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Abstract

Intriguingly, despite repetitive occurrences of unethical and immoral behaviors emanated by athletes, the annual attendance of spectators for Korean professional baseball league showed gradual increment. This paradoxical phenomenon raises a question whether if the rise of spectator disregard of cheating, is an implication of spectators learning to accept cheating that purportedly has infiltrated sports. In this concept, the purpose of this research is to examine predictors of cheating acceptability pivoting on the concept of bracketed morality, overconformity, and media consumption. In other words, the objective of this research is to investigate the influence and correlation of bracketed morality, overconformity, and media consumption to cheating acceptability.

The online survey was conducted in the context of bracketed morality to achieve the purpose of this study, and the target population for the study was professional Korean baseball league spectators. A total of 392 individuals participated in the online survey with a self-administration method which was used as data for research analysis. The collected data were analyzed through descriptive statistics analysis and reliability analysis utilizing SPSS 22.0, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and validity analysis with AMOS 22.0. After CFA had been conducted, the structural equation model (SEM) analysis was applied to verify the research

hypothesis.

The results of the hypothesis in the research were as follows: Higher overconformity influenced antisocial morality, and cheating acceptability positively correlated with media consumption and higher antisocial morality. Comparing with antisocial morality, the impact of overconformity and media consumption was positively and negatively correlated respectively. Moreover, higher prosocial morality was negatively correlated with cheating acceptability. The mediation test shows a sole partial mediation effect of antisocial morality between overconformity and cheating acceptability.

In conclusion, both antisocial and prosocial morality approves the bracketed morality to be an effect on cheating acceptability. Baseball spectators with high antisocial morality can be analyzed as; antisocial behavior directed toward opponents was more likely to be carried out in sports setting than the similar behavior in a daily life setting. Such moral behavior and judgments are deemed to be more acceptable alongside with cheating and watch baseball games disregard of cheating.

The study is among first endeavors to apply the concept of bracketed morality in sports management field specifically geared towards sports spectators. By grafting the concept from the subject of athletes' perspective on to the sports spectators' perspective, the study is worthwhile to examine the suitability of the concept. Thus, this theoretical analysis

provides socio-cultural and psychological qualification as well to genuinely explain why sports spectators are in parallel with athletes on the bracketed morality.

Keyword : cheating acceptability, bracketed morality, overconformity, media consumption

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Table of Contents

Abstract	1
Table of Contents	4
List of Tables	7
List of Figures	9
Chapter 1. Introduction	10
1.1. Background	10
1.2. Research Objective	12
Chapter 2. Literature Review	14
2.1. Morality	14
2.1.1. Two values of morality	14
2.1.2. The concept of bracketed morality	16
2.1.3. The definition of bracketed morality	17
2.2. Overconformity	19
2.2.1. The definition of overconformity	22

2.3. Media Consumption	23
2.4. Cheating Acceptability	26
2.5. Operational Definition	27
2.6. Research Model & Hypothesis	28
2.6.1. Research model.....	28
2.6.2. Hypothesis.....	29
Chapter 3. Method.....	30
3.1. Participants.....	30
3.2. Materials and Procedure	31
3.2.1. Overconformity and media consumption.....	32
3.2.2. Cheating acceptability.....	33
3.2.3. Bracketed morality.....	34
3.3. Procedure	37
Chapter 4. Results.....	38
4.1. Descriptive Analysis	38
4.2. Reliability Test	40
4.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Validity Test.....	41

4.3.1. Confirmatory factor analysis.....	41
4.3.2. Convergent and discriminant validity test.....	44
4.4. Structural Equation Modeling.....	45
4.4.1. Structural equation model fit test.....	45
4.4.2. Research hypothesis test.....	47
4.4.3. Mediation hypothesis test.....	50
Chapter 5. Discussion.....	59
5.1. Findings.....	60
5.2. Implications.....	61
5.3.1 Theoretical implication.....	61
5.3.1 Managerial implication.....	62
5.3. Conclusion.....	64
5.4. Limitations and Future Research Directions.....	64
References.....	67
Appendix.....	76
Abstract in Korean.....	76

List of Tables

Table 1. Term Definition of Bracketed Morality	19
Table 2. Term Definition of Overconformity	23
Table 3. Term Definition of Media Consumption.....	24
Table 4. Term Definition of Cheating Acceptability.....	26
Table 5. Operational Definition of the Variables	27
Table 6. Demographic Variables of the Research.....	31
Table 7. Measurement Developed for Overconformity	32
Table 8. Measurement Developed for Media Consumption	33
Table 9. Measurement Developed for Cheating Acceptability.....	34
Table 10. Measurement Developed for Antisocial Morality	35
Table 11. Measurement Developed for Prosocial Morality.....	36
Table 12. Descriptive Analysis Test Result	39
Table 13. Reliability Test Result.....	41
Table 14. Factor Loadings of Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	43
Table 15. Fit indices of Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	44

CHEATING ACCEPTABILITY IN SPORTS	8
Table 16. Convergent and Divergent Validity Test Result	45
Table 17. Fit indices of the Structural Equation Model	46
Table 18. Significance Test Result of the Research Model.....	48
Table 19. Fit indices of the Direct Path Model.....	51
Table 20. Significance Test Result of the Direct Path Model.....	52
Table 21. Fit indices for the Indirect Path Model.....	54
Table 22. Significance Test Result of the Indirect Path Model	55
Table 23. The Result of Mediation Effect including the Sobel Test.....	56
Table 24. The Comprehensive Result of the Research Model	57

List of Figures

Figure 1. Annual spectator attendance of Korean professional baseball	12
Figure 2. Separable moral systems in a brain.....	15
Figure 3. Schematic of the two types of deviance.....	20
Figure 4. Graph of transformation in students' tolerance on doping in professional sports from 1998 to 2006	24
Figure 5. The research model of the study.....	28
Figure 6. The result of a confirmatory factor analysis.....	42
Figure 7. The casual relationship and path of the research model.....	46
Figure 8. Standardization path coefficient of the research model.	47
Figure 9. Sobel test equation.....	51
Figure 10 The direct path model without mediating variables.....	51
Figure 11 The indirect path model without direct path from independent to dependent variables.....	53

Introduction

Background

The root of corruption in sports is unimaginably profound and prevalent. Cheating including match-fixing has been parallel to sports from the beginning of its history. The original historical case of corruption in sports dates back to the Ancient Greek Olympic Games in 388 BC, where athlete Eupolos match-fixed by bribing his competitors including Phormion of Halikarnassos, the Olympic champion during the era. Alongside with match-fixing by the players, there are also records of corruptions in sports management and administration (Maennig, 2005).

As history evolves, all traditions are newly invented (Hobsbawm, 1983). Throughout contemporary literature on cheating including match-fixing, it has become traditional to inaugurate researches and studies by acknowledging the rise of attention on match-fixing at the beginning of the twenty-first century. Match-fixing designates as a new epidemic of sports (Haberfeld & Sheehan, 2013). A phenomenon which is extremely detrimental to the integrity of sports and sporting competitions, and therefore potentially damaging to games' popularity and uncertainty of results (Chappelet, 2015). Any contraction of a spectator in sports arena would risk discouraging sponsors and broadcasters. Thus, to prevent a loss of viewers, numerous sports organizations strived for zero-tolerance on match-fixing through implementing policies to fight against match-fixing

such as Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) and the International Olympic Committee (IOC).

Match-fixing, a part of cheating, has emerged as a serious global problem (Carpenter, 2012; Gokhale, 2009; Hill, 2010) and South Korea is not spotless amid the swirl of world phenomena. Rather, shamefully, South Korea is one of the leading nations on criminal trials of players and officials for match-fixing alongside with Italy, Hungary, and China (Forrest, McHale, & McAuley, 2008). In 2011, current and former players, as well as brokers operating in K-League, the top professional soccer league in Korea, have been issued for arrest warrants. The investigation concentrated players being bribed to manipulate matches lead by agents and brokers. The stakeholders made illegal gains through both legal and illegal betting channels (Lee, 2011). As a result of the investigation, the public could ascertain a pervasive match-fixing epidemic not only in soccer, but in volleyball, motorboat racing, and baseball (Choe, 2012).

The following figure is a graph of annual attendance of spectators' status for the professional baseball league in South Korea, data retrieved from Korea Baseball Organization (KBO). The necessity of providing spectator number for a particular sports league is due to the highest popularity of baseball in Korea.

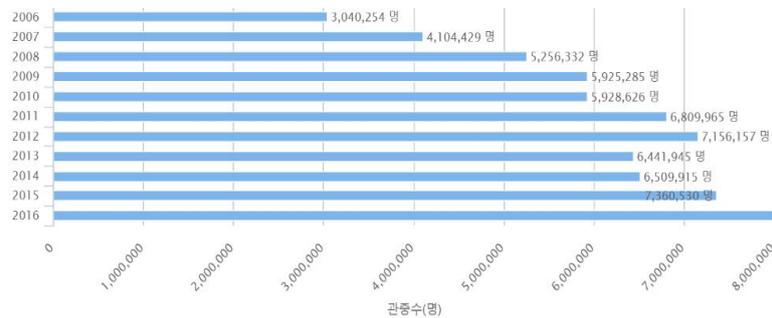


Figure 1. Annual spectator attendance of Korean professional baseball. The status is showing increasing popularity despite reoccurrences of cheating (Korea Baseball Organization, 2016).

Despite repetitive occurrences of these unethical and immoral injustices throughout the sports arena, Figure 1, the annual attendance of spectators for Korean professional baseball league vividly shows gradual increment and marked the highest in 2016. This paradoxical phenomenon raises a question whether if the rise in a number of sports spectators disregard of match-fixing is an implication of spectators learning to accept cheating and other evils that purportedly have infiltrated sports, further, which particular values of morality triggers within spectators providing a possible explanation for this paradoxical phenomena conveyed through the corruption of sports.

Research Objective

Numerous researchers on field of sports sociology, psychology, pedagogy, and cognitive neuroscience focused on the morality in sports arena (Bredemeier & Shields, 1984a, 1984b; Bredemeier, 1985, 1995; Kavussanu, Seal, & Phillips, 2006; Parkinson, Sinnott-Armstrong, Koralus,

Mendelovici, McGeer, & Westley, 2011; Vangrunderbeek & Tolleneer, 2010) endeavoring to highlight the importance of moral cognition, reasoning, judgment, and action of the athletes. These previous studies focused on such components since they are essential in providing precedent information on possible causation of cheating in sports.

The normative influence of sports institutions generated researchers to develop the concept of bracketed morality. The concept of bracketed morality received empirical support in a body of sports studies pivoting on morality to athlete's acceptance of cheating in sports. However, there has been limited research on the connection of sports spectators' morality to embracement and acceptance of cheating in sports.

The primary purpose of this research is to investigate whether if the concept of bracketed morality has an influence on sports spectators' behavior of accepting cheating in sports. Thus, the purpose of this research is in following orders: First, to examine whether overconformity has an influence on the bracketed morality of sports spectators.

Second, to examine whether media consumption has an influence on the bracketed morality of sports spectators.

Third, to examine whether bracketed morality has a mediating effect between overconformity, media consumption, and cheating acceptability.

Literature Review

Morality

Two values of morality. What is morality? Why is moral judgment similar yet divergent across different situations and cultures? Scholars argued for centuries over the controversy on morality without a clear answer. Thus, social scientists are cautious in assuming the nature of the true morality. However, there are two discrete morality theories: Monists and Pluralists.

The Monists are scholars who assert that the answer to morality is solely one. This concept of morality is identified as justice or fairness, as Kohlberg (1971) argued: Ultimately there is only one morality, not many. Regardless of climate or culture, there is always the same ideal form known as Justice.

Kohlberg referred to as the founding father of moral psychology declared that justice is the answer to the aspect of morality. Kohlberg extended such idea of unified moral psychology as the pillar study of the progressive development of adolescent morality. Deriving from the work of Piaget (1932), Kohlberg asserts the process of role-taking of children proceeds moral development throughout all cultures.

Scholars known to be the pluralists, on the other hand, argue that there is more than just one morality. Initially, Aristotle claimed that there were numerous aspects of morality by mentioning a bag of virtues. Gilligan

(1982) is another notorious pluralist as her study shows that the ethic of care is separate to the ethic of justice. Haan (1978) also provides a model of moral development arguing that there be two different moralities; formal and intrapersonal moralities. Based on Haan's (1978) work, Bredemeier and Shields (1984) proceeded a critical study to examine whether the two moralities are separate in daily life and sports context.

Multiple of cognitive neuroscientists reinforces the pluralistic view on morality. Parkinson et al. (2011) proceeded a functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) test to see the variance of brain reactions on different moral issues. The fMRI test, by direct measure of blood flow in the brain, shows information regarding brain activity. An fMRI test allows examining the neural correlates of moral judgment on three moral areas: Harm, Dishonesty, and Disgust (Parkinson et al., 2011).

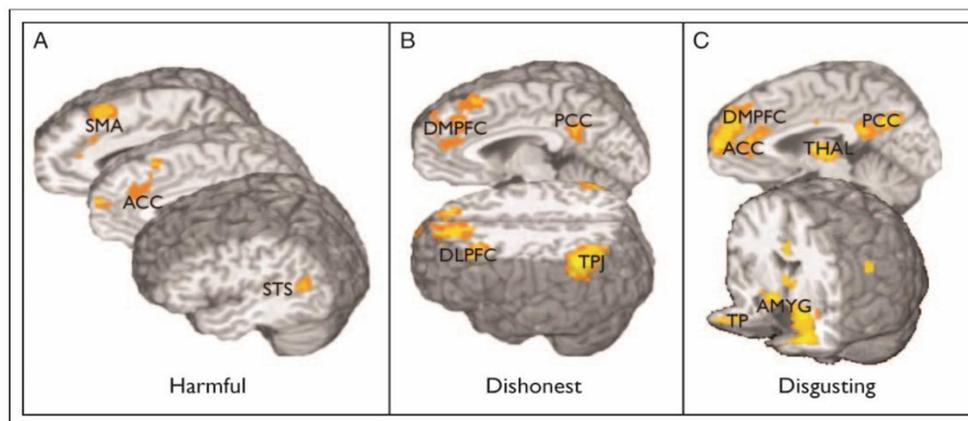


Figure 2. Separable moral systems in a brain. Parts of a brain are showing increased activity when judging moral scenarios. (a) The brain activity of judging physically harmful scenarios. (b) The brain activity of judging dishonest transgressions. (c) The brain activity of judging disgusting moral violations.

As one can see in Figure 2, the result shows a clear distinction in an activation of a neural system on three different cases regarding morality. These trends of a pluralistic view of morality are the pillar of this research paper since the central concept of the thesis, bracketed morality, derived from the pluralistic view of morality.

The concept of bracketed morality. The concept of bracketed morality can be seen when participants are shown with moral dilemma sets in sports and daily life contexts. Bredemeier and Shields (1984, 1986a, 1986b) proceeded the first protocol presenting sports and daily-life based dilemmas regarding professional athletes aggression. First, the sports-based dilemma settings were, an American football player who was forced by his instructor to purposely injure an opponent, and a basketball player caught in a dilemma of helping an opponent who kept playing dirty in the game. The two daily-life dilemmas were regarding a married man being involved with his young secretary, and a person in a dilemma of keeping a promise and lending money to help someone to support his family.

Bredemeier (1994, 1995) suggests a second protocol of dilemmas concerning specifically with adolescents; first, males in a situation of possibly harming other child who is acting unfairly and second, females in a situation of whether honesty becomes a priority by sticking with a promise she has made to a friend, similar to the first protocol of the daily life context.

The primary purpose of the researches Bredemeier proceeded was

to comprehend different results of moral reasoning in sports and daily life contexts. As Bredemeier pioneered the concept of bracketed morality, more researchers developed the concept of bracketed morality and shifted their attention to moral behavior, and examined aggression in and outside of sports (Boyan, 2012). An exemplary case would be a research lead by Nixon (1997). Based on the result of his research, Nixon posits that between male and female athletes, especially male athletes who intentionally hurt other athletes are more likely to show life aggression than those who did not to have been as aggressive inside sports context.

The definition of bracketed morality. Bredemeier and Shields (1984) conceptualized the idea of the bracketed morality; whether sports has its morality. The result of their research is that sports-based moral reasoning among high school, college athletes and non-athletes was more egocentric than daily-life moral reasoning. Bredemeier and Shields (1986) have posited that the bracketed nature of sports encourages “a temporary suspension of the usual moral obligation” of moral engagement.

Boyan (2012) also defines bracketed morality by focusing the differentiation of behaviors and moralities in a sports context to a daily life context. He provides an example of violence in sports is more acceptable than that of the same action in a daily life. Boyan sees the importance of bracketed morality on how sports free participants to bracket ordinary moral considerations.

Kavussanu, Boardley, Sagar, and Ring (2013) are the most recent and notorious scholars investigating the concept of bracketed morality. They proceeded several studies that compares college athletes' antisocial and prosocial behavior in sports and a college setting regarding morality. Kavussanu et al. (2013) states as the result that college athletes displayed more antisocial, and less prosocial moral behavior toward competitors. Also, these athletes displayed more prosocial moral behavior toward colleagues in sports setting than toward other students at a college setting. Kavussanu and Ring (2015) expands the focus of bracketed morality from moral behavior covering to moral judgment of participants. The difference of moral reasoning by the participants lead them to argue that the bracketed morality, "a transitory adoption of more egocentric moral reasoning" (Kavussanu et al., 2013) is more prevalent in sports. The standardized definitions of bracketed morality from previous researchers are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Term Definition of Bracketed Morality

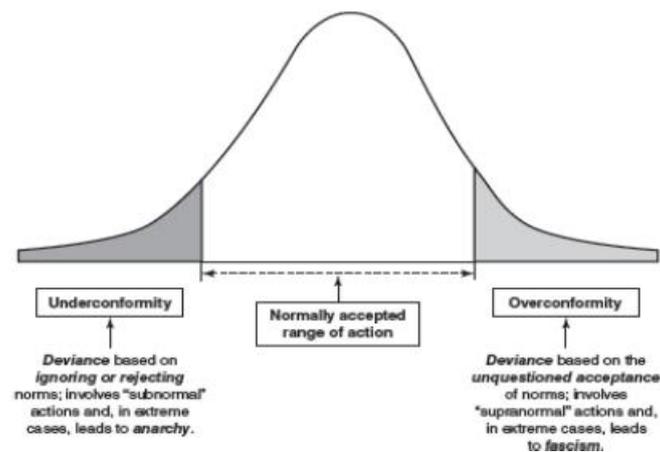
Researcher	Definition
Bredemeier & Shields, (1986).	A legitimated, temporary suspension of the usual moral obligation to equally consider the needs and desires of all persons.
Boyan, (2012).	Behaviors inside a sports context that are more acceptable than those behaviors outside of a sports context.
Kavussanu et al., (2013).	Partial adoption of assimilative patterns of moral exchange in sport.
Kavussanu, (2016).	Transitory adoption of more egocentric moral reasoning in sport compared to everyday life.

Overconformity

The concept of overconformity. The legitimacy of the concept of overconformity has been debated among several sociologists (Ben-Yehuda, 1990; Dodge, 1985; Goode, 1991; Sagarin, 1985) arguing that the idea of overconformity befalls. Some scholars in the sports sociology assert that the overconformity is real. These sports sociologists argue the behaviors of athletes involving supranormal actions which are hard to be explained by theories of normal and underconformity can be interpreted by overconformity (Coakley, 2015; Ewald & Jiobu, 1985; Hughes & Coakley, 1991; Johns, 1998).

Overconformity is a part of deviance which on a macroscopic aspect is a violation of a norm. Coakley (2014) posits that deviance occurs when actions, traits, or ideas fall outside the boundaries of conformity,

which is seen to be the normal range of acceptance in a social world. He argues that since the normative boundaries, or so called conformity is in between two types of deviances; underconformity, or negative deviance, and



overconformity, or positive deviance shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Schematic of the two types of deviances and conformity. White part in the center of a normal distribution curve is conformity. A gray area to the left shows underconformity and the right is overconformity.

Coakley assumed all deviant behaviors in the sports, regardless of any situation, are distributed within the continuum in a normal distribution curve. He posits that underconformity involves subnormal action that does not measure up to what is acceptable by the norm. It occurs when people ignore and reject the norm. Examples of negative deviance in sports are actions could be an athlete coming late to a scheduled practice, or failing to show commitment. Understanding of an extreme case of negative deviance would be anarchy.

Unlike underconformity, overconformity has rarely been studied by sociologists. Positive deviance is a form of conformity to a norm without any question or limits. An example of positive deviance in sports would be performing detrimental behaviors for the pursuit of positive outcomes; such as continuing to train through pain and injury or disrupting family life. Understanding of an extreme case of positive deviance would be fascism.

Overconformity has often become normalized in high-performance sports cultures at the same time that it remains deviant in the surrounding society. An excellent example can be seen from the retirement interview of Daniel Agger; a former professional soccer player played as a central defender for Liverpool and Denmark national team. He argued taking an overload of anti-inflammatories are very common and accepted in elite soccer players. The result from overtaking anti-inflammatories caused Agger to lose his control of the body, did not feel any pain but lying down shaking. Even though such consumption of anti-inflammatories are seen as common for professional soccer players, people outside of the soccer culture define those players as deviant since players like Agger represent dangerous overconformity in sports and society at large.

Not only anti-inflammatories but also performance-enhancing substances (PESs) are pervasive in sports. Athletes uncritically believe that their identity as an athlete and their membership in an elite sports group depends on demonstrating a willingness to exceed expectations for the sake

of the game, the team, and the demands of elite sports training and competition. However, such overconformity may be seriously dangerous and is seen as deviant in the wider society because it involves supranormal action that falls outside a normal range of acceptance.

The definition of overconformity. Hughes and Coakley (1991) defines overconformity as an excessive level of caring or accepting the goals and values of sports. They argued that many stakeholders regarding sports be involved in overconformity. The aims and values for athletes are success driven. Beneath such goals and values, athletes are expected with a high dedication of striving for distinction, perseverance of accepting risks and playing through pain, and diligence of overcoming obstacles in the pursuit of possibilities or success. Shipherd (2016) focused on perseverance part of overconformity and defined the term as a level of engagement in health damaging behaviors. Such sign of dedication, commitment to achieving excellence, prioritizing the team ahead of personal well-being, and a refusal to give up the pursuit of possibilities even when obstacles appear unbeatable. Smith (2017) focus on a reckless refusal to giving up the quest for possibilities in overconformity. His focus is on the individual's behavior that is more than necessary which ultimately causes a detrimental result. Based on the previous researchers, the standardized definitions of overconformity are shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Term Definition of Overconformity

Researcher	Definition
Coakley, (2009).	Deviant actions that indicate an uncritical acceptance of norms and a failure to recognize any limits to following norms.
Hughes & Coakley, (1991).	The degree of caring too much for or accepting too completely the goals and values of sports.
Shipherd, (2016).	The level of engagement in health damaging behaviors, and the formation and perseverance of an athletic identity.
Smith, (2017).	Uncritical acceptance of the rules in sport and adhering to them through doing more than necessary.

Media Consumption

Media consumption is an additional socialization factor that contributes to a higher bracketed morality or acceptance of potentially injurious acts and cheating in sports. Bredemeier et al. (1986) stated in their study that males showing higher interest in watching contact tended to use lower levels of moral reasoning. Bredemeier et al. (1987) stated in a follow-up study that children with a higher interest in sports were more accepting of potentially harmful acts.

The longitudinal study by Vangrunderbeek and Tolleneer (2010) supports the connection between media consumption and cheating acceptability by focusing on the doping issue in sports shown in Figure 4.

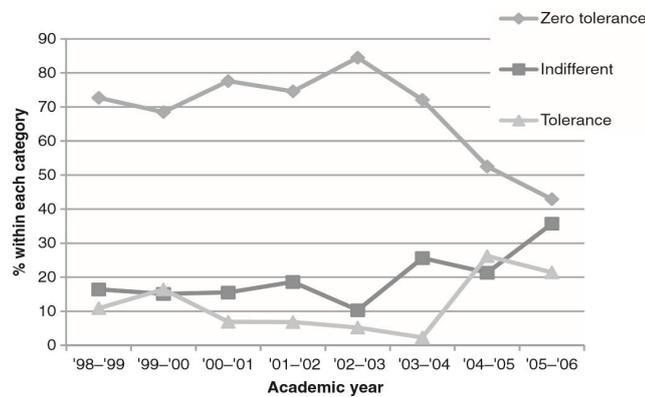


Figure 4. Graph of transformation in students' tolerance on doping in professional sports from 1998 to 2006.

The research lead by Vangrunderbeek and Tolleneer (2010) used a four-level approach to the doping issue. They found an interesting result of changing opinions towards a more lenient attitude in students regarding the doping issue in professional sports. As shown in Figure 4, the results show vividly from 2004 on; the eighteen-year-old students became more tolerant towards doping use while unacceptance of doping lowered.

Among several types of research that support such outcome, a research lead by Hoberman (2005) conducted a public opinion survey and found out that significant generational differences in drug use, more lenient attitudes at a younger generation were found. Longman and Connelly (2003) also stated that in the eighteen to twenty-nine-year-old age group, forty-one percent were unconcerned and only fifteen percent were disturbed by doping usage by the professional athletes contrasting with the thirty-four percent and thirty-one percent respectively in the older generation. Briggs (2003) also remarked that more than half of the eighteen to thirty-four-year-

old group had hardly any objection to doping.

The term media consumption or media usage is widely used throughout academia. With a counsel of sports marketing expert, I narrowed down the definition of media consumption used by numerous scholars to the closest meaning of media consumption I wanted to use for this study: The degree of individual's mediated consumption of professional baseball through communication.

Table 3

Term Definition of Media Consumption

Researcher	Definition
Angermeyer, Dietrich, Pott, & Matschinger (2005).	The number of days per week participants watched TV and read newspapers or magazines.
Harrison & Hefner, (2006).	The number of hours of television and magazine participants watched.
Den Hamer, Konijin, & Keijer (2014).	The number of antisocial sport related contents one has been attained to through media use.
Phua, (2010).	The amount of mediated consumption of sports acts through communication.
Wang, (2013)	Reading or posting game related content, or both.

Cheating Acceptability

The concept of cheating acceptability is self-explanatory; the amount of participants accept cheating. Cheating acceptability is intertwined and connected in other three variables used in this study: Bracketed morality, overconformity, and media consumption. Thus, simply the terms of cheating acceptability used by other scholars are presented in Table 4. Also, the same procedure of finding the term definition of cheating acceptability used by numerous scholars to the closest meaning of cheating acceptability used for this study has proceeded.

Table 4

Term Definition of the Cheating Acceptability

Researcher	Definition
Corrion et al., (2010).	The extent to which one regards cheating as acceptable.
d'Arripe-Longueville et al., (2010).	The extent to which participants would be able to justify cheating in sport context.
Lee et al., (2007)	The level of ethical attitude to moral decision making of illegitimate gains, by violating the rules of the game among athlete.

Operational Definition

Based on the literature review, the given term definitions, and a counsel of sports marketing expert, I modified the operational definition of the variables that are fit for the purpose of the research. These definitions are provided in Table 5.

Table 5

Operational Definition of the Variables

Variable	Operational Definition
Overconformity	The degree of excessive compliance individuals coincide with norms.
Media Consumption	The degree of individual's mediated consumption of professional baseball through communication.
Bracketed Morality	The level of disparity of an individual's temporary adoption on the legitimacy of prosocial and antisocial behaviors in sports and life.
Cheating Acceptability	The extent to which an individual perceives cheating as tolerable.

Research Model & Hypothesis

Research model. The research model consists of variables such as overconformity, sports media consumption, two subordinate factors of bracketed morality; anti-social, pro-social morality, and cheating acceptability.

This research contains two macroscopic types of hypothesis; first five hypotheses are on the causal relationship of individuals overconformity, media consumption, anti and pro-social morality, and cheating acceptability, and the last four hypotheses are to investigate whether anti and pro-social moralities which are the subordinate factors of the bracketed morality play a mediating role in the relationship between individual's overconformity and cheating acceptability, as well as individual's media consumption and cheating acceptability. Thus, the following represents the model to be employed at in this research:

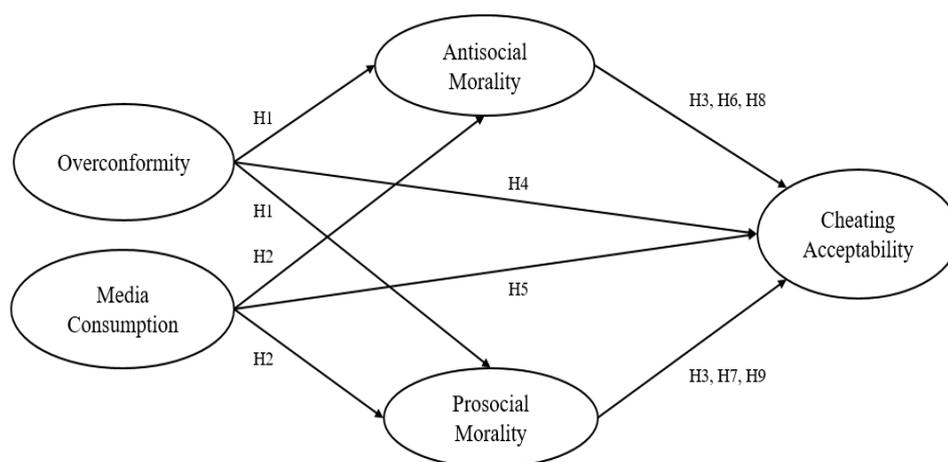


Figure 5. The research model of the study.

Hypothesis. H1: The impact of overconformity towards bracketed morality will occur differently between antisocial and prosocial morality.

H2: The impact of media consumption towards bracketed morality will occur differently between antisocial and prosocial morality.

H3: The impact of bracketed morality towards cheating acceptability will occur differently between antisocial and prosocial morality.

H4: Individuals with overconformity will have an influence on cheating acceptability.

H5: Individuals with media consumption will have an influence on cheating acceptability.

H6: In a relationship between overconformity and cheating acceptability, antisocial morality will have a mediating effect.

H7: In a relationship between overconformity and cheating acceptability, prosocial morality will have a mediating effect.

H8: In a relationship between media consumption and cheating acceptability, antisocial morality will have a mediating effect.

H9: In a relationship between media consumption and cheating acceptability, prosocial morality will have a mediating effect.

Method

Participants

The purpose of this research is to investigate whether a concept, bracketed morality of spectator has an influence on sports spectator's behavior of accepting cheating in sports. There are a limited number of studies that have measured the influence of bracketed morality of spectators on the acceptability of cheating. After a thorough review with the experts, an online survey and a self-administration method were carried out providing information about the purpose, period, and content. To achieve this purpose, Korean professional baseball league spectators were selected as the subjects of this research.

The data were collected over a period of three weeks in March, and April of 2017. Without twenty-five participants with an unusable data, a total of 392 surveys were collected and used in this research. The gender ratio of male and female participants were 65.8% and 34.2%, respectively. As for the age variance, participants in their twenties were 57.7%, thirties 31.6%, forties 6.4%, and over fifties were 4.3%. Lastly, the education status varied as high school graduate was 1.5%, currently enrolled in college 21.4%, college graduate 42.3%, enrolled in graduate school 18.4%, and post graduate school 16.3%. The detailed demographic variables are described in Table 6.

Table 6

Demographic Variables of the Research

Variable	Group	N	%
Gender	Male	258	65.8
	Female	134	34.2
Age	20-29	226	57.7
	30-39	124	31.6
	40-49	25	6.4
	50+	17	4.3
Education Level	High School Graduate	6	1.5
	College Student	84	21.4
	College Graduate	166	42.3
	Graduate Student	72	18.4
	Graduate Degree	64	16.3

Materials and Procedure

The survey items were developed after further revising an extent of topic related articles. The items were revised by sports marketing experts for correct translation from English to Korean, and proper transmission of the

questions' meaning. All of the items for overconformity, media consumption, prosocial morality, antisocial morality, and cheating acceptability are presented on a 7-point Likert-type scale borrowed from existing scales to be adapted to the research.

Overconformity and media consumption. The independent variables of this research are overconformity and media consumption. For this study, I selected five questions regarding overconformity from four different measurement scales developed by Gudjonsson (1989), Ortiz, Renolds, and Franke (2013), Duckworth and Quinn (2009), and Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994). Responses indicated on a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (7). The measurement developed for overconformity is shown in Table 7.

Table 7

Measurement Developed for Overconformity

Variable	Survey Item
Overconformity	1) I would describe myself as a very obedient person.
	2) I am extremely dedicated to refusing to accept limits in the pursuit of possibilities.
	3) Setbacks don't discourage me.
	4) I finish whatever I begin.
	5) Follows work rules and instructions with extreme care.

Media consumption was also measured from four different measurement scales developed and measured by Boyan (2012), Park (2007), and Phua (2010). Responses indicated on a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (7) with a total of three items.

Table 8

Measurement Developed for Media Consumption

Variable	Survey Item
Media Consumption	1) How often did you read about sports in newspapers?
	2) How much did you read about sports online?
	3) How often do you log on to the Internet (including Web sites, blogs, and message boards) to follow the latest news, statistics, and scores?

Cheating acceptability. The dependent variable of this research is acceptance of cheating. A modified questionnaire from Gardner and Melvin (1988), Lee, Whitehead, and Ntoumanis (2007), and Oliveira and Levine (2008) regarding acceptance of cheating was measured. Participants were provided with four items about cheating acceptability in sports. Responses indicated on a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (7).

Table 9

Measurement Developed for Cheating Acceptability

Variable	Survey Item
Cheating Acceptability	1) It is ok to cheat in order to achieve one's goals.
	2) Cheating is no big deal.
	3) It is ok to cheat if nobody knows.
	4) There is really nothing wrong with cheating, other than the risk of being caught.

Bracketed morality. The moderator variable for this research is the bracketed morality. A modified questionnaire from Kavussanu and Ring (2015) regarding bracketed morality was measured. Participants were provided with a total of eight items, four for antisocial morality and prosocial morality respectively. Four survey items for both antisocial and prosocial morality were divided into two items for given situations; sports dilemma and life dilemma. Responses indicated on a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (7).

Table 10

Measurement Developed for Bracketed Morality

Variable	Antisocial Setting
Antisocial Morality	<p><i>Sports dilemma:</i> During a regular game, a player from the opposing team tries to wind you up by repeatedly making annoying remarks about you. When the referee is not looking, you have the opportunity to physically intimidate him/her”.</p>
	<p><i>Life dilemma:</i> You are in a pub, and one of your friends has brought a friend whom you do not know. This person tries to wind you up by repeatedly making annoying remarks about you. When nobody can see you, you have the opportunity to physically intimidate him/her.</p>
Survey Item	
<p>1) How likely are you to physically intimidate this player/person?</p> <p>2) Do you think that physically intimidating this player/person is morally wrong?</p>	

Table 11

Measurement Developed for Bracketed Morality

Variable	Prosocial Setting
Prosocial Morality	<p><i>Sports dilemma:</i> During a regular game, an opposing player falls to the ground. He/she appears hurt and in a need of help. Your team has the ball and is in a scoring position. You are the only one, who has seen the player's distress. You have the opportunity to ask your teammate to stop play.</p>
	<p><i>Life dilemma:</i> You are on your way to give a class presentation when you see a student fall to the ground. He/she appears hurt and in a need of help. You are the only person, who has seen him/her in distress, but if you stop you may be late for your presentation. You have the opportunity to go over and help this student.</p>
Survey Item	
<p>1) How likely are you to ask your teammate to stop play/go over and help this student?</p> <p>2) Do you think that refraining from asking your teammate to stop play/ignoring this student is morally wrong?</p>	

Procedure

To test the hypothesis presented in this study, the analysis was executed by using IBM SPSS 22.0. AMOS 22.0 also was used to execute analysis of Descriptive Analysis, Reliability, and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). A descriptive analysis was carried out to identify the frequency and the demographic characteristics of the sample including mean and standard deviation. This research executed Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to test whether measures of a construct are valid and consistent with my understanding of the nature that constructs. Reliability is the lack of distortion or precision for a measuring instrument (Kerlinger & Lee, 1992). Reliability analysis was also performed to measure whether a set of variables is reliable in what it measures. This research measures Cronbach's alpha methods to assess reliability. Cronbach's alpha is one of the most popular methods to measure the internal consistency of a scale among other methods of analysis such as test-retest reliability and other alternate forms of reliability (Bae, 2002; Hair et al., 2006). Lastly, this study used Structural Equation Modeling to test the hypothesized structure.

Results

Descriptive Analysis

A descriptive analysis proceeded to identify the frequency and the demographic characteristics of the sample including analyzing the mean and standard deviation. The descriptive statistics regarding the variables used for this study, overconformity, media consumption, antisocial morality, prosocial morality, and cheating acceptability, are shown in Table 12.

Table 12

Descriptive Analysis Test Result

Variable	Item	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Over conformity	OC1	1.00	7.00	3.57	2.093
	OC2	1.00	7.00	2.78	1.921
	OC3	1.00	7.00	3.29	2.083
	OC4	1.00	7.00	3.39	2.223
	OC5	1.00	7.00	3.39	2.169
Media Consumption	MC2	1.00	7.00	4.90	1.311
	MC3	1.00	7.00	4.79	1.384
	MC4	1.00	7.00	5.46	1.200
Antisocial Morality	AMSP1	1.00	7.00	3.06	1.909
	AMSP2	1.00	7.00	2.97	1.841
Morality	AMSO1	1.00	7.00	2.93	1.906
	AMSO2	1.00	7.00	2.94	1.870
Prosocial Morality	PMSP7	1.00	7.00	4.57	2.062
	PMSP8	1.00	7.00	3.59	2.103
Cheating Acceptability	PMSO7	1.00	7.00	3.55	1.871
	PMSO9	1.00	7.00	2.74	1.744
	CA1	1.00	7.00	3.24	1.691
Cheating Acceptability	CA3	1.00	7.00	2.23	1.332
	CA4	1.00	7.00	3.27	1.798
	CA5	1.00	7.00	3.00	1.813

Note. SD = Standard Deviation.

Reliability Test

Reliability refers to the accuracy, consistency, and predictability of measured results, which is the variance of measured values that are repeatedly measured for the same concept. The high reliability of the measurement tool means that the same results can be obtained even with repeated measurements and that the measurement method is accurate, reliable, predictable, and consistent across the items that measure the variables.

In this study, reliability was measured using Cronbach's Alpha coefficient to measure the accuracy and reliability of measurement tools. Reliability is significantly higher when the Cronbach alpha coefficient is greater than 0.8, and the reliability of the measurement items is relatively high when the coefficient is 0.7 or more. In general, a reliability of 0.6 or more is acceptable (Nunnally, 1967).

In this paper, Cronbach's Alpha value is calculated as shown in Table 13 about individuals' overconformity, media consumption, antisocial morality, prosocial morality, and cheating acceptability. Table 13 indicates that the Cronbach's Alpha value of all variables was 0.7 or higher, stating that there was no problem in the reliability of the measurement.

Table 13

Reliability Test Result

Variable	No. items	α
Overconformity	5	.930
Media Consumption	3	.877
Antisocial Morality	4	.887
Prosocial Morality	4	.804
Cheating Acceptability	4	.873

Note. α = Cronbach's index of internal consistency.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Validity Test

Confirmatory factor analysis. Following the reliability analysis, confirmatory factor analysis was performed on all variables to verify the intensiveness of the items.

The results of the analysis are shown in Table 8. The criterion for measuring the internal consistency can be judged using the composite reliability (CR) and mean variance extraction (AVE) values (Henseler et al., 2009; Nunnally, 1978). CR should be above 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978) and AVE should be above 0.5 (Fornell & Larker, 1981) to confirm the conceptual reliability. The constructs used in this study all have a CR value of 0.7 or more and an AVE value of 0.5 or more, which can be said to be internally consistent.

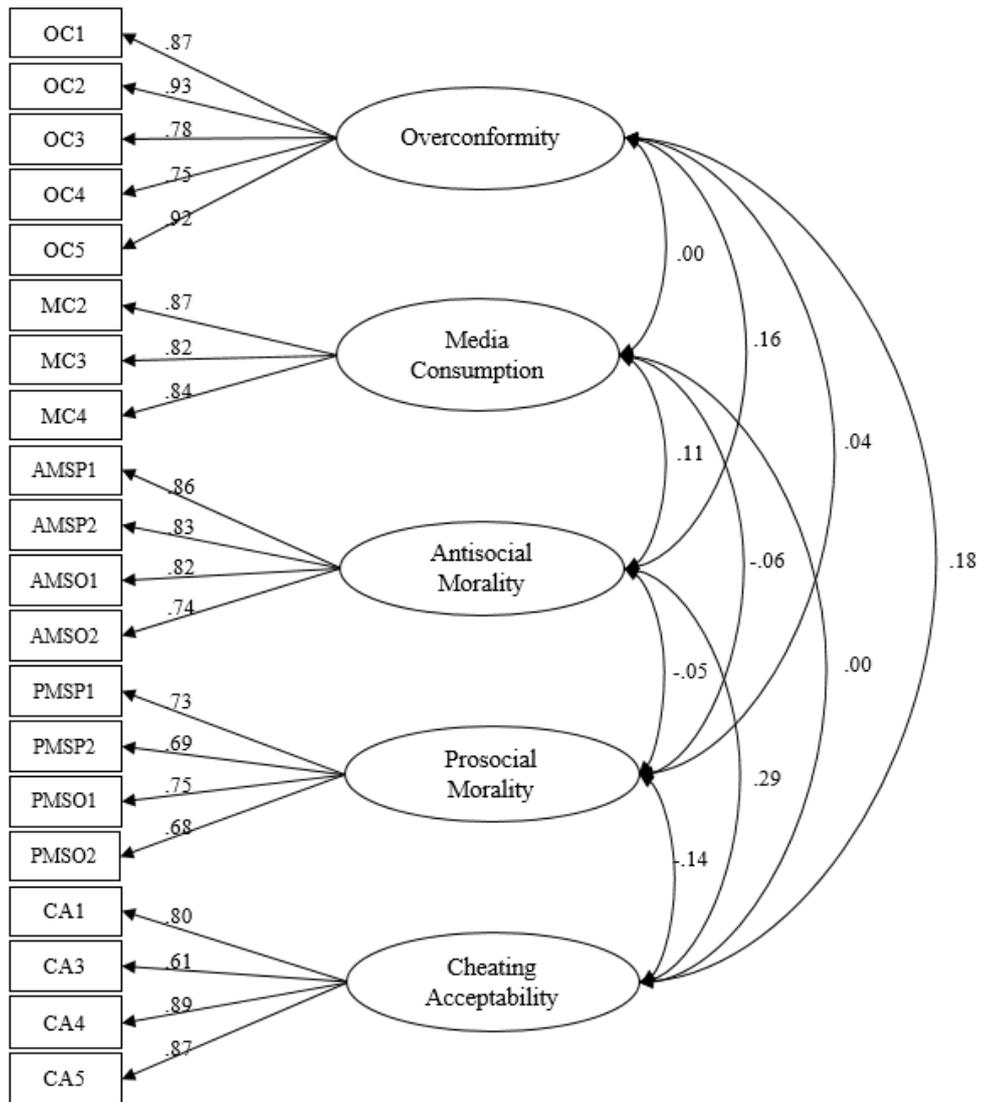


Figure 6. The result of a confirmatory factor analysis.

Table 14

Factor Loadings of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Variable	Item	<i>SE</i>	Factor Loading	CR
	OC1	-	.911	-
	OC2	.040	1.00	17.846
Overconformity	OC3	.042	7.00	19.599
	OC4	.035	1.00	31.510
	OC5	.035	7.00	29.186
Media	MC2	-	7.00	-
Consumption	MC3	.098	1.00	10.703
	MC4	.094	7.00	10.801
	AMSP1	-	1.00	-
Antisocial	AMSP2	.063	7.00	11.479
Morality	AMSO1	.065	1.00	11.861
	AMSO2	.083	7.00	11.837
	PMSP7	-	1.00	-
Prosocial	PMSP8	.095	7.00	11.854
Morality	PMSO7	.082	7.00	11.147
	PMSO9	.078	1.00	11.543
	CA1	-	7.00	-
Cheating	CA3	.048	1.00	12.552
Acceptability	CA4	.060	7.00	19.765
	CA5	.060	7.00	19.147

Note. *SE* = standard error; CR = critical ratio.

Table 15

Fit indices of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

χ^2	df	χ^2/df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
420.848	160	2.630	.934	.945	.065	.045

Note. TLI = tucker lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

* $p < .05$.

The results of the confirmatory factor analysis were $\chi^2 = 420.848$, $df = 160$, $p = .000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.630$, $TLI = .934$, $CFI = .945$, $RMSEA = .065$, $SRMR = .045$, so the overall fit of the model is considered appropriate.

Convergent and discriminant validity test. To verify the hypothesis, correlation matrix analysis was performed first, and the correlation of each variable was as shown in Table 10. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), if the extracted mean variance (AVE) of each factor is greater than the square of the correlation coefficient of the factor, then the discriminant validity of the measurement model is considered to exist.

Using the AVE value of the confirmatory factor analysis table, the values of AVE and the squares of the factors are compared and compared. It can be seen that the correlation coefficient values are all smaller than the AVE values. Therefore, it is analyzed that the discriminant validity of the variable is satisfied.

Table 16

Convergent and Divergent Validity Test Result

Variable	Validity		
	CR	AVE	MSV
Overconformity	.931	.730	.031
Media Consumption	.878	.705	.011
Antisocial Morality	.887	.663	.084
Prosocial Morality	.806	.510	.020
Cheating	.876	.643	.084
Acceptability			

Note. CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared variance.

Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation model fit test. This study is an experimental design to test whether individual overconformity and media consumption have a significant influence on the causal path between variables through causal models that influence the acceptability of fraud through mediation between antisocial morality and prosocial morality. The model test is a process of verifying the validity of the theoretical model presented in the study. If the model does not fit, the model is not valid.

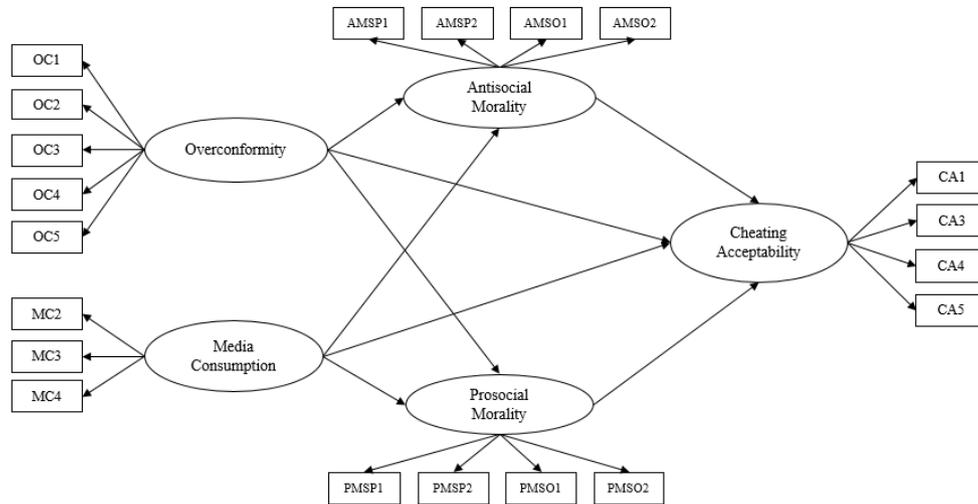


Figure 7. The casual relationship and path of the research model.

Table 17

Fit indices for Structural Equation Model

χ^2	df	χ^2/df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
421.725	161	2.619	.935	.945	.064	.046

Note. TLI = tucker lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

* $p < .05$.

The only statistical indicator that verifies the suitability of the model in the structural equation is the chi-squared statistic, which verifies the null hypothesis that the covariance matrix of the sample is equal to the covariance matrix of the study model that satisfies the condition of normality.

Therefore, the null hypothesis is adopted that the covariance matrix of the sample and the covariance matrix of the study model are the same

when the significance probability of the chi-squared statistic presented through the analysis is $p > .05$. However, this statistic is sensitive to the size of the sample, the type of data, the number of observations, and the simplicity of the model. Therefore, rather than making deterministic conclusions depending on the chi-squared statistic, it is necessary to comprehensively consider other fitness indexes such as absolute fit index, and incremental fit index (Hair et al., 2006).

Table 17 shows the results of the maximum likelihood method for verifying the overall structural model of this study.

Research hypothesis test. To verify the hypothesis of this study, the standardization path coefficient and the significance test of the structural model were tested. The standardized path coefficient for the study model is shown in Figure 8, and the standardized factor load for each factor. The results of the standardization path coefficient and significance test between each potential variable are indicated in Table 8.

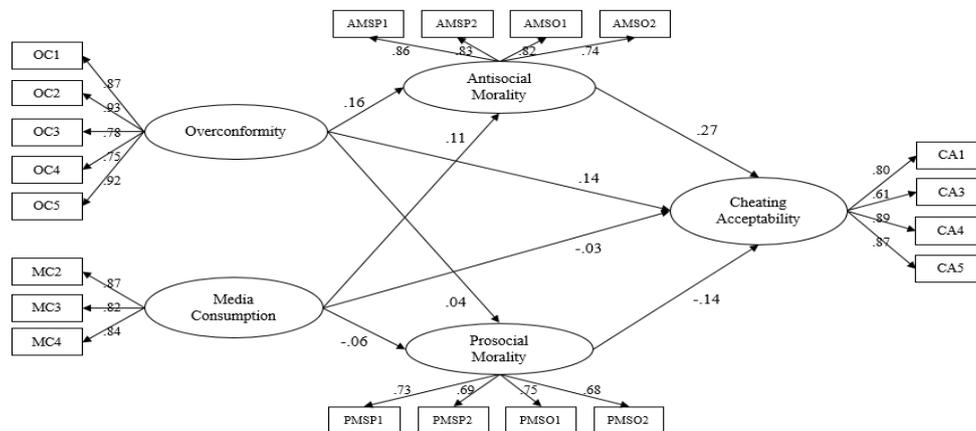


Figure 8. Standardization path coefficient of the research model.

Table 18

Significance Test Result of the Research Model

Path	Estimate	SE	CR	p
Overconformity → Antisocial Morality	.159	.049	2.931*	.003
Overconformity → Prosocial Morality	.044	.041	.760	.447
Media Consumption → Antisocial Morality	.107	.071	1.894	.058
Media Consumption → Prosocial Morality	-.059	.060	-.992	.321
Antisocial Morality → Cheating Acceptability	.266	.043	4.726*	.000
Prosocial Morality → Cheating Acceptability	-.138	.055	-2.403*	.016
Overconformity → Cheating Acceptability	.141	.037	2.654*	.008
Media Consumption → Cheating Acceptability	-.034	.053	-.624	.532

Note. Estimate = estimate of regression weights; SE = standard error; CR = critical ratio.

* $p < .05$.

1) H1: Individuals with higher conformity will have an effect on antisocial morality. The standardized path coefficient representing the relationship between the two variables was .163 ($p < .05$), which was statistically significant.

2) H1: Individuals with higher conformity will have an effect on prosocial morality. The standardized path coefficient indicating the relationship between the two variables was .042 ($p < .05$), which was not statistically significant.

3) H2: Individuals with higher media consumption will have an effect on antisocial morality. The standardized path coefficient indicating the relationship between the two variables was -.152 ($p < .05$), which was not statistically significant.

4) H2: Individuals with higher media consumption will have an effect on antisocial morality. The standardized path coefficient indicating the relationship between the two variables was -.002 ($p < .05$), which was not statistically significant.

5) H3: Individuals with higher antisocial morality will have an effect on cheating acceptability. The standardized path coefficient representing the relationship between the two variables was .314 ($p < .05$), which was statistically significant.

6) H3: Individuals with higher prosocial morality will have an effect on cheating acceptability. The standardized path coefficient representing the

relationship between the two variables was $-.116$ ($p < .05$), which was statistically significant.

7) H4: Individuals with higher conformity will have an effect on cheating acceptability. The standardized path coefficient representing the relationship between the two variables was $.137$ ($p < .05$), which was statistically significant. Thus, hypothesis 4 was adopted.

8) H5: Individuals with higher media consumption will have an effect on cheating acceptability. The standardized path coefficient indicating the relationship between the two variables was $-.148$ ($p < .05$), which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis 5 was rejected.

Mediation hypothesis test. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), the following four conditions must be satisfied to form a mediation relationship:

First, there must be a statistically significant relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable without considering the mediating variable. Second, the independent variables to correlate with the mediating variable significantly. Third, the mediating variable must be significantly correlated with the dependent variable. Last but not least, the Sobel test needs to be performed to test the statistical significance of the mediation effect.

The equation of the Sobel test, a method of testing the significance of a mediation effect, is as follows in Figure 9.

$$Z_{ab} = \frac{a \times b}{\sqrt{(a^2 \times se_b^2) + (b^2 \times se_a^2)}}$$

Figure 9. Sobel test equation.

If the Sobel test result is greater than +1.96 or less than -1.96, then the mediation effect is determined to be significant (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

To see the first step of the four conditions; path analysis is proceeded to verify whether the relationship between the independent and the dependent variable without considering the mediating variable is statistically significant. The standardized path coefficient for the model is shown in Figure 10.

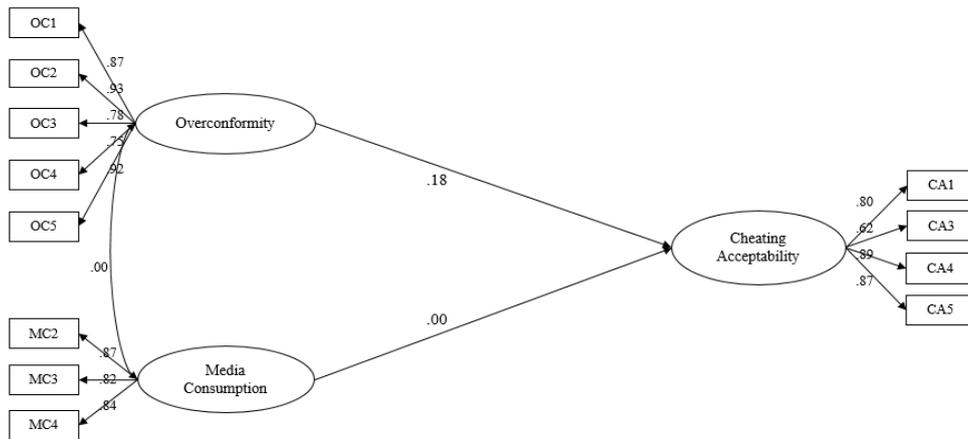


Figure 10. Direct path model without mediating variables.

Table 19

Fit indices of Direct Path Model

χ^2	df	χ^2/df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
133.658	51	2.621	.966	.974	.064	.030

Note. TLI = tucker lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

* $p < .05$.

Table 19 shows the results of the maximum likelihood method for verifying the direct path model without mediating variables in this study. The fit indices for the first step - direct path model – shows that all of the values are suitable for the study. The results of the standardization path coefficient and significance test between the independent and dependent variable are shown in Table 20 below.

Table 20

Significance Test Result of Direct Path Model

Path	Estimate	SE	CR	p
Overconformity → Cheating Acceptability	.177	.038	3.253*	.001
Media Consumption → Cheating Acceptability	.003	.054	.049	.961

Note. Estimate = estimate of regression weights; SE = standard error; CR = critical ratio. * $p < .05$.

The result shows that individuals' overconformity to cheating acceptability is significantly correlated ($p < 0.05$), as individuals' media consumption to cheating acceptability is not significantly correlated ($p > 0.05$).

The result of second and third step, path analysis of the independent and mediating variables, as well as the mediating and dependent variables respectively, is shown in Figure 11.

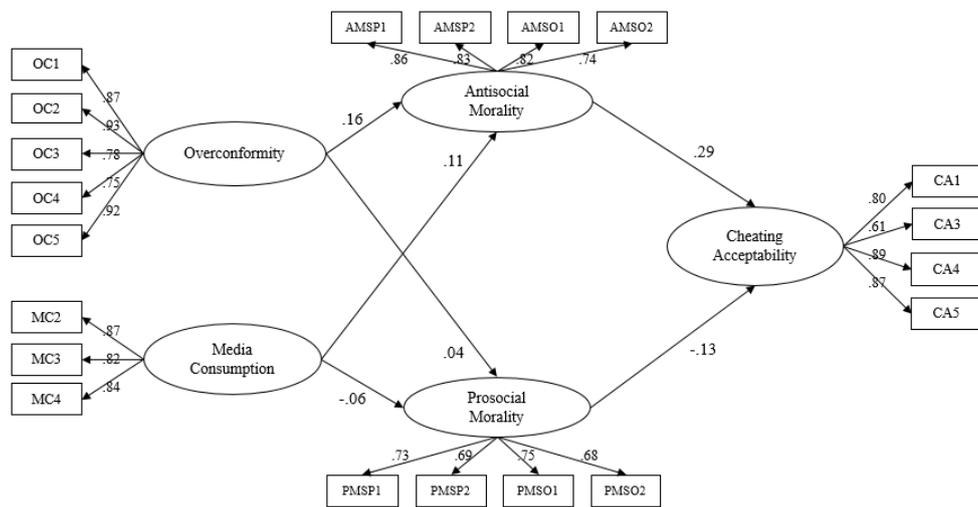


Figure 11. Indirect path model without direct path from independent to dependent variables.

Table 21

Fit indices of Indirect Path Model

χ^2	df	χ^2/df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
429.210	163	2.633	.934	.943	.065	.056

Note. TLI = tucker lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

* $p < .05$.

Table 21 shows the results of the maximum likelihood method for verifying the indirect path model without direct effect of independent to dependent variables in this study. The fit indices for the second and third step - indirect path model – shows that all of the values are suitable for the study. The results of the standardization path coefficient and significance test between the independent and dependent variable are shown in Table 22 below.

Table 22

Significance Test Result of Indirect Path Model

Path	Estimate	SE	CR	p
Overconformity → Antisocial Morality	.164	.049	3.026*	.001
Overconformity → Prosocial Morality	.040	.041	.689	.491
Media Consumption → Antisocial Morality	.105	.071	1.873	.061
Media Consumption → Prosocial Morality	-.058	.060	-.974	.330
Antisocial Morality → Cheating Acceptability	.287	.043	5.153*	.000
Prosocial Morality → Cheating Acceptability	-.127	.055	-2.204*	.028

Note. Estimate = estimate of regression weights; SE = standard error; CR = critical ratio.

* $p < .05$.

The result from the Table 22 shows individuals' overconformity to antisocial morality, antisocial morality to cheating acceptability, prosocial morality to cheating acceptability are significantly correlated ($p < 0.05$). Whereas, individuals' overconformity to prosocial morality, media consumption to antisocial morality, media consumption to prosocial morality are not significantly correlated ($p > 0.05$). Thus, the comprehensive

analysis of all the steps leads to following results which are shown in Table 23. The result of the mediation effect hypothesis test indicates that individuals' overconformity to antisocial morality to cheating acceptability has a partial mediation effect. Thus, hypothesis 6 is accepted as other three mediation hypotheses are rejected.

Table 23

The Result of Mediation Effect including the Sobel (1982) Test

Path	Steps		Sobel Test	<i>p</i>	Mediation
	First	Second/Third			
Overconformity → Antisocial Morality → Cheating Acceptability	✓	✓	2.498	.012	Partial
Overconformity → Prosocial Morality → Cheating Acceptability	✓	-	-	-	-
Media Consumption → Antisocial Morality → Cheating Acceptability	-	-	-	-	-
Media Consumption → Prosocial Morality → Cheating Acceptability	-	-	-	-	-

Note. First step = statistically significant relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable without considering the mediating variable; Second and third step = independent variables significantly correlate with the mediating variable and mediating variable significantly correlated with the dependent variable.

p < .05

Table 24 provides an overall result of the research model including the mediation hypothesis test. Five from the total of nine hypotheses, hypothesis one through four, and six are accepted as hypothesis five, and seven through nine are rejected.

Table 24

The Comprehensive Result of the Research Model

Hypothesis	Results
The impact of overconformity towards bracketed morality will occur differently between antisocial and prosocial morality.	Accept
The impact of media consumption towards bracketed morality will occur differently between antisocial and prosocial morality.	Accept
The impact of bracketed morality towards cheating acceptability will occur differently between antisocial and prosocial morality.	Accept
Individuals with overconformity will have an influence on cheating acceptability.	Accept
Individuals with media consumption will have an influence on cheating acceptability.	Reject
In a relationship between overconformity and cheating acceptability, antisocial morality will have a mediating effect.	Accept
In a relationship between overconformity and cheating acceptability, prosocial morality will have a mediating effect.	Reject
In a relationship between media consumption and cheating acceptability, antisocial morality will have a mediating effect.	Reject

In a relationship between media consumption and cheating
acceptability, prosocial morality will have a mediating effect.

Reject

Discussion

Based on the current macroscopic wonder between match-fixing in Korean professional baseball and undeterred number of sports spectators, the main purpose of this research is to provide an observation on why spectators seemingly accept cheating in sports and continuously attend baseball stadium.

Various scholars have shed light on moral reasoning and behavior in sport versus daily life as a possible explanation to this macroscopic wonder. The concept of bracketed morality is a variable that conceptualizes individuals' differences between prosocial and antisocial morality within a context of sports and society. Existing studies have proven the causal relationship of bracketed morality to explain the acceptability of negative behaviors in sports (Bredemeier & Shields, 1986; Kavussanu et al., 2002, 2013; Sage et al., 2006). Based on such idea, this study suggests three essential variables to analyze the sports spectators' acceptability of cheating in sports: A focus on the mediating effect of bracketed morality as well as two independent variables; overconformity, and media consumption.

In the following section, I will discuss major findings as well as both theoretical and managerial implications based on the results of the hypothesis testing drawn from previous theoretical studies. I will also discuss limitations of the study and prospect future research directions.

Findings

According to the results of this study, professional baseball spectators with overconformity and media consumption will influence on the bracketed morality, and the bracketed morality affects cheating acceptability. All of these occur differently between prosocial and antisocial morality. For the hypothesis test, there is a sole partial mediation effect of antisocial morality between overconformity and cheating acceptability.

More specifically, antisocial morality was influenced by higher overconformity, and higher antisocial morality was positively correlated with cheating acceptability. Baseball spectators with high antisocial morality can be analyzed as; antisocial behavior directed toward opponents was more likely to be carried out in a sports setting than the equivalent behavior in a daily life setting. Moreover, such moral behavior and judgments are deemed to be more acceptable alongside with cheating and watch baseball games disregard of cheating.

As for prosocial morality, on the other hand, high prosocial morality can be analyzed as not stopping to help someone in sports setting is considered to be more wrong than in a daily life setting. Thus, baseball spectators with high prosocial morality will not allow cheating and ultimately avoid visiting baseball games. Comparing with antisocial morality, the impact of overconformity and media consumption towards prosocial morality was positively and negatively correlated respectively.

Also, higher prosocial morality was negatively correlated with cheating acceptability.

Intriguingly, the result shows that media consumption is not predominant neither on bracketed morality nor cheating acceptability. Nevertheless, the literature on bracketed morality and cheating acceptability show a clear pattern of effects where the direct media consumption dramatically impacts spectators on moral development and cheating acceptability. The difference in the outcome may come from measurement issue of participant's experience of media consumption. Media consumption literature is either longitudinal study or asking participants their perceptions after exposing the media content, as the current study questioned the extensive amount of consumption regarding the topic.

Moreover, such difference would require future studies to examine media consumption in a more little perspective focusing specifically on cheating in sports. Possible items that could narrow down to be explored in future studies are: I have read or seen news regarding cheating in Korea professional baseball league, and I am familiar with the kinds of infractions or rules violations that are prevalent in Korean professional baseball league shown in media.

Implications

Theoretical implication. First, my findings extend the literature on the effect of bracketed morality (Bredemeier & Shields, 1984), and its

disturbing aspect of accepting cheating in sports. The study provides a further understanding of the modern paradoxical phenomenon of spectators accepting cheating in sports at a different demographic circumstance from the West, South Korea. Thus, this theoretical analysis provides sociocultural and psychological qualification as well to genuinely explain why sports spectators are in parallel with athletes on the bracketed morality.

Second, by previous research (Kavussanu et al., 2013), my results also indicate the importance of investigating the two dimensions of bracketed morality; antisocial and prosocial morality. These dichotomous moralities provide a more firm understanding of the moral reasoning and behavior in both sport and daily life contexts

Third, this present study extends the literature by providing new framework mediating sports spectator by implementing the concept of bracketed morality to sports spectator. The study is among first endeavors to apply the idea of bracketed morality in sports management field specifically geared towards sports spectators. By grafting the concept from the subject of athletes' perspective on to the sports spectators' perspective, the study is worthwhile to examine the suitability of the concept.

Managerial implication. The research provides basis for sporting organization on further understanding of moral behavior and judgment of sport spectators. The concept of bracketed morality can be a new tool to bridge the gap between the prevalent defraud in sport and the acceptance of

cheating among stakeholders in sports (e.g. athletes, coaches, referees, and spectators).

First and foremost, the removal of cheating and maintaining transparency would be the best solution for a sporting organization to create a virtuous cycle. Previous findings highlight the importance of educating fair play and negate moral disengagements to athletes from early ages, as well as coaches (Duda et al., 1991; Kavussanu et al., 2007; Kavussanu & Ntoumanis, 2003; Kavussanu & Roberts, 2001). By doing so, promoting prosocial morality and lowering antisocial morality is possible, ultimately eliminating cheating in sports. However, such practices are seen to be only idealistically possible since the first value in a highly competitive sport is to win every match no matter what it takes.

As for spectators, physical education teachers in an academic setting could adopt types of teaching methods that could promote collaborative learning rather than moral disengagement by competing against cohorts to increase prosocial morality from early on. The role of parents is another vital aspect of lowering bracketed morality and moral development of spectators.

Nevertheless, if cheating itself in sport is unavoidable, sporting organizations could focus on baseball spectators with high prosocial morality to increase the number of spectators. Based on the result of the present research, baseball spectators with high prosocial morality are the

ones who will not accept cheating. Sporting organizations can implement marketing strategies to attract those baseball spectators to a stadium for financial benefits.

Conclusion

The whole purpose of this study is to comprehend the bizarre phenomenon of increasing baseball spectators while cheating is constantly occurring. This study shifts focus from previous studies regarding the influence of bracketed morality of athletes dimension to spectator dimension and examine how this concept mediates cheating acceptability. The summary of the conclusion is as follows:

First, the only overconformity between overconformity and media consumption has a significant effect on bracketed morality.

Second, both prosocial and antisocial morality which are the subordinate factors of bracketed morality has a significant effect on cheating acceptability.

Last but not least, between the relation of indirect variables - overconformity and media consumption – and direct variable – cheating acceptability – bracketed morality has a partial mediation effect. Thus, there is a higher chance of sports spectators with higher bracketed morality accepting cheating in sports.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

While this research provides intriguing findings, these findings also

must be cautiously considered to be interpreted due to several limitations. First and foremost, the sample was drawn from Korean professional baseball spectators residing in Seoul and findings may not generalize to other populations in different areas. Also, the female sex ratio of the sample for the study is superfluous to the actual sex ratio of the KBO spectators. Thus, adjusting the sex ratio may provide a more accurate result of the study.

Second, although the researcher anonymously collected all the data, this research assessed morality by the likelihood of the behavior, not by the actual behavior. Previous research has revealed strong correlations between reported and observed behavior (Kavussanu et al., 2006), yet social desirability could alter the outcome of the reports. Thus, it would be an interesting research to see whether if the current research findings can be replicated to actual moral behaviors.

Future study can be conducted in other sports with match-fixing scandals since other major Korean professional sports, especially K-league, Korea's professional soccer league is suffering from lack of spectators due to match-fixing scandals. Thus, it would be intriguing to see whether if spectators with higher prosocial morality is one of the causes of lack of spectators.

Previous researches regarding bracketed morality, (Boardley & Kavussanu, 2007; Bredemeier & Shields, 1986; Kavussanu et al., 2013; Shields et al., 2015) focus on gender differences. Given researchers posit

males reporting higher bracketed morality than females. Thus, a comparative analysis of gender differences on bracketed morality and its effect on cheating acceptability could provide additional theoretical and managerial implications for the current study.

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Appendix

설문지

안녕하십니까?

본 설문은 프로야구 경기의 부정행위와 분류된 도덕성(Bracketed Morality) 이론과의 관계를 연구하기 위한 것입니다.

본 설문에 응해주신 여러분의 개인적 사항이나 응답 내용 등은 통계법 제 8조 및 제9조의 규정에 의하여 무기명으로 처리되며, 연구목적 외에는 절대 사용되지 않음을 약속 드립니다.

본 설문지에 나오는 문항들은 맞고 틀리는 것이 없으며, 각 문항을 잘 읽어보시고 여러분의 경험과 생각에 따라 한 문항도 빠짐없이 솔직하게 응답해 주시면 본 연구에 큰 도움이 될 것입니다.

설문에 참여해 주셔서 대단히 감사합니다.

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○ 다음은 사회적 규범에 대한 동조의 정도를 물어보는 질문입니다.

	항목	전혀 그렇지 않다 매우 그렇다						
		①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
1	나는 복종심이 강한 사람이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2	나는 원하는 것을 얻기 위해 모든걸 바친다.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
3	나는 실패에 절대로 좌절하지 않는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
4	나는 무슨 일이 있어도 주어진 임무는 끝까지 해낸다.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
5	나는 규칙과 규범을 절대로 어기지 않는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

○ 다음은 프로야구에 대한 미디어 소비의 정도를 물어보는 질문입니다.

	항목	전혀 보지 않는다 매우 많이 본다						
1	신문에 실리는 프로야구 소식을 얼마나 자주 보나요?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2	인터넷에 올라오는 프로야구 소식을 얼마나 자주 보나요?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
3	페이스북과 같은 SNS(소셜네트워크서비스)에 업데이트되는 프로야구 소식을 얼마나 자주 보나요?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

○ 다음은 반사회적 행동에 대한 “분류된 도덕성”의 정도를 물어보는 질문입니다.

스포츠 딜레마 Case 1								
경기 중 상대 팀 선수가 반복적으로 당신에게 모욕을 주어서 당신을 도발합니다. 심판이 보지 않을 때, 당신은 그/그녀를 때릴 수 있는 기회가 있습니다.								
	항목	전혀 그렇지 않다 매우 그렇다						
1	당신은 그 선수를 때리겠습니까?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2	당신이 그 선수를 때리는 것은 부도덕하다고 생각합니까?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
사회 딜레마 Case 1								
친구가 술자리에 당신이 모르는 사람을 데리고 왔는데, 그 사람이 반복적으로 당신에게 모욕을 주어서 당신을 도발합니다. 아무도 보지 않을 때, 당신은 그/그녀를 때릴 수 있는 기회가 있습니다.								
	항목	전혀 그렇지 않다 매우 그렇다						
1	당신은 그 사람을 때리겠습니까?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2	당신이 그 사람을 때리는 것은 부도덕하다고 생각합니까?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

○ 다음은 친사회적 행동에 대한 “분류된 도덕성“의 정도를 물어보는 질문입니다.

스포츠 딜레마 Case 1								
경기 중 상대 팀 선수가 부상으로 쓰러져 도움이 필요해 보입니다. 때마침 당신의 팀은 득점 포지션에 있고, 괴로워 보이는 상대 팀 선수를 본 것은 당신뿐입니다. 당신은 팀 동료에게 경기를 중단하도록 요구할 기회가 있습니다.								
	항목	전혀 그렇지 않다 매우 그렇다						
1	당신은 팀 동료에게 경기를 중단하자고 하겠습니까?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2	당신이 팀 동료에게 경기를 중단하자고 하지 않는 것은 부도덕하다고 생각합니까?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
사회 딜레마 Case 1								
수업 발표를 하러 가다가 한 학생이 쓰러지는 것을 보았습니다. 그/그녀는 다쳐서 도움이 필요해 보입니다. 괴로워 보이는 그 학생을 본 것은 당신뿐이지만, 가던 길을 멈추면 당신은 발표에 늦습니다. 당신은 쓰러져 있는 학생에게 도움을 줄 기회가 있습니다.								
	항목	전혀 그렇지 않다 매우 그렇다						
1	당신은 그 학생에게 도움을 주겠습니까?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2	당신이 그 학생을 외면하는 것은 부도덕하다고 생각합니까?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

○ 다음은 부정행위에 대한 수용성의 정도를 물어보는 질문입니다.

항목		전혀 그렇지 않다 매우 그렇다						
1	목표를 달성하기 위해 부정행위를 할 수도 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2	부정행위는 대수롭지 않은 일이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
3	아무도 모르면 부정행위를 할 수도 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
4	부정행위를 해도 들키지만 않으면 상관없다.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

○ 다음은 귀하의 일반적 사항에 대한 질문입니다.

1. 귀하의 성별은?	① 남자 ② 여자
2. 귀하의 연령대는?	① 10대 ② 20대 ③ 30대 ④ 40대 ⑤ 50대 ⑥ 60대 이상
3. 귀하의 학력 수준은?	① 고등학교 졸업 ② 대학교 재학 ③ 대학교 졸업 ④ 대학원 재학 ⑤ 대학원 졸업

○ 설문에 응해주셔서 대단히 감사합니다.

국 문 초 록

과잉동조와 미디어 소비가 스포츠에서의

부정적 행위 수용성에 미치는 영향:

- 분류된 도덕성의 매개효과를 중심으로 -

도 유 승
서울대학교 대학원
체육교육과
글로벌스포츠매니지먼트

흥미롭게도, 한국 프로야구의 관중 수는 프로선수들이 승부 조작과도 같은 비윤리적이고 부도덕한 부정적 행위를 반복함에도 불구하고 점진적으로 증가했다. 부정행위를 도외시하며 증가하는 관중 수의 역설적인 현상은 관중들이 스포츠 속에 만연하는 부정적 행위를 수용하는 것을 내포하고 있다. 이러한 관점에서, 본 연구는 부정적 행위에 대한 수용성의 다양한 속성 중 과잉동조, 미디어 소비, 그리고 분류된 도덕성이 어떠한 영향력을 미치는지 밝히고자 하였다. 특히, 분류된 도덕성은 친사회적과 반사회적 도덕성으로 나누어 각각의 영향력을 분석하고자 하였다.

이러한 연구 목적을 달성하기 위하여 본 연구에서는 TV, 인터넷, 등 매체를 통해 주기적으로 한국 프로야구 경기관람을 하는 집단을 대상으로 온라인 설문조사를 실시하였다. 과잉동조, 미디어 소비, 친사회적 도덕성, 반사회적 도덕성, 부정행위의 수용성을 측정하기 위한 설문지를 구성하였으며 총 392부를 최종 자료 분석에 사용하였다. 자료 분석을 위해 SPSS 22.0을 활용한 기술통계분석과 신뢰도 분석을 실시하였으며, AMOS 22.0을 활용한 확인적 요인분석(CFA)와 타당도 분석을 실시하였다. 가설검증을 위해서는 구조방정식 모형 분석(SEM)을 실시하였다.

본 연구의 결과는 다음과 같다. 첫째, 높은 과잉동조와 미디어 소비는 분류된 도덕성에 유의한 영향력을 미쳤다. 둘째, 분류된 도덕성은 부정적 행위의 수용성에 유의한 영향력을 미쳤다. 셋째, 분류된 도덕성은 과잉동조, 미디어 소비와 부정적 행위의 수용성의 관계에서 부분적 매개효과가 있음을 확인하였다. 결과적으로 스포츠 관람자의 분류된 도덕성이 높을수록 스포츠에서의 부정적 행위 수용성이 높은 것으로 나타났다.

주요어 : 부정적 행위, 수용성, 도덕성, 미디어 소비, 과잉동조

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