students to have a more comprehensive moral education to handle future complex moral decisions (Rest, 1979a).

There have been several national reports on higher education that have appealed to colleges and universities to take more responsibility in providing moral education to college students (Mayhew & King, 2008). In 1997 the US National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges called for significant improvements in the standards of “developing character, conscience, citizenship, tolerance, civility, and individual and social responsibility in our students” (p.12). In the 1998 Amendments to the Higher Education Act of 1965, the US Congress voted to “support and encourage

character building initiatives in schools across America and urged colleges and universities to affirm the development of character as one of the primary goals of higher education” (US Department of Education, 1998). In 2002, the Association of American Colleges and Universities (2002) pushed the topic of ethical and democratic education by stressing the need for college graduates who could meet the challenge of ‘maintaining the integrity of a democratic society’ (p.xii). They also called for higher education institutions to provide environments that:

...foster intellectual honesty, responsibility for society’s moral health and for social justices, active participation as a citizen of a diverse democracy, discernment of the ethical consequences of decisions and action and a deep understanding of one’s self and respect for the complex identities of others, their histories and their cultures. (p. xii)

Initially, during this push for moral education in colleges and universities, some researchers argued that ethics could not be taught at the university level because they believed one of three things 1) college age was too late and character development had already occurred; 2) ethics could not or should not be taught in this sort of environment, or 3) faculty were not prepared to teach it (Bebeau, 2002; Cragg 1997). These ideas have weakened, and scholars have begun to believe that although moral values may be established by college age, the ability to rationally consider decision options can be taught (Churchill, 1982). Past research has established that individuals naturally develop through life, including into, and throughout adulthood. This suggests that individuals can

naturally become more mature in their moral reasoning as they get older (Colby, Kohlberg, Gibbs, & Lieberman, 1983). It is further believed that this cognitive-moral development can be sped up through supplementary ethics training including a variety of enriched and stimulating experiences found within educational systems (Schlaefli, Rest, & Thoma, 1985). With this belief that ethical decision making can be taught well into adulthood, it is worth exploring the effectiveness of programming at different ages and within differing environments (Ritter, 2006).

Longitudinal studies have shown that education plays a significant role in the development of moral reasoning (Brownlee, Walker, Wallace, Johansson & Scholes, 2019; Lind, 2002). Further, research suggests that different moral environments, including educational settings, can have an influence on moral reasoning development (Higgins, Power, & Kohlberg, 1984, Kohlberg, 1976). Higgins, Power, and Kohlberg (1984) found that the moral reasoning of individuals in a democratic education setting were higher than individuals in a traditionally governed educational setting. They attribute this difference to the democratic schools' ability to put socio-moral decision making in the hands of students. They further suggest that the best way to approach moral education within any setting is to reform the moral environment in which decisions are made. Even though schools cannot force students to participate in practices that encourage certain behaviors, they need to create conditions, through policies and procedures, that are designed to encourage moral behavior development (Kuh, 1995).

Similarly, research, in the classroom setting, has shown that different classroom environments can influence moral development. For example, an emphasis on diversity

in the classroom and curriculum at the college level has been suggested to aid in the development of students' capacities for social, personal, and ethical responsibility (Engberg & Porter, 2013). There are also many other areas in the educational experience, outside the classroom, which can be utilized for teaching ethical decision-making. Astin (1984) and Kuh (1993) discovered that student experiences outside the classroom contribute significantly to personal development, including an individual's moral development. For example, participation in extracurricular activities, student government, living in a campus residence, conversations with faculty and peer, volunteerism, and on campus jobs have been suggested to influence student learning and personal development (Kuh, 1995).

As higher education has recognized that participation in these activities influence student learning and development, these advances can vary among students (Ewing, Bruce, & Ricketts, 2009; Rubin, Bommer, & Baldwin, 2002). From their study of college outcomes research, Pascarella and Terenzini observed that "not all students benefit equally from the same experience"(1991, p. 634) and expressed a need for more studies to explore whether student and educational characteristics mediate the impact of college. This type of research is vital, as Ewell writes (1988, p. 70), "to provide evidence of reliable linkages between desired outcomes and particular manipulable aspects of the [college experience]". In the interest of providing moral development outcomes, it is valuable for all students, to assess, recognize and understand the effectiveness that university policies and procedures have on fostering such development. Participation in activities outside the classroom, including recreational sport, is an area where

administrators need to obtain a better awareness of the developmental impacts made on students (Barcelona & Ross, 2002). Many researchers and administrators question what use sport has in a university setting. To answer this question, it is imperative to understand the impacts sport can have on students.

During the past two decades, as administrators have questioned the use of sport at the university level, there has been a shift in the sporting culture. Due to recent budget cuts, sport administrators have had growing concerns about spending money on college sports programs that do not generate a profit and lose money (Chressanthis & Grimes, 1993). These concerns have compelled collegiate athletic departments to cut non-revenue varsity programs. These programs typically become competitive club sport programs organized in the recreation or student affairs departments. This level of recreational sport gives the participants responsibility, shifting the sporting culture from administrator control, common in varsity athletics, to greater participant control. Even with this recent changing atmosphere in collegiate sport, most of the present research related to the students' benefit or detriment from sport comes from varsity collegiate athletics. Since students may have different experiences and outcomes dependent upon the various environments found within college sport, different types of college athletics such as club sport environments need to be considered before making generalizations about benefits or harms of sport in universities (Jackovic, 1999).

As the recreational sport culture becomes more prominent at the university level, it is important to investigate the effects that these recreational sports can have on students' moral development and reasoning. Exploring the outcomes of participation will

help to support the existence of recreational sport programs at the university level as well as provide administrators with beneficial information on ways to provide optimal programming for students (Barcelona, 2002). This sort of research can lead to a better understanding of the conditions under which certain values do or do not develop. For example, the specific sport alone does not influence an individual's values; instead there are numerous factors in the sport setting as a whole that influence an individual's moral development. Shields and Bredemeier's (1995) commented on the effect of sport atmosphere:

... the quality of the sport experience is what matters. The quality derives from the quality of the leadership, the structural qualities of the sport itself, the social milieu in which it occurs, and the characteristics of the participants, to name only the most salient factors (p. 221).

In other words, influences from sport do not come from the sport itself but from the total sport experience, including a combination of social interactions and physical activities (Trulson, 1986).

If programmed properly, one cannot overlook the capability that sport has for playing a part in the moral education of an individual. Many aspects of sport can help in the encouragement of values such as fair play, cooperation, selflessness, and appreciation for others, although there is the possibility for opposing values to be conveyed (Eitzen, 2016). Sport provides many decision provoking situations, including both moral and technical demands (Aggerholm, 2017; Arnold, 1968; Weiss & Bredemeier, 1990).

Every sport situation requires the participant to make a decision on how he/she will react to the situation (Beller & Stoll, 2004). In order to react ethically, the participant should not only know the rules, but also have an appreciation of the ethical principles on which these rules are based (Beller & Stoll, 2004). The individual athletes involved must have the opportunity to make decisions, rather than transferring responsibility to coaches or officials (Booth, 1982; Piaget, 1932; Jantz, 1975). To embrace a developmental perspective, an individual must understand that morally positive outcomes of sport participation do not emerge involuntarily but rather must be nurtured (Weiss, Smith, & Stuntz, 2008).

As it is important to understand what nurtures positive ethical decision making in sport situations, it is equally imperative to understand if and how this influences daily life moral reasoning, outside of sport. Sport is often seen as separate from daily life. Sport follows Huizinga's (1955) theory of play. He suggests that play is set apart from everyday life in two ways, spatially, occurs within specific boundaries, and temporally, has a definite beginning and end. For example, a baseball game has specific rules which guide how the play is performed, where the play is performed. In addition, authority figures, for example referees, are responsible for maintaining the rules (Camiré & Trudel, 2010). And a baseball game has a definite beginning, the first pitch and a definite end, counted in innings.

Role engulfment is an example of this disconnect from daily life. As an individual becomes more committed to their role while in sport, it becomes increasingly separate from their roles that take place outside of sport (Adler & Adler, 1991). To



further illustrate the separation of sport and daily life Bredemeier and Shields (2001) suggested the idea of “bracketed morality.” Sport may provide a temporary release from the constant demand of considering the needs and desires of all persons. Sport is isolated from daily life both spatially and temporally to allow participants to concentrate on personal goals and neglect the interests of others (Bredemeier & Shields, 2001, Kavussanu, Boardley, Sagar, & Ring, 2013). The pursuit of victory alters moral values in sport (Allison, 1982; Beller & Stoll, 1995; De Waegeneer, & Willem, 2016). Consistently research has suggested that individuals tend to use lower moral reasoning in sport issues compared with moral reasoning in daily life dilemmas (Bredemeier & Shields, 1984, Bredemeier et. al., 1986). For example, in a study of badminton players, De Waegeneer and Willem (2016) found that name calling was accepted as fair play and morally allowed due to strategic play of the game. As one could agree, opposed to dealing with a daily moral life dilemma, name calling would not be seen as morally acceptable.

With the premise that sport is a “world within a world” (Huizinga, 1955), Bredemeier and Shields (1984) compared athlete’s moral reasoning responses in hypothetical sport dilemmas to their moral reasoning responses to hypothetical everyday life dilemmas. Their research suggested that some athletes, dependent on age and sport, elicited lower levels of moral reasoning in sport compared to everyday life contexts. Further research has supported this suggesting that athletes use separate moral systems in sport compared to daily life contexts (Adler & Adler, 1991; Bredemeier & Shields, 1984b, 1986b, 2001; Bredemeier, Shields, Weiss & Cooper, 1986; Hall, 1981; Kleiber &

Roberts, 1981). Stoll & Beller (1992) suggest that athletes' reason from a perspective of "What's important now", "What feels good", or "What someone else tells them is right and wrong." Even though there have been numerous studies suggesting that individuals moral reasoning differs between sport and everyday contexts, it is still not understood if influences on moral reasoning in sport are associated with different levels of moral reasoning in everyday moral reasoning. The probing questions that could be asked are; Can moral reasoning learned in sport transfer to daily life contexts? Do athletes that have higher moral reasoning in sport contexts also have higher moral reasoning in daily life contexts compared to other athletes? Does higher moral reasoning in hypothetical moral dilemmas sport contexts correspond to higher moral reasoning in similar hypothetical moral dilemma daily life situations?

### **Purpose of the Research Project**

The purpose of this project is to explore if an individual's moral reasoning in sport situations has a relationship to their moral reasoning in daily life situations. The effect of certain variables, e.g. type of sport, gender and year in school on this relationship was also investigated. Through the construction and further testing of a daily life moral dilemma instrument, an individual's moral reasoning in hypothetical moral dilemma sport contexts was compared to their moral reasoning in similar hypothetical moral dilemma daily life situations.

## **Justification of Study**

Higher education has the function of maintaining and transmitting the values of society, the most fundamental of those values are arguably moral values (Kohlberg, 1981). As such, most American colleges currently support a mission that includes some aspect of moral development (Ehrlich 2000). Recently, with the increasing number of publicized ethical scandals, there have been calls for universities and colleges to assess the learning process and outcomes a student gains from his/her education. Schools have been compelled to take a critical look at their mission to transmit moral values to their students, in all aspects of the educational experience (Schmidt et al., 2009). With the changing dynamics in student life, institutions must reconsider the learning experience of the college student. Two examples are the position papers titled *Learning Reconsidered* written in 2004 and 2007. The collaborators set forth a new definition of the learning process as “a comprehensive, holistic, transformative activity that integrates academic learning and student development” (Keeling, 2004, p. 2).

*Learning Reconsidered* suggests that universities must alter their focus from transferring information to the development of identity. They suggest this can be accomplished through a new form of learning, transformational learning. It is defined as, “learning, as it has historically been understood, is included in a much larger context that requires consideration of what students know, who they are, what their values and behavior patterns are, and how they see themselves contributing to and participating in the world in which they live” (Keeling, 2004, p 9). All aspects of student life can take part in the process of transformational learning. Therefore, every resource of higher

education should be utilized to support the student's learning process (Keeling, 2004, p 9).

Since it has been suggested that there is no single area of a student's life that is solely responsible for student development, institutions must take into account a student's component parts: body, mind, and spirit, when assessing the learning process (Keeling, 2004). Academic affairs have the ability to develop a student's intellect, whereas student affairs can nurture the body, emotions, and spirit of a student (Keeling, 2004). Student affairs' departments provide extracurricular activities including student recreation, social clubs, and professional development programs that foster further development of students. It is of great importance to understand the ability of these "outside the classroom" experiences to affect the development of the student. In addition, it is valuable to gain knowledge about the optimal way to administer or manage these activities to maximize student development.

With respect to participation in university sport's impact on student development, most of the research has focused on NCAA sport. With the recent rise in club sports at the collegiate level it is important to understand the outcomes from student participation at this level of recreational sport. As mentioned above NCAA varsity sports have different administration and governing structures than collegiate club sports. These varying environments may create different experiences and outcomes for those that compete in club sport compared to NCAA varsity sport (Jackovic, 1999). With the differences in structure and lack of literature pertaining to club sports, it is important to research how club sports may have a different effect the development of a student. This

paper focuses on one aspect of student development, moral reasoning. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore if a club student-athlete's moral reasoning in sport situations had a relationship to their moral reasoning in daily life situations; and thus, aiding in filling the gap in collegiate club sport literature.

## Chapter II

### **METHODS**

#### **Design**

The primary purpose of this study was to develop and test a measure, “daily life dilemma scale”, to explore if there was a relationship between a club sport athlete’s moral reasoning in sport situations and their moral reasoning in similar daily life situations. This study contained two phases: the construction of the instrument and a field test of the measure with a larger, more representative sample of club sport athletes.

#### **Phase I: Construction of Instrument**

The “daily life dilemmas scale” was developed based on Churchill’s (1979), Gerbing and Anderson’s (1988), and Anderson and Gerbing’s (1988) guidelines, including confirmatory factor analysis and subsequent steps. The researcher constructed a daily life dilemma moral reasoning scale equivalent to a previously established and validated sport specific dilemmas moral reasoning scale. Since the current study pertained to athletes and sport specific dilemma interventions, the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (HBVCI) was selected as the foundation for the construction of the daily life moral reasoning scale. The HBVCI was created for, and has been consistently used, to measure moral reasoning within a sporting context (Beller & Stoll, 1992; Beller et al., 1996). The inventory reports at a 9<sup>th</sup> grade reading level and also established reliability from studies over the past 20 years, yielding internal consistency scores, Cronbach alphas, between .74 and .88 (University of Idaho Center of ETHICS\*, 2009).

The HBVCI is based upon three of the universal deontic codes of conduct: honesty, responsibility, and justice. Each of the three codes is represented by seven questions (for a total of 21 questions scored on a 5-point Likert scale). The range of scores on the HBVCI is 21-105. Scores in the higher range indicate an egocentric processing of moral dilemmas. The midpoint of the scale is 63, representing a moderate utilization of deontological principles in resolving ethical issues in sports. A lower value indicates that the individual aligns with a higher moral functioning level. The procedure used to develop the scale is summarized in Figure 1.1. Specifically, the proceeding steps were followed: 1) Specify domain of construct, 2) Generate sample items, 3) Data collection and item purification, 4) Assess reliability and validity.

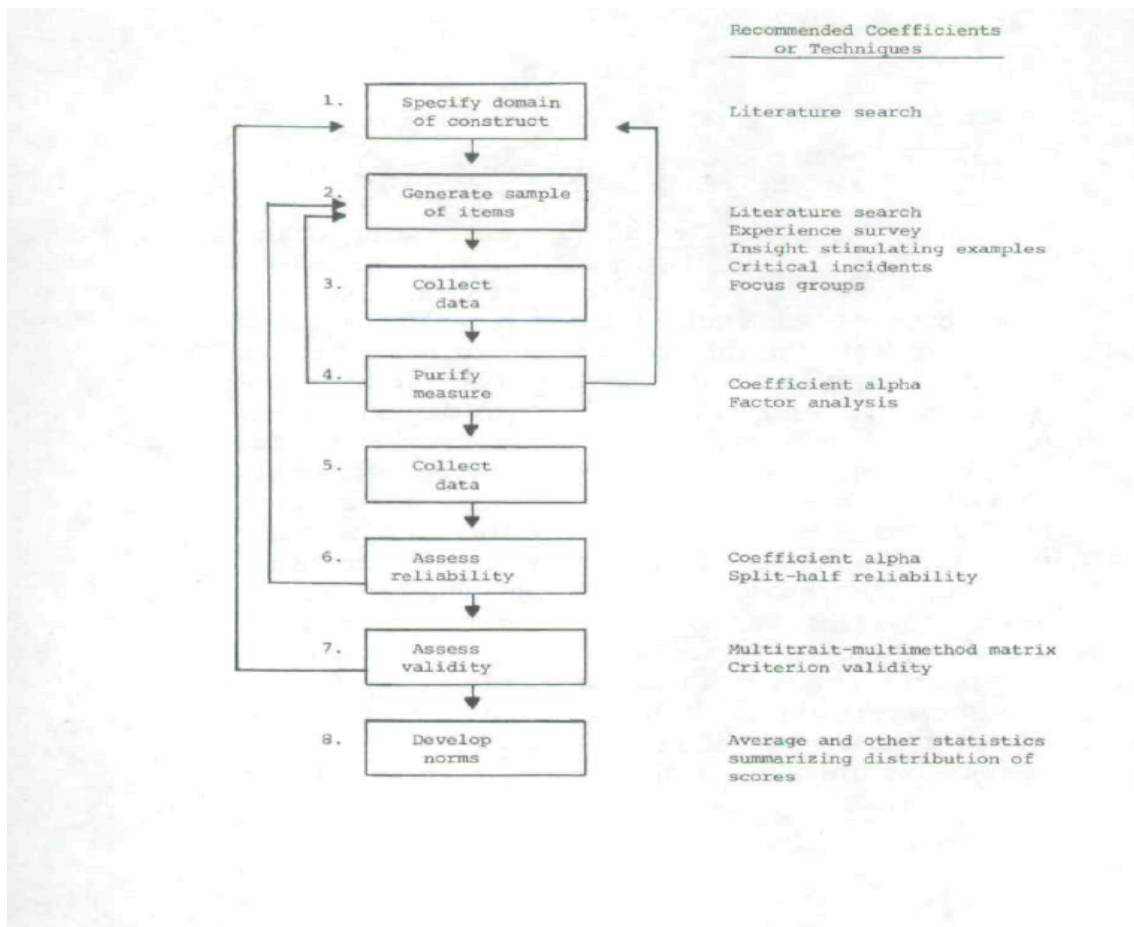


Figure 1.1: Churchill's Paradigm for Developing Better Measures (Churchill, 1979)

**Specify domain of construct.** The first step in the scale development involved specifying the domains of the construct, and a literature search as recommended by Churchill (1979). The original scale, the HBVCI, is based upon three of the universal deontic codes of conduct: honesty, responsibility, and justice. In the importance of creating a corresponding daily life moral reasoning scale, the three constructs will be utilized in the formation of the new instrument. The three constructs are as follows:

*Honesty* is defined as the condition or capacity of being trustworthy or truthful.

Honesty, in this sense, is a basic character that society espouses - an ideal of moral



development...to be honest in thought, word, or deed. Honesty, therefore, is the code of conduct which takes into consideration lying, cheating, and stealing, and refers to the honest person as one who follows the rules and laws.

*Responsibility* is defined as accounting for one's actions in the past, present, and future. We are responsible for our acts, if, and only if, we did the act or caused it to occur. A responsible person is morally accountable and capable or rational conduct.

*Justice* is defined as an equity or fairness for treating peers or competitors equally. Justice is the quality of being righteous or of dealing justly with others. It is based in the integrity of doing the right or fair act. (Beller & Stoll, 2004, p. 28).

**Generate sample of items.** The second step, item generation, captured the three domains specified during step one (Churchill, 1979; Selltitz, Wrightsman, Cook, Balch, Hofstetter, & Bickman, 1976). The items for the “daily life dilemma scale” were generated through two phases. First, each of the HBVCI's sixteen items was broken down to identify three core components: value, intensity, and central character. These components were used to construct each of the corresponding daily life dilemmas for the current scale. After the items were constructed, feedback from an expert panel was utilized to further refine the scale items.

***Item construction.*** The items were constructed by mirroring the existing, validated scale used to measure moral reasoning in sporting contexts, the HBVCI. Each of the HBVCI's 12 items was broken down to identify three core components: 1) value, 2) intensity, and 3) central character. These components were used to construct each of the

corresponding daily life dilemmas for the current scale. These components were measured as follows with two examples:

1) Value: mirrored the universal deontic code of conduct for each item used in the HBVCI, as defined above, *honesty, responsibility, and justice*.

2) Intensity: mirrored the intensity level of the consequence related to the moral dilemma.

3) Central character(s): mirrored the person(s) involved in the dilemma: i.e., individual, collective group, someone of authority.

Examples:

HBVCI:

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

1) Value: Honesty

2) Intensity: Non formal game, one point: low

3) Central character(s): Student official and student intramural athletes,  
peers

Corresponding DLMD:

After checking out at his local grocery store, a man notices that he was mistakenly given an extra \$10 in change. Because it is the cashier's job to make correct

change, the man is not obligated to correct the cashier.

HBVCI:

Certain basketball teams are coached to run plays that cause the opponents to foul.

Players and coaches believe this is clever strategy because the opponents may foul out of the game, giving their team an advantage. Because the coach orders this type of play, the players should follow his directions.

- 1) Value: Responsibility
- 2) Intensity: players getting kicked out of game, someone may get hurt:  
medium
- 3) Central character(s): coach and players, someone of authority

Corresponding DLMD:

Switching premium liquor for a cheaper brand can be a clever way for bar owners to make more money off of each drink. If an owner or manager orders his bartenders to do this, the bartenders should follow his directions.

***Expert feedback and sample data collection.*** To further refine the scale, experts in the field were contacted to rate the quality of the items and provide qualitative feedback regarding content of the measure. Experts for this study included four university professors specializing in the field. Each expert was asked to examine the relevance, representativeness, clarity, test format and wording, and item content of the questionnaire (Babbie, 1992).

After addressing the expert's feedback, a small convenience sample of 24

undergraduates were surveyed to evaluate clarity and wording of the preliminary instrument. The researcher administered a paper and pencil format of the instrument to a small undergraduate class. The students were asked to indicate any questions, comments, or issues they had with each of the items. The researcher also timed the class while they completed the survey to calculate, on average, how long it takes to fill out the instrument. The preliminary “daily-life dilemma scale” was modified, revised, and improved for enhancing clarity and face validity based on the experts’ and undergraduates’ feedback.

**Data collection and item purification.** After the items were further purified and the instrument was modified, the next step in the development of the “daily life dilemma scale” was the use of a pilot study. A pilot study can aid the scale developer in a number of ways. According to Netemeyer, Bearden, and Sharma (2003), pilot testing helps reduce the item pool and begins the process of understanding how the underlying factors relate to each other. Netemeyer et al. (2003) writes of pilot studies:

Here, items can be assessed initially for internal consistency, means, variances, intercorrelations with the other items, and factor structure. Items that do not behave empirically as expected can be adjusted for wording, scale labels, and so on for retention for initial data collection. Some items may require deletion based on these analyses, and if need be, more items can be drafted and judged, such that a sufficient item pool is retained for the scale development studies that follow. (p. 103)

During the pilot study, Netemeyer et al. (2003) further suggest that it is preferable to aim for a representative sample of the target population. Since there are a limited

number of students participating in club sports at the D-1 southeastern university selected for phase 2 of this study, the subjects for the pilot test included students from the same university that participated in student organizations and clubs other than club sports. The researcher contacted the university's student affairs department for their participation (see Appendix B). The researcher constructed an email with a link to the study on the Qualtrics survey platform (see Appendix C). This email was forwarded to student organizations by the Assistant Director for Student Organizations and Clubs and the Graduate Assistant for Student Organizations and Clubs.

**Assess reliability and validity.** In this stage, validity and reliability of the modified "daily life dilemma scale" was tested. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994, p.85) suggest that construct validity exists when one or measures "generalize to a broader class of measures that legitimately employ the same name." Reliability is defined as "the proportion of variance attributable to the true score of the latent variable" (DeVellis, 2003, p. 27). Confirmatory factor analysis and Cronbach's Alpha was used in this stage.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) can establish the construct validity of survey instruments (Netemeyer et al., 2003). "At its essence, CFA for scale development is used to confirm an a priori hypothesis about the relationship of a set of measurement items to their respective factors (sometimes referred to as a measurement model)" (Netemeyer et al., 2003, p. 148). The development of the measurement model was based on the original instrument, the HBVCI. The constructs for the model included three of the universal deontic codes of conduct: honesty, responsibility, and justice. Through CFA, the measurement model investigated the relationship between the survey items ("daily life

scale”) and the latent factors (codes of conduct).

To further test reliability Cronbach’s alpha was utilized. Miller suggests that if the items are highly correlated with each other one can be assured in the reliability of the entire scale (Miller, 2012). The suggested minimum level of the Cronbach’s alpha is .70, therefore  $> .70$  was used as the criteria for inclusion in this study (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

As summarized in Figure 1.1, the process is not hierarchical and can loop back to previous steps if the model tested through CFA does not fit. Items that do not load on their projected construct, looped back to step three for revision. After revision of the items, which is explained further in detail below in chapter three, the reliability and validity processes were performed to test if the modified items fit the model. This revision process is explained in more detail in chapter three.

## **Phase 2: Field Test**

After items were purified based on the techniques in the pre-testing of the scale during phase one, a third larger set of data were collected. This step further explored the relationship of an individual’s responses to daily life dilemmas and their responses to sport-specific dilemmas. Data were collected online.

**Participants and setting.** Data were collected at a large NCAA Division I-A southeastern university. The Department of Recreation, with the interest in promoting participation in a wide variety of activities, provides over 35 club sports for students. Since an individual’s social environment impacts his/her moral reasoning and development, the morals and values specific to a university’s environment may have an

impact on student moral reasoning and development. These morals and values can vary greatly from one university to the next. To eliminate the effect of this variable on participants' moral reasoning scores, it was of interest for the researcher to utilize only one university in this study. The sample selected for this study was a convenience sample of club athletes at a D-I southeastern university aged 18-23. Participants' names, along with their contact information, was obtained through the assistant director of club sports.

**Data collection.** The researcher obtained club sport presidents emails from the coordinator of club sports (see Appendix D). An initial email was sent to club sport presidents to request their team participation in the study (see Appendix E). Utilizing the Dillman (2000) tailored design method, athletes were contacted to participate in an online survey. To increase participant response rate, a total of three e-mails were sent to the participants asking for their participation in the study (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). The first e-mail alerted participants to look for the survey in seven days (see Appendix F). The second e-mail was sent seven days later and included a link to the online survey (see Appendix G). The third e-mail was sent seven days later to remind students again to take the online survey (see Appendix H). This timeframe allowed the data collection to be open for two weeks.

With permission from the assistant director of club sports, data were collected online via the Qualtrics survey platform (see Appendix I). Participants were emailed a link to the final survey, which included both the "daily life dilemma scale", the HBVCI, and a demographic questionnaire including age, gender, sport, and year in school, along

with a cover letter expressing the purpose of the research, listing the instructions, and guarantying the survey was kept anonymous. The HBVCI was included with permission from the Center for Ethical Theory and Honor in Competition and Sport (ETHICS\*) at the University of Idaho. Email contact to the researcher was provided to answer any questions that arose.

Web response rates vary greatly dependent on survey population, topic, and other survey characteristics (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). Although response rates in studies utilizing online based surveys have varied greatly, following Dillman's (2000) formula to calculate a required response rate, Nulty (2008) suggests specific response rates for online surveys dependent on sample size and desired confidence level. With a projected sample size of approximately 650 student-athletes, the preferred response rate for this study is approximately 50% (Nulty, 2008). As mentioned above, the Dillman (2000) tailored design method was utilized to the improve response rate.

**Data analysis.** The first three research questions of this study involve comparing the level of moral reasoning among club sport athletes with a specific nominal category. Since independent sample t-tests compare one continuous outcome variable (moral reasoning) with a categorical predictor (gender, year in school, or type of sport) (Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2013), it will be utilized as a means for evaluating the following stated hypotheses from of this study:

*Hypothesis 1:* There will be no significant differences in moral reasoning, as measured by “daily life dilemma scale” and the HBVCI between genders.



*Hypothesis 2:* There will be no significant differences in moral reasoning, as measured by “daily life dilemma scale” and the HBVCI dependent on year in school.

*Hypothesis 3:* There will be no significant differences in moral reasoning, as measured by “daily life dilemma scale” and the HBVCI dependent on type of sport (contact vs. non-contact).

The next proposed hypothesis compares two related observations, an individual’s moral reasoning in daily life dilemmas and their moral reasoning on sport specific dilemmas. With permission from the Center for ETHICS at the University of Idaho the researcher logged and analyzed the data related to the Moral Reasoning and Moral Development in Sport Review and HBVCI Manual. When evaluating the HBVCI test scores, the higher the mean score, the more a deontological reasoned approach is used when making cognitive moral decisions. This score along with the score from the “daily life dilemma scale” were compared using a paired t-test to evaluate the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 4:* There will be no significant differences in moral reasoning, as measured by the “daily life dilemma scale” and the HBVCI between athletes.

The next proposed hypothesis examines if there were differences between moral reasoning in daily life context and moral reasoning in sport-specific contexts related to age, gender, and sport. Multiple regression was used to analyze this relationship. Multiple regression is used to predict or determine the relationship between one variable (criterion variable) and two or more other variables (predictor variable(s)) (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). Criterion variables must be continuous (Difference between “daily life

dilemma scale” score and HBVCI score) where predictor variables must be either continuous or categorical (age, gender, type of sport) (Gall et al., 2007).

*Hypothesis 5:* There will be no significant differences between daily life moral reasoning, as measured by the “daily life dilemma scale”, and sport specific moral reasoning, as measured by the HBVCI, dependent on the variables of age, gender, and sport.

### **Format of Dissertation**

The remainder of the dissertation is comprised of an overview of the history of sport and moral reasoning in higher education and three articles (formatted as journal manuscripts) followed by appendices and references. The first article is based on Phase 1: Construction of Instrument. The aim of the article is to outline the process used in the construction of the instrument as well as the first steps toward establishing reliability and validity of the instrument.

The second article is the result of Phase 2: Field Test. Article 2, utilized the instrument created in the first article among a sample of club sport athletes in the interest of testing the following hypotheses:

1. There will be no significant differences in moral reasoning, as measured by the DLMD scale, the HBVCI, and the DLMD-HBVCI difference between genders.
2. There will be no significant differences in moral reasoning, as measured by the DLMD scale, the HBVCI, and the DLMD-HBVCI difference, dependent on year in school.

3. There will be no significant differences in moral reasoning, as measured by the DLMD scale, the HBVCI, and the DLMD-HBVCI difference, dependent on type of sport (contact vs. non-contact).
4. There will be no significant differences in moral reasoning, as measured by the DLMD scale, the HBVCI, and the DLMD-HBVCI difference between all athletes.
5. There will be no significant differences between daily life moral reasoning, as measured by the DLMD and sport specific moral reasoning, as measured by the HBVCI, and the DLMD-HBVCI difference, dependent on the variables of age, gender, and sport.

The third article aims to provide an explanation as to why club sports may provide an environment that is conducive to the development of moral reasoning. It compares the similarities of club sports and democratic education theorized by John Dewey.

## CHAPTER III

### **History of Sport and Moral Reasoning in Higher Education**

#### **History of Athletics at the University**

‘Sport in the University has evolved since its inception due to many influences throughout the years. During early university life, sport participation was seen as ungentlemanly and often punishable by administration. This evolution, from nonparticipation in university sport present state today as promoting name and identity of a university, is briefly discussed below (Elendu & Dennis, 2017).

In Colonial America, colleges were established by churches, private individuals, and local and state governments. As such, Church and clergy had the most influence on curriculum, as it often followed Christian doctrines and classical texts. Most early higher education religious strictness’ gave sport the view of being “unbecoming of gentleman” (Smith, 1988, p. 10). As some allowed limited physical activity, rules against sport itself were especially strict. For example, Yale and Dartmouth had rules against sporting activities, fining students if caught participating (Smith, 1988).

As population grew and geographically expanded after the revolutionary war, hundreds of colleges and universities were founded. During this time, religious hold on higher education was still strong. It was not until the 1850’s, when the influence of German institutions’ natural science and research model, that the curriculum began to be shaped by professors’ research (Cohen & Kisker, 2009). Therefore, it was not until after the Civil War that universities became more relaxed with their religious strictness (Smith, 1998). With this ease in the rules, institutions still viewed that higher education’s major

purpose was to develop one's morals and religious direction. The weakening of religious strictness affected student life in general and allowed for some recreational activities as they did not hinder school and church requirements (Cohen & Kisker, 2009). As such, the concept of having sport in the University became more acceptable.

During this time, students were also seeking to escape the demanding academic and religious requirements of college. As sports became more acceptable, students began competing against each other in a variety of physical activities. This gave students the ability to take on roles outside of their studies. This included athletes, coaches and managers (Reiss, 1991).

In light of this growing ability for students to participate in sport while still attending an institution of higher education, several different types of sport have evolved at the university including recreational (intramural), club sports, and varsity athletics. The development of each during the late 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> century is explained below.

**Recreation.** Recreation in university life in its inception was a way for students to relieve stress (Chu, 1985). The lead in the rise of recreational sports was taken, not by the schools and colleges, but by the students themselves (Kleindienst & Weston, 1964). Due to the student influence, early student recreation activities took the form of intramural programs in colleges as they were often built around class, club, and fraternity groups (Lee, 1983).

As there became an apparent need for faculty control of intramurals in the first two decades of the twentieth century, student authority over intramurals saw a shift to faculty regulation. In 1913, the University of Michigan and Ohio State University

instituted the first intramural sport departments under faculty direction (Mitchell, 1939). By 1930 approximately 170 colleges and universities had organized departments of intramural athletics (Hackensmith, 1966). As intramurals began to grow in popularity over time, intramural athletics began to appear more frequently within the department of physical education, under faculty control in an effort to academically and ethically legitimize the practice of sport within higher education (Hackensmith, 1966).

As intramural programs grew, professional associations began to see a need for setting standards in these growing programs. By 1933, the College Physical Education Association created an intramural sports division and five years later, the Division of Men's Athletics of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation set up an intramural athletic division (Kleindienst & Weston, 1964). It was not until 1950 that an independent organization was formed, the National Intramural Association (Kleindienst & Weston, 1964).

Due to the excellent use of intramural sports programs on military bases during WWII, an unprecedented expansion took place in intramural and recreational facilities. Service men returning home, along with their wives, began to influence colleges and universities to start coeducational activities (Kleindienst & Weston, 1964). Intramurals continued to grow through mid-century as Presidents Eisenhower, Kennedy, and Johnson supported broad field of athletics and recreation in colleges and universities (Kleindienst & Weston, 1964). There were several reasons for this support from the Presidents that are evident in speeches and projects they took part in including setting a standard of excellence to win at the Olympics, improve on a broad level the health as so many are

seen unfit for military service, and changing the physical habits of Americans (see Kennedy, 1961; Subcommittee No. 4 of the District of Columbia House of Representatives 91<sup>st</sup> Congress, 1970)

In the 1970's and 1980's many colleges and universities moved programs of intramural sport and campus recreation from departments of physical education and athletics to the control offices of student services. This move was done to take programs out of a department meant for instruction and add them to a department that could offer a wider range of activities and facilities to a wider range of students (Attwood, 2017). Student activity fees provided most of the funds for the construction of intramural and recreation buildings for both men and women (Swanson & Spears, 1995).

By the late 20<sup>th</sup> century, focused on offering a variety of physical related activities, recreation programs were interested in fitness programming, informal recreation, extramural competition and outdoor recreation programs, as well as intramural and club sport. As these programs aim to enhance the student life experience, student recreation centers have evolved as an important part of student life (Lewis, Jones, Lamke & Dunn, 1998). Recreation, the most common experience among college students (Bryant, Banta & Bradley, 1995), is one of the largest growing interests for undergraduate students (Tooperzer, 2010).

**Club Sports.** Club sports are traditionally recognized as the precursor of the intercollegiate sports movement in America (Arnold, Erickson, Fritz & Spechalske, nd). University athletics were originally founded and fostered by undergraduates, not the Director of Physical Education, the coach or faculty members (Savage, 1929). As

recreation within colleges and universities became more organized, students sought to compete against other institutions (Chu, 1985). Mueller and Mitchell (1960) explained the very beginnings of athletics at the university level. “Students interested in a particular sport or activity banded together in activity clubs, somewhat in the manner of the sport clubs in English universities... Later on these student groups began to expend time and energy in developing specialized teams to represent their groups, in colleges, school, or municipalities, as the case happened to be” (Mueller & Mitchell, 1960 p 17-18). This division of sport clubs was the beginning of varsity-like programs (Mueller & Mitchell, 1960). At this time, before the 1900’s, all recreation contests, where the participation was outside of university jurisdiction, were run by students (Chu, 1985).

During the first part of the century, club sport saw little change, along with the effects of the Great Depression, two world wars, NCAA athletics also began to gain in popularity at the university. It wasn’t until the 1960’s that there began a rebirth of the sports club movement (Swanson & Spears, 1995). As intercollegiate sports competition had begun to drop off in several colleges, club sports arose, which were all student originated, managed, and financed (Lee 1983). This resurgence was due to intercollegiate and intramural sports no longer meeting all the needs of the college student (Naples, 1987). Hyatt (1977) proposed many factors initiating this resurgence. This included the unavailability of intercollegiate competition in many sports, a student’s lack of skills to compete at the intercollegiate level, the ability to reinstate a discontinued sport, the increase of college students who had more time and money to explore their own needs and interests, and the desire to partake in a competitive activity with a more laid-



back approach to competition. However, in recognizing the resurgence, this also provided increased opportunity for leadership, pursuit of athletic endeavors, and student development.

There was a second resurgence of club sports in the 1980's for many of the same reasons including a few new ones (Naples, 1987). Due to increased unethical practices in intercollegiate sports and budget cuts, there has been an increase in concerns about of spending money on college sports programs that do not generate a profit and lose money (Chressanthis & Grimes, 1993). Universities and colleges began to see club sports as a good alternative to the expensive intercollegiate programs, while still being beneficial to the greatest number of students. Club sports could still provide the health, social, and mental benefits, such as sense of belongingness, leadership, self-esteem, that varsity sports provided to participants.

The twenty-first century has seen even more cuts in federal allocations, forcing collegiate athletic departments to cut varsity programs even further. Since there are students that still want to participate in their sport, club sports have grown in number and size, with the majority of the financial support coming from the students themselves instead of the university.

**Intercollegiate Athletics.** By 1900, there were three types of control of intercollegiate sport: 1) centralized by faculty, students, and alumni, 2) faculty and student control, 3) student only control (Hackensmith, 1969). Football, dominating most of the college sport scene, began a shift in these types of control to primarily faculty and administration (Arnold et. al., nd). The style of play of football prior to 1900 was rough

and brutal. In the season of 1905 eighteen players had been killed and more than one hundred seriously injured. Because of the brutality, some institutions dropped the sport entirely or, as on the West Coast and Southwest, by substituting with soccer and rugby (Hackensmith, 1969).

In 1905 meetings took place between college athletic leaders under the advisement of President Theodore Roosevelt. Due to football's violent character resulting in deaths and serious injuries, these meetings were set to discuss college football's rules and policies, specifically, the need for elimination of brutality and foul play, the reinforcement of officials' authority and accountability, and eligibility requirements (New York Times Nov, 21 1905, New York Times Dec 5, 1905, Postsecondary Education Planning Commission, 1991). These meetings resulted in the formation of the Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States (IAAUS). The name was changed in 1910 to the NCAA (Postsecondary Education Planning Commission, 1991).

The purpose of the NCAA, as stated in the second article of its constitution, was "the regulation and supervision of college athletics throughout the United States, in order that the athletic activities in the colleges and universities of the United States may be maintained on an ethical plane in keeping with the dignity and high purpose of education" (Swanson & Spears, 1995). From its inception, the NCAA had an explicit mission to maintain an ethical and moral environment for student athletes. The evolution of the NCAA has been partly a reaction to an evolution in institutional cheating (Lapchick & Slaughter, 1989). When it was founded, schools were taking extraordinary

efforts to win by were “hiring” older, stronger players who were only students in name. The 1930’s and 1950’s saw point shaving and illegal inducement problems; evolving most recently to concerns of illegal recruiting, drugs, gambling, and the exploitation of athletes (Depken & Wilson, 2006; Lapchick & Slaughter, 1989.)

During the time that the NCAA was in the process of being formed, many intercollegiate conferences were established. Also, college controlled administration began to take over student-run athletic associations as football increased in popularity and financial complexity. Hired coaches and larger stadiums were major investments, and the colleges saw the need to appoint athletic directors to oversee their interests (Swanson & Spears, 1995). This began taking away the leadership and decision making responsibilities from the students and putting it in the hands of administrators.

*Evolution of the NCAA.* In the 1920’s, it became common for athletics to be housed in physical education, making it part of the educational system (Chu, 1985). Therefore, athletics were able to receive institutional funds (Chu, 1985). Mirroring the growth of America’s economy, the NCAA grew through the 1920’s (Chu, 1985), conducting its first official championships in 1921, the National Collegiate Track and Field Championships (Tow, 1982). In January of 1926 the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching conducted a study of American intercollegiate athletics, which was released December 1929. The study reviewed all aspects of over 100 different collegiate sports programs, including recruiting, coaching, and administration. When the report was issued, the foundation had uncovered corruption in essentially all aspects of intercollegiate athletics due to rampant professionalism, commercialization, and

exploitation. The report concluded: “Apparently the ethical bearings of intercollegiate football contests and their scholastic aspects are of secondary importance to the winning of victories and financial success” (Savage, 1929, p.298). This report received a lot of attention putting forth many issues within intercollegiate athletics, but the actual impact on the abuses of intercollegiate sport was insignificant (Swanson & Spears, 1995).

By 1930, attendance at college football had reached the ten million mark (Lee, 1983). The 30’s also ushered in the first radio broadcasts of intercollegiate games, coupled with transportation, which enabled long distance travel for competition with back home radio broadcasts (Chu, 1985). This had an impact on sports by bringing them to a wider audience. With a greater fan base, new sources of revenue were created placing additional pressure on coaches and administrators to win.

By 1940 most sports had established national team championships (Chu, 1985). During this growth there was still a constant call to reform intercollegiate athletics. The NCAA sought to clean up athletics with the enactment of the Sanity Code in 1946. The organization sought to set guidelines for recruiting and compensation of athletes due to gambling scandals, altered grades and eligibility violations (Postsecondary Education Planning Commission, 1991). Its most strict policy was to halt any type of the practice of pay for play, including athletic scholarships. The Sanity Code, repealed in 1951, was short lived due to the maximum penalty of expulsion seen as too severe (Koutroumpis, 1996). The following year, having become common practice, athletic scholarship and several forms of grant in aid were formalized and officially allowed (Koutroumpis,

1996). At this same time the need for a switch from volunteer officials to full-time professionals was seen.

In 1950, the NCAA had a membership of 387 (Postsecondary Education Planning Commission, 1991). The next year Walter Byers was named as the first executive director of the NCAA and the association's national office was moved to Kansas City, MO shortly after (Tow, 1982). In 1952, due to a peak in basketball scandals, the NCAA increased this dependency by enacting the repeat-violator legislation, better known as "the death penalty." This decision gave the NCAA the right to control athletic programs by making and enforcing rules and sanctions (Chu, 1985). The threat of having a sport suspended from competition for one year making made it detrimental for teams to violate NCAA's policies and procedures.

During the 1950's and 1960's, with the inception of televising sporting events, commercialization of university athletics continued to grow creating a pressure for coaches to produce winning teams at any cost (Postsecondary Education Planning Commission, 1991). At the same time, athletics began to split from Physical Education departments, creating full time coaches without faculty rank (Chu, 1985). Blatant defiance of recruitment, compensation of players and academic credentials policies continued through the 50's and 60's (Postsecondary Education Planning Commission, 1991).

As membership grew from 387 in 1950 to 1,018 in 1989, the NCAA saw many organizational changes including the division into three legislative and competitive divisions in 1973, Division I being further divided into I-A and I-AA, and the

organization took governance over women's university sport in 1981 (Postsecondary Education Planning Commission, 1991).

In addition, Title IX had a big impact on the NCAA and intercollegiate athletics. Title IX prohibits sex discrimination in all programs, including athletics, at any educational institution that receives Federal funds (Wallace, 1997). Passed by Congress in June, 1972 it stated that "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance" (Title IX, 44 Fed. Reg at 71413). For athletics, this meant that programs for both men and women had to be comparable.

Throughout the decades, as the NCAA mission consistently held to their foundational principle of developing character, there have been many attempts to reform college athletics. The Knight Foundation set out the most recent attempt. The Knight Publishing Company founded the Knight Foundation founded in 1950 to "support worthy causes through the enhancement of the educational, cultural, social, and economic facets of American life" (Postsecondary Education Planning Commission, 1991). The Knight Foundation created the Knight Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics in 1989 to promote reform within intercollegiate athletics (Knight Foundation, 1991). They found the same problems in intercollegiate athletics as were found in a report from the Carnegie Fund for Advancement in Teaching in 1929 (Knight Foundation, 1991). Troubled with athletics threatening the integrity of higher education, they proposed the one plus three scheme, concerned with four issues: presidential authority, academic integrity, fiscal

integrity, and certification (Postsecondary Education Planning Commission, 1991). In the final report of their study they still saw a need for improvement in many areas including: recruiting, boosters meddling in athletics decision making, effect of entertainment industry, relations among high school, junior college, college and professional sport, respect of college athletes, academic standards of athlete, and needs of minority student-athletes (Knight Foundation, 1993). Unfortunately, these attempts, along with the others in the twentieth century to better intercollegiate athletics, have only accomplished the changing some of peripheral aspects (Beyer & Hannah, 2000).

As the pressure of winning and evolution of institutional cheating has affected the NCAA policies, there has been little change seen among athletes and administration. Walter Byers, previous executive director of the NCAA, best summed up the effect the NCAA's policy changes have had on athletics:

“I believe there is a growing acceptance of the belief that the conditions of intercollegiate athletics are such that you have to cut corners, you have to circumvent the rules,” Byers told the Associated Press. “There are a growing number of coaches and administrators who look upon NCAA penalties as the price of doing business – if you get punished, that's unfortunate, but that's part of the cost of getting along.” (p. 4)

The policies mostly affected change to collegiate athletics in that athlete's and administration learned new ways to avoid penalties.

### **History of Sport, Moral Development, and Education.**

As the German view of research and natural sciences brought about a structure

change in higher education allowing for participation in recreational activities, there was still a strong hold on the view that higher education's major purpose was to develop one's morals and religious direction (Cohen, 1998). During this time, American education also became influenced by British boarding schools view of that sport is an ideal setting for instilling character (Rudd, 1998, Sage, 1988). As Endicott Peabody, longtime headmaster of the Groton School stated in 1899, "One has not the slightest hesitation in saying that to run a school on a high standard of morality without athletics would be a practical impossibility" (Peabody, as cited in Bundgaard, 2005). Thus, sport became endorsed as a means by which to fulfill higher education's mission of moral development in students (O'Hanlon, 1980; Sage, 1988).

The current state of sport has deviated from moral nature fostered in the mid 19<sup>th</sup> century and early part of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Sage, 1998). The values assigned to the word character by prominent physical educators became more social than moral throughout the past century (O'Halon, 1980). Great philosophers have debated the endorsement of athletics as a means of developing better people (Meakin, 1982). The idea that competitive sports is an effective way of promoting moral education, in the means of character development, has been around for a long time, at least since ancient Greece (Bredemeier & Shields, 2006). Writings of Aristotle show, historically, sport was a way of personal growth (Arnold, 1991). It was an opportunity to realize and attain the highest good of which humans are capable. Plato and Aristotle both agreed in a connection between the fitness of the physical body and the moral condition of the participant (Lumpkin, Stoll, & Beller, 2003). Aristotle also believed that a person of moral character



strives for excellence while demonstrating a set of virtues including honesty, fairness, and compassion (Arnold, 1999). When individuals are given the freedom to choose these virtues while surrounded by societal pressures and temptations, happiness is achieved. It was believed that these pressures and temptations were inherent in sport (Arnold, 1994; Lickona, 1991). Physical activity, including sport participation, became an ideal classroom where one could carry out the process of moral reasoning, choosing between right and wrong (Lumpkin, Stoll, & Beller, 2003).

In modern history, most of the claims for the character building aspects of sport arise from the upper and middle classes of the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Arnold, 1991). The “gentleman amateur,” with a strict adherence to the ethics of the game, was more concerned with playing the game than winning at all costs (Arnold, 1991). As CLR James states in his book,

But when we stepped onto the cricket or football field, all was changed... We learned to obey the umpire’s decision... We learned to play as a team, which meant subordinating your personal inclinations, and even interests, to the good of the whole. We kept a stiff upper lip in that we did not complain about ill fortune. We did not denounce failures... We were generous to opponents and congratulated them on victories. (p. 33)

With this idea, as well as the belief that muscles and morals developed through involvement in team sports, school administrators of nineteenth century British boarding schools promoted or required students to participate in competitive athletics. This notion

soon spread becoming popular in U.S. schools and culture. (Bredemeier & Shields, 2006).

Dr. Thomas Arnold the headmaster of Rugby School (1828-1841) in Rugby, Warwickshire, England may have developed the idea of using sport as medium for developing character through his interest in establishing a sense of Christian morality while keeping students out of trouble (Armstrong, 1984; McIntosh, 1979). This thought spread as supporters of the “Arnoldian system” believed that sport is an ideal setting for instilling character (Rudd, 1998).

The philosophy of sport being used as a medium for developing character transferred into American boarding schools in the late 19<sup>th</sup> century. In 1884, Endicott Peabody, founder of Groton (an American boarding school), was noted as the first American boarding school administrator to adopt the concept from Tom Arnold of using sport as a medium for developing the “manly Christian character” (Armstrong, 1984; McIntosh, 1979; Sage, 1988). Immigration to the United States also fostered the development of this idea in the US (Murphy, 2007; O’Hanlon, 1980). Sport as a character builder and as an educational tool in the United States is primarily accepted as occurring in early 20<sup>th</sup> century. By 1920, sport had become ingrained in secondary education and college curriculums (O’Hanlon, 1980; Sage, 1988). The following 1911 statement of Luther Gulick, a prominent figure in physical education, can illustrate the wide belief that sport can be used as a medium for developing character:

no other avenue open to us by means of which it is possible to develop the idea of corporate, of inter-institutional morality...that which represents the

individuals but includes as a whole... than inter-institutional athletics. No other agency can be so effective, for nothing else begins to have the grip on the imaginations and emotional life of our young men as do athletics.”

(O’Hanlon, 1980, p.93-94)

However, there is one key difference between British and American models of sport. Sport in England was used to develop strong leaders using explicit moral values; whereas sport in America was concerned with developing social values consistent with the American ideology of capitalism, corporations, and climbing the social ladder (Rudd, 1998). As sport in America has evolved over the years guided by American ideology, becoming more professionalized and commercialized, it is important to not disregard sport’s inherent ability to develop moral reasoning.

This influence of American ideology is evident as researchers have promoted the idea that sport reinforces hegemonic masculinity (e.g. Donohoe & Johnson, 1987; Walker & Sartore-Baldwin, 2013; Jackson & Gee, 2017). Robert Connell (1987) explained that hegemonic masculinity “refers to the cultural dynamic by which a group claims and sustains a leading position in social life” (p. 99). Within the sporting context, Colleen English (2017) argues that sports problems stem from hegemonic masculinity. The over-emphasis of the stereotypical form of masculinity perpetuates a strong focus of competition. This creates a winning-at-all-costs mindset weakening or eliminating other values associated with sports (English, 2017). This differs from Baron Pierre de Coubertain’s, the founder of the modern Olympics, philosophy that, “the most important thing... is not winning but taking part” (as cited in Donohoe & Johnson, 1987, p.128).

This contrary to the American media's constant tally of countries' medal counts during the games, clearly keeping track of "winning" in an effort to place strong masculine values on the medal count in sport.

Even though sport can be argued to have a place in education, Vince Lombardi's statement, "Winning isn't everything, it's the only thing," leads to the question, are the American ideological social values mentioned above the only values being taught and learned in sport today? Sage (1980, p 115) suggests, "Sport is a vehicle by which the American value system is transmitted to the younger generation." The values that are important in American society are evident in sport. Sage (1980, p 113) further adds, "Sport promotes and reinforces the American value system as well as reflects it."

Subsequently, American societal values of success and achievement are often reflected in sport with success in competition. Societal values are seemingly being taught and are the basis for the decisions that individuals make, including an individual's moral reasoning (Sage, 1980). As sport in higher education has evolved over the years, developing character has remained a goal within all levels, NCAA, club sport, and intramural. It is important that sport also promote moral values along with the values held by society.

### **Recent Research of Moral Reasoning and Sport**

Recently there has been a paucity of research regarding moral judgment phase of moral development in sport; however, taking its place per chance are the elements of moral action or behavior (Shields, Funk, & Bredemeier (2018b). The separation of these aspects in moral reasoning originated from James Rest's (1979) assertion that there are many processes that an individual goes through from first recognition of, to the execution

of an action in a moral dilemma (Rest, 1979). Rest, building upon Kohlberg's theory, developed a four component model of morality (Weiss & Smith, 2002). The four component model answers what an individual goes through, psychologically, for moral behavior to occur (Rest 1994). Rest (1994) set forth that morality is multi-faceted, Kohlberg only focused on the facet of moral judgment. Rest's model assumes that responding to moral dilemmas is the result of all four processes (Thoma, 1994). These processes interacting and operating together are as follows: moral sensitivity, moral judgment, moral motivation, and moral action (Rest, 1994). Responding morally to a dilemma requires proficiency in all four processes, deficiency in any can produce failure in the ability of the individual to behave morally (Rest, 1984).

The first component, moral sensitivity, pertains to the ability of the individual to interpret the situation. The second component, moral judgment, is related to determining which course of action is morally right or wrong. Moral motivation, the next component, involves prioritizing and choosing which action to take. The last component, moral action, takes into account the individuals follow through of completing the action. The components are interactive with each component influencing the others (Rest, 1984).

As the shift in literature has been to focus on moral action over moral judgment. Researchers maintain that moral judgment is important as it influences behavior; however, attention shifted to understanding moral action since behavior directly affects others (Kavussanu, 2008). Kavussanu (2008) explained this shift with the example "injuring another player has direct consequences for the player. In contrast, *judging* the injurious act as legitimate or *intending* to injure a player have no direct consequences for

a person” (p. 124). In sport research, the terms utilized in this research pertaining to an athlete’s actions, are prosocial and antisocial behavior. Prosocial behavior has been defined as voluntary behavior performed to intentionally help or benefit another (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998), and examples are in sport are helping a hurt player off the field and commending a teammate. Antisocial behavior is behavior performed intentionally to harm or disadvantage another individual (Kavussanu, Seal & Phillips, 2006; Sage, Kavussanu & Duda, 2006), for instance, arguing with a teammate or purposefully fouling an opponent.

Kavussanu and Al-Yaaribi (2019) completed a review on studies examined prosocial and antisocial behaviors in sport. They found that the variables most often associated with prosocial behavior were task orientation, mastery motivational climate, autonomous motivation, autonomy supportive coaching style, sportsmanship coaching behavior, and descriptive norms. When associated with antisocial behavior, the most frequent variables were moral disengagement, goal orientation, performance motivational climate, coaches prioritizing winning over good sportsmanship, controlled motivation, within the individual and social climate, behavior of one’s teammates, moral identity and empathy.

These recent studies of moral action typically did not examine the reasons motivating the behavior or action. It is important to understand the underlying effects the factors studied in sport (e.g. gender, age, type of sport) have on the judgement process, since it happens before the behavior. A behavior must have a moral judgement to be moral. The reasons behind the action are important in determining the morality of the

behavior. For example, a prosocial behavior could be performed for unselfish reasons. This is evident in the act of an athlete helping an injured player out of true interest for the other person without expecting any benefit from the act. Conversely, prosocial behaviors can also be performed for egocentric reasons. This is evident in the act of an athlete who helps an injured player due to benefit of his/her self as it will help him/her receive an award. Shields, Funk and Bredemeier (2018b) stated that behavior is only moral if it reflects moral intent. To know if a behavior is moral, reasoning is what matters most (Turiel, 2014).

## CHAPTER IV

### An Overview of Ethos and Sport

The ethos of sport is primarily lived rather than understood (Aggerholm, 2017). To first explain the term ethos, the Oxford-English Dictionary (2014) defines it as, “The characteristic spirit of a people, community, culture, or era as manifested in its attitudes and aspirations; the prevailing character of an institution or system.” It is an integrated term that includes norms, values, and codes that is predicated on ethics.

With Latin and Greek origins, the term ethos is used along with pathos and logos as different ways to make an appeal to an individual or audience. Ethos utilizes ethics, character, credibility to make an argument. As opposed to pathos where persuasion is through emotion. And thirdly, logos, appeals to facts and logic.

A group’s ethos is described as the set of beliefs that guide the behavior and organization of the group. This can vary from group to group; or as in sport from team to team. Parry, Robinson, Watson and Nesti (2007) explained ethos as follows:

Ethos can be summed up as the distinctive character, spirit and attitudes of a group or community. As such it is something about the distinctive values and meaning of that community, but also the actual practice of those values. It is summed up not just in concepts but also in how people behave to each other, including the tone of communication. The ethos is discovered in relationship; in attention given, or not given, to the other, in concern for key values and purposes in practice, and so on. (p.187)



Loland and McNamee (2000) describe an ethos as a shared interpretation of the basic norms, rules, and values that justify and regulate behavior among its members. This interpretation includes a common perception of how the rules are to be applied in an ethically acceptable manner. It also goes beyond the formal playing rules, as rules alone do not constitute what the inner norms and values of the team may be. For example, the shared idea of what constitutes a fair game or a good player.

A distinctive collective ethos in all of sport cannot be attained by applying some kind of universal criteria. Due to its dynamic, plural nature, Pearson (2000) suggested that it is not possible to define one ethos universally to all sport. In reference to its dynamic state, it is flexible, it can be thought of as the air one breathes rather than the furniture in the room, which would be morals (J. Tedesco, personal communication, February 10, 2020). Although morality (the furniture) may not change, the operation of it, ethics, which ethos is grounded upon, may be specific to circumstance since it is often contextualized within different groups to which an individual belongs.

In reference to its plural nature, an ethos is a “plural, contested set of narratives that produce, sustain, and are constituted by the practice in which it lies” (Pearson, 2000, p.89). Every sport lies within its own distinctive “practice.” For example, the practice of boxing entails intentionally physically harming an opponent, whereas swimming is performed with completely no physical contact among opponents. Each club’s unique ethos contains beliefs and customs that underline its culture. These often unwritten rules give a sense of purpose to those within the club. From the moment a club sport is created

it has its own distinct culture. A club's ethos, its ideas, values, and norms are constantly being tested, modified, and re-negotiated (Pearson, 2000).

Due to this testing, modification, and re-negotiation, a club's values and beliefs, shaped in many different ways, are always evolving. There are many factors that can influence this change, for example, changes of coaching staff. A coach can affect prosocial and antisocial behavior in a team (Kavussanu & Ali Al-Yaaribi, 2019). To gain a competitive advantage coaches could advocate antisocial behavior, for example aggression, toward opponents. Conversely, coaches could encourage prosocial behavior by the manner in which they act toward their athletes (Kavussanu & Ali Al-Yaaribi, 2019). The difference with club compared to varsity, is that the team chooses their coach following their whereas in varsity sport, administration hires the coach dependent on what is valued in the sports department and their benefactors. Therefore, club members have the ability to hire a coach that already falls in line with the dominant beliefs and ideals held by the club.

While a club's ethos is always evolving, there are some constant factors of a sport team (e.g. gender, team vs. individual sport, type of contact in sport), that have been suggested to affect the moral climate and subsequently behaviors of the athletes. For example, Tucker & Parks (2001) found that male athletes were more accepting of aggressive behavior than females, creating a difference of behaviors carried out by male and female athletes. When related to team sports, Kavussanu, Boardley, Sagar and Ring (2013), suggest that being a part of a team and striving for the same goal promotes prosocial behavior among team athletes. The collective aspects of team sport could also

conversely influence behavior. For example, aggression is commonly accepted and encouraged among teammates in collision sports (Tucker & Parks, 2001).

As mentioned earlier ethos is predicated on ethics. As sometimes philosophers use the terms ethics and morals interchangeably (Cohen, 2004). It is valuable to note that ethics is seen as the broader notion that includes morality and much that falls outside morality. Therefore, ethos would also include the moral climate of a group. In the interest of investigating the influence a moral climate has on member's behavior, Spruit, Kavussanu, Smit, & IJntema (2018) completed a meta-analysis of studies on moral climate and behavior within adolescent sport. Their findings suggested that an athlete's behavior can be influenced by the moral climate within which the behavior occurs. Therefore, the moral climate, or ethos, of a club can foster prosocial or antisocial behavior (Spruit, et al., 2018). For example, the presence of the value of fair play can influence prosocial behavior, whereas if team norms accept intimidating players, this can influence antisocial behaviors of athletes.

In summary, in collegiate sport, ethos can vary from sport to sport, school to school, or team to team. This ethos affects the behavior of the members within each organization. As there are many factors that influence ethos, understanding these factors can better explain the behavior of members. It is also imperative to realize that while it affects behavior, an ethos is continually transforming and evolving. This change in beliefs and values may affect what an individual deems as important for making a moral decision in sporting situations.

## CHAPTER V

### ARTICLE 1

# **The Construction of an Instrument to Measure an Individual's Moral Reasoning in Daily Life Moral Dilemmas**

## **Introduction**

Retired hall of fame basketball player and coach, Isiah Thomas, recently stated “sports being a place where you supposedly have a level playing field... everyone competes equally. So we try to take that move it out into society and say this is how society should be.” (Draper & Draper, 2016). Sport may be a level playing field, but everyday life may not be so even. Therefore, some believe that sport, having spatial and temporal boundaries, is disconnected from everyday life (Arnold, 1994). With the premise that sport is a “world within a world” (Huizinga, 1955), several studies have suggested that athletes function differently in sport compared to daily life contexts (Adler & Adler, 1991; Bredemeier & Shields, 1984, 1986a, 2001; Bredemeier et al., 1986; Camire & Trudel, 2010; Hall, 1981; Kleiber & Roberts, 1981; Rudd, 2008).

Conversely, sport continually presents and represents culturally defined relations between people and society's values (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). This is one reason why it is a common belief that what athletes learn and experience through the challenges they encounter in their sport are small-scale examples of the challenges they are certain to encounter in the world outside of sports.

These despairing beliefs of the linkage of sport to everyday life has compelled researchers to analyze and measure the effects sport participation has on individuals “off

the field". Several variables (i.e. confidence, social well-being, self-perception, communication, morality) have been explored in the interest of answering the question of whether or not what an individual learns on the field can transcend to everyday life situations (Gayles & Hu, 2009; Marsh, 1993; Rudd, Mullane, & Stoll, 2010; Zarret, Fay, Li, Carrano, Phelps, & Lerner, 2009). One of these variables that has been of specific interest to researchers and administrators is moral reasoning.

It has been suggested that there is a reciprocal relationship between sport and moral reasoning (Arnold, 1994). Every sport situation requires the participant to make a decision on how he/she will react to the situation presented (Beller & Stoll, 2004). In order to react ethically, the participant should not only know the rules, but also have an appreciation of the ethical principles on which these rules are based (Beller & Stoll, 2004). For example, understanding that cheating in sport goes against the ethical principal of fairness or justice. Cheating relates to justice in that it gives an unfair advantage to the participant that cheats.

In the interest of evaluating an individual's moral reasoning in and out of the sporting context, previous studies have missed the ability to find similar scenarios on and off the field to compare an individual's responses. If challenges encountered in sport truly are small-scale examples of everyday challenges, it would seem important that when comparing the two, the scenarios within each context accurately parallel each other. This study therefore; aims to create a measurement of daily life scenarios that parallel an already validated instrument related to sport, the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory

(HBVCI) which has been used in previous studies that seek to measure moral reasoning in sport situations.

### **Literature Review**

Moral development refers to the ways in which individuals discern right from wrong as they grow and mature. During the process of moral development, an individual's reasoning in dilemmas transforms to take concern for the welfare of others, while the individual's ability to judge the right and wrong of a situation matures (Lumpkin, Stoll, & Beller, 2003; Naples, 1987). Activities that serve to enhance the moral development of an individual is defined as moral education (Naples, 1987). Since sport provides many decision provoking situations, it has a long history of being used as an instrument of moral education (Arnold, 1968).

### **Sport and Moral Education**

Each dilemma in sport, for example whether or not to cheat to win, has its own moral demands (Weiss & Bredemeier, 1990). In order to react ethically to the situation, the participant should not only know the rules, but also have an appreciation of the ethical principles on which these rules are based (Beller & Stoll, 2004). With a focus of moral education, it is important that the individuals involved must have the opportunity to make decisions, rather than transferring responsibility to coaches or officials (Booth, 1982; Jantz, 1975; Piaget, 1932). As mentioned above, cheating goes against the moral principle of justice. It is vital in the moral development of an individual that he/she understand this rather than not cheating because an authoritative figure (coach or official) may catch them. This is further explained through James Rest's Four Component Model

of Moral Action (see Table 1.1). Understanding the ethical principle that the rule is based on allows an individual to go through the process of each step toward moral action.

Table 1.1

*Rest's Four Component Model of Moral Action*

Component	Description
Moral Sensitivity	An ethical dilemma is recognized. Moral sensitivity is the ability to discern when an ethical dilemma exists. Moral Sensitivity is the ability to empathize with others and the awareness of how one's own actions might affect another person.
Moral Judgement	Moral judgement includes processing multiple solutions to the ethical problem. Multiple views are recognized and evaluated. The best ethical decision for those involved, the time, and the place is desired.
Moral Motivation	Moral motivation is the ultimate decision to take some form of moral action despite the possible consequences. Moral motivation goes beyond moral judgement in that a person has to make a conscientious choice to take action or to ignore the moral dilemma. One must desire to take the moral high road.

Moral Action	Moral Action is follow through. The solution to the ethical dilemma is important and must be utilized and implementation or execution of the action plan is done with perseverance, diplomacy, communication, collaboration, and strategic planning.

(Bredemeier & Shields, 1994; Rushton & Penticuff, 2007)

Support of sport being utilized as moral education is further evident through research suggesting a relationship between sport and moral character (Arnold, 1994). Sport needs participants who possess moral character in order to endure the external social, economic and political forces that threaten to negatively influence it; while having the possibility of advancing moral character by developing the inherent virtues of sport in participants (Arnold, 1994). At the same time, researchers also recognize there is a fundamental contradiction in sport (Eitzen, 2016). Sport promotes the worthy traits of courage, determination, hard work, fairness, respect, sacrifice, selflessness and loyalty, but rule breaking, selfishness, greed, contempt for opponents, and violence has also been seen as acceptable and in some cases encouraged in some contexts of sport thus creating



the contradiction (Eitzen, 2016). For example, fighting is often found acceptable, or part of play, in ice hockey.

Assessments of the moral education potential in sport commonly take one of three forms (DeSensi & Rosenberg, 1996). First, some argue that sport is morally neutral; as it neither facilitates moral development or the development of antisocial behavior. Others consider whether the positive values that can be learned in sport have the ability to transcend the sporting context. Finally, some suggest that sport does the opposite of moral education promoting antisocial behavior and generating moral problems; it “builds characters not character” (DeSensi & Rosenberg, 1996).

In the interest of whether or not sport fosters moral development, different instruments have been utilized to compare athletes’ moral reasoning dependent on many different variables including gender, age, type of sport; as well as comparing with non-athletes. These include the Defining Issues Test (DIT), the Rudd Stoll Beller Hahm Value-judgement Inventory (RSBHVI), the Prosocial and Antisocial Behavior in Sport Scale (PABSS), the Practical Sociomoral Reflection Objective Measure—sport (PSROM-sport), and the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (HBVCI) (Beller & Stoll, 2004; Calmeiro, Stoll & Davis, 2015; Kavussanu, Stanger, & Boardley, 2013; Proios & Balasas, 2008; Rutten, Schuengel, Dirks, Stams, Biesta, & Hoeksma, 2011).

One of the most widely used sport specific moral reasoning instruments is the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (HBVCI). On the theoretical assumption that sport builds character, the HBVCI was created to assess an individual’s moral reasoning in the sport context. Since its inception, the HBVCI has been a useful tool in measuring

an individual's moral reasoning within sport situations, but there has not been a consistent equivalent "out of sporting context" measurement tool utilized within the literature.

## **HBVCI**

The HBVCI analyzes how respondents morally reason in a sport context according to the principles of honesty, responsibility and justice (Beller & Stoll, 2004). The instrument has been able to be generalized across competitive and noncompetitive settings because it uses general sport scenarios (Stoll & Beller, 1998). The HBVCI has been used in numerous studies assessing the moral reasoning of over 80,000 athletes and non-athletes in interscholastic, intercollegiate, Olympic, and professional sport (University of Idaho Center of ETHICS, 2009).

The HBVCI does not predict moral action, as defined by James Rest's Four Component Model of Moral Action (see Table 1.1) but was instead designed to measure cognitive knowledge, (moral judgement), which is a step towards moral action. The higher the respondent's score, the more the respondent utilized deontological principles in their decision making process (Beller & Stoll, 2004). Further, the theory of deontology states that principles of honesty, responsibility, and justice provide obvious moral guidance in ethical dilemmas. Deontologists believe that the goal of moral development is learning to recognize how these principles apply in situations and choosing the right course of action (Osterhoudt, 1973).

The HBVCI consists of 16 sport scenarios, scored on a 5-point Likert scale (SA- strongly agree to SD- strongly disagree), that focus on ethical issues that range from

clear-cut rule violations to conduct which is technically legal but not in the spirit of being a good sport (Priest, Priest, Krause, & Beach, 1999). The instrument consists of five of the settings referring to women's sports or female players, six referring to men's sports or male players, and five that are gender neutral, four of which are consistency checks scenarios to identify potential response bias (Hahm, 1989). Many of the scenarios make the respondent choose between being a good sport and a strategy more helpful to winning (Priest et al., 1999). For example, one item from the HBVCI reads,

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

A respondent who selected "strongly agree" would be viewed as an individual who believes in not casting individual responsibility onto others. According to deontological moral theory, the individual is forgoing a personal moral duty of being just and honest (University of Idaho Center of ETHICS\*, 2009).

The items on the HBVCI represent a broad range of realistic sport situations that athletes face individually and as a team during competition, giving it a basis for content validity. Hahm (1989) showed a positive relation between the DIT (Defining Issues Test) and the HBVCI showing a basis for criterion-related validity. The DIT, supported by Neo-Kohlbergian theory, has been referred to as the paper and pencil alternative to Lawrence Kohlberg's 1969 semi-structured interview measure of moral judgment development (Rest, 1979b). Therefore the criterion-related validity of the

HBVCI is further supported by the validity for the DIT being evaluated in over 400 published articles including, but not limited to the following: 1) DIT scores are significantly related to cognitive capacity measures of Moral Comprehension ( $r = .60$ ), including Kohlberg's measure; 2) DIT scores are significantly linked to many prosocial behaviors; and 3) DIT scores are sensitive to moral education interventions (Rest, Narvaez, Bebeau, & Thoma, 1999; Thoma, 2006). Beller and Stoll (1992) demonstrated that an 18-week course focusing on moral issues in sport among Division I athletes showed an increase in HBVCI scores among participants. Therefore, construct validity was supported, since one would expect training in moral issues in sport to result in an increase in HBVCI scores.

### **Morals Transcending the Sporting Context**

Sport has been defined as being disconnected from everyday life (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). With this disconnect, it is important to understand if and how different morals and values learned in the sporting context transcend to an individual's everyday life. Even though sport has clear spatial and time boundaries from everyday life, it presents and represents culturally defined relations between people and society's values (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995).

The ability for sport to serve the objective of developing moral socially oriented behaviors in its participants cannot be ignored (Arnold, 1968). Components of sport are not themselves moral or immoral, instead it is the social interactions within the sport experience that influence character (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). For example, a study of British gymnasts demonstrated that the quality an athlete put into the preparation for

competition was positively associated with their conscientiousness (Woodman, Zourbanos, Hardy, Beattie, & McQuillan, 2010).

Even though previous research has suggested that athletes tend to have a higher level of moral reasoning in everyday life than they do in a sporting context (Allison, 1982; Bredemeier & Shields, 1984, 1986b; Bredemeier et al., 1986; Kleiber & Roberts, 1981); having utilized measurements that utilize scenarios that are out of “everyday contexts”, for example the obscure scenarios in the DIT, researchers have missed the opportunity to compare similar scenarios on and off the field to compare individual’s responses. With this intention, this study aims to create a measurement of everyday scenarios that parallel an already validated instrument related to sport, the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (HBVCI).

## **METHODS**

### **Design**

The primary purpose of this study was to develop and validate a measure to aid in the exploration of the relationship between athlete’s moral reasoning in sport situations and their moral reasoning in similar daily life situations. To meet this objective, the DLMD (Daily Life Moral Dilemma) scale, that parallels the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (HBVCI), an existing, validated instrument which measures moral reasoning in sport specific situations, was developed. The Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (HBVCI) was selected as the foundation for the construction of the DLMD scale for several reasons. The HBVCI was created for, and has been consistently used, to measure moral reasoning within a sporting context (Beller & Stoll, 1992; Beller et al., 1996). The

inventory reports at a 9<sup>th</sup> grade reading level and also established reliability from studies over the past 20 years, yielding internal consistency scores, Cronbach alphas, between .74 and .88 (University of Idaho Center of ETHICS\*, 2009). The HBVCI is based upon three of the universal deontic codes of conduct: honesty, responsibility, and justice. Each of the three codes is represented by a total of 12 questions (with an additional four “consistency check” questions) scored on a 5-point Likert scale. The range of scores on the HBVCI is 12-60. Scores in the higher range indicate an egocentric processing of moral dilemmas. The midpoint of the scale is 36, representing a moderate utilization of deontological principles in resolving ethical issues in sports. A lower value indicates that the individual aligns with a higher moral functioning level.

### **Construction of Instrument**

The DLMD scale development process was based on Churchill’s (1979), Gerbing and Anderson’s (1988), and Anderson and Gerbing’s (1988) guidelines, including confirmatory factor analysis and subsequent steps. The researcher constructed a daily life dilemma moral reasoning scale equivalent to a previously established and validated sport specific dilemmas moral reasoning scale.

The procedure used to develop the scale followed the proceeding steps: 1) Specify domain of construct, 2) Generate sample items, 3) Data collection and survey purification, and 4) Assess reliability and validity (Churchill, 1979; Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988).

**Step 1: Specify domain of construct.** The first step in the scale development involved specifying the domains of the construct, and a literature search as recommended

by Churchill (1979). The original scale, the HBVCI, is based upon three of the universal deontic codes of conduct: honesty, responsibility, and justice. In the importance of creating a parallel scale outside of the sporting context it is imperative to use the three contexts in the formation of the new instrument.

The three constructs are as follows:

*Honesty* is defined as the condition or capacity of being trustworthy or truthful.

Honesty, in this sense, is a basic characteristic that society espouses - an ideal of moral development...to be honest in thought, word, or deed. Honesty, therefore, is the code of conduct which takes into consideration lying, cheating, and stealing, and refers to the honest person as one who follows the rules and laws.

*Responsibility* is defined as accounting for one's actions in the past, present, and future. We are responsible for our acts, if, and only if, we did the act or caused it to occur. A responsible person is morally accountable and capable of rational conduct.

*Justice* is defined as an equity or fairness for treating peers or competitors equally.

Justice is the quality of being righteous or of dealing justly with others. It is based in the integrity of doing the right or fair act. (Beller & Stoll, 2004, p. 28).

**Step 2: Generate sample of items.** The second step, item generation, captures the three domains specified during step one (Churchill, 1979; Selltiz et al., 1976). The items for the DLMD scale were generated through two phases. First, each of the HBVCI's sixteen items was broken down to identify three core components: value, intensity, and central character, explained further below. These components were used to construct

each of the corresponding “daily life” dilemmas for the current scale. After the items were constructed, feedback from an expert panel of professors who have done extensive research in the areas of sport, and moral and ethical issues, was utilized to further refine the scale items.

***Item construction.*** The items were constructed by mirroring the existing, validated scale used to measure moral reasoning in sporting contexts, the HBVCI. Each of the HBVCI’s 16 items was broken down to identify three core components: 1) value, 2) intensity, and 3) central character. These components were used to construct each of the corresponding “daily life” dilemmas for the current scale. These components were measures as follows with two examples:

- 1) Value: mirrored the universal deontic code of conduct for each item used in the HBVCI, as defined above, *honesty, responsibility, and justice.*
- 2) Intensity: mirrored the intensity level of the possible consequences related to the moral dilemma in the HBVCI (1-3) 1: insignificant-minor; 2: moderate; 3: major.
- 3) Central character(s): mirrored the person(s) involved in the dilemma: i.e., individual, collective group, someone of authority.

Examples:

HBVCI:

During an intramural basketball game, a student official awarded one free throw shot instead of two to team A. Team B knew the call was wrong, however chose to remain silent, knowing the call was to their advantage. Because the official’s job is



to make the proper calls, and it is not a formal game, team B's action was acceptable.

- 1) Value: Honesty
- 2) Intensity: Non formal game, one point: (1) insignificant-minor
- 3) Central character(s): Student official and student intramural athletes, peers

Corresponding DLMD:

After checking out at his local grocery store, a man notices that he was mistakenly given an extra \$10 in change. Because it is the cashier's job to make correct change, the man is not obligated to correct the cashier.

- 1) Value: Honesty
- 2) Intensity: Low monetary, no physical harm: (1) insignificant-minor
- 3) Central character(s): customer and cashier, equivalent to peers

HBVCI:

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

- 1) Value: Responsibility
- 2) Intensity: players getting kicked out of game, someone may get hurt: (2) moderate-major

- 3) Central character(s): coach and players, someone of authority

Corresponding DLMD:

Switching premium liquor for a cheaper brand can be a clever way for bar owners to make more money off of each drink. If a patron does not notice the difference the bartender is under no obligation to inform the patron of the use of lower priced liquor.

- 1) Value: Responsibility
- 2) Intensity: Serving clients a substance they are not aware of; they do not have the central control over what they are ingesting: (2) moderate/major
- 3) Central character(s): owner/manager and employees over patrons, someone of authority

***Expert feedback and sample data collection.*** To further refine the scale, experts in the field, four university professors who have done extensive research in the areas of sport, and moral and ethical issues, were contacted to rate the quality of the items and provide qualitative feedback regarding content of the measure. Each expert was asked to examine the relevance, representativeness, clarity, test format and wording, and item content of the questionnaire (Babbie, 1992).

After addressing the expert's feedback, a small convenience sample of 24 undergraduates were surveyed to evaluate clarity and wording of the preliminary instrument. The researcher administered a paper and pencil format of the instrument to a small undergraduate class. The students were asked to indicate any questions, comments, or issues they had with each of the items. The researcher also timed the class while they

completed the survey to calculate, on average, how long it takes to fill out the instrument. The preliminary DLMD was modified, revised, and improved for enhancing clarity and face validity based on the experts' and undergraduates' feedback. The preliminary survey included 12 scenarios scored on a 5-point Likert scale.

One example of feedback from the experts and undergraduates was to have each scenario be in third person format to coincide with the HBVCI scenarios that are also in third person format. For example, scenario before feedback:

You're at a bar with some friends and you have ordered many drinks over the course of the night. Somehow they all ended up on your tab. When you get the bill, you notice that a few of the drink you have ordered are not on there, saving you money. You decide not to tell the bartender because it is his job to put the drinks on the tab, after all you got stuck with the bill.

And after expert feedback:

A patron at a bar with some friends has ordered many drinks over the course of the night. Somehow all the drinks ended up on his tab. When he gets the bill, he notices that a few of the drinks he ordered were not on there, saving him money. He decides he is not obligated to tell the bartender because it is the bartender's job to put the drinks on the tab, after all he got stuck with the bill.

### **Data Collections and Steps 3 & 4**

After the items were modified and revised, the next steps in the development of the DLMD, as explained below through the process of data collections 1, 2 and 3, are survey purification, and assess reliability and validity. Churchill's (1979) instrument

development process is not hierarchical and can loop back to previous steps if the model tested through factor analysis does not fit. Items that did not load on their projected construct, looped back to step three for revision and subsequent data collection were performed (this step is outlined in more detail below, with table 2.2). After revision of the items, the reliability and validity processes (step 4) was performed to test if the modified items fit in the model.

### **Data collection 1:**

#### **Method**

**Procedure and participants.** The researcher contacted the university's student affairs department to recruit members of undergraduate student organizations for their participation. The researcher constructed an email with a link to the study on the Qualtrics survey platform. This email was forwarded to student organizations by the Assistant Director for Student Organizations and Clubs and the Graduate Assistant for Student Organizations and Clubs. The sample, consisting of 158 responses, was utilized to further purify the survey after the expert feedback and sample data collection.

**Step 3: Survey purification.** After the items were modified and revised, the next step in the development of the DLMD scale was scale purification. Scale purification involves exploratory factor analysis (Churchill, 1979; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988).

In 2004, Beller and Stoll ran a factor analysis on the HBVCI producing a two-factor solution. Component one, was comprised of twelve questions; whereas component two contained the remaining four. The first component addressed the level of principled reasoning in an individual, including the questions pertaining to honesty, responsibility,

and justice. The second component contained the consistency check questions. Since the DLMD will be administered along with the HBVCI, it does not need to include consistency checks, therefore, an EFA was run to investigate if the twelve questions related to honesty, responsibility, and justice, fit into a one factor solution.

***Results of exploratory factor analysis.*** The EFA produced a five-factor solution evaluated with the criteria of eigenvalues over 1, variance, scree plot and residuals. Eight of the twelve questions had positive loadings on the first component. Each of the other four questions loaded on their own separate components. Table 2.1 shows the loadings on the first component for each of the questions.

Table 2.1

*Loadings on Component 1*

Q1	.509
Q2	.472
Q3	.677
Q4	.572
Q5	.660
Q6	.182
Q7	.762
Q8	.657
Q9	.460
Q10	.640
Q11	.521
Q12	.280

The purpose for the development of the DLMD is to mirror the HBVCI; therefore, the remaining four questions (Q2,6,9 &12 as shown in Table 2.2) were reworked and reworded (table 2) to satisfy the requirement for a total of twelve questions. Following Churchill (1979), the process, with another data collection, looped back to step 3: survey purification.

Table 2.2

*Items Reworded After EFA*

- 1) Reworded to explain better the statement the respondent is agreeing or disagreeing to:

Original: A student took a class and knew that the professor reused some of his old test questions. She decided to create a study group but did not tell anyone else about what she knew. She was able to gather some old tests and did not share them with her study group. *This student ended up getting a better score on the test than the rest of her study group, helping her with the grading curve.*

Rewording: A student took a class knowing that the professor often reused some of his old test questions. She decided to create a study group but did not tell anyone else about what she knew. She was able to gather some old tests and did not share them with her study group. *Because the student ended up getting a higher score than her study group, helping her on the grading curve, she demonstrated good strategy.*

2) Reworded to get a better understanding that the statement is focused on who has responsibility:

Original: A valuable member of the student store staff handles many of the cash box transactions, moving the daily cash between the store and the office, where it is held overnight. She remembers that she needs cash to reserve her spot today for her upcoming spring break trip, and her wallet is empty. *She has the money at home, but no one is at her house to bring it over. She knows how the money is moved around through the student store, and could "borrow" the money from the cash box until tomorrow. Since she would be able to put the money back in the cash box tomorrow and no one would know, she decides to "borrow" the cash she needs.*

Rewording: A valuable member of the student store staff handles many of the cash box transactions, moving the daily cash between the store and the office, where it is held overnight. She remembers that she needs cash to reserve her spot today for her upcoming spring break trip, and her wallet is empty. *The supervisor in charge of the money has been leaving before close, therefore the money is not being counted at night. Since the money is not being counted she could borrow money today to pay for her trip and put it back in the cash box tomorrow without anyone knowing. Since it is the responsibility of the supervisor to make sure the money is deposited each night, it is acceptable for her to "borrow" the cash she needs.*

- 3) Reworded to better clarify who the respondent feels has a responsibility for the action:

Original: During the last few minutes of a test a student notices that she can see a fellow student's answer sheet. She knows that this student has the highest grade in the class. She has already finished, but still decides to check her answers off of his. She notices that he answered one of the questions she had a tough time with differently and decides to change her answer to match his. *Since her fellow student did not take proper care to cover his answer sheet, she feels no obligation to tell him that he left his answer sheet out where others could see.*

Rewording: During the last few minutes of a test a student notices that she can see a fellow student's answer sheet. She knows that this student has the highest grade in the class. She has already finished, but still decides to check her answers off of his. She notices that he answered one of the questions she had a tough time with differently and decides to change her answer to match his. *Since her fellow student did not take proper care to cover his answer sheet, she feels no obligation to keep her old answer because it is the teacher's job to ensure that students are not looking at others' answers.*

- 4) Reworded to make less wordy so the respondent can understand the statement clearly:



Original: A senior nursing student hears about a website that contains the questions on the nursing licensing exam, posted by people who have already taken the electronic test. *He knows that he could look at the website without anyone knowing. Some of his friends in the same situation have already perused the site, giving them an advantage. Since he believes that looking at the site would put him on equal footing with his fellow students and everyone has the same opportunity to see the questions,* it is only fair that he takes a look at the site.

Rewording: A senior nursing student hears about a website that contains the questions on the nursing licensing exam, posted by people who have already taken the electronic test. *He knows others taking the exam have already browsed the site, giving them an advantage. Since he believes that looking at the site would put him on equal footing with his fellow students,* it is only fair that he takes a look at the site.

## **Data collection 2:**

### **Method**

**Procedure and participants.** In order to obtain a similar sample to the first data collection, the researcher utilized undergraduate classes to collect the second round of data. The researcher administered a paper and pencil format of the DLMD instrument to the participants. The sample consisted of 151 responses.

**Step 3: Survey purification.** The items were revised following the findings noted above of the first data collection's EFA. Following the same procedure as data collection 1, after the items were modified, an exploratory factor analysis was run.

***Results of exploratory factor analysis.*** The revised scale produced a one factor solution evaluated with the criteria of eigenvalues over 1, variance, scree plot and residuals. The four revised questions along with the eight original questions, had positive loadings on one component. The one factor solution accounted for 59% of the total variance (Hair, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

**Step 4: Assess reliability and validity.** In this stage, validity and reliability of the modified DLMD scale was tested. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994, p.85) suggest that construct validity exists when one or more measures “generalize to a broader class of measures that legitimately employ the same name.” Reliability is defined as “the proportion of variance attributable to the true score of the latent variable” (DeVellis, 2003, p. 27). Confirmatory factor analysis and Chronbach’s alpha was used in this stage. *(Results of confirmatory factor analysis are explained below).*

### **Data Collection 3:**

#### **Method**

In the interest of furthering research on the HBVCI, as well as comparing the results of the two surveys validity, the researcher collected another round of data. Review of previous literature on the HBVCI produced only exploratory factor analysis results. To compare the results of the confirmatory analysis on the DLMD scale to the HBVCI, the original scale (HBVCI) was administered to the same participants from the second data collection.

**Procedure and participants.** The researcher administered a paper and pencil format of the HBVCI to the same undergraduate classes utilized in data collection 2.

Confirmatory factor analysis and Chronbach's alpha were analyzed and compared to the findings from data collection 2.

***Results of confirmatory factor analysis data collection 2.***

The results (Figure 2.1) provided evidence of the unidimensionality of the measures, with each item loading on one predicted factor (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988).

The results indicated good fit  $\chi^2 = 95.602$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), GFI = 0.912, NFI = 0.78, CFI = 0.85, IFI = 0.889, and RMSEA = 0.073; Chronbach's  $\alpha = 0.796$ .

***Results of confirmatory factor analysis data collection 3.***

The results (Figure 2.2) provided evidence for two dimensions of the measures, with each item loading on two predicted factors (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The results indicated good fit  $\chi^2 = 192.373$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), GFI = 0.869, NFI = 0.749, CFI = 0.842, IFI = 0.846, and RMSEA = 0.087; Chronbach's  $\alpha = 0.8$ . The first factor consisted of the twelve questions related to an individual's principled reasoning. The second factor contained the consistency check questions.

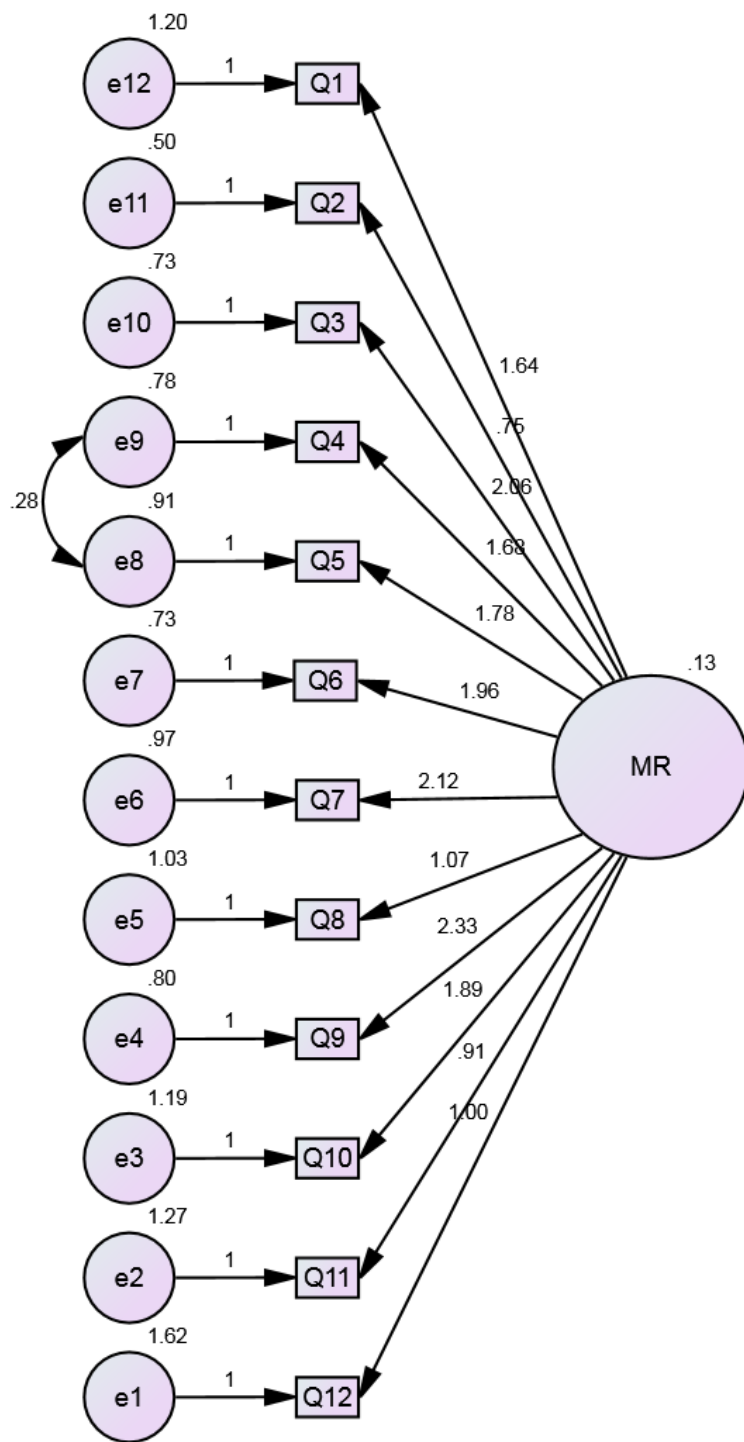


Figure 2.1: Data Collection 2. Confirmatory factor analysis.

*Comparison of confirmatory factor analysis data collection 2&3.*

When comparing the results from the two scales, the DLMD scale model had a slightly better fit than the HBVCI. This is evident through the analysis of the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the root mean squared approximation (RMSEA). A higher CFI indicates a better model, whereas the RMSEA should generate a lower number. The DLMD resulted in a CFI = 0.85 and an RMSEA = 0.073; and the HBVCI resulted in a CFI = 0.842 and a RMSEA = 0.087. Therefore, this further supports the goodness of fit on one dimension for the DLMD scale. With a Chronach's  $\alpha = 0.796$  and 0.8, both scales, for the purpose of comparison, indicated similar internal consistency reliability ( $0.9 > \alpha > 0.8 = \text{good}$ ;  $0.8 > \alpha > 0.7 = \text{acceptable}$ ) (DeVellis, 2012). With the similar statistics of CFI, RMSEA and Chronach's  $\alpha$  between both the HBVCI and the DLMD in these data collections, the researcher came to the conclusion that the current form of the DLMD is a fitting parallel scale to the HBVCI.

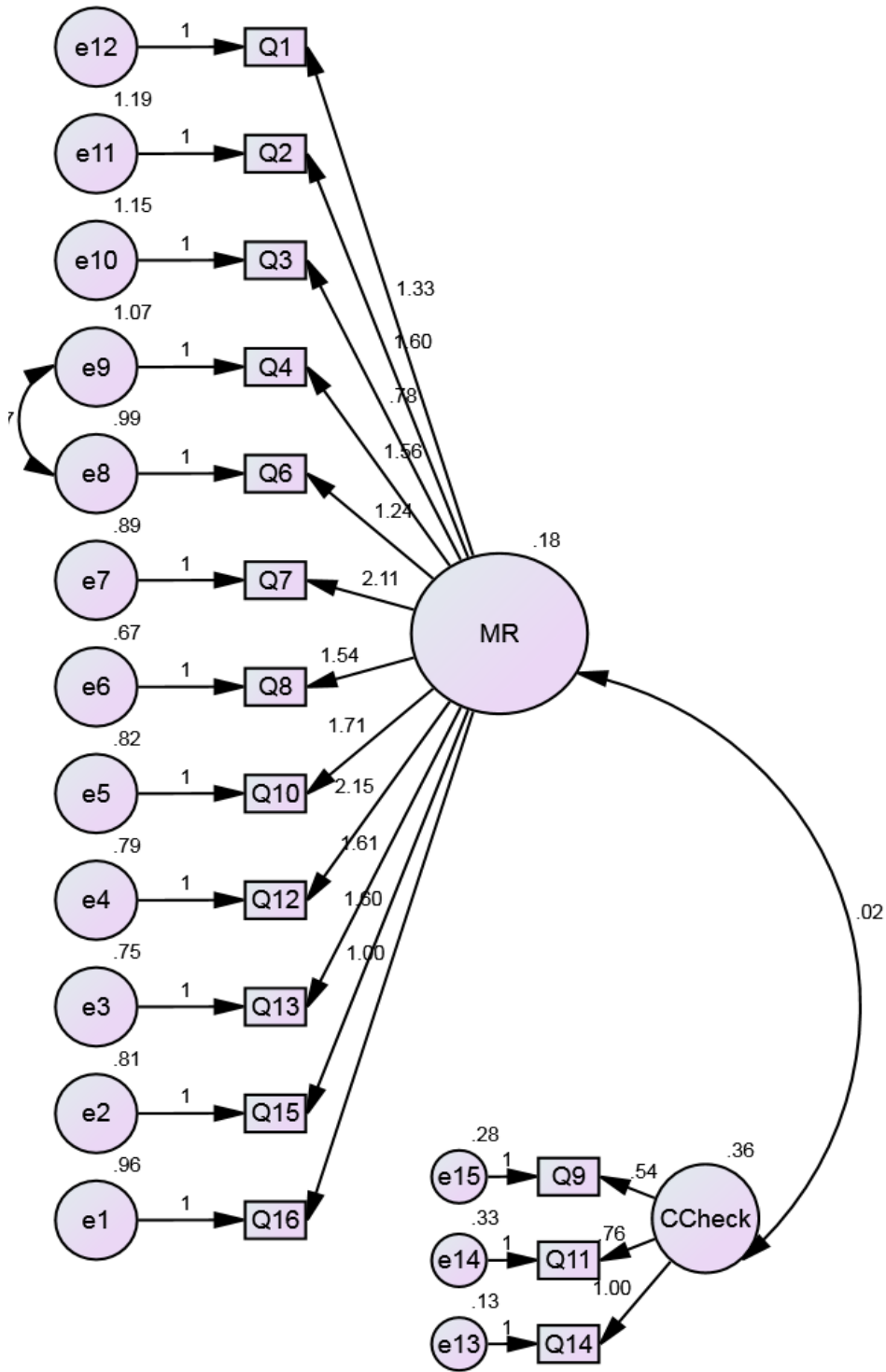


Figure 2.2: Data Collection 3. Confirmatory factor analysis.

## **Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to create a measurement of daily life scenarios that parallel an already validated instrument related to sport, the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (HBVCI). Following the scale development procedure recommended by Churchill (1979), Gerbing and Anderson (1988), and Anderson and Gerbing (1988) this study successfully developed the DLMD scale. The measure indicated good reliability and adequate fit. The availability of this measure can help expand the understanding of the relationship of participation in sport and its effects on everyday life.

Building on the premise that challenges participant's experience in sport are small-scale examples of the challenges they encounter in the world outside of sports, 12 daily life moral dilemma scenarios were created to mirror the sport specific moral dilemma scenarios in the HBVCI. The existence of a unidimensional scale corresponding to the principled thinking dimension of the HBVCI was consistent during the study. The scale was initially developed during stages one and two. The first data collection further purified the scale by noting the need to rewrite, reword, and rework four of the twelve scenarios. The second data collection provided evidence for the reliability and validity of the revised scale. The findings from the third data collection suggest that the daily life scenarios fit a unidimensional model for principle thinking slightly better than the model for the HBVCI.

## **Conclusion and Future Research**

As it is important to understand what nurtures positive ethical decision making in sport situations, it is equally imperative to understand if and how this influences “daily life moral reasoning. With the premise that sport is a “world within a world” (Huizinga, 1955), Bredemeier and Shields (1984) compared athlete’s moral reasoning responses in hypothetical sport dilemmas to their moral reasoning responses to hypothetical everyday life dilemmas. As with similar research testing hypothetical everyday life dilemmas, their study utilized the Defining Issues Test (DIT). The DIT contains six rather lengthy moral scenarios that are accompanied with 12 issue statements per moral scenario. The respondents are required to rate each issue statement as well as rank the top four most important issue statements for each scenario. As a result, the DIT requires a considerable amount of reading and thinking. The average completion time of the DIT is about 30 min (Lovisky, Treviño, & Jacobs, 2007). With the recognition from research methodologists on the importance of developing questionnaires or instruments that are not too extensive, the DLMD scale was developed with the concern for the general population’s willingness to respond to a lengthy instrument like the DIT, while also mirroring the HBVCI (e.g., Gay & Airasian, 2000; Wiersma & Jurs, 2005).

Even though there have been numerous studies suggesting that an individual’s moral reasoning differs between sport and everyday contexts, it is still not understood if influences on moral reasoning in sport are associated with different levels of moral reasoning in everyday moral reasoning. For example, these comparisons include the following questions: Can moral reasoning learned in sport transfer to daily life contexts?



Do athletes that have higher moral reasoning in sport contexts also have higher moral reasoning in daily life contexts compared to other athletes? Does higher moral reasoning in hypothetical moral dilemmas sport contexts correspond to higher moral reasoning in similar hypothetical moral dilemma daily life situations? As well as expanding the questions to look at items such as: Do certain sports transfer learning abilities differently? What are the attributes to these sports that affect this transferability? With the use of a less complicated, more relatable everyday moral dilemma instrument like the DLMD scale, it may ease the ability to grasp a larger sample, by attaining a higher participation rate, as well as deterring a higher non-response rate, to measure the differences and attributes that affect the relationship. By directly using the HBVCI scale to parallel scenarios, it is hoped that these two scales can be used in unison to determine in sport and out of sport comparisons.

## CHAPTER VI

### ARTICLE 2

#### **Comparison of Collegiate Club Sport's Athletes Moral Reasoning on the Field to their Moral Reasoning in Daily Life Situations**

##### **Introduction**

Recently, with the increasing number of publicized ethical scandals, schools have been motivated to take a critical look at their mission in the advancement of their students' moral values, in all aspects of the educational experience (Schmidt et al., 2009, Shrivastava, 2017). As there is no single area of a student's life, for example academics, student organizations, housing, or recreation, that is solely responsible for student development, it is of great importance to understand the ability that numerous "outside the classroom" experiences have on the development of students (Astin, 1984; Cox, Reason, Nix, & Gillman, 2016; Keeling, 2004; Kuh, 1993). These activities include campus recreation, fraternities and sororities, community service, religious organizations, political organizations as well as any other student organizations found at a university.

Since development of the student takes place in all areas of a student's life, universities must take into account a student's body, mind, and spirit, when assessing the learning process (Keeling, 2004). Academic affairs have the ability to develop a student's intellect, whereas student affairs can nurture the body, emotions, and spirit of a student (Keeling, 2004). For example, student affairs' departments provide extracurricular activities including student recreation, social clubs, and professional development programs that foster further development of students. Since these activities

foster the development of students in ways that are different from the academic setting of the classroom, it is of great importance to understand the ability these experiences effect the student and how it relates to the overall mission of the university. In addition, it is valuable to gain knowledge about the optimal way to administer or manage these activities to maximize student development.

If programmed properly, one cannot overlook the capability that sport has for playing a part in the moral education of an individual. Many aspects of sport can help in the encouragement of values such as fair play, cooperation, selflessness, and appreciation for others (Eitzen, 2016). Sport provides many decision provoking situations, including both moral and technical demands (Arnold, 1968; Weiss & Bredemeier, 1990). For example, whether or not an athlete should follow the direction of their coach knowing that following it breaks the rules of the game, for instance an intentional foul that benefits your team, is an important decision to have to make as an athlete.

There have been numerous studies interested in sport programming and moral education at the collegiate level. However, the majority of this research pertaining to intercollegiate sport at the university level has focused on varsity athletics, disregarding collegiate recreational sport where the majority of the students at an academic institution participate (e.g. Beller & Stoll, 1992; Lata & Mondello, 2010; Rudd & Stoll, 2004). This becomes important because there are several differences in the philosophies between recreational sports and intercollegiate athletics. For example, the accessibility to recreational sports is easier than that of intercollegiate athletics because of their numbers and the fact that everyone is allowed to participate and therefore, there are simply more

students involved (Davis, 2007). The opportunity to participate in recreational sport far exceeds the number of opportunities available to participate in varsity sport (NCAA, 2018; Forrester, 2014). In 2017, the average NCAA Division I member institution had approximately 446 student-athletes, equating to about four percent of the student body (NCAA, 2018). In a 2013, a survey conducted by the National Intramural-Recreational Sports Association (NIRSA) found that approximately 75% of college students reported using on-campus recreation facilities, programs and services (Forrester, 2014).

Therefore, it is more likely that a greater number of students, at any given university, have a greater chance of being influenced by participation in recreational sport than varsity sport. Pennington (2008) suggests that there is also a greater demand for club sport as more than 40 million children take part in organized sport, but less than five percent are able to play varsity college sport. Club sport has become an athletic outlet for those accustomed to competing at a high level (Pennington, 2008). With the majority of literature pertaining to varsity athletics, and the majority of the participation at the recreational level, it is important to consider the differences between the two. For example, NCAA varsity sports have different administration and governing structures than collegiate club sports. Recreational sports give greater responsibilities to students than to their intercollegiate athletic counterparts, by being governed mostly by the student participants themselves (Noto, 2000). Due to the pressure within Athletic Departments to create revenue, keep jobs, and encourage visibility of the institution, there is tremendous pressure placed on everyone, including the participants (Reynolds, Mjelde & Bessler, 2017; Simon, 2004). This can take away from the valuable personal benefits, including

the simple enjoyment of the sport, the promotion of team spirit, and the physical, social, and emotional benefits of participation seen in recreational sports (Arnold, Erickson, Fritz, & Spechalske, 1975). Recreational sport participants do not have to deal with the stress and demand from the more formal and institutionalized structure of intercollegiate athletics (Jackovic, 1999).

These varying environments may create different experiences and outcomes including ethical decisions needed for those that compete in club sport compared to NCAA varsity sport (Jackovic, 1999). With the differences in structure and lack of literature pertaining to club sports, it is important to research how club sports themselves may have a different effect on the development of a student.

As it is important to understand what nurtures positive ethical decision making in sport situations, it is equally imperative to understand if and how this influences daily life moral reasoning. With the premise that sport is a “world within a world” (Huizinga, 1955), Bredemeier and Shields (1984) compared athlete’s moral reasoning responses in hypothetical sport dilemmas to their moral reasoning responses in hypothetical everyday life dilemmas. Their research suggested that some athletes, dependent on age and sport, elicited lower levels of moral reasoning in sport compared to everyday life contexts.

Further research has supported this suggesting that athletes use separate moral systems in sport compared to daily life contexts (Adler & Adler, 1991; Bredemeier & Shields, 1984, 1986b, 2001; Bredemeier et al., 1986; Kavussanu & Ali Al-Yaaribi, 2019; Kavussanu, Boardley, Sagar, & Ring, 2013)

Stoll & Beller (1992) suggest that athletes' reason from a perspective of "What's important now", "What feels good", or "What someone else tells them is right and wrong." Even though there have been numerous studies suggesting that individuals' moral reasoning differs between sport and everyday contexts, it is still not understood if influences on moral reasoning in sport are associated with different levels of moral reasoning in everyday life. Can moral reasoning learned in a sport context transfer to daily life contexts? Do athletes that have higher moral reasoning in sport contexts also have higher moral reasoning in daily life contexts compared to other athletes? Does higher moral reasoning in hypothetical moral dilemma sport contexts correspond to higher moral reasoning in similar hypothetical moral dilemma daily life situations?

Even though there have been numerous studies suggesting that individuals' moral reasoning differs between sport and everyday contexts, it is still not well understood if influences on moral reasoning in sport are associated with different levels of moral reasoning in everyday moral reasoning. Therefore, this study aims to discover if there are differences of an individual's moral reasoning within club sport and similar daily life contexts.

### **Literature Review**

**Moral education and the university.** American universities were originally established with some form of moral education as a main objective; today most of these universities still currently support a mission that includes some aspect of moral development (Chickering, 2010; Ehrlich, 2000; Hughes & McCabe, 2006). The escalating number of publicized ethical scandals in universities has motivated schools to

take a more critical look at their role in the ethical development of students (Schmidt et al., 2009). For example, there is the recent fallout from the discovery of fake classes being taken by athletes at University of North Carolina (UNC) over nearly two decades, with the knowledge of various employees, to keep numerous student-athletes eligible to compete.

Similarly, longitudinal studies have shown that education plays a significant role in the development of moral reasoning (Brownlee, et al., 2019; Lind, 2002). Research also suggests that different moral environments, including educational settings, can have an influence on moral reasoning development (Higgins et al., 1984; Kohlberg, 1976).

Higgins, Power, and Kohlberg (1984) found that the moral reasoning of individuals in a democratic education setting were higher than individuals in a traditionally governed educational setting. They attribute this difference to the democratic schools' ability to put socio-moral decision making in the hands of students. They further suggest that the best way to approach moral education within any setting is to reform the moral environment in which decisions are made. Even though schools cannot force students to participate in practices that encourage certain behaviors, they need to create conditions, through policies and procedures, that are designed to encourage moral behavior (Kuh, 1995). For example, a university recreational department defining their mission as to “afford the diverse campus community opportunities to interact while participating in a wide variety of instructional and competitive activities that promote the development of the mind and body” (Clemson University, 2019).

Research, in the classroom setting, has shown that different classroom environments, including democratic settings, can influence moral development. For example, an emphasis on diversity in the classroom and curriculum at the college level has been suggested to aid in the development of students' capacities for social, personal, and ethical responsibility (Engberg & Porter, 2013). There are also many other areas in the educational experience, outside the classroom, which can be utilized for teaching ethical decision-making (Sadykova, Yergazina, Yeshpanov, Korvyakov & Aitzhanova, 2016). Astin (1984) and Kuh (1993) discovered that student experiences outside the classroom contribute significantly to personal development, including an individual's moral development. For example, participation in extracurricular activities, student government, living in a campus residence, conversations with faculty and peer, volunteerism, and on campus jobs have been suggested to influence student learning and personal development, including critical thinking and relational and organizational skills (Kuh, 1995).

As higher education has recognized that participation in these activities influences student learning and development in a positive way, these advances can vary among students (Ewing, Bruce, & Ricketts, 2009; Rubin, Bommer, & Baldwin, 2002). From their study of college outcomes research, Pascarella and Terenzini observed that "not all students benefit equally from the same experience"(1991, p. 634) and expressed a need for more studies to explore whether student and educational characteristics mediate the impact of college. This type of research is vital, as Ewell writes (1988, p. 70), "to provide evidence of reliable linkages between desired outcomes and particular



manipulable aspects of the [college experience]”. In the interest of providing moral development outcomes, it is valuable for all students, to assess, recognize and understand the effectiveness that university policies and procedures have on fostering such development. Participation in activities outside the classroom, including sport, is an area where administrators need to obtain a better awareness of the developmental impacts made on students (Barcelona and Ross, 2002). Many researchers question what use sport has in a university setting; thus, understanding the impacts sport has on students’ moral growth can help better answer this question.

**Sport and moral education.** Sport has the capability for playing a part in the moral education of an individual. Many aspects of sport can help in the encouragement of values such as fair play, cooperation, selflessness, and appreciation for others, (Eitzen, 2016). Subsequently, sport provides many decision provoking situations, requiring the participant to make a decision on how he/she will react to each situation (Arnold, 1968; Beller & Stoll, 2004; Weiss & Bredemeier, 1990).

As sport is different from everyday life, game reasoning, or bracketed morality, (Bredemeier and Shields, 1994; Bredemeier & Shields, 2001, Kavussanu, Boardley, Sagar, & Ring, 2013) suggests that an athlete’s moral reasoning is affected by the social environment within sport. Participants’ decisions may be affected by the contextual differences in space, time, rules, and symbols between sport and everyday life. For example, sport, being a competitive environment, requires athletes to seek advantages over opponents. The existence of rules also provides external regulation to aide in a fair

competitive environment. Athletes' often rely on coaches and officials to enforce these rules. Therefore, moral responsibility is often delegated to the coaches and officials.

In order to react ethically, the participant should not only know the rules, but also have an appreciation of the ethical principles on which these rules are based (Beller & Stoll, 2004). Since authority figures, for example referees, are responsible for maintaining the rules, athletes have the ability to abandon moral responsibility inherent to sport participation (Camiré & Trudel, 2010). To embrace a developmental perspective, an individual must understand that morally positive outcomes of sport participation do not emerge involuntarily but must be nurtured (Weiss, Smith, & Stuntz, 2008). Therefore, the individuals involved must have the opportunity to understand and appreciate the ethical principles for the basis of the rules, rather than simply transferring responsibility to coaches or officials, without any thought or respect to the decision of coaches and officials (Booth, 1982; Jantz, 1975; Piaget, 1932).

**HBVCI.** The Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (HBVCI) is the most widely used tool to measure moral reasoning in sport specific situations. The HBVCI was created on the assumption that sport builds character. It measures how respondents morally reason in a sport context according to the principles of honesty, responsibility and justice (Beller & Stoll, 2004). The HBVCI has become a useful tool in measuring an individual's moral reasoning within sport situations, but there has not been a consistent equivalent "out of sporting context" measurement tool utilized within the literature.

The HBVCI is comprised of 16 sport scenarios, scored on a 5-point Likert scale (SA-strongly agree to SD- strongly disagree), that focus on ethical issues ranging from

rule violations to unsportsmanlike behavior (Priest et al., 1999). Many of the scenarios make the respondent choose between following good sportsmanship and a decision more advantageous to winning (Priest et al., 1999). For example, one item from the HBVCI reads,

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

A respondent who selected "strongly agree" would be viewed as an individual who believes in not directing individual responsibility onto others. Related to deontological moral theory, the individual is abandoning a personal moral duty of being just and honest (University of Idaho Center of ETHICS\*, 2009).

**Morals transcending the sporting context.** As noted above, sport has been described as being disconnected from everyday life. With this disconnect, it is important to understand if and how different morals and values learned in the sporting context transcend to an individual's everyday life. There has been some previous research investigating the diffusion of moral reasoning, related to the specific setting of sport, to other areas of an athlete's life (Bredemeier & Shields, 1986a, 2001; Kavussanu, Boardley, Sagar, & Ring, 2013; Rutten, Dekovic, Stams, Schuengel, Hoeksma, & Biesta, 2008). As athletes make increasing commitment to identities based on their sport, reinforced by coaches, students, alumni and teammates, this in sport role becomes increasingly separate from other roles in an individual's life that might take place out of

sport. This “role engulfment” may limit the ability for an athlete to carry over traits into other aspects into everyday life (Adler & Adler, 1991). Since the context of athletics is different and kept separate from everyday life, Adler and Adler (1991) suggested that the character an individual learns, while in their role as a basketball player, will not carry into the other roles an individual may take on outside of a basketball context. This discrepancy between everyday life and college athletics must be taken into account when using sport as a vehicle for promoting moral development. When utilizing sport, it is important that the athlete is able to transfer the positive values and character learned in sport to other areas of his/her life (Coakley, 2015).

Interestingly, additional research has suggested that athletes tend to have a higher level of moral reasoning in everyday situations than they do in a sporting context (Allison, 1982; Bredemeier & Shields, 1984, 1986b, 2001; Bredemeier et al., 1986; Boyver, 1963; Hall, 1981; Kleiber & Roberts, 1981). However, the majority of this research has pertained to NCAA Division I sport participation. These studies further suggested that this might be due to certain aspects of the sport setting that that make high-level moral response improbable. These include: moral responsibility is controlled by referees, the dialogue is minimal among competing parties, moral exchange is inhibited by conservative structures, and competition is based on participant gain. This coincides with the ability for different sport settings to effect moral development. For example, democratic leadership within sport, which gives athletes more responsibility and a sense of ownership, is suggested to positively affect moral development (Bredemeier & Shields, 2006). This style of leadership is more commonly found in collegiate club sport

compared to collegiate varsity sport. Thus, this presents a need for further research of recreational sport within the university.

Even with some previous research suggesting promotion of anti-social behavior in sport, the ability for sport to serve the objective of developing moral socially oriented behaviors in its participants cannot be ignored (Arnold, 1968). Components of sport are not themselves moral or immoral, instead it is the social interactions within the sport experience that influence character (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). Participants use morality to evaluate sport behavior, with fairness, freedom, and equity at the very foundation of sport (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995; Arnold, 1984). Interestingly, sport has also been defined as being set apart from everyday life and disconnected from or uninfluenced by broader society (Shields and Bredemeier, 1995).

Consequently, as the recreational sport culture continues to be prominent at the university level, it is important to investigate the effects that these recreational sports can have on students' moral development and reasoning based on their participant focused organizational structure. Exploring the outcomes of participation will help to support the existence of recreational sport programs at the university level as well as provide administrators with beneficial information on ways to provide optimal programming for students (Barcelona, 2002). This sort of research can lead to a better understanding of the conditions under which certain values do or do not develop. The specific sport alone does not influence an individual's values; instead there are numerous factors in the sport setting as a whole that influence an individual's moral development. Shields and Bredemeier's comment on the effect of sport atmosphere, "... the quality of the sport

experience is what matters. The quality of the sport experience derives from the quality of the leadership, the structural qualities of the sport itself, the social milieu in which it occurs and the characteristics of the participants, to name only the most salient factors” (Shields & Bredemeier 1995, p. 221). In other words, influences from sport do not come from the sport itself but from the total sport experience, including a combination of social interactions and physical activities (Trulson, 1986) with the understanding that greater autonomy and responsibility in club sports often results in more opportunity for moral decision making.

**Hypotheses.** The purpose of this project is to explore if the level of a club sport athlete’s moral reasoning in hypothetical moral dilemmas sport contexts correspond to their moral reasoning in similar hypothetical daily life situations. Therefore, based upon literature regarding moral development theory, as well as previous studies related to sports and moral development, this study proposes the following hypothesis in the null form:

1. There will be no significant differences in moral reasoning, as measured by the DLMD scale, the HBVCI, and the DLMD-HBVCI difference between genders.
2. There will be no significant differences in moral reasoning, as measured by the DLMD scale, the HBVCI, and the DLMD-HBVCI difference, dependent on year in school.

3. There will be no significant differences in moral reasoning, as measured by the DLMD scale, the HBVCI, and the DLMD-HBVCI difference, dependent on type of sport (contact vs. non-contact).
4. There will be no significant differences in moral reasoning, as measured by the DLMD scale, the HBVCI, and the DLMD-HBVCI difference between all athletes.
5. There will be no significant differences between daily life moral reasoning, as measured by the DLMD and sport specific moral reasoning, as measured by the HBVCI, and the DLMD-HBVCI difference, dependent on the variables of year in school, gender, and sport.

## **Methods**

**Participants and setting.** Due to the exploratory nature of this project, responses from a small sample of club sport athletes was utilized. Data were collected at a large NCAA Division I-A southeastern university. The University's Department of Recreation, with the interest in promoting participation in a wide variety of activities, provides 34 club sports for students. Since an individual's social environment impacts his/her moral reasoning and development, the morals and values specific to a university's environment may have an impact on student moral reasoning and development. These morals and values can vary greatly from one university to the next. To eliminate the effect of this variable on participants' moral reasoning scores, it was of interest for the researcher to utilize only one university in this study. The sample selected for this study was a convenience sample of club athletes at a D-I southeastern university aged 18-23.

**Survey instrument.** To compare athletes' moral reasoning in sporting contexts to their moral reasoning in daily life contexts, two scales were used in this study, the HBVCI and the DLMD scale. The HBVCI was designed to measure moral reasoning within a sporting context (Beller & Stoll, 1992; Beller et al., 1996). The scale, reading at a 9<sup>th</sup> grade reading level, has over the past 20 years, established reliability yielding internal consistency scores, Cronbach alphas, between .74 and .88 (University of Idaho Center of ETHICS\*, 2009). The HBVCI has a total of 16 questions scored on a 5-point Likert scale. Twelve of the questions are based upon three of the universal deontic codes of conduct: honesty, responsibility, and justice. The remaining four are consistency checks. The range of scores on the HBVCI is 12-60. An egocentric processing of moral dilemmas is indicated by scores in the higher range. Whereas the midpoint of the scale, 36, represents the moderate use of deontological principles when settling ethical issues in sports by an individual.

**DLMD scale.** The DLMD scale was developed to mirror the HBVCI. Each of the scenarios in the DLMD scale were constructed to emulate the corresponding HBVCI sport-specific scenario into a daily life context. The DLMD scale development process was based on Churchill's (1979), Gerbing and Anderson's (1988), and Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) guidelines which includes confirmatory factor analysis and subsequent steps. The scale was developed through the proceeding steps: 1) Specify domain of construct, 2) Generate sample items, 3) Data collection and survey purification, 4) Assess reliability and validity (Churchill, 1979; Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Since the DLMD scale was modeled after the HBVCI, the measurement



of the scales is equivalent. The pilot study of the construction of the DLMD, ranging in scores of 12-60, indicated a Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.796$  (Orem & Arthur-Banning, 20xx).

**Data collection.** The researcher obtained club sport presidents' emails from the assistant director of club sports. The researcher sent an email to the presidents requesting their assistance in the study. Utilizing the Dillman (2000) tailored design method, presidents, who agreed to assist in the study, sent emails, provided by the researcher, to their athletes, requesting their participation in an online survey. To increase participant response rate, a total of three e-mails were sent to the participants asking for their participation in the study (Dillman et al., 2014). The first e-mail alerted participants to look for the survey in seven days (see Appendix G). The second e-mail was sent seven days later and included a link to the online survey (see Appendix H). The third e-mail was sent seven days later to remind students again to take the online survey (see Appendix I). This timeframe allowed the data collection to be open for two weeks.

Data were collected online via the Qualtrics survey platform. Participants were emailed a link to the survey, which included the DLMD scale, the HBVCI, and a demographic questionnaire including age, gender, sport, year in school, and team membership along with a cover letter expressing the purpose of the research, listing the instructions, and guarantying the survey will be kept anonymous. The HBVCI was included with permission from the Center for ETHICS\* at the University of Idaho. Email contact to the researcher was provided to answer any questions that arose.

## Results

Of the 34 club presidents that were emailed, 9 agreed to participate. The sample included 52 responses. Demographics were reported as follows: gender: 16 males, 36 females; year in school: 17 freshmen, 13 sophomores, 8 juniors, 14 seniors; 23 contact sport athletes, 29 non-contact sport athletes.

Descriptive statistics were generated for moral reasoning score totals for the DLMD and HBVCI as well as the DLMD-HBVCI difference score. The scales' mean scores are presented in the Table 3.1. To test hypotheses 1-3 t-tests were used to determine whether scores on the DLMD scale, the HBVCI, and the DLMD-HBVCI difference differed dependent on gender (see Table 3.2), year in school (see Table 3.3), and type of sport (see Table 3.4). To account for the low response rate, year in school was condensed to two categories, (1) freshmen and sophomores, (2) juniors and seniors. The only significant difference observed among hypotheses 1-3 was related to hypothesis 2: *There will be no significant differences in moral reasoning, as measured by DLMD scale and the HBVCI dependent on year in school.* There was a significant difference observed ( $p < .01$ ) on HBVCI scores between years in school. On average, freshmen and sophomores' HBVCI scores were 8 points lower than juniors and seniors' HBVCI scores. There was also a significant difference observed ( $p < .05$ ) on difference scores between years in school. On average freshmen and sophomores' difference scores were 6 points greater than juniors and seniors' difference scores.

Table 3.1. Means and Standard Deviations for Scales

	<b>MEAN</b>	<b>STD. DEV.</b>	<b>MIN.</b>	<b>MAX.</b>
<b>DLMD</b>	42.73	7.154	27	57
<b>HBVCI</b>	37.67	9.703	19	59
<b>DIFFERENCE</b>	5.06	8.062	-10	20

Table 3.2. Differences in Mean (SD) Scores for DLMD, HBVCI, and Difference for Males and Females

	<b>MALE</b>	<b>FEMALE</b>	<b>T-VALUE</b>	<b>SIG.</b>
<b>DLMD</b>	43.06 (8.38)	42.58 (6.66)	.202	.842
<b>HBVCI</b>	35.19 (10.00)	38.78 (9.499)	-1.213	.235
<b>DIFFERENCE</b>	7.88 (7.29)	3.81 (8.16)	1.789	.083

Table 3.3. Differences in Mean (SD) Scores for DLMD, HBVCI, and Difference for Year in School

	<b>FRESH/SOPHOMORE</b>	<b>JUNIOR/SENIOR</b>	<b>T-VALUE</b>	<b>SIG.</b>
<b>DLMD</b>	41.60 (7.97)	44.27 (5.68)	.25	.164
<b>HBVCI</b>	34.20 (8.66)	42.41 (9.18)	2.60	.002
<b>DIFFERENCE</b>	7.40 (6.69)	1.86 (8.80)	-2.91	.018

Table 3.4. Differences in Mean (SD) Scores for DLMD, HBVCI, and Difference for Type of Sport

	<b>CONTACT</b>	<b>NON-CONTACT</b>	<b>T-VALUE</b>	<b>SIG.</b>
<b>DLMD</b>	40.22 (8.17)	44.72 (5.61)	-2.257	.03
<b>HBVCI</b>	34.48 (10.68)	40.21 (8.17)	-2.125	.04
<b>DIFFERENCE</b>	5.74 (7.93)	4.52 (8.26)	.542	.59

To test hypothesis 4: *There will be no significant differences in moral reasoning, as measured by the DLMD scale and the HBVCI between all athletes*, scores from the HBVCI were compared with scores from the DLMD scale using a paired t-test. There was a significant difference ( $p < .01$ ) between scores on the HBVCI and scores on the DLMD scale. All athletes on average scored higher on the DLMD scale compared to the HBVCI indicating that they have a lower level of moral reasoning in sporting contexts. The mean difference between the two scales was 5.06 with a standard deviation of 8.06.

To test hypothesis 5: *There will be no significant differences between daily life moral reasoning, as measured by the DLMD and sport specific moral reasoning, as measured by the HBVCI, dependent on the variables of year in school, gender, and type of sport*, a multiple regression was run to predict or determine the relationship between the difference scores and the dependent variables (see table 3.5). The only significant difference observed is between years in school ( $p < .05$ ). Holding the other variables constant (gender, type of sport) the predicted difference in moral reasoning scores between the two scales among freshmen and sophomores is on average 5 points greater

than the difference scores among juniors and seniors. Juniors and seniors scored higher on both scales as compared to freshmen and sophomores.

Table 3.5. Summary of multiple regression statistics for the predictor variables

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	23.073	6.420	3.594	.001
	Gender	-4.627	2.333	-1.983	.053
	Type of sport	-1.603	2.188	-.733	.467
	Year in school	-5.402	2.126	-2.541	.014

a. Dependent Variable: Difference in HBVCI and DLMD

## Discussion

This study compares club sport athletes' moral reasoning in sport contexts to their moral reasoning in daily life situations on two scales designed to parallel one another. Generally, club sport athlete's moral reasoning in sporting contexts were lower than their moral reasoning in daily life contexts. Specifically, when comparing athletes' moral reasoning in sport, the only variable that was suggested to affect their score was year in school. The later the athlete is in school, the higher the athlete scored on the HBVCI. On average freshmen and sophomores' HBVCI scores were 8 points lower than juniors and seniors' HBVCI scores. Lower scores imply a lower level of moral reasoning in freshman and sophomores compared to juniors and seniors. There was also a significant difference observed ( $p < .05$ ) on difference scores between years in school. Difference

scores are the difference between an individual's score on the HBVCI to the DLMD. On average freshmen and sophomores' difference scores were 6 points greater than juniors and seniors' difference scores. Therefore, juniors and seniors moral reasoning in sporting contexts was more similar to their reasoning outside sporting contexts when compared to freshmen and sophomores. This difference was also observed when holding the other variables constant (gender, type of sport). The predicted difference in moral reasoning scores among freshmen and sophomores is 5 points greater than juniors and seniors ( $p < .05$ ). These findings contradict previous findings that showed that the longer one is in sports, the lower an individual's moral reasoning in sport (e.g., Allison, 1982; Beller & Stoll, 1992; Bredemeier Shields, Weiss & Cooper, 1986; Priest et al., 1999; Webb, 1969). This could be due to the changing era of modern sport. With previous research pushing for the importance of moral development in sport, some sport administrators have begun to focus on programs and policies to improve the moral development of athletes through sport (Pennington, 2017). Since the majority of studies have focused on collegiate varsity athletics, the findings in this study that the later an athlete is in school, the more similar their moral reasoning in the two different contexts, suggests that perhaps policies and programs in club sport, while also allowing for high level competitiveness, may have a different effect on an individual than varsity sports. This theory needs further inquiry as the sample in this study consisted of only club sports athletes. Other college student populations need to be studied to take into account other areas within the university, for example other extracurricular activities, that may develop a student's moral reasoning within sport settings.

The difference found in this study compared to previous studies may be related to the structure of club sports. Club teams allow for members to have more responsibility than individuals involved in varsity sport (Noto, 2000). The less structured atmosphere of club sport may provide different outcomes for their participants (Jackovic, 1999). For example, because members are more involved in the team decision-making process, club sport forces students to take ownership in the outcomes of the process. Members can take on different roles within the team, including president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer; or those not included in the board can still have their say in the running of the program by attending at team meetings. This would also support why lower level students exhibited lower moral reasoning scores; because in the club sport setting, they may not have had the opportunity to take on the more leadership type roles within the club and thus have had fewer opportunities to develop their moral reasoning.

Bredemeier and Shields (2006) suggest, to positively affect moral development, a democratic leadership style should be utilized in sport to maximize social and moral growth and allow members to develop a sense of ownership. The effect democratic settings have on moral reasoning has been evident in studies in the classroom (Feldman, 2001). Longitudinal studies have shown that education plays a significant role in the development of moral reasoning (Brownlee, et al., 2019; Lind, 2002). Further research suggests that different moral environments, including educational settings, can have an influence on moral reasoning development (Higgins et al., 1984; Kohlberg, 1976). Higgins, Power, and Kohlberg (1984) found that the moral reasoning of individuals in a democratic education setting were higher than individuals in a traditionally governed

educational setting. They attribute this difference to the democratic schools' ability to put socio-moral decision making in the hands of students. Shifting this thought to sport, compared to collegiate varsity sport, collegiate club sport gives the participants greater responsibility, shifting the sporting culture from administrator control, common in varsity athletics, to a more democratic setting. This greater responsibility allows for the athletes to better understand and appreciate the ethical principles for the basis of the rules, rather than simply transferring responsibility to coaches or officials, without any thought or respect to the decision of coaches and officials (Booth, 1982; Jantz, 1975; Piaget, 1932). With sport requiring the participant to make a decision on how he/she will react to each situation, as more responsibility is put on the athlete to make the decision, morally positive outcomes of sport participation are nurtured (Arnold, 1968; Beller & Stoll, 2004; Weiss & Bredemeier, 1990; Weiss et al., 2008) which it appears also can be supported by the findings of this study. This is also related to previous findings of Higgins, Power, and Kohlberg (1984) that the moral reasoning of individuals in a democratic education setting were higher than individuals in a traditionally governed educational setting. Democratic schools, as do club sports, put greater decision making in the hands of students.

With greater decision making put into the hands of athletes, the notion of game reasoning (Bredemeier & Shields, 1994) may also be affected. Since greater ownership falls on the club athletes compared to varsity athletes, the social environment within club sport may be more similar to their everyday life. Bredemeier and Shields (1994), suggested that since an athlete's social environment is different in sport (i.e. competitiveness, external regulation), their moral reasoning will be different. If social



environments are similar among contexts than game reasoning will affect an athlete's moral reasoning less.

The findings of this study also suggest that club athletes may be able to carry traits that they have learned in sport into aspects of everyday life. This is due to older club sport athletes reporting less differences in their moral reasoning scores between in and out of sport contexts moral reasoning. Alder and Alder (1991) suggested that due to "role engulfment," the ability to transfer behaviors learned in sport to everyday life may be limited. Therefore, an athlete's commitment to identities based on their sport, reinforced by coaches, students, alumni and teammates, may not be as prominent in club sport as it is in varsity sport for example, where many of the moral behavior studies have been done, which may allow traits learned in club sport may transfer over to everyday life.

As with previous studies (e.g. Beller, 1990; Culpepper & Killion, 2016; Hahm, 1989), there was significant difference ( $p < .01$ ) between moral reasoning on the HBVCI and moral reasoning outside of sport as demonstrated by the DLMD in this study. The mean difference between the two scales was 5.06 with a standard deviation of 8.06. As the DLMD is a relatively new scale, this finding aids in future use and validation of the scale. The majority of studies comparing the HBVCI to situations outside of sport have utilized the Defining Issues Test (DIT). This study utilized the DLMD instead of the DIT with the interest of comparing scenarios within the sporting context with similar common everyday life scenarios. Whereas the DIT utilizes scenarios that are not common to everyday situations. For example, one of the dilemmas involves whether or not a doctor

should give an overdose of a pain-killer to a suffering, weak patient. Therefore, using disparate scenarios, researchers have not been able to compare similar scenarios on and off the field to evaluate individual's responses which the DLMD has sought to do in its development.

**Limitations and future research.** There were several inherent limitations in this study. The main limitation was the small sample size and inability to accurately calculate the response rate. Due to privacy restrictions, the researcher was only able to obtain the club sports presidents' email addresses. Since the researcher did not have access to the club sports participants' emails individually, distribution was dependent on the club presidents. Therefore, the researcher, does not know how many participants were contacted, and if the presidents followed the Dillman's Tailored Design Method (TDM) as it was presented to them, sending out all three of the emails. In future studies, it would be beneficial if the researcher was able to have access to the club sports participants' emails directly. With direct communication, the researcher could verify that the TDM was carried out, as well as being able to calculate the response rate.

With a larger sample size there would be a possibility to further explore the reasoning behind the differences in this study as opposed to previous studies. First is that each sport was only separated into contact versus non-contact sport. There is a subcategory of contact sports termed collision sports. Tucker and Parks (2001) suggested that collision sport accept more aggressive behaviors than other contact or non-contact sports. Future studies with more respondents should divide sports into the three different categories to delineate if there is a difference among the three.

The divergence in findings on gender could also be further investigated with a larger sample. It would also be of interest to compare genders among traditionally male sports and traditionally female. As opportunities have grown for women to participate in traditionally masculine sports, this may affect their acceptance of aggression culturally seen in “masculine” sports, (Marasescu, 2014), having an effect on their moral reasoning.

This study utilized the assumption that students started playing in their respective club sport as freshman. To rule out the effect the university, over time, has on the moral reasoning, there are many variables that would be important to take into account in future studies. Further research should ask number of years each student athlete has participated in their club sport to aid in ruling out the influence of the effect each year of being a student at the university has on their moral reasoning. It would also be beneficial to compare these findings to a sample within the same university that do not compete in club sports, to rule out the effects of the university.

**Conclusion.** The data of this study suggest that as club sport athletes progress through their time in school, their moral reasoning progresses to a higher level. As time in school and moral reasoning in sport progresses to a higher level, the data also suggest that it becomes more similar to their moral reasoning in daily life situations. This contradicts previous studies that have suggested that athletes’ moral reasoning in sport situations decreases as they get older. With the limited amount of research in club sports and the introduction of a new scale, it is important to continue research to understand if it is the nature of club sports, the introduction of a scale that better relates to everyday situations then previous scales, or a combination of both that supports these findings.

Although schools cannot force students to participate in practices that encourage certain behaviors, they can create environments that are designed to nurture positive moral behavior (Kuh, 1995). As club sports become more prominent at the university level, it is important to investigate the effects that these recreational sports can have on students' moral development and reasoning. Exploring the outcomes of participation will help to support the existence of recreational sport programs at the university level as well as provide administrators with beneficial information on ways to provide optimal programming for students (Barcelona, 2002). This sort of research can lead to a better understanding of the conditions under which certain values do or do not develop.

## CHAPTER VII

### ARTICLE 3

#### **College Club Sports as a Democratic Classroom in the Interest of Teaching Moral Reasoning**

##### **Introduction**

The idea that sport builds moral character has been around since at least Aristotle and Plato (Reid, 2007). Researchers have suggested that the ability to promote moral character within sport is dependent on several aspects of sport, including atmosphere (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995; Spruit, Van Vugt, Van der Put, Van der Stouwe, & Stams, 2016; Trulson, 1986). With past research in education suggesting that democratic classrooms and schools provide positive settings for student moral character and development, it can be proposed that, since sports also have the potential to be an achievement climate, democratic settings may be beneficial in positive moral development in sport (Power, Nuzzi, Narvaez, Lapsley, & Hunt, 2007).

Democratic classrooms and schools, through the democratic values of justice, equality, and respect, have been suggested to promote moral reasoning by creating shared decision making and increasing responsibility of students (Morrison, 2008). Democratic classrooms and schools encourage the students to be their best moral selves by reinforcing community and compelling students to be respectful and responsible. For example, when solving a classroom problem, for instance bullying at recess, students all work together to solve the problem. Once an agreement is reached, students decide what the consequences are for not following the class agreement. Each student is then held to

this commitment by one another. By deciding on, promoting, and following these agreements (or rules) collectively, it creates ownership and community among the students. Each student has involvement in the creation and enforcement of these classroom agreements and thus are more committed to adhering to them for the betterment of the group.

The purpose of this paper is to present the view that club sports, at the university level, mirror the concept of democratic classrooms and therefore may provide an environment which allows for the promotion of moral development. This paper also seeks to aid in filling the gap in literature related to collegiate recreational sport. The majority of research in collegiate level sport does not coincide with the participation levels of collegiate sport. Specifically, the amount of research seems to coincide with the sports that bring more visibility to the University, have a greater fan base, make more money for the University, as well as utilize more of the University's resources (i.e., budget, administration). Most research pertains to NCAA, but opportunity to participate in collegiate recreational sport far exceeds the opportunities to participate in varsity sport. In 2012-13, the average NCAA member institution had approximately 424 student-athletes (Burnsed, 2013). Also, in 2013, a survey conducted by NIRSA (National Intramural-Recreational Sports Association) found that approximately 75% of college students reported using on-campus recreation facilities, programs and services (Forrester, 2014). Therefore, as varsity sports may have an effect on students, it is more likely that a greater number of students, at any given university, have more opportunity to be influenced by participation in recreational sport than varsity sport.

Through the explanation of the different levels of sport, from recreation to varsity, within the university, the idea that the attributes of university club sport mirrors that of the democratic classroom is presented; therefore, proposing that club sport may create an atmosphere conducive to the moral development of university students. This paper is separated into four sections 1) explanation of Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development; 2) moral development in the classroom, including the use of democratic classrooms as a tool for moral development; 3) the use of sport in moral development including its use at the University level; 4) delves into similarities of club sports and democratic education.

### **Theoretical Background**

***Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development.*** Lawrence Kohlberg, regarded as the most influential researcher in the field of moral development, expanded on Piaget's theory on cognitive moral development in children (Kohlberg, 1984; Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). Kohlberg suggested that although an individual's behavior may be observed as inconsistent, motives were often consistent (Bredemeier & Shields, 2006). Therefore, to truly understand morality, the standards each individual uses in judging intentions and behavior, and the rules by which he/she tries to conduct his/her life (Taylor, 1967), an individual's motives must be understood. Thus, he was more interested in why the individual chose the action than the action that the individual chose (Bredemeier & Shields, 2006). Just because the action an individual takes may seem to be moral, does not mean that the motivation behind the action was moral. To decipher an action's morality, a researcher must understand the reasoning behind it.

Related to an individual's motives, Kohlberg, through the findings of his interviews, suggested that individuals pass through an organized system of hierarchical modes of thinking (Rich & DeVitis, 1985). He suggested that there are six developmental stages within three levels of morality: the pre-conventional level, the conventional level, and the post-conventional level (Kohlberg, 1984). Kohlberg (1976) explains that the three levels of morality can be seen as three different relationships between self and society's rules and expectations. At the pre-conventional level, an individual relates society's rules and expectations as external to self. At the conventional level, the individual identifies with or internalizes the rules and expectations of society. Finally, at the post-conventional level, the individual distinguishes their values from other's rules and expectations and his morality is defined by self-chosen values. Each level contains two stages, the higher level is more advanced and organized within each stage (Kohlberg, 1976). Therefore, three individuals may decide on the same action, but the motive behind the action may vary. An individual may choose not to cheat on a test for fear of getting caught and being failed (pre-conventional level), whereas another student may also not cheat because they believe they have an obligation to uphold the rules of the classroom, and a third student may choose not to cheat, not for fear of getting caught, or duty to the classroom but because they believe everyone should have a fair chance (post-conventional level).

Kohlberg's moral stages fit specific criteria. First the stages are consistent in sequence. Each stage cannot be skipped, as at each stage an individual comprehends a new point of view that is necessary for the subsequent stage. Second, the stages are



hierarchical integrations in that individuals in higher stages are able to understand lower stages. James Rest (1994) states that higher stages are better because they are cumulative and more preferred for example, in order to be in stage 4 an individual must understand stage 3. With respect to stage sequence, Lawrence Walker's (1989) longitudinal study of moral reasoning, found few occurrences where stage sequence was not followed. The number of the occurrences where well within the level of expected measurement error (Walker, 1989).

*John Dewey's Theory of Democratic Schools and Classrooms.* In the first half of the twentieth century, John Dewey reigned as one of the most eminent American philosophers of education. He called attention to the role of experience in education as well as the social purpose of education (Power et al., 2007). With this concept, he remains one of the most influential American philosophers and educators who dealt with the issues of democracy and education. Dewey presented his argument for the importance of democratic education in a number of his publications (e.g., Dewey, 1897, 1902, 1916, 1927, 1938). Therefore, the current concept of the democratic classroom is commonly philosophically grounded in Dewey's notions of democracy and education (Glassman & Kang, 2011). Dewey envisioned schools and classrooms to be small-scale democratic communities where students and staff contribute and participate collectively toward an equal and enriching life together (Dewey, 1897). Dewey (1938) recognized that, while all students unquestionably have experiences in classrooms and schools, "everything depends upon the *quality* of the experience which is had" (p. 27). Not all

experiences are educational, and some can be the opposite. Therefore, experiences in the classroom must be meaningful and benefit student and societal needs.

Dewey recognized that education is social, collective, interactive, and reciprocal; therefore, attention must be given to the interaction between the students and teachers in each educational experience (Dewey 1916). Dewey envisioned democratic school and classroom communities that give students opportunities to have a say in establishing a difference in their own education by utilizing collaborative inquiry and communal problem-solving (Dewey, 1916). He believed this practice made students active and involved participants encouraging them to develop their own individual capacities, as well as, becoming advocates of change for the improvement and advancement of their community “classroom” life (Glassman & Whaley, 2000). Dewey understood that in a democratic structure, individuals have the freedom to discover themselves as they respond to new problems and opportunities (Power, et al. 2007). Dewey asserted that it was the educators’ responsibility to set up these democratic learning environments (Glassman & Kang, 2011). For example, encouraging and supporting the critical and reflective thinking giving students the opportunity to influence the goals, objectives and consequences of their activities in the classroom. Teachers should allow students to express their opinions and not pressure them to conform. One example is allowing children, within school regulations, to dress in different or uncommon clothing.

In the education literature, as democratic education is grounded in freedoms, the term freedom-based education has been utilized (Morrison, 2008). Current examples of democratic education include the Summerhill School, Sudbury Valley School, and other

“free schools”; as well as the recent homeschooling trend of unschooling, where the student directs their own learning (Morrison, 2008).

***Structure of Democratic Education.*** Democratic education, which can range from micro-level structure within classrooms to the macro-level of a whole school structure, was founded with the presumption that individuals are instinctively curious and possess an inherent need to learn and grow (Morrison, 2008). This type of education aids in the need for student experience of active participation and empowerment in the classroom (Edelstein, 2011). Many authors have emphasized the importance of involving students in the decision-making process, stressing the importance of a classroom climate in which students are encouraged to participate actively and express their opinions (Covell & Howe, 2001, Tourney-Porta, 2002). Edlestein (2011) stressed that the attributes of greatest importance in a democratic education setting are classroom meetings and classroom councils. These meeting allow students to be consistently involved in the decision-making process provide input and debate consequences. Through these meetings and councils shared goals, rules and expectations are set and agreed upon. Responsibilities of students and teachers are set, where often the teacher is seen as a coach, implementing and reinforcing the goals, rules, and expectations, and goals set forth by the students. This practice further enforces mutual respect for the rest of the classroom community (Edelstein, 2011).

Utilizing these democratic structures has been the focus of numerous studies to determine their effects in the classroom (e.g. (Edelstein, 2011; Kunzman, 2006; Schram & Rosean 1996; Weinstock, Assor, & Broide, 2009). For example, with the focus of

teaching structure, Lewin's (1938) seminal study investigated the effects of three different styles of instructors: (1) autocratic, (2) laissez-faire, and (3) democratic. The democratic style of teaching was found to be the most beneficial, in that students had the highest motivation and originality in their coursework compared to students supervised under the two other styles. Also, as opposed to autocratic and laissez-faire styles, the students with democratic instructors were found to work continuously even without the instructor present. Edelstein (2011) further suggested that having a democratic structure within classrooms assists in the development of attributes related to moral development including decision making, conflict resolution, and responsible cooperation and participation.

***Democratic Classrooms and Morality.*** The process of including students as decision makers in establishing and enforcing rules allows students to learn democracy and morality through practicing democracy and morality. Common classroom practices inevitably raise moral issues, for example, how students are treated and treat each other and issues of fairness in teaching, assessment, and grading (Power et al., 2007). As students in democratic classrooms are encouraged to express critical and independent opinions during these common classroom practices, they have showed more autonomous moral judgment than students in conventional classroom students (Weinstock et al., 2009). Therefore, if students are ever to learn the democratic values of justice, equality, and respect, they must have classroom experiences of autonomy, freedom, and choice (Morrison, 2008). This can include allowing students' natural curiosity to come up with topics or items to learn for the day. The quest for the values of justice, equality, and

respect are critical to achieve the highest stage of moral reasoning according to Kohlberg (Kohlberg, 1973). Additionally, as a result of these experiences, students are also given the opportunity to learn moral reasoning.

In Ann Angell's (1998) three-year study of democratic classroom processes, students set their own agenda for democratically conducted discussions. Concerned about fairness and civility, students chose to reason about moral issues and conduct. Her findings suggested that as the students practiced these democratic practices, discussing and establishing norms that raised the standards for acceptable conduct, students' raised their level of moral reasoning. This supports Kohlberg's principle that individual's learn from exposure to other's reasoning in moral issues and dilemmas (Kohlberg, 1973).

***Sport and Moral Reasoning.*** The notion of sport as a means of developing better people has been long debated by great philosophers such as Plato and more recently Paul Weiss (Meakin, 1982). Further, the idea that competitive sport is an effective way of promoting moral education has been around since ancient Greece (Bredemeier & Shields, 2006). Writings of Aristotle show his support for sport as a way of personal growth, in that it is an opportunity for individuals to realize and attain the highest good of which they are capable (Arnold, 1991). Plato and Aristotle both agreed in a connection between physical fitness and the morality of an individual (Lumpkin et al., 2003). Aristotle asserted that a person of moral character strives for excellence while demonstrating the virtues related to moral reasoning: honesty, fairness, and compassion (Arnold, 1999). He further proposed that individual happiness was achieved when individuals are given the freedom to choose these virtues while surrounded by societal pressures and temptations.

These pressures and temptations are inherent in sport participation (Arnold, 1994; Lickona, 1991). For example, in response to the societal pressure to win in sport, an individual may have the temptation to cheat. Sport allows for the individual to instead demonstrate the virtue of fairness by not cheating in their pursuit of winning. The individual then has the opportunity to learn that the virtue of fairness is more important than the societal pressures of winning and as Aristotle noted, realize the highest good of which they are capable (Arnold, 1991). Therefore, by fostering the inherent virtues of sport, it has been suggested that sport has the ability to be an ideal classroom where one could carry out the process of moral reasoning, advancing their moral character (Arnold, 1994; Lumpkin et al., 2003).

Most of the moral problems posed by sport can be traced to its highly competitive nature (Naples, 1987). Some researchers have maintained that competition is antisocial for one person's gain is another person's loss; while others see it as seeking excellence while recognizing the value of the competitor in this pursuit (Simon, 1985; Shields & Bredemeier 2011, Shields, Funk, & Bredemeier, 2016; Bredemeier & Shields, 2019). Shields and Bredemeier (2009, 2011) coined the term decompetition as a way of contrasting the ways competition has been viewed. The term decompetition has been used in times when contesting is used in terms that oppose the etymological meaning of the word competition, coming from the Latin "strive or to seek with" (Bredemeier & Shields, 2019). Decompetition is explained as viewing a contest as a metaphoric war, the foremost goal is to win and conquer (Bredemeier & Shields, 2019).

In good competition, competitors should try as hard as they can to achieve victory;

however, the principle value of athletic competition is to overcome a worthy opponent, not the attainment of victory (Simon, 1985; Shields & Bredemeier 2011, Shields, Funk, & Bredemeier, 2016; Bredemeier & Shields, 2019). Valuing winning for its own sake creates enemies out of the competitors. Rather, competitors should see each other as partners helping one another toward achieving excellence, putting the value onto the pursuit of winning (Simon, 1985; Shields & Bredemeier 2011, Shields, Funk, & Bredemeier, 2016; Bredemeier & Shields, 2019). Cooperation and seeing opponents as partners, working toward the same goal, aid in the moral education of participants. Although one wins the contest and the other losses, each gains by trying to meet challenge (Simon, 2004; Shields & Bredemeier 2011, Shields, Funk, & Bredemeier, 2016; Bredemeier & Shields, 2019).

Competition in sport has been defended as a mutual quest for excellence (Naples, 1987). Athletes need each other; contests cannot exist without a mutual compliance to pursue victory, to acknowledge defeat, and to play by the rules; therefore, sports are fundamentally cooperative (Simon, 2004). Some philosophers say cheaters cannot actually win the competition. By cheating they go outside the fundamental rules that define the contest; therefore, do not even play the game (Simon, 2004). A worthy goal of athletes should be to aspire for excellence while enjoying the sport, absent of cheating. To provide an ideal sporting experience, coaches should find a balance between emphasis on achievement and an emphasis enjoyment dependent upon the age, stage of athletic development, and level of activity of the individuals involved (Naples, 1987). Victory will always be a main focus in all athletic contests, but it must not be an end in itself. If it

were, it could be only half realized, for only one party can win while the other must lose. The desire for victory should be used to stimulate other objects including fair play, respect for opponents and understanding and appreciation of the traditions, practices, and values central to one's sport (Simon, 2004, Shields, Funk & Bredemeier, 2018a). An individual's attainment of these values are important to society.

### **Call for Study of Club Sport and Moral Development**

Higher education has a role in the preservation and transmission of the values of society, the most fundamental of those values being moral values (Kohlberg, 1981). Most American colleges currently support a mission that includes some aspect of moral development for their students either directly within the curricula or embedded in the student services programming (Ehrlich 2000; Reuben 1996). Recently, as the number of publicized ethical scandals has increased, schools have been compelled to take a critical look at their mission to transmit moral values to their students in all aspects of the educational experience (Schmidt et al., 2009). For example, some universities have started community service and service-learning programs. These programs challenge students to examine daily life problems applying and developing their own beliefs and values.

Since it has been suggested that there is no single area of a student's life that is solely responsible for student development, institutions must take into account not only the mind, but also the body and spirit of a student, when evaluating the learning process (Keeling, 2004). As academic activities have the ability to foster a student's intellect, student affairs can influence the emotions, body and spirit of a student (Keeling, 2004).



Student affairs' departments provide many extracurricular activities including student recreation, social clubs, and professional development programs to develop students outside of academia. Through their leadership and student run groups, these activities allow for many opportunities that are similar to those found in democratic classrooms. These include active participation and empowerment, involving participants in the decision-making process, as well as providing a sense of community with shared goals, rules and expectations (Covell & Howe, 2001; Edlestein, 2011; Tourney-Porta, 2002). It is of great importance to recognize the ability of these "outside the classroom" experiences to affect the development of the student. In addition, it is valuable to gain knowledge about the optimal way to administer or manage these activities to maximize student development and moral learning.

*Collegiate athletics.* One "outside the classroom" activity that has been suggested to influence student development is collegiate sport participation. The goals within an athletic organization or department can influence whether sport might have an effect on student development, and of interest to this paper, a student's moral development. The different types of sport found within higher education tend to have varying goals. There are three distinct categories of intercollegiate competitive college sports: revenue sports, non-revenue sports, and club sports. (Jackovic, 1999). The distinctive policies and objectives of these three types of sport may affect a student-athlete's moral development differently. NCAA Division I revenue intercollegiate sports are funded by the institution with the capability of producing revenue. The institution also funds NCAA non-revenue intercollegiate sports. At the majority of universities, NCAA sanctioned sports other than

men's basketball and football are considered non-revenue. The third category, competitive college club sports are similar to "varsity" sports but receive little to no funding from the institution. They are not sanctioned by the NCAA but are usually governed by students and are overseen by the student affairs or recreation department. Thus, they have a less institutionalized structure than revenue and non-revenue sports, and furthermore athletes in general do not have to deal with the related stress and demand (Jackovic, 1999).

*Club sports.* During the past two decades, there has been a shift in the sporting culture at the University level. As institutions have been making budget cuts across academics as well as athletics, sport administrators have had growing concerns about spending money on college sports programs that do not generate a profit and/or lose money (Chressanthis & Grimes, 1993; Huntrods, An, & Pascarella, 2017;). These concerns have compelled collegiate athletic departments to cut non-revenue varsity programs. These programs typically become competitive club sport programs organized in the recreation or student affairs departments. Compared to collegiate varsity sport, collegiate club sport gives the participants greater responsibility, shifting the sporting culture from administrator control, common in varsity athletics, to a more democratic setting, led by the students who participate in the activity. Some may see this as detrimental to their sport since the university is not supporting it as heavily monetarily and administratively. However, this move may be positive related to student development, including opportunities for moral development. As mentioned above, research has suggested that a democratic sport setting is more conducive for higher moral

reasoning among the athletes. The majority of moral reasoning in sport research has pertained to varsity athletics. In the interest of learning what “outside the classroom” activities contribute to student development, research needs to be conducted at all levels of collegiate sport, not only varsity (Jackovic, 1999). In a recent study of club sport athletes, Orem and Arthur-Banning (20XX), found their data contradicted previous findings that athletes’ moral reasoning in sport situations decreases over time. Their data suggested that as club sport athletes progress through their time in school, their moral reasoning in sport situations progresses to a higher level and becomes more similar to their moral reasoning in daily life situations. This may be due to the previous studies being related to varsity collegiate sport (e.g., Allison, 1982;; Beller & Stoll, 1992; Bredemeier et al, 1986; Priest et al., 1999; Webb, 1969).

Research suggesting that the higher the level of participation, the lower the level of moral reasoning, illustrates a need for all levels of collegiate sport to be studied in the investigation of reasons for this difference in moral reasoning (Hughes & Coakley, 1991). One reason may be leadership style which tends to vary between varsity and club. Bredemeier and Shields (2006) suggest, to positively affect moral development, coaches should use a democratic leadership style to maximize social and moral growth and allow members to develop a sense of ownership. With respect to varsity sports, athletic departments have a tendency to standardize the expectations of administrators, coaches, and players (Snyder, 1986). There is a tremendous pressure to win on everyone involved to create revenue, keep jobs and encourage visibility of the institution (Simon, 2004). Conversely, due to the structure of student control over administration control, club teams

allow for members to have more responsibility than individuals involved in varsity sport (Noto, 2000). The less structured atmosphere of club sport may provide different outcomes for their participants (Jackovic, 1999). For example, because athletes are more involved in the team decision-making process through elections of board members, club sport allows members to take ownership in the process. Comparably, in varsity programs, since the decision making process is handled by the coaching staff and administration, athletes may lack a sense of ownership. Orem and Arthur-Banning (20XX) found that the later a club athlete was in school, the higher their moral reasoning was in sport situations. This challenges previous research suggesting that the longer an athlete is in sport, the lower their moral reasoning. This divergence may be explained by literature related to how an individual's moral reasoning is affected by democratic educational settings (Feldman, 2001). Previous research has suggested that the moral reasoning of individuals in a democratic education setting were higher than individuals in a traditionally governed educational setting (Higgins et al.,1984). Therefore, since club sports have a more democratic setting when related to varsity sports, an athlete's moral reasoning may be affected differently by democratic sport settings.

### **Similarities Between Club Sports and Democratic Classrooms**

Drawing on literature as to what constitutes a democratic classroom (e.g. Angell, 1998; Edelstein, 2011; Grossman, Williston, & Gould, 2000, Pryor, 2004) the following compares a few attributes of club sport that closely coincide with the attributes of a democratic classroom. A democratic classroom gives everyone the responsibility to be actively engaged in the process of the class; whereas in club sports there is often a

process whereby the leadership of the club, determined by the members of the team, is student based with the president, vice president, treasurer and additional board members based on need (Grossman et al., 2000). Classroom rules are determined in cooperation with students, parents and school principals (Pryor, 2004). In club sports the leadership is determined by the members of the team. There is also a sense of community. To develop this sense of community in democratic classrooms, members develop and agree upon mutual goals, guidelines, and standards (Grossman et al., 2000). With regard to club sports all those directly involved have the right to participate in the process of decision making. This includes many different contributors throughout the university including student government, recreation department and the athletes themselves. All these individuals have a say, at different levels, in goals, guidelines, and standards of the team and athletes.

In a democratic classroom, students are given an arena to have to make moral decisions, for example, consequences for not following agreed upon classroom rules. (Angell, 1998). Edelstein (2011) suggests that democratic classrooms in schools assist in the development of attributes related to moral development including decision making, conflict resolution, and responsible cooperation and participation. Sport provides many situations where the participant must make thought provoking decisions, for example whether or not to speak up when a referee makes an incorrect call that is beneficial to you or your team (Arnold, 1968). Each dilemma in sport, has its own moral demands (Weiss & Bredemeier, 1990). To react ethically, the participant should have an awareness and appreciation of the ethical principles on which the rules in the sport are based (Beller &

Stoll, 2004). Further, rather than transferring responsibility to coaches or officials, the participant must have the opportunity to make decisions on their own. (Booth, 1982; Jantz, 1975; Piaget, 1932). In club sports, more responsibility is given to the athlete as compared to varsity programs. The more “professionalized” a sport becomes the more dependent on officials and coaches to make calls and decisions within the sport (Priest, Krause & Beach, 1998). If responsibility is solely dependent on officials and coaches, athletes are able to abandon moral responsibility inherent to sport participation (Camiré & Trudel, 2010). To support a developmental perspective, athletes must have the opportunity to comprehend and value the ethical principles for the purpose of the rules, rather than always transferring responsibility to the coaches or officials (Booth, 1982; Jantz, 1975; Piaget, 1932).

The teacher within a democratic classroom acts as a coach, while the students practice independence regarding life in the classroom and common goals (Edelstein, 2011). Similarly, club sports utilize the coach to meet the athletes’ common goals. In club sport programs, the coach is often hired by and paid by the athletes themselves, sometimes the coach is a volunteer or a student. This allows for the athletes to find a coach that is focused on their goals. Whereas in varsity sport, the coach is hired by the athletic department, with the focus on meeting the goals set forth by the administration. This usually includes tremendous pressure to win, generate revenue, keep jobs and advance the reputation of the university (Simon, 2004).

## **Conclusion**

Even with this recent changing atmosphere in collegiate sport, most of the present research related to the students' benefit or detriment from sport comes from varsity collegiate athletics. Since students may have different experiences and outcomes dependent upon the various environments found within college sport, different types of college athletics such as club sport environments need to be considered before making generalizations about benefits or harms of sport in universities (Jackovic, 1999).

This need is also evident in the contrast of participation rates between varsity sport and other levels of collegiate sport. As far as participation rates in collegiate sport, the opportunity to participate in recreational sport far exceeds the number of opportunities available to participate in varsity sport. Yet, the research pertaining to recreational collegiate sport and moral reasoning is limited. The focus of this research is to aid in filling this gap by utilizing recreational sport in the creation of a scale to measure athletes' moral reasoning.

Additionally, for years, college recreation has promoted the benefits of participation in recreational collegiate sports. Recently, there has been a growing body of literature providing evidence for the value of recreational sports on university campuses (Forrester, 2014). Exploring the outcomes of club sport participation will help to support the existence of these programs at the university level (Barcelona, 2002). As publicized ethical scandals have increased and universities are taking a critical look at their mission to transmit moral values to their students, club sports, being viewed with similarities to

democratic classrooms, may be an environment which allows for the promotion of student moral development (Schmidt et al., 2009).

### **Future Research**

Further exploring the democratic classroom components of university sport settings can aid in answering the question: What use does sport have within a university? Are there certain democratic aspects of club sport that are more important in the development of moral reasoning? As club sports have smaller budgets compared to varsity sports, it is important to focus resources on components that are most beneficial in developing the student.

As this concept of club sports as democratic classrooms is further explored, tested, and modified, multiple college student perspectives should be compared, including varsity sport and the general population. This will help delineate outcomes specific to club sport. With the importance of recognizing and understanding areas of university life that influence student moral development becoming more crucial this article provides a valuable framework for future research.



## CHAPTER VIII

### CONCLUSION

A fundamental function of the learning process in higher education has been, since its inception, maintaining and transmitting the values of society, including a society's moral values (Kohlberg, 1981). Recent ethical scandals have brought into question the commitment of higher education to support moral development in students. For example, the recent college admission scandal, has society questioning if the purpose of higher education has become more about credentialism (Weber, 1978) and social status.

The series of papers followed the endorsement that institutions must reconsider the learning experience of the college student and all aspects of student life should be utilized to support the student's learning process. This included the documents of the 1998 Amendment to the Higher Education Act of 1965 that affirmed "development of character as one of the primary goals of higher education" (US Department of Higher Education, Higher Education Act, 1998); as well as the recommendations set forth in two position papers titled *Learning Reconsidered* written in 2004 and 2007. Following a brief overview of the history of moral reasoning, sport and education the remainder of the articles pertained to accessing and explaining moral reasoning and club sport athletes.

The first article, successfully developed the DLMD scale following the scale development procedure recommended by Churchill (1979), Gerbing and Anderson (1988), and Anderson and Gerbing (1988). There have been several studies researching an individual's moral reasoning in and out of sport (e.g. Priest, et al., 1999; Shields &

Bredemeier, 2008; Culpepper, 2016). These studies were interested in learning whether the character and values learned in sport, negative or positive, transfer to an individual's everyday life moral reasoning. After looking at the data relating sport and moral reasoning, there seemed to be an absence of instruments for measuring moral reasoning in and out of sport situations that paralleled each other. The most frequently utilized instruments in the literature for comparing moral reasoning within sport situations to moral reasoning in everyday life have been the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (HBVCI) and the Defining Issues Test (DIT). The DLMD mirrors the HBVCI in structure, scope and time to complete.

Twelve daily life moral dilemma scenarios were constructed to mirror each of the 12 sport situation dilemmas presented in the HBVCI. The scale was developed through two stages including rewriting, rewording, and reworking the scenarios, and testing the reliability and validity of the revised scale. To compare the two scales, data from the final revised scale was then compared with data from the HBVCI. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFI) of the DLMD resulted in a CFI = 0.85, RMSEA = 0.073, and a Chronach's  $\alpha = 0.796$ . A CFI of the HBVCI resulted in a CFI = 0.842, RMSEA = 0.087, and a Chronach's  $\alpha = 0.8$ . Due to the data collections on the two measurements reporting similar statistics the researcher came to the conclusion that the DLMD fit was comparable to the HBVCI.

While the DLMD is a newly developed instrument, as compared to the HBVCI, the potential combination of the two instruments in seeking to better understand how a number of variables pertain to moral development is intriguing. For example, does level

of competition matter, might ladies develop differently or at different times than men do, do certain sports at various levels demonstrate different levels of moral reasoning in and out of a sport setting are all potential directions that the combined scales could seek to explore moving forward. This could help researchers more fully understand moral reasoning from various sport contexts, as well as how higher education and student life can be influenced through sport experience.

As mentioned above, all aspects of student life and every resource of higher education should be utilized to support the student's learning process (Keeling, 2004, p 9). Through a literature review on moral reasoning and sport in higher education, there was a noticeable lack in the literature related to recreational sport. Since the majority of the moral development in sport research with the university setting has been at the varsity level, as club sports gain in prevalence, it is important to understand outcomes in these settings. Focusing on the lack of research pertaining to recreational collegiate sport and moral reasoning, Chapter 6 explores moral reasoning within a University club sports program.

Chapter 6 included a pilot study for the recently developed DLMD scale. The study's findings both supported and contradicted previous studies which utilized the DIT and varsity collegiate athletics. Aligning with previous research, the findings suggested that an athlete's moral reasoning in sporting contexts was lower than their moral reasoning in daily life contexts. On the other hand, that data also differed with previous finding in that there was no significant difference seen in moral reasoning in either context based on gender or type of sport (contact vs. non-contact).

As opposed to previous literature, this study suggested that there are no differences in moral reasoning between genders. One reason for this may be the view that women's sports are evolving to follow the male model of sport. Traditional sport models and structures were aimed at supporting male participation. They rewarded behaviors of traditional masculinity which include aggression, physicality and violence. The passing of Title IX saw an increase in opportunity for females to participate in sport. The increase in opportunities made it possible for female athletes to become more involved and competitive in sports.

The change in opportunity is evident in that the London 2012 Olympics was the first time in history that there were an equal number of sports for women as men (Grappendorf, 2013). In fact, the US had more female athletes than male athletes at the Games (Grappendorf, 2013). Traditionally sports have been viewed as masculine (e.g. football and ice hockey and feminine gymnastics and figure skating) (Koivula, 1995). As more opportunities in sport open for women in these "masculine sports," women may have adapted to the model of masculine sport that rewards behaviors of aggression, physicality and violence. The acceptance of these behaviors may affect an athlete's moral reasoning in certain situations.

Additionally, as opposed to previous studies, this study suggested no difference in moral reasoning between sports. Due to number of respondents, this study only divided sports into contact and non-contact. There was no differentiation made within contact sports whether or not they were collision sports. There was only a slight correlation, between the scales and whether or not the sport was a contact sport. This correlation may

have been strengthened if the sports were divided into three categories; non-contact, contact or collision. Collision sports have been suggested to accept aggressive behaviors more than contact and noncontact sports (Tucker & Parks, 2001). This may be due to aggressive behaviors being rewarded in collision sport (Tucker & Parks, 2001). For example, in football, teammates congratulate each other for a “good hit”.

The most noteworthy finding in this study was the effects of year in school. The data from this study suggested that club sport athletes moral reasoning advances to a higher level as they progress through their time in school. This is opposite of previous findings that the longer one is in sports, the lower an individual’s moral reasoning is in sport. The data also suggested that as club sport athletes progress through their time in school, their moral reasoning in sport situations becomes more similar to their moral reasoning in daily life situations. This difference could be due to the changing era of modern sport. Previous research has pushed for the importance of moral development in sport at the university. This has encouraged some sporting programs to focus on programs and policies to improve the moral development of athletes through sport (Pennington, 2017).

Another reason for this contrast may be due to the fact that the majority of studies have focused on collegiate varsity athletics. These findings from Chapter 6 suggest that the structure of club sport may have a different effect on an individual than varsity sports. Club sports contains a more democratic structure than varsity athletics. This democratic structure of club sport allows members to have more responsibility and ownership than varsity athletics which may provide different outcomes for their participants, as is found

in democratic classrooms (Jackovic, 1999). For example, the club sport structure forces students to take ownership in the outcomes of the team decision-making process because members are more involved in the process. Members have the ability to take on leadership roles within the team, including president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer; or those not included in the board can still have their say in the operation of the program by attending at team meetings.

When looking at past literature related to democratic settings and moral reasoning, there has been a breadth of literature related to democratic educational settings. Research in education has suggested that democratic educational settings provide positive situations for student moral character and development. Connecting this past research to sport, it can be proposed that democratic settings in sport, for example club sports, may create a setting for positive moral development. Since previous research has suggested that the longer one participates in sport, the lower their moral reasoning is in sport, it is of interest to further investigate the reasons for the findings in this sample. It should be noted that the higher level of moral reasoning in sport among those further in school, could be due to different aspects of university life. There is a need for additional investigation that takes into account other areas within the university to determine club sport setting's impact.

Chapter 7 transpired through a review of literature on democratic education and moral development. With the explanation of what constitutes a democratic classroom, the attributes that coincide with club sport were identified. The paper further presented

the view that since university club sports have many of the same attributes as democratic classrooms, they may provide a setting which encourages positive moral development.

Chapter 7 represented a positive contribution to the field since the majority of research in moral reasoning in competitive collegiate sport has focused on varsity level sports. This does not coincide with the number of opportunities available to participate in competitive collegiate sport; as the number of opportunities available to participate in recreational sport far exceeds the opportunities available to participate in varsity sport. As recreational club sports gain in prevalence at universities, it is important to understand outcomes in these settings more fully. This chapter pointed out the leadership differences between these settings and how that might affect student development. As realizing and understanding areas of university life that influence student moral development become more crucial, this chapter sought to provide a valuable framework for future research.

### **Limitations and Future Research**

One limitation of the pilot study was the sample size. In retrospect, there are a few things that may have aided in a larger sample size in the pilot study. First is meeting with each club sport president separately. Due to privacy reasons, the researcher had to rely on each president to distribute the survey among their athletes. The researcher did present the study purpose and design at a club sport president's meeting. Having added to this with meeting with each president individually to answer questions and ask for their participation may have increased the number of respondents to the online survey. Secondly, the Dillman tailored design method (2000) was utilized during the pilot study to increase the number of respondents to an online survey. Even though this may have

helped, there was a noticeable difference in the sizes of the samples used before the pilot study. These studies utilized a paper and pencil method with the researcher presenting the study to select university classes. Therefore, it may have been more beneficial to have visited each sport during a practice with a paper and pencil version of the survey to gain respondents.

This study was based on the assumption that students started playing in their respective club sport as freshman. To rule out the effect the university, over time, has on the moral reasoning, there are many variables that would be important to take into account in future studies. Further research should ask number of years each student athlete has participated in their club sport to aid in ruling out the influence of the effect each year of being a student at the university has on their moral reasoning. It would also be beneficial to compare these findings to a sample within the same university that do not compete in club sports, to rule out the effects of the university.

This assumption does not take into account the effect of previous sport experiences in high school. To take this into account a longitudinal study would be of interest. Comparing the same participant over the years would take into account any effect previous youth sport may have had on them. Using the participant's freshman year as a baseline would better capture the effect that the current sport has on their moral reasoning. Priest et al. (1999) completed the most recent longitudinal study utilizing the HBVCI in a collegiate athletic setting, with the U.S. Military Academy Class of 1993. They found that at entrance, as well as upon graduation, intercollegiate athletes scored lower on the HBVCI than intramural athletes. All the athletes scores declined over the



four years (Priest et al., 1999). This study did not compare nonathletes, as all students at the USMA are required to participate in some type of sport. Completing a current longitudinal study would greatly assist in understanding if college sport has changed over the twenty years. It would also be beneficial to include collegiate nonathletes to delimitate the effect that the university setting has on an individual's moral reasoning in sport.

**Comparing club sports to varsity sports.** As the focus of research in collegiate level sport does not correspond to the participation levels of collegiate sport, there is a need to fill the gap in literature related to collegiate club sport. Further club sport athletes' moral reasoning need to be compared to varsity athletes. This will aid in the aim, briefly discussed below, to determine whether club sport atmosphere has a different effect on participants than varsity athletics.

***Collegiate athletics and moral development.*** The goals within an athletic organization or department may influence whether sport has an effect on students' moral development. This is evident in the varying goals found in higher educational sport. For example, The Knight Foundation (2001) reported that top-tier college athletic programs operate more like professional sports compared to other levels of collegiate athletics. There are three distinct types of competitive college sports: revenue sports, non-revenue sports, and club sports. (Jackovic, 1999). The distinctive policies and objectives of these three types of sport may affect a student-athlete's moral development differently. NCAA Division I revenue is funded by the institution with the capability of producing revenue. The institution also funds NCAA non-revenue intercollegiate sports. At the majority of

universities, NCAA sanctioned sports other than men's basketball and football are considered non-revenue. In all likelihood, the administration of the revenue and non-revenue sports are similar and thus the moral decision opportunities are also likely similar. The third category, competitive college club sports are similar to "varsity" sports but receive little to no funding from the institution. They are not sanctioned by the NCAA but are usually governed by students and are overseen by the student affairs or recreation department. Thus, they have a more informal and less institutionalized structure than revenue and non-revenue sports, and furthermore athletes in general do not have to deal with the related stress and demand that comes from scholarship athlete participation (Jackovic, 1999).

Bredemeier and Shields (2006) suggest, to positively affect moral development, coaches should use a democratic leadership style to maximize social and moral growth and allow members to develop a sense of ownership. The leadership style tends to vary between varsity and club. Athletic departments have a tendency to standardize the expectations of administrators, coaches, and players (Snyder, 1986) as there is tremendous pressure to win placed on everyone involved. This pressure is promoted to create revenue, keep jobs and encourage visibility of the institution (Simon, 2004). Recent research suggests that the higher the level of elite participation, the lower the level of moral reasoning (Hughes & Coakley, 1991). Specifically, NCAA level participation would be categorized as a higher level of participation than club sports. Club teams allow for members to have more responsibility than individuals involved in varsity sport (Noto, 2000). The less structured atmosphere of club sport may provide different

outcomes for their participants than the more structured NCAA programs (Jackovic, 1999). For example, because members are more involved in the team decision-making process, club sport forces students to take ownership in the outcomes of the process. Comparably, in varsity programs, student-athletes may lack a sense of ownership, since the decision-making process is taken on by the coaching staff and administrators.

To further Bredemeier and Shields (2006) promotion of coaches utilizing a democratic leadership; Kavussanu and Al-Yaaribi (2019) noted that there is a need for understanding the “moral” predictors (i.e. coaches’ moral behaviors) of athlete’s moral behaviors as compared to “motivational” predictors (i.e. goal orientation, motivational climate). Since coaches are hired by the athletes themselves in club sport, it would be of interest to see if their behavior has the same affect a varsity level coach’s behavior has on an athlete. This could be extended to teammates, referee and possibly administration since the process of attainment or recruitment of each varies among club and varsity sport. These behaviors include sportsmanship promotion, promotion of antisocial behavior toward opponents, encouragement of prosocial behavior toward teammates, or the manner in which the coach, referee or administration acts toward their athletes (Kavussanu & Al-Yaaribi, 2019).

Kavussanu & Al-Yaaribi (2019) also presented that recent research has suggest shown a strong link between self-reported moral behavior and moral behavior of one’s teammates (Benson & Bruner, 2018). However, they point out that there is a lack of understanding causality for these findings. It is not known if an athlete’s behavior influences their teammates actions or if athlete’s view their teammates behaviors the

same as theirs. The effect of club sport could have a different effect on this causality compared to varsity sport. Since club sports have a more democratic setting, teammates may have a greater ability to influence their teammates' behavior. Whereas in varsity sport, the "us versus them" mentality may create athletes to view teammates as having the same behavior as them, regardless of the actions they actually take.

***Recreational sport at the university level.*** During the past two decades, as administrators have questioned the use of sport at the university level, there has been a shift in the sporting culture. Due to recent budget cuts, sport administrators have had growing concerns about spending money on college sports programs that do not generate a profit and lose money (Chressanthis & Grimes, 1993). These concerns have compelled collegiate athletic departments to cut non-revenue varsity programs. These programs typically become competitive club sport programs organized in the recreation or student affairs departments. This growing level of recreational sport then gives the participants greater individual responsibility, shifting the sporting culture from administrator control, common in varsity athletics, to greater participant control. Even with this recent changing atmosphere in collegiate sport, most of the present research related to the students' benefit or detriment from sport comes from varsity collegiate athletics. Since students may have different experiences and outcomes dependent upon the various environments found within college sport, different types of college athletics such as club sport environments need to be considered before making generalizations about benefits or harms of sport in universities (Jackovic, 1999).

This paper only focused on one potential outcome related to sport, moral development. Administrators need to acquire a better understanding of the developmental impacts club sports have on students. Exploring these outcomes can support the value of club sports at the university level as well as supply information on how to provide optimal programming for students.

The data collection in this paper focused on collegiate club sport athletes. In the interest of making conclusions related to other populations within the university, these findings were compared to previous literature concerned with sport and moral reasoning within the university. To further explore these conclusions, it is imperative to collect data, utilizing both the HBVCI and the DLMD, from varsity athletes, club sport athletes, and the general university population to see if there is a significant difference in moral reasoning among these groups.

Since the DLMD is a newly developed scale, it needs to be utilized in different settings for its continued validation. As the DIT has been more commonly used, there is a concern for an individual's inclination to respond to an extensive instrument. Researchers are aware of importance of developing surveys that are not too lengthy. It is beneficial to create and continue to validate instruments like the DLMD. The convenience of this instrument, compared to others, aids in allowing researchers to explore moral reasoning within sport situations compared to daily life contexts.

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## Appendices

### Appendix A

#### Permission to Use HBVCI

**Gail Orem** <gorem@g.clemson.edu>

Mar 29, 2017, 4:26 PM  
to sstoll

Dr. Stoll,

I am a Phd Candidate at Clemson University. I am interested in using the HBVCI for my dissertation. I purchased the "Moral Reasoning and Moral Development in Sport Review and HBVCI Manual" last year. Please let me know what I need to do to move forward.

Thank you,  
Gail



**Stoll, Sharon (sstoll@uidaho.edu)** <sstoll@uidaho.edu>

Mar 29, 2017, 7:42 PM  
to me

You have permission to use the HBVCI, though we would like to know the outcome of your study, your problem statement, and hypotheses, and thus the results.

**Sharon Kay Stoll, Ph.D.**

Professor and Director, Center for ETHICS\*

University of Idaho

Department of Movement Sciences

Memorial 500

Moscow, ID 83844-2401

[sstoll@uidaho.edu](mailto:sstoll@uidaho.edu)

Phone 208-885-2103

Fax 208-885-2108

[Web: Center for Ethics\\*](#)

**University of Idaho**

**A Legacy of Leading.**



## Appendix B

### Email Sent to Assistant Director for Student Organizations and Clubs

[Date]

Mrs. Susan Pope  
Assistant Director, Student Organizations and Clubs  
Clemson University  
sc@clemson.edu  
RE: Permission to Conduct Research Study

Dear Mrs. Pope,

I am writing to request permission to conduct a research within your department at Clemson University. I am currently enrolled in the Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management Department at Clemson and am in the process of writing my dissertation. The study is entitled The Comparison of Moral Reasoning Within Similar Sport and Social Contexts.

I hope that the Student Organizations and Clubs Department will allow me to recruit student from the university to anonymously complete an online survey.

If approval is granted, student participants will receive an email with a link to the online survey to be completed on their own time. The survey process should take no longer than 5 minutes. The survey results will be pooled for the dissertation project and individual results of this study will remain absolutely confidential and anonymous. Should this study be published, only pooled results will be documented. No costs will be incurred by either your department or the individual participants.

Your approval to conduct this study will be greatly appreciated. I will follow up with an email next week and would be happy to answer any questions or concerns that you may have at that time. You may contact me at my email address: gorem@g.clemson.edu.

Sincerely,

Gail L Orem  
Clemson University

## Appendix C

### Email Sent to Student Government Organization Participants

Dear Student,

You are being asked to participate in a study of moral reasoning in certain social situations. This research study is being conducted by Gail Orem, a PhD candidate in the Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management at Clemson University. All responses to this survey are confidential.

The amount of time required to complete the questionnaire is approximately **5-10 minutes**.

**As an incentive**, there will be a random drawing for Starbucks gift cards ranging from \$5-\$20, among survey participants. After the final question, you will be given an option to enter your email address. Your email will not be linked to any of your responses, which will remain anonymous. If you do not wish to participate in the drawing, you may decline to enter your email, with no consequences. *Emails will only be used for the notification purposes, of the individuals, randomly chosen for the Starbucks gift cards.*

If you wish to participate, please click on the link, and you will go directly to the questionnaire.

***Here is the link to the questionnaire:***

Social Situation Questionnaire

***Thank you for your time and consideration!***

## Appendix D

### Email Sent to Coordinator of Club Sports

[Date]

Ms. Emily Theys  
Coordinator, Club Sports  
Clemson University  
etheys@clemson.edu

RE: Permission to Conduct Research Study

Dear Ms. Theys,

I am writing to request permission to conduct a research within your department at Clemson University. I am currently enrolled in the Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management Department at Clemson and am in the process of writing my dissertation. The study is entitled The Comparison of Moral Reasoning Within Similar Sport and Social Contexts.

I hope that the Club Sports Department will allow me to recruit student-athletes from the university to anonymously complete an online survey.

If approval is granted, student participants will receive an email with a link to the online survey to be completed on their own time. The survey process should take no longer than 15 minutes. The survey results will be pooled for the dissertation project and individual results of this study will remain absolutely confidential and anonymous. Should this study be published, only pooled results will be documented. No costs will be incurred by either your department or the individual participants.

Your approval to conduct this study will be greatly appreciated. I will follow up with an email next week and would be happy to answer any questions or concerns that you may have at that time. You may contact me at my email address: gorem@g.clemson.edu.

Sincerely,

Gail L Orem  
Clemson University

## Appendix E

### **Email Sent to Club Sport Presidents Requesting their Participation in Research Project**

To: [Email]

From: Researcher's email address

Subject: The Comparison of Moral Reasoning Within Similar Sport and Social Contexts. Study

Dear Sport Club President,

I am writing you to seek your cooperation in a research study I am conducting as partial fulfillment of my doctoral degree in the Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management at Clemson University. My dissertation topic is entitled "The Comparison of Moral Reasoning Within Similar Sport and Social Contexts".

The majority of research on sport, in the academic setting, has focused on Division I Athletics. As a past participant, as well as a coach in club sports, I have noticed the need to explore the benefits of club sports at the collegiate level. This study aims to better understand the influence club sports has on the development of students.

I am contacting all of the club sport presidents to help me recruit their athletes to complete an online survey. The process includes forwarding an email, that I can provide, to your athletes requesting them to volunteer for my research study. Student participants will receive an email with a link to the online survey to be completed on their own time. The survey process should take no longer than 15 minutes. The survey results will be pooled for the dissertation project and individual results of this study will remain absolutely confidential. Should this study be published, only pooled results will be documented.

I greatly appreciate your support and cooperation with this study. If you have any questions or comments, please feel free to contact me.

Thank you again for your consideration, and I look forward to discussing my project with you further.

Gail Orem  
PhD Candidate  
Department of Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management  
Clemson University  
gorem@g.clemson.edu

## Appendix F

### **Initial Email Sent to The Comparison of Moral Reasoning Within Similar Sport and Social Contexts Study Participants**

To: [Email]

From: Researcher's email address

Subject: The Comparison of Moral Reasoning Within Similar Sport and Social Contexts. Study

A few days from now you will receive an email request to fill out a questionnaire for a research project being conducted by Gail Orem, a PhD candidate in the Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management at Clemson University.

This brief survey is concerned with athletes' moral reasoning in and out of the sporting context. All responses to this survey are confidential.

Thank you for your time and consideration!

Please note: Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You may choose not to participate. If you decide to participate in this research survey, you may withdraw at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you withdraw from participating at any time, you will not be penalized.

If you do not wish to receive further emails from us, please click the link below, and you will be automatically removed from our mailing list.

[Opt out link](#)

## Appendix G

### **Second Email Sent to The Comparison of Moral Reasoning Within Similar Sport and Social Contexts Study Participants**

To: [Email]

From: Researcher's email address

Subject: The Comparison of Moral Reasoning Within Similar Sport and Social Contexts. Study

You are being asked to participate in a study of club sport athletes. This research study is being conducted by Gail Orem, a PhD candidate in the Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management at Clemson University. All responses to this survey are confidential.

The amount of time required to complete the questionnaire is approximately 10-15 minutes.

If you have already completed the questionnaire, please accept our thanks. If not, below is a link to the questionnaire. Please click on the link, and you will go directly to the questionnaire.

Here is the link to the questionnaire:

*Survey link*

Thanks for your participation!

Please note: Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You may choose not to participate. If you decide to participate in this research survey, you may withdraw at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you withdraw from participating at any time, you will not be penalized.

If you do not wish to receive further emails from us, please click the link below, and you will be automatically removed from our mailing list.

*Opt out link*

## Appendix H

### **Follow Up Email Sent to The Comparison of Moral Reasoning Within Similar Sport and Social Contexts Participants**

To: [Email]

From: Researcher's email address

Subject: The Comparison of Moral Reasoning Within Similar Sport and Social Contexts. Study

You are being asked to participate in a study of club sport athletes. This research study is being conducted by Gail Orem, a PhD candidate in the Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management at Clemson University. All responses to this survey are confidential.

The amount of time required to complete the questionnaire is approximately 10-15 minutes. If you have already completed the questionnaire, please accept our thanks. If not, below is a link to the questionnaire. Please click on the link, and you will go directly to the questionnaire.

Here is the link to the questionnaire:

[Survey link](#)

Thanks for your participation!

Please note: Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You may choose not to participate. If you decide to participate in this research survey, you may withdraw at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you withdraw from participating at any time, you will not be penalized.

If you do not wish to receive further emails from us, please click the link below, and you will be automatically removed from our mailing list.

[Opt out link](#)

## Appendix I

### Qualtrics Survey

#### CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

##### **The Comparison of Moral Reasoning Within Similar Sport and Social Contexts**

You are asked to participate in a doctoral dissertation research project conducted by Gail Orem, a doctoral student in the Department Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management at Clemson University. The faculty advisor for this project is Dr. Skye Arthur-Banning, faculty member in the Department of PRTM at Clemson. Your participation is voluntary.

##### **Purpose of the Study**

The primary purpose of this study is to develop and test a measure to explore if there is a correlation between a club sport athlete's moral reasoning in sport situations and their moral reasoning in similar daily life situations. The results will be presented in a doctoral dissertation as well submitted for academic publication.

##### **Procedures**

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to respond as you feel at that particular moment on a written survey that contains scenarios related to morality in daily life situations. **There are no right or wrong answers.** The survey is designed to be completed in approximately 5 minutes.

##### **Confidentiality**

We will do everything we can to protect your privacy and confidentiality. All information will be coded by classification and not by your name nor affiliation with any school. When the results of the research are published or discussed in conferences, no information will be included that would reveal your, nor your college's identity.

##### **Participation and Withdrawal**

You can choose whether or not to be in this study. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you do not want to answer and still remain in the study.

##### **Identification of Investigators**

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Dr. Skye Arthur-Banning (864) 656-2206

##### **Rights of Research Subjects**

If you have any questions or concerns about your rights in this research study, please contact the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC) at 864-656-0636 or [irb@clemson.edu](mailto:irb@clemson.edu). If you are outside of the Upstate South Carolina area, please use the ORC's toll-free number, 866-297-3071.



Clicking on the "agree to participate" option indicates that:

- You have read the above information
- You voluntarily agree to participate
- You are at least 18 years of age

### Daily Life Moral Reasoning Scale

**Survey** Please select the category that best applies to you.

Gender:

- Male                       Female

Year in school:

- Freshman     Sophomore     Junior     Senior     Graduate Student

Age:

- 18     19     20     21     22     23     >23

**The following scenarios describe incidents that have occurred in everyday settings. Each question addresses moral values. Because there are no right or wrong answers, please select the answer that best describes your feelings. *Strongly agree; Somewhat agree; Neither agree nor disagree; Somewhat disagree; Strongly disagree***

Q1 A senior nursing student hears about a website that contains the questions on the nursing licensing exam, posted by people who have already taken the electronic test. He knows that he could look at the website without anyone knowing. Some of his friends in the same situation have already browsed the site, giving them an advantage. Since he believes that looking at the site would put him on equal footing with his fellow students and everyone has the same opportunity to see the questions, it is only fair that he takes a look at the site.

- Strongly agree     Somewhat agree     Neither agree nor disagree     Somewhat disagree     Strongly disagree

Q2 A valuable member of the student store staff handles many of the cash box transactions, moving the daily cash between the store and the office, where it is held overnight. She remembers that she needs cash to reserve her spot today for her upcoming spring break trip, and her wallet is empty. The supervisor in charge of the money has been leaving before close of business, therefore the money is not being counted at night. Since the money is not being counted she could borrow money today to pay for her trip and put it back in the cash box tomorrow without anyone knowing. Since it is the responsibility of the supervisor to make sure the money is deposited each night, it is acceptable for her to "borrow" the cash she needs.

- Strongly agree     Somewhat agree     Neither agree nor disagree     Somewhat disagree     Strongly disagree

Q3 A recent college graduate has an opportunity for an internship at a respected business in the community. Part of his qualifications comes from a senior project he worked on with several other students. Through the interview process, he discovers that he was given credit for a key section of the project that really impressed the company. In fact, another member of the team, with little input from him, did that section. Because all the members of the team contributed equally to the project as a whole, it is acceptable for him to not let the interviewer know that he had very little input in that particular section.

- Strongly agree     Somewhat agree     Neither agree nor disagree     Somewhat disagree     Strongly disagree

Q4 During the last few minutes of a test a student notices that she can see a fellow student's answer sheet. She knows that this student has the highest grade in the class. She has already finished, but still decides to check her answers off of his. She notices that he answered one of the questions she had a tough time with differently and decides to change her

answer to match his. Since her fellow student did not take proper care to cover his answer sheet, she has no obligation to keep her old answer because it is the teacher's job to ensure that students are not looking at others' answers.

Strongly agree  Somewhat agree  Neither agree nor disagree  Somewhat disagree  Strongly disagree

Q5 After checking out at the local grocery store, a patron was mistakenly given an extra \$10 in change. Because it is the cashier's job to make correct change, the patron is not obligated to correct the cashier.

Strongly agree  Somewhat agree  Neither agree nor disagree  Somewhat disagree  Strongly disagree

Q6 A student finds out that their roommate is leaving school early and selling all of their textbooks for less than they are worth. The student, knowing that the roommate's books are worth more, decides to not inform the roommate of the books' value, but instead buy them and resell them for a profit. The roommate could have gotten more money by putting extra effort into selling them. Since the student saw the potential of what the books were worth, the student who bought them deserves the extra money earned from the resale.

Strongly agree  Somewhat agree  Neither agree nor disagree  Somewhat disagree  Strongly disagree

Q7 Switching premium liquor for a cheaper brand can be a clever way for bar owners to make more money off of each drink. If an owner or manager orders their bartenders to do this, the bartenders should follow their boss's directions.

Strongly agree  Somewhat agree  Neither agree nor disagree  Somewhat disagree  Strongly disagree

Q8 A student took a class knowing that the professor often reused some of his old test questions. She decided to create a study group, but did not tell anyone else about what she knew. She was able to gather some old tests and did not share them with her study group. Because the student ended up getting a higher score than her study group, helping her on the grading curve, she demonstrated good strategy.

Strongly agree  Somewhat agree  Neither agree nor disagree  Somewhat disagree  Strongly disagree

Q9 A patron at a bar with some friends has ordered many drinks over the course of the night. Somehow all the drinks ended up on his tab. When he gets the bill, he notices that a few of the drinks he ordered were not on there, saving him money. He decides he is not obligated to tell the bartender because it is the bartender's job to put the drinks on the tab, after all he got stuck with the bill.

Strongly agree  Somewhat agree  Neither agree nor disagree  Somewhat disagree  Strongly disagree

Q10 Employee A tells employee B that he plans to quit the company in two months and start a new job that has been guaranteed to him. Meanwhile, their boss tells employee B that he was being passed up for a new opportunity in our company because he was going to give the opportunity to employee A. Employee B decides to inform his boss of his fellow employee's new job. Since informing the boss will be beneficial to employee B, employee B's action is fair.

Strongly agree  Somewhat agree  Neither agree nor disagree  Somewhat disagree  Strongly disagree

Q11 After ordering and paying for an iPhone5 from Amazon, a customer is mistakenly sent an iPhone6. Since it is the responsibility of Amazon to send the correct phone, the customer is not obligated to inform Amazon and return the more expensive phone.

Strongly agree  Somewhat agree  Neither agree nor disagree  Somewhat disagree  Strongly disagree

Q12 While driving on the highway a white car cuts in front of driver A, causing him to slow down. The car pulls away. Later driver A sees that same white car and realizes that he has to get off at the next exit. Driver A speeds up and cuts in front of the white car to get off on his exit. He does not feel bad that the white car had to slow down because he did the same thing to him earlier.

Strongly agree  Somewhat agree  Neither agree nor disagree  Somewhat disagree  Strongly disagree

### **HAHM - BELLER VALUES CHOICE INVENTORY- 16\***

In The Sport Milieu

The following questionnaire describes incidents that have occurred in sport settings. Each question addresses moral values. Because there are no right or wrong answers, please circle the answer that best describes your feelings. SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree, N = Neutral; D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree. By filing out this inventory, you are informed of your rights to refuse to participate, and you may withdraw at any time.

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

5. A female gymnast with Big Time U tries diligently to be a great athlete, but alas the gods are

not with her. The more she works, the more she seems to ail at the most inappropriate times: the big meets. She decides to seek help for her mental shortcomings. She sets monthly appointments with her school's sport psychologist. In six months, the meetings prove fruitful, and she begins to see results.

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

8. A highly recruited sprinter from Zimbabwe attends every practice, works diligently, and is highly respected by his peers and coaches. He is a good student, sits in the front of every class, and is an active participant. He is an NCAA finalist and must miss three days of class for the championships. As per university policy, he contacts all of his professors and receives permission to take his final exams at a different time and place.

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

11. A starting linebacker for Big Time U is a good person, is known for his hard work and determination. He is also known as a fierce competitor and is aggressive on every play. The best part about him is that he is a consummate player. He loves the game and the experiences gained from it. He is also known as a good sport. He has won every team award for sportsmanlike conduct. After the big interstate rivalry, he shakes hands with all opposing players and coaches.

SA A N D SD

12. Football players are not allowed to move beyond the line of scrimmage until the ball is

snapped. Some coaches encourage their players to charge across the line of scrimmage a fraction of a second before the ball is snapped. The officials have difficulty seeing the early movement, therefore, the team has an advantage compared to their opponents. Because the strategy is beneficial and the officials must call the infraction, the team's actions are fair..

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

14. The star of the swim team at Big Time U was 21 and had just completed a great collegiate career by winning both of her events at the NCAA Championships. Her parents traveled over 200 miles to support her and cheer her on to victory. After the finals, they take her out to dinner to celebrate. She decides to have a glass of white wine with her fish filet entrée.

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD