

On the Effects of the Social Context on Behavioral Intentions of Sportsmanship

ROBERT J. VALLERAND*, PAUL DESJARDIS** and JEAN-PIERRE CUERRIER**

*Laboratoire de Recherche sur le Comportement Social et Département de Psychologie, Université du Québec à Montréal, Canada

**Faculté d'Éducation Physique et Sportive, Université de Sherbrooke, Canada

Much research indicates that a major source of influence on the display of moral behavior is the social context within which behavior is to be emitted. The purpose of this study was to test the generality of this finding with respect to one specific type of sportsmanship behavior, namely concern for the opponent. Two elements of the social context were assessed, namely the subjective expected utilities (or anticipated consequences) associated with performing the sportsmanship behavior and whether athletes were engaged in individual or team sports. Male and female athletes (N=528) from team and individual sports were asked to indicate the extent to which they would display behavior in line with a concern for the opponent in two situations. In the first situation, utilities for displaying concern for the opponent were low (displaying concern for the opponent would entail losing the match). In the second situation, utilities for displaying concern for the opponent were moderate (displaying concern for the opponent presented a win but did not assure a loss). Results revealed the presence of utilities and types of sport main effects. These main effects were superseded by a utilities X types of sport interaction. This interaction revealed that team-sport athletes showed low levels of concern for the opponent irrespective of the situation. On the other hand, individual-sport athletes (although showing more concern for the opponent than team-sport athletes in both utilities situations) showed significantly more concern for the opponent in the moderate than in the low utilities situation. The present findings underscore the fundamental importance of the social context in sportsmanship behavior.

KEY WORDS: Social context, Sportsmanship behavior.

This study was supported by a research grant from the Régie de la Sécurité dans les Sports du Québec to the authors. This manuscript was prepared while the first author was supported by grants from le Fonds pour la Formation des Chercheurs et l'Aide à la Recherche (FCAR-Québec), the Social Science and Humanities Research Council of Canada (SSHRC), and the Université du Québec à Montréal. We would like to thank Pierre Provenccher for conducting the statistical analyses reported in this paper.

Address for correspondence: Robert J. Vallerand, Ph.D., Laboratoire de Recherche sur le comportement social, Département de Psychologie, Université du Québec à Montréal, P.O. Box 8888, Station Centre-Ville, Montréal, QC Canada, H3C 3P8.

A considerable amount of research has been conducted on sportsmanship (see Bredemeier & Shields, 1993; Shields & Bredemeier, 1995; Weiss & Bredemeier, 1986, 1991 for reviews). Such research has mainly focused on assessing athletes' levels of moral reasoning and either comparing these with those of other athletes or nonathletes (e.g., Bredemeier & Shields, 1986) or correlating moral reasoning with intentions of injurious and aggressive behaviors (e.g., Bredemeier, 1985, 1994). Such research has proved important in showing, for instance that moral reasoning represents a significant determinant of behavior. However, it has focused almost exclusively on personal determinants (i.e., moral reasoning). Consequently we know very little about the role of the social context as a determinant of behavior related to sportsmanship.

Over the past two decades several theorists and researchers have underscored the role of the social context in the prediction of moral behavior (e.g., Backman, 1985; Graziano, 1987; Krebs, Vermeulen, Carpendale, & Denton, 1991; Kurtines, 1986; Rosenhan, Moore, & Underwood, 1976). Such a position is heavily supported by research. For instance, moral and prosocial behavior has been found to be affected by various contextual variables such as cooperation (Orlick, 1981), competition (Barnett & Bryan, 1974; Bandura, 1986; Christy, Gelfand, & Hartmann, 1971; Kleiber & Roberts, 1981), social influence (Bandura & McDonald, 1963), subjective norms (Vallerand, Desjardis, Guerrier, Pelletier, & Mongeau, 1992), group participation (Maitland & Goldman, 1974), and the behavior of the particular person in need (Lang-er & Abelson, 1972).

Recently, Vallerand (1991, 1995; Vallerand & Losier, 1994) has proposed a social-psychological approach to sportsmanship wherein the role of the social context is preeminent. According to this position, a number of contextual forces can affect sportsmanship behavior. Two such broad forces of interest for the present paper are situational and structural influences. Situational forces refer to determinants that are closely associated with the behavior to be emitted. They can be seen as proximal causes of behavior. One situational variable generally considered as crucial by theorists is the analysis of the expected utilities or potential costs and benefits associated with performing a given moral behavior. Within the realm of morality, concepts such as instrumental value (Hogan, 1973), anticipated social consequences (Backman, 1985), hedonic relevance (Graziano, 1987), costs/benefits analysis (Latané & Darley, 1970), and subjective expected utilities (Kurtines, 1986; Lynch & Cohen, 1978) have proven useful in predicting behavior.

As applied to sportsmanship, the subjective expected utilities approach, proposes that sportsmanship behavior, can be predicted from (1) the utilities

or the subjective evaluations of consequences for performing the behavior, (2) the subjective probabilities that the consequences will take place, and (3) the salience of these consequences. When people choose from among various behavioral alternatives (including sportsmanship behavior), they generally try to select the course of action whose consequences will give them the greatest utility. The individual combines information (i.e., subjective probabilities and utilities) for all of the salient consequences of making a given choice and from this information forms an impression of the subjective expected utilities of that choice. The decision maker then evaluates all salient alternatives in this fashion and then chooses the one with the greatest utility (Lynch & Cohen, 1978).

Thus, according to the above position, when faced with the possibility of either lending a missing piece of equipment to an opponent or not doing it and winning the event by default, one quickly evaluates the potential consequences for showing concern for the opponent, focusing on those salient consequences (e.g., «I may not win the event») and the subjective probabilities that such consequences will take forth (e.g., «very likely, the other athlete can beat me»). Based on the utilities accorded to these consequences and the probability that they will take place, a decision is made. In the above example, winning being considered as an important and valued utility, it is likely that refusing to lend the piece of equipment might be chosen as the preferred course of action.

While the subjective expected utilities pertain to the immediate situation, other contextual forces may be more remote from the situation and yet affect an athlete's sportsmanship behavior. Such is the case with structural forces (Vallerand, 1991, 1995). Structural forces refer to influences that originate from the mere structure of arrangement of the sport settings. One type of structural forces of interest is whether one is engaged in an individual or a team sport. Much research in social psychology reveals that individuals engaged in individual or group endeavours are subjected to different social contexts. For instance, research on intergroup conflict reveals that the mere fact of being divided into two groups leads individuals to be prejudiced toward the outgroup (Tajfel, 1982). This is likely to be exacerbated by the focus on winning inherent in competitive sport, and potentially lead to negative behavior including unsportsmanlike conduct. Furthermore, team-sport athletes are subjected to intra-group influences from fellow teammates and coaches. They are likely to feel pressured to conform (Asch, 1956) and to act in ways to help the team reach its goal (i.e., winning). However, the social context in individual sports would appear to be quite different. Often, no head to head competition takes place among competitors (e.g., boxing) it

would appear that one does not have to «beat» the opponent in order to win in individual sports. Performing at his or her best may be sufficient. Furthermore, since individual-sport athletes are more or less on their own, they are less likely to be subjected to pressure from others to engage in unsportsmanlike conduct. In sum, it would appear that the social context of team sport athletes is much less conducive to sportsmanlike conduct than that of individual-sport athletes. Therefore, it is not surprising that research has found that team athletes such as basketball players have been found to have lower levels of moral reasoning than individual-team sports such as swimming (Bredemeier & Shields, 1984).

The social psychological approach to sportsmanship also proposes that it is crucial that the content of the sportsmanship concept be identified. This is because by providing a definition of the concept, it would then become possible to clearly specify the types of behavior we should concentrate on as researchers. In addition, we would be in a better situation to more precisely identify the determinants of sportsmanship behaviors. In line with the position of several moral theorists and researchers (e.g., Backman, 1985; Damon, 1988; Graziano, 1987; Quinn, Houts, & Grassler, 1994; Shweder & Much, 1987), the social psychological approach posits that athletes should develop a consensual agreement regarding the nature of sportsmanship and should be in an ideal position to help define the construct. Vallerand et al. (in press) have recently conducted a study that attempted to identify athletes' definition of sportsmanship. Over 1,000 athletes were asked to rate 21 items describing various sport situations (previously identified by athletes as pertinent to the concept of sportsmanship), in terms of the extent to which they felt each item depicted the concept of sportsmanship. Athletes' responses were subjected to a factor analysis and revealed the presence of 5 dimensions. These dimensions were the concern and respect for: (1) the rules and officials (e.g., «I respect the rules even when the opponent cheats»); (2) the opponent (e.g., «When the opponent injures him or herself, I do not take advantage of the situation»); (3) one's full commitment toward sport participation (e.g., «I do not give up even after doing several mistakes»); (4) for social conventions (e.g., «After the game, I always shake hands with the opponent»); and (5) a negative approach toward one's participation in sport (e.g., «If I make a mistake during an important part of the game, I really get upset»). With such a definition, it then becomes possible to identify the determinants of behaviors dealing specifically with sportsmanship and not restrict ourselves to aggression.

In light of the above, the purpose of the present study was to assess the influence of two types of social forces, namely expected utilities and team vs

individual sports on intentions of sportsmanship behavior. Vallerand and his colleagues (Vallerand, 1991; Vallerand et al., in press) have suggested that the various dimensions of sportsmanship behavior may be subjected to different influences and that a given social force may affect sportsmanship behavior in different ways depending on the sportsmanship dimensions underlying it. Thus, in order to avoid confusion and maintain experimental control, we decided to focus on one type of sportsmanship behavior, namely concern for the opponent. In the present study, athletes were asked to read two hypothetical sport situations in which the subjective utilities for showing concern for the opponent were manipulated. In the first situation (the moderate utilities condition), showing concern for the opponent prevented a win but did not assure a loss. In other words, the gains associated with the sportsmanship behavior were low but the costs moderate. The subjective utilities of behaving in a sportsmanship fashion in this situation were thus moderate. On the other hand, in the second situation (the low utilities condition), adopting a sportsmanlike conduct assured a loss. Therefore, the gains associated with behaving in a sportsmanlike fashion were also low but the costs very high. The subjective expected utilities for adopting a sportsmanlike approach were thus low. It was thus hypothesized that intentions of sportsmanship behavior would be higher in the moderate than in the low subjective utilities situations.

In addition, it was predicted that team-sport athletes would display lower levels of sportsmanship than individual-sport athletes. This is because team-sport athletes are typically subjected to social pressure from their environment (especially coaches and teammates) to play to win at all costs to a greater extent than individual-sport athletes (Vallerand, 1995; Vaz, 1974). Such pressure, in turn, should lead team-sport athletes into perceiving less subjective utilities for behaving in a sportsmanlike manner.

Method

SUBJECTS

The subjects in this study were 528 French-Canadian athletes who varied in age from 10 to 18 years. The mean age was 14.8 years. There were 236 female and 291 male athletes (one athlete did not indicate his or her sex). Subjects represented a stratified random sample of athletes from the Province of Quebec who participated in 7 individual and team sports (badminton, basketball, gymnastics, hockey, swimming, track and field, and volleyball). All athletes were participating in competitive leagues at various levels in line with their age (e.g., Pee-Wee, Bantam, Midget) and were representing their schools or (civic) clubs.

DESIGN

The original design of this study was a 2 (gender) X 2 (high-low sport experience) X 2 (individual-team sport) X 2 (moderate-low expected utilities) ANCOVA using age as a covariate. However, preliminary analyses revealed that gender, experience, and age did not produce any significant effects. Therefore, these factors were dropped from the analyses leading to a 2 (Type of sport - team vs individual sports) X 2 (moderate-low expected utilities). The first factor was a between-subject factor while the last factor was a within-subject factor.

QUESTIONNAIRE

Subjects were provided with a questionnaire which contained two hypothetical situations representative of situations to be found in their respective sports (*). On the first page, it was indicated that subjects would be asked to imagine being in two situations. Subjects were asked to answer to each situation independently of the other one. In addition, it was stressed that they should not indicate their names and thus that their answers would remain anonymous.

The two situations varied as a function of the subjective expected utilities associated with performing a sportsmanship behavior as indicated above. Because athletes from 7 different sports were used in this study, questionnaires were carefully constructed so that the psychological aspect of each situation be preserved. In each of the two situations, athletes were confronted with a situation in which they could act so as to show concern for the opponent (the sportsmanship behavior of interest) or to concentrate on their own gains. In the first condition, the expected utilities associated with showing concern for the opponent were low (showing concern for the opponent entailed a loss). In the second condition, the utilities were moderate (showing concern for the opponent did not entail a loss). The expected utility used, namely probability of winning, was selected because it is highly salient in sport. As an example, the two situations employed in track and field were the following:

Low subjective utilities situation. In this situation, subjects were told: «Imagine that you are in the following situation. You are participating in the finals of an important meet. During the race you are struggling for third place. Two runners have already completed the event. As you finish the event, you realize that another runner has slightly beaten you for third place. You finish fourth. Later, as results are posted, an error from the finish judge gives you third place. You are the only one to have noticed this mistake because the other runner really does not know who finished third or fourth. You have the choice of telling the meet officials that they have made a mistake in giving you third place or to shut up and say nothing at all».

Moderate subjective utilities situation. In this situation, subjects were told: «Imagine that you are in the following situation. You are getting ready to participate in the finals of an important meet. You are one of the favorites to win a gold medal. A few moments before starting time, you realize that the other favorite participant is looking for something. You ask him (her) what it is and (s)he tells you that (s)he does not have his (her) meet shoes. (S)He wears the same size as you and you have an extra pair of shoes in your bag. It is the only pair of shoes that (s)he could use. You have the choice between lending him (her) the shoes or do nothing».

(*) Earlier discussions with coaches from the various sports ensured that the selected situations were indeed representative of those to be found in each sport.

Following each situation, subjects were asked to indicate how they would behave. For instance, with respect to the first situation above, subjects were presented with the following statement: «If I were in this situation, I would shut up and say nothing at all». Subjects were then asked to indicate their intended behavior on a 4-point scale ranging from «Very Certainly Yes» (1), to «Probably Yes» (2), «Probably No» (3), and to «Very Certainly No» (4). Such types of behavioral intention measures have been used extensively in social psychological research (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) as well as in the moral and prosocial literature (e.g., Bredehoeft, 1994; Kurtines, 1986; Lynch & Cohen, 1978). Research reveals that behavioral intention measures are valid and reliable measure which correlate highly with behavior (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Finally, sociodemographic questions dealing with subjects' age, gender, and years of experience in their respective sport were asked.

PROCEDURES

Prior to the testing sessions, the experimenters phoned the head coaches of the various randomly selected teams in order to solicit their collaboration in the present study. Coaches were told that participation was important because it could lead to a better understanding of sport competition in their respective sports. Only one team was assessed per meeting. Teams responded to the questionnaire either in a classroom near the gymnasium (if applicable), or in the locker room. Subjects were thanked for accepting to participate in the study. It was verbally explained that «this study is not a test but rather some kind of survey on sport competitions». They were also told that their answers would not serve for selection purposes and that their coach would not see their individual answers. Subjects were told, however, that their answers were important as they could contribute to a better understanding of their sport. Following these instructions, the questionnaire was briefly verbally described. Questionnaires were then distributed and completed on an individual basis. For athletes 14 years old and under, situations and items were read to them as they were reading them. Finally, all subjects were encouraged to ask questions at any time. These overall procedures ensured that the whole questionnaire was clear for all subjects. Following completion of the questionnaire, subjects were explained the hypotheses of the study, thanked for their cooperation and dismissed.

Results

In order to assess the effects of the variables of the study on behavioral intentions of concern for the opponent, a 2 (individual/team sports) X 2 (low/moderate utilities) analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed with type of sport serving a between-subject factor and utilities serving as a within-subject factor. Results from the ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for subjective expected utilities, $F(1,526) = 38.94, p < .0001$. As expected, results revealed that athletes reported more concern for the opponent in the moderate utilities ($M = 2.66$) than in the low utilities ($M = 2.26$) conditions. A main effect for types of sport, $F(1,526) = 84.09, p < .0001$ was also obtained. These results indicated that team-sports athletes ($M = 2.10$)

reported lower levels of concern for the opponent than athletes from individual sports ($M = 2.77$). The utilities X types of sport interaction was also significant, $F(1,526) = 5.90, p < .02$. This interaction is displayed in Figure 1. The pattern of the interaction revealed that team-sport athletes showed lower levels of concern for the opponent in the low utilities situation ($M = 1.98$) than in the moderate utilities situation ($M = 2.22$), $F(1,526) = 6.78, p < .01$. On the other hand, individual-sport athletes (although showing more concern for the opponent than team-sport athletes in both utilities situations, $F_s > 26, p < .0001$) showed clearly less concern for the opponent in the low (2.50) than in the moderate utilities situation (3.05), $F(1,526) = 40.49, p < .0001$. Thus, although the utilities main effect was significant for both individual and team-sport athletes, the effect was clearly more important for individual-sport athletes.

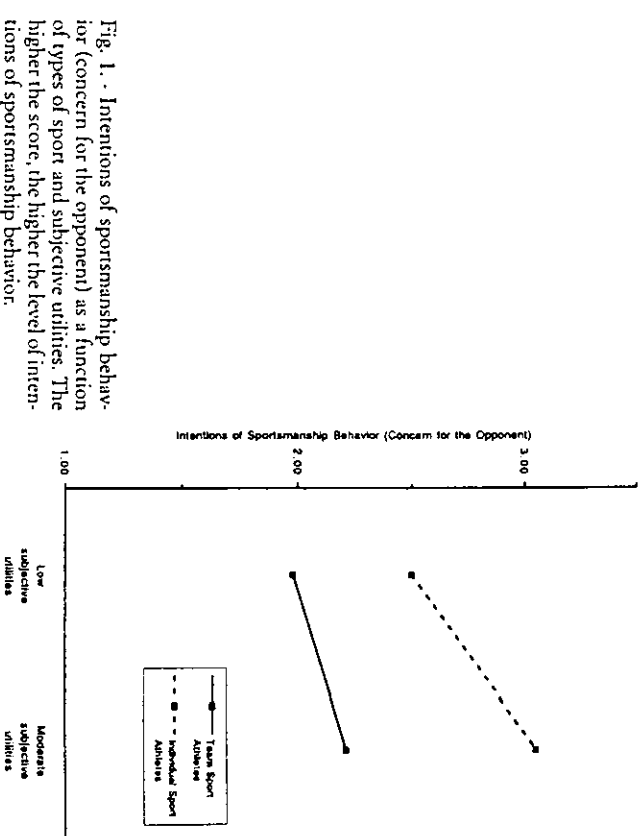


Fig. 1. Intentions of sportsmanship behavior (concern for the opponent) as a function of types of sport and subjective utilities. The higher the score, the higher the level of intentions of sportsmanship behavior.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to ascertain the effects of expected utilities (a situational force) and types of sport (a structural force) on behavioral intentions of one type of sportsmanship behavior, namely concern for the opponent. Results revealed that both expected utilities and types of sports had important main effects as well as an interactive effect on sportsmanship behavioral intentions. These findings attest to the pervasiveness of the effects of the social context on the display of sportsmanship (concern for the opponent) behavior. Such effects were evident in several ways in this study.

First, as expected, concern for the opponent was found to vary as a function of important expected utilities (winning). Athletes who were confronted with the possibility of displaying respect and concern toward an opponent did so to the extent that it did not entail losing the contest. When it did entail losing the contest, however, concern for the opponent was reduced substantially. In other words, if put in a position to choose between the opponent's welfare or their own benefits, athletes will act to maximize their own gains. These findings are in agreement with past social psychological research (e.g., Berkowitz, 1970) which indicates that situations which increase concern for oneself decreases concern for others. It appears that important competitive events, as the ones studied in this study, do indeed increase concern for oneself and one's outcomes. It is therefore not surprising to observe that such situations also produce a decrease in sportsmanship behaviors that are based in the concern for the opponent. These findings go in line with those of Weiss and Bredemeier (1991) who posited that: «The rewards for success in competitive sport create an environment where non-moral values are so strong and attractive that athletes are frequently tempted to choose a course of action that preempts or compromises their moral ideals» (p. 358). In other words, in several sport situations contextual forces are so strong that they override the impact of sportsmanship orientations (or moral reasoning levels) and become the main determinants of sportsmanship behavior.

Second, the present results which showed that team-sport athletes displayed lower levels of concern for the opponent than individual-sport athletes can also be understood in light of the effects of the social context on behavior. As indicated earlier, an assessment of the social context of these two environments reveals that they are quite different. Individual-sport athletes generally spend much more time on their own. They often practice in the absence of the coach and teammates and generally compete individually. They thus have to rely on their own standards when faced with the

decision to show concern for an opponent or to focus on maximizing one's outcomes (winning). On the other hand, team-sport athletes perform in a highly socially-oriented environment. They practice and play with other athletes and the coach repeatedly reminds them of the importance of the team. Personal sacrifice for the team is often regarded as important. Team-sport athletes are also subjected to intense social pressure that may not always converge with their own ideas as how to behave with respect to sportsmanship issues in a given situation. In such instances, social psychological research would suggest that conflict is resolved in line with the position of the majority (Asch, 1956). In light of past work in team sports (e.g., McMurtry, 1974; Smith, 1974, 1978; Vaz, 1974) it would appear that the social pressure from the majority would be directed at leading team members to do whatever is best to enable the team to win. Thus, although individual-sport participants, may also experience some pressure to win (especially from parents and coaches), it would appear that it is nowhere as powerful as that found in team sports. Considering the different social contexts in which team and individual-sport athletes perform, it is therefore not surprising that they behave differently in situations wherein sportsmanship behavior can be emitted.

The social pressure that team-sport athletes experience toward winning at the expense of concern for the opponent can also be understood in terms of anticipated social consequences (or utilities) which are evaluated by the athlete when deciding how to behave toward an opponent. When faced with the behavioral alternatives of showing concern and fairness toward the opponent (and losing the contest) and that of helping the team win, salient images of teammates and coaches' reactions may lead athletes to regulate their behaviors in line with the significant others' opinion (Baldwin & Holmes, 1987). One would rather be celebrated as a hero for helping the team win than being criticized for having thought of the opponent first and consequently for having let the team down (see McMurtry, 1974; Smith, 1974, 1978; and the report by the International Committee for Fairplay, 1981). Therefore, in addition to winning, the anticipated social behavior of teammates and coaches toward athletes may represent additional expected utilities which may serve to regulate athletes' sportsmanship behavior.

This last interpretation on the role of anticipated social consequences, may help shed additional light on the sport X utilities interaction which was obtained in this study. This interaction showed that individual-sport athletes were highly influenced by the utilities variables while displaying higher levels of concern for the opponent than team-sport athletes in both conditions.

This interaction may have been due to the fact that team-sport athletes are subjected to two types of expected utilities: the desire to win and the social pressure from teammates and coaches to act accordingly. Therefore, it is not surprising to observe that these athletes demonstrated (roughly equivalent) lower levels of concern for the opponent in both conditions than individual-sport athletes who are mainly faced with only the outcomes (winning) utilities. Future research should ascertain this hypothesis.

Overall, results of this study underscore the fundamental and pervasive role of the social context in sportsmanship behavior. The social context comes into play through the diverse effects of the anticipated consequences (or expected utilities) from performing a given sportsmanship behavior and from the social milieu within which such behavior is to be emitted. Thus, without neglecting research on the personal determinants of sportsmanship behavior (to this effect, see Vallerand, 1991, 1995; Vallerand, Briere, & Provencher, 1995), we suggest that a significant portion of future research be targeted at assessing the role of the broad spectrum of social forces as determinants of such behavior.

Such research could pursue at least five directions. First, the social psychological determinants of the various types of sportsmanship behaviors other than those pertaining to the concern for the opponent should be ascertained. Vallerand et al. (in press) have uncovered 5 types of sportsmanship dimensions, namely: the respect and concern for: 1) one's full commitment toward sport participation, 2) the rules and officials, 3) social conventions, and 4) the opponent, as well as 5) a negative approach toward sport participation. Future research should complement the results of the present study by assessing the generalizability of the present findings with the other four types of sportsmanship behaviors.

Second, in this study, athletes competing at low to moderate levels of the competitive hierarchy participated. It would appear important to assess the generalizability of the present findings with elite athletes (e.g., members of national and olympic teams). Third, we assessed the effects of only one type of utilities, namely winning. However, as we suggested, many other types of utilities come into play in sport. The effects of social utilities conveyed by teammates, coaches, parents, and fans, as well as that of other social psychological influences on subsequent sportsmanship behavior seem particularly worthy of research interest.

Fourth, the present study used behavioral intentions rather than actual behavior. Although behavioral intention measures are often used in the moral area (e.g., Bredehoeft, 1994; Kurtines, 1986; Lynch & Cohen, 1978) and generally correlated highly with actual behavior (see Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen &

Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), it nevertheless remains that the two measures are not identical. Consequently, future research would do well to extend the present work by using actual behavior, preferably in field situations.

Fifth and final, the present findings point at the potential use of the social context in future intervention programs. Past programs have mainly emphasized the resolution of moral dilemmas through moral dialogue in the hope of increasing athletes' levels of moral reasoning. Although such programs have been found to be successful on a short-term basis (e.g., Bredehoeft, Weiss, Shields, & Shewchuk, 1986; Romance, Weiss, & Bockovan, 1986), three points are in order. First, such studies have focused on physical education and not sports per se. Second, these studies have not assessed intervention effects on sportsmanship behavior. And third, the long-term effects of interventions have not been evaluated. While recognizing that interventions that increase moral reasoning (or sportsmanship orientations) may also enhance sportsmanship behavior, we believe that such an approach needs to be complemented by interventions focusing on the social context in order to be more fully successful. Indeed, even if we improve athletes' sportsmanship orientations, contextual forces are so strong that without changing the environment, athletes are likely to behave against their sportsmanship orientations (Weiss & Bredehoeft, 1991) and eventually to revert back to their initial levels. However, by focusing on the social context, and by introducing appropriate permanent contextual changes in the sport environment (e.g., individuals selected to be coaches in a given league display positive forms of sportsmanship behaviors, discourage like behaviors in their players, and lead athletes to perceive contextual utilities in line with a sportsmanship orientation), it should be possible to produce long-lasting changes in athletes' sportsmanship behaviors and orientations. This should be ascertained in future field research.

In sum, results of the present study showed that two elements of the social context – namely expected utilities and the type of sport engaged in – represent important determinants of one type of sportsmanship behavior, namely concern for the opponent. These findings underscore the fact that an analysis of the social context is essential for a more complete understanding of the processes involved in the display of sportsmanship behaviors. It is posited that future work adopting such an approach could produce significant scientific advances for the field leading eventually to the design of sport environments conducive to the display of sportsmanship behavior and the development of sportsmanship orientations in athletes.

REFERENCES

- Aizen, I. (1988). *Attitudes, personality, and behavior*. Chicago, IL: The Dorsey Press.
- Aizen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Asch, S. (1956). Studies of independence of conformity: I. A minority of one against a unanimous majority. *Psychological Monographs*, 70 (9) (whole number 416).
- Backman, C.W. (1985). Identity, self presentation, and the resolution of moral dilemmas: Towards a social psychological theory of moral behavior. In B.R. Schlenker (Ed.), *The self and social life* (pp. 261-289). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Baldwin, M.W., & Holmes, J.G. (1987). Salient private audiences and awareness of the self. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52, 1087-1098.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A., & McDonald, E.J. (1963). Influence of social reinforcement and the behavior of models in shaping children's moral judgements. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 67, 274-281.
- Barrett, M.A., & Bryan, J.H. (1974). Effects of competition with outcome feedback on children's helping behavior. *Developmental Psychology*, 10, 838-842.
- Berkowitz, L. (1970). The self, selfishness, and altruism. In B. McAlvay & L. Berkowitz (Eds.), *Altruism and helping behavior*. New York: Academic Press.
- Bredemeier, B.J.L. (1985). Moral reasoning and the perceived legitimacy of intentionally injurious acts. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 7, 110-124.
- Bredemeier, B.J.L. (1994). Children's moral reasoning and their assertive, aggressive, and submissive tendencies in sport and daily life. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 16, 1-14.
- Bredemeier, B.J.L., & Shields, D.L.L. (1984). The utility of moral stage analysis in the investigation of athletic aggression. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 1, 348-357.
- Bredemeier, B.J.L., & Shields, D.L.L. (1986). Athletic aggression: An issue of contextual morality. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 13, 15-28.
- Bredemeier, B.J.L., & Shields, D.L.L. (1993). Moral psychology in the context of sport. In R. Singer, M. Murphy, & L.K. Tennant (Eds.), *Handbook of research in sport psychology* (pp. 587-599). New York: Macmillan.
- Bredemeier, B.J., Weiss, M., Shields, D., & Shewchuk, R. (1986). Promoting moral growth in a summer camp: The implementation of theoretically grounded instructional strategies. *Journal of Moral Education*, 15, 212-220.
- Christy, P.R., Geland, D.M., & Hartmann, D.P. (1971). Effects of competition-induced frustration of two classes of modeled behavior. *Developmental Psychology*, 5, 104-111.
- Damon, W. (1988). *The moral child*. New York: The Free Press.
- Fishbein, M., & Aizen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior. An introduction to theory and research*. Reading, Mass: Addison-Wesley.
- Graziano, W.G. (1987). Lost in thought at the choice point: Cognition, context, and equity. In J.C. Masters & P. Smith (Eds.), *Social comparison, social justice and relative deprivation* (pp. 265-294). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Hogan, R. (1973). Moral conduct and moral character: A psychological perspective. *Psychological Bulletin*, 79, 217-232.
- International Committee for Fairplay (1981). *Manifeste de l'entente internationale pour un sport sans violence et pour le Fair Play*. Paris: C.I.F.P.
- Kleiber, D.A., & Roberts, G.C. (1981). The effects of sport experience in the development of social character: An exploratory investigation. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 3, 114-122.
- Krebs, D.L., Vermeulen, S., Carpendale J.I., & Denton, K. (1991). Structural and situational influence on moral judgment: The interaction between stage and dilemma. In W.M. Kurtines & J.L. Gewirtz (Eds.), *Handbook of moral behavior and development* (Vol. 2, pp. 139-169). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Kurtines, W.M. (1986). Moral behavior as rule governed behavior: Person and situation effects on moral decision making. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50, 784-791.
- Langer, E.J., & Abelson, R.P. (1972). The semantics of asking a favor: How to succeed in getting help without really dying. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 24, 26-32.
- Latané, B., & Darley, J.M. (1970). *The unresponsive bystander: Why doesn't he help?* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Lynch, J.G., & Cohen, J.L. (1978). The use of subjective expected utility theory as an aid to understanding the variables that influence helping behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 36, 1138-1151.
- Maniand, K.A., & Goldman, J.R. (1974). Moral judgement as a function of peer group interaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 30, 699-704.
- McMurry, W.P. (1974). *Investigation and inquiry into violence in amateur hockey*. Ministry of Community and Social Services. Public Inquiries Act of 1971, Province of Ontario, Toronto, Canada.
- Orlick, T.D. (1981). Positive socialization via cooperative games. *Developmental Psychology*, 17, 426-429.
- Quinn, R.A., Houss, A.C., & Graesser, A.C. (1994). Naturalistic conceptions of morality: A question-answering approach. *Journal of Personality*, 62, 239-262.
- Romanse, T.J., Weiss, M.R., & Bockwain, J. (1986). A program to promote moral development through elementary school physical education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 5, 126-136.
- Rosenhan, D.L., Moore, B.S., & Underwood, B. (1976). The social psychology of moral behavior. In T. Lickona (Ed.), *Moral development and behavior*. New York: Academic Press.
- Shields, D.L.L., & Bredemeier, B.J.L. (1995). *Character development and physical activity*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Shweder, R.A., & Much, N.C. (1987). Determinations of meaning: Discourse and moral socialization. In W.M. Kurtines & J.L. Gewirtz (Eds.), *Moral development through social interaction* (pp. 197-244). New York: Wiley.
- Smith, M.D. (1974). Significant others' influence on the assuative behavior of young hockey players. *International Review of Sport Sociology*, 9, 45-58.
- Smith, M.D. (1978). Social learning of violence in minor hockey. In F. Small & R. Smith (Eds.), *Psychological perspectives in youth sports* (pp. 91-100). Washington, DC: Hemisphere Publication.
- Tajfel, H. (1982). Social psychology of intergroup relations. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 33, 1-39.
- Vallerand, R.J. (1991). Une analyse psychosociale de l'esprit sportif (A social psychological analysis of sportsmanship). In J. Bizard & M. Durand (Eds.), *Sport et psychologie* (Sport and psychology) (pp. 289-299). Montpeller, France: Edition Revue EPS.
- Vallerand, R.J. (1995). *A social psychological analysis of sportsmanship*. Unpublished manuscript, Université du Québec à Montréal.

- Vallerand, R.J., Brière, N.M., Provencher, P. (1995). *On the development and validation of the Multidimensional Sportsmanship Orientation Scale (MSOS)*. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Vallerand, R.J., Deshaies, P., Guertier, J.-P., Brière, N.M., & Pelletier, L.G. (in press). Toward a multidimensional definition of sportsmanship. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*.
- Vallerand, R.J., Deshaies, P., Guertier, J.-P., Pelletier, L.G., & Mongeau, C. (1992). Azzen and Fishbein's theory of reasoned action as applied to moral behavior: A confirmatory analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *62*, 98-109.
- Vallerand, R.J., & Losier, G.F. (1994). Self-determined motivation and sportsmanship orientations: An assessment of their temporal relationship. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, *16*, 229-245.
- Vaz, E.W. (1974). What price victory? *International Review of Sport Sociology*, *9*, 33-55.
- Weiss, E.W., & Bredekmeier, B.J. (1986). Moral development. In V. Seefeldt (Ed.), *Physical activity and human well-being*, (pp. 374-390). Reston, VA: AAHPERA.
- Weiss, M.K., & Bredekmeier, B.J.L. (1991). Moral development in sport. *Exercise and Sport Science Reviews*, *18*, 331-378.